Career Decision-Making:

A Case Study of Independent Academic Expatriates

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Abstract

Although the number of transnational institutions worldwide has increased dramatically over the past decade, little is known about the "independent academic expatriates" (IAEs) teaching in those institutions.

This study investigates the influences that have shaped the decisions of 14 IAEs to seek and retain positions in a transnational institution in a developing country in Southeast Asia. Specifically, this study examines their reasons for leaving their previous job(s) and for joining and staying at the case institution. It also looks at potential and actual reasons for leaving the case institution.

The major outcome of this study is a grounded theory of how the respondents made decisions about whether to change job locations. Using grounded theory approaches, categories of reasons and types of IAEs emerged, on the basis of which a foundational theory of decisional job location is proposed.

The key concepts of this theory are that IAEs make decisions about a change of job location on the basis of personal, vocational, relational, institutional, and geographical reasons which exert "push", "pull" and "static" forces, the interplay of which influences the outcome of their decision-making to stay at or stray from their present job location. Furthermore, the relative prominence of each category and their overall pattern varies across IAEs, generating a typology. This typology consists of four types: Opportunist, "Kin-nected", Expatriate Partner, and Altruist.

The substantive theory of decisional job location contributes to the fields of transnational education, academic career development and expatriation by providing insights into the myriad of influences that shape the individual's decision to change job locations, thus enabling the case institution and similar transnational institutions to improve recruitment and retention. The study also gives a voice and identity to the growing number of IAEs working in transnational institutions around the world.

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CHAPTER 1: Introduction and Statement of Problem

1.1 Introduction

While studies exist on the experiences of teaching staff sent from the institution in the home country to teach on offshore programs (Dunn & Wallace, 2006; Gribble & Ziguras, 2003; McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007), only limited research has been done in-country on the experiences of teaching staff who have independently sought teaching jobs in transnational institutions overseas (Hipsher, 2008; Richardson, 2008; Richardson & Mallon, 2005; Richardson & McKenna, 2000, 2002a, 2002b, 2003; Richardson & Zikic, 2007). Within the literature on expatriation, such teaching staff are known as "self-directed expatriates" (Richardson, 2006), "self-initiated expatriates (Selmer & Lauring, 2010), "self-selecting expatriates" (Richardson & McKenna, 2002a) and, more recently, "independent expatriates" (Hipsher, 2008; Richardson, 2008).

This thesis investigates the experiences of 14 independent expatriates working at a branch campus of an Australian university in a rapidly-developing country in Southeast Asia. To distinguish them from those expatriates working in non-academic settings, I have coined the term "independent *academic* expatriate" (IAE) and will use it throughout to refer to them.

Specifically, this study looks at the influences that guided the decisions of these 14 IAEs to leave their previous job(s) and to join, remain at or leave the case institution. By looking at these influences, a picture emerges of the enormous variation in the decision-making of IAEs. While the study focuses on these individuals, the obverse side of the study is that it addresses very pressing personnel problems faced by all transnational institutions, namely, how to recruit and retain suitably-qualified IAEs.

1.2   Identifying the Problem

The central problem that this study seeks to address is the difficulty that the case institution, in particular, and transnational institutions, in general, face in recruiting and, more importantly, retaining well-qualified teaching staff. As an Australian branch campus abroad, the case institution is accredited by the Australian Universities Quality Association (AUQA). Lecturers teaching undergraduate courses are required to have a postgraduate (Master or higher) qualification in a related area to the course(s) they are teaching or significant industry experience. Those who are non-native speakers of English are also required to have an IELTS (International English Language Testing System) score of 7.0 or an equivalent TOEFL (Test of English as Foreign Language) score. In the context of a developing country, it is difficult to find expatriates with such qualifications. This may be due to difficult living conditions, the relatively low salary offered by the case institution, the absence of benefits such as housing and schooling or concerns about whether teaching at an offshore institution would enhance promotional prospects in universities in the developed world.

To gain an understanding of why and how this problem has emerged, it is necessary to look briefly in this introduction and more thoroughly in Chapter 2 at how globalisation and the internationalisation of higher education have led to the growth of transnational education. This, in turn, has fuelled the demand for well-qualified staff to teach on transnational programs, especially those in the developing world, since it is particularly difficult in these countries to find sufficient locals with the necessary qualifications and backgrounds to teach at university level. To improve recruitment and retention, we need to gain a greater understanding of the identities and

experiences of IAEs, who in the literature are something of an "unknown quantity" (Richardson, 2000).

1.3   Globalisation and the Rise of Transnational Education

In higher education, globalisation is seen as "the economic, political and societal forces pushing 21st century higher education toward greater international involvement" (Altbach & Knight, 2007, p. 290). Such involvement is embraced under the internationalisation umbrella of many institutions and is operationalised in many ways (Knight, 1996).   One of the most prevalent paths is the establishment of programs and institutions offshore. Whereas in the 1980s and 1990s, the trend was for international students to go from their home countries to foreign countries to undertake university studies (Harman, 2006), particularly in the last ten years, there has been a distinct shift, with an increasing number of universities venturing offshore to deliver their programs abroad (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007). This phenomenon of delivering education by a provider from one country to students based in another is commonly referred to as "transnational education" (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007, p. 1).

To take advantage of the demand for international higher education, institutions in English-speaking countries, in particular, Australia, the United Kingdom, the United States, and Canada, have been keen to internationalise by establishing programs and even branches overseas. The dramatic increase in the number of branch campuses worldwide has aggravated the shortage of well-qualified staff to teach on these offshore programs. Debowski (2005) explains that while most transnational programs initially relied on academics from the home country, this practice has proven increasingly untenable for reasons ranging from staff fatigue, to cost of hotels and airfares, to lack of cultural familiarity with the teaching situation. For these reasons, an

increasing number of institutions are seeking alternatives. Their preference is to recruit academics who may already be working in the host country or region on "local-hire" or "locally-engaged" terms and conditions (Grainger & Nankervis, 2001). Unlike expatriates working for multinationals posted from their home countries, locally-engaged staff are "unlikely to be compensated with a generous expatriate package" (Neault, 2005). Typically, these independent expatriates do not receive benefits such as international airfares, relocation fees, housing allowances, transport allowances, and school fees for children.

Although many of them may not be on generous expatriate packages, there still appears to be a growing number who decide to leave their home countries in search of teaching opportunities overseas. Richardson and McKenna (2002a) explain that the increase in the number of IAEs can be attributed to a variety of factors, including the redefinition of traditional academic careers towards a "Protean" model (Hall, 1976), budgetary cutbacks, lack of job security and increased competition for academic jobs in the home country.

This study thus engages a number of crucial questions, the answers to which will provide invaluable information to those responsible for the recruitment of academics, and, no less, to the expatriate academics themselves. Who are these independent academic expatriates? What are their motivations for leaving their home countries? Why have they left their previous job(s) and countries of residence to join the case institution? What has made them stay and what might impel them to leave? Are their decisions related to the case institution or are they based on personal reasons? The answers to these questions may well enable transnational institutions to make more informed and effective recruitment choices and to develop better retention strategies. As well, a more realistic understanding of the experiences of independent

academic expatriates will enable those who aspire to teach overseas to make informed decisions about whether or not to leave their home countries.

1.4   Research Questions

To address the above research problem, the following research question is posed:

What influences shape the decisions of expatriate academics to seek and retain positions in a transnational institution in Southeast Asia?

This can be broken down into a number of specific research questions (SRQs) as follows:

1. For what reasons did the expatriate academics leave their previous job(s) and previous country of residence?

2. Why did they choose their present job at the case institution?

3. Why have they chosen to extend their contracts at the case institution?

4. For what reasons might they leave the case institution?

1.5   Methodology

The nature of my topic and research questions dictates the use of the qualitative rather than quantitative methodology. Cohen and Manion (1994) explain the process of qualitative researchers:

> They [qualitative researchers] begin with individuals and set out to understand their interpretations of the world around them. Theory is emergent and must arise from particular situations; it should then be

'grounded' on data generated by the research act. Theory should not precede research but follow it (p. 37).

Of the many approaches that are available to qualitative researchers, grounded theory is my preference because of the rigour it offers in coding and analysis of data, its approach to theory development, and its constructivist approach to data analysis and interpretation. Although I have not been able to implement the principle of simultaneous data collection and analysis which is central to grounded research for reasons explained in Section 1.9, "Limitations of the Study", I have adhered to the principles of grounded theory particularly in data analysis and category, typology and theory generation because of its suitability to many aspects of my study.

Firstly, grounded theory is particularly suited to research with small numbers of participants in relatively unexplored areas about which there is little previous knowledge (Moghaddam, 2006). As my research on IAEs in transnational institutions is vastly under-researched, grounded theory should enable me to generate theory iteratively through an inductive-deductive process from a relatively small set of data, using categories drawn from the respondents.

Secondly, the value of grounded theory in organising and analysing masses of raw data (Moghaddam, 2006) strongly influenced my decision to adopt grounded theory methods. Grounded theory is based on an empirical approach to data collection and analysis and a constant comparative approach to theory development (Star, 1998). Through multiple rounds of data analysis followed by intense degrees of conceptualisation and abstraction, grounded theory has the potential to yield increasingly abstract categories, which can then be distilled into propositions to generate theory. This process of theory development aligns with Cohen and Manion's

(1994) position that in qualitative research, theory is emergent, should be 'grounded' on data, and should not precede but follow research.

Thirdly, grounded theory allows researchers to scrutinise subjective experience without having to remain external from it (Charmaz, 2003). In grounded theory, "no analysis is neutral" and the researcher and respondents share in co-constructing what is defined as data (Charmaz, 2003). Such constructivist underpinnings complement my position as an insider-researcher as it allows me to tailor each interview according to my knowledge of the background and sensitivities of each respondent.

To obtain extensive amounts of data with thick description, I interviewed 14 academics who had been employed for more than three years at the case institution, including three who had left (though one later rejoined). While two years is the length of a typical expatriate assignment in diplomatic, multi-national and expatriate circles (Pollock & Van-Reken, 1995), I chose to interview those who had exceeded this term as they would have had the opportunity to make more informed decisions on the basis of their knowledge and experience of the case institution and host country. Using maximum variation and criterion-based sampling, respondents were selected and interviewed and the data was coded and analysed using principles of interpretive analysis and grounded theory. Based on analysis of the data, categories and typology were identified and these were then distilled into a propositional theory of decisional job location. This theory helps to explain the main forces impacting the decisions of IAEs to locate themselves in the case institution and/or in the host country.

1.6   Significance and Outcomes

This research is of significance both from institutional, social and individual perspectives. Institutionally, the ability of a transnational institution to recruit and retain high calibre teaching staff impacts not only the academic quality of the institution but also affects its economic performance and academic reputation. There are also indirect costs associated with the time and money spent on recruiting and inducting an employee and the loss of institutional knowledge and capacity when an employee leaves.   Furthermore, there are direct financial costs associated with relocation, such as air travel, visas, health insurance and rentals that are borne either by the institution or the individual. The loss in productivity is also inevitable; the IAE's imminent departure tends to affect the employee's commitment and productivity, especially towards the end of the contract (Pollock & Van-Reken, 1995).

In social terms, the decision to leave impacts the IAEs and the people around them, including family, friends, colleagues and students. Close friends may grieve over the loss of a personal relationship. Colleagues may feel demoralised as yet another colleague appears to move on to greener pastures. Especially in the context of a developing country, the income provided by the expatriate to beneficiaries such as service providers, including cleaners, hairdressers, tailors, motorcycle drivers, and market vendors may be sorely missed.

To the IAEs themselves, job change can be very stressful. In describing the transition experience of those who move countries frequently, Pollock and Van-Reken (1995) describe five phases: involvement, leaving, transition, entering and reinvolvement. During the leaving phase, which begins once the expatriate has made the decision to leave, the process of detachment and loosening of emotional ties begins. This detachment can cause anger and frustration in personal and work

relationships and in the way work responsibilities are handled as there is tendency for the expatriate to "mentally check out".

Clearly, it is important for transnational institutions to recruit and retain suitably-qualified academic staff as there are economic, social and emotional costs associated with their departure. My research seeks to discover what transnational institutions can do to improve recruitment and retention of academic staff. Specifically, it seeks to identify the reasons the expatriate academics in the study left their previous jobs, chose their current job, have decided to continue working at the case institution and why they might leave or have left it.

1.7 Main Themes and Conceptual Framework

The following fields of study have contributed to the conceptual framework of this study: (i) globalisation and the internationalisation of higher education; (ii) transnational education and institutions; (iii) academic career development, and (iv) expatriation. The explicit justification for selecting these areas ties back to my research aims and questions. It is important to look at how internationalisation of higher education, brought about by increased globalisation, has led to an increase in the number of transnational institutions which, in turn, has raised the demand for teaching staff overseas. Likewise, concepts related to changes in attitudes to career development and expatriation should provide insights into why people seek to leave their home countries to take up teaching positions overseas and, more importantly, what influences shape their decisions to change or remain in a particular job.

1.8 The Thesis in Context

<u>**Background of the Researcher**</u>

To enhance the trustworthiness of the study, it is useful to provide a brief "autobiographical rendering" (Arminio & Hultgren, 2002). From March 2006 to June 2009, I was employed at a branch campus of an Australian university in a rapidly-developing country in Southeast Asia. To preserve the anonymity of my respondents and the reputation of the case institution, the country cannot be specified as there is only one Australian branch campus of such scale operating in the country.

As an academic manager at the institution, issues related to the recruitment and retention of academic staff, were of immense concern to me, hence my interest in researching this topic. Additionally, as an academic who has worked on several transnational programs in Asia over the past 20 years, both as a lecturer posted by the home institution and as an independent academic expatriate (IAE), I strive to accurately portray the lives and experiences of people like myself, who are often considered by our colleagues in the home institution to be peripheral and even inferior (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007).

<u>**The Host Country**</u>

Notwithstanding the need to preserve the anonymity of my respondents and the reputation of the institution, it is necessary to provide some background about the institution where the research was carried out as this allows the reader to locate the study within a geographical and cultural context. It also allows some degree of transferability in understanding how the findings might be applicable to other transnational institutions. Although I am unable to name the country where the research was conducted, henceforth referred to as the "host country", it is necessary for

me to explain in general terms the political, socio-economic and cultural factors related to the country and how they might influence the decision-making of my respondents.

In political and socio-economic terms, this is a country that emerged from civil war in the 1970s and was closed to the outside world until the mid-1980s. The years of the war and a subsequent trade embargo caused severe economic and social hardship. In the mid-1980s the country moved from a centrally-planned system to a socialist market economy. The 1990s saw a period of rapid economic growth, particularly following the lifting of the trade embargo in 1994, during which GDP doubled and poverty was reduced by 20 per cent (Varghese, 2007). In 1995, the country was admitted into the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN). Entry into ASEAN, which uses English as its lingua franca, has directly fuelled the demand for transnational education.

From a cultural perspective, as a Confucian society, the host country is one in which education is highly valued (Ashwill, 2005). That its first university was built in 1076 in honour of Confucius is testimony to the value that is given to education. Astoundingly, despite the war and poverty that the country has experienced, it claims a literacy rate of 94 per cent (Ashwill, 2005). The importance of education can clearly be seen in university enrolments. Between 1992 and 1995, the number of students attending local universities increased from 210,000 to 414,000, and the number doubled again between 1995 and 1997 (Ashwill, 2005). According to a World Bank Report, over 1.3 million students were enrolled in 230 higher education institutions in 2008. The overwhelming demand has led the higher education sector to be plagued by low teacher salaries, poor infrastructure and resources, large class sizes, outdated curricula and questionable results in providing graduates the skills needed for the new economy (Ashwill, 2005). The voracious demand for higher education paired with the

low supply of quality local provision has escalated the demand for private higher education. A report from UNESCO's International Institute for Education Planning (IIEP) predicts that by 2020, 40 per cent of all enrolments in higher education in this country will be in the private sector. The case institution is one such private higher education provider.

It is also important to look at the cultural aspects of the host country that impacts the status of teachers as this attitude clearly affects the experiences of the IAEs in the study. A graduate student from the host country is cited as saying "#1 Rule: Teachers are always right. #2 Rule: If not, see rule #1" (Ashwill, 2005). This demonstrates the unusually high level of respect that respondents in this study would receive working at the case institution compared to how they might experience teaching in many Western universities.

<u>The Case Institution</u>

As an introduction, the case institution is a branch campus of an Australian university. Opened in 2003, it is the first and only foreign-owned campus in the host country. At the time of the research, it had an enrolment of 5,000 students from 40 different countries. As an international branch campus, the case institution boasts a purpose-built campus with dedicated teaching rooms, computer labs, staff offices, a modern library, and facilities including a campus-wide IT wireless network, sports halls and grounds, eateries, a medical clinic, and student accommodation. In 2010, the case institution employed 284 teaching staff from 29 nationalities, over 95% of whom had sought their jobs independently (Cameron, 2010).

This institution was chosen as the venue for my research for theoretical and practical reasons. Because it has been in operation since 2003, there was the possibility

of investigating the lives and careers of expatriate staff who had been working there for at least three years. As well, because of the high number of teaching staff employed at the case institution, there was the likelihood of obtaining an acceptable number of interviews with respondents who met the above criterion.

In practical terms, the element of convenience in conducting the interviews was undoubtedly a key factor as I was working at the case institution when I began the study. In reality, by the time the interviews were conducted, I had left both the institution and the host country and had to return specifically for the purpose of research. While this proved both expensive and inconvenient, the fact that I was no longer an "insider-researcher" and part of the management team, yet I was well-acquainted with my respondents and the organisation, proved to be highly advantageous in enhancing trustworthiness.

1.9   Limitations of the Study

This study does not presume to represent all IAEs. In fact, several unique features of the case institution greatly influence the experience of the respondents in this study. Firstly, that the case institution has a purpose-built campus is significant. Many transnational programs in Asia operate out of rented facilities, for example, in office buildings, shopping malls, or even shop-houses (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007). Having a state-of-the-art, purpose-built building would certainly enhance the experience of lecturers at the case institution and influence their recruitment and retention decisions. Secondly, the case institution is located in a rapidly-developing country in Southeast Asia where the cost of living is highly variable depending on desired lifestyle. This allows the majority of expatriates on foreign salaries the opportunity to enjoy a standard of living higher than they would in most developed

countries. Thirdly, this country is not dominated by any major religion. In the absence of the strong Buddhist influence in places like Thailand or strong Islamic limitations in Malaysia, the secular nature of the country allows many foreigners living there to enjoy a high degree of personal though not political freedom. Therefore, while lessons may indeed be gleaned from the experiences of the respondents in this study, it is not possible to generalise widely about their experiences.

A further limitation is the sample size. As respondents had to meet the criterion of having worked at the case institution for more than three years, there was only a limited population for the study. Of these, 16 were invited to participate but only 14 were available during the interview period. It should be noted that although the sampling was further based on stratified maximum variation, because of the sample size it is not possible to reach conclusions about each stratum: gender, marital status, cultural orientation, job position, and professional background,

Thirdly, as I was no longer living in the host country when the interviews were conducted, 12 of the 14 the interviews had to be completed over a three-day period with the other two done prior to the visit. It was therefore possible to interview each respondent only once as the cost of flights, visas and accommodation made it difficult for me to return. However, methodological concerns over having only one interview were mitigated because of my familiarity with the respondents. I had been working closely with all 14 respondents for at least three years by the time of interview. This allowed me to delve into meaningful discussion on personal matters without having to spend a significant part of the first interview getting to know the respondents or trying to establish rapport and trust with them. As well, the respondents and I had shared understanding of many topics related to education, the case institution and the host country, so it was not necessary for them to elaborate on these, hence allowing us to

focus on the interview questions. In addition, information garnered from all professional and personal interactions with the respondents over the three years I had known them was used as data for the study.

Admittedly, because of my close relationship with the respondents and my initial position as an insider-researcher, bias is inherent in the study. The influence of this bias has been lessened by providing a clear autobiographical rendering of myself (see above). Further, when reporting the findings, extensive "in vivo" quotes will be provided to enable readers to see how interpretations were made and conclusions reached. The accepted practice of using electronic communication for follow up in grounded theory research (Corbin & Strauss, 2008a) was adopted. This was useful in providing supporting data to the single interview as I was able to carry out member-checking and seek clarification extensively through electronic-mail.

The need to conduct the bulk of interviews over a short space of time also hindered my methodology. It was not possible for me to adhere to the principle of simultaneous data collection and analysis, which is a fundamental trait of grounded theory. Nevertheless, I was able to conduct the first two interviews several months before the remaining ones, and this experience enabled me to refine the interview schedule and improve my interview technique such that the interviews became more of a conversation rather than an interrogation.

1.10   Overview of the Thesis

The thesis consists of seven chapters as summarised below:

This first chapter serves to introduce the background of the research by introducing the independent academic expatriate (IAE). It provides a brief overview of how globalisation has prompted the internationalisation of higher education,

specifically through the proliferation of transnational branch campuses abroad. This has led to an increase in demand for well-qualified teaching staff to deliver courses overseas. This chapter introduces the key research questions, justifies the choice of methodology, explains the significance of the research, and highlights the limitations of the study.

Chapter 2 explores the literature related to my proposed research problem. To develop an understanding of the key concepts and issues, the chapter explores the literature on globalisation and internationalisation of higher education, the development of transnational education and institutions, and academic career paths and job satisfaction, focussing particularly on the "Protean" career (Hall, 1976) as a model for academic careers. It then delves deeply into the literature on expatriation, specifically looking at reasons for leaving and experiences of expatriation.

Chapter 3 details the methodology of the study. It begins by comparing and contrasting the main paradigms of positivism and interpretivism by looking at their epistemological and ontological underpinnings. It then explains why and how a qualitative methodology and grounded theory approach are suitable for the chosen topic and area of investigation. A discussion of methods of data collection and analysis follows with justification for the use of the in-depth, semi-structured interview and grounded theory coding techniques. Issues related to ensuring trustworthiness, such as researcher positioning and bias, are discussed in detail.

Chapter 4 provides a summary of the theory that is proposed from the data. Using grounded theory approaches to coding, specifically open, axial and selective coding, emergent and recurring codes are identified and grouped into categories. Properties and dimensions related to each are analysed. On the basis of the analysis, a

typology of IAE comprising four types - Opportunist, "Kin-nected", Expatriate Partner, and Altruist - is presented.

Chapter 5 presents selections of raw data from the interviews with the 14 IAEs. The data is structured in response to the specific research questions of the study and according to the five categories - Personal, Vocational, Relational, Institutional and Geographical - that emerged from the coding.

Chapter 6 focuses on the development of a typology and provides a detailed description of each type as related to the 14 IAEs in my study.

Finally, Chapter 7 summarises the aims of the study, the methodology used, and answers the specific research questions. The significance of the findings is discussed, particularly with respect to how they can inform the practices of the case institution to improve recruitment and retention of academic staff and how they can help IAEs to make better decisions about job change. The final chapter also explains how the findings of this study can contribute to theory and practice in the field.

CHAPTER 2: The Literature Review

2.1   Introduction

This study aims to identify the influences that shaped the decisions of independent academic expatriates (IAEs) to seek and retain positions in a transnational institution in Southeast Asia. Specifically, it examines the influences that prompted them to leave their previous job(s) and to join, remain at or leave the case institution. To address these issues, the following main research question has been posed:

What influences shape the decisions of expatriate academics to seek and retain positions in a transnational institution in Southeast Asia?

This question is broken down into the following specific research questions:

(1) For what reasons did the expatriate academics leave their previous jobs and previous country of residence?

(2) Why did they choose their present job at the case institution?

(3) Why have they chosen to extend their contracts at the case institution?

(4) For what reasons might they leave the case institution?

To answer these questions, a review of the literature in the following areas has been undertaken: internationalisation of higher education; the rise of transnational education and institutions, particularly international branch campuses; academic career models and job satisfaction; and expatriates and expatriation. The explicit justification for selecting these areas ties back to my research aims and questions. It is important to look at how the internationalisation of higher education, brought about by increased globalisation, has led to an increasing number of transnational institutions which, in turn, has raised the demand for teaching staff overseas. To fill these positions,

institutions are seeking to hire independent academic expatriates (IAEs). By looking at the literature on academic careers and expatriation, specifically the reasons for leaving and experiences of expatriation, it is possible to gain an understanding of the influences that shape the decisions of IAEs to change job locations, institutionally and/or by country.

2.2   Internationalisation

The many articles reviewed on internationalisation of higher education implicitly or explicitly make a link between globalisation and internationalisation (DeVita & Case, 2003; Dimmock & Walker, 2000; Evans, 1995; Haigh, 2002; Hipsher, 2008; IDP, 2002, 2007; IIE, 2008; IMF, May 2008; Knight, 1996; McBurnie & Pollock, 2000; OECD, 2004; Rizvi & Walsh, 1998; Wildvasky, 2010; Zha, 2003). In the field of transnational education, globalisation is described as "the economic, political, and societal forces pushing 21st century higher education toward greater international involvement" or "internationalisation" (Altbach & Knight, 2007, p. 290).

Internationalisation of higher education takes many forms in practice. Some institutions regard it simply as recruiting more international students into the home institution (DeVita & Case, 2003). Internationalisation of the curriculum, sometimes seen as "a mere infusion of some international material into existing course syllabi", is another approach   (DeVita & Case, 2003, p. 268). Fortunately, as transnational education has matured,   internationalisation is understood as a multi-faceted process of integration rather than just a set of activities (Knight, 2003).

Most of the discussions on internationalisation cover student recruitment, curriculum and materials, training of teaching staff and administrative processes

(DeVita & Case, 2003; deWit, 1995; Knight, 2003; Leask, 2004; Van-Damme, 2001) . However, one aspect of internationalization that is missing is internationalisation through recruitment of teaching staff from a range of nationalities. An institution may choose this path to provide students with different cultural perspectives. As well, the institution may find it easier to recruit third-country nationals, that is, those not from the home or host country. Especially in Asia, where there is a large pool of qualified, English-speaking academics from countries such as Singapore, Malaysia, the Philippines and Thailand, it may be cheaper and more effective to employ local or regional "Asian" academics. This aspect of internationalisation is important to my research as the case institution employs staff from over twenty nationalities. Literature sheds little light on the challenges of hiring and managing a multi-cultural cohort of teachers. While Napier's (1997) study does focus on the experiences of a multicultural team of expatriate teachers in the host country, its focus is on visiting professors rather than long-term lecturers.

For internationalisation to be successful, institutions clearly need to embrace these different aspects of internationalisation. However, the responses of most institutions tend to be far more fragmented (Knight, 2003). In the last decade, one of the most common ways that institutions have responded to the call to internationalise is by exporting their programs. Increasingly, they are establishing "bricks-and-mortar" campuses in host countries. The case institution is one such branch campus, located in a rapidly developing country in Southeast Asia, one of the fastest growing regions of transnational education consumption.

2.3   Transnational Education and Institutions

As transnational education is a fairly recent phenomenon, it is not surprising that definitions and terminology used in this field are vague. In its broadest sense, transnational education includes distance education, twinning, articulation, franchising agreements and branch campuses (McBurnie & Pollock, 2000). In this section, I will review some of the existing terminology in this area with a view to providing clarity, consistency and relevance to my present study.

The term "transnational education" is often used synonymously with "offshore" and "cross-border" education to describe any education in which an institution based in one country delivers education to students located in another country (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007).   The Global Alliance for Transnational Education (GATE) regards transnational education as "any teaching or learning activity in which the students are in a different country (the host country) to that in which the institution providing the education is based (the home country)" (GATE, 1997, p. 1). The Australian Department of Education, Science and Training (DEST) regards it as "the delivery and/or assessment of programs/course by an accredited Australian provider in a country other than Australia, where delivery includes a face-to-face component" (DEST, 2005, p. 6). Although the requirement of "face-to-face teaching" is admonished for being narrow and outdated (USQ, 2005), for the purposes of my study, which focuses on the academic staff who teach offshore, this definition offers specificity and clarity.

An aspect of transnational education that is seldom mentioned but highly relevant is that courses are delivered by Anglophone universities (universities from English-speaking countries) in the medium of English to students who use English as a second or foreign language.   While there are known exceptions of Australian

universities delivering courses through partner institutions in China in Mandarin (Debowski, 2005), by and large, where face-to-face instruction is provided, it is done in English. The rise of English as a lingua franca for higher education has, therefore, raised the demand for English-speaking academic expatriates to teach on these programs.

2.4   Rising Demand for Transnational Higher Education

There are a multitude of reasons behind the phenomenal demand for transnational higher education. While it is not viable in this thesis to delve into them all, it is necessary to look at some of the key drivers. In *The Great Brain Race*, Ben Wildavsky (2010) chronicles and analyses the various dimensions of the growing "globalisation" of education, including the rapid spread of branch campuses. He writes:

> There is no single why, of course, but a constellation of reasons: the quest to build knowledge-based economies that has had so many governments to scramble to improve higher education systems; the notion that a well-educated person today must be exposed to ideas and people without regard to national boundaries; the enormous student demand for foreign degrees; the financial attraction for many Western universities of overseas students who pay full freight; the prestige that many colleges seek in international initiatives as they begin seeing themselves as global rather than purely local players; and the practical fact that communication, faster and cheaper transportation allow people to teach, study, collaborate and compete across national borders as never before (p. 5).

Although Wildavsky's list is piecemeal and unsystematic, it touches on the wide range of reasons. However, he fails to mention one of the most important reasons, that is, the belief that access to higher education should not be restricted to the elite but should be for all (Wooldridge, 2005). To understand why and how the demand for transnational higher education has increased, we must examine the demand for higher education in general. Between 1975 and 2000, the proportion of adults with higher education qualifications in OECD countries almost doubled from 22 to 41 per cent (Wooldridge, 2005). This democratisation or "massification" of higher education has now spread to many developing countries, with China and India standing out as two experiencing tremendous growth (IDP, 2007).

In response, many governments are "scrambling" to improve their higher education systems to meet the demands of the "knowledge economy", with China, South Korea, Saudi Arabia, Germany and France investing heavily in creating American-style research institutions (Wildvasky, 2010). Particularly in countries where local providers have not been able to offer sufficient places or where the quality of teaching is poor, the demand for transnational higher education has soared.

The spread of transnational education is also driven by economic factors. In looking at globalisation, McBurnie and Ziguras (2007) assert that the economic dimension of globalisation is the key driver. Economic globalisation refers to "increasing integration of economies around the world, particularly through movement of goods, services, and capital across borders" (IMF, May 2008) . Because of interdependence brought about by globalisation, economic conditions in some of the traditional provider countries, notably the United Kingdom and the United States, have repercussions on the entire transnational education market. According to a BBC News report dated 28 January 2011, in October 2010, the UK government announced cuts of

40 per cent to higher education over the following four-year period. In December 2010, the government passed a law allowing British universities to charge up to 9,000 British pounds per year starting in 2012 (www.bbc.co.uk/news/education). These measures are predicted to lead to deteriorating job conditions such as higher workloads and bigger class sizes and a general decline in the quality of education provision. Teaching staff who are disillusioned by the policies and conditions may well seek job opportunities in the growing number of transnational institutions abroad.

In summary, the demand for and provision of transnational higher education has grown dramatically in the last ten years. How is transnational education implemented? In one of the earliest academic articles on this subject, McBurnie and Pollock (1998) describe six ways in which education might be delivered transnationally: distance education; locally-supported distance education; twinning programs; articulation programs; franchising agreements; and branch campuses. As branch campuses are the focus of my study, I will now look at this particular form of transnational education in detail.

2.5   International Branch Campus

The international branch campus is becoming the favoured mode of delivering transnational higher education. The number of branch campuses has risen by 60 per cent since 2005, concentrated in the Middle East and Southeast Asia (Wildvasky, 2010). Jaschik (2009) and Altbach (2010) both cite data from the Observatory on Borderless Higher Education indicating that the number of branch campuses has increased by 43 per cent total over three years. These dramatic figures may be somewhat misleading as it is not clear what counts as a branch campus.

Definitions of an international branch campus are "slippery" and continue to elude the field, with no single one covering the breath of possible set-ups (Altbach, 2010). Commonly, the definitions look at ownership structure, physical presence, course delivery, degrees awarded and student composition. As my research takes place at a branch campus, it is important to look in detail at how the case institution stands up to notions and expectations of an international branch campus.

Reporting on a survey of 40 branch campuses abroad conducted by the American Council for Education (ACE), Green (2010) presents guidelines identifying the range of possible branch campus set-ups. According to these guidelines, branch campuses abroad may be identified by having one or more of the following features:

- The branch campus rents or owns educational facilities (this could include a library, laboratories, classrooms, and/or faculty and staff office space) in a different country (from the U.S.) parent institution;

- The branch campus offers courses in more than one field of study leading to a degree;

- The degree bears the parent institution name (either alone or with a partner institution);

- The branch campus is where students take a majority of their courses and finish their degree;

- The branch campus offers face-to-face instruction; and/or

- The branch campus has permanent administrative staff.

These guidelines are very useful as they are based on actual practice of what institutions are doing rather than theoretical notions of what a branch campus should or should not be doing.

McBurnie and Ziguras (2007) add that the difference in the possible set-ups of branch campuses is vast. These may range from "full-service" to "campus-lite" models. Full service models include "bricks-and- mortar" buildings in the host country partly or fully owned and operated by the awarding institution. Courses include a substantial amount of face-to-face teaching. The teaching is supported by infrastructure that is traditionally found in universities, including libraries, laboratories, classrooms, faculty, and staff offices. In addition to teaching, the institution should have a research and community engagement agenda. They note, however, that this represents the "ideal" or " top-end" scenario (p. 6).

Measured against the above criteria, the case institution meets all of the guidelines. It owns a purpose built campus which is fully-owned by the home institution. At the time of interview, the case institution offered three degree courses and an MBA. Upon graduation, students received the same degree as their counterparts in the home institution with no mention of the location of the host institution. The preference for such seems to suggest that degrees earned in the institution's home campus are somehow better than those earned fully overseas. Students at the case institution also received the same number of face-to-face teaching hours as students at the home institution. At the time of research, the case institution employed a total of 284 teaching staff and 118 support including administrative, clerical, maintenance and other non-academic staff (Cameron, 2010).

In addition to having all of the above characteristics, it also had sporting facilities including tennis courts, playing fields, student lounges, and several food outlets at the time of interview. Since then, a swimming pool, a gymnasium, an indoor recreation centre, and student dormitories have been added. If and how these characteristics influence the decision of IAEs to continue working there is an

important question. Do the physical surroundings, facilities, modern amenities and general "developed-country" conditions influence the decision of teaching staff, especially experienced amidst the backdrop of "developing-country" conditions? Does the ownership structure, which guarantees academic freedom and integrity, affect their decision-making? Are IAEs attracted by the reputation of the home campus and by the range of courses offered? These and other such questions are investigated in this research.

In conclusion, there is no universally-accepted definition of an international branch campus, yet it is a transnational structure that is burgeoning around the world. The fact that an increasing number of articles are being written about branch campuses and that the earliest and most eminent early scholars on transnational education (Altbach, 2010; McBurnie & Ziguras, 2011) have now turned their attention to this subject testifies to the degree of importance and current interest in it.

One of the most pressing problems related to international branch campuses is how to provide "well-qualified" teaching staff. As mentioned above, at the time of interview, the case institution employed 284 teaching staff, of whom nearly 95 per cent were foreign nationals. As reported by the Vice-President of the case institution, the initial intent was to employ locals who had been trained overseas, but local parents and students who were paying fees comparable to the amounts they would pay overseas demanded foreign teaching staff (Scown, 2012). If the case institution alone, just one branch campus, needed nearly 300 teaching staff, then how many more staff will be needed by the growing numbers of international branch campuses, especially in rapidly-growing regions such as China, India, Southeast Asia and the Middle East? More importantly, how will these institutions be able to recruit and retain well-qualified staff in the midst of such great demand? My research seeks to shed some

light on this issue by investigating the influences that shape the decisions of independent academic expatriates to seek and retain jobs overseas.

2.6   Staffing at Transnational Institutions

Most Australian transnational programs initially relied on lecturers from the "home" institution being sent to the "host" institution to teach on the transnational programs (Debowski, 2005; McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007). This was mainly to satisfy students and parents, who felt that regular teaching by senior staff with doctorates and with extensive teaching, research and industry experience from the home university, significantly enriched the local program (Debowski, 2005). However, over time, this practice has been found to be non-sustainable for financial and physical reasons. Financially, the increasing cost of airfares, hotels, visas, medical insurance and allowances for visiting lecturers limited the economic viability of overseas programs. Physically, academics travelling overseas regularly to teach on offshore programs were subject to severe physical and emotional strain. Often still suffering jet-lag, these lecturers were still expected to juggle intensive teaching with student consultations when offshore while maintaining their research and teaching profiles in their home institutions. The strain and discomfort experienced by these offshore academics are captured by Debowski (2005):

> They [Visiting lecturers] found their involvement in offshore teaching to be very demanding, particularly as the teaching period spanned weekends … These academics travelled economy class, seated with their laptops precariously poised on top of a food tray and elbows melded to the person beside them. Despite having a day of travelling each way, there was little opportunity to conduct fruitful or productive work (p. 254).

While many universities are moving away from the model of sending teaching staff from the home institution, rather allowing the host institution to employ suitably-qualified lecturers locally, the tendency among American branch campuses is still to use professors from the home institution in short, intensive stints (Altbach, 2007). Where this is not possible, local partners will attempt to recruit Americans who are teaching at other institutions in the host country on a part-time basis or attract full-time staff from local or regional institutions.

Insisting on the need to use home country nationals to teach on these programs, Altbach (2007) refers to the widespread proliferation of transnational institutions as the "McDonaldisation" of education. He asks the question: "Is the meal (degree) a true McDonald's hamburger if only the recipe (curriculum) come from McDonalds. The rest of the process – the ingredients (facilities) and the cooks (professors) – are local?" (Altbach, 2007, para. 3). He admonishes offshore programs for not using "star" research-active professors. Instead, the teaching is done by "local hires" or staff "moonlighting" from other institutions. Altbach's position on the need to use "star research-active professors" is highly questionable as is his attitude that "local hires" or "moonlighting" staff are inferior. There is no evidence that "star" research-active professors are better teachers, especially of students who use English as a second or foreign language. In fact, the literature on the skills, competencies and attitudes needed to teach effectively in offshore settings may suggest otherwise.

From the early days of transnational teaching there emerged a plethora of articles on preparedness of academics to teach overseas (Bodycott & Walker, 2000; Dunn & Wallace, 2006; Gribble & Ziguras, 2003; Leask, 2004). The articles highlighted the importance of cultural inclusivity in curriculum and pedagogy, which includes knowing about the social, cultural, political, economic and legal background

of the host country. According to these articles, transnational educators also need to be aware of the different learning styles of their students. Further, as the bulk of students enrolled in transnational institutions overseas come from non-English speaking backgrounds (NESB), transnational educators also need to be aware of the students' linguistic needs and adjust their own use of language accordingly.

For academics living in the host country, their own cultural adjustment can help them to develop inter-cultural understandings (Bodycott & Walker, 2000), which over time, results in adaptation of specific teaching strategies. Without the benefit of pre-departure training and extended periods in the host country to adjust to the local learning environment, it is questionable whether even "star research-active professors" would be able to teach effectively, especially if working with non-English-speaking-background students.

The dilemma of whether transnational institutions must engage lecturers from the home institution or whether they can rely on locally-engaged teaching staff is of great significance to my study as the case institution neither uses staff posted from the home institution nor does it employ only Australian academic staff. Mainly it recruits staff locally or regionally. Recruiting locally is preferable not only for financial reasons, but it also benefits the teaching and learning situation. Coleman (2003) asserts that the "linguistic ability and cultural familiarity may have hidden advantages, such as facilitating a process of staged acculturation" (p. 365).

As shown above, Western universities are increasingly participating and competing in international higher education by offering programs overseas. Many have even established branch campuses overseas. In consequence, the demand for qualified and experienced teaching staff to teach on these programs has grown. For economic as well as pedagogical reasons, many transnational institutions are moving

towards recruiting teaching staff locally. The next section looks at the literature on academic careers and factors related to job satisfaction to explain why some academics might opt to leave their home countries to take up teaching assignments in a host country.

2.7 Academic Careers

In mainstream careers, since the 1980s the concept of career development has changed dramatically from linear and uni-dimensional to multi-directional (Baruch & Hall, 2003). In the past, employees were expected to develop long-term career relationships within an organisation (Baruch, Steele, & Quantrill, 2002) However, new career paths that are multi-directional, dynamic and fluid have emerged. Collin and Young (2000) assert that new careers develop beyond organisational and occupational boundaries. In the age of globalisation, geographical boundaries are also transcended with many managerial jobs benefitting from international experience (Arthur, Inkson, & Pringle, 1999).

A term used to describe these new career paths is "Protean", derived from the name of a Greek mythological figure, Proteus, who was famed for his ability to change shapes to adapt to imminent threats. The "Protean" career was conceived of by Douglas Hall in 1976 in *Careers in Organisations*. It was one of the earliest and most influential articles on changing career patterns. As this idea is central to my thesis in explaining the motivations of expatriates to obtain jobs overseas, it is necessary to examine this concept closely:

I describe the "Protean" career (vs. the traditional career) as one in which

the person, not the organisation, is in charge, the core values are freedom

and growth, and the main success criteria are subjective (psychological success) vs. objective (position, salary). (Hall, 1976, p. 4)

In much of the literature, the "Protean" career typifies most academic careers, embracing "new" career themes of self-management, working within multiple organisations, and multi-directional career advancement (Baruch, et al., 2002; Hall, 1976). The typical academic career model in the United States and the United Kingdom has for some time displayed unique features including multi-directional movement within and beyond the institution and even beyond geographical borders (Richardson & McKenna, 2002a). Not uncommonly, academics take up short-term appointments such as deanships, research positions or secondments to government bodies then return to lecturing positions. As well, cross-organisational collaboration and networking are encouraged. Academics may also move to universities overseas to pursue excellence in areas of research or take sabbaticals during their career. In nearly all of these cases, the academic initiates these career changes.

The "Protean" career's focus on psychological factors also aligns with academic careers. In the present climate of postmodern liberalism, the interest in psychological factors is not surprising. For example, there has been an increase in academic scholarship on "happiness". Australian academics Barker and Martin (2009) note: "There is a burgeoning amount of research into happiness and greatly increased popular attention" (p. 1). Martin's recent article (2011) entitled "On being a happy academic" discusses what academics can do to increase job satisfaction. As increased job satisfaction undoubtedly affects the decision of academics to remain in their present job location, this article is of immense relevance to my study.

The author claims that academics are driven less by materialism and more by rank and reputation (Martin, 2011). One of their main sources of happiness is entering

the "flow", a state of being totally engrossed in a task without notice of time elapsing. To many academics, this state can be achieved through research activity. Hence activities that take academics away from research, such as administrative tasks, repetitive teaching tasks and endless meetings become a source of job dissatisfaction. Another way for academics to achieve happiness is by nurturing relationships at work with colleagues, other researchers, students, protégés, or within the community. Notably, relationships with research students offer a deep sense of satisfaction in academic life. Finally, having opportunities to help others increases happiness at work. As academic teaching centres on helping students to learn, broadening their horizons and preparing them for life, academic careers can be inherently satisfying. In the context of my study with IAEs from a range of cultural backgrounds, it will be enlightening to investigate if these three aspects of happiness apply.

Research on happiness in academic careers is not restricted to Australian university circles. In America, books such as *The Courage to Teach* (Palmer, 2007) and *The Heart of Higher Education* (Palmer, Zajonc, & Scribner, 2010) have enjoyed wide readership in academic circles. These books explore education and teaching as a spiritual journey. The writers (Palmer, et al., 2010) emphasise psycho-spiritual aspects of career such as "vocation" or "calling", describing a "vocation" as "the place where your heart's deep gladness and the world's deep hunger meet" (p. vii). In describing his job as a university teacher, Palmer uses the word "calling" (Palmer, 2007). Though these terms are borrowed from psycho-spiritual education, they are of immense significance to my study, which is located in a developing country with many "deep needs". Do the independent academic expatriates in my study regard their work at the case institution as a "job" or a "calling", or both?

Without doubt, job satisfaction contributes to academic happiness. Academics who are happy in or satisfied with their jobs are less likely to leave their current job and institution. As my study seeks to identify reasons IAEs left their previous job(s) and what might press them to leave the case institution, it is important to examine the literature on academic or faculty turnover, particularly the concept of job turnover intention, which includes intent to stay and intent to leave (Conklin & Deselle, 2007; Daly, 2006; Honeyman & Summers, 1994; Metcalf, Rolfe, Stevens, & Weade, 2005).

Surveys on faculty turnover in the United Kingdom and the United States shed some light on academic job change (Conklin & Deselle, 2007; Daly, 2006; Honeyman & Summers, 1994; Metcalf, et al., 2005). "The Recruitment and Retention of Academic Staff in Higher Education" by the National Institute of Economic and Research (Metcalf, et al., 2005) surveyed part-time and full-time research and lecturing staff from ten universities in the United Kingdom. Using a web-based survey, it asked about personal characteristics, employment history, views on different aspects of academic jobs and career intentions. Responses from 2,805 staff provided data for the report.

Of interest to this study are the factors relating to job change and career intent, specifically those that relate to staying and leaving. The report shows that pecuniary and non-pecuniary factors affect the decision-making of academics. Non-pecuniary factors that were found to increase satisfaction included doing self-determined research; teaching and witnessing students develop; supporting peers; and being a member of the wider academic community. Factors found to detract from satisfaction included administrative tasks; the demand for institutionally-determined research output; and being on a fixed-term contract. These findings concur with Martin's (2011) views of "academic happiness" discussed above, with being "in the flow" by engaging

in research, helping students, and enjoying positive relations with peers and students featuring in both.

The above findings (Martin, 2011; Metcalf, et al., 2005) are further supported by Conklin and Deselle (2007), who looked at job turnover intentions among 885 pharmacy faculty in North America. The study identified the most frequently cited reasons for leaving previous employment, staying in current employment and leaving current employment or academic life altogether. These are shown in Table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1: Reasons for Job Turnover Intent (Conklin & Deselle, 2007)

Reasons for leaving previous job	Reasons for staying in current job	Reasons they might leave current job or academic
1. Seeking a new challenge (desiring a change) 2. Geographical location 3. Poor salary 4. Unsolicited job offer 5. Position not meeting expectations 6. Lack of collegiality 7. Lack of research support	1. Autonomy in the work 2. Geographical location 3. Fringe benefits 4. Relationships with department colleagues 5. Job security 6. Institution's reputations	1. Excessive workload 2. Desire for change 3. Poor salary 4. Relationships with school or college administrators 5. Lack of research support 6. High stress

Interestingly, some of the reasons for leaving the previous job and current job are identical notwithstanding the institution: "seeking a new challenge (desiring a change)", "geographical location", "poor salary", problems with relationships (lack of collegiality) and lack of research support. This begs the question of whether these particular reasons are intrinsic to the individual or the organisation. If it is the former, then there is the likelihood that the pattern of leaving will be repeated regardless of institutional forces.

To sum up, the literature on academic careers as "Protean" suggests that "psychological success" measured by the academic's happiness and job satisfaction influences the decision to change jobs. This addresses the question of why IAEs might leave their previous job to join the case institution. However, as the case institution is in a foreign country, the decision to work there also involves a conscious decision to leave the country of residence. Since the respondents are all "ex-patria" or "outside their home country", I will now turn to the literature on expatriation to gain an understanding of what previous research has discovered that might have influenced their decisions to change job locations.

2.8   Expatriates

This section aims to provide an understanding of what it means to be an expatriate. While my purpose is not to provide an exhaustive coverage of definitions, it is nevertheless important to look at commonly-held views of expatriates and expatriate life as mine is a study of 14 academic expatriates. Without doubt, their pre-conceptions would have significantly influenced their decisions to work overseas.

The available literature on IAE expatriation is meagre hence it is useful to look to the vast body of research in human resource management. In reviewing the literature on expatriation, one of the greatest shortcomings concerns the methodology. Not only does the bulk of research target "organisational" (also known as "business" and "corporate") expatriates, but most use large-scale quantitative methods, mainly company surveys and questionnaires (Hipsher, 2008). An exception is Anne-Meike Fechter's study of expatriates in Indonesia (Fechter, 2007), reported in the book *Transnational Lives: Expatriates in Indonesia*, which adopts qualitative methods of investigation.   For this reason, it is of great value and relevance to my study. Like

mine, Fechter's study was conducted in-situ in a developing country in Southeast Asia, where she was a German language teacher. In addition to using in-depth interviews, the researcher was able to triangulate her findings through participant-observations, questionnaire, and document search, enhancing the validity and trustworthiness of her study.

One of Fechter's greatest contributions is her discussion of the different notions of what it means to be an "expatriate", a term which is "socially-contested, politically and morally charged, ambiguous, and is linked to particular notions of ethnicity and class" (Fechter, 2007). Beginning with a value-free definition of the term, Fechter moves on to the portrayal of expatriates in colonial and international human resource management literature then justifies and delimits her use of the term in her study.

The word "expatriate" is comprised of the prefix "ex-" which means "out" and "patria" which means "country". Therefore, the definition is simply "a person who is out of his/her country". The connotations of the word "expatriate", however, are numerous and, in general, negative, with stereotypes of the Western colonial expatriate on generous expatriate packages indulging in a lifestyle of "luxury, leisure and moral decline" (Fechter, 2007, p. 1). Quoting Hemingway, Fechter offers a description of expatriate life found in early 20th century literature:

> You are an expatriate; you've lost touch with the soil; you are precious; fake European standards have ruined you; you drink yourself to death; you become obsessed with sex; you spend all your time talking not working; you are an expatriate, you see? (p. 1).

How accurate is her portrayal of expatriate life? Does it apply to the lives of the expatriates in this study and, if so, would this lifestyle attract them to or repel them from the host country?

It is difficult to provide a universally-accepted definition of "expatriate". One complication surrounds the distinction among "expatriate", "sojourner" and "immigrants". "Sojourners" generally refer to people who have left their country for a short time but intend to return (Osland, 2000); "immigrants" implies the intention to reside long term or even permanently in the host country (Richardson & Zikic, 2007). Another complexity stems from the different types of expatriate. Organisational Expatriates (OEs) are those who have been sent by their parent companies to a host location (Selmer & Lauring, 2010). They include those working for multinationals, embassies, and international organisations such as the United Nations. These expatriates are posted by their current employer to take up an expatriate posting in host countries generally less developed than their own. Academics posted by their home institution would also be included in this group. To compensate them for the "hardship", these expatriates are usually given financial incentives such as moving allowances, return airfares, housing allowances, a car and driver, medical insurance, school fees for children to attend international schools, and even an increase in salary (Fechter, 2007; Neault, 2005).

In contrast, "self-selecting", "self-initiated" and more recently "independent" expatriates have acquired their job of their own volition and are usually hired locally on a contractual basis rather than being posted overseas by their parent company (Selmer & Lauring, 2010). Unlike expatriates posted from the home country, locally-engaged expatriates (also known as "local-hires") are "unlikely to be compensated with a generous expatriate package" (Neault, 2005, p. 150). Being on "local-hire" terms and conditions exposes them to many aspects of the local culture that typical corporate executives might not be subject to (Richardson & McKenna, 2002a).

The past two decades have seen a reduction in the average length of assignments and in packages to much more "down-to-earth" levels (Ohtaki & Bucknall, 2005, p. 35). Particularly in Asia, there is a move towards hiring locally-engaged foreigners on local-hire packages. The rise of the "Asian expatriate" has also changed the playing field for traditional Western expatriates. Surveys by Mercer, quoted by Ohtaki and Bucknall (2005, p. 35), report that the number of expatriates of Asian origin working overseas now exceeds the number of expatriates of Western origin. Within this study, four of the 14 IAEs are of Asian descent. All IAEs were engaged by the local institution in the host country and not the parent institution in Australia, so none are on "full expatriate packages" as described on the previous page.

Although expatriate salaries have flattened out and have drifted to down-to-earth levels, even on locally-engaged packages, expatriates working in developing countries are still able to enjoy a lifestyle that they might not be able to afford in their home country. In Fechter's (2007) study, where more than 50 per cent of the local population lives on less than US$2 a day, even local-hires were able to afford rental in comfortable accommodation, usually with air-conditioning, employ domestic help, buy imported goods and eat in Western-style restaurants. Similarly, in the country in which this study was conducted, the average wage for civil servants is US$40 per month and for unskilled factory workers US$ 100 (Bland, 2011). The IAEs in this study, though not on full expatriate packages, would have been earning between US$ 2000 and US$4000 a month depending on their job position. On this wage, they would easily have been able to enjoy a comfortable if not luxurious lifestyle. However, their packages did not include home leave airfares and, more crucially, international schooling for children.

The cost of international schooling is prohibitive in most countries and this is no exception in the host country. By way of illustration, school fees at one of the established international schools is US$14,800 per year (Grades 1-5), US$ 16,200 (Grades 6-8) and US$19,300 (Grades 9-12) (See www.ishcmc.com) These fees do not include mandatory registration fees, development fund fees and field trips. Therefore, for IAEs in this study, international schooling for one child would consume more than 50 per cent of the salary of those in lecturing positions and over 25 per cent of the salary of those in management. How and whether the absence of this benefit affects decision making will be investigated in this study.

The literature on expatriation has begun to distinguish between "organisational" and "self-initiated" (Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010; Selmer & Lauring, 2010), "self-selecting" (Richardson & McKenna, 2002b) and "independent" expatriates (Hipsher, 2008; Richardson, 2008). However, in looking at the motivations for expatriation, whether initiated by the organisation or self, it is not surprising to find many reasons in common.

A particularly relevant study is Clegg and Gray's (2002) research on Australian expatriates in Thailand as this resembles the country in which the case institution is located in its level of economic development, cost of living, and the liberal lifestyle that foreigners are able to enjoy. The study found that career progression, compensation package and lifestyle change were the top three motivators. However, these varied with age, career stage and family. The study found that older expatriates considered remuneration and change in lifestyle to be more important than career advancement. Younger expatriates craved the challenges, opportunities and responsibility they experienced as expatriates. The study does not expand on whether these factors are likely to keep them in the host country. Miller and Cheng's 1976

survey of 135 American expatriates (in Clegg & Gray, 2002) found that career advancement was the primary reason for accepting overseas assignments. The participants believed that overseas experience would increase their abilities and improve their promotional opportunities. The desire to live overseas was cited as their second reason.

A further study of relevance is Fitzgerald and Howe-Walsh's (2008) study of professional female expatriates in the Cayman Islands as six of the 14 respondents in my study are female. The researchers found that career advancement was one of the main incentives. Other factors included location of the assignment, having no ties, dissatisfaction with their present lifestyle, the right timing, the desire for challenge and seeking independence. Remarkably, compensation package was not cited as a key motivator for expatriation among these females. In describing their experience, the female expatriates reported frustration with the work ethic, specifically the behaviour and attitude of co-workers and the difficulty of the work assignment and working with many nationalities. Outside the realm of work, issues of culture shock, high cost of living, segregation between locals and expatriates, and difficulties forming relationships were sources of frustration and stress.

The recurring theme of expatriates desiring a lifestyle change seems to traverse the literature on academic careers and expatriation and this is particularly relevant to the present study. The question that must be asked is whether the expatriate is making a deliberate or a conscious decision to move countries or whether the "pull" is primary the job. If the "pull" is the job, what are the implications on cultural adjustment?

The literature review so far has looked primarily at organisational expatriates. In addition to this group, there are many other sub-groups of expatriates whose

motivations and experiences might offer insight into the experiences of the IAES in my study.

2.9 "Other" Expatriates

Another unique feature of Fechter's (2007) earlier cited work is its coverage of sub-groups of foreigners who are often excluded from studies on expatriates. The "other" expatriates include "those who have come of their own initiative, such as journalists, small entrepreneurs, artists, volunteers, academic researchers, people who work for local NGOs, teachers at international and English language schools, students and interns" (p. 8). As well, there are long-term expatriates married to Indonesians and host country nationals now with foreign passports who have "returned" to work for foreign companies or to accompany their foreign spouses. This latter group are commonly known as "returnees". For "returnees", who may well regard themselves as foreigners and members of the expatriate community, their ethnicity and nationality may prevent them for being fully accepted by the organisational expatriate community. Although Fechter mentions only "teachers at international and English language schools", the growing number of transnational institutions is also attracting independent expatriates. The respondents in this study are all teachers, six out of 14 were married to or in a relationship with a local, and two are "returnees", hence Fechter's coverage of these cohorts is especially relevant.

Recent literature on skilled migration discusses two further "sub-group" of expatriates. The first is made up of a transnational elite or capitalist class, described as a "transnational group of globetrotting, highly skilled, highly paid professional, managerial and entrepreneurial elites who circulate in a series of career or business moves from one city to another in response to global competition for skilled labour"

(Yeoh, Willis, & Fakhri, 2003, p. 209). The other consists of "middling transnationals" who are "actors occupying more or less middle class or status positions in the national class structure of their countries of origins, like skilled workers or holiday-makers who spend extended periods abroad living transnational everyday lives" (Smith, 2005, p. 249). The IAEs in this study bear some resemblance to the first sub-group though they may not be as highly-paid.

One of the sub-groups mentioned by Fechter (2007) is volunteers, many of whom are, like the IAES in my study, teachers. Although Fechter includes volunteers among "those who have come of their own initiative", most volunteers are sent by an agency in their home country and receive support and care from field officers from their sending agencies. In contrast to organisational expatriates and even to the IAEs in my study, volunteers tend to be compensated much more poorly. This may vary greatly according to organisation and country, but volunteer organisations partnering with governments, such as Volunteer Service Overseas (VSO) from the United Kindgom, VSA (Volunteer Service Abroad) from New Zealand, and AVI (Australian Volunteers International) generally provide return airfares, visas, medical insurance, living allowances and accommodation. The living allowance will enable volunteers to "live a modest local lifestyle" and is intended to cover food, travel, communication and other local costs but not savings or financial commitments at home. These living allowances are pegged according to the cost of living in the particular country (www.australianvolunteers.com).

As there is scarce research specifically on IAEs and as there are some parallels between IAEs and volunteer workers, especially those who volunteer as teachers, it is useful to look towards the literature on volunteer expatriates to inform this study. In the first in-depth study of its kind, Hudson and Inkson (2006) investigated the

experiences of 48 New Zealand volunteers who had been assigned to countries in Southeast Asia (including volunteers to the host country in my study), the Pacific Islands, Zimbabwe and South Africa. Multiple reasons were given for volunteering, but the following were dominant:

- Altruism

- Different culture

- Search for meaning

- Challenge

- Adventure

- Always wanted to/the right time

- Career move

The authors define altruism as "an unselfish wish or concern to help others less fortunate in the world … sharing skills … doing the right things … giving something back" (p. 7). Two other definitions, both cited by de Jong (2011), bear consideration. Altruism is seen as "a motivational state with the ultimate goal of increasing another's welfare" and as "behaviour intended to benefit another, even when doing so may risk or entail some sacrifice to the welfare of the actor" (p. 4). De Jong (2011) further observes that altruism does not preclude personal gain, noting that "it is possible for an act to be altruistic while the consequences of that act benefit both the person who performs the act and the person the act is done for" (p. 30).

The researchers noted also a career history of discontinuity and proactive change among these volunteers. Their findings on reasons for volunteering overseas may inform my study as three respondents were from volunteer backgrounds, two

having worked as Australian volunteers and one for VSO United Kingdom. While they have made the transition from volunteer to paid work, it could well be that their motivations remain pegged to the attitudes and values of volunteer work overseas.

Within the above study, volunteer development workers reported experiencing physical difficulties such as lack of money, electricity, food, excessive heat and violence. They also faced cultural adjustment difficulties concerning local attitudes to time, money, work practices, and corruption. Psychologically, volunteers sometimes questioned the value of their work assignments and themselves. The comments of some volunteers about the expatriate community being "a bunch of really cynical people, they look down on the population, they know better… they had the real old-fashioned colonial way" (p. 9) resound with Fechter's idea about the hierarchy among expatriates. In addition to being excluded from the local community, these volunteers were not considered part of the expatriate community.

In summary, changes in attitudes to career development in favour of a more self-directed rather than organisationally-directed career, and greater international mobility in employment has led to an increase in expatriation. No longer do employees wait to be posted overseas but many now seek out these opportunities themselves, sometimes as volunteers. As well, with the rise of transnational education, the increase in expatriation is particularly apparent among academics and why and how they secure these jobs will be reviewed in the following section.

2.10   Independent Academic Expatriates (IAEs)

Expatriates are generally understood to be foreign nationals living outside their home countries. Within the literature on academic expatriation, academics are

"professors and non-professorial staff, the latter only as far as [they were] part of the research and teaching profession" (Richardson & McKenna, 2003, p. 777). My study looks specifically at non-professorial staff, all of whom were part of the teaching profession either as teachers of Academic English or in degree courses. As they have sought their jobs at the case institution, they are known as "independent academic expatriates" (IAEs).

Despite this group's long history of mobility, Welch (1997) observes that academic expatriates remain a group about which very little is known. Even less is available in the literature on "self-selecting", "self-initiated" or "independent" academic expatriates. While there is now more academic scholarship on this group, it is observable that many of the articles have been written by the same researchers with different co-authors viewing the same data through a different lens. (Richardson, 2000, 2006, 2008; Richardson & Mallon, 2005; Richardson & McKenna, 2000, 2002a, 2002b, 2003; Richardson & Zikic, 2007; Selmer & Lauring, 2010).

In their seminal article on self-selecting expatriates academics, which appears to be one of the first qualitative studies in this field, the researchers studied the motivations and experiences of 30 British academic expatriates in universities in New Zealand, Singapore, Turkey and the United Arab Emirates. 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. While their 2002 study looked at a single culture, namely British expatriates, across four countries, my research looks at the experiences of 14 expatriate academics from seven countries, namely, Canada, the United States, Australia, Holland, the Philippines, Turkey and Spain but within one

location. Despite the obvious differences, their use of the interpretive paradigm and in-depth interviews, their analyses and propositions have greatly influenced the conceptual framework and design of this study.

Because of the dearth of scholarship specifically on IAEs, the information presented below is taken almost exclusively from the many articles that have grown out of Richardson and McKenna's (2002b) original study. As the study included only 30 participants, it would seem inappropriate to make sweeping generalisations about all IAEs based on their sample. As noted in Chapter 3, qualitative research does not seek to generalise but to describe or explain a phenomenon in a specific situation. Hence, references to IAEs below are restricted to those 30 from Richardson and McKenna's study. Current academic knowledge about IAEs to date stems from this cohort.

2.10.1 Reasons for Leaving

The literature identifies five over-riding themes explaining motivations for expatriation: adventure/travel; career advancement; family influences; financial incentives; and desire for life change/escape (Selmer & Lauring, 2010). In the earlier section on academic turnover, three of the five are also identified as reasons for academic mobility and job change: career advancement, money, and the desire for change (Conklin & Deselle, 2007; Metcalf, et al., 2005). This raises the question of whether an expatriate is leaving or going to job rather than an institution or country (location). Both these facets of location are pertinent to my study, which looks at influences that shape the decisions of my respondents to move to the case institution in a foreign country.

The five themes are also captured in metaphors. While conceding the shortcomings of metaphor as a means of expressing concepts, Richardson and McKenna (2002b) use eight metaphors to explain reasons for leaving and the experience of expatriation. The metaphors of "the explorer", "the refugee", "the mercenary" and "the architect" capture motivation to go overseas while "the explorer", "the outsider", "the tightrope-walker" and "the student" depict the experience of expatriation.

Among IAEs, **adventure/travel** was cited as the most common reason for expatriation. Underlying the desire for adventure was a desire to see more of the world, encounter new experiences and face new challenges. The stereotypical images of expatriate life as an adventure fuel this desire to work overseas (Richardson & Mallon, 2005). This aligns with the metaphor of **"the explorer"**.

A second theme is **career advancement** through promotion and improved career prospects upon repatriation. This parallels the metaphor of **"the architect".** There is no empirical evidence that international experience is beneficial to career development. On the contrary, empirical evidence shows that repatriated business managers are inconsistently rewarded for having worked overseas (Selmer, 1999). Nevertheless, one of the reasons IAEs are willing to work overseas is their belief that international experience will enhance their careers and lead to promotion in the future. However, younger IAEs expressed concern that the experience was dependent on the institution or country (location) and might not be recognised upon return to their home country (Richardson & Zikic, 2007). The literature is silent on whether such fears will lead IAEs to "stray" from their current jobs.

The third theme is **family**, and this extends to spouse, children and extended family. Providing broader life experiences and access to different cultures for children

was a driving factor as was the ability to expatriate because of freedom from young children or elderly parents (Richardson & Mallon, 2005). Notably, a family history of expatriation also influenced the decision to work overseas (Richardson & Mallon, 2005).

Financial incentives include the "pull" of higher salaries and the ability to save more and enjoy a comparatively better standard of living in the host country. This relates directly to the metaphor of **"the mercenary"**. The study found that while IAEs did not take up employment overseas primarily for financial gain, their financial position in the host country compared to their home country or their salary level in their current job compared to their previous job could become a "dissatisfier". The "mercenary" metaphor would have applied to some of the IAEs in my study, specifically those from countries where academic salaries are low, for instance Thailand and the Philippines. For these IAEs, the salary at the case institution would have been a key attraction. Conversely, for those from developed countries, while salary was less significant in determining job satisfaction, economic factors could indeed alter their satisfaction. For example, fluctuations in exchange rates could easily mean a rise or fall in actual purchasing power, and this could become a significant "dissatisfier". While the literature does not address whether this source of dissatisfaction would drive IAEs to leave, evidence from research on academic turnover shows poor salary as a factor for leaving current employment (Conklin & Deselle, 2007; Metcalf, et al., 2005). Richardson and McKenna (2002b) also found that the experience of expatriate life could transform IAEs into "mercenaries" as they became bound by the "golden handcuffs" of the expatriate lifestyle. These findings contrast those of Tung (1998), whose study of expatriate business managers found that career and financial reward were primary motives for working overseas. This is

perhaps understandable as academic salaries and benefits tend to be lower than corporate ones (Richardson & Mallon, 2005).

Lastly, the theme of **life change/escape** involves influences that push the IAE away from negative situations in the home country, for example, negative work situations, boredom with the home country or difficult relationships. This relates directly to the metaphor of "the refugee". At the same time, this theme embraces the perceived draw of the host country which IAEs believe will provide "a new experience" and "an opportunity for self-discovery and re-direction" (Richardson & McKenna, 2002b). There is clearly some overlap between this and the theme of adventure/travel, with expatriation seen as a solution to the ills of their home country. This is captured in the old adage "The grass is always greener on the other side".

2.10.2 Experience of Expatriation

The decision of whether to "stay" or "stray" is greatly influenced by the IAEs actual experience of expatriation rather than expectations or perceptions. Within the literature on IAEs, very little has been written about how they actually experience the ups and downs of moving and living overseas. There are no known studies about why IAEs choose to remain overseas and what keeps them there.

The experience of expatriation of IAEs is captured in four metaphors: 'the explorer", "the outsider", "the tightrope-walker" and "the student" (Richardson & McKenna, 2002b). Richardson and Zikic (2007) also describe the "darker" aspects of an international academic career, namely, the risk and transience experienced by IAEs. Taken together, these two articles provide an insight into how IAEs feel about working and living overseas. Of the four metaphors, "the explorer" and "the student" carry

positive associations while "the outsider" and "the tightrope-walker" carry negative ones. As explained above, "the explorer" craves adventure and travel is seen as a way to acquire new experiences and confront new challenges. Richardson and McKenna's (2002b) study found that the actual experience of the IAEs matched their expectations and all found their experiences positive despite facing difficulties. The writers observed that even though some of the IAEs had faced severe challenges over basic concerns such as living arrangements and family support, in looking back at their experience, they tended to remember the positive rather than negative aspects. The negative aspects were rationalised as part of the learning experience and their "hero's adventure" (Osland, 2000). The idea of learning is encapsulated in the metaphor of "the student". That the experience of transnational teaching and working in a foreign culture forces reflection and can lead to "perspective transformation" is borne out in the literature (Bodycott & Walker, 2000; Smith, 2009). Unexpectedly, not all IAEs saw their personal transformation as positive, noting that it created a "distance" between them and the friends and family left behind.

The concept of distance is experienced on many fronts and is captured in the metaphor of "the outsider". While Richardson and McKenna (2002b) employ the metaphor of "the outsider" to IAEs in a foreign country, this metaphor is equally appropriate to describe the "distance" that IAEs experience with those left behind in the host country. As well as feeling alienated from those left behind, the IAE is unable to integrate into local communities "regardless of how long they might stay" (Richardson & McKenna, 2002b: 8).

While IAEs found that it was difficult to form friendships with locals, they easily forged close and intimate friendships with other expatriates. This represented a double-edged sword as less effort went into making friends beyond their milieu,

leading to the self-fulfilling prophecy of being "outsiders". This resonates with the experience of the IAEs in my study who, helped by their large numbers at the case institution, found it easy to form strong friendships with other "like-minded" people "in the same boat" (Richardson & McKenna, 2002b, p. 8). Though the ease of establishing friendships with other expatriates is expressed as positive, the transience of these relationships is a major part of the "darker side" (Richardson & Zikic, 2007) of the IAE experience. Transience is inherent in the life of IAEs because of their lack of tenure which, as well as representing a major career risk, also means that they must always be on the lookout for future employment prospects. The feeling of transience places an emotional and physical toll on IAEs, especially those who had worked in several previous countries. The weariness of having to "live out of a suitcase, possibly learning another language from scratch, starting up and making friends again" (Richardson & Zikic, 2007) coupled with the constant loss of friendships led to weariness and cynicism. This is accompanied by an unwillingness to form new friendships or even to socialise (Richardson & Zikic, 2007). Despite these negative dimensions, transience can also be positive as it aligns with the IAEs desire for change and new experiences.

It is noted that the lack of close friendships, which is one of the results of "transience" is exacerbated because "host nationals were friendly" but "any friendships that might have developed were perceived as superficial" (Richardson & McKenna, 2002b, p. 8). This raises questions about IAEs who are married to or in relationships with host country nationals. In Fechter's (2007) earlier cited work, the author relates the snobbery of organisational expatriates and their spouses towards, particularly, female expatriates with local partners. That this disdain seldom extended to male expatriates with local partners, in my opinion, reveals some degree of

hypocrisy and perhaps perpetuates the stereotype of the debauched lives of Western male expatriates in Asia.

Fechter (2007) relates her own exclusion from the "corporate expatriate" community (p. 6) due to her lower income level and academic purpose. Fechter's experience shows that non-organisational expatriates, such as the IAEs in this study, are equally likely to experience a sense of being an "outsider" from their own expatriate community as well as the local community. What the literature fails to answer is whether being married to, or in a relationship with, a host-country national, results in exclusion from expatriates and integration into the local community. Neither does it elucidate if nor how this familial connection might affect the decision to "stay" in or "stray" from the host country. It will be revealing to discover if the 14 respondents in my study, who exist outside the organisational expatriate community, feel like "outsiders" and whether marriage to or being in a relationship with a host country national minimises this feeling of alienation.

The final metaphor is that of "the tightrope walker", which describes the precariousness of life as an IAE. This is reflected in the concept of "risk" (Richardson & Zikic, 2007), including personal, relational and career risks. Personal risk includes being on fixed-term contracts, so there is always the risk of job loss, the prospect of which would result in having to leave the host country. Relationally, one of the greatest risks concerns spouses or partners. Increasingly, the research shows that expatriate performance and repatriation may be influenced by the expatriate's family, especially the spouse (Richardson, 2006). This is especially the case for dual-career couples, where one partner has had to resign from a professional job in the home country to accompany the spouse overseas. The consequent loss of professional identity and income may put pressure on the relationship. While this theme is less

dominant among IAEs as the decision to go overseas is prompted by the individual and not the organisation, the satisfaction and cultural adjustment of "the trailing spouse" is nevertheless significant. In fact, as IAE's are "unlikely to be compensated with a generous expatriate package" (Neault, 2005, p. 150), there may be pressure on the spouse to find work. Similarly, non-working spouses of IAEs might not have the financial means to distract themselves with the trappings of the privileged lifestyle that the proverbial expatriate wife might enjoy: coffee mornings, shopping, gym memberships, spa treatments and charity work, to name a few.

A third aspect of risk is career risk. An IAE may be concerned about whether experience gained overseas, for example, from less well-known institutions in developing countries, will be recognised by employers back in their home country or in countries the IAE may move to in the future. For the 14 respondents in my study, this is a concern as their experience is being gained in a developing country, albeit at an internationally-recognised and accredited institution. While risk is generally perceived as negative, Richardson (2006) recognises its positive dimension in relation to meeting the desire of IAEs for challenge and adventure. For most IAEs, though, risk is perceived as walking on a tightrope "without the support of a safety harness" (Richardson & Zikic, 2007, p. 8). Especially for those with families with young children, the balance between risk and reward becomes a consideration in deciding whether to "stay" or "stray".

In summary, the literature identifies five over-riding themes explaining expatriation: adventure/travel; career advancement; family influences; financial incentives; and desire for life change/escape (Selmer & Lauring, 2010). Motivation to go overseas is captured in the metaphors of "the explorer", "the refugee", "the mercenary" and "the architect" while the experience of expatriation is depicted in "the

explorer", "the outsider", "the tightrope-walker" and "the student". Table 2.2 below

shows how these metaphors overlap with the five dominant themes for expatriation

explained above.

Table 2.2: Relationship between Metaphor and Theme

Metaphor	Description from literature (Richardson & McKenna, 2002b)	Theme
	REASONS FOR LEAVING	
Explorer	"expatriation was driven not by a desire to enhance career opportunities but to explore more of the world … wanting to visit countries and experience different cultures at a much deeper level than vacations would allow"	Adventure/Travel
Refugee	"expatriation was a means of seeking refuge away from situations, relationships or experiences associated with living in (the home country) … it also enabled them to carve out a better way of life or something that was more aligned with their goals and ambitions"	Escape Desire for life change
Mercenary	"a person who is driven by the 'pull' of a higher salary … could become a 'dissatisfier' … expatriate life could turn IAEs into 'mercenaries' as they became bound by the "golden handcuffs"	Financial incentives
Architect	"overseas appointment contributed towards their own career development … engaged in activities and projects to enhance their future career prospects … developed professional networks and connections"	Career advancement
	EXPERIENCE OF EXPATRIATION	
Explorer	"to see more of the world and to experience a sense of adventure"	Adventure/Travel
Outsider	"difficult to integrate into local communities … friendships tended to be with other expatriates … friendships [with host nationals] perceived as superficial …would always be outsiders regardless of how long they stayed"	N.A.
Tightrope Walker	"precariousness … high element of risk … prospect of losing their jobs was a constant cause of concern … because it would also mean having to leave the country …the smallest mistake would see them plummeting to the ground marking the end of their career/job in the host country"	N.A.
Student	"personal change and learning … developed new identities, comprising different qualities, new ways of seeing the world, exposure to new experiences … process of transformation".	Desire for life change

Strikingly, a common theme within the literature is the role of chance, serendipity and "seizing the opportunity" in gaining overseas employment. This is best summed up by the career development theory of "planned happenstance" (Mitchell, Levin, & Krumboltz, 1999, p. 116), which accepts the role of chance in career development. Two facets of this theory apply: individuals live in an unpredictable environment and they can create and transform unplanned events into opportunities. By definition, "self-initiated", "self-selecting" or "independent" academic expatriates are those who seek out overseas opportunities by themselves. Current literature on IAEs overlooks how they set out to secure employment overseas once they have made the decision to do so. Do they obtain jobs before going to the host country or do they simply go in the hope of getting employment? What are the "chance events" (Mitchell, et al., 1999, p. 115) that led them to a particular job or host country? My study seeks to fill a gap in this knowledge about IAEs.

2.11   Summary and Conclusions

This chapter has reviewed the literature related to the main and specific research questions. It has explained how the internationalisation of higher education has spawned an increasing number of transnational branch campuses, all of which require internationally-mobile academics to deliver their courses. The literature on academic careers, particularly the "Protean" career model, and academic turnover provides insights into reasons that might prompt academics to leave their current employment to work in higher education institutions overseas. Specifically for academic careers, it appears that "psychological factors" such as happiness and job satisfaction take precedence over "objective factors" such as position and salary. A range of factors influence their intentions in regard to job turnover and mobility:

personal factors such as desire for change; pecuniary work-related matters such as salary and fringe benefits; and non-pecuniary factors such as autonomy, job security, relationships with colleagues and superiors and research support. Geographical location, which in the context of my study involves expatriation, is also identified as a key factor.

In this chapter, I also looked at the various classifications of "expatriate", exploring the subtle differences between "organisational" and "independent" expatriates as well as other sub-groups of expatriates, mainly teachers and volunteers. The IAEs in my study, most surprisingly, appear to have a foot in all of these worlds. In looking at the limited but multi-faceted literature on IAEs, the themes of adventure/travel; career advancement; family influences; financial incentives; and desire for life change/escape recur. Themes related to motivation for expatriation are expressed in the metaphors of "the explorer", "the refugee", "the mercenary" and "the architect" while the experience of expatriation is conveyed in "the explorer", "the outsider", "the tightrope-walker" and "the student".

The main purpose of this chapter was to clarify substantive concepts relevant to this study, such as internationalisation of higher education, transnational education and institutions, academic careers and expatriation, specifically as they relate to independent academic expatriates. It was also to evaluate how previous research pertinent to the research aims and research questions of this study might help inform it and to review the gaps in the literature that my study might address. In this regard, there do appear to be inadequacies in our current in-depth knowledge about IAEs' reasons for and experiences of expatriation, which, at present, is predicated on a single study of 30 British expatriates (Richardson & McKenna, 2002b). The existing literature looks mainly at these two facets, but it does not address why they stay

overseas and what keeps them there, which are two key questions raised in my research. The answers to these two questions are important as they can help to inform the policies about recruitment and retention of IAEs in the growing number of branch campuses overseas.

CHAPTER 3: Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This study focuses on the influences that shape the decisions of independent expatriate academics (IAEs) to seek and retain positions in a transnational institution in a developing country in Southeast Asia. Specifically, it examines why they left their previous jobs, chose their current job, have decided to continue working at the case institution and what might induce or has induced them to leave.

This chapter describes and justifies the methodology of the study. It examines the ontological and epistemological underpinnings of interpretivism and explains why this paradigm is suited to the study. It then explains why and how the qualitative methodology and grounded theory approaches are suitable for the chosen topic and area of investigation. A discussion on methods of data collection and analysis follows with justification for the use of the in-depth, semi-structured interview to gather data and grounded theory techniques to code and analyse the data. Issues related to ensuring trustworthiness, such as establishing researcher positioning and keeping an audit trail, are also discussed in detail.

3.2   Ontology, Epistemology and Paradigm

My choice of the qualitative methodology stems from the need for "epistemological consistency" (Crotty, 1998), which demands that the methodological process used by the researcher suits the purpose of the study. Denzin and Lincoln (2004) assert that all researchers are guided by principles which combine their beliefs about ontology, epistemology and methodology. A researcher's position on questions

such as "what is the nature of reality?" (ontology) and "what is the relationship between the inquirer and the known" (epistemology) will affect the researcher's choice of paradigm, which will in turn guide the choice of methodology and approach.

The way that ontology and epistemology underpin paradigm is explained by Bassey (in Morrison, 2002), who defines a paradigm as "a network of coherent ideas about the nature of the world and the function of researchers which [...] underpins their research actions" (p. 12). Punch (2006) sees a paradigm as "a set of assumptions about the social world, about what constitutes proper techniques and topics for inquiring into that world [...] encompassing epistemology, theory and philosophy, along with methods" (p. 31). Both of these definitions are concerned with how our paradigm guides us as researchers: how it affects our function as researchers, conditions the way we think, underpins our actions, and influences our topics, techniques, and methods. The topic of this research and the techniques that will be employed to gather information from the participants affect and are affected by the choice of paradigm as these are guided by the researcher's beliefs about knowledge and how meaning is constructed.

What precisely is transnational education? Who are independent academic expatriates? These are ontological questions concerning the nature of reality and the kind of person a human is. To address the research questions, we are not only required to address the nature of transnational education but also of transnational institutions and independent academic expatriates. As explained in Chapter 2, since transnational education is a recent phenomenon, there is still very little consensus on these issues. McBurnie and Ziguras (2007) reinforce this point by saying that terms connected with transnational education are constantly evolving to fit the "reality" that transnational education depicts. Indeed, researchers and international bodies, including such

reputable ones as the Observatory for Cross Border Education (OECD) and the Australian Universities Quality Association (AUQA), present varying definitions of transnational education. Similarly ambiguous is the definition of an independent academic expatriate. While there is some literature on academic expatriates and independent expatriates (Hipsher, 2008; Richardson, 2008; Selmer & Lauring, 2010), there is little known research on those teaching in transnational branch campuses in Southeast Asia as this organisational structure is a rarity. Consequently, from an ontological standpoint, there is no "real reality" but only a "relative reality" about what transnational education is, what transnational institutions are and who independent academic expatriates are.

3.3 Interpretivism

The main and specific research questions are underpinned by an interpretive paradigm, which point towards the use of the qualitative methodology. My questions seek subjective knowledge that resides in the minds of the respondents and the interviewer rather than knowledge about any "real" or objective reality. Therefore, a positivist paradigm is rejected since the ontological assumption behind positivism holds that there is a "real" or objective reality and that reality exists apart from human consciousness. Such objectivity is based on the belief that things exist "as meaningful, independently of consciousness and experience, that they have truth and meaning residing in them as objects … and that careful (scientific?) research can attain that objective truth and meaning" (Crotty, 1998, p. 5-6).

Researchers who subscribe to a positivist paradigm also believe that what is being researched exists externally and independently and aspects of this world can be measured using objective, scientific means. To these researchers, "knowledge is only

of significance if it is based on observations of this external reality" (Easterby-Smith, Burgoyne, & Araujo, 1997, p. 77)   In other words, only phenomena that can be observed externally by the researcher are deemed as knowledge.

Clearly, this ontology is inconsistent with the research topic and questions of the present study. In contrast, the interpretivist paradigm rejects claims of objectivity, validity or generalisability (Crotty, 1998: 16) but accepts that "the important reality is what people perceive it to be" (Taylor & Bogdan, 1998, p. 5). In the sphere of transnational education, there is no single reality about the institutions and players involved, only what researchers, educators and students make it to be. The specific research questions prompt respondents to narrate reasons that motivated them to make dramatic life changes. The questions dictate the need for respondents to move beyond making positivist statements such as providing facts and figures to providing subjective and spontaneous responses requiring reflection, reasoning and revelation.

How do respondents turn unconscious thought into meaning and knowledge to be shared with the interviewer? Do the interviewer's prompts and questions influence the discovery of knowledge and creation of meaning? Does the respondent simply answer questions or does the interviewer co-construct meaning?   These are epistemological questions related to this study. It is important to understand the epistemological underpinnings of the study as they help justify the choice of paradigm. "Epistemology" refers to assumptions and understandings about the social world, defined by Morrison (2002) as "theories of knowledge" including "how we find it, how we recognise it when we find it, how we use it, and how it distinguishes truth from falsehood" (p. 11). To Usher (1996) "epistemology" may be defined as "the study of how knowledge about the world is constructed, who constructs it, and what criteria they use to create meaning and methodology" (p. 131).

A constructivist epistemology, which is embedded within an interpretive paradigm, guides the research. Unlike positivists who believe that objects exist independent of the observer, interpretivists consider that reality and knowledge are created through human experience and interaction. The relationship and interaction between the researcher and respondent shape the creation of meaning. A positivist approach to educational research insists upon strictly adhering to the scientific methods, value-free and objective observations and experiences of reality (Crotty, 1998; Morrison, 2002). In contrast, constructivists believe that meaning is constructed and co-constructed as a result of human interaction; therefore, there can be no value-free research since human beings try to interpret the world they engage with and their interactions are based on their social, historical and experiential backgrounds (Cresswell, 2003).

The idea that interlocutors construct and co-construct knowledge is central to the interpretive paradigm. It is my belief that interprevists also **pre-construct** knowledge based on who they are, how they live, where they live and what they think and believe. In other words, observers are not "value-free" and "objective" and their interpretations of reality and meaning are influenced by their historical, social and even cultural contexts (Dimmock, 2002). Interpretivism suggests that each researcher might emerge from the interaction with different findings as the researcher's own background and experiences would contribute to the creation of the knowledge.

The study targets expatriate academics from a variety of cultures and nationalities with different historical, social and linguistic traditions, and it investigates the reasons they left their home countries. The differences in social, political and economic situations in their home countries would affect their experiences and, in consequence, their decisions. For example, the economic circumstances of those from

countries such as the Philippines or Thailand, where teaching salaries are low, and those from developed Western countries with higher wages for teachers vary significantly and contribute to their reasons for leaving. In the same way, personal circumstances greatly impact decision making, hence an academic who is married to a local from the home country might have quite different motivations for staying compared to a colleague who is single.

Just as respondents are shaped by their origins, culture and experience, so is the researcher. The objectivist view would hold that any "expert" researcher would be able to elicit the same findings (Creswell, 2003; Crotty, 1998; Denzin & Lincoln, 2004; Morrison, 2002). However, this contradicts the interpretive view that the researcher contributes to meaning creation. Therefore, as a researcher, it is necessary to reflect on possible areas of bias. These include motivation for doing the study; how personal biases and assumptions colour research design, the conduct of the interview, and interpretation and analysis of the data; and what the relationship is between researcher and respondents. Within the literature, this is referred to as "researcher reflexivity" (Jones, et. al., p. 124). If we accept that the respondents in my study do not simply "expel" meaning in response to stimuli in the form of questions, prompts and probes but that together, researcher and respondents co-construct meaning, then there are significant implications related to ethics and trustworthiness which must be explored.

3.4   Grounded Theory

The term grounded theory is generally used to describe a range of processes by which theory is derived from empirical data (Draucker, Martsolf, Ross, & Rusk, 2010). Juliet Corbin, one of the three researchers responsible for the popularisation of

grounded theory, most recently defined it as "a specific methodology developed by Glaser and Strauss ... for the purpose of building theory from data. [The term is now] used in a more generic sense to denote theoretical constructs derived from qualitative analysis of data" (Corbin & Strauss, 2008a, p. 1). While this flexibility departs for the original conceptualisation of Glaser and Strauss (1967) and, indeed Strauss and Corbin herself (1990), it takes into account the application of postmodernist and post-constructivists paradigms to grounded theory methodology (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). The flexibility of grounded theory is apparent in the following definition, which focuses in its value in analysing data:

> [Grounded Theory] is a data analysis approach that is largely data driven and aims at producing a theory that describes interesting relationships between things, situations, events, and activities (together called phenomena) reflected in the data by means of abstract concepts. The term grounded indicates that this theory will contain only statements derived from actual observations in a manner than can be tracked back to these data (Salinger, Plonka, & Prechelt, 2008, p. 11)

This approach allows the researcher, firstly, to build rather than test theory; secondly, to analyse masses of raw data; and, thirdly, to be both systematic and creative at the same time (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). For these reasons, it is appropriate for my study.

As observed by Samik-Ibrahim (2000), grounded theory allows the researcher to build rather than test theory, so it is particularly suitable for studies in relatively unexplored areas. As my research topic is vastly under-researched, grounded theory will enable me to generate theory inductively from the data using categories drawn from the data and focusing on "making implicit belief systems explicit" (Moghaddam, 2006, para. 1). Grounded theory is consistent with an interpretive paradigm, which

holds that meaning is not simply discovered but is created as a consequence of the interaction between the interviewer and respondents. Through the research questions and prompts, respondents have the opportunity to cement their thoughts and beliefs and the act of responding allows them to make these beliefs explicit.

Another compelling reason for the use of grounded theory is its suitability in dealing with masses of raw data. Grounded theory is based on an "empirical approach to data collection and analysis; a constant comparative approach to theory development; theoretical sampling rather than site or population driven sampling; and developing a theory that works from substantive through to formal levels using comparative comparison" (Star, 1998, p. 221). According to Strauss and Corbin (1990) grounded theory uses a "systematic set of procedures to develop an inductively derived grounded theory about a phenomenon" (p. 24). These definitions emphasise "systematic" procedures and explanations "grounded in" and based on data, aspects which, no doubt, add to the trustworthiness of qualitative research, particularly in data analysis. As observed by Goede and Villers (2003), grounded theory procedures allow researchers to practice "good science".

Because of its capacity for dealing "systematically" with "masses of raw data", grounded theory is particularly suited to my research questions, which ask respondents to reflect on their reasons for leaving their previous job, choosing their present job and staying in their present job. The literature on expatriation offers numerous and complex reasons for such change (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007; Richardson, 2008; Selmer & Lauring, 2010; Wildvasky, 2010). Grounded theory approaches will enable me to analyse the many responses systematically and creatively (Corbin & Strauss, 2008b). This may appear to be a contradiction, and emergent epistemological differences between the original works by Glaser and Strauss (1967) and later works

by Strauss and Corbin (1990) reveal this apparent incongruity. Whereas Glaser (1978) tended to hold a more rigorous positivistic perspective with the assumption of an objective and external reality and a neutral observer, Strauss adopted a more pragmatic epistemology, acknowledging that respondents had their own views of and conflicts about reality (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

Another divergence, which was alluded to in Chapter 1, relates to Glaser's position on the need to gather data without forcing either preconceived research questions or frameworks on it. However, this approach would be impractical for doctoral work and funded research projects. Nevertheless, despite these differences, the authors appear to agree on the main processes, including categorising and continuous comparison, to produce theory that is grounded in data.

3.5   Population and Sampling

The reasons for my choice of case institution were explained in Chapter 1. As an insider-researcher, I was able to make informed decisions about sampling choices to enhance the trustworthiness of the study. In quantitative research, a large sample size and random sampling are central in demonstrating validity and reliability, but in qualitative research, sampling decisions are based on the purposes of the study (Cresswell, 2003). While random sampling is common in quantitative research to allow generalisability, in qualitative research, particularly case studies, purposeful sampling is used (Creswell, 2003)

Purposeful sampling refers to selecting cases that are likely to provide rich data relevant to the purpose of the study. In the case of my research, two kinds of purposeful sampling were adopted: criterion sampling and maximum variation sampling. In the first instance, only those who had been employed at the case

institution for more than three years were considered, as literature on expatriation shows that a minimum of two years seems to be the usual length of assignment for expatriate in the foreign service, missionary and corporate postings (Pollock & Van-Reken, 1995). Three years would therefore be a suitably long period for the respondents to be able to form an opinion on the institution and to determine if they want to continue working there.

Secondly, maximum variation sampling was also appropriate. As the purpose of this study was to generate theory in an under-studied area, adopting maximum variation sampling allowed as much information as possible to emerge from the responses. As the study sought to identify the influences that shape the decisions of expatriate academics to seek and retain employment at the case institution, in making sampling decisions, it was essential to maximize variation in areas that might influence these decisions:

Gender: There is anecdotal information about how the different sexes experience expatriate life, with tales about the easy access to "wine, women and song" for single white males and the paucity of single, available, professional males for female expatriates. However, the autobiographical and often sordid nature of these accounts makes them inappropriate as references for doctoral work. Nevertheless, I believe strongly that the impact of gender is significant and must, therefore, be investigated.

In terms of sampling, respondents were chosen to include a mixture of females and males. As an "insider-researcher", I was also aware that some of these included homosexual males though I was not aware of any homosexual females. However, it would have been inappropriate and unethical to identify them as such unless they revealed themselves openly during the interview.

Marital Status: Related to gender, whether the expatriate academic is married, in a relationship or single affects the way the person adjusts to the host country (Selmer & Lauring, 2009). Those who are in a marital or de facto relationship may not experience the same degree of loneliness and isolation experienced by single expatriates. However, they may also find it harder to integrate and assimilate into the culture. In making sampling choices, a balance of married and single respondents was targeted. Again as an "insider-researcher", I was unaware of those in *de facto* same-sex or heterosexual relationships, or those divorced.

Job position: The case institution classifies academic staff as lecturers, coordinators, and managers. The responsibilities, relationships, authority and compensation vary at each of these levels. As job satisfaction is undeniably linked to these, it was necessary to sample across these levels. In making decisions about sampling, it was necessary to ensure that all levels were represented so that the impact of job position on decision-making could be considered.

Professional background: McBurnie and Ziguras (2007) describe the career of a "traditional" academic as one "in which tenured staff engage in a life's work of research, teaching and community service" (p. 50). However, as an insider-researcher, I was aware of that many lecturers at the case institution had come from non-academic backgrounds including corporate, government, hospitality, or entertainment backgrounds. The difference in corporate culture between an educational institution and one in entertainment or hospitality may well be significant and how the contrast affects decisions about retention needed to be considered.

It must be noted that although these four aspects informed selection of respondents, because of the small sample size of this study, it is not possible to form

any conclusions about the decision-making processes of each cohort of IAE in the case institution as a whole.

3.6 Sample Size

Particularly in grounded theory, decisions about the size and composition of the sample may be determined as the study evolves (Corbin & Strauss, 2008b). This process of data collection directed by emerging theory instead of pre-determined population or site driven choices, is known as theoretical sampling (Draucker, et al., 2010). Theoretical sampling requires that the researcher "jointly collects, codes, and analyses his data and decides what data to collect next and where to find them, in order to develop his theory as it emerges" (Glaser, 1978). Sampling continues until a point of saturation when no new information is derived from additional cases. Saturation is defined as "the state in which the researcher makes the subjective determination that new data will not provide any new information or insights for developing categories" (Creswell, 1998, p. 56). In practice this stage is reached when no new information is being garnered from each additional participant.

In practical terms, and particularly for doctoral work, it was not possible to interview to the point of saturation. Nevertheless, in making decisions about sample size, I kept in mind the inevitable "trade-off" between breadth and depth:

> With the same fixed resources and limited time, a researcher could study
> a specific set of experiences for a larger number of people (seeing
> breadth) or a more open range of experiences from a smaller number of
> people (seeking depth). In-depth information from a small number can be
> valuable, especially if the cases are information rich. Less depth from a

larger number can be especially useful in exploring a phenomena and trying to document diversity or understand variation. (Patton, in Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003, p. 181-2).

Adopting theoretical sampling principles, the actual number of cases is not so important. What is more important is that each case helps the researcher to develop theoretical insights into the research questions. Kvale (in Taylor & Bogdan, 1998) states simply, "Interview as many subjects as necessary to find out what you need to know" (p. 93).

In view of the above, as the purpose of my study was to discover the many and varied reasons that influence the decision of transnational expatriate academics, it was desirable to conduct a larger number of interviews rather than fewer in-depth ones. According to Gall, Gall et al (2003), deciding to use a maximum variation strategy requires at least 10 interviews, even if the study is only exploratory. The final decision about who and how many to interview was based on principles of criterion-based and maximum variation sampling as well as what was practicable over the three-day duration. Of the 16 IAEs I had identified, I was able to interview 14. Table 3.1 on the pages 80 to 82 provides information about each respondent. To preserve their anonymity, they are identified by number and are given pseudonyms.

To arrange access to the respondents, I first wrote an official electronic-mail to the Academic Vice-President explaining my research topic, stating my main and specific research questions, explaining how the findings would be of value to the institution, and requesting permission to contact the respondents. Once permission was given, I contacted these individuals by e-mail (See Appendix 1).

Before I was able to conduct the interviews, family circumstances led to my leaving the case institution and country. Thus it was necessary for me to fly back to the country to do the interviews over a three-day period. This prevented me from applying a pivotal strategy of grounded theory sampling, where data should ideally be collected and analysed simultaneously. Cognisant of this limitation, I modified my data collection practices as exemplified in recent literature on the application of theoretical sampling (Draucker, et al., 2010). This was done by refocussing interview questions from subsequent interviews to gain information that had not been covered. I also followed up with e-mails to seek clarification, a method utilised by Corbin in her study of Vietnam war veterans (Corbin & Strauss, 2008a). In these ways, I was able to adopt key theoretical sampling principles.

I began the interviews by explaining the purpose of my research, clarifying respondents' rights, and giving assurances of confidentiality. Respondents were then asked to sign the Informed Consent Form (See Appendix 2).

3.7   Methods of Data Collection

Quantitative and qualitative traditions each have their preferred methods of data collection. Qualitative research and, in particular, a case study such as this does not seek to generalise but to describe or explain a phenomenon in a specific situation. Grounded theory does not specify methods of data collection but accommodates varied forms of such (Charmaz, 2003). In-depth interviewing and observations are two common methods associated with grounded theory. Because my research questions sought verbal rather than behavioural responses, I decided to use in-depth semi-structured interviews to gather data for my study for reasons explained below.

Table 3.1: Profile of Respondents

ID	Pseudonym	Gender	Marital Status	Cultural Background	Job Position	Qualifications (at time of interview)	Previous job/professional experience	Employment Status (at time of writing)
R1	Gary	Male	Married	North American	Manager	Bachelor degree, significant industry experience in I.T and multimedia, GCTTL	Research biologist, recording artist, music industry manager and distributor, Internet music manager, "Dot-com" incubator entrepreneur.	Employed at case institution
R2	Bern	Female	Widowed	British	Manager	Bachelor degree in microbiology, CELTA, GCTTL	Curator, English teacher in Spain and Malaysia	Employed at case institution
R3	Ralph	Male	Married to local	North American	Coordinator	Bachelor degree, CELTA, GCTTL	Chef, IT Manager, English teacher at private school in host country	Employed at case institution
R4	Dave	Male	Married to local	Australian	Coordinator (Left institution but rejoined)	Bachelor of Education, CELTA	Secondary teacher in home country, English teacher in Taiwan, English teacher at private school in the host country	Left case institution to return to Australia to satisfy requirements for family's permanent

								residence application
R5	Isabella	Female	Married	Filipino	Coordinator	Law degree, GCTTL	Lawyer	Employed at case institution
R6	Tan	Male	Married to local	Australian	Coordinator	Bachelor degree, Master degree in Engineering, MBA, GCTTL	Engineer, director of multinational	Employed at case institution
R7	Lynn	Female	Married	North American	Coordinator	Bachelor degree (Coordinated Stdies), CELTA	English teacher in two private schools in host country	Employed at case institution
R8	Patrick	Male	In relationship in local	British	Coordinator	Bachelor degree, CELTA, DELTA, Master (Applied Linguistics)	Corporate Executive, Corporate Expatriate in Japan, Volunteer English teacher and teacher trainer in Cambodia, English teacher in host country	Employed at case institution
R9	Sharon	Female	Married to local	Australian	Lecturer	Bachelor degree (Japanese Studies), Master (International Relations), CELTA, GCTTL	AusAID Youth Ambassador teaching English in Japan, AusAID Youth Ambassador in host country, university administrator	Employed at case institution
R10	Johann	Male	Married to local	Dutch	Manager	Bachelor degree,	IT intern, IT teacher, freelance software	Employed at

							MBA, GCTTL	developer	case institution
R11	Gazi	Male	Married	Turkish	Coordinator	Bachelor degree (Mathematics), GCTTL	Secondary Math lecturer at two Thai universities, Secondary Math teacher at international school in Thailand	Employed at case institution
R12	Rafa	Male	Married	Spanish	Left institution, now in management	Bachelor degree, GCTTL	IT Technical support in Spain, Software developing in gaming industry in Spain, part-time Spanish dance teacher in host country	Left case institution prior to interview
R13	Maree	Female	Married	Australian	Left institution; now in management	Bachelor (Education), Master (Education)	Secondary teacher in UK, Lecturer of Education in Australia	Left case institution prior to interview
R14	Lena	Female	Married	Filipino	Coordinator	Bachelor	Business, Tertiary teaching	Employed at case institution

Firstly, the interview is often described as the "favoured digging tool" of social researchers as they are reliant on verbal accounts to learn about people's lives (Taylor & Bogdan, 1998). Jenesick (in Esterberg, 2002) provides a definition of an interview which is consistent with interpretivism as "a meeting of at least two persons to exchange information and ideas through questions and responses, resulting in communication and joint construction of meaning about a particular topic" (p. 83).

Qualitative interviewing, also called "in-depth", "open-ended" and "semi-structured" interviewing, resembles a conversation between equals. The interviewer's role is not just to collect information but to try to understand the respondent's perspectives on their lives, experiences or situations "in their own words" (Taylor & Bogdan, 1998)

Using a semi-structured interview format, the aim is to allow respondents to express their ideas, thoughts and opinions in their own words. The researcher may have some basic ideas about what to cover during the interview, but the responses will determine what questions are subsequently asked. Importantly, each interview must be tailored to each individual research participant (Esterberg, 2002). However, to ensure that the respondents address the research questions, an interview guide may be used. Unlike quantitative questionnaires, surveys or structured interviews, which tend to be rigid and specify exact order and wording of questions that must be adhered to, the interview guide may specify topics or questions that need to be covered during the interview but may not exclude other topics generated by the respondent. However, the interviewer may ask additional questions and may vary the order of the questions depending on how the interview is progressing. The semi-structured interview offers "the best of both worlds" by ensuring that a core of issues are covered while at the

same time allowing variation of sequence and topics "around and out of the core." (Freebody, 2003, p. 133)

For this qualitative study, a semi-structured, in-depth interview was the most appropriate tool for gathering data, given the need to explore participants' feelings and innermost thoughts. To prepare for the interview, a schedule of questions was formulated. These were derived from the literature survey as well as the pilot exploratory study completed as part of Assignment 5 of the doctoral program and are shown in Table 3.2 below.

Table 3.2: Interview Guide

Specific Research Questions	Possible Interview Questions and Probes
For what reasons did the expatriate academics leave their previous job and country (whether home or otherwise)?	-Why did you leave your home country? -Where did you go? -What job did you do? -How did you get the job? -What did you like/dislike about the job? -How long did you work there? -Why did you leave the job?
Why and how did they choose and apply for a job at the particular case transnational university?	-How long have you been at (name of the case institution)? -What was it about (the case institution) that attracted you to the job here? -How did you feel about moving to (name of the host country)? -How much did you know about the job you were coming to?
Why have they chosen to stay working at the present transnational campus?	-What makes you stay at (name of the case institution)? -Which particular benefits appeal to you? -In what way have forces external to the institution affected your decision to stay? -What are you plans for the future? -To what extent are your plans influenced by your working conditions at (name of the case institution)?
What might influence you to leave the case institution?	-What are some aspects of working at (name of case institution) that might cause you to leave? -What could (name of the case institution) do to keep you working here for another 2-3 years?

	-What are some external factors that might influence your decision to leave (name of case institution)?

Additional questions and probes were allowed to emerge naturally from the responses in each interview. To prepare myself for the interview, I wrote "procedural" notes. These are shown in Figure 3.1 below.

Wednesday, 17 September 2009

Preparation for interview with Jane Bywaters (JB)

I will be interviewing Jane Bywaters at 10 a.m. tomorrow at The British Club. To ensure that we have quiet and privacy, we will use The Windsor (outside) and we will order drinks before. We will have lunch after the interview.

To prepare for the interview, I will review the "generic" questions and print out a hard copy. I will handwrite additional questions to ask based on what I already know about her, e.g. that she is a widow.

I *must* remember to give her a copy of the Informed Consent Form, explain it and then get her to sign it. I must also explain the process of member-checking.

Figure 3.1: Procedural Code Notes

The interviews were recorded using a digital recorder with the full knowledge and permission of the participants. While I was initially concerned that recording the interview may inhibit the respondents,   once they "warmed up", they appeared to forget that the interview was being recorded and were very willing to converse openly. By recording the interviews, I was able to maintain better rapport throughout as it allowed me to make eye contact and pay full attention to the respondent's answers and body language while recording the transcript faithfully.

3.8   Transcription

While transcription methods may vary, with some researchers noting only key points, others providing a word for word reproduction, and others still transcribing not

just words but also pauses, intonation, overlap and other aspects of discourse analysis, for research purposes it was desirable to represent the speech as faithfully as possible by transcribing the interview verbatim. However, I chose not to include the codes of conversational analysis as that would have made the transcripts less reader-friendly. Particularly in qualitative research, goodness and trustworthiness are established by allowing the data, in this case the transcripts, to be the "star" (Chenail, 1995). In other words, the data must be presented as evidence. Live quotations are the essence of capturing meaning and the researcher has a duty of verisimilitude to present data so that the readers can understand how the researcher has reached particular conclusions.

3.9 Data Analysis

In grounded theory, data analysis is a process of making meaning out of raw data. It is a creative and not just mechanical process. Coding refers to taking raw data and raising it to a conceptual level (Corbin & Strauss, 2008a). It is not simply paraphrasing or noting concepts in margins but a process requiring interaction with the data. As the data were coded and analysed, concepts were developed which were then further developed into sub-categories and categories, which then evolve into embryonic or foundational theory. The criteria for evaluating the emergent theories were based on how well they "fit" and "work" with the data and concepts:

> By "fit" we mean that the categories must be readily (not forcibly) applicable to and indicated by the data under study; by "work" we mean that they must be meaningfully relevant to and able to explain the behaviour under study (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 3).

While coding focusses on the data, to enrich understanding of concepts and categories in the data and to further develop the analysis, it is useful for the researcher to keep

field notes or memos (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). These are informal reflective notes written by the researcher during and after the interviews and during each round of data analysis. Procedural memos or "code" memos help the researcher to remember how the coding was done, what categories were created and what categories were rejected (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Analytical memos help the researcher to think about the themes and categories that have emerged and to make connections between and among them (Esterberg, 2002). In addition to memos, theoretical notes and diagrams are also used to prompt the researcher to think at a theoretical level and to begin to shape the research report. Such memos and notes are essential as they serve to further objectify the data and the experience of data collection. They also constitute an audit trail which is essential is establishing trustworthiness.

Coding in grounded theory is extremely rigorous and involves open, axial and selective coding. While open and axial coding were treated as different and distinct stages in earlier writings on grounded theory, the distinction between the two is now seen as "artificial" as open and axial coding "go hand in hand" (Corbin & Strauss, 2008a, p. 198). Open coding is mainly concerned with demonstrating how, why and from where early concepts and categories are derived. The researcher must provide evidence of how the concepts and categories can be traced back to the data. This requires the researcher to work intensively with the data line by line to break the data into units of meaning. The purpose of this is to break down, examine, compare, conceptualise, and categorise the data (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). As noted above, the categories should not be "forcibly" applied, so researchers should simply let ideas emerge from the data rather than make the data fit preconceived categories. At this stage of analysis, numerous codes with potential meaning and relevance should be noted (Moghaddam, 2006).

The actual act of open coding may be done in various ways, with some researchers scribbling codes in the margins and others using coding software such as NVivo or HyperResearch. As I did not have access to such software, I simply utilised the "Review" function in Microsoft Word, adding a "New Comment" for each code as shown in Figure 3.2. While coding, I recorded recurrent ideas in the data and relationship between concepts and categories in a separate memo. This is known as a coding memo and is shown in Figure 3.3.

Following open coding, I analysed the codes, including some key "in vivo" quotes that had been identified to determine whether they would form categories and sub-categories. By looking now at the codes, concepts and categories derived from open coding and not at the raw data itself, I was able to move towards greater abstraction. This type of coding allowed me to move towards axial coding, to re-assemble the data and relate categories and sub-categories according to properties and dimensions (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

In axial coding, the researcher attempts to relate codes, including categories and sub-categories (also known as properties) to each other. By reassembling data that was fractured during open coding, core categories, which may include typology and causes, can be discovered (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). The data are analysed in view of any existing literature that might be available in order to demonstrate how the data fits or can extend the existing body of knowledge. The aim of this is to reduce the number of codes and to collate them in a manner to show how they relate. Relationship elements may include phenomena, intervening conditions, action strategies, consequences and causal relationship. For the purpose of this study, which investigated the reasons for leaving or staying in a job, a useful way to reduce the

number of codes was to look at the causal relationships, which are the events or variables that led, according to the participants, to the occurrence of a phenomenon.

1 INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT

2

3 Friday, 18 September, 2009

4 10.30 a.m. The British Club, Singapore

5

6 I: I'm interviewing to find out really why people like you, why you joined
7 ▮, but mainly I'd like to know why people stay there cos I think it will help
8 ▮ to know why people stay. We always think that if we give people more
9 money, or we improve the conditions that we'll get people to stay. But I also
10 want to know what other factors would influence your decision to stay. So let
11 us backtrack and let me ask you, what was your life like before ▮.

12 JB: Before ▮ or before I became an expat?

13 I: Maybe just going back to what made you leave your home country, which is
14 England, isn't it.

15 JB: Yeah, so I was living a very comfortable life. I was a senior manager in
16 national museums where I'd been for 25 years.

| | Comment [A1]: Comfortable life |
| | Comment [A2]: Long time in job |

17 I: Was this in London?

18 JB: Yes, so I'd worked first for the science museum and then for the museum
19 of London, and I was the head of interpretation at the museum of London, so
20 it was a management responsibility. I enjoyed it, It was the normal very
21 stressful, and museums are always strapped for cash, so there were quite I
22 wouldn't say inter-necine wars, but there was a lot of corporate battling
23 going on at this corporate place.

| Comment [A3]: promotion |
| Comment [A4]: "management responsibility" |
| Comment [A5]: Enjoyed management responsibility |
| Comment [A6]: "stressful" |
| Comment [A7]: Stressful because of lack of funds |
| Comment [A8]: Corporate battling/conflicting relationships? |

24 I: So did you go straight from university into your museum job?

25 JB: Almost, I spent... my first degree was in microbiology and I spent three
26 months working in a microbiological company, and I loathed it. And after
27 that I decided that I didn't want to be a lab rat, a lab technician, and I ended
28 up applying, so I worked, I answered an advert in New Scientist for the
29 Science museum, and I worked first in the chemistry department, then in
30 history of medicine then ended up in the interpretation department

| Comment [A9]: From a different background |
| Comment [A10]: Non conforming, willing to make dramatic change |
| Comment [A11]: Job Change |
| Comment [A12]: Job change |

31 I: What exactly is interpretation department?

32 JB: Interpretation is the bridge between the knowledge that is inside the
33 curator's head about the object that the visitors can see and getting that
34 information out to the visitors in a way that they can understand, because
35 very few visitors have expertise. Most people who come into a museum
36 don't have expertise and I was there in the late 70s early 80s and it was still
37 very much complicated label, a caption in a glass showcase written by one
38 expert to be read by another expert.

| Comment [A13]: Related to education |

39 I: So was this at the Science museum?

40 JB: Yes, it was at the science museum. So I worked for a long time in trying
41 to get, I was one of those people who tried to make museums more
42 intelligible to other people, and we were involved in introducing drama into
43 the museums, we were introducing lots of live events, lots of the sort of
44 interactive activities that would engage the visitors.

| Comment [A14]: Worked for a long time |
| Comment [A15]: Agent of improvement |

Figure 3.2: Open Coding of Interview Transcript

> *Recurring ideas/themes:*
>
> *-LOYALTY TO THE ORGANISATION. She seems to stay for long periods in each organisation.*
> *- "COMFORTABLE LIFE". Does she see this as positive or negative? Does "comfortable" have connotations of routine and bring? Is she escaping from the boredom of Britain (cf IAES in literature)*
> *-PROMOTION. She seems to want "management responsibility" and constantly seeks promotion. But promotion brings stress. Is this one of the reasons she left?*
>
> *- NON-CONFORMING. Even this early in her working life, she is willing to make a dramatic change and veer from a predictable choice of job. Is this a personality trait? Literature talks of history of job movement among IAEs.*
>
> *- CHANGE AND VARIETY. Within the one organisation, she appears to like/need change and variety in her job. She "values" change and excitement. Is this a personality trait? Does this need for change apply at a individual and professional level? Gets frustrated when there is no opportunity for promotion and change.*
>
> *- AGENT OF IMPROVEMENT. She seems to want to improve things. When she sees a problem, she wants to solve it. She wants to be an agent of change.*
>
> *-CRITICAL INCIDENT. Her husband's death was a critical incident. Did this trigger the need for change or was the need for change already inherent? She appears to crave change but perhaps was prevented by her husband's illness. "Right time" or "freedom from impediment" borne out in the literature on independent expatriate women and volunteers.*
>
> *Note: Look out for concepts of BOREDOM, CHANGE, AGENT OF IMPROVEMENT, CRITICAL INCIDENT in other transcripts.*

Figure 3.3:   Coding Memo derived from Transcript shown in Figure 3.2

The final stage of analysis is selective coding. The main objective of selective coding is to identify a core category and to systematically relate it to other categories so that a grounded theory may be proposed (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Several metaphors have been used to describe selective coding. Strauss and Corbin (1990) explain that the core category must be "the sun ... standing in orderly systematic relationship to its planets" (p. 124). Another metaphor used to describe selective coding is that of a descriptive story (Corbin & Strauss, 2008a). By looking at the codes

and core categories, a story line emerges. This story line becomes the core category (or "the sun" as described above) around which subsidiary categories (like "planets") must systematically relate to. To validate foundational grounded theory, the researcher evaluates hypothetical relationships between categories in view of the actual data and refines and reclassifies categories so that grounding of the theory can be completed.

In summary, open coding allowed me to form concepts and these were clustered into categories; axial coding then enabled me to look at the relationships between the categories, in this case, cause-effect and typology; finally, selective coding enable me to look for a common underpinning core category that encapsulates all categories.

3.10 Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness is an important criterion used to judge the overall "goodness" of qualitative research. Unlike quantitative researchers, who apply concepts of validity and reliability, qualitative researchers use different criteria. As qualitative work is grounded on different epistemological and paradigmatic foundations, it is reasonable that different criteria should be used to judge the research (Jones, et al., 2006). While some qualitative researchers continue to assess validity looking at, for instance, the "transactional" and "transformative" validity of a study (Cho & Trent, 2006), others have increasingly taken on the term "goodness" to describe the validity and reliability of qualitative research (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). In particular, the notion of trustworthiness in naturalistic inquiry calls upon researchers to address areas such as researcher credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). Jones et al (2006: 121) explain that elements of goodness must address "epistemology and theoretical perspective, methodology, method, researcher and

participants as multicultural subjects in the representation of voice, analysis and presentation, and recommendations for professional practice".
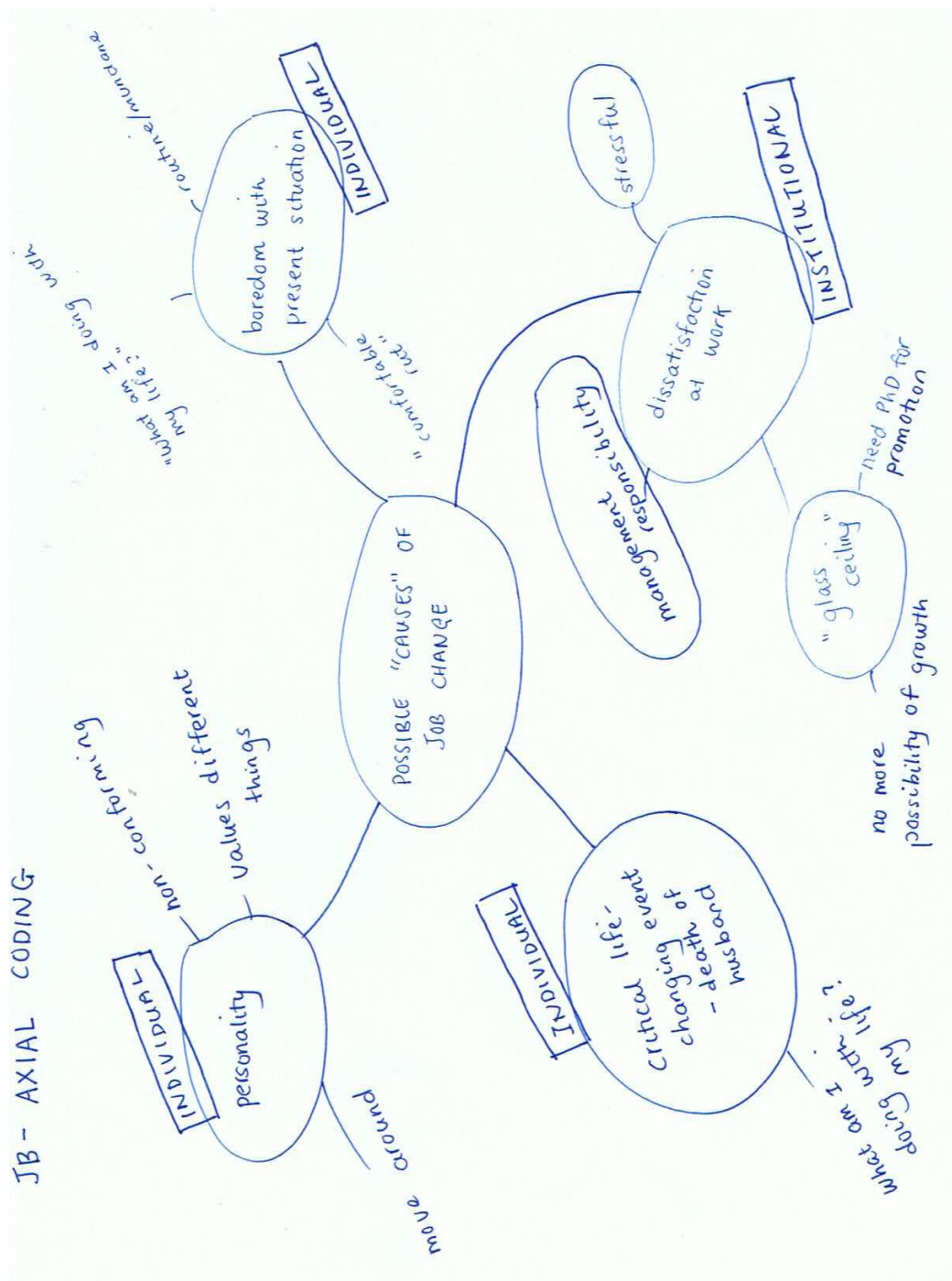
Figure 3.4: Open to Axial Coding – Diagrams Showing Relationships between Codes, Concepts and Categories

Combining Lincoln and Guba's (1985) foundational ideas of trustworthiness with more recent notions of "goodness" (Arminio & Hultgren, 2002; Cho & Trent, 2006; Glense, 1999; Lather, 2003; Van Manen, 1997), some key ways in which I tried to establish "goodness" are by disclosing researcher positioning; ensuring transformational validity or relevance; and providing thick description of data.

Researcher Positioning

Positioning, also known as "positionality" (Jones, et al., 2006, p. 31), pertains to the relationship between the researcher and the participants and the researcher and the topic. Discussions on researcher positioning are often included in discussions about the role, stance or posture of the researcher, which within a positivist paradigm, hinges on having a bias-free, objective researcher. However, within a constructivist epistemology and an interpretive paradigm, it is accepted and acceptable that researchers and respondents are not value-free but carry their own biases, backgrounds, experiences and agendas to the research. Subjectivity is, therefore, inherent in the research. Nevertheless, an attribute of trustworthiness and goodness requires that researchers clarify why they are engaged in the present study, what personal biases and assumptions they bring to the study and what the researcher's relationship is with the respondent. Arminio and Hultgren (2002) go so far as to ask for an "autobiographical rendering" of the researcher. This is essential to establish trustworthiness especially within an interpretive paradigm as the researcher is the instrument of analysis. To this end, knowing about the researcher's background, biases and assumptions allows the readers to understand the context and judge how trustworthy the research interpretations and findings.

Although explained in Chapter 1, it is useful to reiterate some of my reasons from a perspective of demonstrating trustworthiness. My reasons for undertaking this study were both pragmatic and idealistic. As an academic manager working in the case institution, issues such as under-staffing and staff turnover were of great concern to me as they affected the quality and reputation of the institution. Additionally, as an independent academic expatriate myself, I sought to provide an accurate representation of the lives and experiences of people like myself, who are often considered by our colleagues in the home institution to be inferior. Some of the relevant literature on transnational education suggests that transnational academics are perceived by lecturers in the home institution to be of lower status. As stated in Chapter 1, McBurnie and Ziguras (2007) explain that the term "aca-lite" (p. 16) is sometimes used "disparagingly" to refer to academics who teach and do little or no research, as is generally the case for transnational academics. However, this perception fails to consider how the unconventional career histories, extensive travel experiences, professional field experience and intercultural flexibility of many transnational academics make them suited to teaching in an offshore context. There is certainly a glimmer of critical theory in my perspective, with the hope that my findings will bring about social action in favour of transnational academics. As a member of this "inferior" group, I am likely to be biased in favour of representing independent academic expatriates in a positive light and perhaps understating some of our limitations.

Another barrier to trustworthiness and goodness are the biases and assumptions borne by the researcher, especially if the researcher is an insider. However, based on the social interactionist ethnographic underpinnings of grounded theory, it might be argued that sometimes it is helpful for the researcher to be an "insider" in order to fully

understand the research setting and context. Therefore, my position as a member of the group that I was researching may not be seen as a liability but an asset. Especially during the interview process, my familiarity with the respondents and their situations as a result of having worked with them for at least two years allowed me to make optimal sampling choices to achieve maximum variation and achieve "prolonged engagement" (Glense 1999) with respondents. However, it is important to note that as I was perceived to be aligned with management, respondents might either make certain statements in the hope that it would be passed on to management or they might avoid being overly-critical for fear that it might be construed against them. To mitigate these risks, I explained to respondents that the purpose of the study was solely for doctoral work and provided an assurance of strict confidentiality. I also provided opportunities for member checking, so that respondents were able to check for accuracy of their meanings. The potentially negative effects of being an insider-researcher were decreased by the time I did the interviews as I was no longer employed by the case institution and was, in fact, not living in the country any longer.

Finally, an important part of establishing positioning is to demonstrate the researcher's ethical position. As explained by Denzin and Lincoln (2004), ethics asks "How will I be a moral person in this world?" (p. 183). In the context of research, the researcher has to show the steps taken to undertake the research morally. From my perspective, undertaking the research "morally" entails, firstly, being responsible to the respondents by ensuring confidentiality and anonymity; and secondly, conducting the research in a trustworthy manner.

Transformational Validity or Relevance

An important but controversial aspect of trustworthiness in qualitative research is "transformational validity, which Cho and Trent (2006, p. 324) describe as "the

resultant actions prompted by the research endeavour". This perspective of is echoed by Jones et al who regarded "recommendations for professional practice" as a key element of goodness (Jones, et al., 2006). Arminio and Hultgren (2002) more emphatically write:

> For what purpose do I engage as a researcher in this way? It is not for the sake of research itself that researchers should embark upon their work, but rather to improve the lives of others. Interpretive research is initiated for the purpose of improving the world through more informed action (p. 427)

As discussed previously, the topics of transnational education and transnational expatriate academics as a group are under-researched and there are perceptions about the differences between traditional and transnational academics based on scant and unsystematic research. This study hopes to provide "more informed action" to guide management policies and strategies particularly in recruitment and retention of transnational academics. As well, it hopes to give a voice and identity to the growing number of independent academic expatriates working in transnational institutions around the world. In these ways, it endeavours to achieve transformational validity, an important measure of goodness.

Thick Description of Data

As well as providing an "autobiographical rendering" of myself to allow the readers to assess how my possible biases and assumptions may skew the research design and data collection, a third way to increase trustworthiness is to   provide thick description of the data, including an audit trail, so that readers will be able to assess if the interpretations and conclusions drawn are reasonable. While interpretations can

never be right or wrong, it is important to provide evidence of how the researcher arrived at a particular interpretation based on the data. A key component of trustworthiness related to the "truth value" of interpretations is credibility.

Credibility refers to whether the researcher's judgement is reasonable in light of the topic and situation (Hammersley, 1990). To establish credibility in interpretation, it was necessary for me to describe the context and respondents in detail, record and transcribe the interviews verbatim and keep memo notes for inclusion in the audit trail, it was also necessary to provide sufficient direct quotes of respondents' statements to support assertions.

What extent of direct quotation is needed to provide thick description? In one of the few academic books dedicated to the subject of how to disseminate qualitative research, Hughes (2003, p. x) discusses the complexity of reducing masses of qualitative data: "Being required to reduce your work to one side of A4 is, at best, frustrating, and at worst, leads to significant distortion and misrepresentation of the voices of both research informants and researchers". Although the thesis allows more than "one side of A4", it has still be necessary to reduce the data and findings to fit the word limit. Several measures have been taken in the interest of economy. Firstly, the in vivo quotes have been edited to remove conversational fillers (such as "um", "er", "ah") and repetition. However, other features of conversation such as grammatical slips and ellipses (omission of words) or non-native word choice and expressions have been retained to allow the unique "voices" of the respondents to be heard. Secondly, it has been necessary to select only portions of statements and to compress responses from more than one conversational turn. Critics of qualitative research and postmodernists may rightly point out that this is a serious threat to trustworthiness. However, within the interpretive paradigm, which is built upon a constructivist

epistemology, the role of the researcher in constructing knowledge is inherent. Hence, researcher bias cannot be totally eliminated but can only be minimised by making the reader aware of the researcher's positioning and purpose for doing the study.

A further challenge in reporting qualitative research concerns the use of numbers and statistics, which "researchers may introduce … to give general patterns to show the boundaries of context, but the numbers will not drive the qualitative analysis" (Mann, 2003, p. 74). As mine is an exploratory study in a relatively under-studied area and one of its main objectives is to discover the many and varied reasons governing the decision to change jobs, the frequency with which a reason is cited is not presumed to have any bearing on its validity or significance. Therefore, even if only one respondent mentions a particular reason, this reason is still considered as valid and truthful. Where numbers are provided, the purpose is only to show patterns and not to espouse the prominence of those reasons that were enumerated.

3.11 Summary

This chapter has provided an overview of and justification for the research paradigm, approach and methods used in this study. Stemming from the need for "epistemological consistency" (Crotty, 1998), which demands that the methodological process used by the researcher suits the purpose of the study and reflects that researcher's beliefs about ontology, epistemology and methodology (Denzin & Lincoln, 2004), I presented a justification for my choice of an interpretive paradigm, qualitative methodology, and grounded theory approaches to sampling, data collection, interviewing and data analysis. Specifically, the value of open, axial and selective coding in "mining" and refining the data was exemplified. Issues related to ensuring trustworthiness, such as clarifying researcher positioning, providing thick description

and ensuring an audit trail were also addressed. The next chapter provides a summary

of the theory that is proposed from the data.

CHAPTER 4: Towards a Substantive Theory of

Decisional Job Location – An Overview

4.1 Introduction

The aim of this study is to investigate the influences that shaped the decisions of independent academic expatriates (IAEs) to seek, remain at or leave their jobs at a transnational branch campus in a rapidly developing country in Southeast Asia. Fourteen IAEs were interviewed with the aim of identifying the main influences that shaped their decisions to work at this specific location, both in terms of the institution and the host country. Using grounded theory approaches to data collection, coding and analysis, categories of reasons and types of IAEs emerged, on the basis of which a foundational theory of decisional job location is proposed.

While it is usual in theses to present the results in Chapter 4 and analyse them in Chapter 5, for grounded theory studies it is helpful to provide an overview of the theory framing the data and to explain how the theory was developed prior to presenting the results. This will enable the reader to penetrate the considerable volume of data presented in the following chapter and to achieve a more holistic understanding of the theory.

To this end, this chapter begins by providing a summary of the theory that is proposed from the data. It then explains how grounded theory coding techniques were used to derive categories and typology and eventually to arrive at the theory. The chapter then identifies types of IAEs on the basis of the relative prominence of the categories in their decisions to change job locations. Finally, propositions related to the theory of decisional job change and the typology of IAEs are presented.

4.2 Foundational Theory of Decisional Job Location among IAEs

The theory of decisional job location proposes that IAEs make decisions about change of job location on the basis of personal, vocational, relational, institutional, and geographical reasons which exert "push", "pull" and "static" forces, the interplay of which influences the outcome of their decision-making to stay at or stray from their present job location. Furthermore, the relative prominence of each category and their overall pattern varies across IAEs, generating a typology. As shown in Figure 4.1 on the following page, the interplay of personal, vocational, relational, institutional, and geographical reasons combine to exert "push", "pull" and "static" forces, which result in the IAE's decision to stay at or stray from their present job location.

4.3 Development of the Theory

The categories, types and theory itself put forward in this study were derived using grounded theory approaches which, as explained in Chapter 3, are particularly useful for dealing with masses of raw data in relatively unexplored areas of study. Three stages of data analysis were undertaken: open, axial and selective coding.

Personal
Reasons

Geographical
Reasons

Vocational
Reasons

Institutional
Reasons

Relational
Reasons

PUSH/PULL FORCES =
Decision to Leave

STATIC FORCES = Decision
to Stay

PUSH/PULL FORCES =
Decision to Leave
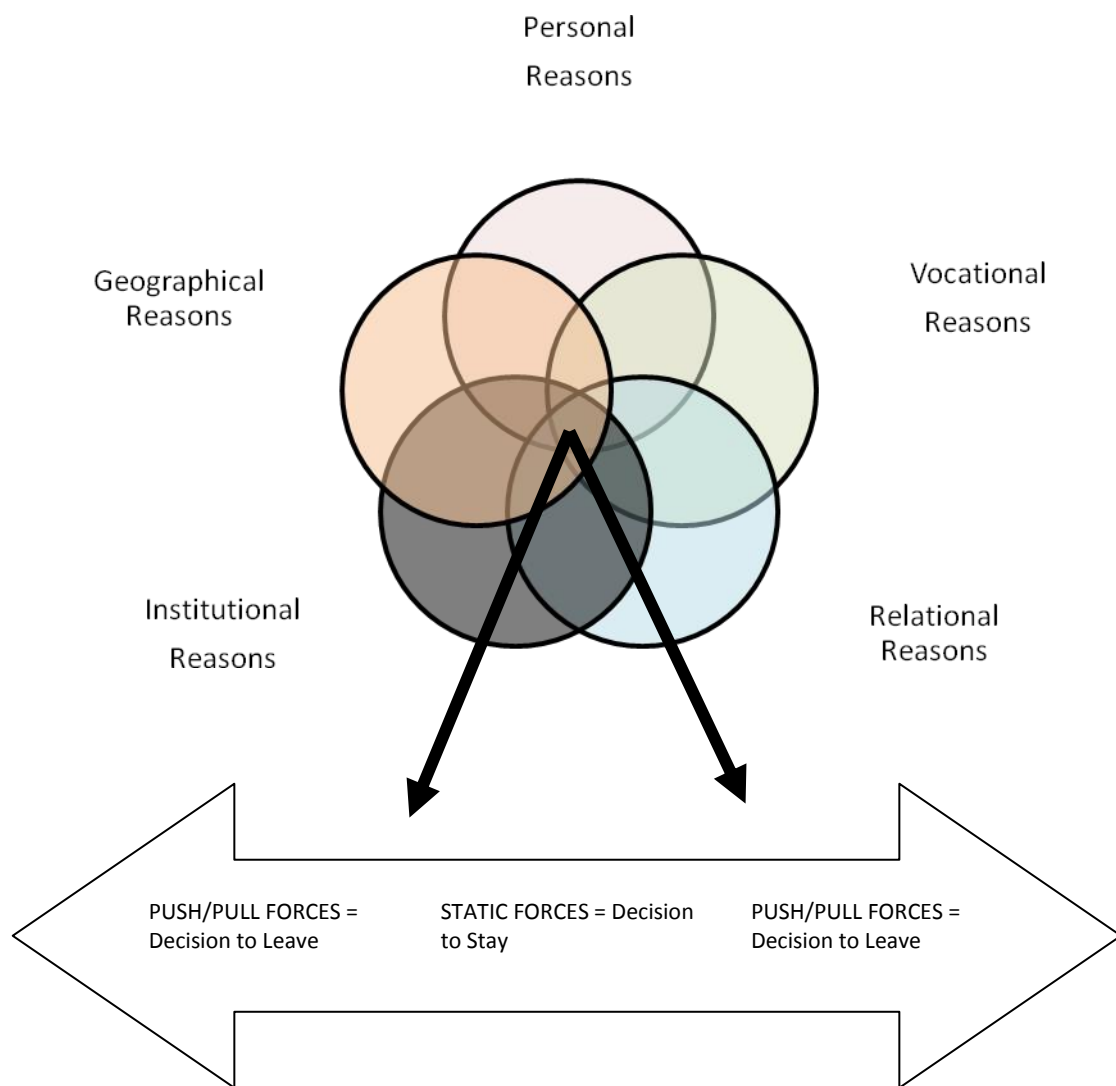
Figure 4.1: The Theory of Decisional Job Location

4.3.1   Open Coding

The main purpose at this stage is to break down, examine, compare, conceptualise, and categorise the data with a view of identifying conceptual categories, related properties and dimensions (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Categories should not be "forcibly" applied, so researchers should simply let ideas emerge from the data rather than make the data fit preconceived categories. Questions were based on the specific research questions (SRQs), focussing on the following:

- Reasons for Leaving: This includes reasons IAEs left their previous job(s) and/or country of residence; potential reasons that might impel IAEs to leave the case institution; and actual reasons that resulted in three IAEs leaving the case institution.

- Reasons for Joining: As this is a study of expatriates, this category includes both reasons for coming to the case institution per se and/or the host country initially.

- Reasons for Staying: This includes reasons for staying at the case institution. As above, IAEs may choose to stay at the case institution as a means of remaining in the host country.

The process of open coding of the data from this study yielded five main categories:

- Personal: Personal factors centre upon the individual IAE's feelings, desires and needs. They are highly changeable and may be influenced by events and circumstances surrounding the IAE at the present time. Unlike "Vocational" forces described below, "Personal" forces are centred on how much happiness the IAE can derive for him or herself.

- Vocational: Stemming from Palmer's (2007) idea of "vocation" or "calling", vocational factors relate to how well the job aligns with the IAE's value system, specifically how much "deep gladness" the IAE derives from the job and whether it brings "academic happiness" (Martin, 2011). As values are generally entrenched in adults, vocational factors are usually resistant to change. Vocational factors also relate to the alignment of the job with the IAEs current interests, background and experience. Unlike "Personal" forces,

"Vocational" forces also include how much happiness the IAE can bring others and how much the IAE can help to transform individuals or societies.

- Relational: These pertain to the IAE's relationships with others, mainly managers, colleagues, other foreigners, and host country nationals.

- Institutional: Institutional factors relate specifically to the case institution. They include salary, promotions, job security and opportunities for career development. While relationships with former managers and colleagues are discussed under "Relational Reasons", relations with managers or colleagues at the case institution are discussed under "Institutional Reasons" as these relationships happen within this specific setting.

- Geographical: This relates to the country or region in which the case institution is located. The present study is located in a rapidly developing country in Southeast Asia. Relationships that are bound by the location of the host country are explored within this category.

Properties and Dimensions

Through the process of open coding, properties and dimensions were identified. As shown in Table 4.1 on page 105, properties relate to individual aspects of categories. For each property, it was necessary to look further at dimensions. In grounded theory, dimensions indicate the strength or weakness of each of the individual properties. Within this study, dimensions measure the strength or influence of a property in terms of exerting "push", "pull" or "static" forces on the decision-making of IAEs. The resultant of all "push", "pull" and "static" forces is the final decision to stay at or leave the current job location.

To sum up, during open coding, the data were broken down, examined, compared, conceptualised and categorised to discover the following conceptual categories:

- Personal;

- Vocational;

- Relational;

- Institutional; and

- Geographical.

Their related properties and dimensions were also identified in relation to the resultant force or influence exerted on the IAEs eventual decision to stay at or stray from their job location.

4.3.2 Axial Coding

Following open coding, axial coding was undertaken. In axial coding, the researcher attempts to reassemble data that were fractured during open coding by relating codes, including categories, to each other (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Relationship elements may include phenomena, intervening conditions, action strategies, consequences and causal relationships. As this study investigated reasons for leaving, joining or staying in a job, a useful way to reduce the number of codes was to look at causal relationships, which are events or variables that led to the occurrence of a phenomenon. Figure 4.2 on page 107 shows how data that was fractured during open coding was reassembled during this stage of coding.

Table 4.1: Categories and Properties

Reasons/Properties	Properties		
Category	**Reasons for Leaving**	**Reasons for Joining**	**Reasons for Staying**
Personal	-Desire for escape -Desire for change	-Desire for adventure	- Uncertainty about obtaining employment elsewhere
Vocational	-Misalignment with values -Misalignment with current interests, background and experience	-Desire to teach -Desire to work in developing country	- Opportunity to transform society
Relational	-Conflict with manager(s) -Conflict with colleagues	-Desire to be with partner -Invitation from current staff at case institution -Impressions of current staff at case institution	-Relationships with host country nationals -Relationships with students
Institutional	-Excessive workload (Previous) -Excessive emphasis on profit (Previous) -Lack of challenge (Potential) -Lack of autonomy (Potential and Actual) -Lack of fringe benefits (Potential and Actual) -Lack of recognition (Potential and Actual)	-Reputation -Specific Terms and Conditions -Physical facilities	- Opportunity for promotion - Opportunity for job variety - Opportunity for professional development
Geographical	-Cultural factors -Social factors -Economic factors	-Attraction to host country	-Economic and lifestyle benefits of living in host country

KEY:

L=Reasons for Leaving (Previous, Potential and Actual)

J = Reasons for Joining

S = Reasons for Staying

Codes and Concepts from Data

Personal (P) | Vocational (V) | Relational (R) | Institutional (I) | Geographical (G)

L J S | L J S | L J S | L J S | L J S

Reasons for Leaving
P V R I G

Reasons for Joining
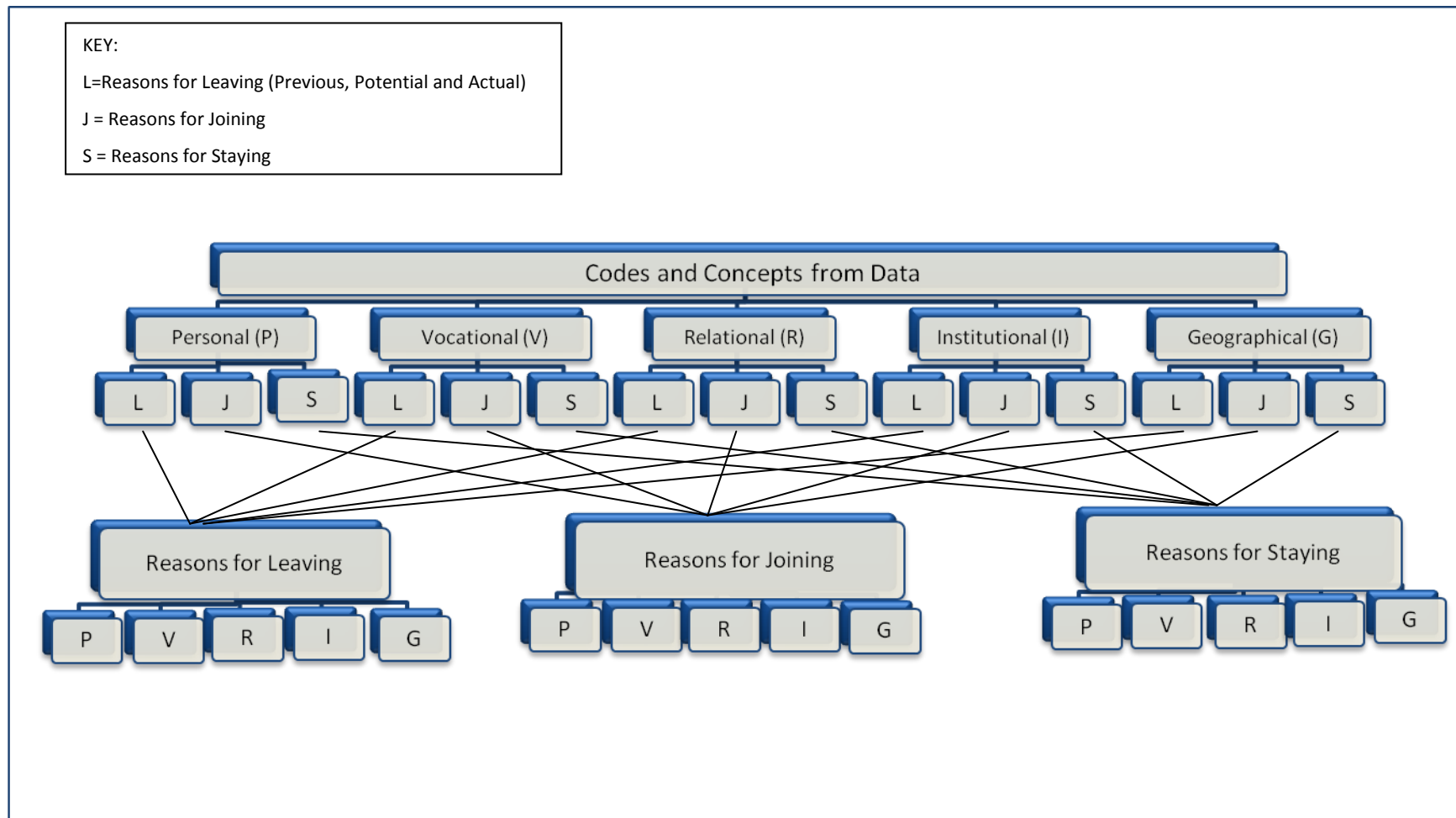P V R I G

Reasons for Staying
P V R I G

Figure 4.2: Fracturing and Reassembling of Data in Open and Axial Coding

A systematic way to carry out axial coding was to apply the Strauss and Corbin's (1990) paradigm model. An important construct in the theory of decisional job location, which investigates why IAEs leave or stay, is causal conditions. In the present study, the phenomenon investigated is why IAEs leave or stay, and causal conditions are "factors that lead to the occurrence of the phenomenon, the subject under study or the central idea" (Moghaddam, 2006). The application of this process to one of the phenomena in this study serves to illustrate the value of axial coding in reassembling data systematically and thoroughly. What follows is an example of axial coding applied to one specific participant. It is presented as a way of illustrating axial coding.

The **phenomenon** that was examined is exemplified in the decision of one of the IAEs to leave the case institution for a job at an international school. The **causal conditions** leading to this phenomenon was the IAE's unhappiness in the current job, which stemmed from conflict with his manager over workload, lack of recognition from his manager, lack of compensation for extra work, and excessive control from the home campus. The causes of his dissatisfaction were viewed within the **context** of the IAE's job location, a small information technology department at a transnational branch campus in a developing country in Southeast Asia, which further explained his heavy workload and lack of autonomy from the home campus. **Intervening conditions** included a negative reference given by his manager for his application for an award; the timing of annual leave, which resulted in having to be separated from his wife at Christmas; and a job offer from an international school in the host country. **Action/interactional strategies** such as attempts to engage with his manager and search for alternative employment eventually led to the **outcome** of leaving the case institution.

By tracking the decision-making of all 14 IAEs through this process, clusters of personal, vocational, relational, institutional, and geographical reasons for job change became apparent. On the basis of the prominence of reasons in each of the above categories, four IAE types were identified:

- Opportunist

- "Kin-nected"

- Expatriate Partner

- Altruist

These types are discussed in detail in Section 4.5.2 below. The types were recognisable among, and derived from, the 14 IAEs. However, in tracking the IAEs through the types, it became clear that the types are not mutually exclusive. In other words, IAEs generally displayed traits belonging to more than one type but showed predominant traits belonging to one type. This makes perfect sense as human beings are complex and their motivations are multi-dimensional and multi-faced. This finding offers a strong reminder about the dangers of typecasting or stereotyping IAEs.

4.3.3   Selective Coding

The final stage of analysis, selective coding, aims to identify a core category and to systematically relate it to other categories so that a grounded theory may be proposed (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Using the metaphor previously mentioned of the sun and planets, they explain how the subsidiary categories, like planets, must revolve around the core category, the sun. In this study, the core category around which all other categories revolve is "decisional job location" or, simply put, the influences that

shape the decisions of IAEs to change job location, be it the institution and/or the country. This metaphor is illustrated in Figure 4.3 below.
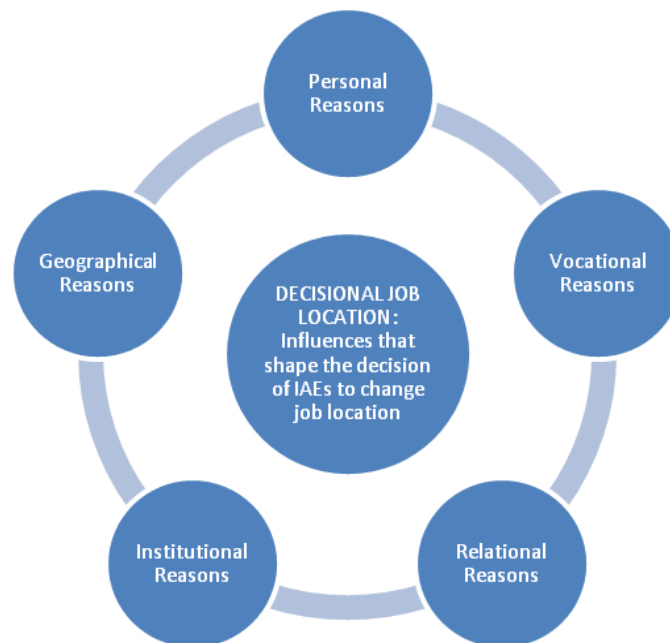
Figure 4.3: Metaphor for Selective Coding

4.4 The Story Line of the Theory of Decisional Job Location

Another metaphor used in selective coding is that of a descriptive story (Corbin & Strauss, 2008a). A story is a descriptive narrative about the central phenomenon of the study, in this case, the decision to change job locations, and the story line is a conceptualisation of the story (Pandit, 1996). By looking at the main issues or problems faced by the participants, it is possible to develop a story line that unites the codes, subsidiary and core categories.

Although there are few examples of this in the research, what follows is an attempt at a more intensive application of the metaphor of a story. By comparing traditional elements such as character, setting, problem (dilemma), conflict, climax,

resolution, themes and character type, it is possible to develop the story line in greater depth.

This study tells a story of 14 IAEs (characters) working at a transnational branch campus in a rapidly developing country in Southeast Asia (setting). The study centres upon the indecision of many of the IAEs in regard to where they prefer to locate themselves for work (creating problems or dilemmas). The IAEs' experiences can be thought of as personal, vocational, relational, institutional and geographical aspects, some of which are in "conflict" as they grapple with positive and negative properties of each of these categories. The dimensions (strengths or weaknesses) of the individual properties create "push", "pull" or "static" forces. The climax of the story occurs when the "push", "pull" and "static" forces combine to result in the decision to stay at or stray from the current job location (resolution). Some decide to stay, others to leave.

As in any story, there are multiple themes interacting, the central of which is desire for change, including change of job, profession, institution, and even country. Another theme is that of conflict, sometimes with managers, colleagues, the institution and even the self, when there is a misalignment between an IAE's job and values or background. A third theme is relationships, extending to relations with co-workers, students, and partners. Finally, there is the theme of social transformation, which IAEs contribute to by teaching within the context of a developing country. Among the patterns of experiences and responses felt by the participants, it was possible to group the 14 into four types - Opportunist, "Kin-nected", Expatriate Partner, and Altruist - with members of each type possessing similar predominant characteristics.

Continuing the metaphor of a story, it is useful to look at character types. The 14 IAEs display traits associated with "round" character types in literary analysis,

defined as "characters [who] are complex and undergo development, sometimes sufficiently to surprise the reader" (www.britannica.com). As described below, when confronted with the need to make a decision about job change, IAEs ascribe importance to different clusters of reasons and responds to the interplay of forces differently. Those with similar clusters of reasons, including reasons that exerted and not exert any influence on their decision-making, are grouped according to one of four types: Opportunist, "Kin-nected", Expatriate Partner or Altruist. These types are described on pages 115 to 119.

By analysing the story using literary analysis approaches, including setting, problem (dilemma), conflict, climax, resolution, themes and character types, it is possible to unify the codes, categories, properties and dimensions into a proposed theory explaining how IAEs make decisions about job change. This analysis also enables us to identify four types of IAEs on the basis of patterns of experiences and responses felt by the participants, with members of each type possessing similar predominant characteristics. A detailed exposition of the four types is presented in Chapter 6.

To sum up, following open, axial and selective coding, five categories of causal conditions could be identified: personal, vocational, relational, institutional, and geographical. These categories of causal conditions, referred to in my study as "reasons", form the tenet of the theory of decisional job location. The categories of reasons were regrouped into three larger categories - reasons for leaving, joining and staying - on the basis of the research questions posed at the start of the study.

4.5 Propositions

Following the three stages of coding, a foundational or "emergent" theory of decisional job location was proposed. On the basis of this theory, two related sets of propositions are presented. They are divided into propositions relating to the theory (theoretical propositions) and propositions relating to the typology.

Propositions Relating to the Theory

- *Proposition 1:* In making decisions about job change, IAEs are influenced by reasons that span across the five categories identified in this thesis. All IAEs are influenced by reasons in more than one category. While the main reason for moving may be more motivated by reasons in one category, for example, the desire to accompany a spouse, other reasons such as career opportunity or lifestyle benefits are likely to have a bearing on their decision-making. This is not surprising, as human beings are complex and their motivations are multi-dimensional and multi-faceted.

- *Proposition 2:*   Reasons for IAEs decision on job location are normally both intrinsic and extrinsic. All IAEs are influenced by both intrinsic and extrinsic reasons. Extrinsic factors include boredom with one's current lifestyle or with routine, or the desire to escape particular obligations and/or circumstances. As these factors are extrinsic, it may be argued that the non-occurrence of these situations or events would mean that the IAE might not choose to leave. Intrinsic factors stem from the values, attitudes and aspirations of the IAE, many of which are generally inherent in adults. Because of intrinsic factors, IAEs may desire change regardless of their satisfaction with other aspects, namely vocational, relational, institutional and geographical.

- *Proposition 3:* IAEs seem to share a pre-disposition, a desire, and a willingness, to change jobs and job locations. IAEs, more than other academics, seem

to possess a pre-disposition and a willingness to change their work environment, especially being attracted to work environments in new and different cultural surroundings. This is self-evident in that all of the IAEs had moved to the host country and many had a history of career discontinuity. If not properly managed, this desire for constant change may manifest in dissatisfaction and departure. Besides the fact that this propensity to move has implications for the individual IAEs themselves, it is also important for the case institution to take into account. For example, if the IAE is valued, then the institution may want to provide promotional, job variety and professional development opportunities so that these IAEs can experience change within their jobs rather than seeking it elsewhere.

- *Proposition 4:* "Push" forces are more likely to actively influence a decision to move when accompanied by a "pull" force. Even though IAEs may be dissatisfied with their jobs, unless there is a viable alternative (a 'pull'), they are unlikely to leave. Therefore, in difficult economic times, IAEs' mobility tends to reduce and retention increase. Conversely, in times of economic boom, IAEs are more prepared to change jobs. In such times, the IAEs' preparedness to take a decision to leave is enhanced and if the case institution wishes to retain their service, then it needs to put even more effort into securing such an outcome.

- *Proposition 5:* Serendipity and opportunity both play an important part in shaping the decisions of IAEs to join the case institution. This is true for all 14 IAEs, even for the three who had come specifically to join the case institution. For those three, the job opening at the case institution coincided with the end of a contract at their previous institution, aligning their job search with the job opening. For the others, they were in the host country at a time when enrolments were booming hence the need for more teachers.

- *Proposition 6:* Lifestyle benefits offered by the host country are a key attraction. The lifestyle advantage of the host country was the only reason for staying that was cited by all IAEs. Lifestyle advantages pertain to the relative cost of living compared to the income of the IAEs and the quality of life the IAEs are able to enjoy. Factors such as access to home help, increase in savings and increase in disposable income featured highly among all IAEs.

These propositions are generated from the theory of decisional job location based on responses from the 14 cases in the present study.

Propositions Relating to the Typology

As noted above, IAEs may be classified into four types according to the prominence of reasons within each category and the outcome of their decision-making. While the types are not mutually exclusive and the four groups may share many common reasons, there are also some reasons that are distinct according to type. IAEs are ascribed a type on the basis of the dominant influences and outcomes that are shared only among the members of that particular type. Figure 4.4 demonstrates the overlap between some of the types.
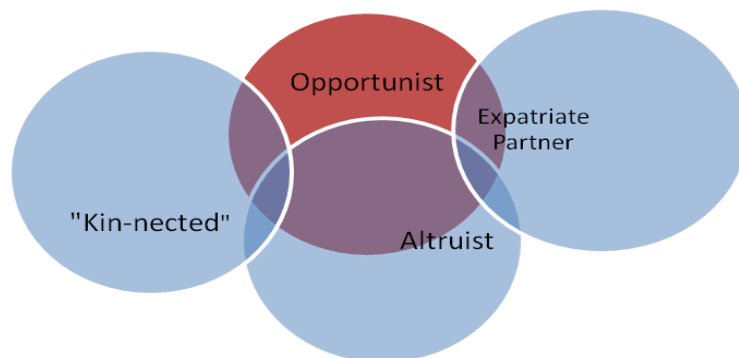
Figure 4.4   A Typology of IAEs

Based on the data from the study, the following propositions about typology are presented applicable to each type: Opportunist, "Kin-nected", Expatriate Partner and Altruist.

Opportunists

Opportunists are not actually motivated by any particular set of reasons but respond to personal circumstances and job opportunity. Like a leaf in a wind storm, these IAEs are willing to move to or stay at the case institution, or in the host country, as long as it conveniently suits their present needs, desires and circumstances.

The three who are typified as "Opportunists" had 17 properties common. The main influences in their decisions to change jobs were: desire for escape, desire for change, conflict with managers, lack of challenge, terms and conditions, professional development opportunities, and economic and lifestyle benefits of the host country. For this group, personal reasons (83%) were most influential in their decision-making with institutional reasons second (53%). In common with Opportunists, all IAEs in the study shared the desire to stay at the case institution and, in consequence, the host country because of the economic and lifestyle benefits associated with living there.

"Kin-nected"

"Kin-necteds" are motivated mainly by geographical reasons. All of these IAEs had initially come to the host country without a partner but ended up married to or in a relationship with a host country national. All of them had worked elsewhere in the host country before joining the case institution. Although the job at the case institution was a matter of opportunity and availability, their decisions to stay or leave is highly dependent on the ability and willingness of their partner to move overseas – hence the influence of "kin-nectedness" (being connected by "kin" or family).

Generally, IAEs with male partners have much greater difficulty than those with female partners to move overseas. The five IAEs typified as "Kin-nected" shared 9 common properties, the most crucial of which are their relationships with a host country partner and their attraction to the host country. They were also influenced by an invitation from an employee of the case institution, the reputation of the case institution, job variety opportunities, and the economic and lifestyle benefits of the host country. As their attraction was and remains to a host country national, geographical reasons (60%) feature prominently. Not surprisingly, the fondness for the people translates into a desire to help the country and people, hence the impact of vocational (52%).

Expatriate Partners

Expatriate Partners are motivated almost entirely by their desire to be with their partners. These IAEs came to the host country primarily for this reason, and the job at the case institution was a result of opportunity and timing thereafter. The decision of an Expatriate Partner to stay is almost entirely dependent on the movements of the spouse. The three main reasons cited by Expatriate Partners were the desire to be with their partner, attraction to the host country (because their partner was there), and attraction to the economic and lifestyle benefits of being there. These IAEs were not particularly attracted to the host country or case institution per se but ended up in these locations because of their partners. The influence of relationships with host country nationals did not feature in any way in their decisions to stay as they were already in relationships with their own foreign partners. Most notably, the three institutional "stay" factors – opportunities for promotion, job variety and professional development – did not matter to them. Among the three Expatriate Partners, two had left by the time

of interview. The main reason that the remaining IAE stayed was because her husband was still working in the host country and they enjoyed the lifestyle there.

Expatriate Partners are distinguishable from "Kin-necteds" not simply on the basis of nationality or gender. While "Kin-necteds" are genuinely engaged and have made a long-term commitment to the host country, Expatriate Partners are there solely to be with their partners. Once their partners move on, so will they.

Altruist

Altruists are motivated by an innate desire to contribute to individual and social transformation and to help develop society by affecting the lives of students through the act of teaching. Among the 14, one IAE displayed a particular pattern of responses uncommon to the others. His decision-making was influenced by his to desire teach, to help the host country, and to transform society by influencing students. The influence of institutional factors on this IAE appears to be weak as he was not influenced by terms and conditions, physical facilities, and opportunities for promotion, job variety and professional development. Instead, an invitation from a manager at the case institution, its reputation and facilities drew him, as did his attraction to the lifestyle in the host country, his country of birth.   For this IAE, vocational reasons (60%) were predominant while personal (25%) and institutional (25%) reasons appeared to matter less.

In conclusion, it is essential to reiterate that the types are not mutually exclusive. While an IAE may belong to one type on the basis of dominant clusters of reasons he or she shares with other members of that type, there are also commonalities with other types. As well, each IAE is unique as no IAE has exactly the same reasons as another influencing job change decisions. This makes perfect sense as human beings

are complex and their motivations are multi-dimensional and multi-faceted. This conclusion is a reminder about the dangers of typecasting or stereotyping IAEs.

4.6 Summary

This chapter provided a summary of the theory of decisional job location. It explained how grounded theory coding and analysis techniques were used to derive categories and a typology and eventually to construct a theory. The chapter then identified types of IAEs on the basis of the relative prominence of the categories in their decisions to change job locations. Finally, propositions relating to the theory and typology of IAEs were presented.

CHAPTER 5: The Voices of Independent Academic Expatriates (IAEs)

5.1   Introduction

As noted in Chapter 3, perceptions about transnational academics are based on scant and unsystematic research. Indeed, one of the aims of this study is to give a voice and identity to a few of the growing number of independent academic expatriates (IAEs) working in transnational institutions around the world.   In this chapter, the "voices" of the 14 IAEs who were interviewed will be heard though a presentation of selected data from the interviews. The data cover the influences that have shaped their decisions to change job locations.

As discussed in the previous chapter, during the process of open coding, the categories which emerged from the codes and concepts were as follows:

- Personal;

- Vocational;

- Relational;

- Institutional; and

- Geographical

As clearly demonstrated in Figure 4.2 in Chapter 4, during axial coding, these were re-assembled into the following, with the above categories now forming sub-categories:

- Reasons for Leaving: personal, vocational, relational, institutional, and geographical;

- Reasons for Joining: personal, vocational, relational, institutional, and geographical; and

- Reasons for Staying: personal, vocational, relational, institutional, and geographical.

These categories and sub-categories now provide structure for the following presentation of data.

5.2 Reasons for Leaving

This section describes reasons that IAEs left their previous job locations, be it institution and/or country. The section "Institutional Reasons for Leaving" also discusses **potential** reasons for leaving the case institution and **actual** reasons that prompted three of the IAEs to leave the case institution as these responses directly answer one of the specific research questions of the study. It is acknowledged that as this is a study of expatriation, there is obviously some overlap between institutional and geographical factors; in deciding to work at the case institution, some of the IAEs had to leave their home or previous country. Table 5.1 on page 121 summarises some of the key reasons for IAEs in this study left their previous job locations. It also shows potential and actual reasons that instigated three IAEs to leave the case institution.

5.2.1 Personal Reasons for Leaving

Two overriding themes underscore the decisions of IAEs to leave: escape and change. The desire to escape boredom, obligations and emotional distress coupled with the desire for change were the main personal "push" forces.

Table 5.1: Summary of Reasons for Leaving

CATEGORY	PROPERTIES
Personal	Desire for escape
	Desire for change
Vocational	Misalignment with values
	Misalignment with current interests, background and experience
Relational	Conflict with manager(s)
	Conflict with colleagues
Institutional (Previous)	Excessive workload
	Excessive emphasis on profit
Institutional (Potential and/or Actual)	Lack of challenge
	Lack of autonomy
	Lack of benefits
	Lack of recognition
Geographical	Cultural factors
	Social factors
	Economic factors

Desire for Escape

The motivation cited by eight respondents (Gazi, Lena, Ralph, Lynn, Isabella, Johann, Ralph, and Tan) was the desire to escape boredom or routine. In some cases, boredom stemmed from their jobs, but in others, the IAEs were bored with the routine of their lives. This desire is typified by comments made by Isabella, who had been a lawyer: "I was ready for a change in environment ... change in my life ... so I came here... started working here". Similarly, Tan, a senior manager with a multinational company, conceded that although the increasingly difficult business environment was a contributing factor, boredom had also motivated him to return to the host country, his country of birth. For these and other IAEs, the desire to escape featured as a key reason.

Escape was also Gazi's main reason for leaving. However, Gazi left not primarily to escape boredom but his legal obligation to undertake three years of

compulsory military service: "In Turkey every man must go to military service after university ... there's an option - if you are working abroad … three years abroad constantly in the same institution... you can do military service only for 3 weeks". Like Gazi, Dave sought escape. For Dave, who had been a secondary teacher all his life, the requirements of teaching in the Australian state system became unbearable, and this prompted him to make a change from teaching secondary to English as a Second Language (ESL).

Another reason IAEs left was to escape emotional distress brought about by critical incidents. Following her husband's death after a long illness, Bern decided to abandon a lifetime of stable and sustained employment to train as an English language teacher and seek employment in Portugal.

> Then overnight my husband died … and it was one of those "Oh my God!
>
> What am I doing with my life?" type moments. And I looked back at my
>
> life and you know I had been commuting to London for 25 years.

While death of a loved one prompted Bern to leave, Tan left to escape a difficult divorce: "I think there has got to be some personal reason based more on the divorce. After divorce, difficult, difficult time".

In the above cases, the "push" factors were extrinsic. However, among several IAEs was an intrinsic need for constant change, even to change countries. This is sometimes described as "wanderlust".

Desire for Change

Of the many definitions of "wanderlust", the one from www.dictionary.com most appropriately describes this "strong or innate desire to rove or travel about". For Gazi, boredom is "a constant thing" and the urge to move is irrepressible, to such an

extent that he would apply for jobs regularly: "One of my second jobs is applying for jobs! I keep applying for jobs! My hobby. When I see something interesting, I apply. I don't care if they accept or not". Other IAEs who experienced this kind of "wanderlust" had lived overseas when they were growing up.

The literature on expatriation notes the trend among children of expatriates to become expatriates themselves (Pollock & Van-Reken, 1995). Sometimes called Adult Third Culture Kids (ATCKs), they are noted for their lack of cultural identity and rootedness and their ability to live in many worlds but belong to none. Gary's comments typify this:

> Where I was born or where my passport is?... It's an interesting question … representative of a generation whose parents moved continually. And so even growing up, we didn't really have sense of home or this is your roots because every three years, you were some place different. And so that adult life has been the same, so we don't have that sense of rootedness … in my case, I was born in France, then moved to Canada then live in the States, Germany, England.

From the above, it is clear that personal reasons may be intrinsic or extrinsic. Extrinsic factors include boredom with one's routine or the desire to escape obligations or circumstances. As these are extrinsic, arguably, the non-occurrence of these situations or events would mean that the IAE might not choose to leave. However, intrinsic factors stem from the values, attitudes and aspirations of the IAE and these are generally entrenched in adults. Therefore, IAEs who experience wanderlust may desire change regardless of other aspects, namely vocational, relational, institutional and geographical.

5.2.2   Vocational Reasons for Leaving

The literature on academic job turnover has provided valuable background in understanding why academics leave or intend to leave their jobs. As explained in previous chapters, "vocation" looks specifically at how much "deep gladness" (Palmer, 2007) and "academic happiness" (Martin, 2011) the IAE derives from the job rather than institutional conditions such as salary, work hours and benefits. Hence, "vocation" embraces both the personal and job realms as it looks at how well their industry or job aligns with the IAEs' current values and background.

In explaining their reasons for switching fields, IAEs spoke generally about their dissatisfaction due to the mismatch between the job and their values, current interests, background, and experience. Nine IAEs did not merely change jobs or locations but switched professional fields altogether. They moved into teaching from jobs as different as working as a musical entertainer (Gary), curator (Bern), chef (Ralph), lawyer (Isabella), engineer (Tan), information technology specialist (Johann and Rafa), manager of a multinational firm (Patrick) and accountant (Lena). The remaining five IAEs had come from teaching backgrounds, with two from secondary teaching (Dave and Gazi) and the other two from English language teaching (Lynn and Sharon). Only one had taught university-level courses (Maree).

<u>Misalignment of Values</u>

Five IAEs (Rafa, Johann, Ralph, Bern and Sharon) had left their previous job because of the misalignment between the requirements of the job and their values. An example is Rafa, who had started in software development but ended up in tele-gaming, found his values at odds with the requirements of his job:

> I was in software development in-house … …doing SMS-based advertisements and quizzes and contests and so on, which…while being

fully legal, was not exactly gratifying, like working in a casino … easier
… because in a casino … you see the people come in and lose their
money but here it's more detached.

For Johann, Bern, Ralph and Sharon, who were in teaching jobs, the need to
compromise their values for the sake of profit eventually contributed to their decisions
to leave. This is discussed further in Section 5.2.4 below.

<u>Misalignment with Current Interests, Background and Experience</u>

While Rafa's discontent stemmed from a mismatch between his values and the
requirements of the job, others were discontented because their job was misaligned
with their current interests, background and experience. One IAE who had been
working for a long time in the service industry found the constant complaining
unbearable with "people complaining that the ice-cubes were too cold and the grapes
are too sweet and the chicken's too salty" (Ralph). For Sharon, a mismatch between
the job and her background caused dissatisfaction. After completing a Masters degree
in Development Studies, which she hoped would lead to project management, Sharon
found herself teaching English to students "between the age of 15 and 55!" instead of
doing project management.

In summary, vocational reasons pertain to negative features inherent in the
IAE's previous job or industry rather than those related to a specific institution.
Surprisingly, nine IAEs (Bern, Sharon, Rafa, Johann, Gary, Isabella, Ralph, Tan and
Lena) had begun their careers in non-teaching fields. They were motivated to leave
because they had become frustrated, bored or disillusioned with their previous
industries or jobs and/or because of a mismatch between their values and/or
backgrounds and the job requirements. Inasmuch as they were being "pushed" away

from those jobs, the perceived attraction of teaching was equally responsible for their decisions to change jobs.

5.2.3 Relational Reasons for Leaving

Relational reasons pertain to the IAE's relationships with others, including managers and colleagues, students, other foreigners and host country nationals. The literature on job turnover intent discusses lack of collegiality, poor relationships with departmental colleagues and poor relationships with school or college administrators as job change factors (Conklin & Deselle, 2007). In this respect, there is clearly an overlap between institutional and relational reasons. To provide clarity, repulsion factors that are caused by poor relations with individuals, including managers and co-workers in previous job locations, will be discussed in this section. While it may be argued that managers are part of the institution and may simply be implementing institutional orders, in reality, it is the individual person that the IAE interacts and experiences strained relations with. Therefore, poor relations with previous managers and colleagues are purposefully discussed in this section.

<u>Conflict with Managers</u>

Among the IAEs in my study, four had left their previous job(s) because of poor relations with their managers. For Gazi, a difference of philosophy resulted in his departure: "I had some problems with the director of school, we didn't go well together … philosophy mostly, like he was a religious person and he wanted to make certain things and I didn't like that way". Like Gazi, Ralph decided to leave his previous job because of poor relations with his managers, whom he felt "were pretending to pay attention to us and we sort of got suckered into thinking that they actually were".

An extreme case of breakdown in relations with management is evident in the case of Dave, who had been teaching in Taiwan during the outbreak of the SARS epidemic and had faced the hostility and aggression of his managers when he asked to leave:

> SARS virus broke …The crisis got that bad, the Americans had closed their consulate, they had air-lifted staff out, and my family was frantic about me … there were 80 new infections in the city in Taipei and there were eight deaths. That was the week I decided to leave… They [my managers] were hostile. They felt that I had let people down, that the Taiwanese nationals who were working there couldn't go anyway, I was abandoning ship… [they] were quite aggressive.

Conflict with Colleagues

While the above IAEs were prompted to leave because of poor relations with management, in a previous job in Portugal, Bern's relations with her colleagues resulted in her departure:

> The owners needed some help … which I was quite happy to do ... but my friend ... she was absolutely spitting blood …   She couldn't believe they'd asked me instead of her ... she was incredibly upset and ... what friendship we had just vanished … it was difficult because they'd been the social life ... I wouldn't say we were bosom buddies, but we got on, and there was somebody to go out with.

While Bern tried to compensate for the loss of this friendship by becoming "closer to the Portuguese people at the school and the newer teachers … it was never really, never quite as comfortable", hence she decided to move on.

On the whole, differences with managers and/or colleagues drove some IAEs to leave their previous job location. It was promising to note that none of the IAEs complained about difficult relationships with students and only very rarely about difficulties with host country nationals. This may have been due to the amount of time spent with co-workers, reinforcing the old adage that "familiarity breeds contempt" and hinting at the need for IAEs to have separate lives and friendships outside work.

5.2.4 Institutional Reasons for Leaving

These are repulsion factors that stem directly from the policies and practices of a specific institution. They include factors such as promotion, job security, research opportunities, and workload. In the analysis of institutional reasons below, it is crucial to distinguish between reasons for leaving the **previous** and the **present** job since an awareness of actual and potential triggers may well enable the case institution to address relevant issues and alter institutional policies or practices to improve retention. To reiterate, while the rest of the discussion on "Reason for Leaving" has focussed on reasons that IAEs left their previous jobs **(previous reasons),** the discussion that now follows includes **potential** reasons for leaving and **actual** reasons that prompted three of the IAEs to leave the case institution .

Institutional Reasons for Leaving Previous Job (s)

This section describes some of the reasons IAEs left their previous job(s). Of the 14 IAEs, Bern, Sharon, Rafa, Johann, Dave, Gazi, Ralph and Lena had left their previous job(s) because they had been dissatisfied with particular aspects of the job. Excessive workload, excessive focus on profit, the lack of challenge, autonomy,

benefits and recognition were also sources of dissatisfaction as was the "for-profit" nature of their previous educational institution.

Excessive Workload

Excessive workload was identified as major "push" factor for Lena, who had endured a series of stressful jobs in Thailand:

> I was overworked, 24/7 phone calls…very stressful for me and I decided to … I wanted to start a family. I moved to a Thai university and then I got pregnant, and I was approached by that Australian university to work with them, once again stress ... the stress was too much for me even to a point when I was hospitalised with no reason.

Similarly, Bern found herself "trapped" with a heavy workload. In Bern's case, it was due to the sudden departure of key staff members: "Originally there'd been a DOS [Director of Study], an ADOS [Assistant DOS] and two coordinators. We ended up with just her and me … having to teach as well, so we just got ourselves into a ridiculous trap".

For Lena and Bern, the recurrence of stress as a reason for leaving previous job leads us to question whether the stress stemmed from the job or whether it was intrinsic. These IAEs appear to be trapped in a cycle of change which is typified by entry into a less-stressful job, instigation to change, promotion, resultant stress and job changed. Hence, it may be questioned if institutional factors are responsible for their departure or whether it is a personal behavioural pattern.

Excessive Emphasis on Profit

Another key institutional reason appears to be the institution's excessive emphasis on profit to the detriment of academic quality, integrity and professionalism.

The impact is even stronger if the "for-profit" orientation is misaligned with the beliefs and values of the IAE. In this regard, the convergence of the personal, vocational and institutional aspects of job change is clear. Bern and Sharon expressed revulsion with this emphasis on profit to the detriment of academic quality. This was also a concern for Ralph and Lena. Interestingly, Sharon had previously worked on government aid projects and saw their vocation as such but for family reasons were unable to engage in development aid work.

Bern, who had spent the bulk of her working life employed by public institutions in England, faced a moral dilemma with what she perceived as management's willingness to compromise academic integrity for the sake of profit:

> At (name of institution) we'd been forced to take Level Zero people … because it was totally money-oriented, so they were recruiting people from the Arabic countries, because Malaysia was a Muslim country so it was a safe place to send people to learn English, so we had Yemeni and Saudi students who couldn't even write the letters.

Summing up, excessive workload, resulting in extreme stress and even sickness, and dissatisfaction with the institution's emphasis on profit-making contributed to the decisions of these IAEs to leave their previous institutions. In fact, these IAEs reported being drawn to the case institution because of its integrity and professionalism. While these aspects of the case institution continued to appeal to them even after three years of employment, other features of the case institution began to bother them and other IAEs, as discussed below.

Institutional Reasons for Leaving the Case Institution (Potential and Actual)

During the interviews, respondents were asked if there were any factors that might prompt them to leave the case institution (potential reasons). As well, the three who had left (Rafa, Maree and Dave, though Dave later re-joined) were asked what the main factors were that had cemented their decisions to leave (actual reasons). Answers to these questions provide valuable insights about current sources of dissatisfaction at the case institution. Among the 14 IAEs, the main pressure points were excessive workload, lack of challenge, lack of autonomy, lack of recognition, and lack of specific benefits.

Lack of Challenge

While it could be argued that the lack of challenge is a vocational rather than institutional factor, in the cases below, the lack of challenge resulted from being assigned the same courses repeatedly. Helping employees to develop and grow is largely the responsibility of the organisation hence lack of challenge is seen here as an institutional problem. Comments from Gazi, such as "I want to teach something more challenging" and from Ralph, who says "I don't want to keep doing the same thing over and over", show that these IAEs crave challenge in their jobs. Even more passionate are Patrick's complaints about the monotony of teaching the same course. His dissatisfaction is worsened by the heavy workload and having to teach the course "back-to-back":

I couldn't have stayed in English forever ... it becomes like a treadmill, I can just remember doing L62 courses, which are 5 weeks, back-to-back, and thinking "I'll die if I do this much longer" because I don't get to know

students and I'm working all hours, it's just exhausting, and even when
you do longer stretches, it's still factory, it's still starting again.

Patrick's description of the courses as a "treadmill" and "factory" alludes to the approach of delivering transnational education, where the home campus is responsible for curriculum development, assessment oversight and quality assurance and the case institution simply delivers the courses with little or no autonomy. This lack of autonomy appears to be a major source of dissatisfaction.

Lack of Autonomy

For the IAEs in this study, lack of autonomy was the result of too much and too little: too much control by the home institution coupled with lack of say in matters at the case institution. Excessive control from the home institution was experienced in several ways. One was the growing emphasis on research and publication as part of academic career development. Lack of autonomy was also experienced as the inability to make changes to course content and delivery. This was indeed an "actual" push force which eventually prompted Rafa to leave the case institution.

The requirement to undertake research especially frustrated those IAEs who had switched industries to come into teaching, a vocation that brought them great satisfaction. Three cases in point were Patrick, Gary, and Rafa. All three were irked by the case institution's growing emphasis on research over teaching excellence: "When (name of Vice-Chancellor) was here, he was talking about … we'd have to get more research-based, that's not a particular interest of mine, I don't particularly want to go down that road" (Patrick). Gary, who had been a rock artist in his early twenties, expressed great disillusion with the "commodification" of education, which, in his

opinion, was forcing academics away from teaching towards pursuing recognition in less meaningful ways.

> I get the sense that this whole commodification of education … is … turning professors into performers … no different from being a pop star. It's like "Okay, I've got to have public relevance, I need to publish in the right journals." I mean how is that different from "I need to get a single out in the charts?", and "I need to get my face in enough newspapers so that people know who I am". And I mean, everything is … turning into that, kind of business now.

As well as being frustrated by the "McDonaldisation" of transnational education, Rafa felt restricted by the home campus's control over course content. These frustrations eventually led to his departure from the case institution for a job at an international school:

> I feel that the whole academic world in Europe and the US and Australia is too focussed on the PhD. There is no space for teaching excellence. There is only space for research excellence and I think we are doing a very weak favour to our students.

While not all of the respondents objected to research, even those who were keen wanted to do self-determined rather than institutionally-determined research: "something practical, something that I happen to like myself" (Johann).

In addition to being restricted by the home institution, some IAEs (Bern, Sharon, Rafa, Patrick, Isabella, and Tan) felt that they were equally constrained by policies and practices at the case institution. In the main, their frustration emerged because they felt they lacked the opportunity to engage with management. These IAEs

expressed resentment of "higher management", which they believed allowed them "little say" in the affairs of the case institution.

<u>Lack of Benefits</u>

Studies on job turnover intent cite discontent with benefits as a major reason for leaving. For the IAEs in this study, salary and bonuses were not identified as a source of dissatisfaction. In fact, because the case institution was located in a developing country and the IAEs were paid foreign salaries in US dollars, all agreed that they were better off financially than they would have been in their home country. The main sources of dissatisfaction concerned annual leave and schooling benefits for their dependent children. Of the three IAEs who left, all mentioned the length and timing of leave as "push" forces.

Both the length and the timing of annual leave were identified as issues. Because the case institution offers three semesters a year, there are few opportunities for extended leave. Yet for IAEs living away from their home countries, it is not only desirable but necessary to take longer periods of leave. When asked to reflect upon the overriding reason he left the case institution, Dave explained:

> The main reason was the leave provisions were not enough for me to maintain contact with my elderly father... my mum had died in 2001 and my father was on his own ... I got back as often as I could but found that the leave just wasn't enough... I found that my father was lonely.

While Dave was dissatisfied with the length of annual leave, Rafa's complaints were mainly about the timing of annual leave, especially because it did not align with the leave schedule of his partner, who was working at an international school. The

"horrible holiday calendar", which resulted in his having to spend two Christmas holidays in the host country without his wife, contributed to his decision to leave.

Like Dave and Rafa, Maree also sought a more family-friendly leave schedule. However, for Maree the "defining factor" or "deal breaker" was "schooling for the kids", specifically the case institution's policy of not paying international school fees for dependent children. This shortcoming was also identified by all but three of the IAEs in my study as a very real and likely "push" force. Of the 14 IAEs interviewed, five (Lynn, Maree, Lena, Ralph and Tan) had school-age children; one (Dave) had a local step-child; five (Sharon, Rafa, Johann, Isabella, and Gazi) were considering becoming parents; and only three did not plan to have children hence were not concerned about this benefit. It is understandable for those with children to be concerned about this issue, yet it was echoed even by those who were only considering having children. This is likely because of the prohibitive cost of international schooling.

For Tan, "50-60 per cent" of his salary went to school fees for one of his two children. The situation was equally grave for Ralph, whose decision to have a second child would mean having to leave the case institution: "The pivotal point ... if we decide to have another child ... can I afford not one international school tuition but two?" With two young children, Lynn also felt that unless the case institution could contribute to school fees for her children, it would be make better financial sense for her to return to her home country: "If I don't get that [contribution to school fees] then there's really no reason for me to stay here". To their credit, none of these IAEs expected the case institution to bear the full cost of schooling. Tan, Maree and Lynn expressed willingness to stay long-term if the case institution was willing to meet "between 50 to 60 per cent" of the school fees.

<u>Lack of Recognition</u>

Another institutional problem identified mainly by those teaching English was lack of recognition. Despite the numbers, proportion and importance of this group, which made up 41 per cent of the teaching staff, English teaching staff felt discriminated against. Sharon's comments typify those of other IAEs in her department, revealing their resentment:

> They [English language teachers] are not respected as professionals ... there is this feeling that as English teachers, you're just doing it short-term, you're not professional, or you can't be trusted to do what you should, what you're required to... think English teachers are very aware of it ... a feeling of "us" and "them"... it's a shame ... not being treated in the same way in that we couldn't have our own computer.

Of the 14 IAEs interviewed, seven had initially begun as English language teachers. They were Bern, Sharon, Lynn, Patrick, Maree, Dave, and Ralph. At the time of interview, all but Bern, an Assistant Program Manager by this time, had moved into other areas of the university, suggesting that there may indeed be some veracity in Sharon's grievances about the unequal status and treatment of English language teachers at the case institution.

While those in English language teaching felt the lack of recognition from the institution, Rafa, one of the three IAEs who had actually left, was offended by his manager's failure to recognise the extra hours he had voluntarily put in, to acknowledge his contribution and to seek some form of compensation on his behalf:

> I felt that ... my manager, didn't fight for that. He just said "do it!" (name of manager) is a good guy, but he has an incredible capacity for work.

He is very happy to put 60 hours a week and he feels everybody else
should do the same... I felt extremely alone and undefended ... The JAVA
course ... was taught three hours when I arrived .... Now increase from
three to four a week was, it's something that I gave ... there was no
compensation for it.

Although there is clearly a relational element to the problem, it is discussed under
"Institutional" forces as it occurred within the confines of the case institution.

To sum up, the main institutional reasons for leaving were lack of challenge,
lack of autonomy, lack of specific benefits, namely annual leave and schooling for
children, and lack of recognition. Among the three IAEs who had left the case
institution, Rafa, Maree and Dave, lack of recognition, autonomy and benefits were
identified as **actual** "push" forces. Although they were clearly discontented, it is
notable that none of them moved until they had lined up an alternative job. The
interplay between the "push" of their previous job and the "pull" of their next job is
important as it may be speculated that "push" forces may not be acted upon without
the prospect of an alternative.

5.2.5   Geographical Reasons for Leaving (Previous and Potential)

Geographical reasons relate to a particular country, including political, socio-
economic and cultural aspects. It is extraordinary that among the 14 IAEs, only three
cited geographical "push" factors. As there were only very few reasons, both previous
(relating their previous geographical location) and potential (relating to the host
country) reasons are discussed together. There are no actual reasons for moving as all
14 IAEs were still living in the host country at the time of interview.

Cultural Factors

Bern, a female IAE who had been working and living within a conservative Muslim country, cited gender discrimination was one of her reasons for leaving.

> a Muslim small town ... which disapproved of women on their own …
>
> we didn't have to cover up, but there was a lot of disapproval if you went
>
> out with straps, and if you went swimming, one of my colleagues ... went
>
> swimming in a bikini, and the people came and stood around the pool…
>
> Just to look at, and she was a very well-endowed Italian, very curvy lady,
>
> and it was a very small bikini.

Social Factors

For Patrick, it was not cultural but social conditions that influenced his decision to leave. After years of working in Cambodia, the living conditions in which he had been "sick a few times, I'd had dengue fever" and "robbed once or twice at gunpoint by an off-duty policeman" finally wore him out physically and emotionally, cementing his decision to leave.   Health issues also plagued Bern, who eventually decided to leave Portugal for warmer climes: "Portugal in winter it is cold. And they don't have heating, and I'd had three chest infections that previous winter, and I thought I don't want another Portuguese winter with three chest infections and three lots of antibiotics".

Concerns about health and, more specifically, the availability of good healthcare were also cited by other IAEs as potential reasons for leaving. Lynn, the mother of two young children, stated that the only reason she would leave immediately was "if there was a health issue with the children".

<u>Economic Factors</u>

Finally, Gary, a Canadian working in London, eventually decided to leave because of economic reasons: "London is so expensive... a brilliant place to visit... a horrible place to live". In contrast, for the IAEs in this study, the comparative economic advantage of living in the host country constituted one of the main attractions, even ahead of other personal, vocational, relational and institutional reasons.

On the whole, these IAEs chose to leave their previous job locations because of the interplay of personal, vocational, relational, institutional, and geographical reasons. While the relative **prominence** of each category varied across individuals, the data show that IAEs were influenced by reasons across all categories. These IAEs were also influenced by the **balance** between negative "push" elements from their previous job and positive "pull" elements from their prospective job. In none of the cases did IAEs leave without the certainty of a job at the case institution. It may be asked if these IAEs would have been "pushed" from their previous job in the absence of a "pull" from the case institution. The following section, which examines their reasons for joining the case institution, might shed some light on this.

5.3   Reasons for Joining

As this is a study of expatriates, this category includes both reasons for joining the case institution per se and/or coming to the host country.   Of the 14 IAEs, only three had come specifically to the host country to take up their jobs at the case institution. The other 11 had come to the case institution via other jobs in the host country. This section looks at both sets of reasons. Although respondents who had

worked in previous jobs prior to joining the case institution spoke about the "pull" of those jobs, as my study is centred upon the case institution, the following section looks **only** at the reasons related to the case institution and not previous institutions.

The data revealed that a combination of reasons drew the 14 IAEs in my study to join the case institution. Some reasons were based on specified benefits such as a higher salary or fewer hours of teaching as agreed upon within the contract, but other reasons, such as a more collegial work atmosphere or more opportunity for engagement with management, were based on hearsay from former colleagues now working at the case institution or from first impressions during initial visits or interviews. Table 5.2 shows the main "pull" forces that motivated IAEs to join the case institution.

Table 5.2: Summary of Reasons for Joining

CATEGORY	PROPERTIES
Personal	Desire for adventure
Vocational	Desire to teach
	Desire to work in developing country
Relational	Desire to be with partner
	Invitation from current staff at case institution
	Impressions of current staff at case institution
Institutional	Reputation
	Specific Terms and Conditions
	Physical facilities
Geographical	Attraction to host country

5.3.1 Personal Reasons for Joining

For five of the IAEs (Gazi, Lena, Lynn, Johann, and Ralph), joining the case institution was a consequence of rather than the reason for moving to the host country. In fact, the desire for adventure was the overriding reason regardless of job, institution and, in three of the four cases, even country. These IAEs came to experience adventure and excitement. Johann's comments typify their reasons:

> I guess the adventure and, the experience overseas, speaking English, the challenge …I didn't even know where it [host country] was. I thought it was somewhere in the east of Europe ... I thought it was pretty close anyway ... then when I bought the ticket … I was sent to the other side of the world.

In a similar vein, Ralph "was looking through an atlas and literally, it just fell open to the (name of host country) page". It was on this basis that he came to the host country and eventually found a job at the case institution. These IAEs who came seeking adventure were young and single and they wanted to experience the world before settling down to stable jobs or lives. As noted by Lynn, " I decided ... this would be my only chance to go to (name of host country) because if I didn't, I would go on, get a job, get married". For the IAEs who came to assuage their desire for adventure, the job was a secondary reason. However, others were drawn by their desire to contribute to the development of the host country, something they felt able to do at the case institution.

5.3.2   Vocational Reasons for Joining

Desire to Teach

The desire to contribute to society by teaching influenced all IAEs except three (Lena, Isabella and Dave). Among these 11 were those for whom teaching had been a long-term desire and those who desired to work in developing countries. Patrick had been amongst those drawn to the case institution in fulfilment of a long-term desire to teach:

> I'd always had a passion for teaching and been talked out of going into teaching by my parents …   they said that teachers were boring people, very limited intellectually, people that you would avoid at parties … poor, and they spend all their time telling people what to do ... so you'll never earn money, if you want a future go into industry. That was their view.

Desire to Work in a Developing Country

While these IAEs were drawn to the case institution to fulfil their desire to teach, it was not clear whether they had been influenced by the location of the case institution and its context within a developing country. For some, though, it was the blend of teaching and altruism that inspired them.

> I feel that I am doing something that matters ...Being a bureaucrat doesn't matter ... helping some students reach their potential, that matters ... in this context I think it's nice because this is a society that's rapidly changing and you could see the impact of that change ... so here, it's a bit

inspirational. The best part of working at (name of case institution) is actually teaching.

The situation was even more meaningful for Tan, a returnee to the host country. Tan had left in the early 1970s on a scholarship but was unable to return when the northern Communists invaded the south. For two years, he had been unable to contact his family and feared they had been killed during the fighting. As he had been in Australia during this time, he was automatically granted Australian citizenship. Despite his mixed feelings about the present government, Tan was determined to help the country. He admitted, "I don't have the bravery to fight or tell them [the government] to change", but he wanted to aid the country's development by grooming the next generation of leaders. His job at the case institution allowed him to carry out this mission: "I see some of my students become managers or move up to very high positions ... my wish is one day I see that and changing attitude ... change them and make this country better". Driven by the desire to teach generally or to teach in a developing country specifically, these IAEs were drawn to their jobs at the case institution. The relative importance of vocational forces over others remained strong for these IAEs as will be seen in the section of reasons for staying.

5.3.3 Relational Reasons for Joining

"Relational" reasons take into account the influence of acquaintances, friends, compatriots or other staff working at the case institution. There is an obvious overlap between relational and geographical reasons if IAEs are involved in relationships with host country nationals or if their partners are living or working in the host country. The key distinction is whether the IAE's decision to move was motivated by the desire to

be with a person or to be in the country. Reasons related to the former are discussed in this section while those related to the latter are discussed under "Geographical" reasons.

The interviews revealed that only three (Bern, Gazi and Lena) had come specifically to the case institution. The remaining 11 had come to the host country for a variety of reasons and subsequently found employment at the case institution. Maree, Isabella, Rafa, and Gary had spouses working in the host country; Lynn had initially come back in search of her cultural roots but later returned to pursue a relationship with a foreigner; Tan had comeback with a view to helping in the development of the host country; Sharon was married to host country nationals; and Ralph was in a relationship with one. For these eight IAEs, the "pull" was towards the host country rather than the case institution.

Desire to be with Partners

In this section, 'partners' refers to spouses, de-facto partners, and potential partners. Of the 14 IAEs, seven had moved to the host country to be with their partners. In five of the eight cases (Isabella, Maree, Gary, Rafa and Lynn), the partners were other foreigners already working in the host country. The other two (Sharon and Ralph) were involved in relationships with host country nationals.

Other Foreigners: Isabella, a Filipino lawyer, decided to move to the host country as her British husband was working there. She admits that the moved was sparked both by the desire to be with her husband and her need to escape the boredom of her life in the Philippines: "My husband was ... working here, I came to live with him... I was ready for a change in environment". Maree moved to the host country after the delivery of her second child. She had stayed behind in Australia because of "medical

issues ... rising blood pressure, pre-enclampsia, and they don't let you fly". Rafa, whose partner had taken a job at an international school in the host country, decided to move partly because he had heard about a job possibility in the host country. Finally, Gary, who had been working in London, had initially come to visit his wife. Because of plentiful work opportunities, he decided to stay. These IAEs had come to the host country because of their desire to be with their foreign partners. In Rafa's and Gary's cases, there was also the attraction of a job.

A particularly interesting case is that of Lynn, who had left the host country as a baby when her family fled to escape war. She had returned in search of her roots and cultural identity and to reconnect with her extended family. During her first year-long visit, she had met her future husband and had decided to return again to pursue the relationship. She obtained certification as an English language teacher by taking the Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA) course at the case institution and was subsequently offered a job there.

> In 2000 when I graduated ... I came with the intention of one year, staying specifically in the countryside to be with family ... so my one-year ticket ended in June so I went back ... I bought another ticket and came back again ... and (name of husband) was there, and then I met him ... so ... I had every intention to come back here.

Lynn had returned to her country of birth to reconnect with extended family and to pursue a relationship with a fellow American. It would be difficult to speculate whether it was the influence of her family or her potential partner that had swayed her decision to return and seek work in the host country. More likely, both forces would have worked in tandem to cement her decision.

Host Country Nationals (Locals): Like the IAEs described above, Sharon and Ralph also moved to the host country because of relationships. However, their relationships were with host country nationals. Sharon had initially met her husband when she was working on an Australian aid project in the host country and they had subsequently moved back to Australia. However, it was difficult for her husband to fit in.

> He came to Australia and ... and he stayed for about 18 months altogether, but it just didn't work out. He says he's too old. It's a lot more (sic) easier for me to get a well-paid job here than for him to get a job without a lot of retraining and time.

Similar to Sharon, Ralph had met the woman who was to become his wife during a previous trip as a tourist and had decided to return to pursue this relationship, which eventually led to marriage.

> On the first trip I met the woman I'm married to now so was ... a bit curious to see her again ... And then I'd sort of reach a stage where the company, the job I was in... was just cruising along... ready to try something else and I thought, you know, why not move here? Why not see how it goes with (name of wife) ... Email and was spending a fair bit on phone calls but ... Back then it was expensive but I rationalised it by figuring I wasn't paying for movies and dinner and so, it probably balanced out the same ... And so, ... came here without a job. Completely cold. No idea.

Ralph's decision was motivated not only by his desire to pursue the relationship but also, like Isabella, by the desire to "try something else". These examples suggest that the decisions of IAEs to change job location are multi-faceted and are usually

influenced by an array of reasons. Underlying the reasons, however, seems to be a strong desire for change coupled with the opportunity.

Although the IAEs described above moved to the host country because of their partners, the influence of their partners on "geographical" location may vary. For those involved with foreigners, the "pull" of geography may not be strong as they are likely to move on with their partners. Yet for those in relationships with host country nationals, the influence of these relationships may differ. In some cases, these relationships exert an intractable pull towards the host country, as in the case of Sharon, whose husband was unable to live and work overseas. However, for Ralph and others in relationships particularly with female host country nationals, the opposite may be true because of the desire of their spouses to move overseas. The pressure exerted by these spouses to leave their own country may pose a dilemma for the IAEs as ten of the 14 had identified lifestyle in the host country as a significant reason for moving there in the first place.

Invitation from Current Employee at Case Institution

The decisions of IAEs to join the case institution were influenced by people known to them working at the case institution. A personal invitation from someone at the case institution, especially if it was a former boss, colleague or friend, was a powerful "draw" factor. Equally, an introduction through "the friend of a friend", particularly to someone from the same nationality, was also effective. When asked how they had heard about the job at the case institution, all but three (Gazi, Lena and Isabella) responded that it was by "word of mouth". Lynn and Ralph, who had all been working in another language school before joining the case institution, were asked by

their former bosses. Similarly, Sharon was encouraged to work at the case institution as she had met the Program Manager for English before. Ralph decided to move when his former colleague, who "had always been obviously, hands down, leaps and bounds ... the best teacher at (name of previous school)", had joined the case institution. For Bern, who had become increasingly discontented with her job in Malaysia, the testimony of the wife of a former colleague, gave her confidence, especially since she had been misled into taking her previous job: "She'd known (previous institution) ... and was able to reassure me that it was nothing like that, it was a proper establishment". Clearly, "word of mouth" played an important part in attracting these IAEs to the case institution.

Impressions of Current Staff at Case Institution

While "word of mouth" drew some IAEs to the case institution, others were swayed by positive first impressions either during a visit to the case institution or during a job interview. Maree, had already been offered jobs by two highly-reputable international schools, but she ended up working the case institution because of the strong positive impression that was made during the interview.

> I'd gone to many institutions here and I'd been offered two jobs by top
>
> companies ... but ... the principal [of one of the international schools] was
>
> very unwilling to allow me any chance ... to breastfeed, not breastfeed,
>
> expel breast milk and put it in a fridge, in fact he was positively repulsed.

In contrast, during the interview at the case institution, she had been overwhelmed by the willingness of the case institution to accommodate her needs: "They were so welcoming and (name) said, "look we can sort that out … You need a room", so I got the SOS clinic for 20 minutes a day to express milk, I got a fridge to

put the milk in". The above evidence suggests that "word of mouth" and first impressions are very important in swaying the decisions of IAEs to join the case institution and, therefore, a powerful recruitment tool.

To sum up, all but six IAEs were drawn to the host country and, in consequence, the case institution because of their desire to be with their partners. Current employees working of case institution was also instrumental in encouraging them to join.

5.3.4   Institutional Reasons for Joining

Institutional reasons stem directly from the policies and practices of the case institution. It must be noted that while some of these, such as salary and hours of teaching, may be defined in a contract, others may be perceived on the basis of hearsay or first impressions. In explaining their reasons for joining the case institution, respondents sometimes had difficulty distinguishing between *a priori* and *a posteriori* knowledge. For example, some IAEs explained that they had joined the case institution because of the "culture" of openness or because it offered a conducive environment for professional development. However, these IAEs could not have known about these aspects prior to experiencing them as employees of the case institution. In this study, reasons based on *a priori* knowledge are discussed in this section while those based on *a posteriori* knowledge are discussed under "Reasons for Staying".

Based on *a priori* knowledge, the main attraction factor identified by the IAEs was the case institution's reputation. Also important were the terms and conditions, including stated opportunities for professional development. Finally, its physical

facilities which were evident and apparent by looking at the website also influenced the decisions of IAEs to take a job at the case institution.

<u>Reputation</u>

There were ten participants who mentioned the case institution's reputation and professionalism as the main reason for joining. They were Bern, Sharon, Lynn, Rafa, Patrick, Maree, Dave, Ralph, Tan and Lena. Their regard for the case institution is encapsulated by Maree, when she says, "It's the only university with any credibility". Among the Australians in the study, the case institution's reputation was even more celebrated; "Every Australian knows about (name of case institution), there's the whole working-man's college, the traditions of the place" (Dave). Yet even for the non-Australians who had been working in the host country, the reputation of the case institution as "a prestigious institution" (Lynn) was recognised. Speaking of the English program at the case institution, Ralph, who had been working at another language school in the city, says "It was perceived as one of the best or the best English program in the city".

In the context of a developing country, this reputation was largely built upon the case institution's commitment to professionalism, academic integrity and upholding educational standards. Bern was especially persuaded to join by this aspect: "It was the integrity. It was the fact that the exams were taken seriously, it was the fact that there was proper placement testing". Bern's sentiments were shared by Sharon, who had been teaching at a private language school in the host country. Her classes had comprised of students of mixed ages, levels and purposes. The case institution offered her a more consistent and professional teaching environment.

> I wanted to be able to teach in a more consistent environment so it wouldn't be a range of ... high school students and housewives, and, university students ... that in one class, having students study English for

a particular purpose, you know, for their university degree, so it was, plus

you know the professional environment .

To Sharon and others who eventually planned to return to their home countries, it was important that the case institution would be recognised internationally: "If something happened and I had to go back to Australia, as much as I can say I worked at (name of case institution) is a known". The value of overseas experience in career promotion is discussed widely in the literature on expatriation. Whether overseas experience is recognised and rewarded depend greatly upon the institution, hence recognition of the case institution's reputation beyond the host country is indeed important.

Suitable Terms and Conditions

Another draw factor identified by IAEs was the terms and conditions, including the length of contract, leave entitlements, salary, and opportunities for professional development. Interestingly, only two of the IAEs even mentioned salary. For one of them (Ralph) joining the case institution actually meant taking a pay cut. However, for Patrick, the salary at the case institution was far better than the one he had been on.

> They were significantly better and I couldn't believe how much better ... I
>
> was being paid 16 dollars an hour at (name of previous school) and there
>
> was no prospect of getting much more than that. My manager told me that
>
> he got 1700 dollars and within three months of starting at (name of case
>
> institution) I was on 2000 dollars a month, so more than my manager was
>
> within a few months.

Even though Patrick had benefitted financially from moving to the case institution, his main reason for moving was "Not the money, for sure, not the money".   His

redundancy payout and pension from a British multinational firm combined with rent from a property in his home country had left him financially independent to pursue a job he enjoyed.

While salary was not a main consideration, the opportunity to develop professionally was cited by at least half of the IAEs (Gazi, Lena, Bern, Lynn, Johann, Ralph, and Sharon). These IAEs felt that the case institution would support their efforts to develop professionally either by offering access to resources and expertise or by providing funding. One of the reasons Bern had joined was because she had heard about opportunities for "proper PD" at the case institution. For these and other IAEs, the opportunity to develop their careers strongly influenced their decisions to join. As will be noted in the section on "Reasons for Staying", it remains one of the main reasons that IAEs continue to work at the case institution.

Physical Facilities

Besides the prestigious reputation of the case institution, IAEs were also attracted by its purpose-built campus with dedicated teaching rooms, computer labs, staff offices, a modern library, and other facilities including a campus-wide IT wireless network, sports fields, eateries, a even a medical clinic. One reason Lena joined was "because it is a whole campus ... I've seen from the website that the campus is bigger". IAEs who had previously been working in under-developed surroundings or at smaller private schools in the host country found the superior surroundings and first-world conditions within the campus a major appeal. Comparing the facilities to those at her previous job, Bern explains:

> At (name of previous institution), there'd been no separate area for
> teachers to have coffee or lunch ... had to have their coffee and tea in with

everybody, in with all the students, in an outdoor area, and we were eating student food. Cheap, cheap horrible student food in an outdoor area with a glass ceiling, it was boiling hot, the food was really cheap and really bad, and when you walk, the first day I walked into the (name of café at the case institution), I was just "Oh my God!"

The physical facilities created an atmosphere of a campus which was reminiscent of any campus in a developed country. Tan, a naturalised Australian, felt that the case institution was "a part of Australia ... speak the same language and behave the same way, I feel at home".

In reflecting upon their decision-making, many IAEs had difficulty pinpointing the reasons they joined the case institution, oftentimes confusing it with *a posteriori* explanations. While this may have been because of the time lapse (all of the IAEs had been working for at least three years at the case institution at the time of interview), it may also have been because the job at the case institution was a matter of opportunity, serendipity and even inevitability rather than planned intent.

5.3.5   Geographical Reasons for Joining

While the previous section looked at reasons IAEs joined the case institution, this section focuses on specific aspects of the case institution that attracted IAEs to it.

<u>Attraction to the Host Country</u>

As earlier mentioned, only three (Bern, Gazi and Lena) had come specifically to the case institution. For the other 11 IAEs, the "pull" was towards the host country, whether for relational reasons for because they were intrinsically attracted to the place. Seven (Rafa, Maree, Lynn, Gary, Isabella, Sharon and Ralph) returned because of

relationships either with other foreigners or host country nationals and one (Tan) to "give back" to his country of birth. The other three had come because of their fondness with the country and people developed in previous visits to the host country.

While working as an intern, Johann had been attracted by the pace of and potential for change and returned after graduation. Patrick, working in a neighbouring country, found the openness of host country nationals "refreshing" and was attracted by the "buzz" of the place. At the end of his contract, Patrick "got on a bus with six cartons of books ... I managed to get work within three weeks".

Dave's fascination with the host country stemmed from his youth, when he had seen stories of the war unfold on television. Dave had arrived in the host country "in 2003 ... with a bag of books and a bag of clothes". Through a contact in Australia, he was able to gain employment within days of arriving: "I arrived on Sunday ... went to see him [the Director of Studies] on the Monday and he said, can you start on Wednesday"? Dave's teaching schedule allowed him to travel extensively around the country, leaving him with deep affection for the place and the people: "I just felt the culture was closer to my own, in a sense, it was Asian but ... I felt more comfortable with the (host country nationals), their sense of humour, their priorities". By the time Dave decided to return to the host country for a second time, he was already aware of the case institution so was able to arrange an interview which eventually led to a job offer.

For these three IAEs, the geographical aspect of the host country was the main draw, with the job at the case institution being a consequence of circumstance and serendipity. In summary, the data on reasons for joining shows that for 11 of the 14, obtaining a job at the case institution was not their primary reason for coming to the host country.

5.4 Reasons for Staying

The above section on "Reasons for Joining" revealed that for 11 of the 14 IAEs, the decision to join the case institution was not a result of forethought and planning. However, it is reasonable to assume that their decisions to stay would certainly have involved a great deal of consideration. Many of the reasons given by IAEs for joining the case institution and/or coming to the host country were also cited as reasons for staying. In fact, as noted above, there was sometimes a lack of clarity over *a priori* and *a posteriori* accounts. The reasons shown in Table 5.3 are based on the opinions formed after years of working at the case institution.

Table 5.3: Summary of Reasons for Staying

CATEGORY	PROPERTIES
Personal	Uncertainty about obtaining employment elsewhere
Vocational	Opportunity to transform society
Relational	Relationships with host country nationals
	Relationships with students
Institutional	Opportunity for promotion
	Opportunity for job variety
	Opportunity for professional development
Geographical	Economic and lifestyle benefits of living in host country

5.4.1 Personal Reasons for Staying

As shown above, invariably a combination of repulsion and attraction forces swayed the decisions of IAEs to change job location. Escape from boredom, traumatic emotional events or legal obligations combined with the irrepressible desire for

adventure through travel cemented the decisions of these IAEs to join the case institution. Although these desires were also cited among IAEs in recounting their personal decisions for staying, the greatest force appeared to be uncertainty about the future, specifically concerning reintegration and employment. As these interviews were conducted at the height of the global economic crisis in 2009, such fears would have been understandable.

For IAEs such as Lynn, there was considerable uncertainty about moving back to her home country as she and her husband had been living for the past nine years in the host country:

(Name of husband) and I have been here so long that we actually have to re-establish that kind of home and that kind of stability in America and that would be difficult ... finding secure jobs ... getting into the swing of being in America and living that kind of lifestyle.

For these IAEs, the security of their jobs at the case institution created a stasis or equilibrium resulting in their decisions to stay. This "inaction" is aptly captured by Lynn, who admits: "To be honest ... it's more of a security blanket ... than... major career choice". This begs the question of whether the decision to stay is a deliberate and considered act or whether it is sheer opportunism.

The desire to hold on to the "security blanket" described by Lynn was especially apparent in light of the global economic recession. Gary and his wife, who had been planning to leave the case institution and host country, ended up staying because they feared that it would be difficult to obtain employment elsewhere:

We've now have had x years of experience, now we have got these Master's degrees, let's go elsewhere. Whoops, economic collapse. So it

was like let's put all that on hold for a year or two. And wait for the world

to sort of get itself back up on its feet.

For some of the IAEs, staying was a matter of necessity. Noting the increasing retention of teachers in her department, Bern explains: "... they are not moving on... the financial situation in other places is so bad … we got a lot of quite good salaried teachers who have decided to renew another year because the options out there are way worse".

For Johann, who had moved to the case institution immediately upon graduation and had effectively spent all his working life there, there were few options in his home country. Professionally, he had been "left behind" by his peers:

College friends ... They're big programmers, and they sort of go into

consultancy level type of thing, and if I ask them 'okay now I want to go

back to the Netherlands and I want to do that too. That they tell me you

can't, because you haven't been doing anything like this for the last six

years.

Staying at the case institution and in the host country was for these IAEs motivated as much by the security and opportunity of their present jobs as it was by the fear and uncertainly of being able to find alternative employment.

5.4.2   Vocational Reasons for Staying

As explained earlier, the value systems of adults tend to be entrenched, so IAEs who joined the case institution to satisfy a "calling" to teach or to contribute to the development of a poorer country continued to gain satisfaction from their jobs at the case institution.

The opportunity to transform lives and to help develop the host country through teaching represented a potent "stay" force for four IAEs (Gary, Johann, Patrick and Tan). Their sentiments are exemplified in Johann's comments: "I still think this is a very good place ... there's lots of opportunities and you can make a difference. If you're good at something, then you can really help people, and I like that idea". Like Johann, Patrick was motivated to stay because he shared the case institution's vision about social development through the provision of appropriate education programs. He had made a "mental decision" to remain at the case institution when he heard the vision articulated by one of the senior managers. The connection between teaching and bringing about social change is conveyed by Gary, whose decision to remain working at the case institution was strongly motivated by his contribution to this process.

> You had a transformative effect on them ... now you're making a social change ... when there is enough of a critical mass of our graduates in the marketplace, and because of the demographic bulge that's happening here, they're gonna have a transformative change on the society and in a small way, you know, we're helping you know, arm them with the tools so that they can ... informed decisions.

For these four IAEs, the desire to meet the needs of the host country through teaching was a significant reason to stay.

5.4.3 Relational Reasons for Staying

"Relational" reasons exert both "push" and "pull" forces on the decisions of IAEs to change job locations. Negative relations with managers and colleagues

contributed to the decisions of IAEs to leave, while the "pull" of partners living or working in the host country combined with invitations and impressions conveyed by those working at the case institution encouraged the IAEs to join.

Relationships with Host Country Nationals

The influence of relationships with host country nationals on the decision of IAEs to stay varies significantly according to the ability and desire of the partners to move countries. Among the 14 IAEs, five (Sharon, Patrick, Johann, Dave, and Ralph) were in relationships with partners who were host country national. Of these, Sharon and Patrick were in relationships with male host country nationals.

The experiences of Sharon and Patrick suggest that those in relationships with males found it harder to leave because their partners were less willing or able to work overseas. Sharon, who had returned to the host country after an unsuccessful attempt to live in Australia with her husband, explains: "I'd be very surprised if we moved back to Australia permanently ... I think that it's limited by my husband's... work, the possibility of him working somewhere else". This was also the situation for Patrick, who was involved in a same-sex relationship with a host country national. When asked how moving to a new country might affect his partner, Patrick unequivocally replied that it "would be difficult, I just don't know how that would happen".

In contrast, for those married to females from the host country, there appeared few obstacles in leaving. For Johann and Ralph, it was their wives who wanted to leave the host country. Johann's explains:

In the beginning we definitely wanted to stay in (name of host country). But it's just if you become more mature and then you get married and then if you're going to have a child you have to think about it too ... my wife's

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younger sister is now in France because she was married to a Frenchman

... and well he lives in France and she moved there about two years ago.

They have a kid now, so ... my wife sort of sees opportunity now.

Dave, an Australian who had met his wife in the host country, was compelled to leave because of this relationship as he had to return to Australia with his wife in order to adopt a child to enable them to obtain Australian citizenship.

It is ironic that being married to host country nationals should have the opposite effect of taking these IAEs away from rather than keeping them in the host country. This situation is highly dependent on geographical factors and appears more likely if the host country in question is less developed than the home country of the IAE. In more developed transnational markets such as Hong Kong or Singapore, there is every likelihood that IAEs who marry local partners might end up staying in their host countries rather than returning to their home countries.

<u>Relationships with Students</u>

In relating their experience of working at the case institution, IAEs spoke of the camaraderie among colleagues. Although such relationships are clearly valued, collegial relationships were **not** cited as reasons for staying. Positive relations with students and the ability to influence them, however, were, and this was mentioned by Gary, Johann, and Tan, who saw teaching as an opportunity to transform lives and to help develop the host country described above under "Vocational Reasons for Staying". There is, therefore, a strong suggestion that IAEs who come for vocational reasons are more inclined to develop relationships with students because it is through their students that they can achieve their goal of social transformation.

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The special relationship between teachers and students represented a strong "stay" factor for these IAEs. In the culture of the host country, teachers are highly respected and regarded almost as second parents. Tan's comments clearly exemplify this:

> Now, I consider teaching is my career, my profession because I love (nationality of host country) students. They are different to what I taught at in Australia ... have connection to their teacher. Here, teacher is another level somewhere ... sometime I walk in the city or some shop or some department and suddenly people will come and bow at me ... I feel absolutely satisfied ... I abandon my business ... But I more concerned about, I focus on teaching more or less, and help (name of case institution) to develop.

As shown above, the relational "pull" of partners who are located in host country or who are host country nations is incredibly strong and appeared to be the main anchor for 11 of the 14 IAEs. As well, relationships with students kept some IAEs working at the case institution.

5.4.4 Institutional Reasons for Staying

As noted earlier, only three of the IAEs, Gazi, Lena and Bern, had moved specifically to join the case institution. For the others, the job was more a result of opportunity and timing. Although they were attracted by its reputation, specific terms and conditions and the physical facilities, other institutional forces seemed less influential in their decisions to join. However, institutional factors appeared to feature significantly in the decision of IAEs to stay. For the IAEs who were still working at

the case institution at the time of interview, job security was a strong motivation for staying. Lynn notes, "Job security is good ... as long as you're doing a good job ... you're fine here". More important, however, was the wide range of opportunities at the case institution: for job promotion, for job variety, and for professional development.

Opportunity for Promotion

The opportunity for mobility, both upwards and sideways, appealed greatly to IAEs. Because of the limited pool of expertise available in the host country, IAEs with the appropriate skills and background and with a strong with ethic found themselves quickly promoted. A striking example is Bern. Bern had started at the case institution on a ten-week contract but within a year had been promoted to a salaried teacher and then to her present position as an Assistant Program Manager. Equally meteoric was Ralph's rise from a teacher of English to Manager of Educational Technology. From being given a one-course "buy-out" to pilot a plagiarism detection program, Ralph soon found himself responsible for "rescuing" the case institution's educational server, BlackBoard, a task that ended up giving him great recognition and influence even with the home campus. Bern and Ralph were not unique. Of the 14 IAEs, all had started as lecturers. Over the course of their employment, ten (Bern, Patrick, Lynn, Gary, Johann, Gazi, Ralph, Tan, Lena and Dave) had been promoted to Program Manager or Coordinator.

The availability of promotional opportunities arose as a result of rapid institutional growth and scarcity of experienced and qualified staff in the host country, oftentimes referred to as the "big fish in small pond" syndrome. In these cases, just being at the case institution longer than others and having taught in the programs made them strong candidates for promotion.

Opportunity for Job Variety

As well as promotion, IAEs cited the opportunity for job variety as a powerful "stay" force. Because of the pace of growth at the case institution, there were opportunities for IAEs to gain experience in different areas. Ralph's justification for staying sums this up:

> I don't feel that I would be learning more anywhere else ...... the kinds of things I'm learning ... are going to be useful somewhere to somebody because I'm not just learning about teaching and learning. I've learnt a lot ... about formal project management processes. ... I don't really feel much in the way of limitations or dead ends ... At this point ... the organisation is changing so rapidly and growing so quickly.

To Lynn, Johann, Ralph, Patrick and Sharon, the opportunity to acquire experiences across departments was particularly attractive.

Opportunity for Professional Development

Opportunities to learn on the job, as described by Ralph above, were further supported by access to professional development opportunities. Concretely, IAEs received support mainly through free tuition in courses offered by the case institution; contributions to external course fees; and funding for conference attendance. The growing culture favouring research also encouraged professional development.

Among the 14 IAEs, all but two (Maree and Lynn) had obtained their Graduate Certificate in Tertiary Teaching and Learning (GCTTL) while enrolled at the case institution. One had also completed a Master of Business Administration (MBA). At the time of interview, two were enrolled in externally-delivered Master's programs, towards which the case institution contributed US$ 2000 annually. For IAEs enrolled

in and those contemplating higher degrees, staying at the case institution was particularly appealing as Gazi explains:

> Now I've started my Master's degree at the University of Leicester, England ... it's going to take about three years, two years' coursework and one year thesis ... now I want to stay with (name of case institution) three years more ... because this environment is good for studying and I can work and study at the same time here very easily.

To the IAEs in this study, professional development is not only desirable but necessary. Of the 14, none had doctorates. While eight had master's degrees, these were not in the discipline they were teaching. Only three had master's degrees in relevant fields and, of these, only one had taught at university-level. These IAEs were sorely aware that without formal qualifications and professional development, their prospects of gaining employment at universities in their home countries would be grim.

To sum up, the decisions of IAEs to join the case institution had initially been based on features such as the institution's reputation and physical presence. Over time, these IAEs began to appreciate the wealth of opportunity for promotion, job variety and professional development. These opportunities combined with the unusually high degree of job security represented a very powerful "static" force.

5.4.5   Geographical Reasons for Staying

In this section, factors related to the host country are discussed. Mainly, living in the host country offered substantial financial and lifestyle benefits.

Financial and Lifestyle Benefits of Living in the Host Country

While such reasons might be construed as "mercenary", the ability to enjoy a higher standard of living and a better lifestyle than in their home countries was cited as a major attraction IAEs still working at the case institution at the time of interview. Even compared to her salary in a highly professional job in England, Bern's standard of living was higher because of the comparatively lost cost of living in the host country:

> Even as a curator ... money doesn't go so far in Britain so although the salary looks very good ... I was being paid over forty thousand a year back in 2000, but even that wasn't going very far... but what I'm getting paid now, I'm ... able to save without trying ... able to do really crazy things like travel business class occasionally, go to ... an expensive restaurant, if I want to go to a wine dinner, which is sixty-five dollars, with most interesting wine and different type of food ... I couldn't contemplate it back in Britain.

Particular for those with children, living in the host country afforded them a better lifestyle because of the ability to hire nannies and helpers. In explaining his decision to stay in the host country for the medium-term, Ralph clearly identifies this feature as an important "stay" factor: "My wife has come to realise that ... on a teacher's salary here you can have a nanny, you can have a maid". Tan notes that even on his teacher's salary, his lifestyle was much better than ten years ago: "My lifestyle here is much better ... have a home help ... people take my children to school and I don't have to do it and, I come home I don't cook or wash or anything like that". For IAEs with young children, the ability to hire nannies is a significant "stay" force, with Lynn going so far

as to say "the only reason that we really do stay is because ... we can have the nannies".

Lifestyle benefits were not confined to finances. The relaxed pace of life in the host country and the general appeal of living in Southeast Asia also influenced IAEs to stay at the case institution, thus enabling them to live in the host country and region. Having previously worked in a fast-paced environment in Thailand, Lena chose to sacrifice a better paid job overseas, instead seeking out and finding a simpler life in the host country:

> We have the simple life and you have time to be with your family, like you have time to fly kites ... our life in Bangkok was really so busy and that we tend to go to malls, you know pictures. But here, back to the simple life that we had in the past.

The appeal of living in the host country and, indeed, Southeast Asia in general is explored by Gazi, a published novelist in his home country. Using one of his characters, Gazi explains:

> Southeast Asia, it's very addictive in terms of easy life. I wrote this thing in one of my pieces of fiction, created a character called John, and John says ... life is like an indefinite vacation. You don't really feel the time. Time is frozen ... Same now many people come to Southeast Asia to forget the time going on, so here, so actually I don't feel time at all because every day is same here.

In tracking the life stories of the 14 IAEs, there was growing evidence that these IAEs were becoming accustomed to their lifestyles in the host country. They found themselves bound with "golden handcuffs".

5.5   Summary

In this chapter, the "voices" of the 14 IAEs who were interviewed were heard though a presentation of selected data from the interviews. The responses show that IAEs are influenced by reasons within three main categories -- leaving, joining and staying -- and across five sub-categories categories: personal, vocational, relational, institutional and geographical. Furthermore, the prominence of reasons from each sub-category varies according to individual IAEs.

These responses provided by the IAES allow us to answer the specific research questions that were posed at the start of the study:

- SRQ 1: For what reasons did the expatriate academics leave their previous jobs and previous country of residence?

- SRQ 2: Why did they choose their present job at the case institution?

- SRQ 3: Why have they chosen to extend their contracts at the case institution?

- SRQ 4: For what reasons might they leave the case institution?

The section on "Reasons for Leaving" provides answers to SRQs 1 and 4. Personal reasons for leaving included the desire for escape and change. Vocationally, IAEs sought to leave jobs that were misaligned with their values, current interests, backgrounds and experiences. Conflicts with managers and colleagues were strong "Relational" reasons for leaving. At an institutional level, IAEs were prompted to leave the **previous** jobs because of heavy workloads and the profit-orientation of their previous institutions, which often put them at odds with their values. In relating **potential** and **actual** reasons for leaving the case institution, lack of challenge, autonomy, specific benefits regarding annual leave and schooling for children, and

recognition were cited as key factors. Finally, IAEs left previous countries because of cultural, social and economic factors specific to those countries.

Answers to SRQ 2 are discussed in Section 5.3 "Reasons for Joining". It was noted that only three of the 14 IAEs had come specifically to the case institution; the others came to the host country and eventually found jobs at the case institution. The underlying personal reason for moving was the desire for adventure. The main vocational reasons were desire to teach in general and the desire to work in developing countries. Relationally, the desire to be with their partners who were living and/or working the in host county, invitations from friends or acquaintances working at the case institution and positive impressions of the case institution conveyed by those working there convinced IAEs to join. They were further attracted by institutional features including the reputation and physical facilities coupled with the terms and conditions offered by the case institution. Finally, the appeal of the host country and its people attracted some IAEs to the host country.

The answers to SRQ 3 address are discussed under "Reasons for Staying". Although the uncertain global economic climate was a prominent personal reason for staying, IAEs were also influenced by vocational and relational factors. Significantly, ties with partners who were host country nationals bound some IAEs to the host country. The opportunity to help in the development of the host country by establishing positive relations with students was also a strong "Vocational" reason. The responses regarding "Institutional" forces are highly informative and show that opportunities for promotion, job variety, and professional development matter greatly. IAEs also stayed at the case institution because they wanted to remain in the host country to enjoy financial and lifestyle benefits associated with living there.

In regard to the main research question, "What influences shape the decisions of expatriate academics to seek and retain positions in a transnational institution in Southeast Asia?", we can see that IAEs are influenced by a host of reasons across the personal, vocational, relational, institutional and geographical realms, and these reasons exert "push", "pull" and "static" forces, the interplay of which influences the outcome of their decision-making to stay at or stray from their present job location. Furthermore, the relative prominence of each category and their overall pattern varies across IAEs, generating a typology. By tracking the IAEs through each, it is possible to identify "types" of IAEs based on the prominence they ascribe to each category. These "types" will be discussed in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 6: A Typology of Independent Academic Expatriates (IAEs)

6.1   Introduction

As explained in Chapter 4, following the three stages of coding, a foundational or "emergent" theory of decisional job location was proposed. A summary of the data from the interviews was provided in Chapter 5 as "scaffolding" for the theory. Mainly, the data revealed that (i) IAEs make decisions about whether to change job locations, institutionally or by country, on the basis of reasons across five distinguishable categories: personal, vocational, relational, institutional and geographical; (ii) the interplay of reasons in each category creates "push", "pull" and "static" forces, which result in the decision to stay at or stray from their location; (iii) while all IAEs consider reasons across all categories, the prominence of reasons in a particular category varies according to individual IAEs; and (iv) according to the prominence of reasons and the outcome of their decision-making, IAEs may be indentified according to one of four types: Opportunist, "Kin-nected", Expatriate Partner or Altruist. Based on these four key conclusions, a theory of decisional job location was proposed.

As the development of the theory was discussed at length in Chapter 4, this chapter focuses on the development of a typology and provides a detailed description of each type as related to each of the 14 IAEs in my study.

6.2   Development of Typology

As indicated in Chapter 4, data that were fractured in open coding and reassembled into clusters of causes according to categories. Relationships between the categories were explored through axial coding. On the basis of the prominence that

respondents ascribed to reasons in each of the above categories, four groups of IAEs were identified. By examining the codes, concepts, properties and dimensions within each group and identifying the reasons that were most influential in decision-making, an appropriate label was given to describe that particular group. As discussed in Chapter 3, this method of typology development is consistent with principles of grounded theory which states that categories should emerge from the data rather than being forcibly imposed upon the data.

Although all IAEs generally cited reasons belonging to more than one type, they are typified on the basis of predominant reasons within and across categories. IAEs who share the same patterns of predominance are grouped into the same type. It should be noted that as well as looking at reasons in common (positive properties), the pattern of reasons not cited (negative properties) was also considered in developing the typology. Hence IAEs in each type share both similar reasons that do influence their decision-making and reasons that have little or no impact on it. Table 6.1 on the following pages presents an overview and summary of the categories/sub-categories, properties (reasons) and codes relating to each type.

Based on the typology that was developed, the process of which is shown in the table above, IAEs were identified as follows:

- Opportunist: Gazi, Lena and Bern

- "Kin-nected": Johann, Ralph, Patrick, Dave and Sharon

- Expatriate Partner: Rafa, Maree, Lynn, Gary, Isabella

- Altruist: Tan

The following section now provides a detailed description of each type based on the data. Specifically, properties, related concepts and codes are shown for each type.

Table 6.1: Categories/Sub-Categories and Properties for Each Type

Typology	Categories/Sub-categories	Properties (Reasons)	Summary
Opportunist	Personal (Leaving)	P1 - Desire for escape	-3 IAEs belong to this type
		P2 - Desire for change	-They share 17 properties in common
	Relational (Leaving)	R1 - Conflict with manager	(7 positive and 10 negative)
			-Positive properties for categories as follows:
	Institutional (Leaving)	I3 - Lack of challenge	Personal – 83% (1st)
			Vocational – 33% (3rd/4th)
	Institutional (Joining)	I8 - Terms and conditions	Relational – 24% (5th)
			Institutional – 53% (2nd)
	Institutional (Staying)	I12 - Professional development opportunities	Geographical – 33% (3rd/4th)
	Geographical (Staying)	G5 -Economic and lifestyle benefits of host country	
"Kin-nected"	Institutional (Joining)	R4 – Invitation from current employee at case institution	-5 IAEs belong to this type
			-They share 9 properties in common
	Relational (Joining)	R6 – Relationship with host country national	(6 positive and 3 negative)
			- Positive properties for categories as
	Institutional (Joining)	I7 – Reputation of case institution	follows:
			Personal – 30% (5th)
	Institutional (Staying)	I11 – Job variety opportunities	Vocational – 52% (2nd)
			Relational – 49% (4th)
	Geographical (Joining)	G4 – Attraction to host country	Institutional – 50% (3rd)
			Geographical –60% (1st)
	Geographical (Staying)	G5 - Economic and lifestyle benefits of host country	

Expatriate Partner	Relational (Joining)	R3 – Desire to be with partner	-5 IAEs belong to this type -They share 8 properties in common (3 positive and 5 negative)
	Geographical (Joining)	G4 – Attraction to host country	- Positive properties for categories as follows:
	Geographical (Staying)	G5 - Economic and lifestyle benefits of host country	Personal – 35% (2nd) Vocational – 32% ($4^{th}/5^{th}$) Relational – 34% (3rd) Institutional – 32% ($4^{th}/5^{th}$) Geographical – 44% (1st)

Altruist	Vocational (Joining)	V3 – Desire to teach	- One IAE belongs to this type
		V4 – Desire to work in development	-He displays 12 positive and 20 negative properties
	Vocational (Staying)	V5 – Desire to transform society	- Positive properties for categories as follows:
	Relational (Joining)	R4 – Invitation from current staff at case institution	Personal – 25% (4th/5th)
			Vocational – 60% (1st)
		R6 – Relationships with students	Relational – 43% (2nd)
			Institutional – 25% (4th/5th)
	Institutional (Leaving – Potential)	I5 – Lack of specific benefits (international schooling)	Geographical – 40% (3rd)
	Institutional (Joining)	I7 – Reputation of case institution	
	Geographical (Joining)	G4 – Attraction to host country	
	Geographical (Staying)	G5 - Economic and lifestyle benefits of host country	

6.3   The Opportunist

Opportunists are influenced by reasons across four categories: personal, relational, institutional and geographical, but not by vocational.   The three Opportunists – Gazi, Lena and Bern – shared 17 common properties: seven positive and ten negative. This means that Gazi, Lena and Bern were influenced by the same seven reasons but also that the same 10 reasons did not have any impact on them. This pattern of response is unique to Opportunists. Startlingly different from the other types is the predominance of personal reasons (83%) compared to "Kin-necteds" (30%), Expat Spouses (35%) and the Altruists (25%).

The codes and concepts that emerged from open coding of their interviews contained common themes, from which properties emerged. These are shown in Table 6.2 below.

Table 6.2: Typology, Properties, Concepts and Codes for Opportunists

Type: Opportunist	
Properties that connect them uniquely	**Some Related Concepts and Codes from Interviews with Gazi, Lena and Bern**
P1 - Desire for escape	"comfortable life", "in a very comfortable rut", "adventurous nature", love for adventure, stress, overworked, recklessness, routine, boredom, death of husband, avoidance of military service, "huge wake-up call"
P2 - Desire for change	Non-conforming, agent of improvement, "different things", "chance to move around", "lost interest", "couldn't care less", serendipity, "wanderlust", boredom, time to move
R1 - Conflict with manager	did not meet expectations, misleading information, no integrity, poor conditions for teachers, overworked, 24/7, "in the middle", problems with manager

I3 - Lack of challenge	No more possibility for change/growth, apathy at work, duty, start own business, not challenging anymore, need a change, no more passion, boredom, pursue master's degree
I8 - Terms and conditions	Employment package, rapid promotion, professional environment, good salary, financial rewards
I12 - Professional development opportunities	PhD, supportive professional development (PD), PD budget, doing master's, PD budget, good environment/resources for pursuing higher degrees
G5 - Economic and lifestyle benefits of host country	Financial rewards, low cost of living, high standard of living, lifestyle, simple life, time with family, not stressful, "indefinite vacation", good social life, easy to save money

Based on the codes, concepts and properties that were found in data from these three IAEs, the type "Opportunist" was identified. Opportunism is defined as **"**the practice or policy of adapting one's actions, judgments, etc. to circumstances, as in politics, in order to further one's immediate interests, without regard for basic principles or eventual consequences" (www.yourdictionary.com/opportunism). Adopting the more neutral elements of this definition, within this study "Opportunists" may be described as IAEs who make decisions on the basis of circumstances they find themselves in for the purpose of furthering their immediate personal interests. There is no suggestion in any of the interviews that the IAEs in this group pursue self interest without regard to basic principles. Quite the opposite is true, as Bern was prompted to leave a previous job because of ethical issues concerning academic standards.

While the word "opportunist" usually carries negative connotations, a more positive interpretation is of the opportunist as "Protean" (Hall, 1976) and able to adapt to changing circumstances. In the same way, from a career development perspective, pursing self-interest without detriment to others is constructive and highly encouraged in academia. Looking at the properties (reasons) shared by the group, it is clear that

Opportunists are able to adapt particularly to negative circumstances by actively seeking ways to escape from or change them. Among the seven shared properties, three focussed on leaving.

For Opportunists, the desire for escape and change are the primary drivers of decision-making. Gazi left Turkey to escape military service while Bern left after her husband's death. As well as escaping, Gazi seemed consumed by the need for adventure and change. Like Gazi, Lena left her home country to satisfy her sense of adventure. These decisions to leave their home countries to work overseas were prompted by the desire to change their personal circumstances. The job at the case institution provided the opportunity to do so. These traits of opportunism are found in other types as well but are the primary drivers for Opportunists.

The ability and willingness to escape and change is evident in their history of career discontinuity. Bern had moved from a job in Portugal to one in Malaysia before coming to the case institution. During her time in Thailand, Lena had switched from an international school to an Australian transnational institution and then to a Thai university. Similarly, Gazi had worked in Chiang Mai and Rayong before moving to an international school in Bangkok. Accustomed to moving job locations, even geographically, these IAEs have no compunction about changing jobs if they begin to experience boredom, if the institution does not meet their expectations or even if they simply feel inclined to change. Compared to the other three types, Opportunists are more likely to change jobs frequently.

Unlike the "Kin-necteds" and "Expatriate Partners", who were drawn to the host country because of relationships, these three IAEs came because of the job opportunities available at the case institution. Indeed, of the 14 IAEs, Gazi, Bern and

Lena are the only three who came directly to their jobs at the case institution without having worked elsewhere in the host country. Since they came for the job, it is not surprising, that institutional factors feature strongly in their decision-making with three of the seven common properties focussed on the institution. Such factors include lack of challenge (reason for leaving), suitable terms and conditions (reason for joining), and professional development opportunities (reason for staying). The opportunity for professional development was a key factor in Gazi's decision to stay while he completed his masters' degree, as the case institution offered both financial assistance and a favourable environment for further studies. Lena decided to stay as the ease of her current job allowed her time to set up a business venture. She was also attracted by the possibility of doing a doctorate through the branch campus's home institution. These opportunities were crucial "stay" factors for Gazi and Lena, above any vocational, relational or geographical reason. In fact, neither Gazi nor Lena spoke of satisfaction derived from teaching or contributing to society. On the contrary, both were staying at the case institution as they prepared to launch themselves out of teaching altogether.

As a group, the Opportunists were not influenced by vocational reasons for job change, reinforcing their focus on self instead of others. Similarly, relational and geographical factors exerted little, if any, influence on their decisions to come to the host country. None of the three had come to the host country to accompany a foreign spouse and neither were they in relationships with host country nationals: Bern was widowed, Gazi was married to a Thai, and Lena was married to a Filipino. None had particular fondness for the host country but came because of the job. When asked why he wanted a job specifically in the host country, Gazi's reply was: "I don't want to come to (name of host country)! I don't care if it's (name of host country) or

Cambodia. Anywhere is fine for me". As with the other IAE types in the study, Opportunists were attracted to the lifestyle they could enjoy in the host country. On her income, Bern could eat in fancy restaurants and travel, sometimes in business class, annually. Gazi was able to travel yet save a part of his income. For Lena, working in the host country enabled her to employ a nanny and to enjoy more family time.

To sum up, the main drivers for the IAEs in this group are the opportunity for change aligned with personal circumstances that gave them a yearning for change. Personal and institutional reasons predominated in their decision-making, particularly with regard to how their self- interest could be furthered at and by the institution.

6.4   The "Kin-nected"

The term "Kin-nected" is a neologism adapted from the name of a blog connecting families of adoptees. As suggested by this, IAEs who are typified as "Kin-nected" are strongly influenced in their decision-making by their connection with "kin" or family in the host country. Unlike Expatriate Partners, who are there to accompany their partners, "Kin-necteds" are genuinely engaged and have made a long-term commitment to the host country. Having local partners, many would live within or on the fringes of local communities and might even speak the language..

As shown in Table 6.3 on the next page, the five IAEs typified as "Kin-nected" shared nine common properties: they had six reasons in common and they were also not influenced by three of the same reasons in contrast to IAEs of other types.   The most crucial reasons were their relationships with a host country partner and their attraction to the host country. They were also influenced by an invitation from an

employee of the case institution, the reputation of the case institution, job variety opportunities, and the economic and lifestyle benefits of the host country. As their attraction was and remains to a host country national, geographical reasons (60%) feature prominently. Not surprisingly, their fondness for the people translated into a desire to help the country and people, hence the impact of vocational (52%).

Table 6.3: Typology, Properties, Concepts and Codes for "Kin-necteds"

Type: "Kin-nected"	
Properties that connect them uniquely	**Some Related Concepts and Codes from Interviews with Johann, Ralph, Patrick, Dave and Sharon**
R4 – Invitation from current employee at case institution (CI)	Acquaintance/Friend/Compatriot/Former colleague working at CI, heard from colleague about CI.
R6 – Relationship with host country national	Wife/partner is from (name of host country), married, met future wife, extended family, children, partner cannot or does not want to move overseas, male partner unable to live overseas, limited by husband.
I7 – Reputation of case institution	Best English program, good model, everyone knows (name of case institution), famous in host country, professional.
I11 – Job variety opportunities	Lots of opportunities, opportunity beyond age and experience, always something new going on, something new, learning more than anywhere else, no limitations or dead ends, organisation is changing and growing quickly, different kind of challenges, serving on task forces, could implement new ideas, move to different program.
G4 – Attraction to host country	Good place, lots of opportunity, can make a difference, easy to get English teaching job, buzz of host country, host country nationals less deferential and more independent, fascinated with country's history, fond of culture and people.
G5 - Economic and lifestyle benefits of host country	Stable job, has not kept up with contemporaries, satisfied with money in relation to cost of living, lower cost of living that in home country, better quality of life, own house, good lifestyle, easy to get well-paid job, easy for husband to get a job without retraining.

While the appeal of the lifestyle in the host country is common to this group as to all others, unique to them is their emotional and, in four cases, legal commitment to a host country national. All five IAEs in this group had been single when they first came to the host country but ended up in a relationship with a host country national. Patrick, Ralph, Johann and Dave had first come to the host country because they were attracted to the country, culture and people, while Sharon had been posted there on a development aid project. They had subsequently met their partners, hence felt a strong geographical "pull" towards the host country. The main influence for these IAEs was geographical reasons as they needed to be in the host country to pursue, develop and maintain these relationships.

Among the five, three were married to host country females while two were with host country males. As explained in Chapters 4 and 5, those with male partners, Sharon and Patrick, were more attached to the host country and, in consequence, the case institution, because their partners were less willing or able to work overseas, the main obstacles being their inability to work in their field in an English-speaking country. For Patrick this was exacerbated by being in a same-sex relationship because of cultural sensitivities and legal requirements associated with moving overseas. Although they personally desired change - for Sharon a move back to Australia and Patrick to move to another country - these IAEs felt "trapped" in the host country because of their relationships.

In contrast, the influence of having a host country partner on their decisions to stay was not as strong for Johann, Ralph and Dave, married to females from the host country. Ironically, Johann and Ralph were more eager than their female partners to

remain in the host country as they were well aware that they could not offer their partners the same standard of living in their home countries. This was especially a concern for Ralph, who was able to hire a nanny in the host country. For "Kin-necteds", the influence of their partner on decision-making depended greatly on their partner's willingness and ability to move. The influence of an IAE's partner is also relevant for "Expatriate Partners". However, these partners are foreigners themselves and would have lived and worked overseas before coming to the host country. Therefore, the issue of whether to move would concern spousal willingness rather than ability.

Unlike Opportunists, who came specifically to work at the case institution, the "Kin-necteds" were drawn to the host country and later host country nationals with the job a secondary influence. They had all worked elsewhere in the host country before joining the case institution. Not surprisingly, they were also influenced by vocational reasons (52%) as they found teaching a satisfying way to contribute to the host country and its people, to whom they were now committed through their partners. Unlike Opportunists, who had come to the host country because of the job and were not restricted to the host country for job alternatives, "Kin-necteds" are more limited in their options. Hence they are far less likely to leave the case institution in the absence of a better offer locally.

To sum up, IAEs in this group are connected to the host country because of their relationships with host country nationals. "Kin-necteds", like all other types, desire to stay in the host country and, in consequence, at the case institution because it allows them to enjoy a privileged lifestyle. For "Kin-necteds", geographical factors are predominant in the decision-making, with vocational and relational reasons also influential.

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6.5   The Expatriate Partner

In this study, the term "Expatriate Partner" describes a foreigner who is in the host country because his or her partner is working there. As all the Expatriate Partners in this study are employed at the case institution, it was preferable to adopt this term instead of the more commonly-used "Trailing Spouse", which alludes to partners, generally wives, who are unemployed. While the term "Accompanying Partner" is increasingly used in government and business circles, "Expatriate Partner" emphasises that the partners of these IAEs are foreign nationals, which importantly distinguishes them from local partners of the "Kin-nected".

Table 6.4 on the next page shows that Expatriate Partners were influenced by three main factors: the desire to be with their partner, attraction to the host country (because their partner was there), and attraction to the economic and lifestyle benefits of being there. Thus, the most prominent category of reasons is geographical (44%). Notably, among the three Expatriate Partners, two had left the case institution but not the host country by the time of interview. The main reason that the remaining IAE stayed was because her husband was still working in the host country.   From the interviews with the five IAEs who are Expatriate Partners, only three common properties emerged. Nevertheless, it is justifiable to put these five IAEs together because they are unified by one overriding influence: following their partners.

Table 6.4: Typology, Properties and Some Related Concepts and Codes for Expatriate Partners

Type: Expatriate Partners	
Properties that connect them uniquely	**Some Related Concepts and Codes from Interviews with Rafa, Maree, Lynn, Gary and Isabella**
R3 – Desire to be with partner	Came to visit partner, looked for job in host country, wife knew someone at case institution (CI), husband came first, got job soon after arriving, met future husband on first visit, wife offered a job in host country, came to stay a few weeks, offered a job, husband was working in host country, came to live with him.
G4 – Attraction to host country	As above. Fascinated by host country.
G5 - Economic and lifestyle benefits of host country	Safe environment to raise kids, able to have helpers, can raise children without influence of home country culture, better standard to living, low cost of living, able to save more, economic advantage, economic crash, uncertainty of job market, cheap compared to home country.

Like the "Kin-necteds", these IAEs are mainly in the host country because of their partners. However, two differences between them and "Kin-necteds" are that they had met their partners overseas and their partners are foreigners. An exception is Lynn, who had met her future husband during her first visit to the country and returned to pursue the relationship. Her husband, however, was a foreigner hence Lynn is typified as an Expatriate Partner instead of "Kin-nected".

As explained above, the main influence on Expatriate Partners was geographical (44%). Personal (35%) and relational (34%) reasons followed. It is surprising that relational influences were not stronger. However, within the relational realm, the only property that is relevant to Expatriate Partners is "desire to be with partner". Equally weak in influence were vocational and institutional reasons. This

may be explained by the fact that Expatriate Partners are influenced almost wholly by their partners' career movements and not their own motivations. This is evident in that all five had come initially or returned to the host country because of their partners: Rafa had initially come to join his partner, who had gained employment at an international school; Maree's husband was working for an Australian non-government organisation (NGO); and Gary and Isabella had moved from London and the Philippines respectively to join their partners were employed in the host country by the time they moved; and Lynn had returned to pursue a relationship with a fellow American whom she had met on an earlier visit. Of the five, Maree and Lynn had children while Rafa, Gary and Isabella did not. While Rafa and Isabella had intended to work in the host country so that they could be with their partners, Gary had initially planned to visit, but the offer of a job led to his decision to stay.

It is interesting to note that no particular category of reasons featured strongly in the decisions of these IAEs to stay. Of 40 possible responses under "Reasons for Staying", only 12 were cited by Expatriate Partners. The influence of relationships with host country nationals did not feature in any way in their decisions to stay as they were already in relationships with their own foreign partners.

In summary, while the influence of a partner on the decision to stay is strong for "Kin-necteds", for Expatriate Partners, this influence is negligible. The decision of an Expatriate Partner to stay is almost entirely dependent on the movements of the spouse.

6.6   The Altruist

The definitions of altruism cited in Chapter 2 support the development of this type in relation to the properties displayed by one of the 14 IAEs in the study. The notions of "increasing another's welfare", benefitting another, making sacrifices and benefitting both the actor and recipient of the act are relevant to this type.   Within this study, the Altruist is motivated by an innate desire to contribute to individual and social transformation and to help the host country by affecting the lives of students through the act of teaching.

Among the 14, Tan displayed a particular pattern of responses uncommon to the others. The prominence of vocational reasons combined with scarcity of personal reasons makes him unique. As well, Tan's unique background of being a "returnee" to the host country helps explain his desire to help. Although Tan shares many reasons with the other three types, it is warranted to place him separately because of notable differences between him and others in those groups. Though similar to "Kin-necteds" in his attraction to the host country as his wife's family are host country nationals, the fact that both he and his wife were Australian citizens and had lived and worked in Australia distinguishes him from them. Tan also shares reasons with Opportunists, namely, dissatisfaction with the lack of international schooling for children and his appreciation of the advantages of living in the host country.   However, while Opportunists cited at least three personal reasons for job change, the only personal reason cited by Tan was to escape a painful divorce, which was more an extrinsic rather than intrinsic factor. For the above reasons, it is justified to place Tan in a separate type, namely, The Altruist.   Table 6.5 on the following page shows the combination of reasons that underlie the Altruist type.

Table 6.5: Typology, Properties and Some Related Concepts and Codes for

Altruist

Type: Altruist	
Properties that is unique to him	**Some Related Concepts and Codes from Interview with Tan**
V3 – Desire to teach	Passion for teaching, teaching is his new career, absolutely satisfied with teaching.
V4 – Desire to work in development	Help host country, develop the country, change attitude, change leader, make country better.
V5 – Desire to transform society	Can't fight government, students as future leaders can change society.
R4 – Invitation from current staff at case institution	Invited by lecturer at case institution (CI), invited by manager at case institution.
R6 – Relationships with students	Miss students, connection to students, respected by students, .
I5 – Lack of specific benefits (international schooling)	Children's education, fight for benefits, 50-60% of salary spent on international schooling for one child, good school available in home country for free because of catchment area, willing to stay if CI pays partial fees.
I7 – Reputation of case institution	Knew about case institution, case institution has Australian affiliation.
G4 – Attraction to host country	left host country during war, opportunity to return, hero's welcome, could not see family for 12 years, wife from host country.
G5 - Economic and lifestyle benefits of host country	Better lifestyle despite lower income than in home country, can have "home help" with the children, able to save money.

Table 6.5 shows that Tan is motivated by his to desire teach, to help the host country,

and to transform society by influencing students. The influence of institutional factors

on this IAE appears to be weak as he was not influenced by terms and conditions,

physical facilities, and opportunities for promotion, job variety and professional

development. Instead, an invitation from a manager at the case institution, its

reputation and facilities drew him, as did his attraction to the lifestyle in the host

country, his country of birth.   For this IAE, vocational reasons (60%) were predominant while personal (25%) and institutional (25%) reasons appeared to matter less.

It is acknowledged that because of the small sample size, only one IAE has been identified as having traits belonging to this type. Further study with bigger samples of IAEs is needed to test and substantiate this type.

6.7   Summary and Conclusion

This chapter has shown - through a rigorous process of open and axial coding, in which codes, concepts, properties, and categories were drawn together around patterns of prominence ascribed to categories of reasons - how four types of IAE were identified: Opportunist; "Kin-nected", Expatriate Partner and Altruist.   Existing literature on expatriation has generated several metaphorical types to describe reasons for leaving and the experience of expatriation: Explorer, Refugee, Mercenary, and Architect, Outsider, Tightrope Walker, Student (Richardson & McKenna, 2002a). Current literature attests to the first four metaphors - Explorer, Refugee, Mercenary, and Architect - since there are clear similarities between these and the Opportunists identified in the present study. As well, previous literature is increasingly addressing the notion of the Expatriate Partners. However, two types identified in this chapter, "Kin-nected" and Altruist, are newly-conceived on the basis of the data from this study. Both the process of creating this typology and the two new types identified from this study represent original findings in the study of expatriate motivations and experiences.

CHAPTER 7: Conclusions and Implications

7.1   Introduction

The final chapter is made up of the several key sections:

Following this introduction, Section 7.2 summarises the overall purpose and methodology of the study and presents the theory that emerged. Section 7.3 then answers the research questions posed at the start; Section 7.4 evaluates the findings against current literature on academic turnover and expatriation; and Section 7.5 discusses the implications of the research for individuals and institutions are discussed. In Section 7.6, the study's original contribution to theory, methodology and application are highlighted. Section 7.7 identifies further areas for investigation. An epilogue is presented in Section 7.8.

7.2   Summary of the Study

This study set out to investigate the influences that shaped the decisions of independent academic expatriates (IAEs) to seek, remain at or leave their jobs at a transnational branch campus in a rapidly developing country in Southeast Asia. Through this, it aimed to provide a better understanding of how IAEs make decisions about career change, thus contributing hopefully to IAEs, present and future, making "better" decisions. At the same time, the study also sought to inform recruitment and retention policies and practices at the case institution and others in similar settings.

Consistent with the topic and nature of investigation, a qualitative methodology was chosen. Of the many approaches available to qualitative researchers, grounded theory was chosen for its rigour in coding and analysis of data, its approach to theory development, and its constructivist approach to data analysis and interpretation. In total, 14 IAES were interviewed. Using grounded theory approaches to data collection, coding and analysis, categories of reasons and types of IAEs emerged, on the basis of which the Theory of decisional job location was formulated.

The theory of decisional job location proposes that IAEs make decisions about change of job location on the basis of personal, vocational, relational, institutional, and geographical influences which exert "push", "pull" and "static" forces, the interplay of which influences the outcome of their decision-making to stay at or stray from their present job location. Furthermore, the relative prominence of each category and their overall pattern varies across IAEs, generating a typology. The four types of IAEs identified were labelled as follows: Opportunist, "Kin-nected", Trailing Spouse and Altruist.

7.3   Answers to Research Questions

This theory directly answers the main research question. Simply put, the decisions of IAEs are shaped by personal, vocational, relational, institutional, and geographical influences.

In response to SRQ 1, personal reasons for leaving included the desire for escape and change. Vocationally, IAEs sought to leave jobs that were misaligned with their values and background. Conflicts with managers and colleagues were strong "Relational" reasons for leaving. At an institutional level, IAEs were prompted to

leave because of excessive workloads and emphasis on profit ahead of academic quality. They also left because of cultural, social and economic factors specific to those countries.

In response to SRQ 2, IAEs chose their present job for a variety of reasons. Only three of the IAEs had come specifically to the case institution; the others came to the host country and eventually found jobs at the case institution. The underlying personal reason for moving was the desire for adventure. The main vocational reasons were the desire to teach and the desire to work in developing countries. Relationally, IAEs were convinced to join by the desire to be with their partners who were living and/or working in the in host county, invitations from friends or acquaintances working at the case institution and positive impressions of the case institution. They were further attracted by institutional features including the reputation and physical facilities coupled with the terms and conditions offered by the case institution. Finally, the appeal of the host country and its people drew some IAEs to the host country.

The answers to SRQ 3 are particularly revealing and instructional for the case institution. Although the uncertain global economic climate was a prominent personal reason for staying, IAEs were also influenced by vocational and relational factors. Significantly, ties with partners who were host country nationals bound some IAEs to the host country. The opportunity to help in the development of the host country by influencing students was a strong "Vocational" reason. Institutionally, opportunities for promotion, job variety, and professional development mattered greatly. IAEs also stayed at the case institution as a means of remaining in the host country to enjoy financial and lifestyle benefits associated with living there.

7.4   Comparison with Current Literature

The findings of this study support and extend current scholarship in the areas of academic job turnover and expatriation.

Academic Job Turnover

Viewed against current literature on academic turnover, the findings mainly corroborate much of what is stated in current literature on academic job turnover. However, it extends upon this knowledge by offering a systematic model to guide career-decision making. As discussed in Chapter 2, studies on job change intent have tended to look at reasons in terms of satisfiers and "dissatisfiers" (Metcalf, et al., 2005, p. xvi-xvii) and reasons for leaving and staying (Conklin & Deselle, 2007). These reasons are usually listed according to importance and frequency rather than by categories of reasons. Although Conkin and Deselle's (2007) list, shown on page 41, is extensive, it is difficult to see how this information can help academics make better decisions about job change. In contrast, the development of categories of reasons helps to systematise knowledge and thinking in this area, thus allowing for application. By imposing this system of categorisation to reasons for job change, both individual IAEs and institutions are able to understand and apply knowledge more effectively. A practical application of this has been to the Decisional Job Change Matrix, a tool for career decision making (See Figure 7.1). The process described in the matrix encourages careful and systematic consideration about the reasons across the different categories and the relative importance of each category.

Expatriation

In relation to expatriation, the results confirmed much of the current scholarship on academic expatriates. As shown in Chapter 6, the findings confirmed

the presence of similar metaphorical "types" among IAEs. Through the rigorous process of axial and selective coding, two new types were also identified.

Another resemblance is the role of "planned happenstance" (Mitchell, et al., 1999, p. 116), which emphasises the role of serendipity in career development. Especially among The Opportunists in this study, chance has played a major role in their decision-making. The theory of "planned happenstance" further purports that individuals living in an unpredictable environment create and transform unplanned events into opportunities. This is certainly true among the IAEs in my study, many of whom have responded to the uncertain economic environment by deciding to stay at the case institution and utilising the time to pursue professional development opportunities.

As well, the findings concur with the literature on why academic expatriates leave and how they experience expatriation (Richardson & McKenna, 2002b). Current literature identifies five over-riding themes explaining motivations for expatriation: adventure/travel; career advancement; family influences; financial incentives; and desire for life change/escape (Selmer & Lauring, 2010). This study has found that, in addition, one of the main reasons for leaving and staying overseas is relationships with host country nationals. Fechter (2007) mentions this briefly but does not go into detail of how the relationships influence the decision-making of the expatriate. The results of this study show that the influence of relationships with host country nationals on the decision to stay or leave depends on the willingness and/or ability of the partners to move overseas and, in general, male host country nationals face more obstacles moving.

As noted in Chapter 2, current literature overlooks how IAEs set out to secure employment overseas once they have made the decision to leave. Do they obtain jobs before going to the host country or do they simply go in the hope of getting employment? What are the "chance events" (Mitchell, et al., 1999, p. 115) that led them to a particular job or host country? The study found that only 3 of the 14 had arrived in the host country with the security of a job offer. The other 11 had simply arrived in the country in the hope of finding employment. Fortunately, most had managed to obtain jobs soon after arriving. The "chance events" were mainly "word-of-mouth" recommendations or hearing about the case institution's reputation, though one IAE applied through an advertisement in the newspaper.

Another omission in the current literature on academic expatriation is the desire to seek meaningful work and to contribute philanthropically to social change. While this is covered in the literature on volunteers, the influence of "vocation" on decision-making is only perhaps hinted at in the desire for a life change. Yet this study has found that vocational factors, such as misalignment of values and background and the institution's emphasis while compromising quality, represent strong "push" factors.

7.5   Implications of the Study

The findings of this study are useful both to the individual and the institution. For the individual, the findings counsel the importance of thinking through reasons across various categories and weighing up the importance of each category when making decisions about whether to change jobs. The typology is also useful in helping IAEs to recognise themselves through identifying with the four types which emerged from the study, allowing them to learn from the lived experiences of others. For the

case institution, an understanding of potential and actual reasons for leaving will enable it to consider strategies to improve recruitment and increase retention.

7.5.1   Implications for the Individual

In Chapter 3, one of the stated ways to establish "goodness" was by ensuring transformational validity which Cho and Trent (2006, p. 324) describe as "the resultant actions prompted by the research endeavour". Arminio and Hultgren (2002) add that "researchers should embark upon their work ... to improve the lives of others ... Interpretive research is initiated for the purpose of improving the world through more informed action" (p. 427). To this end, one way in which this research hopes to improve the lives of others is to apply this understanding of categories of reasons to decision-making through the design of a Decisional Job Change Matrix. The process described in the matrix allows "more informed action" by encouraging careful and systematic consideration about the reasons across the different categories and the importance of each category.

A Tool for Career Decision-Making

The theory of decisional job location serves to remind IAEs that when making decisions about job change, it is important to consider two aspects: their reasons across categories and the importance of each category. To apply the theory to practice, a Decisional Job Matrix has been developed and is presented on page 200. To illustrate how this matrix could be applied to job change decisions, the following scenario is presented briefly followed by an example of how the matrix can help to clarify the decision.

On the scoresheet on page 199, our fictitious character has completed the scoresheet (see entries in **_bold_**). In the "Weighting" column, she rates relational, institutional and geographical reasons as "Very Important" and personal and vocational ones as "Quite Important" as her key priorities are to provide international schooling for her children and have time with them during vacations. Following this, she rates each job according to the scale.

The final scores reveal that Maree might be better off working at the international school as it aligns more closely with her priorities at this time. The above

example, though substantially simplified for the purpose of illustration, nevertheless demonstrates the importance of thinking through reasons across various categories and considering the importance of each when making decisions about job change. The process described in the Decisional Job Change Matrix, especially if done in discussion with a friend or mentor, encourages careful and systematic consideration about the individual's priorities and how well the job satisfies those priorities.

Another implication for the individual is through identification of the four types of IAEs. By comparing or placing themselves in or alongside one or more of these types, IAEs may well be able to understand themselves, their motivations, and their identities better. Through the types, prospective IAEs may also learn valuable lessons about what to expect and how to cope with challenges. For example, an IAE wanting to move to a transnational institution in a non-English-speaking-background (NESB) country might be cautioned to enquire about whether the institution provides international schooling benefits. Similarly, IAEs who find themselves in relationships with locals may be counselled by the experience of "Kin-necteds" about the impact of such relationships upon their future career choices.

DECISIONAL JOB CHANGE MATRIX:

A TOOL FOR CAREER DECISION-MAKING

Purpose:

This matrix will help you to make more informed and holistic decisions about whether to change jobs by helping you to reflect on reasons across five areas or categories: personal, vocational, relational, institutional and geographical. This tool consists of two parts: the instructions (this sheet) and a score sheet on the following page. (If possible, you should complete this in discussion with a partner, trusted friend or mentor. You may also do it individually).

Instructions:

Step 1: Think about each job offer. On a separate sheet on paper, brainstorm the pros and cons of each job.

Step 2: Now classify the pros and cons according to whether they are personal, vocational, relational, institutional or geographical reasons. For a description of each category, please look at the score sheet.

Step 3: In the column entitled "Weighting", ascribe a rating to each category using the following scale. Write your rating in the spaces after A, B, C, D and E.

Very important – 4; Quite Important – 3; Slightly important – 2; Not important at all – 1

Step 4: Think about each job offer and consider how well that job would satisfy you within each category of reasons. Rate each job using the scale below. Write your rating for Job 1 in the spaces (1a), (1b), (1c), (1d) and (1e). Repeat for Job 2 and subsequent jobs. (Note: As you do this, you may decide to change the weighting of each category).

Completely – 4; Most of the time – 3; Only a little – 2; Not at all – 1

Step 5: Multiply the scores from Job 1 (1a, 1b, 1c, 1d and 1e) by the weighting (A, B, C, D, E) and write the total in the spaces. Repeat for Job 2 and subsequent jobs.

Step 6: Look at the total scores for each job. The job with the higher/highest score would be considered to be the optimal choice in view of reasons across all categories.

Figure 7.1   Decisional Job Change Matrix

DECISIONAL JOB CHANGE MATRIX: SCORE SHEET			
Categories/Job Offers	Weighting	Job 1 (*University*)	Job 2 (*International school*)
a. Personal: How well does the job satisfy your immediate desires, needs and self-interests?	A **3**	(1a) **4** = **12** (1a x A)	(2a) **3** = **9** (2a x A)
b. Vocational: How well does the job satisfy your values and background?	B **3**	(1b) **4** = **12** (1b x B)	(2b) **2** = **6** (2b x B)
c. Relational: How well does the job satisfy your relationships with co-workers, family, loved ones, friends and acquaintances?	C **4**	(1c) **1** = **4** (1c x C)	(2c) **4** = **16** (2c x C)
d. Institutional: How well do the institution's reputation, facilities, terms and conditions, policies and practices satisfy your needs and expectations?	D **4**	(1d) **2** = **8** (1d x D)	(2d) **4** = **16** (2d x D)
e. Geographical: How well does the job satisfy your need to be in any particular location?	E **4**	(1e) **4** = **16** (1e x E)	(2e) **4** = **16** (2e x E)
Total score		Add the scores for (1a x A)+(1b x B)+ (1c x C) + (1d x D) + (1e x E) = **52**	Add the scores for (2a x A)+(2b x B)+ (2c x C) + (2d x D) + (2e x E) = **63**

Figure 7.2: Decision Job Matrix Score Sheet

7.5.2   Implications for the Institution

The implications of the study are also useful in allowing the institution to take "more informed actions" in the areas of recruitment and retention, which is one of the measures of transformational validity. The three IAEs who had left the case institution had been dissatisfied with the length and timing of annual leave and two were also displeased with the lack of schooling benefits for their children. One mentioned lack of autonomy and lack of recognition as reasons for leaving. These pressure points were also cited as potential "push" factors. Conversely, the wealth of opportunities for promotion, job variety and professional development were reasons that IAEs stayed. This information provides the case institution with valuable information to be forewarned and, thus, forearmed. The section below presents findings specific to the case institution and recommendations of ways to mitigate these actual and potential "push" forces.

<u>Length and Timing of Annual Leave</u>

As suggested by three IAEs, the case institution should provide opportunities for extended annual leave, whether paid or unpaid, and award sabbaticals to IAEs who have been working at the case institution for an extended period, possibly, after five years. As for the timing of leave, while it may not be possible to allow every IAE to take every Christmas off, the case institution should establish a roster to ensure that IAEs are able to spend at least one Christmas in two with their loved ones. To do this, they could hire part-time replacements or offer extra allowances to those who are willing to fore-go their Christmas holidays.

Schooling Benefits

The provision of schooling benefits is a controversial issue as IAEs who do not have children believe that it is unfair if those with children are given this additional benefit. A suggestion favoured by IAEs without children is for the case institution to provide an amount equivalent of half of the average annual school fees to all IAEs, giving them the option to use it for accommodation, travel or school fees. However, with 284 teachers on the payroll, such an initiative would cost the case institution close to US$ 1.5 million per annum. Another possibility is for the case institution to tie-up with several international schools and to offer their staff sponsored places in programs offered by the case institution in exchange for the places or discounts for children of IAEs employed at the case institution. While the schooling issue appears insurmountable, it is imperative that the case institution is able to resolve this; otherwise IAEs who are married and those with children may not be willing to stay long-term. This cohort tends to be older, more mature and more stable in comparison with the younger IAEs, who may be more inclined to move more frequently.

Lack of Autonomy

Two key areas appeared to perturb IAEs: lack of freedom in making changes to the curriculum and the pressure to undertake research. As branch campuses around the world are maturing, the growing tension between home campus and branch campus is evident. At the recent Australian Universities Forum in Melbourne, debates raged over the "locus" of control with four options discussed: home campus control, limited branch campus contextualisation, focus on attaining the same learning outcomes; or curriculum designed at the branch campus (Yeo et al., 2011). Such tensions are natural given the growing maturity of Australian branch campuses, an example of

which is the case institution. While it made sense in the early stages for curricula to be exported from the home institution in the interest of expediency and standardisation, now that the case institution has grown in scale and maturity, it seems appropriate for IAEs teaching there to be given greater autonomy as long as the same learning outcomes are achieved. At the end of the day, all students in both home and branch campuses take the same degree, thus the same standards must apply in both. Concerning research, in view of the backgrounds of many IAEs, especially those who had switched fields to come into teaching, the case institution should establish a dual-track system, allowing IAEs to decide between research or teaching. This would allow IAEs who are committed to teaching to focus on this aspect..

Lack of Recognition

A final issue is lack of recognition – a feeling particularly among English language teaching staff. Although English language teachers are afforded many of the same benefits as lecturers teaching on the undergraduate and graduate programs – conference attendance, fully-sponsored enrolment in the Graduate Certificate in Tertiary Teaching and Learning, the same annual leave entitlements – the perception that they are less qualified and committed than other lecturers remains. Three factors contribute to this. Firstly, because of the need for a large number of English language teachers, the case institution accepts teachers who have an undergraduate degree as a recognised English language teaching qualification, usually the CELTA, and a minimum of two years teaching experience. However, other lecturers are required to have at least a masters' degree. Secondly, again because of large numbers, English language teachers are required to share computers while other lecturers have their own. Finally, because of the nature of teaching English, they are assigned up to 20-25 contact hours a week depending on other duties, while other full-time lecturers teach

12-15 hours. Realistically, it is not necessary or viable to insist that all English language teachers have master's degrees, though IAEs who are so inclined should be encouraged and supported to upgrade their qualifications. As well, the requirement to teach 20-25 hours a week seems an international standard and is not excessive given that the curriculum is fixed. However, simply by providing each teacher a laptop, it may be possible to reduce resentment. In the host country, it is possible to purchase cheap computers (US$ 500 for a laptop), so this may not be as high a budgetary hurdle as paying international school fees would be. As well, the nomenclature – English language teachers versus lecturers – could be altered to lessen this distinction, with all teaching staff referred to as lecturers.

At the same time as solving the above issues, the case institution should continue to provide opportunities for promotion, job variety and professional development as these are strong "stay" factors. However, these opportunities must be tailored to suit the desires and needs of individual IAEs, so that while the opportunity to do a doctorate may be appealing for some, other IAEs might prefer to pursue other forms of professional development. It is acknowledged that for an institution developing its status as a university, the doctorate remains an important pre-requisite. One possibility is to establish a dual-track system - a teaching and a research track - thus allowing IAEs to choose their career paths.

In summary, it is claimed that both the individual IAE and the institution can benefit from the findings of this study as will be discussed further below. The Decisional Job Location Matrix offers a process and tool for making more informed and considered decisions about job change. For the institution, the recommendations above may reduce staff dissatisfaction thus increasing retention.

7.6 **Original Contribution**

As discussed in Chapter 1, transnational education is still relatively in its infancy, with serious academic scholarship beginning mainly in the late 1990s. Even more recent is the proliferation of branch campuses with their attendant need for full-time academic teaching staff. This case study, which focuses on IAEs at a branch campus, is unique as it is the only known study about IAEs in the Asian host country.

This study has made original theoretical, methodological and practical contributions to the areas of transnational education, expatriation and career development in the following ways: (i) the development of terminology; (ii) the identification of new "types" of expatriates; (iii) the use of literary analysis to extend the "Story line" in grounded theory approach to selective coding; (iv) the use of grounded theory to develop a typology of IAEs; and (v) the development of a Decisional Job Change Matrix to enhance job change decision-making.

7.6.1 **Theoretical contribution**

Terminology

Prior to the study, the terminology used to describe foreigners teaching overseas was varied and vague. None of the existing terms - "self-selecting academic expatriates" (Richardson & McKenna, 2000), "academic expatriates" (Richardson & McKenna, 2000), "self-directing expatriates" (Richardson, 2006), "independent expatriates" (Hipsher, 2008) - embraced the reasons for IAEs choosing to leave and to work in the academic field of a branch campus as part of an overseas University. The term conceived for this study "independent academic expatriate" brings together the ideas of choosing to leave, teaching in a tertiary setting and living overseas. The

term "independent", which captures the nuances of choice and precariousness, is especially important in distinguishing this cohort from other expatriates posted from their home countries. Generally, IAEs are unlikely to be compensated as generously: they do not receive benefits such as international airfares, relocation fees, housing allowances, transport allowances, and school fees for children. The term "independent academic expatriate" accurately and completely describes the increasingly large numbers of academics who choose to pursue teaching jobs overseas.

New Types

As discussed in Chapter 6, among the four types of IAE identified in the study, two offer entirely new insights into reasons for leaving and the experience of expatriation: the "Kin-nected" and the Altruist. The term, "Kin-nected", is in itself a neologism used in this context to identify IAEs who stay in the host country because they are married to or are in committed relationships with, host country nationals and are therefore bound by family ties, hence "connected by kin". While the influence of spousal relationship with foreigners is increasingly discussed within the literature, this is less the case for relationships with host country nationals. Even less has been studied about relationships between foreign wives and local husbands and foreign males with same-sex partners. While the latter is not fully investigated in my study for ethical reasons, the limited data derived from this study suggests that such relationships represent a strong "stay" force because of the difficulty of moving overseas.

The Altruist, though apparent in literature on volunteers (Hudson & Inkson, 2006), is absent from studies of expatriates, mainly because the bulk of scholarship has been on business expatriates. The Altruist, though typified by one IAE in my study, deserves it own label because reasons related to it are exemplified by other IAEs as

well, although not being their dominant influence. This is an important type because it reflects trends in career development towards more spiritually-fulfilling careers (Martin, 2011; Palmer, 2007).

7.6.2 Methodological Contributions

The study has made two contributions in this area: the application of grounded theory to the development of types of IAEs and the use of literary analysis methods in articulating the story line in selective coding. A key methodological contribution was the use of grounded theory to the development of types of IAEs. In previous studies, the metaphorical types had been developed on a more intuitive basis (Richardson & McKenna, 2000). However, within this study and as demonstrated in Chapter 6, the constant-comparative methods advocated by Glaser and Strauss (1967) provided greater rigour in developing a typology. Secondly, although uncommon in the literature, the study applied literary criticism approaches to the metaphor of a story. By comparing traditional elements such as character, setting, problem (dilemma), conflict, climax, resolution, themes and character type, it was possible to develop the story line in greater depth.

7.6.3 Application of Theory to Practice

A final contribution is in the development of the Decisional Job Change Matrix, which offer a process and a tool for deciding whether to change jobs. While this tool is fairly rudimentary at this stage, the process appears to be of value to individuals who are considering changing jobs.

7.7   Areas for Future Study

The findings of this study have contributed by adding new knowledge about transnational education and those who teach in them. In light of these revelations, some areas of further investigation are described below.

Cohort analysis

This was a qualitative study which looked in-depth at the decision making of 14 of the nearly 300 IAEs at the case institution. To obtain maximum variation, IAEs were chosen on the basis of the following criteria: gender, marital status, cultural orientation, job position, and professional background. However, because of the limited sample size, it is not possible to reach generalisable conclusions to a larger population. It would be valuable for a large-scale quantitative research study to be conducted, especially on the "stay" factors as this would allow the institution to implement measures to improve retention. The main purpose of doing a large scale statistical study would be to test the validity of the four-fold typology and theory to see how comprehensive it is to a larger sample of IAEs.

Location

The context for this study is in a less developed country in Southeast Asia. The location of the study had significant bearing on the results, for example, the desire to stay because of the low cost of living and lifestyle. However, this will not be the case for IAEs working in modern, developed countries such as Dubai or Singapore, two developed high 'cost of living' cities sprouting transnational institutions. As there will be a burgeoning need for IAEs in such places, it would be useful to conduct similar studies in these contexts.

Life Histories

Familiarity between IAEs and the researcher allowed for honest and in-depth discussion. Even within the limitations of the interview, IAEs were willing to open up and share about highly sensitive and personal topics. It was unfortunate that the constraints of doctoral work and limited time for interviews enforced attention mainly to questions on the interview guide as the knowledge and experience of these IAEs could have contributed much more to our understanding of their identities, motivations, experiences and challenges as IAEs. It would therefore be beneficial to study IAEs using a life history approach, allowing the researcher to investigate their career paths and trajectories with a view to increasing knowledge about the lived experiences of independent academic expatriates.

_____

Appendix 1: Invitation to Participate

Dear (name of prospective respondent)

I can't believe it's been almost three months since I left (name of case institution). I miss the place and the people very much! I am now a full-time mother and doctoral student. In many ways, it's great having time to focus on my doctoral research.

My research, as you are aware, focuses on the topic of "Recruitment and Retention of Independent Academic Expatriates in Transnational Institutions". My study seeks to enhance recruitment and retention by investigating the "push" factors that affect the decision of expatriate academics like yourself to leave their previous jobs, the "pull" factors that draw them to their current jobs, and the "stay" factors that keep them there. My research also seeks to give a voice and identity to transnational academics like us.

My main research question is as follows:

What influences shape the decisions of expatriate academics to seek and retain positions in a transnational institution in Asia?

Specifically, I'd like to ask you questions relating to the following:

-For what reasons you leave your previous jobs?

-Why and how did you choose and apply for a job at (name of case institution); and

-Why have you chosen to extend your contracts at the present institution?

Please be assured that neither the name or location of the institution nor your identity will be disclosed in my thesis. You will also be given a copy of my findings to verify before submission of my thesis. Finally, you may also withdraw from the research at any time during the process. A copy of the Informed Consent Form, which clearly states your agreement to participants in the interview and your rights as a participant, is enclosed for your consideration.

As I mentioned before I left, I would like to interview you when you are here in Singapore. The interview would last 45-60 minutes. A copy of the Informed Consent follows.
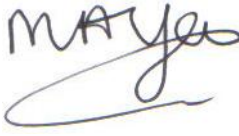
Look forward to seeing you soon.

All best,
Marie

Appendix 2: Informed Consent Form

I, _____(name of respondent), confirm that I have willingly and for no financial gain agreed to be interviewed as part of the research undertaken by Ms Marie Alina Yeo as part of her Doctor of Education degree with the University of Leicester.

I am aware that:

-my name will not be used and my identity will not be disclosed
-neither the name of the institution nor its location will be disclosed
-I may withdraw from the research at any time during the process
-I will be shown transcripts related to me or what I said during the interview to verify accuracy.

Signature of researcher:	Signature of participant:
(signature)	
Name: Marie Alina Yeo	Name:
Date: 19 August 2009	Date:

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