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Management of the Diverse Workforce: Job
Satisfaction among Culturally Diverse Workforce in
the United Arab Emirates

Talal Al-Junaibi

A thesis submitted in fulfilment

of the requirements of

The University of Northumbria at Newcastle

For the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

The United Arab Emirates (UAE) is a capital rich country, which has achieved spectacular economic growth in the last three decades. To make up for its limited indigenous human resource, the country has traditionally recruited its required manpower from other countries of the world to maintain its development. The presence of a large culturally diverse workforce has recently become a matter of great concern to the planners and policy makers in the country. Despite efforts to nationalise the workforce, the UAE has kept relying substantially on expatriate workers, and workplaces are likely to remain full of workers from different national backgrounds, offering a cross-cultural human resource environment.

The present study has been undertaken to fill an existing gap in academic research in the UAE context with threefold objectives. First, to develop a better understanding of the demographic composition and workforce nature in the UAE. Second, to understand the social, political and economic issues and implications resulting from the existence of workers from different national backgrounds in the UAE labour market. Finally, to establish a better understanding of job satisfaction among workers from UAE, Arab, Asian and other national backgrounds within the UAE unique work environment. Within this country case study, a multi-method approach was undertaken to facilitate the descriptive analysis of the UAE labour market and its special economic characteristics.

No difference was found in job satisfaction among workers from different ethnic and national groups in the UAE. This was true for all of the four examined aspects of job satisfaction. Also, the level of job satisfaction was moderate across all of the examined workers, regardless of their national origin. The study finds that among the examined workers from UAE, Arab and Asian backgrounds, the reward factors that influenced job satisfaction were the most significant among all of the examined variables. This conclusion reinforces the perspective that the UAE represent an economy and labour market with special characteristics in the global economy. This supports the view that globalisation must be understood as a diverse set of processes, in which competitive advantage may accrue to a "region state" with unique characteristics.

DECLARATION

This thesis is submitted in fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Newcastle Business School, University of Northumbria at Newcastle. The work reported is my own and I have not submitted it for any previous degree.

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to Lieutenant General Staff Pilot H. H. Sheikh / Mohammed Bin Zayed Bin Sultan Al-Nahyan, the Chief of Staff of the United Arab Emirates (UAE) Armed Forces, due to his continued devotion and vision in making the UAE Armed Forces a special place where its members can be justly proud.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.0 Background

The United Arab Emirates (UAE) is a capital rich country suffering from severely limited indigenous human resources. Faced with the task of rapid economic development, the UAE has been recruiting the required workforce from different countries of the world in the process of utilising its natural wealth of oil in building the country.

It is a common sight in most organisations in the UAE to find workers from different nationalities working together. Although there have been some changes in the workforce structure and composition, it has continued to remain multi-cultural. The 'nationals', a colloquial term for the citizens of the country, are no more than 20% of the total population of the country. The rest of the 80% of the population comprise foreigners and are commonly referred to as 'expatriates'. The UAE is an economy that is almost unique. It represents a special case in today's global economy of the world.

Unlike the historical experiences of the United States of America (USA) and many other countries of the world, the UAE has never been a melting pot. The expatriate workforce in the country have been maintaining and preserving most of their cultural values in the workplace. As the workplace diversity has become a fact of life, the employers in all sectors of employment in the UAE are faced with the onerous task of understanding the impact of differences in values and cultural norms on employee job satisfaction as well as on all other organisational behaviour variables. The contemporary managers in the UAE must understand the cultures and values of the people who constitute their workforce in order to get the best out of them.

It is widely recognised that the current and future performance of the public, joint and private organisations within any multicultural work environment greatly depends on their abilities to mobilise and direct the talents of a multi-cultural workforce. Unfortunately, however, the information and strategies on how to accomplish this complex task is scarce in the Arabian context in general and in the context of the UAE in particular. What is therefore needed is more information on how employees with unique cultural backgrounds may differ in their approach to work and their relationships at the workplace.

Furthermore, the managers also need guidance on how these differences might be approached in order to build a stronger work community, and to improve the outcomes on the individual and group levels. Therefore, it was decided that a research in that direction should be undertaken to obtain such valuable information in the multicultural context of the UAE. The attitude of job satisfaction was selected as a guiding organisational behaviour variable, in order to examine the differences among the culturally diverse workforce in the UAE. It is believed that such an approach should lead to a better understanding of the differences among workers from different national backgrounds in that context. This study of job satisfaction among the culturally diverse workforce in the UAE is highly relevant, especially in the lack of any earlier major effort that contributes to this particular important direction of research in the context of this country.

1.2 Research Problem

It is important to understand that workplaces in UAE comprise a culturally diverse workforce drawn from developed, developing and underdeveloped countries of the world. By the time these workers arrive in the country, they are already seasoned in their language and culture. Workplaces in the country are thus diverse in terms of race, region, religion, language and culture, in addition to the typical differences of age and gender that are often found in the workplace in most countries.

As has already been emphasised, the UAE has never been a melting pot. People from varied cultural backgrounds are generally found to be preserving their culture rather

than assimilating themselves into the local culture. Consequently, their offspring too imbibe and cherish the culture of their parents. Besides, like most other Arabian Gulf economies, people of the UAE as well are tradition bound. They value their language, lineage, culture, community and pride more than anything else.

Given such a state of affairs, it is obvious that the ways in which employees are recruited, selected, appointed, motivated and promoted have to be markedly different. Managing such a culturally diverse workforce is one of the most critical challenges facing the managers in the UAE. Managers in such a setting simply cannot afford to ignore the cultural diversity, not only to obtain the best out of the workers, but more importantly to avoid any negative effects, and consequently to improve by making any possible modification in employees' behaviour.

Naturally, such valuable advantage can be obtained by understanding the national culture influence on employees' behaviour. In the case of this research, job satisfaction is the organisational behaviour variable that will help in achieving the required understanding of the differences between the examined culturally diverse workforce in the UAE. Therefore, it should be clear that the emphasis of this research is not on developing or testing measures of job satisfaction. Instead, the study intends to examine whether job satisfaction differs among workers from different national groups, in order to obtain a better understanding of the underlying differences between them in the UAE context.

Arguably, managers can get the best out of the culturally diverse workforce if they develop a better understanding of their culture, particularly those facets of their culture which are likely to modify their job satisfaction, which acts as an indicator in the case of this research. In a cultural setting like this, the practices of work motivation and job satisfaction as followed in typical western situations may only be vaguely applicable. The adoption of modern human resource management and organisational behaviour theories in Arab countries in general, and in the UAE in particular, warrants careful consideration.

Even otherwise, contemporary practitioners of human resource management emphasise that understanding individual and organisational needs, and matching them in such a way that each employee feels that his personal growth is possible along with the

organisational growth are key to goal achievement. An establishment that fails to provide opportunities for personal growth ultimately finds its own growth hampered severely. Normally, in the western literature, the phenomenon is associated with high employee turnover. However, the symptoms and consequences could be much graver than this. In several cases, it has been found that in a situation like this, efficient employees would leave for better jobs, leaving behind only those employees who could not find an alternative job owing to their own inability or limited potential. In other countries where job opportunities are limited in relation to the job seekers, workers would not be able to leave the organisation. Instead they would stay in the organisation without commitment to their jobs. In totality, job satisfaction and motivation to work are not necessarily concepts that are simple to apply in a workforce that is culturally diverse.

1.2 Objectives of Study

The present study aims to examine differences in job satisfaction among UAE nationals, Arab expatriates, Asian expatriates and the other expatriates working in the UAE. In brief, the present study intends to achieve the following specific objectives:

1. To develop a better understanding of demographic composition and workforce nature in the United Arab Emirates.
2. To understand the issues arising out of the existence of a large number of workers from different nationalities in the United Arab Emirates.
3. To establish a better understanding of job satisfaction among members of a culturally diverse workforce in the United Arab Emirates.

It is intended to identify the special and indeed unique features of the UAE economy, and to position the analysis and discussion of this research accordingly.

1.3 Job Satisfaction: Theoretical Framework

The concept of work-motivation and job satisfaction might appear to some as two sides of the same coin, while others may regard job satisfaction as a driving factor to work motivation, organisational commitment, and even to work performance. Job satisfaction may be described as feelings an employee has towards his job. It is a hedonistic response of liking or disliking the attitude object. Workers are likely to approach those things with which they are satisfied, and avoid those things with which they are dissatisfied. Thus, job satisfaction is strongly associated with job behaviours. Job satisfaction is an affective or emotional response towards various facets of one's job (Smith, Kendall and Hulins, 1969).

Job satisfaction has been treated as both a global concept referring to overall job satisfaction, and as a facet-specific concept referring to various aspects of work [Cook et al, 1981]. The job itself seldom serves as a unitary attitude object. Rather, job satisfaction is associated with the degree of satisfaction with the various facets of the job. Such facets include work, pay, promotion, co-workers and supervision (Smith, Kendall and Hulins, 1969). Some researchers have identified as many as twenty different dimensions underlying job satisfaction (Weiss et al, 1967).

Some researchers often find it disturbing to differentiate between work motivation and job satisfaction, particularly because they see job satisfaction as a product of motivation theories. Quite often, motivation is also considered a consequence of job satisfaction. However, the relationship becomes clearer once we realise that work motivation is basically concerned with feelings an employee has towards his job. It deals with the broader context of attitudes to work within which job satisfaction takes place. The work motivation can be viewed as both the source and consequence of job satisfaction and as such represent a positive direction and a moderate relationship (Kinicki et al, 1997). The Literature Survey in chapter 2 presents a detailed discussion on the theories of motivation as a precursor to any meaningful discussion on job satisfaction.

Studies attempting to discover possible dimensions of job satisfaction have concluded that although there are many specific and diverse job dimensions which are related to job satisfaction, there is a set of dimensions common to most jobs that is sufficient to describe most of the predictable variance in job satisfaction. The size of the set has been

found to vary from five to twenty (Locke, 1976). These include the work itself, rewards, the context of work, etc. As regards work itself as a determinant of job satisfaction, most workers show a tendency to prefer work that is mentally challenging, varied and interesting. However, jobs that are too stressful or exhausting are often found to be negatively associated with job satisfaction (Hackman and Oldham, 1975, 1980). Similarly, a positive and comfortable work environment, which facilitates the work objectives, is likely to result in a higher level of job satisfaction. As against this, the work environment that is negative, uncomfortable and unpredictable is likely to lead to lower job satisfaction levels (Hackman and Oldham, 1975, 1980; Herzberg, 1959, 1968; Locke, 1976; Maslow, 1973).

The specific dimensions so suggested represent those job characteristics that are typically used to assess job satisfaction. They are relatively specific attitude objects for which employees have some position on a like- dislike continuum. They are also work characteristics salient to most people. For example regarding the work setting, the most important factor appears to be the reward systems-how the organisation distributes rewards such as pay and promotion and certain procedures and policies (Hackman & Oldham, 1975, 1980; Herzberg, 1959; Locke, 1976; Maslow, 1973). Job satisfaction is enhanced by reward systems that employees view as fair and reasonable, but is reduced by those they see as unfair and unreasonable. Similarly, job satisfaction is increased by policies which allow employees to participate in decisions that involve them, and which spread responsibilities and authority throughout the organisation, rather than concentrating it in a few positions.

Another factor that appears important to employees is the perceived quality of supervision. When employees approve of the style adopted by their supervisors, and perceive these people as fair and believe they have the ability to help them with their jobs or the organisation generally, then job satisfaction tends to be high. In contrast, if employees dislike or disapprove of their supervisors' approach to management and view them as incompetent, then satisfaction tends to be low (Trempe, Rigny and Haccoun, 1985).

It may be emphasised here that the different job dimensions may not be equally important to all employees in determining the overall job satisfaction. Some employees may consider their pay very important and working conditions less important, while for

others the opposite might hold true. This has tempted many to weight the dimensions by their relative importance. However, research suggests that this approach does not work (Ewin, 1967). But what about a workplace environment where workers from varied ethnic and national background work together? Could there be differences in the preferences and expectations among the workers from different national backgrounds? This can be represented in the special case of the UAE economy, and the distinctive features of its workforce.

Furthermore, there are five predominant models of job satisfaction that specify its causes. They are need fulfilment, discrepancy, value attainment, equity and trait components (Stone, 1992; Wanous et al, 1992; Irving and Meyer, 1995). Further discussion about these five models will be given in the literature survey in the next chapter.

1.4 Job Satisfaction: Multi-cultural context

The relationship between the ethnicity and national origin of the employees and their level of job satisfaction appears to be still unresolved. This is due to the fact that many of the earlier research findings seemed to be unambiguous. A study of the certified public accountant did not find significant association between their nationality and job satisfaction (Omundson, Schroeder and Stevens, 1996), but another study on Asian attitudes and the relationship between culture and job satisfaction indicated some significant association. Thai managers were found to be more concerned with the universal aspects in the area of job satisfaction than they are with culture-specific aspects (Swierczek, 1988).

Ethnic and racial differences among black and Anglo employees were carefully studied at earlier stages in both case studies (Ash, 1972; Feldman, 1973; Gottlieb, 1964; Lopez and Greenhaus, 1978; McCall and Lawler, 1976; O'Reilly and Roberts, 1973) and national employee samples (Quinn, Staines and McCullough, 1974). In some cases, job satisfaction among blacks was found to be lower or no different from job satisfaction among Anglos. On the other hand, studies conducted in public sector settings found that

the workers from minority groups were more satisfied than Anglos (Gottlieb, 1964; Lopez and Greenhaus, 1978).

Studies have also reported that the importance workers attach to specific job rewards differ by race. Blacks are more likely to emphasise extrinsic rewards, while the whites are more likely to emphasise intrinsic reward. Using data from several recent national surveys, a recent study sought to examine whether blacks and whites continue to value different job rewards differently and, if so, whether factors in addition to workers' social class account for these differences. It was found that regardless of socio-demographic attributes and independent of the influences of the family background, objective class, and job incumbency, racial differences in job values persist (Martin and Tuch, 1993).

Studies seeking to examine ethnic and racial differences at work conceive job satisfaction as a product of social, psychological and cultural factors that affect the attitudes and beliefs of workers. They believe that these attitudes and beliefs predispose the members of a particular group to respond differently to experiences in organisations from other group members. It is also assumed that such differences among various sub-groups of employees may persist, even after long periods of common socialisation at the work site.

Furthermore, scholars who examined the Hispanic and Mexican-American workplace and general life satisfaction attitudes and beliefs have identified various factors that may impact on job satisfaction. The studies about job satisfaction among Mexican American workers have identified both work and non-work factors as potential contributors to job satisfaction (Barrette and Beck, 1993). Like previous studies of job satisfaction among black public employees, studies of Hispanics' and Mexican-Americans' job satisfaction have indicated that Hispanics and Mexican Americans are consistently more satisfied with work than either Anglos or Blacks (Bartell, 1981; Dworkin, 1980; and Moch, 1980; Hawkes et al, 1984; McNeely, 1989).

1.5 Job Satisfaction: Multi-cultural context in Arabian Setting

There is very limited evidence of research on the above aspects in the Arabian setting. Interestingly, however, most studies done in Arab countries report significant differences across ethnicity and national origin and other organisational variables. A recent study on the job experiences and attitudes of Arab and Jewish workers sharing the same work site in manufacturing concerns reported that Arabs and Jews differ in terms of demographics, job status and job treatment factors, as well as in levels of job satisfaction (Wolkinson and Montemayor, 1998).

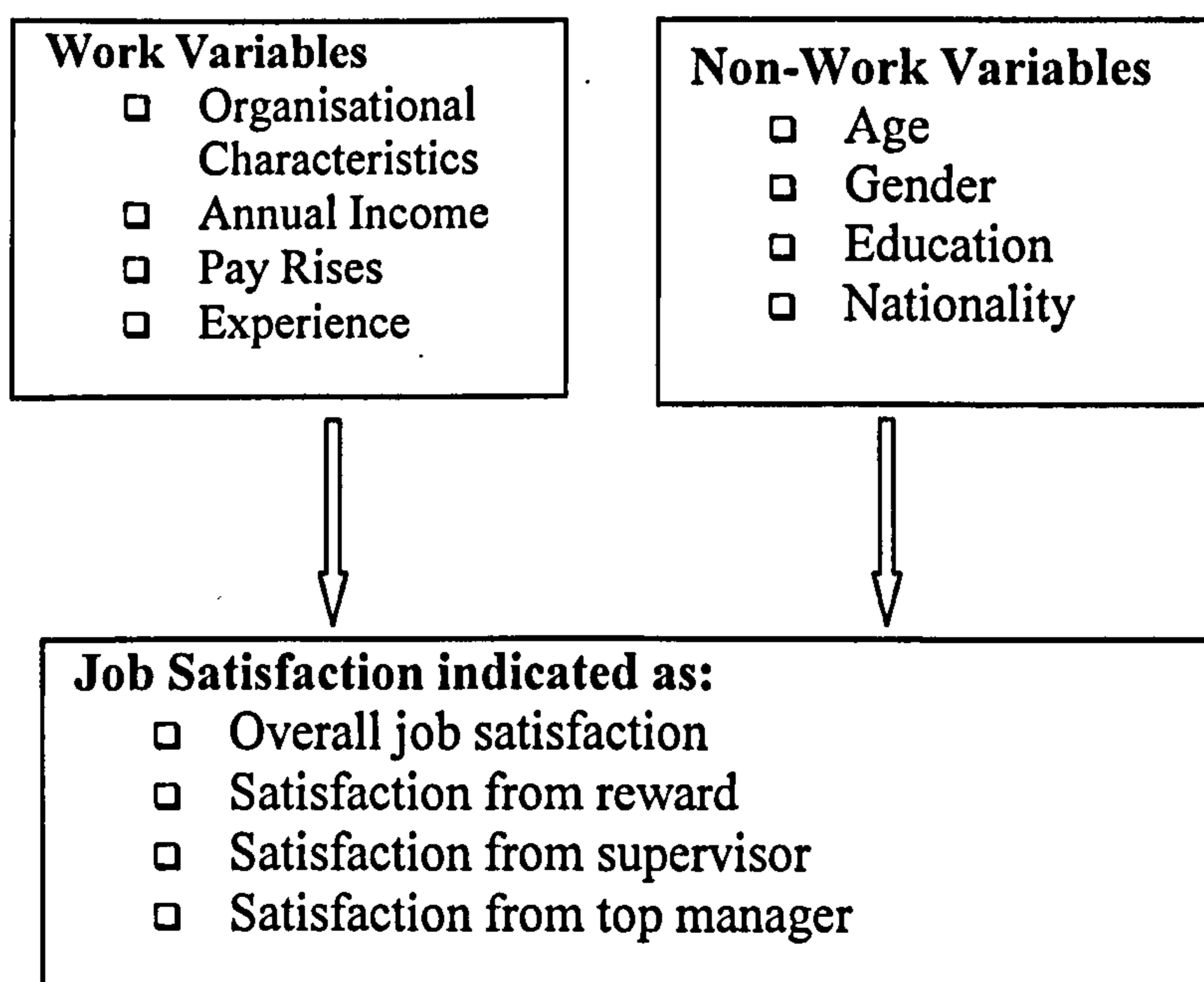
Al Amri (1995), in an effort to identify the factors and determinants of job satisfaction in the Arabian context, listed thirty-three studies that were conducted either by Arab scholars and researchers, or where the samples of the studies were drawn from Arab countries. In the list, there are only two studies that attempted to examine the relationship between job satisfaction and the nationality of the respondents. In one study, the level of job satisfaction, as reported by the American and Arab managers, was found to be significantly different in the sense that larger numbers of American respondents were found to be more satisfied than the Arab managers (Al Omar, 1984). In yet another study, it was established that the Kuwaiti workers were less satisfied than the non-Kuwaiti workforce employed in the same and similar organisations (Al Outaibi, 1992).

However, a replication of Holland's Self-Directed Search (SDS) as a measure of vocational interest in Arab culture tested in Kuwait did not reveal any significant relationship with either overall job satisfaction or its intrinsic or extrinsic components (Hassan, 1993). Based on the works of Gibson and Teasely (1973) and Hackman and Oldham (1980), a study conducted in the context of the public sector of Saudi Arabia reported that job environment, especially supervision, promotion practices and job mobility are of substantial importance in predicting job satisfaction (Al Rahimi, 1990). The analysis of the study also indicates that individual attributes do also influence job satisfaction through affecting perceptions of the work situations.

1.6 Job Satisfaction: Framework for present study

The literature survey indicates that there are a large number of studies about the attitudes, perception and behaviours of a culturally diverse workforce. However, most of these studies are on Hispanics, Blacks, Euro-Americans, and Mexican-Americans, but there are only a handful of studies conducted in the Arabian context, and very few in the context of the UAE. By examining job satisfaction in the multi-cultural settings of the UAE, we may pinpoint attitudinal differences between employees belonging to different nationalities and ethnic groups. These differences can then be connected with strategies that result in effective leadership of diverse workgroups and high level utilisation of the talents of culturally disparate employees.

The literature suggests that job satisfaction is the result of individual, group and work-site factors. The individual factors may include age and education, while the group factors would encompass gender, ethnicity and job category. These individual and group factors might be collectively called non-work variables. The work-site factors would include variables dealing with work climate, and may be collectively termed work variables. It may be argued that the non-work and work variables have the potential of influencing job satisfaction. The following framework may be used to identify and explain the relationship between job satisfaction and various work and non-work variables.



The national origin of workers, although primarily a non-work variable, may be discussed separately. As nationality has a special focus in the present study, it becomes necessary to establish its relationship with various measures of job satisfaction in order to identify the differences in the job satisfaction among workers of different nationalities.

In a framework like this, job satisfaction is taken as an indicator rather than as a focal theme of the study. Established approaches to identifying and measuring job satisfaction are used as the basis for this study. Thus, the emphasis of this study is not on developing and testing measures of job satisfaction. Instead, the study seeks to examine whether job satisfaction differs among workers from different nationalities in order to understand underlying differences between various national groups of workers in the context of the United Arab Emirates. Thus, this diagram represents not a formal or causal model, but a descriptive framework for guidance.

1.7 Importance of Present Study

Many studies have attempted to explain the link between the work attitudes on job satisfaction and the ethnic or national background. This has become an area of increasing significance linked to the understanding of Human resource management and organisational behaviour in the global context. Unfortunately, most of these studies have been conducted in European and US settings. Such developed countries are culturally, economically and politically different from the developing countries like UAE, where the present study has been conducted. Consequently, there is an urgent need to establish specific relationships in the context of the countries which are markedly different from the average. The United Arab Emirates is one such setting.

Furthermore, in the light of the lack of agreement in the literature over the nature of the relationship between job satisfaction and national background, even in the western contexts, in spite of the numerous attempts, it is often repeated that more research is definitely needed to offer a better view to this unresolved relationship. Therefore this

research is contributing to the human resource management field in general, as well as to the field within the Arab and UAE contexts in particular.

Even more significant is that unlike most of the earlier studies in the Arab context which have focused on managers, this study is focusing on workers, which contributes to its importance. Furthermore, this pioneering study in the context of Abu-Dhabi about job satisfaction among culturally diverse workforce can be considered a base for future research of its type. Thus, this study sets out to provide such a baseline.

In summary, this study hopes to close some of the gaps in the literature, and to contribute to knowledge by examining the relationship between job satisfaction and national background in the context of the UAE. Also, this research has an important aspect that involves including the existence of the large number of expatriates workers, and the limited number of national workers in the UAE, and the related issues, as an important dimension in this research. This controversial issue is increasingly becoming part of the majority of many other important issues in the context of the UAE work environment, which adds to the importance of this research.

Finally, this research has benefited from the fact that a person from UAE itself has conducted it. The researcher had good experience and knowledge of its work environment because he was part of it. Speaking the Arabic language, understanding the people's mentality, utilising the social structure, as well as using the personal connections, were elements that represented a great advantage for the researcher and consequently the research. Such advantage is expected to contribute positively to the importance of this research. In fact, it is difficult to study such issue in an Arabic context from a position outside that culture.

1.8 Limitations of study

It is impossible for any study to proceed without certain limitations. The most important of them may be outlined as follows.

The lack of sufficient literature on cultural diversity and job satisfaction in the UAE context, as well as the limitation of relevant statistical information, have directed this

research to use methodological methods, measurements and techniques that have been developed and practised in developed countries' contexts and situations. These may however not be appropriate for developing countries such as the UAE. As a result, it has to be admitted that certain degrees of measurement error could not be avoided due to the use of these measurements in a different culture.

The sample is limited and particular to the Emirate of Abu-Dhabi, However, it must be admitted that generalisations about the findings of this research have to be made to a certain degree with caution. It is not possible to say that this research claims generalisation without any restrictions. The data for this research were collected within certain period of time. Therefore, these data naturally represent a particular moment in time.

The process of the fieldwork, as well as the attitude of some people towards surveys in general, represented obvious limitations. In spite of the stressed confidentiality of the obtained information, many were unwilling to accept the questionnaire, while others failed to offer enough answers to conduct the analysis. It is believed that this was mainly because of the fear that they could be identified, which has lead to unusable returned questionnaires.

Finally, these were only some of the limitations which were felt worth mentioning in this section. In fact, it is practically impossible to include all of the limitations of any human effort. In totality, conducting a research in the UAE context is very expensive in terms of time, resources, convenience and efforts. Nonetheless, it is believed that the outcome of this research would still present a usable baseline study.

1.9 Organisation of Chapters

The material in this thesis is organised into eight chapters. Chapter 1, the current chapter, introduces the research problem and sets out the broad issues and parameters of the research. The chapter highlights the need for the present study and its significance. Chapter 2 of the thesis provides a comprehensive survey of literature in the area of human resource management and job satisfaction in a cross-cultural context. Chapter 3 is devoted to the research methodological issues. This chapter provides a

comprehensive discussion on the choice of an appropriate research strategy in the context of the Arab world in general and in the UAE in particular. This chapter also explains the data needs, tools of data collection, and methods adopted for the collection, compilation and analysis of data.

As the present study is largely a country case study, it was thought appropriate to incorporate a complete chapter on the economic development, demographic structure and workforce composition of the United Arab Emirates. These are not irrelevant economic statistics, and are especially important to the present study. In fact, the chapter is intended to position this research in the special, indeed unique, circumstances of the economy, in order to help explain the peculiar characteristics of this labour force. Chapter 4 is intended to provide a comprehensive background of the economic environment of the country in the context of which the present research has been undertaken. This chapter is largely based on the secondary data collected from the governmental statistics. Wherever alternative sources of data have been available, they too have been collected, compiled and collated. This chapter provides a thorough database on various facets of the economy of the country called the United Arab Emirates. Chapter 5 presents an account of the various issues and implications that arise on account of the existence of a large expatriate population in the country. The focal aim of the chapter is to establish that despite the concerns, the expatriate population is likely to remain in the country. This is mainly on account of the fact that the national population is still far too small to provide the needed manpower to maintain the development and progress of the country.

Chapter 6 and 7 of the thesis are committed to the analysis of empirical data on job satisfaction and various factors influencing it. Chapter 6 presents a detailed analysis of the workplace diversity prevailing in the country, and explains the level of job satisfaction. The discussion spans the personal attributes, organisational setting and the level of job satisfaction from such factors as workplace environment, rewards, supervision and leadership. Unlike the next chapter, this chapter is discussing job satisfaction across the respondents' sample regardless of the national background. Chapter 7 of the study is devoted to analyse the level of job satisfaction across workers of different nationalities with a view to ascertain as to whether nationality of the workers in any way modifies and affects any of the aspects of job satisfaction. Finally,

Chapter 8 is the conclusion chapter that includes analysis, discussions of the key findings, and conclusions that contribute to the achievement of the objectives of this research. Final conclusions and recommendations are summarised at the end of this chapter.

The material in the thesis is organised in an easy to follow and refer to method. Key tables are presented in the text, and the remainder tables and figures are found in the Appendices. Also, the questionnaire used for the collection of data has been reproduced for reference in the Appendix. The thesis ends with a detailed bibliography of works consulted and referred to in the thesis.

Chapter 2

Survey of Literature

2.0 Introduction

The United Arab Emirates (UAE) has experienced spectacular economic growth in the last three decades. The Emirates is described as one of the best examples of a capital rich state suffering from severely limited indigenous human resources (Birk and Sinclair, 1980). As the development plans of the country are ambitious on the agricultural, financial and industrial fronts, the country has been largely depending on migrated manpower. The country employs large labour forces from the Indian subcontinent, the Far East, and from relatively less rich Arab countries like Jordan, Palestine, Egypt, etc; besides its own nationals (Birk and Sinclair, 1980). Furthermore, being capital rich, the country often acquires technology from throughout the world, and often depends upon the expatriate manpower for its implementation.

The social, cultural, economic and political implications of such a large number of expatriate workforce, which makes the local population a minority in their own country, are widespread (Al Moasa, 1985). There is no doubt that the local work force is extremely limited in size, but it is also arguable that even the available work force has neither been effectively developed nor efficiently utilised. Besides, the local citizens have a marked preference to work in the government offices and public sector employment; they are hesitant to join the more challenging jobs in the private sector. In some countries, however, especially in Saudi Arabia, mass movement of the indigenous work force from the government sector to the private sector has also been observed at times (Diyab, 1987). But the preference, in general, is for public sector employment in most Arab countries. The indigenous work force is reluctant to take up the manual and technical jobs, whereas the

problem with the expatriate workers is that they lack the sense of participation in the development of the country (Al Esa, 1981). In some countries, though, a reversal trend has been reported in the professional, administrative, managerial and social service occupations and it is hoped that the participation could be increased, given a favourable social environment and an increase in the level of female participation in socially acceptable occupations (Allak, 1989).

Nonetheless, the harsh reality of the UAE economy is that the local population, even if fully developed and efficiently utilised, is much too short as compared to the manpower requirements of the country. In order to sustain the economic growth, the country is likely to remain dependent for quite some time to come on an expatriate work force, though somewhat selectively. Given this scenario, the Human Resource Management in UAE business organisations poses an additional challenge of managing the culturally diverse workforce (Donnelly et al, 1995). Besides, the Arabian Gulf economies in general, and the UAE in particular, are often described as traditional and culture-bound, where the 'connection' phenomenon plays a major role in all walks of life (Ali, 1993). This, quite naturally, influences the ways in which employees are recruited, selected, appointed and promoted.

Diversity, here, means that the organisations recruit, select, retain and motivate individuals from different cultural backgrounds. Determining how to best motivate a culturally diverse work force is one of the most important managerial necessities. The demographic changes in the work force from time to time often require rethinking as well as some experimentation in motivation, leadership, and many other managerial practices (Donnelly et al, 1995). Ignoring cultural diversity and differences in people is likely to be costly in terms of the organisational and individual performance. In fact, the cultural differences can not be ignored if the organisation wishes to be farsighted and progressive. Even though the theory of motivation, as developed in predominantly American and European situations, may generally be applicable in countries like UAE, there could also be marked differences.

In view of the above, it seems necessary to attempt a comprehensive survey of research on Human Resource Management in a cross-cultural context with special reference to Job Satisfaction. The following sections of the chapter are devoted to this theme.

2.1 Approaches to Human Resources Management in Cross-Cultural Context

The modern organisation is faced with many challenges of managing. To meet these challenges effectively, managers must understand the potential of human resources, and then must take necessary steps to secure, train and develop these resources (Donnelly, 1995). The management involves the accomplishment of the organisational objectives by using the skills and talents of people who are employed for such purpose. In all organisations, small or big, human resources must be recruited, compensated, developed and motivated (Noe et al, 1994). Human Resource Management (HRM) is therefore considered both a line-management responsibility and a staff function (Ivanevich, 1992).

In the past two decades, the terminology used to describe the employer's relationship with employees has shifted away from the term personnel management to human resource management. This has been so in order to recognise the need to take a more strategic approach to management of human resources.

The effective use of human resources involves understanding individual and organisational needs, and matching them in such a way that each employee feels that his/her personal growth is possible with organisational growth. An organisation which does not ensure personal growth of its employees ultimately fails to achieve organisational growth. The logic is simple. If employees find that their personal growth is not forthcoming, they will, given a choice, leave for better jobs. The organisation would ultimately be left with poor quality workers who would not find an alternative job because of their limited potential and inability to improve or grow in their jobs.

In countries where job opportunities are limited and employees can not switch to other jobs easily, they prefer to stay in the organisation for the sake of job security, but they are always grumbling and are least motivated to do their jobs well enough to satisfy organisational goals and objectives. They may continue to report for work in time; they may even be performing their routine and defined jobs. But one thing that would happen for sure is they would not be taking interest in the organisation and, as a result, their creativity and work innovation would be fatally affected (Khan and Qamar, 1996).

Human resource development assumes far greater importance in view of the fact that many people accept new career assignments and challenges without fully understanding their duties and responsibilities (Gilley and Egland, 1989). These people, quite naturally, expect to acquire knowledge and skills required for the jobs as they participate in the daily activities. This may result in mistakes, loss of productivity, and inefficiency, and the higher they are in the organisation's hierarchy the more damage they could cause if they are not quickly oriented and trained to fit the organisation properly. The human resource development must, therefore, provide opportunities for organised learning to such employees in order to improve performance and opportunities of personal growth (Gilley and Egland, 1989). The human resource development is thus a planned, continuous effort by management to improve employee competency and organisational performance through training, education and development programmes (Mondey and Noe, 1993).

The human resource development process normally starts with identifying development needs by carefully studying the internal and external environment in which an organisation works. Once the need has been identified, specific objectives of human resource development are established, and suitable methods are selected to achieve the established objectives. Quite naturally, the organisation will also have to choose the most appropriate media, and implement the scheme of development in such a way that the objectives of the human resource development are achieved and organisational performance is improved. The important element is a continuous evaluation of the development programmes, objectives, strategies and methods (Mondey and Noe, 1993).

The HRM seeks to integrate the business and personnel strategies in such a way as to motivate employees for their total commitment. This would be possible only when the business adopts strategies whereby the pursuit of individual goals is made possible through the organisational goal achievements. The HRM thus attaches importance to cultures and values. Strong culture and values are emphasised in HRM as a tool for increasing individual commitment (Beer and Spector, 1985). The HRM policies and practices in the areas of training, development, performance management, reward, communication and participation can be used to express senior management's concern for preferred organisational values.

Recognition of the attitudinal and behavioural characteristics of employees lies in the centre of the HRM philosophy. It is in fact one of the distinguishing features of HRM (Townley, 1989). A company adopting the HRM philosophy aims at recruiting and developing employees who will fit in well in the organisational culture, and whose attitude and behaviour will support the achievements of corporate objectives. In fact, this researcher would like to add that best results in the form of excellence in services or level of production on part of employees are at its best only when the organisation unites between its culture and employees' value system.

Again, strategic orientation is a vital ingredient in human resource management. The strategic HRM provides a framework within which a coherent approach can be developed by the organisations. This strategic HRM is concerned with those decisions which have a major and long-term effect on the employment and development of people in the organisation, and on the relationship that exists between the management and the staff. The aim of the strategic HRM is to ensure that the culture, style and structure of the organisation and the quality, commitment and motivation of its employees contribute fully to the achievement of the business objectives (Armstrong, 1992). Moreover, the researcher would like to point out that such policies and undertakings need to be supported by a reasonable pay scale and also an attractive incentive programme, in order to be able to keep productive employees and prevent them from seeking employment with other organisations. Poor pay scales are contrary to competitive requirements with other organisations, and in the long run will backfire and lower organisational morale.

The HRM strategies can play a proactive role by helping to form business strategies through culture management, and by providing a framework of reference relating to human resources for those who create the business strategy. It intends to maximise the value added provided by its human resources. The strategic HRM seeks to identify the strength, and weaknesses of the human resources that an organisation employs and formulates such strategies which will help the enterprise achieve the full potential utilisation of the human resources. Strategic integration is necessary to provide congruence between business and human resource strategy so that the latter supports the accomplishment of the former (Tichy and Devanna, 1984).

The strategic integration, however, is a difficult task to achieve. The leadership in organisations comes across a number of problems in achieving this goal. In fact, it is easier said than done. It has been argued that to achieve competitive advantage, each business must tailor its HRM policy to its own product and market conditions. Even within the organisation, particularly in a diversified corporation, each unit must design its own HRM strategy, irrespective of the HRM policies that are being pursued elsewhere in the organisation. Success of a HRM policy in one segment does not necessarily ensure its success elsewhere, even within the same organisation (Miller, 1983).

2.2 HRM and Management of Diversity

The contemporary organisations are also faced with the challenges of managing diversity. Managing diversity, being a relatively new phenomenon, means different things to different people. It is therefore necessary to delineate the definition and the context in which this term will be used in the present work. Diversity is about understanding that there are differences among employees, and that these differences, if properly managed, can prove to be an asset to work being done more efficiently and effectively. These differences among employees arise on account of race, culture, ethnicity, gender, age disability, work experience, etc. The management of diversity is a broader term, and

includes the concept of equal employment opportunities and management of the diverse workforce, these two factors being important determinants of diversity.

Managing diversity refers to the challenge of meeting the needs of a culturally diverse workforce and of sensitising workers and managers to differences associated with gender, race, age and nationality in an attempt to maximise the potential productivity of all employees (Ellis and Sonnenfeld, 1994).

The Diversity management recognises the fact that people are different from one another in many ways and a business firm rather than seeking to assimilate them, may gain advantage from these differences that exist among employees. Gaining the diversity advantage means acknowledging, understanding and appreciating these differences, and developing a workplace that enhance their values - by being flexible enough to meet needs and preferences - to create a motivating and rewarding environment (Jamieson and O'Mara, 1991).

The cultural diversity creates an environment in which individual differences are evident and are considered different means to an end, and are respected by the management. The management seeks to fully value, utilise and develop the talents and attributes of people from different backgrounds and heritage. It is believed that such an approach to diversity management has the potential of achieving superior business results (Thomas, 1990). Based on the above philosophy, Kandola and Fullerton (1994) have evolved the following working definition of diversity management:

“ The basic concept of managing diversity accepts that the workforce consists of a diverse population of people. The diversity consists of visible and non-visible differences, which will include factors such as sex, age, background, race, disability, personality and work style. It is founded on the premise that harnessing these differences will create a productive environment in which everybody feels valued, where their talents are being fully utilised and in which organisational goals are met”

It may be noted that the definitions described above clearly contrast with the assimilation theories that were in vogue in the sixties and seventies. The earlier theories led to a belief that the assimilation was a one-way process. It required the minorities to adopt the norms, values and practices of the majority. Further, a group that did not conform to these expectations was seen as a problem, and the management sought to correct it by ending the employment of those who did not comply with adopted norms and values (Nkomo, 1991).

Valuing diversity thus means and emphasises valuing the differences between people, and the ways in which those differences can contribute to richer, more creative and more productive business environment. Valuing diversity also means valuing the qualities that different people bring to their jobs, to the resolution of problems, and to the development of business opportunities. The management of diversity does not judge people by the extent to which they conform to the existing values or personal preferences (Kandola and Fullerton, 1994).

The Diversity management is rather a wider concept than the concept of equal employment opportunity as propagated by law in most countries of the world, especially in the United States which has many ethnic groups and clear laws governing matters related to equal opportunity at the workplace. The concept of equal opportunity is largely externally initiated, while diversity management is initiated internally. Equal employment opportunity is generally driven by legal compulsion, while diversity management is driven by business needs (Kandola and Fullerton, 1994).

Further, equal employment opportunity has quantitative focus, and is achieved by showing data on the composition of the workforce and proves the point that due representation was given by the organisation to the different population groups. Diversity management, on the other hand, has a qualitative focus. It seeks to improve the business environment in such a manner that the linguistic, cultural, social, religious and economic differences of people are suitably developed to achieve the best economic result (Kandola and Fullerton, 1994).

2.3 HRM and Cross-Cultural Management

Modern day business enterprises are increasingly resorting to the globalisation of their business. Gone are the days when the business houses were content with the local and domestic market. These days, they are out to source their supplies, buy their resources including human resources, and market their product internationally. As a result, the modern day managers of large businesses are faced with a challenge that has been described as the managing of the mixed marriages (Agathe, 1990). One of the major challenges of globalisation and consequent mixed marriage is coping with cultural diversity. As we shall see later, simulation theories are too simplistic to cope with diversity inherent in this topic.

Effective management, under the present circumstances, requires that the managers must recognise that people the world over are not one and the same. They differ in their outlook and are culturally different. Managers will have to appreciate and respect this cultural diversity, and at the same time try to assimilate them in such a way as to achieve the goal of the organisation most effectively and efficiently.

It must be more than clear that culture affects human behaviour. Culture can affect behaviour in many different ways. Although human needs may inherently be the same for all people, the cultural environment determines their relative priorities (Longnecker, 1993). Culture also influences the attitudes of individuals concerning the importance of work, authority and material possessions. The spirit of competition, value for time, inclination to make profit, and liking and dislike for risk-taking are also greatly influenced by cultural factors. Above all, the collective impact of these influences the decision-making capacity of individuals (Longnecker, 1993). The researcher would like to point out further that individuals carry with them elements of their culture. Thus managing cultural diversity becomes a delicate matter.

2.4 Managing Cultural Diversity

Modern organisations face the problem of cultural diversity in many ways. They are required to keep in mind the cultural influences that their customers carry. While dealing with suppliers, the business enterprise must respect their cultural attributes. But more importantly, the problem of diversity will be experienced when the business recruits, selects, and retains individuals from different cultural backgrounds. The problem of diversity is therefore more widely felt in the area of human resources management.

Diversity is about understanding that there are differences among employees and that these differences, if properly managed, can prove to be an asset to work being done more efficiently and effectively. These differences among employees arise on account of race, culture, ethnicity, gender, age disability, work experience, etc., as examples. Diversity can also result from differences in physical or mental capabilities, marital status, national origin, sexual preference, social background, and even in organisational role. There are many more factors which cause people to have different perspectives on the same or similar facts or issues (Kandola and Fullerton, 1994).

Managing diversity, therefore, is about managing people who are different and who do not necessarily aspire to adopt the majority culture. The management of diversity is about having the management skills which allow for people from different backgrounds and conforming to different norms and values (Kandola and Fullerton, 1994).

Keeping a diverse work force motivated to achieve the objectives of the organisation effectively is the most difficult task. Motivation has been defined as those psychological processes that cause the arousal, direction and persistence of voluntary actions that are goal-directed (Kreitner and Kinicky, 1989). In other words, it is the willingness to do something, where this something is conditioned by its ability to satisfy some needs of the individual (DeCenzo and Robbins, 1994). Motivation is concerned with the strength and direction of behaviour. A well-motivated person is someone with clearly defined goals who takes action which he/she expects will achieve those goals (Armstrong, 1991).

A culturally diverse workforce means that as the composition of different population groups in the organisation changes, new group formation, effectiveness and leadership challenge will occur. The implications of such a culturally diverse workforce can be readily seen in the Gulf economies (Johnston, 1991). The managers must also be aware of the problem of 'acculturation', which means the transfer of culture from one ethnic group to another. Acculturation is the process of gradual adaptation to a new environment by a group in situations where one or more minority groups are being merged with a majority group (Berry, 1984).

While managing cultural diversity, managers must recognise that individuals belonging to different cultures differ in terms of their attributes, such as: (1) Power Distance- the level of acceptance in a society for the unequal distribution of power in organisations. (2) Uncertainty avoidance- the extent to which people, in a society, feel threatened by ambiguous situations. (3) Individualism- the tendency of people to look after themselves and their immediate family and neglect the needs of the society. (4) Masculinity- the degree of achievement preference, assertiveness, and materialism that exists in a society. Unless an organisation handles these attributes carefully, it would not be an easy task to sustain the motivation of their employees (Hofstede, 1984, 1991, 1993; Weir, 1994).

By leadership, we mean the ability to persuade others to seek defined objectives enthusiastically. The task of leadership becomes complicated when an organisation has a culturally diverse workforce because under this situation the leadership has got the cumbersome task of linking people of varying ethnic and cultural backgrounds to achieve the common goal of the organisation (Berry, 1984).

The leadership faced with this challenge must take into account such factors as stereotypes, biases, language differences, value differences, and individual expectations. Unless these factors are taken into consideration, the leadership is likely to remain ineffective (Hofstede, 1993; Johnston, 1991; Weir, 1993, 1994).

2.5 HRM in Context of UAE

It may be pertinent to note here that the UAE is a country where both of the above contexts are equally important for all companies. The compulsion of the circumstances and legal requirements that entail in this regard require the companies to hire the nationals and develop them. As the issue of Emiratisation gains momentum, this aspect of the human resource management in UAE will gain more importance. On the other hand, most companies in the UAE are rapidly expanding their size of operation and activities. This calls for hiring large number of workers, not only from outside the company sources, but also from the international labour market. This compulsion calls for a very strong recruitment function.

There is no doubt that the UAE have experienced spectacular economic growth in the last three decades. However, it has also been described as one the best examples of a capital rich state suffering from severely limited indigenous human resources (Birk and Sinclair, 1980). As the development plans of the country are ambitious on the agricultural, financial and industrial fronts, the country has been largely depending on the migrated manpower. The country is considered as a major employer of such culturally diverse workforces, particularly from the Indian subcontinent, the Far East, and from relatively less rich Arab countries (Birk and Sinclair, 1980).

In the UAE work environment, the Asian workers seem to be preferred, as they represent the majority of the expatriate workforce in the country. The reason could be that they are regarded by many as passive observers in the political process rather than being activists, or claimants on the welfare system and the other benefits of citizenship (Chouori, 1986). However, the main reason behind that preference for Asian workers is their availability at much lower wage rates than the Arabs, or even any other national group of workers in the country.

Being a capital rich country, the UAE often also acquires technology from other countries to keep up with its economic development process. Due to the limited national workers' supply, the dependence has had to be on the expatriate manpower to implement and operate these technologies, until enough qualified national workers becomes available to take over.

The challenge is in the social, cultural, economic and political implications of such a large number of migrated workforce. For example, the non- Arab Asian immigrants are often perceived as a cultural threat. The Arab migrants, on the other hand, are often perceived as a political threat. That makes the situation a more complicated one, because they represent the two largest national origin groups of workers in the country (Al Moasa, 1985).

There is no doubt that the local manpower is much too short as compared to the demand. The need however exists to transfer the technical skills to the indigenous human resources. This is important, in order to enable more of these citizens assume a greater role and direct participation in the economic growth (Sonbul, 1992). With necessary training, the local citizen can be made capable of assuming a far greater role (Al Khayat, 1988). Nonetheless, the harsh reality of the UAE economy is that the local population, even if fully developed and efficiently utilised, is much too small as compared to the manpower requirement of the country. In order to sustain the economic growth, the country is likely to remain dependent on an expatriate workforce, at least in the short and medium term. Therefore, the Human Resource Managers in the UAE work environment will undoubtedly be posing the challenge of managing the culturally diverse workforce.

The Arabian Gulf economies in general, and the UAE in particular, are often described as traditional and culture- bound, where the cultural dimensions and elements play a major role in all walks of life (Ali, 1993). Following the model of Hofstede's studies on comparative management and the impact of different cultures on management, Weir (1994) concluded that the Arab countries are highly westernised countries which are strong on individualism, and the Latin American countries, as found by Hofstede, are low on individualism. Arab countries were also reported to be low on the masculinity dimension (Weir, 1994). This, quite naturally, influences the ways in which employees are recruited, selected, appointed and promoted. The modern approach towards motivating employees is not totally applicable in the Arab world, primarily due to its social and cultural value system. Human Resource Management in such countries thus varies from completely routine to some attempt to adapt to a modern approach. But a combination of some of the modern tools may be applicable.

One recommended way to manage effectively employees with different cultural backgrounds, experiences and histories is to study the fundamentals of various cultures (Fernandez, 1993). Assessing needs, preferred rewards, work patterns and sensibility to workplace practices has to be recognised as an important part of the managerial process. Cox and Blake (1991) provide a framework for considering how managers will have to proceed under such circumstances. When workers from different cultural backgrounds are put together, the process of acculturation takes place. However, the work groups differ in terms of the degree of acculturation, and managers need to understand the degree, and work especially to understand the preference of workers in terms of acculturation (Cox and Nickelson, 1991).

The Arabian Gulf countries, nonetheless, share most of the social and political problems of any other third world country except that of financial capital. It is generally observed that the developments in the field of HRM are not consistent with the available potential. The HRM practices in such countries can, at best, be described as semi- professional.

A survey of the available literature indicates the possibilities of better management of the culturally diverse work group. The possibilities of improvement in HRM, however, are found to differ from country to country. The available researches show a wide gap in terms of exploring the possibilities of improved management of the human resources, in the organisational context. This is particularly true with respect to the UAE.

2.6 Job Satisfaction in cross-cultural context of UAE

An individual's work motivation is related to his/her job satisfaction. In fact, many consider job satisfaction as the same as or very similar to work motivation. Job satisfaction is concerned with the feelings an employee has towards his/her job, while motivation is concerned with the behaviour that occurs on the job. Satisfaction is a hedonic response of liking or disliking the attitude object. It is often assumed that employees will approach those things with which they are satisfied, and avoid those things with which they are dissatisfied.

As a result, job satisfaction is strongly associated with job behaviours. Quite naturally, most theories of motivation have an underlying hedonistic assumption that people are motivated to seek what is pleasant to them. Therefore, many theories of motivation are also concerned, at least in part, with theories of job satisfaction as well. Many thus find it disturbing to differentiate between work motivation and job satisfaction particularly because job satisfaction has been a product of motivation theories, and at the same time motivation is considered a consequence of job satisfaction (Kinicki et al, 1997).

However, the relationship becomes clearer once we realise that work motivation is basically concerned with feelings an employee has towards his/her job. The work motivation can be viewed as both the source and consequence of job satisfaction, and as such represents a positive direction and a moderate relationship (Kinicki et al, 1997). A brief discussion on the theories of motivation, therefore, becomes an essential precursor to any meaningful discussion on job satisfaction.

The need hierarchy theory, as propounded by Maslow (1973), seeks to distinguish between high-order and low-order needs to suggest that extrinsic job satisfaction results when lower-order needs are fulfilled, but in order to achieve intrinsic satisfaction, the work should ensure that the employees meet their higher-order needs. A similar conclusion was reached by the two-factor theory, as propounded by Herzberg (1966). Although much criticised in academic circles for its limitations of methodology, the two-factor theory suggests that the determinants of job satisfaction were qualitatively different from the determinants of job dissatisfaction. Accordingly, dissatisfaction is thought to be due to the extrinsic factors like inadequate working conditions, supervision, and organisational policies. On the other hand, feelings of satisfaction were found to be associated with intrinsic factors. However, recent studies have demonstrated that both sets of factors influence both satisfaction and dissatisfaction (King, 1970; Locke, 1976). It has also been suggested that the intrinsic aspects of work are some times more satisfying than the extrinsic factors (Dunette, Campbell and Hakel, 1967).

Job satisfaction can be described as an affective or emotional response towards various facets of one's job (Smith, Kendall and Hulins, 1969). Job satisfaction has been treated as

both a global concept referring to overall job satisfaction, and as a facet-specific concept referring to various aspects of work (Cook et al, 1981). The job itself seldom serves as a unitary attitude object. Rather, the job satisfaction is associated with the degree of satisfaction with the various facets of the job. The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) thus seeks to assess an employee's satisfaction with various facets of his job that include work, pay, promotion, co-workers and supervision (Smith, Kendall and Hulins, 1969). Some researchers have identified as many as twenty different dimensions underlying job satisfaction (Weiss et al, 1967).

Over the years, much research work has been undertaken with a view to discover possible dimensions of job satisfaction. However the best conclusion that can be drawn from them is that although there are many specific and diverse job dimensions which are related to job satisfaction, there is a set of dimensions common to most jobs that is sufficient to describe most of the predictable variance in job satisfaction. The size of the set has been found to vary from five to twenty.

Locke (1976) presented a summary of job dimensions, which have been consistently found to contribute significantly to employees' satisfaction. These include the work itself, rewards, the context of work, and so on. As regards work itself as a determinant of job satisfaction, there are a few consistent findings reported. Most employees tend to prefer work that is mentally challenging, varied and interesting, but too stressful or exhausting work is negatively associated with employees' job satisfaction (Hackman and Oldham, 1975, 1980).

Similarly, a conducive work environment which facilitates the attainment of work goals is likely to result in higher level of job satisfaction than one that is uncomfortable, chaotic and unpredictable (Hackman and Oldham, 1975, 1980; Herzberg, 1959, 1968; Locke, 1976; Maslow, 1973). The specific dimensions so suggested represent those job characteristics that are typically used to assess job satisfaction. They are relatively specific attitude objects for which employees have some position on a like- dislike continuum.

There are also work characteristics salient to most people. For example, regarding the work setting, the most important factor appear to be the reward systems - how the organisation

distributes rewards such as pay and promotion, and certain procedures and policies (Hackman and Oldham, 1975, 1980; Herzberg, 1959; Locke, 1976; Maslow, 1943, 1973). Job satisfaction is enhanced by reward systems that employees view as fair and reasonable, but is reduced by those they see as unfair and unreasonable. Similarly, job satisfaction is increased by policies which allow employees to participate in decisions that involve them, and which spread responsibilities and authority throughout the organisation, rather than concentrating it in a few positions.

Another factor that is important to employees is the perceived quality of supervision. When employees approve of the style adopted by their supervisor, and perceive these people as fair, and believe they have the ability to help them with their jobs or the organisation generally, then job satisfaction tends to be high. In contrast, if employees dislike or disapprove of their supervisors' approach to management, and view them as incompetent, then satisfaction tends to be low (Trempe, Rigny and Haccoun, 1985). The different job dimensions may not be equally important to all employees in determining the overall job satisfaction. Some employees may consider their pay very important and working conditions less important, while for others the opposite might hold true. This has tempted many to weight the dimensions by their relative importance. However, research suggests that this approach does not work (Ewin, 1967).

A survey of literature on job satisfaction theories indicates that there are five predominant models of job satisfaction that specify its causes. They are need fulfilment, discrepancy, value attainment, equity, and trait components.

The need fulfilment models propose that satisfaction is determined by the extent to which the characteristics of a job allow an individual to fulfil his needs. Accordingly, it is generally accepted that need fulfilment is correlated with job satisfaction (Stone, 1992). The discrepancy models emphasise that satisfaction is an outcome of met expectation. Met expectation represents the difference between what an individual expects to receive from a job and what he actually receives. Accordingly, an individual would be dissatisfied if what he gets is less than what he expects from the job, and vice versa. A meta-analysis of 31

studies encompassing more than 17,000 people demonstrated that the met expectations were significantly related to job satisfaction (Irving and Meyer, 1995; Wanous et al, 1992).

The value attainment models suggest that satisfaction results from the perception that a job allows for fulfilment of an individual's important work values. It has been consistently reported that value fulfilment is positively related to job satisfaction (Butler, 1983). The equity models of job satisfaction propose that job satisfaction is a function of how fairly an individual is treated at work. Satisfaction results from one's perception that work outcomes relative to inputs compare favourably with a significant other's outcomes/inputs. A meta-analysis involving data from 30 different organisations encompassing around 13,000 people suggests that employees' perceived fairness of pay and promotions was significantly correlated with their job satisfaction (Witt and Nye, 1992).

Trait or genetic component models of job satisfaction see job satisfaction as partly a function of both personal traits and genetic factors. This model implies that stable individual differences are just as important in explaining job satisfaction as are characteristics of the work environment (Judge, 1993; Staw and Ross, 1985; Watson and Slack, 1993;).

Theories of job satisfaction are still not well perfected, despite the fact that the theme has engaged the attention of a large number of researchers the world over, and researches have been conducted on finding as many factors as possible that are likely to moderate job satisfaction. Many investigations have been conducted to examine the relationship between age and job satisfaction, and different studies have reported many different types of relationship, i.e. positive, linear, negative linear, U-shaped, inverted U-shaped or no significant relationship. The complex and multiple nature of relationship between age and job satisfaction has still remained unresolved (Bernal, Snyder and McDaniel, 1998).

In a recent study, the impact of age on job satisfaction was established, in the sense that teaching satisfaction was found to be negatively correlated with age, but the opposite was found to be true in the case of the research satisfaction (Hickson and Oshagbemi, 1999). Others have however reported that age as a chronological variable is not a viable predictor of job satisfaction, but job satisfaction may be correlated with certain more pertinent

psychological variables with the underlying age process (Bernal, Snyder and McDaniel, 1998).

Similarly, many studies have been conducted to examine the effect of gender on job satisfaction. While some researchers assert that job satisfaction for both men and women is linked to the benefits and rewards associated with the sectors of the labour market in which they are employed, rather than the sex-role values they may bring to their job (Moore, 1985), others argue that although work attitudes relate to organisational variables, these relations may co-vary with gender (Eagly, 1987; Golding, Resnick & Crosby, 1983). A meta-analysis, however, asserts that females have now become more similar to males in the types of positions they hold, and there is therefore little evidence linking job satisfaction to sex of employees (Tait et al, 1989).

There are several studies that seek to establish the relationship between job satisfaction and the cultural and ethnic background of the employees. Like age and sex, the relationship between the ethnicity and national origin of the employees and their level of job satisfaction is still unresolved. A study encompassing 860 Euro-Americans and 119 Hispanics working as certified public accountants revealed that the ethnicity of the respondents was not found to be significantly associated with job satisfaction (Omundson, Schroeder and Stevens, 1996). Yet another study on Asian attitudes and the relationship between culture and job satisfaction indicated that Thai managers were found to be more concerned with the universal aspects in the area of job satisfaction than they were with culture-specific aspects (Swierczek, 1988).

Many studies have however reported that the net of controls for social class, and the importance workers attach to specific job rewards differ by race, with blacks more likely to emphasise extrinsic rewards, and whites more likely to emphasise intrinsic rewards. These studies, however, have not explored these disparate valuations within the context of a comprehensive model of job values. One study sought to examine whether blacks and white continue to value different job rewards differently, and if so, whether factors in addition to workers' social class account for these differences. It was found that regardless of socio-demographic attributes, and independent of the influences of the family

background, objective class, and job incumbency, racial differences in job values are still present (Martin and Tuch, 1993).

Many scholars who examine ethnic and racial differences at work have concluded that job satisfaction is conceived of as a product of social, psychological and cultural factors that affect the attitudes and beliefs of workers. These attitudes and beliefs predispose the member of a particular group to respond differently to experiences in organisations from other group members. These differences among various subgroups of employees may persist even after long periods of common socialisation of the workers at the work site.

Early studies of ethnic and racial differences focused on black and Anglo employees in both case studies (Ash, 1972; Feldman, 1973; Gottlieb, 1964; Lopez and Greenhaus, 1978; McCall and Lawler, 1976; O'Reilly and Roberts, 1973) and national employee samples (Quinn, Staines and McCullough, 1974). In some cases, job satisfaction among blacks was found to be lower or no different from job satisfaction among Anglos. However, in those studies conducted in public sector settings, the workers from the minority groups were more satisfied than Anglos (Gottlieb, 1964; Lopez and Greenhaus, 1978).

Building on these previous studies on job satisfaction among blacks, some scholars have examined Hispanic and Mexican-American workplaces and general life satisfaction attitudes and beliefs. Their results identify various factors that may impact on job satisfaction. The studies about job satisfaction among Mexican American workers have identified both work and non-work factors as potential contributors to job satisfaction (Barrette and Beck, 1993). Like previous findings on job satisfaction among black public employees, other results have indicated that Hispanics and Mexican Americans are consistently more satisfied with work than either Anglos or blacks (Bartell, 1981; Dworkin, 1980; Hawkes et al, 1984; McNeely, 1989; Moch, 1980).

However, one study reported no significant difference between Anglos and Hispanics (Valdez, 1983). Higher levels of satisfaction were nonetheless found in public sector studies (Dworkin, 1980; Lopez, 1984; McNeely, 1989). In part, the higher level of satisfaction among both the blacks and Hispanics in public sector settings might be explained by the fact that local government has historically played an important role in the

assimilation of members of various minorities and ethnic groups. The visibility and status of the public service have made positions in local government desirable to members of minority groups (Dye and Renick, 1981; Mladenka, 1989; Steim, 1986; Welch, Karnig and Eribes, 1983).

The research efforts concerning work attitudes, beliefs, perceptions and behaviours in the Arab context are sparse. A recent study on the job experiences and attitudes of Arab and Jewish workers sharing the same work site in manufacturing concerns has found that Arabs and Jews differ in terms of demographic, job status and job treatment factors, as well as in levels of job satisfaction. Using hierarchical multiple regression analyses, the study established that the average Arab-Jewish differences in job satisfaction are not related to generic racial or ethnic differences. Rather, group disparities in job satisfaction primarily derive from differences in work perceptions of their environment (Wolkinson and Montemayor, 1998). However, the study was based on a small sample, and the data were collected through personal interviews.

Another study of the motivational orientation on managerial effectiveness and job satisfaction of Arabs reported a positive relationship between the need for power and job satisfaction. Furthermore, the study also indicated the affiliation-oriented Arab culture in contrast to the achievement-oriented culture of the West (Yasin and Stahl, 1990). However, it ought to be remembered that this study is based on a sample size of only 70 male respondents.

Also, a replication of Holland's Self Directed Search (SDS) as a measure of vocational interest in Arab culture was tested in Kuwait, with a view to testing Holland's prediction of positive relationship between person and job satisfaction, did not reveal any significant relationship with either overall job satisfaction or its intrinsic or extrinsic components (Hassan, 1993). The result is perhaps attributable to the uniqueness of the employment market of Kuwait, where jobs are more allocated than chosen, and where intrinsic aspects of the work are less important than extrinsic aspects such as money and promotion.

Building on the works of Gibson and Teasely (1973) and Hackman and Oldham (1980), a study conducted in the context of the public sector of Saudi Arabia reported that job

environment, especially supervision, promotion practices and job mobility, are of substantial importance in predicting job satisfaction (Al Rahimi, 1990). The analysis of the study also indicates that individual attributes do also influence job satisfaction through affecting perceptions of the work situations.

Yet another study conducted in the Saudi context, which sought to examine the effects of incongruency and lack of clarity about job descriptions in four dimensions of job satisfaction suggested that under conditions of perceived incongruency and lack of clarity, job satisfaction is affected either directly or conversely (Al Towaijri, 1990). This study was, however, confined to middle-level managers in five Saudi organisations.

A significant study, based on a survey of 266 bank managers working in as many as 21 different banks in Jordan, has reported that the Jordanian bank managers' pattern of motivation and job satisfaction and their interpretation of the higher goals of the jobs are similar to those of the Western managers (Al Rasheed, 1994).

Obviously, there are a large number of studies about the attitudes, perceptions and behaviours of a culturally diverse workforce. However, most of these studies were conducted in Hispanic, Black, Euro-American, and Mexican-American contexts. Unfortunately, there are only a few studies conducted in the Arabian context as a whole. By examining job satisfaction in the multi-cultural settings of the UAE, we may discover attitudinal differences and similarities between employees belonging to different ethnic and national groups. These differences and similarities can then be used in forming better strategies that contribute to a more effective utilisation of the culturally diverse workforce in the country.

The literature suggests that job satisfaction is the result of individual, group and work-site factors. It is also possible that the group and the individual factors affect the work -climate perceptions of the workers, and these perceptions in turn affect job satisfaction. Ethnicity or national background may either directly affect job satisfaction or might affect perceptions of the job-climate, and thus indirectly affect job satisfaction. In either case, ethnicity, or national background, appears to play an important role. Finally, considering the above discussion, the decision was made to study job satisfaction among the culturally

diverse workforce in the UAE within the context of this research. In the next chapter, the methodology of the research, as well as many of its related issues, will be discussed in detail.

Chapter 3

Research Methodology

3.0 Introduction

The present study seeks to expand the limited knowledge of the HRM process in the context of the United Arab Emirates (UAE). It is expected that the outcomes of such study will be of significance to society in general, and to the management of the human resource in particular. This study has features of applied research in the sense that it seeks to find something of practical significance to at least the types of job categories and workplaces that have been the subject of the study (Easterby-Smith et al, 1991). Thus, in a limited sense, the present study seeks to fulfil the criteria of successful business and management research that the research should not only seek to advance knowledge but must also provide a foundation for solving managerial problems (Gill and Johnson, 1991).

It is widely agreed that the positivist and the phenomenological are among the most fundamental approaches to research methodology. In the first approach, the emphasis is on deducing a hypothesis, expressing it in operational terms, testing it, and subsequently modifying the theory in the light of the conducted study findings. This approach can be redone to become cyclical, and the findings should form a coherent whole. On the other hand, the phenomenological approach focuses on the meanings and the context of the conducted study focus, as they make sense to the human actor who inhabits that practical social world (Saunders et al, 1997).

This study is based on a combination of approaches. It seeks to understand and analyse the phenomenon of employing a culturally diverse work force in the UAE, and its social, political, economic, as well as managerial implications. Part of this study falls in the

tradition of positivism, as it seeks to establish, in a limited sense, the background to the relationships between the factors influencing the phenomenon. Furthermore, the three objectives of the research differ significantly in the research question that they pose. Therefore, a combination of research strategies was adopted.

From this point of view, the present study can be classified as largely explanatory, as it seeks to establish the relationships between job satisfaction aspects, and other examined work and non-work variables. On the other hand, part of this research that deals with the demographic aspects can be considered largely descriptive and that helps in obtaining a better understanding of the phenomenon. As a result, while attempting empirical analysis, the present study does not claim generalisation. Instead, the empirical analysis has been attempted in order to develop a better understanding of the phenomenon by description and explanation. In summary, the present study adopted what is often referred to as a ‘multi-method approach’, to enable the researcher to apply different tools and techniques to achieve the research objectives most practically and effectively.

It cannot be ignored that within this research, the researcher brings a particular perspective, as an Arab, and as a UAE native and citizen. This is important in the light of the few previous studies on such topics in the context of the UAE in general, and Abu-Dhabi in particular. Unlike the western contexts, there has been no body of previous research findings to rely on. Therefore, this research seeks to offer a positioning of the research topic, as a base line, rooted in the country case study. This will enable future researchers to “challenge an existing theory, and also provide a source of new hypotheses”, as mentioned by Saunders et al (1997, p. 77).

The present research work has a three- fold objective. In view of the fact that workplaces in the UAE select, recruit and employ workers from across the world, it seemed important to examine systematically the composition of the workforce in the country. Initially, the study seeks to develop a better understanding of the demographic composition and nature of the workforce in the UAE. For a country with a small population of no more than 2.5 million, it is a matter of concern if not only more than 80% of its population is comprised of non-nationals, but the number of expatriates is on a continuous rise.

Quite naturally, this has aroused mixed feelings among the people and policy makers of the country. On one end of the continuum, there are people who see the phenomenon as a social, cultural and political threat to the country, then on the other hand, there are people who justify the trend on the grounds of economic expediency. Despite the concerns arising out of the presence of large number of expatriates in the labour market, it seems that the expatriate workers are likely to be relied on in the foreseeable future as a natural result of the limited number of UAE nationals in the country. This makes it important to examine systematically the related managerial and organisational behaviour variables among workers belonging to different groups of national backgrounds. Therefore, this study can be considered an organised effort towards filling an existing gap. It has the intention of focusing on job satisfaction amongst workers belonging to the different national background groups in the UAE.

As will be demonstrated clearly throughout this chapter, one of the features of this research is the fact that it was planned to take advantage of the cultural fabric of the UAE society, which is based on social networks and not merely on population aggregates. By doing that, the research is utilising the existing social structure to support the objectives of this research. This can be demonstrated clearly in sections like “Administration of the Questionnaire”, for example.

Finally, in spite of the limited qualitative information that has been obtained from the questionnaire, compared with the quantitative information, the available qualitative information was utilised in the analysis and discussion of this research. They have been made use of meeting the different objectives of this research because of their significance in providing a better view of some aspects. This will be clearly emphasised and further explained at the end of the “research design” section, as well as in the “sources of data” section of this chapter, due to its importance in the context of this research.

3.1 Research Strategy

The standard texts on research methodology generally consider research strategy as a function of the research questions and research objectives (Blaxter et al, 1996). They invariably emphasise the fact that the choices of a suitable research strategy depend on the research questions sought to be answered (Easterby-Smith et al, 1991). In reality, however, as the researcher learns from his experiences, the socio-cultural settings of the country in the context of which the research is to be carried out are also a major determinant of the choice of research strategy.

The uniqueness of the social and cultural setting imposes a number of constraints and limitations on the choice of research strategy. At times, research strategies that are proven and well established in one country context become nearly ineffective in another. . Slavishly following the methodology that has apparently proven successful in another context, country and culture does not guarantee scientific rectitude or descriptive relevance.

Indeed, the key to good research may be to design a research strategy to fit a particular context. The methods become then only a means to an end. The key to good research lies not in choosing the right method but rather in asking the right question and picking the most powerful method for answering that particular question (Bouchard, 1976). Methods then become neither good nor bad, but rather more or less useful for answering particular questions at a particular time or place. It is therefore important to present a brief description of the unique socio-cultural setting in which the present study was undertaken so as to enable the reader to appreciate the choice of research strategy for the present study.

3.2 The Arabian Context

It is perhaps obvious from the foregoing discussion that the present study is based in a special cultural setting. The context is unique in more than one sense. It is unique in the sense that the UAE is a relatively new nation in the modern sense of the word. Although the country has achieved tremendous growth and is economically one of the most

developed nations in the region, the academic and research environment in the country is still archaic. While the government encourages research and investigation, people, in general, may show indifference when it comes to their participation in the research process.

The Arabian tradition and culture, which the people of UAE not only follow, but of which they are also very proud, adds a new dimension to this uniqueness. As Diyab (1987) puts it in the context of Saudi Arabia, the influence of Islam permeates all aspects of Arab societies with an effect that Arabs are not only generally sensitive to the feelings of others but also seek to find their courses of action from within Islam and, more often than not seek, to rationalise their actions through Islamic thought and processes. This makes it essential for researchers to be equally sensitive towards their respondents in order to avoid any misgivings. 'Never say no or turn down the request from others' could be one such example. Arabs would never tell anyone to his or her face that their request is impossible. Instead, they would garb their refusal in such a politeness and often with promises to do the necessary but later, that only a person well versed in Arab culture can know that they are being refused or rejected. Besides, the cultural and tribal rituals, religious festivities, social obligations and commitments, importance and priority to the family and friend are also the hallmarks of Arab society (Diyab, 1987). In such a situation, many times, researchers in the Arab world may face problems not on account of their inability or incompetence, but due to cultural misunderstandings. Some of the specific aspects of Arab life and their implications for researchers in these countries are discussed in detail in the following paragraphs.

There are aspects of Arab life and behaviour which may seem trivial to an outsider but, may be of crucial importance to an Arab and to all those who interact with him. These behaviours have been shaped by social settings of the Arab society. The term social settings refers to the expectations, demands or constraints which society places on its members. These can be seen as the price which individuals pay in order to belong to that social system. These expectations, demands and constraints originate from and are shaped by the socio-cultural values, norms and customs. They have their roots in the history of traditions, religion, and past and present philosophical, political, or economic ideologies (Muna, 1980).

Like many other oriental societies, people in the Arab world may be averse to haste, and may not attach as much importance to time as people in the occidental society may do. The proverbial expression that haste comes from the devil reflects the general attitude of Arabs to take things easy and perform at ease. This may call for patience in conducting research, and the researcher must be prepared to allow longer time to the respondents. The researcher must not be dismayed if personal appointments are rescheduled or postponed.

The Arabian tradition of hospitality and concern for the feelings of others also plays a major role. Normally, courtesy requires that a request from not only friends and family, but also from strangers, must not be turned down. It is therefore unlikely for a researcher to get a straightaway refusal to a request for an appointment for personal interview. Nonetheless, acceptance of the request does not necessarily mean that the researcher will be able to conduct the interview. Instead, the potential respondent may simply engage in social talk and extend all courtesies to the researcher, as he is his guest, but may simply elude the main purpose of the appointment if he does not want to participate in the research process. Besides, it is generally regarded as impolite or even embarrassing to insist, but if the researcher persists on the purpose, he may get a discreet response like "maybe afterwards, if God is willing".

Yet another attribute of Arab life is that personal ties and connections are of paramount significance. Once the personal ties and connections are established, the researcher will gain the trust of the respondents and, in turn, gets all the support and co-operation, but this could be a time-consuming process. Nevertheless, having and using personal ties and connections are a sheer necessity to gather as much information as possible. It is also important to note that Arabs generally tend to mask their own feelings in order that they do not hurt the feelings of others. This attitude aggravates unless a relationship of trust is established.

Criticism does not come easily from Arabs. They may be inclined to give responses that they think might please the researcher. Many a time, lack of trust gives rise to suspicion, and the respondents may avoid dragging themselves into issues that they think could have socio-political ramifications. In such a situation, their responses would be more likely to be

such as to support the status quo, rather than reflecting change. People in job settings may be sceptical in responding to a questionnaire, as they might be suspicious that it may have some hidden purpose and their responses can be used as evidence against them (Kassim, 1993). The problem gets further compounded in view of the prevalent ethical consideration that speaking against or saying something bad about a person, be it an individual or a corporate body, are taken as a sin. It is against this backdrop that a researcher has to base his/her approach to the research strategy.

Under such situations, conducting research is a really difficult task. So this researcher had to adopt a methodology that could be acceptable to the respondents so that appropriate data needed to achieve the objectives of the research could be collected. Patience was the key word. While aware of the time constraint a deadline could not be imposed on the respondents. It had to be accepted that the needed data could not be collected unless the researcher's personal relationship with the respondents was developed and used.

Research techniques are numerous e.g. questionnaires, interviews, rank order studies, etc. These techniques, if designed properly, can be applied in both developed and underdeveloped countries. Bulmer and Warwick (1983) warn that it would be a mistake to draw too sharp a distinction between methods of research used in both kinds of countries. Indeed, as they point out, there are no fundamental differences in principles or in logic between cross-cultural survey researches. Important sub-cultural variations between classes, educational groups, regional populations and other social echelons plague the domestic survey researcher in a manner quite analogous to the more pronounced full-cultural variations that loom before the cross-cultural survey researcher.

This is true in the areas of sampling, interviews, instrument preparation, interviewer-respondent interaction, coding and analysis. The differences are in degree and not of kind. These differences in degree in the relative severity of problems, if not their intrinsic character do, however, have weighty implications for cross-cultural survey research. Not only are the problems severe, but their existence is more conspicuous. In any research, especially if it is designed to be applied in different societies, there is always the problem of cultural differences. In this particular research, we have intended to achieve the best fit

between research design and the Arab culture.

Chase (1981) comments that the key question throughout the planning, and particularly at the very early stages of the survey design, are to ask “why are we collecting data?” The research technique depends highly on the subject of the research, the general accessibility of the respondents, and the practicability of the technique and its applicability to a specific culture. The social survey, for example, can not be straightforwardly exported to the Arab world. Basic data needed for survey research may be lacking. Available sample frames are often lacking.

Responses to questionnaire items are often influenced by the culture of the respondents (Bulmer, 1984). As a consequence, the concepts and terms which are familiar in industrialised countries of the west, cannot automatically be transferred for use in survey work in Arab countries. Hence an individual has to be particular in choosing the research technique that best suits his/her area of investigation within the context of his/her own culture. Research techniques are a bit like fishing flies; you choose the right one for the fish you want to catch. No fisherman would use the same kind of flies for twenty different varieties of fish, just because it was the first kind he ever tried or even the one he felt more comfortable with (Smith, 1975).

3.3 Choice of Research Strategy

The present study, rather than following a rigid division between different approaches to research, is based on a combination of approaches. The focal theme of the present research is to understand and analyse the phenomenon of employing large numbers of workforce from across the world, and to see its impact in the context of the social and political framework, as well as in the context of HRM. The study thus largely falls in the category of phenomenological research. This approach to research is based on the way people experience and encounter a phenomenon. Such types of research focus their attention on the context in which a particular phenomenon is taking place. Such a research is an attempt to understand what is happening, and why it is happening (Saunders et al, 1997).

Phenomenological researches, by nature, require qualitative data, the success of which depends on the variety of methods through which qualitative data are collected (Easterby-Smith et al, 1991).

However, part of this research also falls in the tradition of positivism, as the study seeks to establish, albeit in a limited sense, the cause and effect relationships between some of the important factors influencing the phenomenon. This is done with a view to get a better grasp of why is it happening, what is happening, and also to establish its impact. To this end, the study seeks to collect empirical data from the field, and runs a number of statistical tests to find out meaningful relationship between the dependent and independent variables. Such types of research use a highly structured methodology to facilitate replication (Gill and Johnson, 1991), and aim at explaining causal relationships between variables. Such studies largely rely on quantitative data and employ controls to allow the testing of hypotheses (Easterby-Smith et al, 1991). However, this research does not claim generalisation, which is often considered as the hallmark of the positivist approach. The generalisation depends on the suitability of the sample size and its representativeness (Easterby-Smith et al, 1991). While attempting empirical analysis, the present research study does not claim generalisation. In fact, the empirical analysis has been attempted to obtain a better understanding of the phenomenon.

Similarly, the present work is mainly based on cross-sectional analysis. Cross-sectional studies are generally concerned with a particular phenomenon at a particular point in time (Saunders et al, 1997) and often employ the survey method of collecting data (Robson, 1993). Our study stands up to both of these criteria. The data for the present study were collected through a self-administered questionnaire from the sampled population at a specific time, that was intended to analyse and describe the incidence of a large number of multi-racial, multi-ethnic and multi-national workforce in varying job situations in an Islamic country.

The chapter on demographic structure and composition of workforce seeks to analyse growth and changes in the demographics of the country over a period of time. The purpose of such a time series analysis of the data on workforce composition and demographic

structure of the country spanning a period of the last two decades was considered necessary to have an insight into the focal objective of understanding the phenomenon that is contemporary. Such an analysis was aimed at getting a better understanding of the factors that contribute to the contemporary phenomenon under study. Quite naturally, with changes in the society, polity and economy of the Arab world in general, and that of the UAE in particular, the content and context of concerns arising from the expatriate workforce have undergone substantial changes. Such changes need to be analysed in order to achieve the objective of the research.

As has been noted, the three objectives of the study differ significantly in terms of the research questions that they pose. Quite naturally, they call for a combination of research strategies to serve the purpose of the research. From this point of view, the present study can be classified as largely explanatory. Explanatory studies are a valuable means to establish relationships between variables affecting a particular phenomenon. These types of studies emphasise studying a situation or a problem in order to explain the relationship between variables (Easterby-Smith et al, 1991). The chapters on job satisfaction across workers from different nationalities particularly fall in this category, as they seek to establish in detail the causal relationship between job satisfaction on one hand, and a number of other variables on the other. However, in order to hypothesise the causal relationship, descriptive research methodology was also adopted. The chapter on demographic structure and composition of UAE workforce is largely descriptive, but was considered crucial in order to have a thorough understanding of the phenomenon of the cross-cultural workforce.

In conclusion, it is emphasised that the present research has adopted what is often referred to as multi-method approach to research (Easterby-Smith et al, 1991). The choice of the combination of methods was necessary in order to achieve the varied objectives of the study. This approach facilitated the study, in the sense that it provided flexibility to the researcher in selecting a variety of methods of data collection, and in enabling the researcher to apply different tools and techniques to achieve the research objectives.

3.4 Research Design

Both the experimental and non-experimental researches seek to explain human behaviour, but they differ critically in the degree of control they have over the data. An experimental research manipulates variables suspected of producing an effect, whereas a non-experimental research design observes such variables and seeks their explanation (Beck, 1993). Despite its use in social and management research and its obvious advantages, the experimental research design calls for extreme caution when applied to social and management research. Such researches expose one group of individuals to the experiment, leaving others out, and this raises a number of ethical issues (Blaxter et al, 1996).

The non-experimental research designs broadly include survey, case study and focused group interviews. The case study is a more flexible method, as it uses a mixture of methods, including personal observation, use of informants for current and historical data, straightforward interviewing, and documentary research based on archival data (Cosley and Lury, 1987). The case study is perhaps considered as one of the most suitable approaches if the research aims at developing a detailed and intensive knowledge about a single case or a small number of related cases (Robson, 1993). Although the case study method is ideally suited to the needs and resources of the small-scale researcher, as it allows the researcher to focus just on one or two examples, it requires full-fledged support and access to information from the organisation under study.

Despite its obvious ease and advantage to the researcher, the case study method simply did not work in the context of the UAE. So was the case with the focused group interviews. The researcher had initially identified a number of professionally managed, large-sized organisations, including the oil and communication sectors among others, operating in the emirate of Abu Dhabi. But despite my best efforts I could not get access to the required data. In fact, the management of those companies in a typical Arab fashion discouraged me. Quite often people in position to grant me access to the sources of information were keener to explain in detail the amount of problems and their magnitude that I, as a researcher, would face in conducting thorough probe into their affairs. When I insisted, of course only as much as the Arab courtesy could permit, these people started showing lack

of interest in my research. At times I felt that they started avoiding me by giving excuses like they were very busy at the moment, or it would be of help only if I could return tomorrow or day after or may be after some time. And in Arabian context, the word 'tomorrow' does not have a definitive connotation; it simply means 'leave me alone and come back only after some time, and it would be appreciated if you never bothered with such requests'. Limited access to data was granted for a limited time in some of the companies, but given the lukewarm response and the intermittent gaps with which the access was granted, it seemed an onerous task to attempt a detailed enquiry about their human resource policies and practices, particularly with respect to their preferences for people from different nationalities.

Only those who have had close contacts with the Arab societies can understand this lack of interest in providing data. In most cases, even the large-sized businesses in this part of the world are run as closely held companies where confidentiality and secrecy are considered a common way of life. Access to information is often regarded as the sole privilege of certain individuals and authorities connected with the business. Thus, access to information is considered private; how can a researcher who is an outsider be granted this privilege? What if he is acting at the behest of a competitor or a government agency seeking to find loopholes? In brief, the management is quite often than not wary of the consequences and outcome of the research.

The reluctance on the part of the management of these organisations in allowing necessary access to data and people, despite persistence on the part of the researcher left no choice but to think of an alternative strategy. Given the characteristic features of the workplace situations in the country and the Arabian context in which people work, this attitude of management is quite understandable. People want to play safe, and stay away from any blame that might come on the organisation because of the detailed investigation allowed to the researcher. This was so, despite the assurance that the data collected from their organisation would be used only for the purposes of the research, alone and that the identity of the informants and organisation will not be divulged to discussion. Even the individuals with whom the researcher had developed a personal relationship and ties were not willing to co-operate in any formal endeavour like conducting research, which would be presented

in a report form, even to a foreign university.

Although it would have been possible for the researcher to gather much useful information leading to the achievement of the research objective by interacting with people closely associated with the selected organisation, but without disclosing the purpose of the inquiry. This would however have put the researcher into an ethical dilemma and loss of face among the friends. These personal considerations were also a paramount factor in deciding against persisting on the case study approach to the present research.

However, if we view this research in a global context, the present work has some features of a case study of a country, as it seeks to describe a phenomenon that is prevalent mainly in a single country, i.e. the United Arab Emirates. The study seeks to examine the prevalence of a multi-national workforce in a country setting, and aims at establishing the 'what and why' of the phenomenon that would be largely relevant to the country in which this research has been conducted. Indeed, some of the discussion would be of relevance to the same or similar economies in the region, as well as outside.

The survey method, on the other hand, collects information by asking a set of pre-formulated questions in a predetermined sequence (Hutton, 1990). Surveys are usually associated as a research approach with the idea of asking groups of people questions (Blaxter, et al, 1996) that would lead to a better understanding of the phenomenon under study. The survey method is a popular and common strategy in business and management research. It allows the collection of a large amount of data from a sizeable population in an economical manner. Use of survey methods provides better control over the research process (Saunders, 1997).

Surveys may be of two types - descriptive and analytical. The descriptive surveys are aimed at accurately portraying the characteristics of particular individuals, groups or situations. The analytical surveys are mainly concerned with hypotheses testing, and establishing causal relationships between variables in order to understand and explain a particular social and managerial phenomenon (Bulmer, 1984). The present research is a combination of both the descriptive and analytical surveys. The study is thus both quantitative as well as qualitative. There are sections in the study that are based on the

analysis of quantitative data but discuss the qualitative aspects of the phenomenon. On the other hand, there are questions in the questionnaire to obtain qualitative information from the target respondents, which was subjected to quantitative analysis in order to establish the relationships between different examined variables in the context of this research.

3.5 Sources of Data

As has been described in the above paragraphs, the present study is based on the data collected both from secondary as well as primary sources. The chapter on demographic structure of UAE and work environment is based on different types of secondary data. The chapters on general analysis, as well as the relationships between job satisfaction and national background, are based on the analysis of data collected through primary sources. The secondary data include both the quantitative and qualitative data collected and compiled for some other purposes, but it is not only possible but also economical to re-analyse these data to serve the purposes of some other study (Hakim, 1982). Use of secondary data and survey type researches have been favoured in this case.

The data collected from the primary sources have been put in the context of materials available through archival research based on documentary secondary data. Furthermore, a comprehensive and careful scan of contemporary and historical documents was made. The documents used to serve the research aims included reports of various committees appointed by the government, papers presented in various seminars and conferences on the issue held by sponsors holding with varying points of view, newspaper and magazine clippings, articles and reviews. Mostly, the printed documentary materials in Arabic language were used. These documentary materials are spread over a span of time and reflect varying points of view on the subject. In order to present a fair view of the type of thinking that has been going into the issue of expatriate workforce, these data have been critically analysed, but at the same time biases of the researcher have been avoided.

The chapter on demographic structure and composition of the UAE workforce is based on the primary data, but has been supported by the quantitative secondary data. The survey-

based secondary data, as is known, are the data collected with the help of a questionnaire by an agency for a special purpose, and are available in the form of compiled tables both in print form as well as on CD ROMS. Census data are one such example. Such data provide an excellent coverage of the population surveyed and are usually considered more reliable. Continuous surveys are also a source of such data. These surveys appear at regular intervals, and provide compiled tables on certain aspects of the population surveyed in a comparable form. They offer a good opportunity to conduct longitudinal analysis of a particular phenomenon. Ad-hoc surveys, although they do not appear on a regular basis, have their significance in the fact that they normally address a particular issue, and present data on different aspects of the concerned issue in much more detail. Such surveys might be conducted at the instance of a governmental department, an independent agency, or by individual researchers.

Parts of the data needed for the purposes of this study are drawn from the survey-based secondary data and include the census, continuous and ad-hoc surveys conducted by the governments of the UAE and those of the emirates of Abu Dhabi and Dubai. In addition to the governmental statistics, survey data and compilations made by the chambers of commerce and industry, and also by private publications, were also thoroughly scanned. The secondary data so collected were re-analysed, collated and compiled in the form of suitable tables and graphs to serve the objectives of the present study. These data were also subjected to quantitative as well as qualitative analysis to deduce results suited to the present study. A detailed description of the data sources is presented in the relevant chapters.

The UAE, as mentioned earlier, can be considered an economically advanced country, but in many respects it is still a developing country. Those who have had some exposure to the economy and polity of this country would perhaps conclude that the country has developed physically and in terms of infrastructure, but is still not fully mature as far as the processes of management and governance are concerned. Collection of data in such a country setting is always expensive, not necessarily in terms of money but in terms of time and convenience. The major difficulty arises on account of the fact that some of the documents, reports, and statistics available in the government agencies are simply not made available

to individuals, on the pretext of confidentiality. This situation forces individuals to collect data from primary sources using tools of data collection. For detailed exploration of the research objectives, data were also collected from the primary sources by means of a largely structured questionnaire administered to a selected sample of population working in different job settings in the emirate of Abu Dhabi. A detailed discussion on the tools of data collection, sampling and methodology of data collection is given in the following paragraphs.

3.6 Tools of data collection

Personal interviews and questionnaires are the major means for collecting empirical data from the primary sources. Interviews can take several forms, ranging from informal exchanges to very structured ones. As most surveys are carried out on a large-scale, interviews and questionnaires can be important tools of data collection.

An interview is a purposeful discussion between two or more people, and can be effectively used to collect valid and reliable data relevant to a research study. The interviews may take several forms - structured, semi-structured and unstructured. The interview method offers a number of advantages to a researcher. An important advantage of the interview method is that the interviewer can explain and elaborate on questions, which the interviewee may find difficult to comprehend. The interview method offers obvious advantages where the questions are either complex, or so open ended that they require guidance of the respondent. (Jankowicz, 1995). Besides, with an interview, the researcher can collect supplementary data and can make return visits. More importantly, the researcher can get more spontaneous responses. In addition, the interviewer can control who answers questions.

The interview method may also have some disadvantages as well. These disadvantages include the effect that an interviewer may have on his/her subjects. This interaction might affect interview outcomes, especially in an Arab society. Yet another disadvantage could be that some respondents may consider some questions sensitive, and they can become

either suspicious or embarrassed while answering them. Besides, interviewer bias may also occur; for example, the interviewer may give a hint of his/her own opinion or expectations by his/her tone of voice or wording or simply by asking leading questions. The most important limitation of the interview method of data collection relates to the time factor. If an interview schedule is lengthy, the interviewee may be less willing to devote his work time.

Questionnaires, on the other hand, are considered as an advisable tool of data collection for descriptive, exploratory and empirical research studies. If the research is particularly concerned with attitudes, opinions and organisational behaviour, the questionnaire enables a researcher to identify and describe the variability in different phenomena (Oppenheim and Naftali, 1992). Questionnaires may not be particularly advantageous if there are a lot of open-ended questions; they work well with standardised questions that can be interpreted in the same way as the researcher means. The questionnaires are easier to analyse across all respondents, since the researcher can obtain the same data for all, whereas in an interview he may have an additional item of data that might crop up during the course of interview.

Even the questionnaire method has some disadvantages. One of the major problems that is often encountered relates to the non-response bias. This becomes a major drawback if the opinions of non-respondents are likely to differ from those of respondents. It is not easy to overcome the problem of non-response bias. The effort should be directed to increase the number of respondents and obtain their co-operation through more reminders (Hague and Jackson, 1987). Questionnaires, however, permit a large number of people to be included in an investigation at a relatively less cost. As a result of this, it is no wonder that survey research based on questionnaire is very popular in the social sciences.

In using questionnaires as a tool of data collection, a researcher has the twin objectives of developing questions that would yield the necessary information, and persuading the target respondent to answer them. These can be more onerous in Arab countries than in many other countries of the world. This is especially true of the self-administered questionnaire, because there is no intermediary to assist and encourage the respondents. Similarly, the postal questionnaires, which are used in developed countries with relative ease, pose a lot

of difficulty in Arab countries because of two main reasons. Firstly, the responses may be distorted due to possible misunderstanding of the questions and secondly, the response rate is likely to be very low.

All said and done, a questionnaire is a powerful tool for collecting suitable data needed in measuring attitudes and assessing reactions to proposals. As the same question is put to all participants of the survey, a well-designed questionnaire acts as a standardised yardstick. A further advantage of this method of data collection is that the answers can be readily analysed and commented upon. The questionnaire method is considered quite effective in determining the relative degree of certain variables or phenomena, and is therefore very important for a study like this. By using a questionnaire, a measure of intensity of different variables can be included. More specifically, incorporating a scale in the questionnaire can do this. The questionnaire method is best suited to study and answer questions about individual motives, perceptions, behaviour and characteristics.

No doubt the questionnaire, as a tool of data collection, has some drawbacks as well. Some of these limitations of the questionnaire can be remedied by carefully drawing the sample, but there would still be a few that need careful attention (Oppenheim and Naftali, 1992). For example, some people may be so emotional that their feelings might dominate their answers. They may try to give answers to questions that they think will please the researcher or agree with his/her views. This could be particularly the case in an Arab country. This is all the more true in self-administered questionnaires. Handing over questionnaires to the respondents in person creates suspicion in the mind of the respondents. They might consider the surveyor a secret government agent or an informant who is soliciting information that could be used against those respondents (Kassim, 1993). As a result, they are likely to say what they consider would keep them safe, and their bosses happy and satisfied.

Based on the experiences of other researchers and discussions with experts, it seems that questionnaires are the most appropriate tools of data collection in the Arab context. Besides, given the nature of people, self-administered questionnaires were thought to be more likely to get responses. Given the nature of the Arabs, who hate to criticise others

openly, it was also considered necessary to avoid as far as possible, evaluative, open-ended questions.

3.7 Questionnaire Design

A comprehensive questionnaire (see Appendix) was designed to collect data from the target respondents. The questionnaire was divided into six sections. Section A of the questionnaire seeks to collect the background and identifying information about the respondents. Out of 9 questions in this section, only three were open-ended and the rest structured. Section B of the questionnaire seeks to collect information on the job settings and place of work of the respondents. This section has 13 questions, out of which 4 items were open-ended.

Section C of the questionnaire is intended to collect information on the overall job-satisfaction of the respondent. The section comprises 15 items, all structured. Most of the items were taken from the reputed item banks, although with some adjustments and modification suiting the needs of the UAE context. As this section relates to the attitudes and beliefs of the respondents relating to job satisfaction, it sought to collect information on a six-point scale ranging from 'extremely dissatisfied' to 'extremely satisfied'. Ideally, the responses should have been sought on a seven-point scale with 'neither satisfied nor dissatisfied', but keeping in mind the peculiar characteristics of UAE respondents, it was not included as one of the possible responses.

Sections D to F seek to collect information on respondents' attitudes and beliefs on specific aspects of their job satisfaction. These aspects included Satisfaction from reward (Section D), Satisfaction from the direct supervisor (Section E), and Satisfaction from the top manager (Section F). The items in these sections were also taken largely from the tested items bank, and respondents were asked to answer in 'yes' or 'no' format. Ideally, the respondents should have been given the choice of 'not sure'; but that was avoided for fear that many respondents might go for the mid-point.

The questionnaire was spread over seven pages of A-4 size, printed in single spacing with sufficient gap between the items. Each section of the questionnaire started on a new page but all sections of the questionnaire, except section C, were fitted into a single page each. The presentation of the questionnaire was made as readable as possible in view of the fact that most respondents were not native English speakers. Similarly, the language of the questionnaire was kept as simple as possible. To this end, the draft questionnaires were shown to people of such educational levels, and the items where they showed difficulty were noted and later simplified. Arabic and Urdu translations of the questionnaire were also prepared, and respondents reporting difficulty in English were given the translation of the questionnaire. However, use of the translated questionnaire was kept to minimum. In this manner, the questionnaire that was finally distributed was the fifth draft. However, while attempting the simplification of language, every effort was made to ensure that the items in the questionnaire did not lose their identity.

3.8 Validity and Reliability of Questionnaire

In any research there are certain issues that a researcher addresses in depth when conducting a study. This survey of respondents was intended to provide two main sets of data (1) data on participants' background, and (2) data on participants' views about a number of key issues pertaining to the objectives of the study. In constructing the questionnaire, the researcher tried to accomplish two main goals: (1) obtaining information relevant to the purpose of the study; and (2) collecting data in a way that ensured maximum validity and reliability, particularly of the opinion or attitudinal data. This last point is related to the accuracy of the questionnaire.

Validity of a questionnaire can be described as an indicator which is a valid measure if it accurately measures the concept it is intended to measure. If the indicator contains very little error, then the indicator is a valid measure of the concept. Reliability, on the other hand, can be described as an indicator of reliability if it consistently assigns the same numbers to the same phenomenon. An indicator is a reliable measure if the values obtained using the indicator are not affected by who is doing the measuring, by where the measure is

being done, or by any other factors, other than variation in the concept being measured (Litwin, 1995).

To obtain reliability, the author followed Hills and Kerber's (1957) steps in constructing questions (Litwin, 1995). Every effort was made to ensure that each question in the questionnaire had a central or focal point. The questionnaire sought to collect only such data that were otherwise difficult to obtain by other means. The questionnaire requested data that were essential only to the study's subject matter. Clear and complete instructions on how to answer each item in the questionnaire were given to the participants so that each respondents would understand the questions in the same way as others. The questions were objectively constructed, without giving the participants any hint of the desired answers. No responses were right or wrong. The order of the questions was considered thoroughly. The items in the questionnaire were arranged from general to specific and from the most convenient to least convenient, as far as their responses were concerned. Ambiguous, sensitive and embarrassing questions were avoided.

Due consideration was given to the length of the questionnaire. The intention was that it should not be too lengthy or too short. It was realised that too many items will be time-consuming to complete by respondents, and cause the respondent to give answers based on convenience. Also, too few items would lead to loss of important information. Besides, it was ensured that the questionnaire was kept free from ambiguity, and each item of the questionnaire gave the most clear meaning of terms, which could be understood easily, by the respondents.

The content of the questionnaire was another area where due attention was paid. The intention was to cover various aspects of job satisfaction. All such things, which could cause misunderstanding, such as type of printing, misspelled words, missing pages and poorly phrased items, were eliminated in order to increase the validity and reliability of the questionnaire.

3.9 Item Scales

Scaling is the process of developing a measurement standard whereby opinions may be compared relatively. A number of scaling and rating methods are available to a researcher, each suited for a specific type of questionnaire. Rensis Likert (1932) was instrumental in developing the method of summated ratings as a means of differentiating between subjects according to their possession of varying degrees of some ordinal characteristics. The summated ratings features of Likert measurement are designed to evaluate the intensity with which an attitude is expressed. The intensity of a given opinion is determined in part by weighting the responses a person gives to each statement. Weighting is the process of assigning numerical values to each response to a statement. Responses are of the greatest value when they are used relative to other scores from other respondents on the same instrument in a comparative sense.

The major advantage of the Likert scale lies in its ease to construct and interpret. The researcher has the freedom to word a statement he derives in any manner he chooses, provided that he adheres to a logical standard of continuity between variables. Scoring is easy as well. Likert scaling is the most common measurement format. Moreover, it is flexible. The flexibility in Likert rating scales is more than any other measurement technique. The researcher is at liberty to include as many or as few items in his measure.

Nonetheless, the Likert method also has some disadvantages. One of the major weaknesses of this method is that there are no consistent meanings that can be attached to the responses derived by such measurement. In addition, response scores vary according to the number of the questions and the extensiveness of response pattern used. Besides, it is assumed that each item in a measure has identical weight in relation to every other item. This may not necessarily be a valid assumption (Schertzer, 1985).

Thurstone Interval Scaling is yet another type of measuring technique (Thurstone and Chave, 1929). This technique differs from the Likert summated ratings method by supplying each statement with a specific scale value standing for the intensity of the

statement, instead of deriving a total score for a respondent based on his several statements. The weight of each statement is based on the average of the categories. The respondent is asked to agree with two or three statements. The statement a respondent selects is averaged to determine his score and position in relation to others. Enabling the researcher to differentiate between large numbers of people regarding their opinion positions is a main advantage of Thurstone scales. Another argument in favour of Thurstone scales is that judges can achieve a high degree of agreement on the items used and screened through an eliminating process of items that evidence little or no agreement. However, the Thurstone scale is time-consuming to construct. It is possible to derive identical scores based on opinions. In addition, there is no way of controlling the influence of judge's bias in item scoring. In reality, Thurstone scale values are no better at predicting behaviour than Likert-based measures which are considerably less difficult to construct and score.

A third major scaling method is called scalogram analysis more popularly called Guttman scaling (Litwin, 1995). Guttman (1944) devised a method of scaling which allows researchers to determine whether the statements used in their measures of some attitudinal traits are in fact unidimensional. One person may dislike his pay, working hours and types of supervision, but he simultaneously like the challenges of the work and his informal work group. Someone else may dislike his informal work group and working hours, but he may like the type of supervision he receives and the pay. Both men may turn up an identical job satisfaction score based on their differential response to various dimensions of the variable, job satisfaction. Scalogram analysis can perhaps be most accurately described as a procedure for evaluating sets of statement or existing scales to determine whether or not they meet the requirements of particular kind of scale. The researcher is in a good position to identify inconsistencies of responses and possible untruthful replies. This feature could be of significance in increasing the researcher's confidence in the quality of information provided by his respondents.

Guttman's procedure is relatively easy to use when applied to small numbers of items, preferably less than 12 items. Also, a person's response can be reproduced with knowledge of his total score on the scale. Likert or Thurstone techniques can not do this. However, the Guttman scaling technique fails to provide as extensive measure of attitudinal responses as

the Likert and or Thurstone methods. In addition, it is applicable to situations where the researcher has few items. If there were quite a number of items, the scoring and error determination would make scalogram analysis extremely awkward to use.

In addition to the above types, there are other scales and measurement as well. The verbal frequency scale is fairly similar to the Likert scale (Alreck and Settle, 1995). The ordinal scale is actually based on multiple choice items that share some of the arithmetic characteristics of a Likert scale. But this differs significantly in terms of response categories. The forced ranking scale measures the relativity or relationship. The forced rankings of items produce ordinal values just as the ordinal scales do, except that the items are each ranked only relative to one another. The choice of a scale in deciding about the format of a questionnaire depends on a number of factors, including the type of research, the research questions, and most importantly, the locale of the research.

The literature on both career development and job satisfaction reveals that many investigators who have worked from varied theoretical positions used numerous methods and techniques. This has resulted in what might be termed 'a complexity of measurement'. As a consequence of this, much of the data appear contradictory. The results indicate that there is no one superior operational measure for assessing the most suitable career stage or even assessing the degree of overall job satisfaction, and the way respondents cope with their environments. Therefore, researchers have used a number of different research techniques.

A major problem here is that different groups tend to adopt different perspectives and orientations when talking about their jobs. One group may think in terms of what they would like in the future, another in terms of what should be, a third group confine their view to the present. Hence it will depend on the group concerned which operational measures best tap their overall feelings of job satisfaction, an issue which further complicates the measurement.

Such complexities of measurement in job satisfaction have led to the development of psychological tests. These tests have been the product of an attempt to solve a real educational or industrial problem, for example deciding which students will profit from

special classes. The development of a test involves both formulating a rational theoretical basis and gathering empirical data about test scores. Unfortunately, many problems are still not solved. Many difficulties in using tests have appeared, which include a deliberate attempt to distort one's score, as well as response tendencies of which an individual may not be aware (Super and Bohn, 1970).

A good measurement should ideally include four characteristics. First, the measure should be valid in the sense that it measures accurately all the important aspects of the psychological quality of working life. Second, it should have enough face validity so that it will be seen as a legitimate measure by all involved. Third, it should be objective and therefore verifiable and not subject to manipulation. Last, it should recognise and take into account differences in how individuals respond to the same work environment

Unfortunately, no measure possesses all four of these characteristics. Thus if we are to measure the psychological quality of working life we must settle for sub-optimal measures (Litwin, 1995; Schertzer, 1985). Which characteristics can we afford to give up? In some cases, we may be able to give up objectivity. While always desirable, objective measures may be less useful than subjective self-report measures of the psychological quality of working life in some cases. Despite their subjectivity, they represent the most direct data available about the psychological state of a person. Further, they provide better data on individual differences than do many objective measures of working conditions. For example, a repetitive assembly-line job or authoritarian supervision is not negatively regarded by all workers. Quite to the contrary, some individuals see them as part of the high quality working life, while others see them as very negative and as part of a low quality of working life.

Job satisfaction among workers from different national backgrounds was examined, using the measurements of a job satisfaction scale (Warr, Cook and Wall, 1979). That scale yields a total overall score and also includes sub-scales relating to intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. According to Warr et al, (1981), the reliability of the scale is good. The scale is also well validated, and is suitable for measuring different aspects of the job satisfaction attitude among workers. Therefore, it was selected for implementation due to

its suitability to the general work environment in the UAE.

The present research, after weighing the advantages and limitation of various scales and measurement techniques, chose the Likert Scale. The guiding factor was the simplicity and ease in applying the scale to the type of questions intended for the respondents. Based on Section C of the questionnaire, an overall job satisfaction rating was constructed. The responses to the questions in this section were assigned a straight weight from 1 to 6. Non-responses were to be assigned the middle value of 3.5; in other words, no-response was considered to be as equal to responding 'I am not sure'. Similarly, based on Section D of the questionnaire, an overall pay satisfaction rating was constructed. For this purpose, responses to all questions except two were assigned straight weights from 1 to 2, while responses to two of the questions were assigned reverse weights. Non-responses were assigned the middle value of 1.5.

Based on Section E of the questionnaire, an overall supervisor satisfaction rating was constructed by assigning straight weights from 1 to 2, in the case of 4 out of 13 items. The remaining 9 items were assigned reverse weights. As in the case of Section D, non-responses were assigned the middle value of 1.5. Exactly based on the above logic, an overall top management satisfaction rating was constructed based on the items in Section F. This approach to non-response was adopted because of the researcher's understanding of a prevailing culture in which a non-assertive, non-threatening and non-judgmental verbal behaviour may be highly prized.

3.10 Sampling Plan

In a study of this type, it is nearly impossible for an individual researcher with limited means and time to go for a representative sampling based on probability sampling techniques. The present study is based on non-probability sampling, as it was considered most practical. The present study intended to cover about 300 employees at different levels of organisational hierarchy in some of the important sectors of the economy. It was also intended to cover respondents from different nationalities. To achieve these objectives, the

following technique was adopted.

Instead of collecting data from the whole of the UAE, we limited the data collection to only one of the seven emirates, i.e. Abu Dhabi. The emirate of Abu Dhabi is not only the capital of the country, but is also the largest emirate in terms of area, population and contribution to the GDP. In view of the past experiences reported by other researchers in the region, it was decided to select a sample nearly three times the targeted sample size. As it was intended to collect information from about 300 respondents, a sample of 900 was chosen on the basis of quota coupled with convenience sampling. This is a large sample size compared to many in the literature reviewed. The sampling plan included only those categories of the workforce who had at least eight years of formal schooling. This was so as to ensure that the respondents were able to understand the questions asked, and be able to respond them with utmost accuracy. The sample thus excluded a substantial section of the UAE workforce who are only marginally educated or totally uneducated.

Given the ground realities, this was the only way to collect useful data to answer the research questions and to meet the objectives of the study. Although quota sampling is entirely non-random, it has features of stratified sampling, with the difference that the selection of cases within the strata is non-random. Quota sampling was considered advantageous, as it was expected to allow the researcher to collect an adequate amount of suitable data with speed, accuracy, economy and convenience. The quota sampling was also considered favourite, as it was next to impossible to collect data through random sampling for want of the sampling frames and other background data needed to develop a suitable sampling frame. Besides, as there were some background data available on the demographic structure and composition of the workforce, it was possible to develop a quota relative to the proportion in which they occur in the population.

Although experts on research methodology suggest a sample size of 2000 to 5000 for quota sampling technique (Easterby-Smith et al, 1991), the present research is confined to a sample of only 300 to 350. As the present research does not intend to claim generalisation and intends largely to understand and explain the phenomenon under study in detail, it is felt that this sample size would be quite sufficient.

3.11 Administration of Questionnaire

According to the sampling plan, the questionnaire was intended to be distributed to as many as 900 target respondents, according to the quota determined for each of the categories. It was also intended that at least one third of the questionnaires should be responded to fully under each of the categories. To this end, the researcher adopted a multi-pronged strategy, now discussed.

The researcher identified at least one contact person in some of the medium and large-sized services, trading and manufacturing types of companies. These contact persons were the old acquaintances, personal and family friends, and in some cases, relatives of the researcher. These personal contacts were individually briefed about the objectives of the research and the purpose of data collection, and were asked to take the responsibility of identifying suitable respondents under different categories of the quota. Based on their assessment, the questionnaires were administered to the identified respondents, and were later collected with the help of the contact persons.

The researcher identified some educational institutions where the heads of the schools were either personal or family friends. The heads of the schools were briefed about the data collection need and were asked to provide a brief job profile and nationality of the parents of the students studying in the school. Based on the profile, the target respondents were identified so as to suit the quota-sampling requirement. Later, with the help of the class-teachers of the concerned students, the questionnaires were administered to the target respondents.

The distribution by nationality of the questionnaires was: UAE Nationals, 149; Arabs, 316; Non-Arab Asians, 383, and others, 52. By sector, 224 questionnaires were distributed among the employees of the government sector, 80 among the joint sector and 626 among the employees of the private sector. By type of organisation, the distribution of questionnaire was such that 38 questionnaires were given to people working in the manufacturing sector, 112 to people in the trade and retail sector, 186 to workers in the

construction sector, 70 to people working in the services sector, and 102 to people employed in miscellaneous types of economic activities.

3.12 Response Rate

In all, 390 questionnaires were returned. Of these, 30 were found to be incomplete or inconsistent and were therefore rejected. The remaining 360 questionnaires were found to be largely complete and were used for the analysis. These represent 13% of the UAE nationals, 39% of the Arab Expatriates, 38% of the Asian Expatriates and nearly 10% of the other nationalities. Nearly 77% of the respondents were male while 23% are female and this roughly represents the work participation rate of men and women. About 21% of the respondents are from the government sector, about 7% from the joint sector, and the rest from the private sector. A little more than 5% of the respondents are employed in the manufacturing sector, and about 10% in retailing and trade-related activities, another 10% percent in the construction sector and the remaining 75% in the services sector.

3.13 Data Analysis

As the data were to be analysed using the SPSS version 6 for Windows, a thorough Code-Book was developed to facilitate data input. The Code-Book was examined thoroughly, and pre-tested. In view of the problems faced in data input, the Code-Book was comprehensively revised to ensure reliable data analysis of the questionnaire responses. The completed questionnaires were examined thoroughly and were cleansed. The responses were coded with reference to the Code-Book. The coded questionnaires were passed to the data entry operator for input. The data input was checked by another operator to ensure that there were no errors. The data entry so checked was further rechecked by the researcher independently to ensure that the data had been input correctly and no typing errors or errors of judgement were made by the data entry operator and checker.

A database was generated for all the responses received from the questionnaires. The database had questionnaire serial numbers in the rows and variables in the column. There were 360 completed questionnaires while, there were 130 variables in each questionnaire. A printout of the data file was thoroughly compared with the responses in the questionnaire to make sure that no errors were made in data input. The data file was suitably corrected, and a final printout was taken.

With the help of the data file, SPSS analysis was run to develop Frequency Tables for all the 130 variables in the questionnaire. Some of the metric raw data were grouped to facilitate further analysis. Sections C, D, E and F of the Questionnaire had questions on different aspects of Job Satisfaction and Job Performance. For each aspect, there were many questions asked of the respondent. The responses were either in Yes/No format or in 6-point scale. The responses for these questions were assigned either Straight Weight or Reverse Weight depending on the type of questions and the format of the responses. Suitable scales were developed with the weighted responses on different aspects of Job Satisfaction. The scales of Job Satisfaction were grouped in three categories: Low, Medium and High, and Frequency Tables were developed for further analysis.

Out of the 130 variables, key variables were identified. A comprehensive Tabulation Plan was worked out for analysing the relationship between the key variables and other variables. The Cross-Tabulation Plan was implemented and SPSS analysis was run. We ignored those cross tables where the relationship was not found to be statistically significant. The Duplicate Cross-Tables were also ignored. In all, 255 Cross Tables were found to give significant relationship and were therefore retained for further analysis.

To see the statistical significance of the relationships between different variables, such statistical analysis as Pearson Chi-Square, Likelihood Ratio, Mantel-Haenszel test for Linear Association, Contingency Coefficient, and Pearson's coefficient of correlation were calculated with the help of the SPSS. The scales of Job Satisfaction as developed in Section 9 above, were made of a number of questionnaires. In order to see whether different questions had the same significance in the scale so developed, we ran factor analysis and prepared a correlation matrix for all the variables forming part of a particular scale.

3.14 Summary

It has been amply indicated in the foregoing paragraphs that the research environment of Arabia in general and that of the UAE in particular is significantly different from the other parts of the world. The choice of research strategy in order to be effective will have to be based on the ground realities of the environment in which the research is being conducted.

The chapter therefore presented a discussion on the research environment of the UAE and explained why a particular research strategy was considered more appropriate in the UAE context. Further, the chapter also discussed various tools that the researcher used for the collection of data and the method that was used to analyse the collected data. As the study seeks to develop scales, the chapter also provided a detailed discussion on the types of scales and why was the Likert scale chosen for the purposes of the present study. It was decided to give detailed discussions on the methodology of calculating mean scores in the analysis chapters, so as to provide the reader with immediate reference as to how those scores have been calculated.

Finally, after discussing the methodology of this research in this chapter, the next chapter will analyse and discuss the demographic structure, economic development and workforce composition in the UAE in order to achieve the first aim of the research. It is precisely because this research has the features of a country case study, as it discusses the phenomenon in a single country that such demographic details about the UAE are essentially needed.

Chapter 4

The United Arab Emirates (UAE): Economic Development and Demographic Structure

4.0 Introduction

This chapter intends to provide a better understanding of the economic development, demographic structure and workforce composition in the UAE in order to achieve the first aim of this research.

Many earlier researchers who have conducted studies in the context of UAE have complained of a problem while researching the UAE work environment. They continually reported a great shortage of statistical information, combined with a lack of reasonable segmentation of the demographic structure and the composition of the workforce in the UAE, particularly in respect of the expatriate workforce. Many have concluded that more information and analysis of such demographic aspects is not only recommended, but also essential in the light of the importance of such data in conducting future studies in that country. Therefore, was decided that obtaining a better understanding of the demographic composition and nature of the workforce in the UAE should be the first aim of this research. This decision was taken with respect to an essential demographic understanding in the general context of the UAE work environment, but also due of its importance to the specific context of this research.

Considering the above, it is important to view the contents of this chapter from a wider perspective, in order to gain a better focus of the direction of this research. This should help for a better understanding of the demographic situation in the country.

At the turn of the century, the phenomenon of globalisation, and its ongoing and fast spreading process, are increasingly representing an unavoidable direction for most

economies. The globalisation of the world economies can be described as one of the most disputed concepts of the last decade of the twentieth century (see the much-quoted 'INSEAD report' on HRM implications of globalisation (Evans et al, 1989)). There is an almost total agreement that no clear definition of the globalisation concept exists so far, in spite of the many different interpretations (Smeets in Buelens, 1999). Seeking a specific definition of the concept is beyond the focus of this study. However, the problem with the concept is that it tends to expand infinitely, and is often employed so loosely that almost any definition can be used to illustrate and justify its operations (Hirst and Thompson in Buelens, 1999). Nevertheless, it is becoming a central issue that is likely to influence the majority of economic thinking and subsequent policymaking in the present millennium, regardless of disagreements in terminology. It is the potential for economic advancement and its promising horizons, not the borders or the limits of the concept, that is attracting attention towards this interesting phenomenon. Therefore, it is essential for all countries of the world to consider such a major economic phenomenon, regardless of their position, and points of view towards it, in order to maintain and proceed with their future economic development plans without experiencing major difficulties. (See for example *The Borderless World*, (Ohmae, 1990)).

Nonetheless, it is believed that distinctive diversity in world economies will still exist as different national economies offer different contributions and advantages to the global economy. Within that economy, the UAE represents a special case. This observation is demonstrated in this chapter, and the remaining chapters throughout this research.

The key aspects of globalisation likely to affect the analysis of the UAE labour market are global competition, global customers, and global integration. Also, the UAE economy demonstrates certain special characteristics that have enabled it to emerge as a high wage and high value-added recruiter of qualified professional and semi-professional workers drawn from the world at large. These labour forces are drawn to the UAE by specific expectations of reward, especially financial remuneration. This chapter attempts to describe why the UAE, with its culturally diverse workforce, holds a unique position in a global context, making it a special case that deserves to be studied.

The UAE, formed in 1971, is a federation of seven independent states, termed the Emirates. These seven Emirates are made up of Abu Dhabi, Dubai, Sharjah, Ajman, Umm Al-Quwain, Ras-Al-Khaimah and Al-Fujairah. The Emirate of Abu Dhabi is the largest in terms of area, population, oil wealth and contribution to the Federal budget. Abu Dhabi is the capital of the country and seat of power of the Federal Government. The Emirate of Dubai is generally referred to as the UAE's commercial capital. Located on the southern shore of the Arabian Gulf with a coastline on the Gulf of Oman, the country is surrounded by Saudi Arabia, Oman and Qatar. The country has a total area of 83,600 square kilometres, and has a population of 2.38 million (1995). The population density works out to be 30 persons per square km (UAE, 1996).

The core objective of the present chapter is to analyse the demographic structure of the United Arab Emirates. To this end, the chapter begins by presenting a brief summary of the economic progress achieved by the UAE, particularly the post oil era, to illustrate that the development achieved in such a short span of 25-30 years is indeed an economic marvel. No doubt the inflow of oil revenue has played a very significant role, but the diversification into industries other than the hydrocarbon industry, namely agriculture, trade and the service sector too which have been significantly developed and have contributed to the present economic growth of the country. The chapter therefore presents a detailed analysis of the GDP growth and the contribution of different sectors to the economy.

Secondly, the chapter intends to provide concise economic perspectives in which the UAE achieved its present level of high income in order to explain the processes and implications arising out of the late but rapid economic development achieved by the country. The focus of the chapter remains, nonetheless, on the analysis of its demographic structure. The population, population growth, working population, work-participation rate and, most importantly, the composition and structure of the population of the country will be discussed in detail with a view to providing a better grasp of problems and concerns arising out of employing a large number of expatriates. The concern raises a number of issues encompassing culture, national security, and social effects, but our focus remains the economic one. Other concerns, although, of immense importance, will be largely beyond our scope.

4.1 Historical Perspectives and Economic Outlook:

Previously known as the Trucial States, the Emirates constituting the UAE were ruled by Sheikhs under British Guardianship until 1971 when the British decided to leave the country. Having been traditionally dependent upon the seasonal occupation of fishing and date harvesting, the country underwent some major economic developments during the late 19th and early 20th century. Firstly, British interference and involvement in internal matters off the Oman coast ultimately culminated into the formation of the Trucial States Development Council. This brought in the much-needed economic resources to the country, although to a very limited extent.

Secondly, the rise and fall of the pearling industry, which at its peak and until threatened by Japanese cultured pearls brought affluence to the pearl merchants of the region. However, the pearling industry provided most profit to the few owners while the common man received only a small share in the business. This prosperity was confined to only a few and did not lead to any significant socio-economic development, save for development of schools sponsored by some charitable pearl merchant, and other minor projects. It is important to note here that the pearling added hardly any significant revenue to the coffers of the sheikhs, and the pearl merchants, being more affluent, often wielded considerable influence on the sheikhs.

The third development in the region was the emergence of Dubai as a main port city. In the early 20th century, steam navigation companies began to call at Dubai that soon became the pearl market in the gulf, after Bahrain. At about the same time, the rulers of Dubai decided to declare Dubai a free port, and abolished the 5% customs duty. This further led to the development of trade in Dubai and the influx of migrant merchants, particularly from India and Iran, led to rising rents, consequently increasing the much-needed monetary resources of the Emirates. The fourth development in the series was the granting of oil concessions to foreign companies (Khalifa, 1998). Although no oil was discovered thus far, the Emirates of Abu Dhabi, Dubai, and Sharjah to some extent, started receiving some revenue from the oil concessionaires. Convinced by popular demand, a substantial part of oil concession revenue was spent on infrastructure and development of trade, commerce

and industry, so that the benefit of the new source of revenue could be extended to the community as a whole. Finally, the discovery and exploration of oil in Abu Dhabi in 1962 and in Dubai in 1969, coupled with the formation of the Federation, has transformed the UAE into a truly modern nation.

It is against this backdrop that one should view and rate the development achieved by the UAE. A country that was known in the past as a poor desert country with the harshest of living conditions is now regarded as not only one of the most capital rich countries, but also for its finest infrastructure and modern amenities. The amenities and infrastructure of the country are rated on a par with any contemporary developed nation of the world. For anyone who had seen UAE before 1970, the present level of economic development is no less than an economic miracle. It is not the oil wealth in itself but the prudent investment of the oil revenue in infrastructure that has helped achieve such a miraculous economic development in this short period of time (US Department of Commerce, 1987, 1992).

4.2 GDP Growth Rate of the UAE

With an estimated Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of US \$36.793 billion, the per capita GDP stood at US \$16,500 in 1994. The GDP of the UAE touched a new height of US \$ 44.40 billion in 1996, thus recording a stunning growth of 10.9% over 1995, when the GDP was calculated at US \$ 40.10 billion (Table 4.1)

Table 4. 1
Gross Domestic Product of United Arab Emirates

Years	GDP (Billion \$)	Per Capita GDP (\$)	GDP Annual Growth Rate(%)
1982	30.63	26177	-7.2
1983	28.03	23168	-8.5
1984	27.74	21506	-1.0
1985	27.08	20060	-2.4
1986	21.67	15482	-20.0
1987	23.80	16413	9.8
1988	23.73	14468	-0.3
1989	27.45	15778	15.7
1990	33.65	18290	22.6
1991	33.92	17759	0.8
1992	35.00	17414	3.2
1993	35.92		2.63
1994	36.73		2.26
1995	40.10	16884	9.18
1996	44.48	18216	10.9

The data presented in the table have been compiled from a number of sources. The data on GDP and per capita GDP for the years 1982-92 have been taken from the National Accounts Statistics published by the Arab Monetary Fund (1993) whereas the data for the years 1993-96 have been taken from the newspaper (WAM, 1997). The GDP annual growth rate has been computed by the researcher by using the chain-based index method.

It may however be noted that annual growth in GDP of the country has, far from being stable, been marked by wide fluctuations. It recorded consistent decline till the year 1986, showing a negative growth rate of 14% per year. Nonetheless, between the years 1986 and 1996, despite several downward trends, the GDP has more than doubled, recording an average annual growth rate of nearly 9.57%. Such ups and downs are indicative of the fact that the UAE economy still continues to be mainly dependent upon the oil sector. World oil prices have substantial effects on the GDP of the country, in the sense that booming/falling oil prices lead to high/low growth rates in GDP.

This does not mean that the country has remained solely dependent on the oil sector. Although, the oil sector in 1996 had grown substantially, due largely to surging oil prices

caused by strong world demand and the absence of Iraq from the global oil market, one of the most important development objectives of the country has been the diversification of its industrial base. A significant portion of the oil revenue has therefore been consistently reinvested into the development of trade, commerce and industry, besides infrastructure. As a result, the non-oil sectors of the economy, which were only a fraction of the GDP nearly two decades ago, now account for nearly 65% of the GDP (WAM, 1997). No doubt this indicates the level of investment by the public and private sectors into industry, the farming infrastructure, and the service sector (Table 4.2)

Table 4. 2

**UAE: Gross Domestic Product: Kind of Economic Activity
Average contribution during the period 1982-92**

Economic Activity	Average Contribution
Agricultural, Fishing & Forestry	1.66
Mining, Quarrying & Fuel	42.05
Manufacturing Industries	8.75
Electricity, Water & Gas	2.15
Construction	9.37
Commerce, Restaurant & Hotel	10.07
Transport, Communication & Storage	5.15
Finance, Insurance & Banking	9.29
Government Services	11.25
Other Services	2.35
GDP at factor cost	102.13
Net Indirect Taxes	-2.13
GDP at purchaser's values	100.00

The data presented in the table have been compiled and collated from the National Accounts Statistics as published by the Arab Monetary Fund (1993). The data on contribution of each economic activity were collected and tabulated for the years 1982-92. The average contribution has been worked out by using the arithmetic mean of the contribution of each economic activity during the period 1982-92.

The above table shows that the Mining, Quarrying, and Fuel sector, which predominantly accounts for the Oil Sector, has on average been contributing around 42% of GDP during

the years 1982-92. Around 58% of the contribution is made by the non-oil sector. The Manufacturing, Electricity, Water & Gas, and the Construction sectors account for about 20.27% while the contribution of the Service sector stands at more than 36% of GDP.

A time series analysis of GDP statistics show that the contribution of the Agricultural sector has steadily risen from a mere 1% in 1982 to 2.1% in 1992. Considering that a large area of the UAE comprises arid desert, this represents substantial progress. The contribution of the Mining, Quarrying & Fuel sector has over the same time period witnessed considerable fluctuations, with its contribution standing at more than 50% in 1982, declining to the low of 33.2% in 1986, only to rise further to 42% in 1992. The manufacturing sector too witnessed a rise during 1982 to 1988 when its contribution rose from 8.4% to 9.4%. Since 1988, however, the contribution of the Manufacturing sector steadily declined to 7.7% in 1992. This is true of the Construction, Trade, Transport, Communication, Finance, Insurance and Governmental sectors as well. They all recorded consistent rises till the year 1988-89, and then have been declining gradually (Arab Monetary Fund, 1993).

In absolute terms, all sectors of the economy have reported gradual increases over the years 1982-1992, except Mining, Quarrying & Fuel, and Finance, Banking & Insurance sectors, which recorded fluctuating trends (Arab Monetary Fund, 1993). However, virtually all sectors of the economy, except Agriculture, Fishing & Forestry, declined in absolute terms in 1986 (Arab Monetary Fund, 1993). During the year 1996, Agriculture, Fishing & Forestry increased from \$1.08 billion in 1995 to \$1.17 billion, whereas Water, Electricity & Gas went up from \$870 million to \$924.42 million during the same period.

The Construction sector, which accounts for nearly 10% of GDP, recorded a rise of over 4% during 1995-96, and was estimated at \$3.83 billion in 1996. The Communication sector, during the year 1995-96, rose from \$2.85 billion to \$3.12 billion, whereas Real Estate stood at \$3.53 billion as against \$3.31 billion in 1995. The Trade sector in 1996 stood at \$4.38 billion, recording a rise of 4.6% over 1995.

The overall rise in GDP led the per capita income of the UAE to rise from \$16,884 in 1995 to \$18,216 in 1996. The per capita GDP of the UAE has however recorded a fluctuating

trend over the period 1982-92. In 1982, per capita GDP worked out at \$26,177 and steadily declined to touch a low of \$14,468 in 1988, except for the year 1987 when it showed signs of improvement. Since 1988, it has gradually risen to reach \$17,414 in 1992, and \$18,216 in 1996. It may however be noted that per capita GDP in 1996 is merely 70% of what it was in 1982. During the same period, the GDP growth index of showed an overall increase of 45% implying that much of the increase in GDP was taken away by the population increase that perhaps rose more sharply than the GDP (Table 4.3).

Table 4.3
Growth in population, GDP and per capita GDP of UAE
(Base year 1982 =100)

Years	Population Index	GDP Index	Per Capita GDP Index
1982	100	100	100
1983	103	92	90
1984	110	91	82
1985	115	88	77
1986	120	71	59
1987	124	78	63
1988	140	77	55
1989	149	90	60
1990	157	110	70
1991	163	111	68
1992	172	114	67
1993	178	117	
1994	191	120	
1995	203	131	65
1996	209	145	70

The data presented in the table have been computed by collecting information on population, GDP at factor cost and per capita GDP at factor cost, for the years 1982-96. The data for the years 1982-83 was collected from the National Accounts Statistics as published by the Arab Monetary Fund (1993) while data for the years 1993-96 was compiled from the statistical yearbooks (UAE, 1996). The population, GDP and per capita GDP indices as given in the table have been worked out by the researcher by using Fixed Base Index, with 1982 as the base year. The indices were calculated to demonstrate the relative growth in the population, GDP and per capita GDP.

A glance at the table clarifies the situation more sharply. The population of the UAE has more than doubled in 1996 as compared to the year 1982. As a result, although the GDP recorded a rise of 45% during the corresponding period, the per capita GDP declined by nearly 30% as compared to the year 1982. It is clear that the population of the country has been rising much more rapidly than the GDP, and as a result the per capita GDP has been declining. The data can also be interpreted to substantiate the argument that the average productivity of the population has been declining. This may also be taken as a case of disguised unemployment.

4.3 Inter-Emirate Comparison

The breakdown of available data shows that the Emirate of Abu Dhabi continues to be the wealthiest of all the seven Emirates constituting the UAE. The Emirate of Abu Dhabi accounted for nearly 60% of the UAE economy, with its GDP estimated at US \$ 26.43 billion. Next, follows the Emirate of Dubai whose GDP, in 1996, stood at US \$11.15 billion. For Sharjah, Ras-Al Khaimah, Ajman, Fujairah and Umm Al Quwain, the GDP in 1996 works out to be US \$3.94, 1.28, 0.69, 0.68 and 0.29 billion, respectively.

A comparative performance of the different Emirates and their contribution in the GDP of the country is summarised in Table 4.4.

Table 4. 4
Relative Contribution of different Emirates in the GDP of UAE

Emirates	1989	1990	1991	1992	1996
Abu Dhabi	59.6	63.6	63.3	62.2	59.4
Dubai	25.2	23.1	23.0	23.6	25.1
Sharjah	8.7	7.6	7.6	7.8	8.9
Ajman	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.5
Umm Al Quwain	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7
Ras Al Khaimah	3.1	2.7	2.9	3.0	2.9
Fujairah	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.5
Total	100	100	100	100	100

The data presented in the table have been compiled from two different sources. The data

for the years 1989-1992 have been taken from the Annual Statistical Abstracts for the years 1990 and 1992 (UAE, 1991 and 1993). The data for the year 1996, as they were not available in the published official statistics, have been taken from an article published in the *Gulf News* (WAM, 1997). As reported by the article, the data have been taken from reliable official sources. Besides, WAM is an officially recognised and approved News Agency in UAE, and as such there is no reason not to believe the data.

It is clear that all the Emirates that form part of the UAE are neither equal in size, wealth, or in oil resources, but their contribution to GDP of the UAE has consistently remained steady, indicating a balanced economic growth. Under the federation, each Emirate, supported financially and strategically by the bigger and wealthier Emirates, has prospered in tandem to make them a cohesive group.

4.4 International Trade

Export and import of goods and services are an integral part of the UAE economy. Within the developing global economy, these tools will be playing a greater role, which could represent a greater advantage to the economy of the country in the emerging global context. During the year 1996, the export of goods and services touched a new height of AED 125.8 billion; this was primarily due to high world prices of oil and gas, but the role played by the non-oil sector was no less important. Imports of goods and services during the year stood at AED 105.8 billion, creating a surplus of AED 20 million to the balance of payments, (BOP).

This is a quantum jump, as the BOP surplus during the year 1995 was only AED 10.4 billion. Similar to GDP, the BOP position of UAE too has been fluctuating over the years, giving an impression that the BOP depends to a large extent on the export of oil and gas and the prevailing world oil prices (Arab Monetary Fund, 1993). It seems that exporting oil and gas will continue to represent the UAE's largest contribution to the world economy, at least in the first decade of the 21st -century. This outcome has profound implications for the specific nature of the UAE labour force, and its economic expectations.

4.5 Consumption and Investment spending

Figures from the Ministry of Planning and the Central Bank show an overall increase on all other economic indicators. The national income of the country was estimated at AED 148.6 billion in 1996, as compared to AED 130.9 billion in 1995. The final consumption figure, which includes spending on goods and services by the government and private individuals, increased from AED 94.7 billion in 1995 to AED 100.5 billion in 1996. In this context, it is worth attempting an analysis of the data on private and public consumption and total investment, which are available for the years 1982-1992 (Table 4.5).

The data presented in the table have been computed by collecting information on private consumption, public consumption, total consumption expenditure and investment, for the years 1982-96. The data for the years 1982-92 were collected from the National Accounts Statistics as published by the Arab Monetary Fund (1993) while data for the years 1993-96 were compiled from statistical year books (UAE, 1996). The researcher has calculated the indices in the table by using a Fixed Base Index, with 1982 as the base year. The indices were calculated to demonstrate the relative growth in consumption and investment spending.

Table 4. 5
Growth of Private and Public Consumption and
Investment spending in UAE

Years	Index of Private Consumption	Index of Public Consumption	Index of Total Consumption	Index of Total Investment
1982	100	100	100	100
1983	104	87	96	100
1984	102	80	92	91
1985	105	89	98	78
1986	118	80	101	74
1987	126	81	106	65
1988	144	85	117	68
1989	158	89	127	73
1990	174	91	137	79
1991	191	96	148	85
1992	217	104	166	98
1995			194	123
1996			205	127

It may be seen from the table that the private consumption expenditure has steadily risen during the period without any decline. In fact, it has more than doubled during the decade. Public expenditure, on the other hand, has shown some swinging trends. When compared to 1982, it kept declining till 1987. Since then, it has recorded an increasing trend, but up only 4% in 1992 as compared to 1982. Quite naturally, the total consumption expenditure indicates a fall until 1985 as compared to 1982. It has since then shown an upward trend and stands, in 1992, at nearly 66% higher than 1982 figures

Investment spending, however, suffered a severe jolt during the period 1982 to 87, when it recorded a decline of nearly 35%; since then, investment spending has been continuously rising and nearly touched the mark of 1982. However, by the year 1996, the total consumption expenditure has more than doubled, while total investment spending was up by 27%. Is this reflective of the policy changes that the UAE government has implemented in the nineties, or is this too an effect of the booming oil market? The answer should consider the rapid development of the global economy process, and its impact on policy makers in the UAE.

4.6 Demographic structure

This is regarded as somewhat controversial within the economic development of the UAE and has been a matter of grave concern among both policy makers and academics. It is the issue of the large number of expatriate communities in the UAE. This section of the chapter aims at probing, in some detail, the genesis, causes and concerns of the migrant workforce present in the UAE. The chapter is intended to serve as a basis for chapter 5, which deals with issues arising out of employing a large culturally diverse workforce in the UAE.

It has been argued before that the poor economic conditions prior to oil exploration and harsh living conditions of the region did not allow a settled population in the region. By the time oil was discovered and its revenue brought prosperity to the nation, the much needed manpower necessary to undertake development and maintenance work both skilled and unskilled- were simply not available within the country. As a result, the country had to

depend on its migrant workforce. Besides, the region presently constituting the UAE had had a long tradition of immigration. The only difference in the situation now and in the past is that previously immigrants were basically traders and merchants, while the present scenario is that of the working population arriving in the country in search of jobs and gainful employment. Before the analysis, it is necessary to first elaborate on some of the colloquial terms commonly used in the region, and hence form much of the following sections.

4.7 Nationals or Locals

A term widely used for the native population. The term means and includes all the members of the community who possess the nationality of the UAE, either by birth or by naturalisation. It may be noted that citizenship is not straightforward, but has some rules of granting nationality to people under certain strict conditions. In the past and in its early stages of development, the country granted nationality to, rather a substantial number of people inhabiting the region but belonging to such neighbouring countries as Oman, Bahrain, Iran, Qatar and Yemen. So, you find two distinct categories of nationals in the country; those who lived on the country's lands, and were native inhabitants; the other category of nationals consists of the surrounding states' population which was granted citizenship.

4.8 Expatriates or Expats

This is a term used for all persons living in the country who are not nationals. These people possess nationalities of other countries, and may enter the UAE freely or by obtaining an Entry Permit or Visa, depending upon their nationalities. The expatriates are further classified into groups:

GCC Nationals: These are the nationals of countries forming part of the Arabian

Gulf Co-operation Council. These countries include Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and United Arab Emirates. Under the Gulf Co-operation Council agreement, the nationals of these countries can travel among all the GCC countries without the requirement of visa or entry permit. They need not even possess their passport; their identity card is the only document required for travel. The nationals of the GCC country can enter into the country, seek work, and organise establishments with the least hindrance. These nationalities are to be considered on a par with the nationals or locals in the matter of employment and job preference.

Arab Expatriates or Arabs: A much broader category, comprising of people from Asian and other countries whose native or official language is Arabic. These countries include Jordan, Bahrain, Tunisia, Algeria, Saudi Arabia, Sudan, Syria, Somalia, Iraq, Oman, Qatar, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Egypt, Morocco, Moon Island, Mauritania, Djibouti, Yemen and the United Arab Emirates. It will be noted that the term Arab Expatriates is used in a much broader sense, and covers the nationals of the GCC and other Arab countries of Asia and Africa.

Foreigners: All expatriates other than the Arab expatriates are termed foreigners. This includes Asian, European, American and other nationalities.

Stateless People: There are a small number of persons who have been living in the territory of the UAE but have neither UAE nationalities, nor passports of other countries.

Illegal Immigrants: Any person staying in the country in violation of its residency laws is regarded as an illegal immigrant. These might comprise the people who entered the country without proper documents or those who failed to renew their entry permits in time.

One major problem faced by an analyst is the absence of reliable data on the expatriate population across different years. The first comprehensive census of the UAE, which was taken in the year 1985, does not give a detailed breakdown of the population in the nationals and expatriates categories. The most recent census was undertaken in 1995, the

final report of which is still pending. It is however not likely that the report will come up with detailed categorisation of the expatriate population. The preliminary result that was issued in 1996 does, nonetheless, give data on the size of the expatriate population.

The only reliable official estimate of the expatriate population that is available is in the form of a sample survey that was undertaken by the Department of Planning of the Emirate of Abu Dhabi in 1994. The report gives detailed data on various aspects of the Emirates' demography by classification of the Nationals and Expatriates while some data is available on three-tier classification of Nationals, Arabs and Foreigners.

The Ministry of Planning of Dubai undertook a similar survey in 1993, which gives data in an almost similar format. Some efforts have also been made by private consultants to compile data on the population of the GCC countries by nationality. The following section is based on available data from all possible sources with appropriate referencing.

4.9 The Expatriate Population

The expatriate population in the UAE is substantial in size. Estimates based on the 1995 census and births and deaths of nationals show that 25% of the UAE are nationals, while 75% are expatriates. Amongst expatriates, the Asians, mostly from India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka and The Philippines, constitute the majority, nearly 60% of the total population. The Arab expatriates form around 12%, while others, including Europeans and Americans, about 2% (Dryland, 1997). It is further estimated that the population of expatriates during the period 1995-98 is likely to grow by 4% per year, whereas that of nationals will have a growth rate of 3%.

The analysis further reveals that more than 80% of the total expatriates are from Asian countries, with 41% coming from India, 20% from Pakistan, and the rest from other Asian countries. The Arabs constitute 16% of the total expatriate population, while the Europeans, American and other nationals constitute 4% of the expatriate population. The analysis of the working expatriates shows that 85% of them are from Asia, while Arabs

constitute only 13% (Table 4.6).

Data on dependants as a %age of the total expatriate population is far more revealing in the context of the UAE. Not all working expatriates can sponsor their families; they must satisfy certain strict qualifying conditions, a high salary or belonging to some priority category of professionals, in order to be able to bring their families on a residence visa. The data, interpreted in this context, give an insight into the economic status of the different ethnic groups in the country. It is found that amongst Asians, the dependent population is only 17% of the total expatriate population, while in the case of Arabs and Europeans, it stands at 40% each. The dependants constitute 55-57% of their ethnic population in the case of Americans and Africans.

Table 4. 6
Expatriate Population in UAE by Major Ethnic Groups
(Population in 000)

Nationality	Working Expatriates	Dependent Expatriates	Total Expatriates	Dependants as % of total expatriates	Distribution of working expatriates	Distribution of total expatriates
Asian	1186	249	1435	17%	85%	81%
1. India	585	144	729	20%	42%	41%
2. Pakistan	293	68	361	19%	21%	20%
3. Bangladesh	105	8	113	7%	8%	6%
4. Sri Lanka	87	4	91	4%	6%	5%
5. Philippines	70	8	78	10%	5%	4%
6. Iran	35	14	49	29%	3%	3%
7. Others	10	2	12	17%	1%	1%
Arabs	175	118	293	40%	13%	16%
1. Egypt	53	30	83	36%	4%	5%
2. Syria	28	14	42	33%	2%	2%
3. Jordan	19	18	37	49%	1%	2%
4. Palestine	15	16	31	52%	1%	2%
5. Lebanon	17	10	27	37%	1%	2%
6. Sudan	17	8	25	32%	1%	1%
7. Yemen	12	10	22	45%	1%	1%
8. Somalia	5	6	11	55%	0%	1%
9. Others	8	4	12	33%	1%	1%
European	21	14	35	40%	2%	2%
1. UK	12	8	20	40%	1%	1%
2. Others	9	6	15	40%	1%	1%
American	5	6	11	55%	0%	1%
African	3	4	7	57%	0%	0%
Others	1	0	1	0%	0%	0%
Total	1390	390	1780	22%	100%	100%

Source: Adapted from Dryland Consultants, (1997)

In simple terms, a large proportion of the Asian workers are either not able to bring their families into the UAE because of the low-paid occupation they are engaged in, or they simply are less keen to bring their families to the country for one reason or another. The economic factor might be the predominant reason. This tendency has implications for a number of other issues as well. The expatriate population which is staying in the country on family status, must be spending a larger part of their UAE income in the country, and thus increasing the private consumption of the country whereas those staying alone must be making substantial savings to be sent home, thus causing a drain on the foreign exchange reserves of the country (Al Lamki, 1997). However, when evaluating from a developmental point of view, and the associated broader understanding of this situation, these savings can represent a positive contribution from the UAE economy to the economies of these expatriates' native countries by remittance income. One should remember that these expatriates have in fact contributed to the development of the UAE economy by working in it. Policy makers in the country need to be aware of the positive and negative aspects of this issue, in order to develop the most appropriate strategy.

Around 27% of the total population are in the age group of less than 14 years. The population of the expatriates in the same age group is 20%, while those of nationals is around 47%. The age group 15-49, which may be regarded as the most active age group, constitutes 68% of the population; while 43% of the total population in this age group is of national status, the expatriates constitute 76%. As the age group increases, the expatriate population declines sharply. In the 60-69 age group, for example, the expatriates are only 4%. Similarly, in the 70+ age group the population of the expatriates is only negligible, less than 1%. Quite obviously, most of the expatriates spend their most active years in the country, and as they age they leave the country to be settled elsewhere, mostly in their home countries.

Besides, this is also on account of the stricter laws discouraging residence by expatriates over 60 years of age in the UAE. They are granted a residence permit only in very exceptional circumstances. On this, data are not available in the official statistics; the conclusions are based on statistical data from Dryland Consultants. They have estimated this data by compiling suitable statistics from a number of sources. The age cohort 0-19 of

nationals has been derived from births during the years 1976-1995; the age cohort 20+ of the nationals have been assumed to be in the same proportion for all the UAE as Dubai national's 1994 estimates. The age cohort 0-4 for the expatriates has been derived from births during 1991-95, whereas the age cohort 5-17 for the expatriates has been derived from students in the government and private schools. The age cohort 18+ for the expatriates has been modelled on expatriates in Bahrain 1991 census (Dryland Consultants, 1997).

4.10 Population and Workforce

In 1968, when the British finally decided to leave the country for good, the population of the United Arab Emirates was a mere 180,200, of which 78,100 were gainfully employed, calculating the work participation rate at 43%. By the year 1975, four years after the formation of the Federation, and a few years of oil wealth that created tremendous job opportunities, the population grew to nearly 558,000 recording a jump of more than 200% in a short span of 8 years. Since then, the population of the country has been continuously increasing (Table 4.7).

Table 4.7
Population growth and work participation rate in UAE

Years	Population	Workforce	Participation Rate(%)
1968	180,200	78,100	43%
1970	227,000		
1975	557,887	296,500	53%
1980	1,042,099		
1985	1,379,300	619,400	45%
1986	1,460,500	621,800	43%
1987	1,547,100	624,800	40%
1988	1,639,600	643,700	39%
1989	1,738,500	668,200	38%
1990	1,844,300	694,200	38%
1991	1,908,800	737,700	39%
1992	2,011,400	799,000	40%
1993	2,083,100	860,000	41%
1994	2,230,000	913,000	41%
1995	2,377,453	1,289,654	54%

The data on population and workforce for the years 1968-80 have been taken from the article published in a volume (Farjani, 1983), while data for the years 1985-95 have been collected from the statistical publication of the Ministry of Planning of the UAE (UAE, 1996). The researcher computed work participation rates which is the workforce as a percentage of the total population.

From the preliminary result of the 1995 census, the population in 1995 stood at 2.38 million and was estimated to be 2.72 million by 1998. The work participation rate i.e. the ratio of working population to the total population, stood at 53% in 1975 and gradually declined to 39% by 1991; since then, it has once again shown a rising trend, and was estimated to be 54% in 1995.

During the period 1975-80, the population increased another 86%, and as mentioned earlier, the population of the country more than doubled in 1995 since 1982 (Table 4.3). Many people have raised the question as to whether such a rapid expansion in the population, caused solely by the immigrant workforce recruited mostly from Asian countries, was at all necessary. Many have even suggested that the UAE economy suffers from surplus manpower.

Yet another interesting statistic that is often quoted as a problem area by many demographers is the unbalanced male-female ratio. From the 1995 census, there were 797,710 women as compared to 1,579,743 men giving a male-female ratio of approximately 2:1. Many have a notion that such a tilted ratio might cause severe social and cultural problems for the country. In this context, the ratio is indicative of the social and familial status of the expatriate population. The main reason for such an unbalanced ratio lies in the fact that the population of the UAE largely comprises the expatriate workforce, which in turn is largely composed of men, except in the case of a very few occupations, such as housemaids, nurses and those employed in the ready-made garments' sector. Besides, most of the immigrant workers either prefer to keep their families back home, or are not permitted, or simply find it inconvenient to bring their families

According to a private estimate, the female population of nationals stood at 294,000 in 1995 compared to 302,000 males, thus giving a male-female ratio for the nationals of about

1:1. The male population for the expatriates, however, was estimated to be at 1.28 million in 1995, whereas the population of the expatriate womenfolk was a mere 503,000. Thus, for the expatriates, the male-female ratio calculates at 2.54:1 (Dryland Consultants, 1997).

4.11 Economically Active Population

According to preliminary results of the 1995 census, the total workforce has been estimated at 1.29 million, giving a work participation rate of 54.2%. A further breakdown of the available data indicates that the work participation rate for male members of the population is as high as about 72% while that for the females is only 19% (UAE, 1996). Females, as a percentage of the total workforce in 1985, were less than 10%. This ratio has slightly improved to 12% in 1995.

The unemployment rate which during the period 1975-85 was limited to nearly 1%, has however been reported to have risen to 2.6%. Further details of the employment status of the economically active population, in the age group of 15 years and above, are available only for the years 1975, 1980 and 1985. The proportion of the employed has remained consistently steady with figures ranging between 72 and 74 %. About 18% of the active workforce consists of housewives whereas 4% have been students.. Another 4% of the economically active workforce in 1975, was reported to be unable to work; this proportion has since decreased to 2%. Similarly, the percentage of people in the active age group reporting unwillingness to work has also declined from 1% in 1975 to only a fraction of 1% in 1985 (Table 4.8).

Table 4. 8
Employment status of population in active age group
(15 years & above)

Employment status	1975	%	1980	%	1985	%
Employed	288,051	72	553,340	74	675,989	72
Unemployed	5,737	1	6,620	1	7,836	1
Housewives	73,405	18	130,681	18	168,056	18
Students	14,498	4	34,910	5	63,766	7
Unwilling to Work	3,784	1	2,125	0	2,555	0
Unable to Work	14,695	4	16,427	2	20,255	2
Not Stated	487	0	63	0	171	0
Total	400,657	100	744,166	100	938,628	100

The data used in the table have been compiled from the Annual Statistical Abstract for the year 1993, the latest available from the Department of Planning of the UAE (UAE, 1993). The researcher has worked out the percentage columns. A further breakdown of the active working population, excluding students, housewives, and those unable to work or unwilling to work has also been compiled for the years 1968 to 1985. In 1968, 3% of the active workforce acted as employers and work providers to others.

Though the number of entrepreneurs has substantially risen from a mere 2,632 in 1968 to about 15,000 in 1985, they presently constitute a mere 2% of the active workforce. The own-account workers or the self-employed, which were more than 20%, has sharply declined to 5% in 1985. The proportion of the paid workers or employees has substantially risen from 72% in 1968 to 92% in 1995 (Table 4.9).

Table 4.9
Active workforce by type of employment
(15 Years & above)

Employment Type	1968	%	1975	%	1980	%	1985	%
Employers	2632	3	5109	2	9760	2	14836	2
Own Account Workers	15264	20	21542	7	28353	5	36471	5
Employees	55327	71	262647	89	518969	93	628441	92
Unpaid Workers	2171	3	505	0	289	0	375	0
Not Stated	00	0	433	0	150	0	465	0
Unemployed	2686	3	3552	1	2439	0	3237	0
Total	78071	100	293788	100	559960	100	683825	100

The data for the table have been collected from two sources. The data for the year 1968 are taken from an edited volume on population and workforce in the UAE (Farjani, 1983), while those for the years 1975-85 are from the official statistics of the Ministry of Planning, UAE (UAE, 1993). The researcher has calculated the %ages.

A further classification according to the type of employment could be compiled only for the years 1980 and 1985. The proportion of population working in the local and federal government offices has remained stagnant at about 31%, whereas the proportion of the active workforce in public sector enterprises has increased from 4% in 1980 to 6% in 1985.

The proportion of workers in the private sector, on the other hand, has declined from 53% in 1980 to 44% in 1985. It is clear from the data that there has been a substantial increase in the number of workers within the informal sector (Table 4.10).

Table 4. 10
Economically active workforce by sector of employment
(15 years & above)

Employment Type	1980	%	1985	%
Federal Government	107485	19	120373	18
Local Government	65418	12	90983	13
Public Sector	25032	4	40501	6
Private Establishment	298533	53	303309	44
Other Establishment			3842	1
Without Establishment	56143	10	117313	17
International Organisations	1567	0		0
Abroad	3219	1	3957	1
Not Stated	124	0	310	0
Seeking Work for First Time	2439	0	3237	0
Total	559960	100	683825	100

The data for this table have been taken from the Annual Statistical Abstract of the Ministry of Planning, UAE (UAE, 1993). The researcher has worked out the %ages. The proportion of workers without establishment, largely comprising workers in the household sector, including housemaids, private drivers, cooks and domestic servants, has increased from 10% in 1980 to more than 18% in 1985.

It will be shown later in this chapter that almost all such workers are expatriates from such Asian countries as India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Bangladesh and the Philippines. Are these workers necessary for the growth of the country? What are the reasons for employing such a large number of domestic help? Issues like this have been discussed by a number of economists, manpower planners and public administrators. However, these questions will not be a matter of discussion in this thesis, but will be occasionally referred to, as in the section of the literature survey, because this category of workers has been a much debated topic amongst the scholars concerned with the reduction of the expatriate workforce in the UAE.

A glance at the distribution of workforce across sectors of the economy provides an ample indication of the dominant sectors (Table 4.11)

Table 4. 11
Distribution of workforce across Industries
(Population aged 15 years & above) in %

INDUSTRIES	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995
Agriculture, Forestry, Hunting & Fishing	5	5	8	11	7
Mining, Quarrying & Petroleum Extraction	2	2	2	2	1
Manufacturing	6	6	7	9	10
Electricity, Gas & Water	2	2	2	2	2
Building & Construction	32	28	17	9	16
Wholesale & Retail Trade Restaurant & Hotel	13	13	14	13	18
Transport, Storage & Communication	8	8	7	6	9
Financing, Insurance & Real Estate & Business Services	2	3	3	4	5
Community, Social & Personal Services	29	34	39	44	30
Seeking Work for First Time	1	0	0	0	0
Total Working Population	100	100	100	100	100

Note: Figures for 1990 & 1995 are estimates.

The data presented in the table has been computed on the basis of workforce statistics collected from different sources. The data on the workforce across the industry groups for the years 1985-1990 were collected from different tables in the Socio-economic statistics-1985-1990, as published by the Ministry of Planning, UAE (UAE, 1993). The data for the year 1975 were taken from Farjani (1983), whereas the data for the year 1995 were compiled from the brochures of the Ministry of Planning, UAE (UAE, 1996). The researcher has worked out the % ages given in the table. However, the basic statistical table on the exact number of workforce under each category for the years 1975-95 has not been presented.

It is apparent from the above table that the building and construction sector has been the largest employer of the active workforce with its share of 32%, though this has gradually declined over a period of time. The sector was estimated in 1995 to be employing about 16% of the active workforce. Further, in 1990, the workforce employed in the construction sector was merely 9%; since then, it has shown a rising trend once again. It is largely believed that the construction sector has reached saturation and will experience a sharp

decline in the near future. This belief appeared to be true until 1990 when the share of the construction sector declined from 32% in 1975 to a mere 9%. However, by the year 1995, the building and construction sector had once again shot up to 16%.

Next to the construction sector is the community, social & personal services sector. This comprises Government services, domestic servants and household workers. This sector used to provide 29% of the work in 1975, but has now assumed far greater importance, with nearly 44% of the active workforce engaged in this function in 1990. It is however estimated that the proportion of workers in this category had substantially declined to 30% by the end of 1995. A further breakdown of this sector indicates that while about 14% of jobs were provided by the government sector in 1995, about 16% of the work was within domestic and household services.

The proportion of workers in trade-related activities rose from 13% in 1975 to about 18% in 1995. The mining and manufacturing sectors, on the other hand, provide jobs to nearly 11% of the workforce. The financial and services sector, which has been growing rapidly in terms of its share in the GDP, employed 14% of the work force in 1995 as compared to 10% in 1975. A comparison between the relative contribution in the GDP and share in the workforce indicates that the labour-intensive sectors provide more jobs than the capital-intensive ones. Further, it also gives a clue that some of the sectors like construction still depend on labour-intensive techniques rather than capital-intensive technology. It is important in this context that many experts are of the opinion that in capital-rich but population-starved countries, replacement of the expatriate labour is possible through adoption of labour-saving technology.

A discussion on the quality of manpower is absolutely essential to fulfil the aims of this study. The researcher compiled data for the years 1985 and 1990 on occupational status of professionals working in the country both national as well as expatriate (Table 4.12).

Table 4.12
Economically active population by occupational status
(15 years & above)

Occupational status	1985	%	1990*	%	Growth over 1985(%)
Professionals	76,472	11	100,793	12	32
Administrators & Managers	14,557	2	18,435	2	27
Clerks and office workers	81,531	12	88,816	10	9
Salesmen	52,193	8	79,272	9	52
Service workers	141,904	21	231,412	27	63
Farm workers	48,927	7	85,803	10	75
Factory workers, Transport equipment operators & Labourers	264,478	39	257,831	30	-3
Occupation not adequately defined	2	0		0	
Occupation not stated	524	0		0	
Seeking work for first time	3,237	0	3,938	0	22
TOTAL	683,825	100	866,300	100	

The number of professional and technical manpower, who represent the highly qualified category of doctors, engineers, school and university teachers, etc., has risen substantially, more than 32%, between 1985 and 1990, but their proportion has remained between 11 to 12%. The administrators and managers have contributed around 2%, with an increase of nearly 27% during the period. The number of clerks and office workers, of course, declined by about 9%, pushing its proportion down from 12% in 1985 to around 10 % in 1990. The proportion of the active workforce working as sales staff has been between 8 to 9 %, whereas the farm-related workers have risen to 10%, as compared to 7% in 1985. In fact, this category of workers rose by more than 75% during the five-year period.

This is reflective of the development works in the field of agriculture, forestry and fisheries. A substantial part of the active workforce is employed in production-related work: factory workers, drivers, heavy vehicle and equipment operators. This is despite a 3% decline in their number and a proportionate 9 % fall. A substantial amount of these workers might be engaged in construction, which despite several ups and downs, has been a major economic activity in the post-oil UAE.

Interestingly, in spite of growing concerns of the increasing number of expatriate

workforce in the country, the number and proportion of service workers, who basically constitute the workers employed in the household sector have risen sharply. The number of such service workers increased by around 63% in 1985 while, as a proportion of the total economically active population, it has gone up from 21% in 1985 to 27% in 1990.

4.12 Literacy & Educational Profile

The literacy rate works out at 84.6% for the total population in 1995, whereas the female literacy rate is a bit lower at 82.6%. Compared to the position in 1971, it is a marked improvement. In 1975, nearly 44% of the population, then aged 10 years or more, were illiterate. By 1985, when the first comprehensive census was undertaken, the illiteracy rate was estimated at 26%, which had further improved by 1992, when it was recorded at around 20% (Table 4.13).

Table: 4.13
Educational Profile of the UAE Population
(Aged 10 years & above) %

Level of Education	1975	1980	1985	1990	1991	1992
Illiterate	44	32	26	21	20	20
Literate	27	23	25	22	23	23
Primary	8	12	12	9	9	9
Prep	7	10	12	13	13	13
Secondary	9	14	14	15	15	15
Below University	1	3	3	7	7	7
First Degree	4	6	7	12	12	12
Postgraduates	0	1	1	1	1	1
Not Stated	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Note: Figures for the years 1990-1992 are governmental estimates.

If we however segregate the data according to nationality, and then calculate the level of literacy, the results work out to be a bit different. According to an estimate available for the year 1995, there were about 21% of the local population in the age group of 10 years and above, categorised as illiterates, with male and female illiteracy among nationals estimated at 19.4 and 23%, respectively. In comparison, only 10.21% of the expatriates were found to

be illiterate, with illiteracy among the men and women working out to be 13.3 and 0.01%, respectively (Dryland Consultants, 1997).

The proportion of population who are just literate, meaning they can just read and write though do not have any formal level of education, has declined from 27% in 1975 to 23% in 1992. Even in 1992, more than 46% of the population aged 10 years or more was either illiterate or only semi-literate. Perhaps, this is mainly on account of the type of expatriate workers that are present in the country.

We have seen in the earlier section of this chapter that a large section of the workforce comprises construction, factory, farming and household workers, and accordingly have lower expectations of their education. Many of them acquire their skills through informal training or apprenticeships with fellow workers back home, and thus might be just qualified enough to carry out their assigned job.

The proportion of the population educated up to the primary level is estimated to be about 9% while those educated up to the preparatory level have increased from 7% in 1975 to 13% in 1992. There had been a significant rise in the number of university graduates, up from about 5% in 1975 to about 20% in 1992.

As far the literacy and educational status of expatriates are concerned, 10% of them are illiterate, while 4% can only just read and write. Nearly 15% of the expatriate population are diploma or degree holders. What is more important, however, is the fact that all of the diploma holders, and more than 88% of the university degree holders in the country are expatriates, but it is also a fact that of all the illiterates, 65% are expatriates. (Table 4.14)

Table 4.14
Educational Status of the UAE population (10 years & above) by Nationality

Educational Status	Distribution among Nationals	Distribution among Expatriates	Proportion of Nationals	Proportion of Expatriates
Illiterate	21%	10%	35%	65%
Read & Write	17%	4%	55%	45%
Primary	16%	24%	15%	85%
Preparatory	19%	14%	27%	73%
Secondary	21%	33%	14%	86%
Diploma	0%	3%	0%	100%
University	6%	12%	12%	88%
Total	100%	100%	21%	79%

It may nevertheless be noted that during the year 1996-97, the country launched a drive to repatriate illegal immigrants from the UAE and tightened the laws governing sponsorship and visas for family residence. As a result, there has been substantial decline in the number of the expatriate population and their rate of growth may not continue to be the same. Nonetheless, a reversal of the old rules is currently being witnessed. The government has, in fact, eased the family residence visa rules once again, and it is believed that the population of the expatriates will soon be growing at about the same rate as before the amnesty. In the absence of reliable data in this regard, it would however be premature to draw any definite conclusion.

As the present study is largely based on data collected from the respondents working in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi, it seems necessary to provide a brief description of the economic development and demographic structure of the Emirate of Abu Dhabi as well. Although the Emirate of Abu Dhabi is not a different case from the rest of the United Arab Emirates, a discussion on its demographic structure and workforce composition would enable the reader to better understand the chapters on the analysis of empirical data.

4.13 Emirate of Abu Dhabi: Economic Development and Demographic Structure

The Emirate of Abu Dhabi lies on the Arabian Gulf between latitudes (22,5 & 25) North and longitudes (51 & 55) East. The total area of the Emirate is 67,340 square kilometres. The climate is primarily arid. The absolute maximum temperature during summer ranges from 39 to 46° C, whereas at times humidity touches 100%. The maximum temperature is 47.3 degrees, and minimum annual average stands at 27.2 ° C. The mean relative humidity rate is between 37 and 83%. The area normally witnesses rainfall during the winter with the maximum average occurring during December.

Abu Dhabi, once a poor and undeveloped economy, sustained its people on fishing and pearling, and on simple agriculture scattered around inland oases like Liwa and Al Ain, until the discovery of oil. It is now one of the richest regions of the world. With GDP standing at AED 86.15 billion and a population size of only 929,909 in 1995, the Emirate of Abu Dhabi is one of the richest countries of the world (Emirate of Abu Dhabi, 1996). The UAE, one of the richest countries in terms of per capita GDP has come a long way, and today boasts the best economic achievements in the shortest possible period of time. Undoubtedly, much of the development process in the country owing to the discovery of oil. Although the contribution of the other sectors of the economy has been substantially rising in recent times, the oil sector still plays a predominant role. The country, in 1996, produced 2.23 million barrels per day, bringing oil export revenue of AED 54 million.

The Emirate of Abu Dhabi represents 87% of the total area of the UAE and is thus known as the largest of the seven Emirates forming part of the UAE. The Emirate of Abu Dhabi is by far the biggest oil producer Emirate in the UAE. Its oil output stands at around 84% of the total oil produced by the country as a whole. In terms of oil reserves, Abu Dhabi accounts for more than 93% of the country's total of 98 billion barrels. Table 4.15 compares the GDP of the Emirate of Abu Dhabi with the other seven Emirates. The data on GDP used in the table have been taken from the Chamber of Commerce & Industry publication for the year 1997 (ADCCI, 1997), whereas the researcher has computed the percentage shares of respective Emirates.

Table 4.15
Abu Dhabi and other Emirates, GDP at factor cost
(1993-95)

Emirates	GDP (Million AED)			%age Share		
	1993	1994	1995	1993	1994	1995
Abu Dhabi	80660	80556	87950	61.1	59.6	61.1
Dubai	31845	33629	34600	24.1	24.9	24.0
Sharjah	10872	11702	12040	8.2	8.7	8.4
Ras Al Khaima	4053	4257	4290	3.1	3.2	3.0
Fujairah	2105	2216	2275	1.6	1.6	1.6
Ajman	1696	1775	1850	1.3	1.3	1.3
Umm Al Quwain	885	933	965	0.7	0.7	0.7
Total UAE	132116	135068	143970	100	100	100

It is clear from the table that the Emirate of Abu Dhabi is the richest in terms of GDP, and accounts for around 60% of total GDP of the UAE. The Emirate of Dubai, better known as the commercial capital of the UAE stand next to the Emirate of Abu Dhabi, as it accounts for around 24% of GDP. Despite fluctuations in GDP of the Emirate of Abu Dhabi, mostly due to world oil prices, the fact remains that the Emirate of Abu Dhabi has been continually maintaining its economic supremacy over other emirates. It is important to note that in the year 1994 the GDP of the Emirate of Abu Dhabi recorded a growth rate of 9.18% over 1993 while the growth rate in GDP recorded by the UAE was only 6.59% during the corresponding period. This is not to purport that the Emirate of Abu Dhabi has been recording a consistently higher growth rate in comparison to other Emirates. As mentioned earlier, this is largely determined by the oil prices. If we compare the growth rate recorded by the Emirate of Abu Dhabi and the UAE in 1993 over 1992, we find that the UAE recorded a growth rate of 2.23% while Abu Dhabi witnessed a negative growth of 0.13%.

Table 4.16 below gives the sector distribution of GDP in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi. The data on the value of GDP at factor cost for the years 1993 and 1994 have been taken from the Abu Dhabi Chamber of Commerce & Industry (ADCCI, 1997), whereas the researcher has worked out the percentages.

Table 4.16
Abu Dhabi GDP by Economic Sectors

Sectors	1993		1994	
	Value in Million AED	%	Value in Million AED	%
Agriculture, Livestock & Fishing	1400	1.7	1498	1.9
Crude Oil	39745	49.3	37774	46.9
Other Mining & Quarrying	39	0.0	44	0.1
Manufacturing	6347	7.9	6575	8.2
Water & Electricity	1335	1.7	1467	1.8
Construction	7165	8.9	7475	9.3
Internal Trade, Restaurant & Hotel	5620	7.0	6002	7.5
Transport, Storage & Communication	3041	3.8	3182	4.0
Finance & Insurance	2769	3.4	2891	3.6
Real Estate	5095	6.3	5283	6.6
Other services	524	0.6	589	0.7
Producers of government services	8224	10.2	8395	10.4
Domestic services	325	0.4	387	0.5
Less: Imputed bank services charge	-969	-1.2	-1006	-1.2
Total	80660	100	80556	100

It may be noted that the contribution of the oil sector in the GDP of the Emirate of Abu Dhabi has been less than 50%. To be precise, it was 49.3% in 1993 and declined further to 46.9% in 1994. The contribution of the agricultural, livestock and fishing sector has been around 2%. This is no less an important figure considering the fact that the Emirate of Abu Dhabi largely comprises desert land. The mining, quarrying and other manufacturing sectors contribute around 8%. The services sector thus plays an important role, with its contribution ranging around 45%. Among the services sector, the government services contribute around 10% whereas the construction and internal trade sectors contribute around 9 and 8%, respectively. The contribution of the finance and insurance sector has been in the range of 3-4%.

The Gross Fixed Capital Formation, which indicates the investment by a country, and thus comments on the potential of long-term growth, has also been rising substantially. Table 4.17 below presents a comparative picture of the Gross Fixed Capital Formation by different Emirates of the UAE. The data on the capital formation has been compiled from the publication of the Abu Dhabi Chamber of Commerce and Industry (ADCCI, 1997). The researcher has computed the percentage shares of respective emirates.

Table 4. 17
Gross Fixed Capital Formation
in Abu Dhabi and other Emirates

Emirates	Value in Million AED			%age Share		
	1992	1993	1994	1992	1993	1994
Abu Dhabi	17970	23965	24537	60.3	65.9	65.7
Dubai	7446	7503	7654	25.0	20.6	20.5
Sharjah	2598	2937	3025	8.7	8.1	8.1
Ras Al Khaima	756	811	892	2.5	2.2	2.4
Fujairah	435	569	595	1.5	1.6	1.6
Ajman	342	379	418	1.1	1.0	1.1
Umm Al Quwain	255	195	205	0.9	0.5	0.5
Total UAE	29802	36359	37326	100	100	100
Annual Increase (UAE)		22.00%	2.66%			
Annual Increase (Abu Dhabi)		33.36%	2.39%			

The Gross Fixed Capital Formation by the Emirate of Abu Dhabi ranged between 60 and 65% of the total Gross Fixed Capital Formation by the UAE. Abu Dhabi is followed by the Emirate of Dubai, which contributes around 20 to 25 % in the Gross Fixed Capital Formation of the country. In terms of percentage annual increase, the Gross Fixed Capital Formation in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi increased 33.36% in 1994 but only by 2.39% in 1995.

Quite naturally, the Emirate of Abu Dhabi employs workers commensurate with its economic development. Table 4.18 below presents the number of workers employed in different Emirates of the UAE during the years 1992-1994. The data on the number of workers have been taken from the publication of the Abu Dhabi Chamber of Commerce and Industry (ADCCI, 1997). The researcher has worked out the percentages of the respective emirates.

Table 4.18
Workers in Abu Dhabi and other Emirates

Emirates	Number of workers			%age Share		
	1992	1993	1994	1992	1993	1994
Abu Dhabi	333666	357473	376133	41.7	41.6	41.2
Dubai	233103	253527	270385	29.2	29.5	29.6
Sharjah	118556	128185	139092	14.8	14.9	15.2
Ras Al Khaima	53653	55866	58877	6.7	6.5	6.4
Fujairah	26690	28099	28627	3.3	3.3	3.1
Ajman	22471	24344	26810	2.8	2.8	2.9
Umm Al Quwain	11288	12223	13007	1.4	1.4	1.4
Total UAE	799427	859717	912931	100	100	100
Annual Increase (UAE)		7.54%	6.19%			
Annual Increase (Abu Dhabi)		7.13%	5.22%			

It is clear from the table that the Emirate of Abu Dhabi has been employing the largest number of workforce both in absolute numbers as well as in terms of percentages. In the year 1992, the Emirates employed a total of 799,427 workers, of which the Emirate of Abu Dhabi employed 333,666. The number of the workforce in the Emirates has steadily risen to 912,931 in the year 1995, of which the Emirate of Abu Dhabi employed as many as 376,133 workers. The Emirate of Abu Dhabi has thus been employing around 41% of the total workforce in the UAE. The Emirate of Dubai follows by employing more than 29% of the total workforce of the UAE. The Gross Fixed Capital Formation by the UAE in 1995 stood at AED 37,326 million, whereas in the year 1992, it stood at AED 29802 million. In terms of annual increase, the Gross Fixed Capital Formation registered an increase of 22 and 2.66% in 1993 and 1994, respectively.

It is clear from the above discussion that the Emirate of Abu Dhabi is not only the capital of the UAE but is also the biggest and wealthiest Emirate. It is for this reason that the present study has chosen the Emirate of Abu Dhabi for a detailed study of the management of human resources in the UAE. The following section presents a detailed account of the demographic structure and profile of the Emirate of Abu Dhabi in order to provide a clear background to the discussions that will follow in the following chapters of this thesis.

4.14 Demographic Profile of Emirate of Abu Dhabi

Table 4.19 below gives data on the population and workforce in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi during the period 1990-95. The data on population and workforce for these years have been taken from the Statistical Year Book of the Department of Planning of the Emirate of Abu Dhabi (Abu Dhabi, 1995). The researcher has worked out the work participation rate workforce as a %age of the total population.

Table 4.19
Population estimates, Emirate of Abu Dhabi

Years	Population			Labour Force	Participation Rate
	Male	Female	Total		
1990	513664	250827	764491		
1991	534744	263206	797950		
1992	555828	275810	831638	389754	47%
1993	575589	288177	863766	401595	46%
1994	596283	301264	897547	413890	46%
1995	615662	314247	929909	426721	46%

Percentages by researcher

The total population of the Emirate of Abu Dhabi in 1990 was 764,491 persons. The population has been constantly rising over the years, and touched 929,909 persons in 1995. This reveals a growth rate of 21.63% in a short span of about 6 years. This shows an average annual increase of 3.61%. Females, as percentage of total population, were nearly 33% in 1990, rising to around 34% in 1995. The work participation rate has however remained in the range of 46-47 %.

4.15 Expatriate Population in Abu Dhabi

As was the case with the UAE as a whole, the Emirate of Abu Dhabi also has a large proportion of expatriates among its population. In fact, the official data on the classification

of population across employment status are available in somewhat more detail than for the country as a whole (Table 4.20).

Table 4. 20
Distribution of Population Emirate of Abu Dhabi

Details	Population of			Distribution		Proportion	
	Nationals	Expatriates	Total	Nationals	Expatriates	Nationals	Expatriates
Employers	2546	9372	11918	0.99	1.51	21.36	78.64
Own Account Workers	456	17578	18034	0.18	2.82	2.53	97.47
Paid Employees	39045	327954	366999	15.18	52.69	10.64	89.36
Unpaid workers	76	352	428	0.03	0.06	17.76	82.24
Unemployed, worked before	874	1848	2822	0.34	0.30	30.97	65.49
Unemployed, never worked before	1254	5522	6776	0.49	0.89	18.51	81.49
Full time students	36594	31460	68054	14.23	5.05	53.77	46.23
Housewives	39349	61578	100927	15.30	9.89	38.99	61.01
Unwilling to work	2850	220	3070	1.11	0.04	92.83	7.17
Unable to work	114	132	246	0.04	0.02	46.34	53.66
Children below 15 years	127243	164802	292045	49.47	26.48	43.57	56.43
Incompetent to work	1102	308	1410	0.43	0.05	78.16	21.84
Aged above 65 years	5719	1320	7039	2.22	0.21	81.25	18.75
Total Population	257222	622446	879668	100	100	29.24	70.76

Source: Emirate of Abu Dhabi (1996), Statistical Review, Statistical Section, Ministry of Planning, Abu Dhabi.

A glance at the table clearly indicates that nearly 70% of the workforce in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi comprises expatriates. If we go by the categories of employment, the situation becomes grimmer, from the national perspective.

It is clear from the table that as many as 79% of the people reporting their employment status as employer or self-employed are expatriates. Additionally, in the case of paid workers, more than 89% are expatriates. The table is self-explanatory and need not be expanded on. The message is crystal clear: the expatriate population dominates the workforce in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi.

4.16 Conclusion

It is apparent from the above discussion that the UAE have developed fast in the post-oil discovery period. The new found oil wealth in the late 60s, and its investment in the

development of infrastructure, industry, trade and commerce, coupled with the initiative and vision of the leaders has brought the country on a par with any developed nations of the world. Although much of the economic development is owing to the oil wealth, the relative contribution of the non-oil sector, the manufacturing, trading and services sectors, has been on the rise during the past two decades.

It is also clear that the UAE is a capital rich country but lacks the much-needed human resources necessary for continued economic development. As a result, the country has had to rely on an expatriate workforce, the size of which has been increasing throughout the period. Excessive reliance on the immigrant work force has its own merits and demerits. The country could not have achieved such a rapid progress but for the expatriate workforce. But the social, cultural, security and economic threat arising out of employing such a large number of foreign workforces can also not be ignored.

In the absence of reliable official statistics, much of the work done in the field of the expatriate workforce is limited and, further, is drawn on estimates rather than actual data. However, the Emirates of Dubai and Abu Dhabi undertook a detailed survey of the manpower situation of their respective Emirates in 1993 and 1994, respectively. The final results of these surveys do provide some data on the status of the expatriate population in the Emirates. As the present research is for the most part based on the Emirate of Abu Dhabi, this chapter has been largely devoted to use economic development and demographic structure, in which various aspects of the expatriate population have been discussed in detail.

Recently, there have been substantial changes in the work and residence policies of the government. As the process is still ongoing, the final results of the policy changes are pending, part of the discussion and data of this and the subsequent chapters might prove redundant unless read in the context of the current changes. One thing that is largely clear, however, is the growing awareness among the population and policy makers about the need for developing the national workforce.

A sort of Emiratisation drive is on, with the basic objective of providing jobs to nationals on a priority basis. A manpower planning committee has been set up to find out ways and

means of providing jobs for nationals in different sectors of the economy. A few other public establishments have already set datelines for replacing the expatriate workforce by suitably qualified nationals. Nationals are being encouraged to take up jobs in the private sector, while continuous efforts are taking place to persuade the private sector to provide a greater employment opportunity to the nationals. However, as the population of nationals is just not enough to replace all the expatriates working in the country, one can conclude that in the time to come, expatriate workers will continue to be a major presence in the country.

It can be concluded that the UAE in general, and Abu-Dhabi in particular, represent a unique case within the global context of the world. This is because of the very limited national workforce, combined with the existence of a large expatriate workforce in a capital rich, modern, and relatively small and new country. In a world that is becoming a 'global village', and experiencing the increasing pressure of the world global economy process, all economies of the world, regardless of their type and direction, have to find their location within a wider global context and formulate policy on this basis.

Therefore, understanding how different countries' economies operate, progress and develop within the quickly spreading and ongoing process of world globalisation is becoming a must, more than at any earlier time. In their relative economic successes, the UAE in particular seem to support the view of Kenichi Ohmae, in his book *The End of the Nation State: the rise of regional economies*, which indicates that being positioned as a region-state economy, as in the case of the UAE, demonstrates a competitive advantage in today's global economy of the world. Ohmae indeed says categorically, "Where prosperity exists, it is region-based" (Ohmae, 1995, p. 100).

Finally, the next chapter intends to discuss the issues and implications resulting from the existence of a large culturally diverse workforce in the UAE, in order to achieve the second aim of this research.

Chapter 5

Issues arising from large expatriate workforce in UAE

5.0 Introduction

After the comprehensive discussion of the demographic composition and nature of the workforce nature in the UAE throughout the previous chapter, the present chapter deals with the second aim of this research. This chapter will therefore critically examine the numerous issues and implications resulting from the existence of a large number of expatriate workers from diverse cultural backgrounds in the UAE. Furthermore, it will critically evaluate the feasibility of some of the solutions to minimise the impact of these implications on the society, polity and economy of the country. In an effort to achieve this, there will be presenting a broad survey of the opinions and arguments of a number of scholars and experts. These valuable points of view will be considered and discussed in order to obtain a better understanding of the socio-economic, political and managerial implications of the existence of a large number of expatriate workers in the UAE.

The chapter is organised into several sections. The first section of the chapter traces the genesis and elaborates on the growth of the expatriate population in the UAE. This section delineates some of the important factors that might be responsible for the arrival and continuance of the foreign workforce in the country. The second section deals with the issue of Asian expatriates, and seeks to understand the reasons behind the presence of such large number of Asian workers in the UAE. It also explores the factors that are generally believed to have led to their prevalence in the country. The third section of the chapter highlights the socio-cultural, economic and political implications of having of large number of expatriate population in the country. Finally, the chapter discusses the problems and

prospects arising from such a large number of expatriate workers, and gives a critical examination of some of the solutions proposed in the recent past to overcome them.

The UAE has had a long history of immigrant population. Ever before oil was discovered, the then Trucial states had foreign merchants and workers on their soil. Over the years, the nature of the expatriate population has taken an altogether different form. The expatriate merchants kept playing a dominant role, but in the meantime a large number of expatriate workforce has also been employed in the country. Most of the foreign oil companies brought in expatriate workers in some large numbers in the early 50s. These workers were mostly from Europe, the United States, Iran, Oman, Kuwait and Palestine. (Birks, 1980)

As the discovery of oil in 1968 brought prosperity to the region, the high level of income triggered substantial expenditure and savings. Quite naturally, it increased the demand for goods and services of all types. To meet this demand of goods and services, expatriates became all the more necessary, as the country did not have enough workers of its own (Birks and Cinclair, 1979, 1980). The oil boom of 1973 triggered development works and required large numbers of expatriates to meet the needs of the growing labour market (Halliday, 1977). Since then, the populations of expatriate has been going up steadily.

It has already been discussed at some length in the previous chapters that the expression 'expatriates' in the context of the UAE is used differently from common parlance in the western countries context. The distribution of population in UAE can be classified into several groups. The expression 'nationals' means those who have the nationality of the UAE. This category includes a large number of the population, who were not born in the UAE but migrated to this land, and were granted citizenship in the past. These people are no longer classified as expatriates. There is therefore a sizeable population, originally came from Iran, Saudi Arabia, Oman, Yemen, Bahrain, etc., but are now UAE citizens. These people too are no longer regarded as expatriates. On the other hand, people staying in the country on the work, residence or investment visas, which are to be renewed every three years or so, are all termed as expatriates. Generally, these are classified into three broad groups: the Asians, the Arabs and the others. Most of the Asians are from India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, the Philippines, and China. The Arab expatriates include the

migrants from all those Asian and African countries whose native language is Arabic. It is often customary to refer to all non-Arab expatriates in the country as 'foreigners'.

Maybe in terms of absolute numbers, the expatriates population in the UAE is not as great as it may be in some countries of Europe and America, but in terms of proportion, the expatriates dominate the indigenous population, i.e. the nationals (Hareb, 1997). The previous two chapters have highlighted the proportion of expatriates in UAE in general and in Abu Dhabi in particular. The GCC countries are the largest employers of the migrated workforce in the world. They attract about 13% of the total migrated workforce in the world, whereas their own population stands at only 4% of the world population (Maghrebi, 1997). This profound fact needs to be strongly emphasised. There are no two opinions that the size of the expatriate population is far too big in relation to the size of the indigenous population. The expatriates constitute around 75% or more of the total population (Dryland Consultants, 1997). As regards their presence in jobs and work fields, in some of the sectors, the expatriates are nearly 90% or more of the total working population (Dryland Consultants, 1997).

As regards composition of the expatriate population, very few consistent data are available about the religions and nationalities of the expatriate population. Such information is not available to the public from the published official statistics and census reports. As discussed in the previous chapters, nearly 60% of the population comprises the Asians, while the Arab expatriates constitute about 12%. The Europeans and Americans are not more than 2% (Dryland Consultants, 1997). Within the Asian expatriates, around 41% are Indians followed by Pakistanis, who constitute around 20% of the expatriate population. The Bangladeshis and Sri Lankans are 6 and 5% respectively. The rest are from the Philippines, Iran, and other countries (Dryland Consultants, 1997). Over the years, however, the composition of the Asian expatriate population seems to have been changing. In certain fields, the Bangladeshi, Sri Lankan and Philippine workers have been found replacing the Indian and Pakistani workforce. This is mainly on account of their willingness to accept lower wages. Emigrants from poorer economies are likely to accept lower wages, and this has prompted the prospective employers to recruit them as workers.

Quite naturally, the very presence of such a high proportion of expatriates in a country like the UAE is a matter of serious concern, and has prompted many to examine some of the implications of the problem (Ebrahim, 1981). There appears to be a general consensus that the UAE could not have achieved its growth without the involvement of the expatriate workforce. There is hardly any attempt to negate the role or contribution of the expatriates. Most people agree that the contribution of the expatriates in the UAE economy can not be undermined; the expatriates have, undoubtedly, helped the country achieve fast socio-economic development. But there is also a near consensus that the presence of a large number of expatriates in the country has a number of social, cultural, economic, and political implications. A number of scholars and experts have expressed concern over the rapidly increasing population of expatriates in such countries and have put forward a series of solutions to overcome the problem (Gabash, 1990).

Many of the issues and problems arising out of employing expatriate workers are common to some of the Middle East economies which are characterised as oil-rich, but population starved countries. One can thus, benefit to certain extent, from the work done in this regard in other countries like the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and in Kuwait for example. As is the case with the UAE, Saudi Arabia and Kuwait owe most of their economic development to oil revenue. Initially, while their economic development activities were at the peak, these two nations did not have an adequate number of suitably trained manpower as well. In the past, Saudi Arabia did depend on the expatriate workforce, and so was the case with Kuwait. However, the UAE is different from Saudi Arabia and Kuwait in terms of its size, demography and workforce composition, in spite of the relative similarities. These countries never had as few nationals, and as many expatriate workers as the UAE while facing a global economy that is experiencing major changes.

That makes UAE a special case in today's world economy that deserves to be studied in its own right.

Within such rapid developments in the global context of the world, better understanding of the employment experience, and its related issues in the special case of the UAE, is becoming more than ever a necessity.

5.1 Reasons for Large UAE Expatriate Population

Why are there so many expatriates in the country? Are the size and number of expatriates more than what the country needs? These are some of the questions that have often been raised in seminars, conferences, and through media channels continuously. Analysing such issues is essential in order to understand the implications of having the expatriate population living in the country.

At the outset, the UAE can not be compared with the high-population, oil-producing countries, like Venezuela. There are countries which may be classified as oil-producing, but with a high indigenous population. The UAE is not one of them. The UAE is a country which has a very meagre indigenous population, on the one hand, faced by the challenges of rapid socio-economic development, on the other. It is this inequilibrium between the income and the manpower need that has led to dependence on the expatriate labour. High income in the post-oil era has led to a high level of expenditure and savings; this in turn requires services of different types and, in the absence of suitable indigenous workforce to meet the demand, the expatriate workforce were recruited (Mabro, 1983).

Further, as the industrial sector is relatively small in the UAE, and the agricultural sector does not represent a major sector of the economy, the non-oil economic development is mostly concentrated in the services sector. The services sector is, by nature, a labour-intensive sector. This explains the presence of large number of expatriate population in the country (Mabro, 1983). So long as there are no structural changes in the economy, the current rate of increase in the national and expatriate population is likely to remain the same. Meaning, thereby, that the expatriates are to remain in the country, at least in the near future (Mabro, 1983). Some of the most important factors responsible for the presence of large number of expatriates in the country can be summarised as follows:

5.1.1 Income – Population Inequilibrium

The population of the UAE has been extremely low in relation to the size of its economy. The total population of the country in 1968 was only 180,200, with a work participation rate of not more than 43%. It may be noted that this is the figure of the total estimated population of the country, and this number included the expatriates inhabiting the country at that time. This means that the indigenous population was substantially less. Even now, the population of the nationals is not more than 600,000, while the total population of the country stands at 2.38 million (Dryland Consultants, 1997).

If these figures are interpreted in the context of the unemployment rate, which is less than 2%, the total population of the country is largely employed. According to a recent estimate, the UAE issues around 1000 work visas per working day, whereas only about 15,000 of its own nationals are unemployed (Al Tayer, 1997). According to an estimate, the population of expatriates in the UAE has been increasing at a much faster rate than that of the nationals. During the years 1993 and 1994, the population of nationals recorded an annual increase of only 3% while that of expatriates increased by around 4% (Dryland Consultants, 1997).

The conclusion is obvious: the rapid growth in the economic activities requires manpower, and in the absence of indigenous manpower, the need is met by recruiting the required manpower internationally. How could a country, whose economic development relies on a manpower size of around 2.38 million, sustain its growth with only 600,000 of its indigenous population.

One can however argue that even now, the work participation rate in the UAE is only around 50%. The work-participation rate among the national population is even much less. The country might attempt to increase the work participation rate of the existing population rather than bringing in the additional expatriates every year (Abdul Moati, 1983a). Indeed, there lies a solution, but the work participation rate is a function of a number of factors. Presently, one half of the indigenous population is either less than 15 years of age, or consists of people who are infirm and are not in position to participate in the labour force. As in the year 1995, a total of 280,000 of the nationals were below 14 years of age; this

constitutes nearly 46% of the indigenous population. If we include the number of people above 60 years of age, the number and percentages further go up (Dryland Consultants, 1997).

Nonetheless, it is also true that the participation of women in the workforce is very low, as compared to the developed countries of the world (Al Oteibi, 1982). Things are improving in this regard and women are coming to take up socially acceptable jobs (Raheemi, 1983). But even if the work participation of women is increased to the level of western countries, the indigenous population remains short of the manpower needs of the UAE economy.

5.1.2 Role of private sector

As a natural corollary of its development aspiration, the UAE has embarked upon the scheme of very active participation of the private sector in the economic development of the country. As a result, the rules and regulations that have been devised for the purpose aim at removing all hindrances in the way of private sector participation. These include the liberal visa and sponsorship rules. The private sector is the largest employer of the expatriate workforce. The private sector, whether owned and run by the nationals or by the expatriate population, is predominantly concerned with cost reduction and profit maximisation (Al Fares, 1983). In search of economies, these entrepreneurs normally recruit their required manpower from the country where they can get them at the lowest cost. Many view this motive of profit maximisation as the root cause of ever-increasing expatriate population (Al Murr, 1997).

It has also been found that the private establishments have turned down the job-seeking nationals, and have rather preferred foreign workers for one reason or another. It has also been reported that the private sector has been adopting a discouraging attitude towards the nationals. Many private sector enterprises perceive nationals as the most expensive source of manpower, and at the same time may also find that they are not necessarily as efficient. The private sector, by doing so, look only for their current needs and compromise on the long-term implications of their decisions, and the country might be forced to pay a very

high cost for such a compromise. An approach like this has turned into a situation where the nationals have become a minority in their own country, and that is the strangest part of the story (Hareb, 1997). The phenomenon is so widespread, that the UAE government had no choice but to intervene by making it mandatory for certain sectors of the economy to give preference to the national workforce. The case of the banking sector may be quoted here as an example, where it has been mandatory for the management of the banks to replace at least 4% of their expatriate employees by the nationals.

At times, businessmen of a particular nationality might also prefer to recruit workers belonging to their own ethnic group. Although it is economics that largely determines the source of manpower supply, in certain ethnic groups, the feeling of tribal affinity might be stronger than the economic rationale (Al Buraik, 1988). The gravity of the problem can be measured in view of the fact that the private sector establishments in themselves are largely owned and controlled by the expatriates. In 1975, the expatriates owned around 70% of the private sector enterprises. Indians alone owned around 24% of the establishments. In total, the Asians owned nearly 60% of the establishments, whereas 10% of the establishments were owned and controlled by other expatriates. Even in the remaining 30% of the enterprises that were technically owned by nationals, the expatriates played a very active role. Things have not changed much since then (Farjani, 1983). The expatriates are not a homogeneous group; they are divided into nationalities, apart from class based on income and status. Besides, formal associations and forums in the form of unions, etc., may not be encouraged by the nation. But workers belonging to the same nationalities and same income class do have a tendency to create informal alliances, and meet in public and private places quite often.

Moreover, most of the private establishments are of small size. Among the total private establishments, hotels, restaurants, cafeterias, barbers shops and groceries are as many as nearly 60%. Nearly 87% of the private establishments operating in the UAE employed fewer than 10 workers. Nevertheless, establishments owned and run by the nationals were generally of better quality and of large size. Each of such establishments is entitled to work permits and visas for the working proprietors and staff, and the total number of expatriates has been increasing in the country rapidly (Assat, 1982). The private sector in UAE is in

quite a strong position to influence the governmental decisions. In fact, most of the governmental policy-makers are business owners themselves. This makes the task of imposing restrictions on the private sector quite vulnerable (Al Fares, 1983).

There is a feeling among some national academics that the private sector has not behaved responsibly, and has not taken into consideration the long-term social and economic interest of the country while recruiting the required manpower (Al Fares, 1996). It is also a fact that the government's desire to achieve the fastest economic growth in relatively less time has been responsible for allowing the nationals to sponsor working partners and employees from anywhere in the world. Free market policies adopted by the government, in fact, encouraged to a great deal the inflow of expatriate population to the country (Al Fares, 1983). The unfortunate part has been that most of the private sector enterprises were guided by the consideration of profit, and did not bother to spend time and resources in developing the indigenous human resources, and have been depending on the expatriate workforce (Abdul Wahed, 1981).

5.1.3 Liberal rules and regulations

Ever since its transformation into an oil-rich country, the UAE had adopted a liberal policy in the matter of work permits until only recently, especially until 1997, when the country started imposing strict rules and regulations governing the hiring of expatriate workforce. Perhaps the basic motto of the government has been to provide for all support, and remove all hindrances that might come in the way of rapid growth. So, be it the modernisation of administration or expansion of the private sector or the diversification of the industrial base, or even the establishment of small-scale groceries, barbers, cafeterias, eating places, work permits and visas have been issued liberally to the working partners and job seekers (Al Eissa, 1983). In many cases, it has also been found that the businessmen had sponsored a greater number of employees than they might put to effective use. They perhaps do so in order to have a buffer in case they need more manpower in future.

The sponsorship rules, as imposed by the government, do ensure that the nationals participate actively in the economic development of the country. The motivated nationals thus brought in working proprietors to start and run businesses under their sponsorship. This has not only brought in the required manpower, but has also led to a visa business racket as well. In an effort to make good money, enterprising nationals sponsored a large number of expatriates to come into the country. This has been yet another pitfall and has been the ugly face of the visa selling businesses. Many a sponsor chose to sponsor labour for a reward, later to be released to find a job elsewhere in the country. Bringing in expatriate manpower became the business (Farjani, 1984). This approach of development has had its other pitfalls. Many nationals, rather than becoming active businessmen, have chosen to become only passive and sleeping partners in the businesses sponsored by them, and remain content with their sponsorship shares alone. Although there are no official statistics available to the public, like many other sensitive statistical data (Al Fares, 2000), to support the statement, but even a cursory survey of the small and medium-level businesses would amply reveal that these businesses although officially owned by a national, are effectively owned and managed by expatriates who give an agreed sum to the national partner.

5.1.4 Growth of non-oil sector

The inflow of expatriate workforce into the UAE was largely triggered off by the high revenue generated by the oil sector. However, the oil sector can not be said to be totally responsible for the presence of a large number of expatriates in the country (Saadeddin, 1983). As the oil revenue increased, the spending and savings in the country, and the demand for a variety of services shot up. The boom in the construction sector can be sited as one of the striking examples.

Those who have seen the UAE in its pre-oil time and now are the living witnesses of the tremendous growth that the country has achieved in high-rise buildings, state of the art towers, modern streets, and beautiful accomplishments in real estate sectors. As a matter of fact, the ever-expanding construction sector required skilled, unskilled, and semiskilled

manpower in large numbers. In the absence of locally available manpower, most construction companies hired unskilled and semiskilled workers from high population countries to meet the requirements of the huge projects. The majority of the workers were recruited from Asian countries because of their availability in large numbers, as well as on account of their willingness to work for relatively less compensation.

The expansion in the services and trading sector has also come in the post-oil revenue. The service sector is by nature labour-intensive. The same is also true of the trading sector and other small-scale establishments. All these have been a major cause of increase in the expatriates in the country.

5.1.5 Predominance of unorganised small-scale economic activities

The economy of the UAE is also characterised by the dominance of the unorganised small-scale economic activities. Take the transport sector as an example. As one arrives in the UAE one sees a large fleet of private taxis, which are the main means of internal and interstate transportation. The public transport facilities are at their bare minimum. As one hops into the taxis, the first thing to notice (on a mandatory nameplate that has to be displayed inside the taxi), is that each taxi is owned by a national, while the driver is an expatriate. Normally, the nationals sponsor certain specified number of taxis that they are entitled to by the law, and arrange work visas to expatriate drivers who pay certain sum to the nationals. Most of these taxi drivers are non-Arab Asians and some Arabs. Had there been a well developed transport network, the size of the expatriate population could have been somewhat less than what it is now.

The second most glaring example that can be cited here is the use of a large number of domestic services by hiring maids, servants, drivers, and housekeepers. The nationals generally prefer to have full-time maids and other domestic help, mainly because they are easy to afford, and also because to have domestic help is regarded as a symbol of social status and prestige. All of such helps are recruited from Asian countries. More than 90% of the national households have maids. According to an estimate, there are 3 domestic

servants per national household (Al Eissa, 1983). Although the latest data in this regard are not available through the official statistics, there is hardly any obvious indication that the trend has changed.

5.1.6 Attraction of UAE Economy

The United Arab Emirates provides a peaceful economic environment for the potential workforce in the surrounding third world countries. With an equitable law and order situation and presence of necessary amenities, the job seekers from different countries, particularly from the Asian sub-continent, come here. Most of them are keen to get good jobs and to enjoy better economic environment and better living conditions than they get in their home countries (Fares, 1983). Many of the expatriate workers can live in the country comfortably well, and at the same time may also be in a position to support their families back home. Besides, the UAE, being one of the few countries of the world which does not impose any sort of taxation on income or spending, workers from other countries find it a haven to work in.

5.1.7 Better utilisation of expatriate workers

Expatriates have proved to work for longer hours, and even in cases much more than the agreed working hours in order to prove themselves indispensable. They are generally regarded as more devoted to their work. They return maximum output and utilise their work time more efficiently. The expatriate workers are therefore regarded as more productive. It is the higher output and productivity that makes the expatriate workers more favoured by the business establishments.

In conclusion, if we examine all of the above causes in detail, the basic reason lies in the lack of trained and qualified manpower which prompted the country to go for imported labour. Had the UAE population been large enough to support and sustain the desired growth and expansion in the economy, the employers would have found it much less easy

to recruit them, rather than hiring them from abroad. In the final analysis, however, a large majority of the private sector establishments continues to depend on the expatriate workers, even though a limited number of the national population is showing up, mainly because they get trained manpower, and thus save money on training and development.

5.2 Asians versus Arabs

The other important issue surrounding the expatriate workforce is the question of the Asian expatriates. Why are there a predominant number of Asian expatriates in the country? Can we replace the Asians by the Arab expatriates? The focal theme here is that there are people who see Asians as a cultural threat, and they take this as a basis to advance the argument of replacing the Asians by the Arabs in order to reduce the social and cultural threat. This section of the paper is devoted to discussion on this theme. First of all, we shall examine the reasons for a large number of Asians in the country. Secondly, we shall examine why the Arab expatriates are not favoured by the private sector establishments which hire the expatriate workforce (Ezzuddin, 1983). It may be pertinent to mention here that the public sector has been recruiting Arab expatriates in much larger proportion than the private sector, maybe because they are more driven by the international relations with the Arab countries.

One general consensus in this regard is that the UAE had had long trade relations with countries of Asia, particularly India, Pakistan and Bangladesh in the pre-oil period, and when they needed manpower they quite naturally turned towards these countries. Besides, the Asian countries are over-populous in relation to the size of their economy, and domestic unemployment and underemployment force the Asian workers to seek employment in other markets. These two are perhaps the most vital of all reasons. But the continued preference for the Asians, even now when culturally closer Arab countries are just as much keen to send their people to work in the UAE and thus become a source of foreign remittances, is a bit intriguing. Does the government and other policy makers have a general preference for Asians? Do entrepreneurs prefer Asians over other nationalities,

particularly the Arabs? If so, why? These are some of the questions that we intend to examine in this section of the chapter.

The Historical trade relationship between Arabia and the Indian subcontinent has in fact played a major role in attracting a large number of workers and businessmen from the Indian subcontinent. The colonial rule of the British brought the Asian subcontinent and the UAE further together. Despite the fact that the Asian subcontinent, particularly India, do not share the same cultural characteristics or language as those of Arabs, but the natives of the Middle East seem to believe they are more comfortable with Indians than the others (Al Tamimi, 1978). In fact, many a national speaks more than one Indian language rather fluently.

The historical trade relations between the countries of the Middle East and India encouraged Indian merchants to start enterprises in the UAE. Dubai can be cited as an example where the oldest merchants were the Indians. Now, in many of the Emirates, the Asians control many sectors of the economy as businessmen and employers. Although these businessmen are normally guided by the consideration of economy and convenience, they have generally brought in people to work for them from their own countries, if not from their ethnic group. Even otherwise, Asia with the largest population of the world has become an important source of supplying skilled and semi-skilled workers across the globe (Farjani, 1987).

Asians want to come to the UAE for a variety of reasons. Most of the time they are drawn to the UAE and other Gulf countries for financial considerations. As the wage differentials between their home countries and the Gulf might be substantial, they hope to make some savings over a period of time. Besides, better living conditions and better standards of life often motivate them to continue in the UAE for as long as they can. Further, as there are many people from their own countries, they find their stay in the UAE rather more comfortable because of the peer support that they get, and they do not suffer home-sickness as they would in an alien country (Abdul Moati, 1983).

Regardless of the strength of the Asians' desire to come and work in the Middle East countries, they would not be able to come to these countries unless an employer is willing

to sponsor them. This means that it is the preference of the employer that is responsible for the inflow of the Asian expatriates rather than the keenness of the Asian workers. The UAE presents no exception in this regard.

The private sector establishments prefer Asians for blue collar and other manual work for a variety of reasons. The age-old trade relations between India and the Arab world have developed ties among the two communities much deeper than what is explained by the simple trade relations. The local population seems to be more familiar with the Asian ways of thinking, and therefore prefer Asians for such positions. The nationals feel that they have better knowledge and are pretty well familiar with the mentality of Asian workers, and can utilise them in a productive manner. The private sector establishments which are owned and run by the non-nationals will probably recruit Asians in the unskilled positions and even in some cases, in the skilled positions as well, because they can accomplish the required jobs by paying lower wages and other financial compensation.

These factors might be important, but most important factor lies in the nature and composition of work for which the expatriate population is required. A large number of expatriates are engaged in low-level occupations. For these types of work, Asians are available at relatively much less cost than other nationalities (Murad, 1983). Asian countries, particularly the most populous countries like India, Pakistan and Bangladesh, have a high rate of unemployment and their populations are willing to move out in search of better job prospects. These workers offer themselves to work for much less salaries and wages than the workers from Arab countries or people from other nationalities. The Asian workers have a low level of expectations, and are normally content and are satisfied with their low income. Even though they are working for lesser salaries, many of them are found to be performing well. They are generally obedient and do not refuse to oblige their employer, even if they are asked to work for extra hours or even if asked to perform errand jobs which are not part of their duty (Labeeb, 1983). In certain types of work requiring physical labour, certain nationalities from Asia are found to be more suitable than some other Asians or other nationalities. They have a proven tolerance for tough physical work than most other nationalities (Jalaluddin, 1983).

As compared to the Arab workers, many consider that the working habits of the Asian workers are better. The Asian workers pose minimal industrial relations problems. They are by nature submissive, and in case of disagreement, they prefer to move out rather than confronting their employers. There is a general belief that the Asian workers are least conscious of their rights and are rarely assertive. In very extreme cases only, one comes across an Asian worker who is aggressive. They are thus least demanding and to use to a common word, they do not 'bug' their employers constantly (Labeeb, 1983).

In terms of skill, Asian workers are no less endowed as compared to the workers from other nationalities. Moreover, Asians are generally fast in learning and adapting to new skills. In fact, many believe that the technical requirements of the jobs are normally acquired by the Asians while working in the UAE. In totality, the Asian workers have been found doing their jobs in an acceptable manner most of the time. In addition, the skilled Asians workers can understand technology well, and adapt themselves faster in case of change in technology, while not being expensive to recruit as compared to many other nationalities.

In order to understand fully the different points of view that encompass the issue, it might be useful to indicate that the ever-increasing number of Asians and non-Arab expatriates in the United Arab Emirates has indeed been a matter of concern for many. It is believed that even though the Asian workers might be economically cheap but the dependence on non-Arab workers has a high social and cultural cost (Abdul Moati, 1983). Furthermore, there are others who believe that the foreign workers might not be as cheap as they look. Their point of view stands on the assumption that foreign workers may be available for work at lower wages per hour, but in terms of productivity Arab workers are more efficient (Ali, 1983). In totality, such positions compare the high social cost that comes as a result of recruiting a large number of non-Arab foreign workers, which they think is far more valuable than the economic benefits and savings that the private sector gets by recruiting a large number of foreign workers.

Such thinking in the Arabian Gulf region has prompted many to suggest that the foreigners in the countries need to be replaced by the Arab workforce. In this regard, a number of

suggestions have been put forward. According to some, Arabs must be given preference over Asians in all new appointments, and thus eliminate the foreign labour in due course (Al Fares, 1983). To this effect, they suggest the liberalisation of visa rules and work permits for the Arab workers seeking job opportunities in the oil-rich countries (Bassisso, 1982). In this regard, it may be noted that the formation of the Arabian Gulf Co-operation Council (GCC) has permitted the nationals of the GCC countries to move freely among the GCC countries without visas or work permits.

On the other hand, there are others who believe that the country must adopt a time-bound programme and through well-researched manpower planning must replace the Asians in the shortest possible period of time. Quite opposed to these views, there are economic experts who believe that the reduction of expatriates by replacing the Asians and other foreigners is not a solution; rather, the country must develop the national workforce to take over the jobs from the expatriates (Al Dossary, 1991)

Besides, there are other hurdles as well. Most of the Arab expatriate's demand higher wages, and do not possess more skills in their work than the Asians. Many a time, it has been found that many Arab expatriates are of a complaining nature and are difficult to be satisfied with their work conditions. Many of them might be too keen to start their own business, and the employers feel that they want jobs to learn the trade secret and then they would desert them to start up on their own (Farjani, 1983).

Taking a number of measures can increase the number of Arab expatriates. To begin with, the proponents of the replacement of Asians and other foreign workers with the Arabs suggest that the authorities must offer better wages and work conditions than to any other ethnic groups. Secondly, these people suggest that the Arab expatriates and those who speak Arabic and are skilled, qualified and experienced be naturalised and given citizenship of the UAE (Farjani, 1980).

Further, some Arab countries try to retain their skilled and better educated workers in their own countries, and do not encourage them to take up employment abroad, to maximise their national benefits. This might be true only in a limited sense, because we often come across Arabs working abroad, and countries from North Africa, particularly Egypt or many

other over-populous Arab countries, encouraging their people to seek foreign placement (Al Shirbiny, 1981).

It is because of the nature and behaviour of the Arabs that even Arab administrators and employers prefer non-Arab workers. They find the Arab workers less obedient and less co-operative when they compare them with the Asian. Some of the other reasons for Asians being preferred over Arabs might include the employers' desire to have employees belonging to different nationalities, so as to avoid the formation of a cohesive political group within the organisation. Secondly, employers feel that to hire Asians is easy and to fire them is easier than that. There are the least political and other interventions in removing and sending back workers from different ethnic backgrounds, while in the case of Arabs, there are often resistance and intervention from not only the peer groups, but also from their embassies (Al Tamimi, 1983).

In the work environment, the Arabs are considered to be more problematic, and because of that, they are more expensive to the employers than the workers from other nationalities. In fact, there are many negative attributes attached to the Arab workers in general. Employers often have a notion that many Arab workers spend their time idling around rather than concentrating on their jobs. Some of them are often rated as among those who are not the most committed to their work. Although these aspects have to be confirmed by scientific studies, such stereotypes have been a hurdle in recruiting the Arab expatriates.

In general, the Arab workers are seen as a political threat. Such people believe that Arab workers have been found to have more reactionary feelings than the non-Arab workers. Because of the commonality of language, culture, history and heritage, many Arab expatriates have a sense of superiority over the non-Arabs, and this sense of superiority often leads to developing a feeling of equality with the nationals, which conflicts with the real life situation. As the Arab expatriates expect parity and equality with the nationals, they develop a sense of inequality and dissatisfaction with their jobs and stay in the country. These feelings often give rise to unwanted scenes, and develop a perceived threat from the Arab expatriates among the work providers from such cases. In fact, these psychological aspects stand as one of the critical reasons behind hesitance in recruiting

Arab workers by some work providers. Finally, it should be clear that there is no position taken by the country or its people against the Arab workforce. As a matter of fact, what could be true is the opposite, and all of what has been said is an objective analysis of the situation.

5.3 Reducing Expatriates

Replacement of workers of one nationality by workers from other countries in any case does not solve the problems arising from the expatriate workforce. There appears to be growing consensus that the number of expatriate workers should be reduced in the country. However, as mentioned earlier, for a country like the UAE, this is a hard and difficult choice. As the role of the expatriates in the development of the UAE cannot be undermined, there are possibilities that the reduction of expatriates without proper efforts to replace them by the national workforce might prove counter-productive. Reduction in expatriates might affect efficiency and productivity. Further, restricting the number of expatriates goes against the free market policies adopted by the UAE, and would create an imbalance in the labour market (Serageldin, 1981).

Any policy aimed at reducing the expatriates must therefore take into account the availability of national manpower, their suitability, as well as willingness to come forward and take up the responsibilities from the expatriates. Given the current scenario, such a policy must distinguish between the skilled and unskilled workers, and must not discourage the skilled expatriate workforce in its zeal to get rid of the foreign workers (Roukis, 1986). The skilled workers are the need of the economy, and must be encouraged and motivated to remain in the country until the national manpower is mentally and technically readied to take up the jobs. In the absence of the trained manpower available locally, who would fill the gap left by the expatriate workers, if they were forced to leave the country? Given the current economic conditions and the stage of economic development, many agree that the UAE can not maintain its economic growth without depending on the expatriates in one form or another.

Presence of a large expatriate population requires a large number of establishments needed to serve the expatriate community itself. The large number of small-scale shops and establishments, the flourishing construction sectors, the ever-booming trade sector, all owe their growth to the presence of a large population which generates demand for these services. Reduction in the size of population would affect the demand for goods and services in the country, and would depress the market and economic activities, causing a downward trend in the country.

On the other hand, it is also true that the economy of the UAE is largely dependent on the oil prices, and fluctuation in oil prices affects the economic growth. This means that any substantial decline in the oil revenue would seriously affect the governmental expenditure on consumption and development. This, in turn, requires that the government must contain its expenditure to a sustainable limit (Mabro, 1983). In this regard, it is important that the nationals ready for the labour market must be provided employment in the private sector as well. The government can not take the sole responsibility of arranging jobs for all the nationals in the government departments, ministries and public enterprises alone. At present, most work for the nationals is provided in the governmental sector; excessive dependence on this sector might create imbalance in future. Furthermore, the public sector has now reached a point of saturation where job creation is becoming a major concern (Al Shamsi, 1993).

Authorities and experts are in unity to suggest that a time limit should be fixed to reduce the number of foreign workers from the other countries. However, there are some that emphasise the reduction of the Asian expatriates on a priority basis, as they believe that they are a cultural threat to the country. There are others who appear to be convinced that the numbers of foreigners in the country are far in excess of what the country needs. They cite the examples of newspaper vendors, car washers, domestic helps, etc.. These jobs can easily be replaced by use of appropriate technology. The most important factor that is often quoted, and is also a bit controversial, is the issue of housemaids and domestic servants (Al Eissa, 1983). There are experts who believe that such foreigners are not as productive as the nationals have come to believe, and must be removed from the country. In this regard,

it has been suggested that the national population must be taken into confidence in solving this problem.

The small-scale establishments like groceries, tailoring shops, and barbershops, that are in the country in abundance are often believed to be the source of a large number of expatriate population in the country. Most of these establishments are virtually owned by the expatriates, though technically in partnership with a national (to fulfil the legal requirements of the country which makes it mandatory that all businesses must have national partner with 51% or more share in the business), and employ three to four persons per shop. It has been suggested that these small shops and groceries be replaced with large departmental stores and huge market chains. In addition to reducing the number of expatriates, this step would also provide quality goods and services to people.

Some have even gone to the extent of suggesting that the private establishments must be replaced by state enterprises. This argument is build on the logic that most of the private enterprises are owned and operated by the expatriate population, which is not guided by the national consideration, and if they are taken over by the state, the national objectives can be achieved in a relatively short span of time. There also appears to be some opinion building that there are large numbers of unskilled workers in the country, particularly in the domestic sectors. There are a large number of housemaids and domestic servants, and the national population has come to rely on them heavily. It is believed that these workers are not productive and are more a strain on the economy than a benefit and must be got rid off. However, any effort in this regard must take the national population into confidence, and such a measure must be taken only by convincing the nationals that this is in their personal and national interest. Some have suggested that the hiring of maids and domestic help must be totally banned, or this sector may be strictly organised (Al Eissa, 1983). They believe that service companies be established in every residential area to provide part-time domestic service to households. Such arguments are based on the fact that the workers so hired will be far less in number than their present strength, and would also be qualified and well equipped.

It has also been found that certain sectors of the economy, particularly the construction sector and the maintenance companies, are largely run on labour-intensive devices. Use of technology and capital-intensive devices can substantially reduce the manpower needs of the private sector and would reduce dependence on the foreign work force (Abuseina, 1977). The arguments of the private sector that enough nationals are not available for employment in the private sector, and they have to depend on the expatriate labour, have been countered by a few. According to them, the governmental sector must be reorganised to reduce the number of workers in order to overcome the problem of over-employment (Beiruti, 1976). This will make the locals available for jobs in the private sector. The public sector can not add more numbers of employees. The unplanned recruitment of nationals in the public sector has already started showing its negative impact. These include disguised unemployment. The public sector has been recruiting nationals, even if overstaffed. As a matter of fact, the only way to offer jobs to nationals in the public sector is to replace the existing expatriates or to create new positions. This option too is limited, as the public sector is already overstaffed (Al Shamsi, 1993).

5.4 Developing national workforce

As reduction of the expatriate workforce is the only solution, development of the national workforce is unavoidable for countries like the UAE. In this regard, it is important to understand that this is multifaceted issue. The foremost issue is whether the country has enough indigenous population? Secondly, are the available indigenous population suitably trained and developed to perform a variety of jobs that are being currently done by the expatriate population? Thirdly, are the nationals willing to do the jobs that are being currently done by the expatriate population?

As regards the first question, there is no doubt that the indigenous population is much too short than the manpower requirement of the country. But the size of the indigenous population has been constantly on the rise. As per the current thinking among the population and the authorities, the nationalisation of economic activities must include the

nationalisation of jobs (Berry, 1977). Giving suitable jobs to the nationals has thus emerged as one of the biggest challenge. It is estimated that nearly 50% of the indigenous population is currently below 15 years of age and by the year 2006, there would be around two hundred thousand nationals available for job and the government has to be prepared to arrange gainful employment to all of them (Al Tayer, 1997).

The country has developed a number of educational establishments, including facilities for training and vocational and professional educational aimed at equipping its population with suitable skills. But skill development is a slow process, and it takes considerable time, cost and efforts to develop the indigenous human resources. However, things have improved considerably as compared the situation a decade or two ago. The Higher Colleges of Technology that appeared in the early 90s, the UAE University, other educational institutions, and the facilities for sending the nationals abroad for further higher education have been constantly producing competent graduates ready to accept the challenges of national development. These graduates are no less competent than any manpower presently working in the country. The process of the development of highly qualified national manpower is continuing, and the private sector, in the late 90s, has come up in a big way to offer excellent higher educational facilities within the countries.

Coming to the last question as to whether the nationals are willing or keen to participate in the nation building, and are willing to take up jobs offered by the labour market in the UAE, there are certain major hurdles. It has generally been observed that most of the nationals have a marked preference for the government jobs, even though a lot of effort has been made by the government to motivate the youth to seek and accept jobs in the private sector. They are however still shy to accept jobs in the private sector. There are a number of reasons that might be responsible for this attitude. The government jobs offer a sense of security, and in terms of perks and benefits they are regarded far superior to the private sector jobs. Some of the benefits of working in the government departments and public sector include generous financial compensation and an attractive retirement benefit.

But more than this, it is a matter of attitude. Many of the national youth may consider it degrading to work for another individual, and would feel more comfortable to work for the

government because in that situation they think that they are serving the country rather than a fellow individual. Secondly, the nationals are much too reluctant to accept the blue-collar and manual jobs. They prefer office jobs, and want to be managers rather than working in the field and on the factory floor. They have developed a sort of negative attitude towards manual work and feel that the expatriates should do such work. Such a psychological barrier is a culmination of a number of developments over a period of time. As the older generation of the UAE nationals had experienced the harshest living conditions throughout the pre-oil period, they did not want their generations to suffer any hardship in the post-oil period of prosperity. They grew up with the desire of living a comfortable and respectable life, and they associated comfort and respect with office jobs. The low wages and standards of living of the technical, professional and semiskilled expatriate workers in the UAE has, among other things, created a negative association in the mind of the national population. They have grown thinking that such jobs are menial, and they must not perform them. In other words, they considered such job opportunities as below their dignity. Many nationals may consider it humiliating to take orders from and obey a fellow human being, as they consider it beneath their dignity.

Nationals, except those who have been traditionally engaged in the farming sector and fishing the occupations that have been part of their heritage, do not wish to work in the industrial, agricultural and production sector that they regard as unknown and unfamiliar experience. The employers, by paying less than half that they would pay to the nationals, rather prefer to bring foreign workers for such jobs. Similarly, though trading and business have historically been the most favoured vocations for the Arabs, the modern generation in the UAE prefer to sponsor expatriates as active partners, and they simply assume the role of the sleeping partner in the business. Such things might be taking place even if they are investing substantial sums in that business in order to. This may be because the national sponsors might also be full-time employees in public sector jobs, and might not be willing to give up job to take care of the business.

On the other hand, the private sector has also not shown enthusiasm to give employment to the nationals on some priority basis. In fact, the private sector establishments have countered the desire of the authorities to provide employment to the national youth on one

pretext or the other. One of the most common reasons that has often been echoed is that nationals do not apply for the jobs advertised by the private sector establishments, except for a few position which they may be willing to accept. Many times, the private enterprises have shunned the idea of employing nationals on the ground that they are not as productive as the expatriate workforce is, and are much more expensive while being less experienced. Besides, the nationals may be running their own businesses, and may hardly be interested in the jobs that they are employed for, as they might prefer to devote more of their time and energy to their own businesses which they might own.

It may be of interest to note here that the government of the UAE has set up a committee for nationalisation of the workforce in the financial sector, which has notoriously been avoiding employing nationals. The committee, in its interim report, has recommended that the financial sector must employ nationals equal to at least 4% of its workforce every year, and would thus replace the expatriates in about two decades time. The Ministry of Labour has also mooted the idea of forcing the private sector to offer job opportunities to the nationals, and in case they do not come forward voluntarily, the government might force them to pay taxes on every expatriate labour that they hire. The government is also working on the idea of setting up a rehabilitation fund aimed at providing training to the nationals, and has proposed that the burden of such a fund should be shared by the private sector as well (Al Tayer, 1997). In fact, the government has come up with directives and regulations, of course in a limited way, to give effect to such thinking. Many other public sector enterprises have also come up with a scheme of nationalising their workforce to the extent possible in the shortest possible period of time. However, in order for these efforts to work effectively, they need to be logically related and properly connected parts, within a more comprehensive plans and strategies which should mostly lead to a better outcome.

5.5 Implications of large UAE expatriate population

Most of the works in the area of manpower planning in countries like the UAE have come to a uniform conclusion that the indigenous population of these countries is so small in size that these countries can not maintain their forward strides without an expatriate workforce.

Any drastic effort to reduce the number of expatriate workers will affect the level of economic development and the GDP of the countries. In the near future, and until the national human resource is developed in size and quality, the country will have to rely on the foreign workforce. When it comes to the appointment of the foreign workforce, their quality and type is determined by the needs of the trade, service and industry. As most of the economic sectors in the UAE are in the private sector, this sector plays an important role in determining the size, composition and structure of the expatriate workforce.

Given the present scenario, the private and public sectors are compelled to manage the diverse workforce. Such a diverse workforce has its own implications for the country as a whole, as well as for business organisations. The following section of the chapter discusses some of the social, political and economic implications of hiring and retaining a large number of expatriates in the oil-producing countries.

5.5.1 Socio-cultural implications

There is a large number of unskilled expatriate workforce in the country. A substantial number of workers are engaged in the field of construction and household sectors, and these workers are only semi-skilled and mostly illiterate. This adversely affects the literacy and educational profile of the country (Farjani, 1979).

Expatriates, in order to save as much as they can, generally have a low standard of living. This is particularly true of the Asians. Most of the bachelor expatriates live in groups, and pose social problems and sometimes inconvenience to their neighbourhood (Farjani, 1979). Most of the expatriates live in a perennial feeling of alienation. They normally lead a secluded life, and there is hardly any bond between the nationals and the Asian expatriates, except in situations where they work in a household sector. In some cases, expatriates may develop a negative feeling that they are being discriminated against, and are subject to humiliating treatment from the nationals in the absence of a common cultural and linguistic background. This creates an environment for developing negative attitudes among the expatriate workforce. Such feelings get strengthened as an expatriate lives in the country

for a fairly long period of period (Farjani, 1992). Furthermore, expatriates may notice that they are paid lower wages as compared to nationals, even if they are performing the same or similar jobs. This is particularly true in case of the Asian workers who are paid relatively lower wages and salaries as compared to what is paid to other Arab workers in many situations (Al Najjar, 1983). The feeling gets further imbued in the minds of the expatriates because they have virtually no say in the policy formulation in the country. This sense of inequality, as some expatriates may view it, will probably lead to apathy and often kills their motivation to work hard. Quite naturally, presence of a large number of people with such feelings, although not expressed in so many words, is a good breeding point for social tension (Halliday, 1977).

The availability of inexpensive labour from the international labour market, along with the abundance of capital resources with the nationals, has developed some sort of negative work culture amongst many nationals. In fact, some nationals have developed a tendency to put in the least effort and do not want to work hard. Others may not even want to work, and prefer to hire people who would work for them. This is turning some of the national human resource into inactivity and they prove to be a burden on the nation (Abdul Moati, 1984). So much so, that some of the nationals avoid even the most rewarding employment, if it requires hard work, mainly because monetary rewards do not serve as a motivating factor for them. It seems that with money and expatriate workers around, many nationals have lost their motives to work hard (Ismail, 1979). On the other hand, it should be made clear that such people are not representative of the majority of the national workforce in the society. However, the existence of such an inactive national human resource in a noticeable number within any labour market can not be a comforting sign, even if they do not represent the majority, as is the case of the UAE.

5.5.2 Impact on National Culture

The United Arab Emirates has become a multicultural country. People from all over the globe have been living in the country. They all speak their own language, and when they interact with each other they use a mixture of languages to communicate. As a natural

corollary, the Arabic language has been adversely affected. A lot of foreign terms have entered the Arabic language, and sometimes these terms have a specific cultural connotation. In parts of the UAE, a national feels himself as if he is in a foreign country as he comes across people in public offices, shops and restaurant who do not speak or understand the national language of the country. Losing a language means losing the cultural identity (Al Tamimi, 1983).

Taken as a whole, the presence of a large number of expatriate population, and that too under the circumstances in which they are living, imposes a very high social cost for the country as a whole (Abdul Moati, 1983). In conclusion, the socio-cultural implications arising out of the presence of a large number, socially and culturally diverse workforce are often looked on as a source of worry and many disturbing issues in the society of the UAE and within its culture.

5.5.3 Political Implications

The population-scarce and capital-rich countries like the UAE had thought that the expatriate workers were temporary and would not remain in the country forever. They would be replaced by the national human resource whenever they wanted. But this has not proved true. The expatriates linger on, and the economy develops in such a way that the dependence on the expatriate labour continues forever. As the expatriate labour stay in the country for a fairly long period of time, they become an almost permanent part of the country, and they tend to demand political rights and participation in the national decision-making in an indirect way (Al Tamimi, 1983).

There has also been a concern that the expatriates might form pressure groups in the form of formal and informal unions, associations, etc., in order to assert their rights. The potential for such a move exists in abundance. There is generally a strong bond among the workers belonging to the same ethnic group. A visit to busy commercial centres and shopping areas on weekends and public holidays is a living testimony of this fact. On public holidays and weekends, one finds large gatherings of people belonging to the same

or similar nationalities who assemble there to meet their fellow friends. Though such meetings are merely social, they do offer scope for exploitation by vested interests.

Sometimes, the expatriates, who basically owe their allegiance to their own country and other larger groups, might be driven by outside forces. They may belong to certain political or religious ideologies that may not necessarily be compatible with the ideology of the country of their present residence (Al Tamimi, 1983). These and other factors often invite external political interference. Long-term stay of the foreigners generates a sense of right among them, leading to political tensions. An expatriate initially compares himself with the fellow workers of his own class, later he starts comparing himself with the nationals. Even such economic factors might turn into political factors. As a result, such comparison can be a main source of political problems. In conclusion, the existence of a large number of expatriates in the UAE has a very obvious political dimension which needs to be taken in consideration when dealing with such issues.

5.5.4 Economic Implications

It has been mentioned earlier in this chapter that there are a sizeable number of business establishments which are there to cater to the needs of the expatriate community itself. Most of these establishments can be rated as poor quality, dealing in cheap and low quality goods. As most of the expatriate population falls in low income categories, and is not in a position to buy quality goods and services at high cost, these establishments sell goods and services for which the expatriates have the purchasing power. The problem is that such establishments have increased rapidly in number, but have not improved in quality. Further, most of these establishments are of small size, employing around three to four workers only (Nazli, 1983). Most of these workers, as said before, are expatriates and belong to the countries of the shop owners most of the time. These establishments are thus least productive, and are more a source of expatriate population in the country.

In agriculture and fishing, where certain tribes of the nationals have had skills, the nationals are facing competition from the expatriate labour. The private firms and other individuals

prefer expatriates, because they are available at much lower cost than the nationals. It has also been reported, though sporadically, that some private sector companies have indirectly forced nationals to leave jobs in order to appoint expatriates. They create an environment where the nationals do not feel comfortable to work with them, and leave the job in frustration. Consequently, it is not hard to assume that many private sector companies ignore the national and the nationals' need.

Although the country has been issuing a large number of work visas every year, the number of nationals seeking jobs has been on the rise. According to an estimate, the UAE government issues nearly 2,000 work visas per working day, whereas there are more than 15,000 nationals registered with the Ministry of Labour seeking suitable job opportunities (Al Tayer, 1997). This is dangerous, and the trend must be stopped. Besides, the unemployment rate in the country stands at around 2%, which means that not all of the expatriates living in the country have a job (Dryland Consultants, 1997).

Although the expatriates are imminent and their contribution in the economic development of the country can not be overemphasised, it is also true that the presence of large number of expatriates has made the country a somewhat transient type of society. The expatriate workers as well as the businessmen lack stability. They remain in the country as long as they are doing well and the country is in good economic condition; they tend to leave the country in case of any eventuality (Al Sabaah, 1985). Quite naturally, they lack the sense of belonging. The feeling that it is not their country and that they do not belong here often influences their decision making, and forces them to be guided by short-term considerations rather than seeking long-term economic goals.

The country is therefore living in a constant fear that, being contract workers, the expatriates might desert the country when it would need them the most. As a matter of fact, better service conditions elsewhere in the world motivate employees to leave their jobs. Most of the time it is the best workers who are lured by the outside forces, and the country is gradually left with the poor quality workers who tend to prolong their stay in the country for the longest possible period of time. As skilled expatriates keep on leaving the country,

the country loses accumulated experience. High employee turnover imposes additional cost of bringing in new workers and on their training.

Even if we look from the point of view of the expatriates, it appears that they consider themselves as second rate citizens, and lack the motives to perform to the best of their capabilities. Quite naturally, many do not show creativity in the work. It has often been reported that the expatriates perform poorly, as they do not see clear future prospects for themselves.

Recently, the capital flight has also been an issue. It is believed that a large section of the expatriate workers here do not wish to spend their income in the country. They rather work hard to make some savings and transfer their savings to their home countries. This puts a drain on the foreign exchange reserves of the country, leading to adverse balance of payments emanating from the large outflow of money from the country. Absence of restriction on money transfer from the country has led to substantial increase in the flight of capital from the country. The negative effect of massive fund transfers from the country has been more than the obvious. Statistics shows that the private financial transfer from the UAE increased by 33% during the period 1990-1995. It went up from AED 8.9 billion in 1990 to AED 11.85 billion in 1995. Furthermore, studies have shown that the financial transfer from the formal banking channel is only 25-60% of the total transfer of funds. According to an estimate, nearly AED 20 billion might be transferred every year from the UAE. The increase in the financial transfer has caused a reduction in the current account balance by 11.2%, and it is estimated that it would further decline to about 15%. The magnitude of money transfer from the country can be gauged by the fact that the total governmental expenditure on education and health, the two largest sectors of the economy, represented only 15.4% of what was transferred out of the country (Al Lamki, 1997).

On the other hand, there is a positive side to the economic implications resulting from managing a large number of expatriate workers in the UAE, which should not be ignored in order for this discussion to stand in a more neutral position. In fact, the expatriate workers' relative high levels of salaries in the UAE, most of which the majority of these workers send to support their families, represent a positive contribution to the economy of the

native countries of such workers. This indirect economic contribution of the UAE economy to the economies of other less rich countries is considered an economic advantage and a positive contribution, not only for these economies, but also to the global economy of the world as a whole in today's border-less world. This is a positive aspect that is often ignored when discussing the economic dimension of employing expatriate workers in the context of the UAE. Therefore, it needs to be highlighted

5.6 Summary and Conclusion

It is this peculiar aspect of the UAE business that makes the human resource management in the UAE a special case. Here is a country where the cross-cultural context is present in abundance. A manager really has to devise plans and strategies to manage the diverse workforce effectively. As regards the issue of the quality of expatriate population, the size and the type of the workforce are clearly determined by the needs of the economy in the context of today's global economy of the world. Therefore, the quality of workforce is basically linked to the type of economic activities going on in the country where they work. In the UAE, the sectors of employment need to compare the workers of different nationalities constantly on such criteria as sincerity, expectations, interpersonal relationships, and compatibility.

As discussed in detail in Chapter 4, on the demographic composition, the UAE is one of those unique countries that have become capital-rich after long years of suffering and patience. The oil wealth in the country has triggered development programmes on a very large scale. At the same time, being population-scarce, the country has been depending on the expatriate workforce to make up for its manpower shortages. As the country has now reached almost the height of its economic development, the presence of the large number of expatriates, which at one point of time was a must, is now seen as a cultural and political threat. Moreover, expatriate workers may be perceived as an obstacle to the economic development and long-term economic growth of the country.

Concerns arising out of the existence of a large number of expatriate population have prompted the intellectual think-tank of the country to suggest the reduction of the expatriate workforce by adopting suitable strategies. But given the size of the indigenous population, it appears to be a tremendously hard task. As the country cannot replace all the expatriates, the proponents of Arab solidarity have come forward to suggest strong measures that the country must take to at least replace non-Arab workers with the Arab expatriates. This line of arguments is based on the logic that the Arab expatriates would share the common Arabic culture and language, and would not be a threat to them. Furthermore, they claim that no other ethnic group would feel for and support the country and understand its concerns, as they would do. According to them, co-operation should take place because of the common ground and the shared belongings to the Arabic identity. From the practical perspectives, the requirements of the private and public sector enterprises and the needs of the development programmes of the country largely determine the types of workers. Unlike the public sector, which gives the Arab workers a priority over other expatriates, Arab workers do not find favour from the private sector enterprises. The reasons have been discussed in detail within this chapter.

In the meantime, the size of the indigenous population has also been increasing, and thanks to the educational programmed launched by the UAE during the past decades, a sizeable number of nationals are also entering the labour market. Initially, most of the qualified nationals were absorbed in the government departments and public sector enterprises, but these employment opportunities are nearing saturation and, in some cases, there is already a situation of over-employment.

It is obvious that the governmental sector cannot absorb the entire national workforce, and the private sector will have to come forward to offer employment opportunities for the qualified nationals. This has prompted a drive for the nationalisation of jobs in the private and public enterprises. But there are a number of problems in this regard as well. The nationals are not fully willing to take up jobs in the private sector for a number of social, psychological and economic considerations, which have been discussed in this chapter. The private sector enterprises too are not very keen in encouraging the nationals to take up jobs

with them, as they perceive them to be the most expensive workforce while not necessarily the most efficient.

Moreover, a substantial number and proportion of the expatriate populations are engaged in such work and sectors which are considered undesirable by the nationals, and they are not interested in taking up those jobs most of the time. For example, a national would hate to work as a construction worker, who constitute nearly 20% of the workforce, or as sanitation or horticulture worker with the municipalities. Most of the nationals prefer to work as managers or in some other office-related jobs.

Given the present scenario, workplaces in the UAE are currently employing workers from different cultural and national backgrounds. That makes the management of human resources in these organisations an excellent case of cross-cultural management. As the managers in the UAE already have to cope with the social, cultural and economic implications of managing the diverse workforce in the organisation, such broader issues as reduction of expatriate workforce, the nationalisation of jobs, or even replacing the Asians with Arabs make them expect a stronger challenge in their mission.

In conclusion, it is likely that for the foreseeable future, the UAE will continue to demonstrate the features that are described throughout this research. These include relatively high wage levels, high economic expectations, and reliance on a culturally diverse workforce, as well as the implications of such reliance. These features have enabled the UAE economy to make a disproportionate contribution to the employment possibilities of highly skilled and semi-skilled labour. The relatively high levels of monetary reward also operate to create a stream of quality remittance earnings to other economies. Earlier studies have kept focusing on the negative side of this economic aspect, which resulted from the existence of large number of expatriate workers in the country. This cannot be ignored; however, it is equally important to point out the significant positive contribution of the UAE economy to the global economy of the world, by contributing to the different economies to which the culturally diverse workforce in the UAE belonged. This will include a number of different economies of the world, especially the low income ones. That

should further enhance the value of that indirect economic contribution in today's borderless world.

It is clear that there have been a number of 'myths' about the implications of managing a culturally diverse workforce in the UAE, and its related aspects, within the emerging global economy. The UAE does not represent a homogeneous labour force, but it does not constitute a 'melting pot' either. It is a relatively unique configuration of economic, political, social and psychological elements, which position it in a special way within the global economy. One of the aims of this chapter was to clarify some of these issues, and to start the process of destroying some of these 'myths' in order to replace them with a better empirical understanding of the issues that have resulted from the existence of a culturally diverse workforce in the UAE.

Finally, in the context of a research like this, such "myth destroying aspects" needed to be stated clearly at this conclusion stage, in order to obtain a fair, and more neutral position, which should allow this research to develop a better view of the situation.

Starting from the next chapter, the particular issues of job satisfaction among the culturally diverse workforce in the UAE will be analysed and discussed in order to fulfil the third aim of this research.

Chapter 6

Job Satisfaction across Workplace

6.0 Introduction

Starting from this chapter, the research will be turning to the specific issues of job satisfaction to achieve the third aim of this research. This chapter is divided into two sections. Both sections present an empirical analysis of the data collected through the questionnaire from 360 respondents working in the emirate of Abu Dhabi. Section II highlights different aspects of job satisfaction in the cross-cultural context of the United Arab Emirates. On the other hand, Section I intends to develop a better and essential understanding of the research sample characteristics. Therefore, the chapter is primarily aimed at describing the important characteristics that differentiate workers from one another in an organisational setting in the UAE context. The intention is to highlight the physical and individual differences among the examined workers in order to provide a better understanding of the personality attributes and organisational climate of the workers that are likely to influence their job satisfaction within their organisations.

Fortunately, every individual on the surface of this earth is unique in many different psychological, emotional and behavioural attributes. The individual differences are personal attributes that vary from person to person. Taken together, all of the individual differences that characterises a person make that person unique from any other person. The individual differences include physical and intellectual differences, personality attitudes, and perception (Moorhead and Griffin, 1995). The physical differences among the individuals are the most visible of all differences, and are also relatively easy to assess and document. As against this, the intellectual differences are somewhat more difficult to assess and document. The demographic differences among individuals are primarily physical, whereas the differences in abilities, skills and competencies involve both physical and individual properties.

The demographic differences are associated with physical or biographical characteristics, and in a typical organisation include age, gender, race and ethnic origin. Such differences have been analysed in the following sections of the chapter. The individual differences in terms of abilities, skills and competencies can involve physical or intellectual factors, depending on the person or the task to be performed by the individual. Abilities include the capacity of a person to perform a given task (Flerishman, 1972), while skills are more task-specific than abilities (Edwards, 1992). Competencies, on the other hand, are more refined skills that are honed by practice and experience. The competencies enable an individual to develop a speciality (Warr and Conner, 1992).

The most difficult of all individual differences are the differences in personality. Personality is the relatively stable set of psychological attributes or traits that distinguish one person from another (Pervin, 1985). An understanding of the personality attributes is important because they affect people's behaviour in organisation situations. The personality attributes also influence the perception of and attitudes towards the organisation (Pervin, 1984). It is important to understand that the basic personalities of people are formed before they ever join an organisation. The hereditary characteristics and cultural context in which an individual grows up may thus influence the personality.

6.1 Section I: Respondent Differences

6.1.1 Individual Differences

As the demographic and social background is considered a key variable in understanding values and attitude, it is important to present a brief sketch of the social background and demography of the respondents. The data were collected from 360 respondents, of which 76.9% respondents were male, and the other 23.1% respondents were female. This largely represents the male-female ratio in workplace situations in the country generally. Nearly 23% of the men are young (18 - 30 years), 36% are middle-aged (31 - 40 years) and nearly 41% are old (41 - 67 years). Amongst the females, the profile is different. More than 44% are young, 38% are middle-aged while only about 18% are old (Table 6.1).

Table 6.1
Social and Individual Diversity among Respondents

Categories of respondents	Number of Respondents s N = 360	Percentage Distribution
Sex:		
Male	276	76.9
Female	84	23.1
Marital Status		
Single	78	21.9
Married	267	75.0
Others	15	3.1
Age: (Mean = 37.13; SD = 9.39; Mode = 45; Median = 36)		
Young (18 - 30 Years)	96	27.9
Middle (31 - 40 Years)	126	36.6
Old (41 - 67 Years)	122	35.5

The respondents ranged between 18 to 67 years of age. The mean age of the respondents was calculated at about 37 years, with SD=9.39. A little more than 51% of the respondents were below the age of 36 years, while only around 8% of the respondents were above 50 years of age. Distribution of the respondents based on the 33rd percentile shows that 27.9% of them are young, 36.6% in the middle age, and about 35.5% are old. Besides, it is also important to mention here that around 72% of the respondents enjoy family status, and have been living in the UAE with their families.

6.1.2 Educational Differences

The level of education is an important variable. As education equips individuals with abilities to make most rational decisions, it is likely to have an impact on the attitudes relating to job satisfaction and work performance. Although education does not only mean and include formal education in the form of numbers of years of schooling or obtaining a degree, it is this form of education which largely determines the choices of work. Besides, in view of enormous difficulties in measuring the level of informal

education, we did collect data only on the formal level of education of the respondents. The analysis is presented in Table 6.2

Table 6. 2
Educational Diversity among Respondents

Educational Background:	Number of Respondents	Percentage Distribution
Secondary and below	28	7.9
Diploma	32	8.9
Higher Diploma	38	10.6
Undergraduate	85	23.6
Graduate	164	45.6
Others	13	3.6
Areas of specialisation:		
Business and Commerce	78	21.7
Engineering and Technology	51	14.2
Medicine	32	8.9
Education and Teachers Training	71	19.7
General Arts and Science	31	8.6
Media and Mass Communication	13	3.6
Other	84	23.4

Around 9% of the respondents were educated up to secondary level or below while 19.5% had a diploma or higher diploma. A little more than 23% were found have a bachelor's degree whereas nearly 46% had a postgraduate degree in one discipline or the another. An overwhelming majority of the respondents were found to be professionals. Around 22% had formal education in commerce and business, more than 14% were engineers, 9% were either pharmacists or doctors, another were trained teachers, and almost 4% were media professionals. Around 32% of the respondents had general arts and science education (Table 6.2)

A cross-tabulation between the age profile and educational profile of the respondents reveals that amongst the younger respondents, only about 6% are educated up to secondary level or less. Around 22% are holding a diploma or higher diploma, while about 70% of them are educated up to the university level. So was the case with middle-aged and old respondents. But there is a difference in the sense that the younger respondents are more technically qualified than the older respondents are. The relationship is found to be statistically significant (Chi=26.14842; C=.26724; df=14; p<.02478). There is also evidence to support that the educational profile of the

workforce has almost remained unchanged over the years. A cross-tabulation between the level of education of the respondents and their years of residence in the UAE has shown only a weak relationship (Chi=14.95993; C=.20529; df=6; p<.38090).

6.1.3 Organisational Differences

The nature of work and workplace environment is also likely to be major determinant of attitudes pertaining to job satisfaction. Hence data were collected on the nature, type and size of organisations that the respondents are currently serving. The analysis is presented in (Table 6.3).

More than 20% of the respondents are found to be working in government establishments, whereas around 66% of them are employed in private sector establishments. Nearly 7% of the respondents are working in joint sector companies. Almost an equal number of respondents reported that they are working for other types of organisation but it seems that they too are working in the private sector, pushing the proportion of respondents working in the private sector to 72.5%. Only about 5% of the respondents were employed in manufacturing types of organisation, while a little more than 9% of them each were engaged in retailing and the construction sector. A predominant proportion of 46.7% was employed in the services and utilities sector (Table 6.3).

It is important to note that amongst the respondents working in the government establishments, about 25% are young, another 25% are middle-aged, and the remaining 50% are old. However in the joint sector establishments about 26% of the employees are young, and another 44% are middle-aged. In sharp contrast to the governmental establishments, only about 30% of the employees are old-aged.

Table 6.3
Organisational Diversity among Respondents

Type of Organisation	Number of Respondents	Percentage Distribution
Government	75	20.8
Joint Sector	24	6.7

Private Sector	237	65.8
Others	24	6.7
Nature of Organisation:		
Manufacturing	18	5.0
Trading and Retailing	33	9.2
Construction	34	9.4
Services and Utilities	168	46.7
Others	107	29.7
Size of Organisation: (Number of people working in the organisation) (Mean = 311; SD = 354.52; Median = 150; Mode = 998)		
Very Small (3 - 40)	67	20.6
Small (41 - 100)	69	21.2
Middle (101 - 200)	68	20.9
Large (201 - 700)	61	18.8
Very Large (More than 700)	60	18.5
Years of service in organisation (Mean = 6.59; SD = 6.08)		
Short (Between 1 - 2 Years)	101	29.5
Medium (Between 3 - 7 Years)	133	38.9
Long (Between 8 - 35 Years)	108	31.6

Almost a similar situation was reported for the private sector establishments. It seems that the respondents working in the joint sector and private sector establishments are relatively younger than those working in the government sector. The relationship appears to be statistically significant (Chi=16.35487; C=.21423; df=6; p<.01197). The relationship seems to be quite in line with the general observation. As a substantial proportion of employees in governmental are UAE nationals, they are not on contract appointment, and remain in the employment until they reach the age of retirement, which is 60 years.

It is also important to note that more than 94% of the workers in the manufacturing, trading and construction sectors were men, while in the utilities and services sector only about 73% of the workforce were men and the rest women. It seems that the women have marked preferences for office-related jobs, and are still not coming forward to take up jobs requiring fieldwork. This relationship seems quite significant (Chi=17.556; C=.21945; df=4; p<.00151)

A very significant relationship was found between the sector of employment and the years of residence in the UAE. There seems to be a marked change in the job opportunities in the country. Amongst the respondents who have been in the country for more than 16 years, around 41% are employed in the government sector, 10% in the joint sector, and only about 50% in the private sector. As against this, among the respondents who have been in the country for 6 to 15 years, as many as 75% are found working in the private sector and only 25% in the government and joint sectors. Amongst the respondents living in the country for 5 years or less, as many as 91% were found to be working in the private sector. The relationship was statistically significant (Chi=56.72690; C=.37909; df=6; p<.00001). It is obvious that over the years, most of the jobs are being created in the private sector.

As regards the number of workers employed in the respondents' organisation, the respondents reported substantial variations. There were organisations with as few workers as 3, while there were as large a number of workers as more than 1000 with the median at 150 employees. However, only 4% of the respondents were working in organisation with less than 10 workers, but more than 20% of the respondents were working in establishments employing more than 600 workers. It is often reported in the media that most of the private sector organisations in the UAE are of small size. This argument seems true. There was found to be a very significant relationship between the sectors of organisation and size. A significantly higher proportion of the government sector establishment (63%) were of large or very large size, while as many as 51% of the private sector establishments were of small size (Chi=55.51764; C=.38427; df=12; p<.00001). Distribution of respondents by the size of their organisation based on 20th percentile shows that about 21% of the respondents are employed in organisation with less than 40 employees, whereas an almost equal number of them are employed in organisation with employees between 41 to 100 employees. The proportion of respondents working in organisation with employees between 101 to 200 works out to be the same, whereas about 19% are working each in organisation with 201 to 700 employees, and those with more than 700 (Table 6.3).

It is interesting to note that the proportion of women workers in the small-sized organisation is substantially higher than in the large-sized organisation. The cross tabulation result shows that 31% of the workforce in small-sized organisation comprise

of women while in the middle-sized organisation, the proportion of women is no more than 26%. In large organisation, the proportion of the women workers is even less, as it works out to be only about 11%. The relationship is found to be statistically significant (Chi=13.53; C=.19539; df=2; p<.00115).

There was also found to be a significant relationship between the size of the organisation and the marital status of the respondents. A significantly larger proportion of singles was employed in small-sized organisation than in the medium-sized and large-sized organisation. The cross-tabulation result shows that around 59% of the singles were working in small-sized organisation, whereas 32% of them were working in the medium sized organisation and only 9% of them were employed in the large organisation. In other words, more than 43% of the respondents working in small organisation were found to be single, while only about 18% in the medium sized organisations and just 7% in large-sized organisations reported unmarried status. The relationship was found to be statistically significant (Chi=50.12743; C=.35938; df=6; p<.0000).

There was found to be a significant relationship between the age of the respondents and the number of years of service in the organisation. Amongst those who have had only a short span of service in their present organisation, nearly 54% were young, as compared to only 30% in the case of those who have been in the service of the present organisation between 3 to 7 years. Only about 3% of the respondents having more than 8 years of experience in their present job were found to be young. The relationship is found to be statistically significant (Chi=84.47493; C=.45255; df=4; p<.0000). The relationship indicates the relative job security in the workplace situations in the country, despite the fact that most of the workers are on contract appointments which are subject to review annually.

It is also important to note that a significant relationship seems to exist between the type of organisations and size of organisations. The cross-tabulation shows that while 50% of the manufacturing organisations are of large or very large size, as many as 70% of the trading and retailing establishments are of small or very small size. So is the case with the construction sector. While only 18% were found to be large or very large, as many as 53% are small or very small. However, the responses in the case of the utility and

services sector are nearly normally distributed across different sizes (Chi=31.69146; C=.30147; df=16; p<.01097).

As was the case with the size of organisation, substantial variations were found in the years of experience of the respondents in the present organisation. The reported number of years of service ranged from 1 year to 35 years. However, as many as about 42% of the respondents have been with the present organisation for three years or less. Around 58% of the respondents have been in the service of the present organisation for five years or less. Only a little less than 10% of the respondents have been working in their present organisations for more than 15 years. Distribution of the respondents by years of experience in the present organisation based on the 33rd percentile shows that around 30% have been working in their present organisation for 1 to 2 years. Approximately 39% of them have an experience of 3 to 7 years in the present organisation. About 32% have been with the present organisation for more than 8 years (Table 6.3).

The years of service in the organisation and the sector of employment seem to bear a significant relationship. As many as 49% of those working in the government sector establishments have been with their organisation for a fairly long time, as compared to only 38% of the respondents working in the joint sector establishment for a similar time. In the case of respondents working in the private sector, only 24% have been in their organisations for a long period of time (Chi=20.61630; C=.23977; df=6; p<.00215). This indicates that the employee turnover is higher in the joint and private sector organisations. In other words, jobs in the government sector establishments are relatively more secure and lasting. This could also be on account of the fact that a significant proportion of the government jobs are held by the UAE nationals who are appointed on permanent basis.

The years of service in the organisation and the type of organisation also bear a significant relationship. It was found that 39% of the respondents in the manufacturing and services types of organisations have been with their organisation for a shorter period of time. In contrast only 33% of those in the trading types of organisations, 24% of the respondents working in the utilities, and only 19% in the construction types of organisations have been with their present organisation for relatively shorter period of time. As against this, while only 28% of the respondents in the manufacturing types of

organisation reported being with their organisations for a fairly long period of time, as many as 40% of those in the trading sector, and 33% of those in the utilities and services sectors claimed to have spent a fairly long time with their organisations (Chi=16.50430; C=.21762; df=8; p<.03571).

6.1.4 Economic Differences

There could be a variety of measures of economic background. If we go by the monetary compensation received by the respondents from their present employer, we find that about 5% of them are receiving salaries of less than AED 2000 per month, while those receiving salaries of more than AED 8000 is about 25% (Table 6.4).

Table 6.4
Economic Differences among Respondents

Monthly Salary of Respondents (In AED)	Number of Respondents	Percentage Distribution
Under 1000	3	0.8
1001 - 2000	14	4.0
2001 - 4000	80	22.6
4001 - 6000	119	33.6
6001 - 8000	49	13.8
8001 - 10000	29	8.2
Over 10000	60	16.9
Number of Pay Rises received (Mean = 2.33; SD =2.88)		
None	115	35.1
1 - 3	135	40.2
4 - 6	48	12.5
7 -9	14	4.2
Ten and More	23	7.0

Nonetheless, around 63% of the respondents have also been provided with accommodation by their employers, but approximately only 50% of such people are satisfied with the housing facility provided. A clear 13% of such people are not satisfied with their housing arrangement, whereas around 37% of such people refused to answer the question.

Generally, respondents working in the government and joint sector establishments were getting higher salaries than those in private sector establishments. The cross-tabulation shows that as many as 33% of the respondents working in the government sector are drawing salaries of over AED 10,000, whereas as many as 38% of those respondents

working in joint sector establishments were getting this salary. As compared to this, only 9.4% of the respondents in the private sector establishments were drawing this much salary. Similarly, while only 23% of the government employees, and 17% of the joint sector employees reported to be receiving less than AED 4000 a month, as many as 30% of the private sector employees were found to be receiving this little salary. The relationship was found to be statistically significant (Chi=43.42974; C=.33225; df=12; $p<.00002$).

However, the-cross tabulation between the type of organisation and the income of the respondents measured in terms of salaries showed no significant relationship. The level of income of the respondents seems to be evenly distributed across all types of organisations (Chi=19.57051; C=.23201; df=16; $p<.24019$).

What appears more significant is the fact that few women respondents were found to be working for salaries of less than AED 2000, but most of them were found to be concentrated in jobs offering salaries of AED 2000 to 6000. The proportion of women declines substantially as the salary levels go up. It is found that only about 4% of the women workers are getting salaries higher than AED 6000, while only 2.5% of the women are getting salaries of more than AED 10,000. The relationship is statistically quite significant (Chi=29.029; C=.27566; df=4; $p<.00001$).

As would be expected, nearly 50% of the respondents receiving salaries of less than AED 2000 are single, while amongst those drawing salaries of AED 2000 to 4000, about 31% are single. Similarly, amongst those drawing salaries of AED 6000 and more, only about 10% are single. The relationship is significant (Chi=20.34760; C=.2344; df=12; $p<.06079$).

A significant relationship is also found between the age of the respondents and their salaries. Amongst the respondents receiving salaries of less than AED 2000, more than 53% are young, 33% middle-aged, and 13% old. As against this, amongst the respondents receiving salaries of AED 2000 to 4000, only about 39% are young, 40% middle-aged, and about 21% old. Amongst those receiving salaries of AED 4000 to 6000, only about 26% were found to be young, 40% middle-aged and 33% old. As the salary level increases further, the proportion of the old rises significantly. There seems

to be a direct relationship between the age of the respondents and their salaries. The relationship appears to be statistically significant (Chi=33.5439; C=.29967; df=8; $p<.00005$).

Similarly, a very significant relationship was also found between the salary and the nationality of the respondents. A significantly larger proportion (71%) of the UAE nationals were found working for salaries of more than AED 6000, while none of them was working for a salary of less than AED 2000. As compared to this, a substantial proportion (76%) of Arab expatriates were working for salaries between AED 2000 to 6000. As regards non-Arab Asians, as many as 11% were receiving salaries of less than AED 2000 while only 11% were getting more than AED 10000. Nearly 82% of the western expatriates were getting salaries of AED 4000 to 6000. It seems that the UAE nationals are best paid, followed by the Arabs and Western expatriates. The relationship was found to be statistically significant (Chi=104.44271; C=.47888; df=12; $p<.00001$).

A very significant relationship was found between the years of service in the organisation and the income of the respondents. It seems that that in most of the cases the experience in the organisation does count as far as the fixing of pay is concerned. It appears that people with longer service in the organisation get relatively higher salaries (Chi=43.02282; C=.33515; df=8; $p<.00001$).

More than how much a person receives as salary, what is important is whether the employee receives pay rises. From this point of view, it is found that more than 35% of the respondents did not get any pay rise during their stay with the present organisation. However, more than 41% of the respondents can be called climbers, as they reported receiving 1 to 3 rises during their current employment. Around one fourth of the respondents were lucky, as they reported to have received more than four pay rises (Table 6.4).

Statistically, a significant relationship was found between the number of pay rises received and the marital status of the respondents (Chi=17.09854; C=.22389; df=6; $p<.00893$). The cross-tabulation shows that amongst those who did not receive even a single pay rise, more than a third are single, whereas they are only a fifth amongst those

who received 1 to 3 pay rises. Amongst those who received more than 4 pay rises, only about 9% were found to be single.

Similarly, a statistically significant relationship was also found between the age of the respondents and the number of pay rises received. As would be expected, the number of rises bears a direct relationship with the age of the respondents. A relatively larger proportion of the older age group respondents received higher pay rises as compared to the young and the middle age group respondents. The relationship was found to be statistically significant ($\chi^2=19.51528$; $C=.24190$; $df=4$; $p<.00062$) As was the case with the pay, there appears to be a significant relationship between the years of service in the organisation and the number of pay rises received . As expected, a larger proportion of the respondents with a few years of experience reported to have received no pay rises, but a significantly larger proportion of the respondents having been in their organisation for more than 7 years reported to have received more than 4 pay rises ($\chi^2=113.81053$; $C=.51458$; $df=4$; $p<.00001$). Similarly, larger proportions of those working in the government sector jobs were found to have received more rises than the respondents in the joint and private sectors. A cross-tabulation between the two variables shows that about 29% of the government employees, and 23% of the joint sector employees received no pay rises, as against 37% of the private sector employees. Similarly, while 38% of the government employees and 36% of the joint sector employees received more than 4 pay rises, only 18% of the private sector employees could call themselves so lucky. The relationship was found to be significant ($\chi^2=16.78430$; $C=.22160$; $df=6$; $p<.01011$).

6.2 Section II: Job satisfaction in Culturally Diverse Workforce

This section aims to give a better understanding of job satisfaction in a culturally diverse workforce in the UAE. This will be achieved by examining overall job satisfaction, as well as satisfaction from reward, satisfaction from direct supervision, and satisfaction from top management. For this purpose, initially, each of the four previously mentioned aspects of job satisfaction will be examined against selected work and non-work variables for the total sample, which will be treated as a single group.

This undivided group should provide a good understanding of the respondents' sample general features. The examination of each national group will be kept for the next chapter. These two chapters therefore complement each other.

Job satisfaction is not simple to understand. In fact, it is always treated as a complex and multifaceted concept which can mean different things to different people. Job satisfaction is more of an attitude, an internal state, and could be linked with personal feeling of achievement. The present work is concerned with studying selected aspects of job satisfaction among employees from different nationalities working in the cross-cultural settings of the UAE workplace. The work is thus more concerned with the dimensions of job satisfaction which are affected by a wide range of variables relating to individual, social, cultural, organisational and environmental factors.

The individual factors include personality, education, intelligence, age, and marital status of the individual, while the social factors include relationship with fellow workers, group working norms, opportunities for interaction, and the level of informal organisation. The cultural factors emphasise the underlying attitudes, beliefs and values that the employees from different cultural background bring with them. The organisational factors, on the other hand, include the nature and size, formal structure, personnel policies and procedure, employee relations, nature of the work, supervision, and style of leadership and work environment. The organisational factors include the economic, social and technological influences on the workplace environment.

When an individual joins an organisation, he or she makes a psychological contract with the organisation. In fact, it is an informal contract that defines the overall set of expectations held by an individual with respect to what he or she will contribute to the organisation and what the organisation will provide to that individual in return. It goes much beyond the formal job agreement signed between the employer and the employee. The individual is expected to make a variety of contributions to the organisation, and these include such things as effort, skills, ability, time, loyalty, commitment, and dedication. These contributions primarily satisfy the needs and requirements of an organisation. In return for these contributions, the organisation is expected to provide inducement to the individuals, and this inducement must go beyond the pay packages. Such inducements as the pay and career opportunities are tangible rewards. But the

intangible rewards, like job security, social and organisational status, and self-esteem are equally important. Just as the contribution available from the individual must satisfy the needs of the organisations, the inducements offered by the organisations must satisfy the needs and expectations of the individual.

If both the individual and the organisation perceive that the psychological contract is fair and equitable, they will be satisfied with the relationship and are likely to continue it. On the other hand, if either party sees an imbalance or inequity, it may want to change it (Hackman and Oldham, 1975). However, in many situations, it may simply not be possible. In an over-populous country where it is hard to find a job, an individual may still continue to remain in the job despite the fact that he is not satisfied with the relationship, but he would be a frustrated person. Quite similarly, in a protected economy, where employers do not find it that easy to fire an employee, they may have to put up with an individual even though he/she does not satisfy the conditions of the psychological agreement. From the previous discussion, it can be concluded that a better understanding of individual and organisational differences among the workers, as well as an awareness of the nature of the relationships with different aspects of job satisfaction, can contribute positively to the general work environment.

6.2.1 Measures of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is an emotion, a feeling, an attitude and a matter of perception. It results from an appraisal of an employee's experiences at work, and therefore offers complexities when it comes to the quantification of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction involves likes, dislikes, extrinsic and intrinsic needs. It is within the employee's control, and yet also beyond his control.

For the purpose of the present study, four aspects of job satisfaction have been carefully identified. The first of these is well known as "overall job satisfaction". It deals with employees' satisfaction from their workplace and work environment. That includes the physical conditions, working freedom, relationship with fellow workers, recognition from work, relationship with supervisor, responsibility, pay-scale, opportunities,

worker-management relationship, chances of promotion, employee treatment, attention to the suggestion, duration of the working hours, job variety and job security.

In order to get information from the respondents on overall job satisfaction, the respondents were presented with a statement on each of the above aspects, and were asked to give their unbiased opinion on a six-point scale starting from 'extremely dissatisfied' through to 'extremely satisfied'. The data so collected were tabulated to ascertain the level of satisfaction for each of the aspects of the work environment. Later, the responses were used to develop a scale based on the Likert method to ascertain overall job satisfaction from the workplace and work environment of the respondents. The items were assigned a straight weight from 1 to 6, and non-responses were assigned the middle value of 3.5; in other words, the non-responses were considered as if the respondents were not sure of the level of satisfaction.

The second aspect of the job satisfaction taken in the study was in relation to satisfaction from reward. To this end, the respondents were presented with several aspects of pay and promotion satisfaction, and were asked to respond to them in 'yes' or 'no' format. The data so collected were tabulated to find out satisfaction on different dimensions of reward, which includes pay and monetary compensation, as well as promotion. In order to ascertain an overall satisfaction from reward, the responses were scored to develop a scale using the Likert method. The positive statements in the item were assigned a reverse weight, while the negative items were assigned a straight weight from 1 to 2. The non-responses were considered as 'can't say', and were thus assigned a weight of 1.5.

The third and fourth aspects deal with the satisfaction from the supervision and top management, respectively. To this end, the respondents were presented with specific statements about their immediate supervisors and chief executive, and were asked to express their honest opinion in the form of 'yes' or 'no'. The responses so collected were tabulated to ascertain the level of satisfaction from their supervision and leadership.

The responses were also used to develop a job satisfaction scale using the Likert method. The positive statements were assigned reverse weight while the negative statements were assigned a straight weight from 1 to 2. The non-responses were

assigned the middle value of 1.5. The result of the analysis is presented in the following paragraphs.

6.2.2 Overall Job Satisfaction

As the overall job satisfaction includes a number of factors, the respondents were asked to express their level of satisfaction with regard to 15 carefully selected items, on a six-point scale ranging from 'extremely dissatisfied' to 'extremely satisfied'. The items selected covered the physical, human, monetary and emotional aspects of the workplace environment. The percentage distribution of the responses is presented in Table 6.5.

In order to facilitate interpretation of the responses, the mean score of the responses has been worked out by assigning a straight weight to the responses from 1 to 6, with non-responses assigned the weight of 3.5. The mean score seeks to measure the level of satisfaction with respect to numerous aspects of job satisfaction. The way the weight was assigned to the responses, the higher the mean score higher would be the level of job satisfaction: a mean score of 6 would mean extreme job satisfaction, whereas a mean score of 1 would mean extreme dissatisfaction (Table 6.5).

A glance at the table indicates that the respondents are largely satisfied with different aspects of their workplace and work environment. It is obvious from the data that the highest score works out for the human and inter-personal relationship aspects of job satisfaction as reflected by the responses on 'relationship with fellow workers' and 'relationship with the immediate supervisor'. This is quite understandable, knowing the Arabian culture of hospitality and courtesy; people are generally polite and understanding and have a high human orientation. Considering the Arabian tradition of hospitality and courtesy, it is also possible that these responses are biased, as the respondents did not want to express their most honest opinion with respect to their supervisors. It therefore seems important to examine this aspect in much more detail. To this end, further analysis has been attempted with regard to satisfaction from supervision in the forthcoming paragraphs.

Table 6. 5
Job Satisfaction from
Workplace and Work Environment

	Mean Score	Percentage of Respondents Saying						
		Extremely Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied	Moderately Dissatisfied	Moderately Satisfied	Very Satisfied	Extremely Satisfied	Non-Response
Physical working conditions	4.3	1.1	1.7	10.8	45.0	33.1	7.2	1.1
Freedom in method of working	4.3	3.3	3.1	7.5	43.9	33.6	8.1	0.6
Relationship with fellow workers	4.7	0.6	0.0	3.3	30.6	51.4	13.3	0.8
Recognition for good work	4.1	2.8	4.2	11.7	44.2	29.4	5.8	1.9
Relationship with immediate Supervisor	4.6	0.8	1.7	4.7	31.9	45.0	14.4	1.4
Amount of Responsibility	4.4	1.9	3.1	5.8	37.5	38.9	10.8	1.9
Pay Scale	3.8	4.7	6.4	18.1	47.5	17.2	4.2	1.9
Opportunity to use abilities	4.1	3.9	5.0	10.3	37.8	29.4	8.6	5.0
Worker-Management Relationship	4.3	1.7	1.7	10.0	41.4	34.2	7.5	3.6
Chances of promotion	3.7	7.2	9.2	20.3	33.9	17.8	5.3	6.4
The way employer treats you	4.3	2.5	2.8	8.6	35.3	32.2	12.5	6.1
Attention to the suggestions you make	4.1	2.8	3.1	13.3	38.9	30.8	5.3	5.8
Working Hours	4.2	1.4	6.7	11.7	30.8	39.2	6.7	3.6
Job Variety	4.2	2.2	2.5	13.3	37.2	35.6	5.3	3.9
Job Security	4.0	5.6	5.8	13.6	35.8	28.6	6.7	3.9
Overall Job Satisfaction from Workplace and Work Environment								
Level of Job Satisfaction		Number of Respondents			Percentage Distribution			
Low	(24.5 to 59.0)	120			33.3			
Medium	(60.0 to 68.0)	129			35.8			
High	(68.5 to 89.0)	111			30.8			

On the other hand, the lowest mean score worked out for the monetary aspects of job satisfaction. The lowest mean score was thus reported for the satisfaction from pay scale and chances of promotion. In fact, both of these items seek to measure the monetary compensation aspect of job satisfaction. This on one hand conforms to the labour market practices in the country, where the market is extremely in favour of the employer rather than the employees. But in another sense, the responses seem strange. As most of the workers are expatriates mostly from more populous countries, where monetary

compensations are extremely poor compared to what is offered in the UAE, it is generally expected that the employees would be somewhat more satisfied with their pay packages. This aspect too needs to be further examined.

In order to have a comprehensive view of the overall job satisfaction, an overall scale has been developed using the Likert method, taking responses for all the 15 items discussed in Table 6.5. The scale seeks to measure overall job satisfaction from the workplace and work environment and, theoretically, may range between 15 to 90. A score of 15 would mean the lowest job satisfaction, while a score of 90 would mean highest job satisfaction. It is found that the range works out to be 24.5 to 89. Using the 33rd percentile, the respondents were classified into three groups. Respondents scoring between 24.5 to 59 were termed as having low level satisfaction; such respondents accounted for 33.3% of the total. Respondents scoring between 60 to 68 were termed as having medium level job satisfaction and were 35.8% of the total respondents. The respondents scoring more than 68.5 were termed as those with high-level job satisfaction; such respondents were 30.8% of the total respondents. These groups have later been used to develop cross-tabulation in order to establish association and relationship of key variables with the level of job satisfaction.

The level of job satisfaction across gender was found to be moderately associated. The cross-tabulation results show that while 33.7% of the men reported low over all job satisfaction the women reporting low overall job satisfaction, were only 31.3%. Similarly, while 38% of the men reported a moderate level of overall job satisfaction, only 29% of the women reported this. As regards high level of overall job satisfaction, while only 28% of the men were found reporting high job satisfaction, the proportion of women workers was significantly higher, at 40%. The relationship is not quite significant statistically ($\chi^2=4.31620$; $C=.109$; $df=2$; $p<.11554$). However, it seems that the gender of the respondents does have some effect on the overall job satisfaction. Maybe the women workers find the work environment more conducive in the Arab world.

Only a mild relationship was found between the overall job satisfaction and the marital status of the respondents. Amongst the respondents reporting low level job satisfaction, about 26% were single, while amongst those reporting moderate job satisfaction, around

23% were single. In the case of the respondents reporting high level of job satisfaction, not more than 17% were single ($\chi^2=9.24438$; $C=.15909$; $df=6$; $p<.16029$). It seems that the marital status of the respondents only mildly affects their level of job satisfaction.

Although not very significant, variations were also found in the level of overall job satisfaction across respondents of different age groups. Amongst the respondents reporting low level of overall job satisfaction, 30% were found to be young, 45% middle-aged and 25% old. As regards respondents reporting a moderate level of overall job satisfaction, nearly 27% were found to be young, 34% middle-aged, and around 40% old. Similarly, amongst the respondents reporting a high level of job satisfaction, only 27% were young, 32% were middle-aged, and 42% were old. Alternatively speaking, 35, 34 and 30% of the young respondents reported low, medium and high level of satisfaction, meaning that their responses were normally distributed. However, amongst the middle-aged, a significantly larger proportion, i.e. 45%, reported low level job satisfaction, while only 32% reported high level overall job satisfaction. The old age group respondents however, report altogether a different experience, as only 23% of them report a low level of overall job satisfaction, 40% moderate job satisfaction, and nearly 42% reported high level job satisfaction. The relationship was found to be statistically significant ($\chi^2=8.56459$; $C=.15586$; $df=4$; $p<.07295$).

It is normally expected that the fresh entrants into a new environment would be having a different level of job satisfaction, as compared to those who have been part and parcel of the environment over a period of time. However, the cross-tabulation between respondents' years of residence in UAE and their level of overall job satisfaction did not reveal any significant relationship ($\chi^2=2.91404$; $C=.09165$; $df=4$; $p<.57231$). So was the case with respect to the level of education. No significant relationship was found between the level of education of the respondents and the overall job satisfaction ($\chi^2=17.26798$; $C=.21509$; $df=14$; $p<.24218$). The years of experience in the organisation seems to bear only less than significant relationship with the level of overall job satisfaction ($\chi^2=7.52214$; $C=.14670$; $df=4$; $p<.11074$).

The overall job satisfaction was found to be only moderately associated with sector of employment. As many as 40% of the respondents working in government sector jobs

reported to have low level job satisfaction, while amongst the respondents working in the joint and private sectors, 46 and 32%, respectively reported low level job satisfaction. Nearly a third of the respondents working in the government and private sector reported moderate job satisfaction, while as many as 36% of those working in the private sector reported moderate level of job satisfaction. Similarly, while only 28% of those in the government sector reported high level job satisfaction, only 21% in the joint sector, and 32% in the private sector establishments reported high level job satisfaction (Chi=10.05943; C=.16623; df=6; p<.12217).

It is also important to note that the level of overall job satisfaction of the respondents seems to vary by the types of organisations they are working in. The cross-tabulation between the two variables shows that nearly 50% of the respondents working in the manufacturing types of organisations report low level overall job satisfaction. As against this, about 28% of them report a moderate level of overall job satisfaction while only 22% of those in the manufacturing organisations report high level job satisfaction. Amongst the respondents working in the trading and retailing types of organisation, while 30% of them report low level satisfaction, as much as 42% report high level job satisfaction.

The reported level of overall job satisfaction in the construction sector is almost similar to that of the manufacturing sector, as 44% of the respondents working in such types of organisations report low level overall job satisfaction, while as few as 24% report high level of job satisfaction. So was found the case with the utility sector, where increasing proportion of the respondents reported low level overall job satisfaction.

Although the relationship between the types of organisation and level of overall job satisfaction was not found statistically significant (Chi=10.29936; C=.16954; df=8; p<.24464), but it seems that the respondents working in the monotonous or stressful work environment, as typically characterised by the manufacturing and construction sectors have low level job satisfaction. As against this, the respondents working in the office or semi-office settings, as is characterised by the utility, services and trading types of organisations, report moderate to high level overall job satisfaction.

The overall job satisfaction of the respondents also appears to be moderately associated with the size of the organisation where they work. While as many as about 40 to 41% of the respondents working in small-sized organisations reported low level overall job satisfaction, only about 29 to 30% of the respondents working in such organisations reported high level job satisfaction. As against this, among the respondents working in large-sized organisations as many as 32 to 37% reported low level job satisfaction, while as many as 37% reported high level of job satisfaction (Chi=16.41747; C=.21929; df=8; p<.03678).

The overall job satisfaction, as would be expected in a materialistic labour force as in the UAE, is found to be directly associated with the salary of the respondents. The cross tabulation shows that amongst the respondents receiving salaries as low as AED 2000 a month, around 70% report low level job satisfaction, while another 30% report moderate level job satisfaction.

Amongst the respondents receiving between AED 2000 to 4000, nearly 36% have low level of satisfaction while 35% report having high level satisfaction. As against this, amongst the respondents receiving monthly salary of more than AED 10000, as many as 42% were found having high level overall job satisfaction. The relationship was found to be statistically significant (Chi=21.24822; C=.23796; df=8; p<.00652).

6.2.3 Satisfaction from reward

As was seen in the preceding paragraphs, a larger section of the respondents reported relatively low level satisfaction from their pay and other reward aspects relating to their job. In order to have a better grasp, and to examine the issue in detail, data were collected from the respondents on different aspects of their pay and monetary benefit. To this end, the respondents were asked to give their most honest opinion in 'Yes' or 'No' format with respect to fifteen different statements seeking to find out their feelings and experiences. The result of the analysis is presented in (Table 6.6).

Table 6.6
Satisfaction from Reward

Do you agree with the following statements? Number of Respondents (N) =360; NR = No Response	Percentage of Respondents saying		
	Yes	No	NR
My pay is satisfactory	56.1	42.8	1.1
I am underpaid for what I do	50.6	45.0	4.4
My income and income of my subordinate differ significantly	56.7	34.7	8.6
My income is as good as that of others	50.3	46.1	3.6
My pay is poor	36.1	62.8	1.1
I am highly paid	12.2	85.8	1.9
My income is as good as the income of my friends	53.6	43.1	3.3
The system of promotion in my organisation is fair	48.9	46.1	5.0
The prospect of promotion in my organisation is very limited	67.2	29.4	3.3
It is easy to get promotion in my organisation	17.2	78.3	4.4
There is favouritism in promotion in my organisation	45.8	46.7	7.5
There are good opportunities for promotion in my organisation	35.0	60.0	5.0
My experience increases my prospect for promotion	60.3	36.1	3.6
The job I do is a dead-end job	33.1	61.4	5.6
The good jobs are usually taken before you hear of them	41.1	53.3	5.6
Overall Satisfaction From Reward			
Scale	Number of respondents	Percentage	
Low (15.0 to 20.5)	124	34.4	
Medium (20.5 to 23.0)	126	35.0	
High (23.5 to 29.0)	110	30.6	

It may be seen from the data that, on average, only 46 to 55% of the respondents seem to be satisfied with their pay, both in absolute term and in relative terms. One of the

striking observations that needs to be highlighted here is that nearly 86% of the respondents feel that they are highly paid. But, at the same time, 43% also feel that their income is not as high as that of their friends with whom they socially interact and mix. In absolute terms, the respondents are more satisfied than in the relative terms. Similarly, least satisfaction is reported in the matter of future prospects of promotion in the organisation. While about 49% of the respondents feel that the system of promotion is fair in their organisation, more than 67% of the respondents believe that the prospects of promotion in their organisations are very limited. What is most de-motivating is the observation that only 47% of the respondents deny that there is no favouritism in promotion in their organisation (Table 6.6).

The responses have been used to develop a scale to measure reward-satisfaction using the Likert method on a two-point scale. The positive statements in the questionnaire were assigned reverse weight, i.e. 2 for Yes, and 1 for No. The negative statements were assigned a straight weight, i.e. 1 for Yes and 2 for No. The non-responses were assigned the middle value of 1.5.

The respondents were classified into three groups based on the 33rd percentile of their scores on the scale. Accordingly, the respondents scoring between 15 to 20.5 were termed as those having low level reward satisfaction, and such respondents were 34.4% of the total respondents. The respondents scoring between 20.5 to 23.5, who accounted for nearly 35% of the sample, were termed as having medium level satisfaction from reward. Around 30.6% of the respondents scored 23.5 or above in the scale, and were termed as having high level reward satisfaction. This scale and grouping, called overall reward satisfaction, has been used to study the relationship between pay satisfaction and other key variables.

Unlike overall job satisfaction, no significant difference was found across gender, as far as the satisfaction from reward was concerned. Both the men as well as women were found to have almost the same level of satisfaction from the reward ($\chi^2=0.48895$; $C=0.03688$; $df=2$; $p<0.78311$). So was the case with respect to the marital status of the respondent.

No significant relationship was found between the marital status of the respondents and their level of reward satisfaction. Amongst those reporting low level reward satisfaction, 24% were single, while among those reporting moderate to high level reward satisfaction, the proportion of the single was around 21%. It seems that the reward satisfaction across the marital status of the respondents is evenly distributed (Chi=6.19039; C=.13073; df=6; p<.40220). Also, no significant relationship was found to exist between the age of the respondents and their level of reward satisfaction. Although some differences were noted in the level of job satisfaction across different age groups, the association was significant only at the 61% level of confidence.

The relationship between the years of residence in the UAE and the level of reward satisfaction was found to be statistically significant (Chi=8.43821; C=.15473; df=4; p<.07678). It appears that a larger proportion of respondents who have been in the country for more than 16 years have high level satisfaction from reward. This is in contrast to the fact that a larger proportion of the respondents who have been in the country for less than 5 years report low level reward satisfaction. Perhaps this is so because a substantial proportion of the respondents living in the country for five years or less draw comparatively a much lower salary than those who have been in the country for more than 16 years. Amongst those who get as little salary as AED 2000, as 59%, are those who have been in the country for less than 5 years. So was the case with respect to those who are drawing salaries of AED 4000 to 6000 (Chi=56.11260; C=.37733; df=8; p<.00001).

The salary and the educational level of the respondents were found to be directly related, in the sense that respondents with higher level of education were largely receiving higher salaries. The cross-tabulation between the two variables reveals that nearly 60% of the respondents educated up to secondary level were drawing salaries of less than AED 4000, while 30% of them received salaries of AED 4000, to 6000. Compared to this, among the undergraduates, only 24% were receiving less than AED 4000 while around 52% were receiving between AED 4000 to 6000. Almost similar, was the case with respect to the graduates, except that a larger proportion of them were getting salaries in excess of AED 10000. The relationship between the salaries and the level of education was found to be statistically significant (Chi=64.37682; C=.39415; df=28; p<.00011).

However, no significant relationship could be established between the level of education and the number of pay rises received by the respondents (Chi=14.61925; C=.20778; df=14; p<.40467). It seems that pay rises are independent of the level of education and are determined by other factors. Against this backdrop, it is important to mention here that no significant relationship was found between the level of education and the overall reward satisfaction of the respondents (Chi=9.76510; C=.16339; df=14; p<.77915).

Although a significant association was found between the sector of employment and the salaries, the overall pay satisfaction across sectors of employment is found to largely normally distributed. In other words, the overall reward satisfaction cannot be said to be different across respondents working in different sectors. The cross-tabulation between the sector of employment and the level of overall pay satisfaction shows that nearly 36% of the respondents working in government and private sector jobs report low level reward satisfaction. However, only 21% of the respondents in the joint sector reported low level overall reward satisfaction. Similarly, while 32% of the government employees and 34% of the private sector employees report moderate level of overall reward satisfaction, as many as 54% in the joint sector reported moderate level reward satisfaction. It was also revealed that while 32% of those in the government sector, and 30% in the private sector report high level overall reward satisfaction, only 25% of the joint sector employees were found to be having high level reward satisfaction (Chi=6.48321; C=.13411; df=6; p<.37129).

Quite similarly, there was found some relationship between the types of organisation and the level of overall reward satisfaction among the respondents. The cross-tabulation between the two variables shows that a larger proportion of the respondents working in the manufacturing types of organisations report high level satisfaction from reward. The respondents working in the trading, utilities and services sectors seem to be equally distributed across different levels of overall reward satisfaction, while a larger proportion of the respondents in the construction sector report low level reward satisfaction. The relationship does not however appear to be statistically very significant (Chi=5.88839; C=.12899; df=8; p<.65973). However, no significant relationship could be established between the level of reward satisfaction and the size of the organisation (Chi=8.05896; C=.15555; df=8; p<.42773). Similarly, a significant relationship could

not be established between the level of overall reward satisfaction and the years of experience in the organisation (Chi=5.73102; C=.12838; df=4; p<.22016).

As was the case with the level of overall job satisfaction, the overall reward satisfaction was found to be significantly associated with the salary of the respondents. As many as 88% of the respondents receiving salaries of less than AED 2000 reported low level reward satisfaction, but only 40% of the respondents receiving salaries of AED 2000 to 4000 reported low level pay satisfaction. The proportion further declines for the respondents receiving between AED 4000 to 6000. Amongst the respondents receiving salaries as high as AED 6000 and more, as many as 45 to 47% report high level reward satisfaction. The relationship was found to be statistically significant (Chi=41.37752; C=.32350; df=8; p<.00001).

6.2.4 Satisfaction from supervision

Effective supervision plays a very important role in motivating employees. An effective supervisor can enthuse commitment and performance amongst the employees, and can especially increase their perceived job satisfaction as far as this study is concerned. To assess the level of satisfaction from supervision, the respondents were presented with thirteen positive and negative statements about their immediate supervisors, and were asked to give their most honest opinion in 'Yes' or 'No' format. In order to develop a scale of satisfaction from supervision, the responses to positive statements were assigned reverse weight of 2 and 1, while the responses to the negative statements were assigned straight weight of 1 and 2. The non-responses were assigned the weight of 1.5, the middle value. The analysis of the data is presented in Table 6.7.

Table 6.7
Satisfaction from Supervision

Do you agree with the following statements? Number of Respondents (N) =360; NR = No Response	Percentage of Respondents saying		
	Yes	No	NR
My immediate supervisor is friendly	83.1	8.9	8.1
My immediate supervisor is polite	83.6	7.8	8.6

My immediate supervisor is fair	77.5	14.7	7.8
My immediate supervisor knows the job	80.8	10.6	8.6
My immediate supervisor is fairly satisfactory	76.9	15.3	7.8
I can discuss problems with my immediate supervisor	20.8	71.4	7.8
My immediate supervisor puts unfair pressure on me	68.9	22.5	8.6
My immediate supervisor is snobbish	28.6	62.2	9.2
My immediate supervisor is inflexible	25.3	66.9	7.8
My immediate supervisor is reliable	75.0	15.0	10.0
My immediate supervisor accepts my advice	66.9	22.8	10.3
My immediate supervisor interferes in my work too much	19.2	72.8	8.1
I feel confident of my immediate supervisor's support when I make a decision	66.9	24.4	8.6
Overall Satisfaction from Supervisor			
Level of Job Satisfaction	Number of Respondents	Percentage Distribution	
Low (15.0 to 22.0)	138	38.3	
Medium (22.5 to 23.5)	78	21.7	
High (24.0 to 26)	144	40.0	

A glance at the table indicates that on average, the respondents reported a fairly high degree of satisfaction from supervision. More than 80% of the respondents report that their supervisors are friendly, polite and knowledgeable. However, around 70 to 76% of the respondents report that their supervisors are fair and have a fairly satisfactory supervisor style. Almost an equal percentage of the respondents report that they can discuss their problems with their supervisor, and that their supervisors do not interfere in their work too much.

Such a high level of satisfaction from supervision reported by the respondents can be indicative of one of two things. The supervisors are either so good and possess all those qualities of being effective that they keep their subordinates satisfied. But it is also possible that perhaps the respondents do not feel comfortable in giving their most honest opinions about their supervisors for fear of job security. Given the Arabian context, as the researcher has observed over a long period of time, it is the second possibility that seems more likely. People do not feel like criticising others, as this is

taken personally. As most people are on contract assignments where good relationship with their immediate supervisor plays a very important role in their survival in the organisation, speaking against supervisors is not easy and needs courage. This point gets further support from the fact that as many as 10% of the respondents have preferred not to respond to some of the questions in this section (Table 6.7).

Based on the scores obtained by the respondents on the Likert Scale, the respondents were classified into three groups using the 33rd percentile. Respondents scoring between 15 to 22 were termed as having low satisfaction from the supervision; such respondents were found to be a little more than 38% of the total respondents. Respondents scoring between 22.5 to 23 were termed as having medium satisfaction from supervision, and were found to be about 22% of the total respondents. The respondents scoring between 24 to 26 were found to be 40% of the total, and were termed as having high satisfaction from supervision. These groups have been used to establish association and relationship with some of the important variables.

As was the case with satisfaction from reward, no significant relationship could be found between gender and overall satisfaction from supervisor. Both the men and women respondents reported a similar level of satisfaction from their supervisor ($\chi^2=2.95319$; $C=.09033$; $df=2$; $p<.22841$). However, a significant relationship was found between the marital status of the respondents and their reported level of satisfaction from their supervisors. Amongst those reporting low level satisfaction from their immediate supervisor, about 26% were single, while amongst those reporting moderate and high level satisfaction from their supervisor, the unmarried singles were about 25 and 16%, respectively. The relationship is important and statistically significant ($\chi^2=13.95590$; $C=.19422$; $df=6$; $p<.03$). Expressed in other words, more than 46% of the singles were found to be having low level satisfaction from their supervisors. Is it so because the singles have their own frustrations and do not get along with their superiors well? Or is it so because the singles do not have much at stake as they are on their own, and can afford to take the risk of losing the job by annoying their superiors?

The level of satisfaction from the immediate supervisor and the age of the respondent too did not bear any significant relationship. Although there were some variations

across respondents of different age groups, the relationship could not be called statistically significant ($\text{Chi}=3.1952$; $C=.09594$; $\text{df}=4$; $p<.52564$).

A larger proportion of the respondents who have been in the country for less than 5 years, as well those who have lived in the country for more than 16 years, report low level satisfaction from supervision. This is in contrast to the experiences of the respondents who have been in the country for 6 to 15 years, as a larger proportion of such respondents report high level satisfaction from supervision. But the relationship was not found to be statistically very significant ($\text{Chi}=5.12176$; $C=.12112$; $\text{df}=4$; $p<.27503$).

Only a mild relationship was found between the level of education of the respondents and their level of satisfaction from the immediate supervisor. While a substantial proportion of the respondents up to secondary level and holding diplomas reported low level satisfaction from the supervision, a relatively higher proportion of the undergraduates and graduates reported higher level satisfaction from the supervision ($\text{Chi}=20.13295$; $C=.23136$; $\text{df}=14$; $p<.12601$). It seems that the university educated respondents are largely working in office settings, and do not feel the pinch of tough supervision as would be the case with diploma holders and those educated up to secondary level only, as they are supposed to work in the field under strict supervision. It can be concluded that higher educated respondents have a more realistic view about their supervisors.

The overall satisfaction from supervision was found to be evenly distributed across different sectors of employment. No significant relationship could be established between the sector of employment of the respondents and their level of satisfaction from the supervision. A cross-tabulation between the two variables shows that 44% of the respondents working in the government sector, 41% of the respondents working in the joint sector, and 37% of the respondents working in the private sector reported low level satisfaction. Similarly, 17% of the government, 29% of the joint sector, and 22% of the private sector employees reported moderate level satisfaction from supervision. It was also revealed that around 39% of the government, 29% of the joint sector, and 41% of the private sector employees reported high level satisfaction from supervision ($\text{Chi}=3.17649$; $C=.09430$; $\text{df}=6$; $p<.78639$).

However, the overall satisfaction from the immediate supervision seems to vary significantly across the types of organisations where respondents are working. The cross-tabulation reveals that while as many as 55 to 56% of the respondents working in the manufacturing, trading and construction types of organisations report low level satisfaction from their immediate supervisors, as many as 51% of the respondents working in the services types of organisations report high level satisfaction from their immediate supervisors. The relationship appears to be statistically significant ($\chi^2=19.82693$; $C=.23217$; $df=8$; $p<.01101$). It seems that the respondents working in such job settings where they are subject to more rigorous supervision have low level satisfaction from their immediate supervisors.

But the level of overall satisfaction from the supervision does not bear a significant relationship with the size of organisation ($\chi^2=7.87270$; $C=.15379$; $df=8$; $p<.44600$). Neither is the overall satisfaction from supervision found to be associated with the years of experience in the organisations ($\chi^2=2.28029$; $C=.08138$; $df=4$; $p<.68436$). The level of overall satisfaction from supervision is not found significantly related with the salaries of the respondents.

Although around 64% of the respondents receiving salaries as low as AED 2000 reported having low level satisfaction from their supervisor, while as many as 42% of the respondents receiving salaries as high as AED 10000 or more reported high level satisfaction from their supervisor, the relationship was not found statistically significant ($\chi^2=9.69692$; $C=.16329$; $df=8$; $p<.28695$).

6.2.5 Satisfaction from top management

Like supervision, top management also plays an essential role in determining the level of job satisfaction of the employees. The conduct of the leaders and top management can increase the workers' perceived job satisfaction if the top manager has the right abilities, vision and understanding. In order to know the satisfaction of the respondents from their top managers and chief executive, the respondents were presented with thirteen positive and negative statements about their immediate supervisors, and were asked to give their most honest opinion in 'Yes' or 'No' format. In order to develop a

scale of satisfaction from leadership the responses to positive statements were assigned reverse weight of 2 and 1, while the responses to the negative statements were assigned a straight weight of 1 and 2. The non-responses were assigned the weight of 1.5, the middle value. The analysis of the data is presented in Table 6.8.

Table 6.8
Satisfaction from Top Management

Do you agree with the following statements? Number of Respondents (N) =360; NR = No Response	Percentage of Respondents saying		
	Yes	No	NR
My top management is friendly	76.7	18.3	5.0
My top management is polite	85.8	9.4	4.7
My top management is fair	74.2	20.0	5.8
My top management knows the job	79.7	13.9	6.4
I can discuss problems with my top management	65.3	29.7	5.0
My top management puts unfair pressure on me	21.9	71.9	6.1
My top management is well organised	77.8	16.4	5.8
My top management is snobbish	33.1	60.0	6.9
My top management is inflexible	27.5	65.6	6.9
My top management is reliable	75.6	18.1	6.4
My top management accepts my advice	61.9	29.4	8.6
My top management interferes in my work too much	15.3	78.6	6.1
I feel confident of my top management's support when I make a decision	66.7	27.2	6.1
Overall Satisfaction from Top Management			
Level of Job Satisfaction	Number of Respondents	Percentage Distribution	
Low (14.0 to 22.0)	134	37.2	
Medium (22.5 to 24.0)	124	34.4	
High (24.5 to 26)	102	28.3	

A glance at the table reveals some very interesting trends. Although the level of satisfaction from leaderships is on average quite high, the reported level of satisfaction from leadership is significantly lower than the reported satisfaction from supervision. Only about 77% of the respondents report that their chief executives are friendly and well organised. Only about 75% of them report that their top boss is fair and reliable. Only 65% of the respondents feel that they can discuss their problems with their chief

executive, and an even lesser proportion report that their top bosses listen to their advice.

In the case of satisfaction from leadership, the responses appear to be more realistic and in line with the general trends that are observed in Arabian societies. The chief executives do not necessarily encourage personal relationship with all the employees working in their organisation. They are rather discreet and selective in developing their personal relationships. The tradition of organisational hierarchy is somewhat more strictly observed in such societies. Secondly, in relatively large organisations, the respondents were more confident that their responses would not be known to the top management, and therefore they did not fear them as much as they did in the case of reporting about their immediate supervisor. The relative distance that the workers reported between them and the top management can also be a factor that contributed in their giving very positive responses about their immediate supervisors, as they did not want to annoy their immediate supervisor, particularly when a personal or friendly relationship with their chief executive did not exist.

Based on the scores obtained by the respondents on the Likert Scale, the respondents were classified into three groups using the 33rd percentile. Respondents scoring between 14 to 22 were termed as having low satisfaction from the top management; such respondents were found to be about 37% of the total respondents. Respondents scoring between 22.5 to 24 were termed as having medium satisfaction from supervision, and were found to be about 34% of the total respondents. The respondents scoring between 24.5 to 26 were found to be 28% of the total respondents, and were termed as having high satisfaction from supervision. These groups have been used to establish association and relationship with some of the important variables.

As was the case with satisfaction from immediate supervisor, no significant relationship could be found between gender and overall satisfaction from top management. Both the men and women respondents reported similar level of satisfaction from their top management ($\chi^2=1.02604$; $C=.05338$; $df=2$; $p<.59868$). However, a significant relationship was found between the level of satisfaction from top management and the marital status of the respondents. More than 51% of the unmarried singles reported low level satisfaction from their top management whereas about 39% of the singles reported

moderate level satisfaction from their top bosses. Only about 10% of the singles reported high level satisfaction from their top management.

Speaking in other words, it is found that amongst those reporting low level of satisfaction from their top management more than 30% are single. Amongst those reporting moderate level of satisfaction from their top management, as many as 24% were single and unmarried. Amongst those reporting high level of satisfaction from their top management, only about 8% were single. The relationship was found to be statistically significant ($\chi^2=23.14896$; $C=.24709$; $df=6$; $p<.00075$). As was the case with satisfaction from the immediate supervisor, it needs further probing to establish as to why should there be such a significant relationship. The only apparent reason could lie in the fact that the singles are perhaps more fearless than their married counterparts, and have less hesitation in expressing their opinions. But this could also be because the unmarried persons can also be emotionally less stable and do not get along well with their peers and bosses.

A somewhat weak association was also found to exist between the level of satisfaction from top management and the age profile of the respondents. A relatively larger proportion of the young respondents reported low or moderate level satisfaction from top management. So was the case with the middle-aged respondents. But a relatively larger proportion of the old-aged respondents reported moderate to high level satisfaction from the top management ($\chi^2=7.01515$; $C=.14137$; $df=4$; $p<.13509$). It seems that those at the beginning of their career have higher expectations from their top management, while the older respondents have come to agree to the terms of the top management.

The level of overall satisfaction from top management was found to bear significant relationship with the sector of employment of the respondents. The cross-tabulation between the two variables shows that while 49% of the respondents working in the government sector reported low level satisfaction from the top management, only 25% of the respondents in the joint sector, and 34% of the respondents working in the private sector reported low level of satisfaction from their top managers. Similarly, while only 21% of the government sector employees were found to be having moderate level satisfaction from their top managers, as many as 54% of the joint sector employees, and

36% of the private sector employees reported moderate level satisfaction from their top managers. As against this, while 29% of the government and private sector employees reported high level satisfaction from their top management only 21% in the joint sector felt so ($\text{Chi}=12.60837$; $\text{C}=.18545$; $\text{df}=6$; $p<.04969$). It is clearly established from the preceding discussion that the joint sector seems to present a different case, which perhaps needs to be examined in its own right, by later studies.

As was the case with the level of satisfaction from immediate supervision, there was also found a significant relationship between the level of satisfaction from top management and the types of organisations where respondents are employed. As many as 50 to 55% of the respondents in the manufacturing, trading and construction types of organisations report low level satisfaction from their top managers. As against this, only 25% of the respondents in the services types of organisations, and 36% of the respondents in the utilities reported low level satisfaction from the top management. The relationship was found to be statistically significant ($\text{Chi}=16.86963$; $\text{C}=.21502$; $\text{df}=8$; $p<.03150$). However, a very significant relationship was not found between the level of overall satisfaction from the top management and the size of organisation ($\text{Chi}=11.27021$; $\text{C}=.18307$; $\text{df}=8$; $p<.18685$). So was the case with the years of experience in the organisation, as no significant relationship was found between the level of satisfaction from the leadership and the years of experience in the organisation ($\text{Chi}=1.79272$; $\text{C}=.07221$; $\text{df}=4$; $p<.77381$).

The overall satisfaction from the top management is found to be significantly associated with the salary of the respondents. Amongst the respondents receiving less than AED 2000 a month, 71% report low level satisfaction from top manager, while amongst those receiving between AED 2000 to 6000 a month, only 30 to 33% report low level satisfaction from supervision. Interestingly, among those receiving between AED 6000 to 8000 a month, as many as 55% reported low level of satisfaction from top management, while amongst those drawing more than AED 10000, only 38% were found having low level satisfaction from their top managers. The relationship was found to be statistically significant ($\text{Chi}=22.04056$; $\text{C}=.24210$; $\text{df}=8$; $p<.00484$).

6.3 Summary

This chapter was divided into two sections. Section I presented an empirical analysis of the data collected through the questionnaire from 360 respondents working in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi, the Capital City of the United Arab Emirates. The analysis aimed at highlighting individual, educational, organisational and economic differences among respondents working in the cross-cultural context of the UAE. On the other hand, Section II of the chapter attempted to understand the relationships between four identified aspects of job satisfaction and various work and non-work variables among the respondents.

This chapter was primarily aimed at describing some of the important characteristics that differentiate people in an organisational setting within the UAE context. Moreover, the chapter also intended to highlight the physical and individual differences among individuals in order to provide a better understanding of the personality attributes, as well as the organisational climate of the workers, that are likely to influence their behaviour in their organisations.

It was found that the level of overall job satisfaction across gender was moderately associated. The cross-tabulation results have confirmed that. Also, a mild relationship was found between overall job satisfaction and marital status of the respondents. Obviously, the marital status of the respondents of this research only mildly affects their level of overall job satisfaction.

Amongst the respondents reporting low level overall job satisfaction, 30% were found to be young, 45% middle-aged, and 25% old. This confirms that people in the middle of their careers have stronger need for job satisfaction. Furthermore, no significant relationship was established between the sector of employment, the size, or even the type of organisation of the respondents from one side, and the overall job satisfaction from another side.

Among the respondents receiving salaries as low as AED 2000 a month, around 70% report low level overall job satisfaction. The remaining 30% reported moderate level overall job satisfaction. Also, among the respondents receiving between AED 2000 to 4000, nearly 36% have low level overall job satisfaction while 35% report to have high

level of overall job satisfaction. The message is clear: monetary compensation has a very strong influence on the level of overall job satisfaction among these highly reward-oriented respondents.

As for the second aspect of job satisfaction examined in this chapter, satisfaction from reward, the following relationships were noticed. Unlike overall job satisfaction, no significant difference was found across gender as far as the satisfaction from reward was concerned. No significant relationship was found between the marital status of the respondents and their level of satisfaction from reward. Also, no significant relationship was found to exist between the age of the respondents and their level of satisfaction from reward.

The cross-tabulation between the sector of employment and the level of satisfaction from reward has confirmed the existence of a significant relationship. A less significant relationship was found between the types of organisation and the level of satisfaction from reward among the respondents. The respondents working in the trading, utilities and services sectors seemed to be equally distributed across different levels of satisfaction from reward, while a larger proportion of the respondents working in the construction sector reported low level satisfaction from reward.

As was the case with the level of overall job satisfaction, the overall reward satisfaction was found to be significantly associated with the salary of the respondents. As many as 88% of the respondents receiving salaries of less than AED 2000 reported low level satisfaction from reward satisfaction, but only 40% of the respondents receiving salaries of AED 2000 to 4000 reported low level satisfaction from reward. Among the respondents receiving salaries as high as AED 6000 and more as many as 45 to 47% report high level of overall reward satisfaction, to confirm the effective role of direct financial reward in deciding the level of satisfaction from reward among the respondents of this study.

As for the third aspect of job satisfaction studied in this chapter, which was satisfaction from direct supervision, the following relationships were the most interesting to notice. As was the case with satisfaction from reward, no significant relationship could be found between gender and overall satisfaction from supervision. Both the men and

women respondents reported similar levels of satisfaction from their supervisors. It was also found that 44% of the respondents working in the government sector, 41% of the respondents working in the joint sector, and 37% of the respondents in the private sector reported low level overall satisfaction from direct supervisors. Finally, unlike all of the other aspects of job satisfaction examined, the level of overall satisfaction from supervision was not found significantly related with the salaries of the respondents.

The fourth and final aspect of job satisfaction studied in this chapter was satisfaction from top management. Although the level of overall satisfaction from top management was on average quite high, the reported level of overall satisfaction from top management was significantly lower than the reported overall satisfaction from direct supervisor. Both men and women respondents reported similar level of overall satisfaction from top management. However, a significant relationship was found between the level of satisfaction from top management and the marital status of the respondents.

Only 10% of the singles reported high level satisfaction from their top management. Among those reporting high level satisfaction from their top management, only about 8% were single. A relatively larger proportion of the young respondents reported low or moderate level overall satisfaction from the top management. It seems that respondents, especially in the young and single categories, have strong needs for job satisfaction aspects that deal with the interpersonal relationship represented in the relationships with the direct supervisor as well as the top manager.

As was the case with the level of satisfaction from supervision, the level of satisfaction from top management was found to bear significant relationship with the sector of employment and the type of organisation of the respondents. Finally, a significant relationship existed between the level of satisfaction from top management and the salary of the respondents. Among the respondents receiving less than AED 2000 a month, 71% report low level satisfaction from top managers, while among the respondents receiving between AED 2000 to 6000 a month, only one third reported low level satisfaction from their top managers. In summary, just like the case of overall job satisfaction and satisfaction from reward, the direct financial compensation keeps

confirming its influential role in deciding the level of satisfaction from top management among the respondents of this research.

6.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, the monetary reward seems to represent one of the strongest influences on the level of job satisfaction among the respondents of this research. This was the case as far as the overall job satisfaction, satisfaction from reward, and satisfaction from top managers aspects are concerned.

The analysis of this chapter has shown that the respondents in the sample have moderate to high level job satisfaction on almost all parameters, except that on the reward. The respondents were generally found to be least satisfied with their reward packages. That was the case not only with respect to the low paid respondents, but also for the workers who were receiving monthly salaries as high as AED 10000. That has an important indication about the role that is played by financial compensation and promotion, which were the reward ingredients in this case, in deciding the respondent's level of satisfaction, compared with the other job satisfaction aspects examined.

Moreover, the satisfaction from the supervisors and the top managers of the respondents seemed to be influenced by a number of considerations other than their performance, as far as the respondents of this study are concerned. Policy makers and managers in the UAE context need to be aware of this disturbing outcome, in order to deal with it properly.

This chapter intended throughout its two sections to provide the essential understanding of the respondents included in this study. Understanding the general features and characteristics of these workers was achieved by demonstrating and discussing the individual, educational, organisational and economic differences among the respondents in the first section of the chapter. The second section of the chapter examined a number of relationships between overall job satisfaction, satisfaction from reward, direct supervisor, and top manager from one side, and various work and non-work variables

from the other side. The most significant of these relationships to the context of this research were analysed and discussed.

The respondents belonged to different national groups, and they were working in the UAE cross-cultural work environment. However, to fulfil the mission of this chapter, the respondents in the sample were treated as a single group. The aim was to obtain a better understanding of job satisfaction among a single group that contains culturally diverse workforce within the context of the UAE. This was achieved in this chapter. Therefore, in the next chapter, the four studied aspects of job satisfaction will be re-examined, with a different focus. The target will be to develop a better understanding of job satisfaction among the UAE, Arab, Asian and other workers in the UAE work environment in order to achieve completely the final and primary aim of this research.

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Job Satisfaction across workers of different nationalities

7.0 Introduction

The previous chapter described some of the important personal attributes and workplace characteristics that differentiate individuals from one another in the context of the United Arab Emirates. The discussion in the chapter amply indicated the individual and organisational differences within the workplaces of the country. Besides, the previous chapter thoroughly examined the relationship between job satisfaction and different parameters of individual and workplace diversity, except that with the ethnic or national background diversity. Therefore, the present chapter is devoted to the discussion of ethnic or national background diversity among the respondents of this research. It seeks to establish the relationships between their national backgrounds, and various facets of job satisfaction.

Within similar studies, analysis of job satisfaction relates to empirical findings of the labour market in which expatriate workers are in a minority position. Thus, it makes sense to rely on an interpretive framework in which expatriate workers can be described and understood in relation to a community of values and attitudes, which represent those of the host population. In such studies, talking about assimilation, divergence, and so on is very likely. However, the case of the UAE is far different. The unique characteristic of this labour market is that the values and attitudes of the expatriate workers are constituting a major, or even determining influence on the pattern of expectations within the labour force as a whole in the country. Therefore, it is important to describe how these expectations are patterned, and more importantly, what the influence of the different ethnic or national background may be.

The present study aims at identifying and establishing the differences and similarities in job satisfaction among employees from different nationalities in order to contribute to the fulfilment of the third and primary aim of this research. Accordingly, data were analysed so as to ascertain differences and similarities in job satisfaction among workers of different nationalities. This chapter is divided into two sections. Section I is devoted to the discussion on ethnic diversity found among the respondents of this study. This section not only describes the ethnic diversity among the respondents, but also aims at identifying the principal features and characteristics of the respondents from different nationalities. This section, read with the chapter on demographic structure and workforce composition in the UAE, which was based on the macro-level data, is aimed at providing a comprehensive background to the focal theme of the study, i.e. job satisfaction among workers of different nationalities. Section II of the chapter is devoted to discussion on overall job satisfaction, satisfaction from reward, satisfaction from supervision, and satisfaction from top management, as experienced by the workers of different nationalities represented in the sample of the study.

7.1 Section I: Ethnic Diversity in UAE

As the present study aims at identifying and establishing the differences in job satisfaction of employees from different nationalities, data were collected on the national origin and residential status of the respondents. A detailed discussion on the demographic structure and workforce composition has already been presented in Chapter 4 of this dissertation. It has been amply indicated by the macro-level data that the demographic structure and workforce composition is generally multi-ethnic and multinational. There are wide variations in the nationality of workers employed in the different sectors of the economy within the country. The present section of the chapter is intended to discuss the ethnic or national diversity found among the respondents of the present study. This section provides a prelude to the discussion on job satisfaction among workers of different nationalities in the second section of the chapter.

An analysis of data reveals that around 13% of the respondents were UAE nationals. Nearly 40% of the respondents were Arab expatriates, whereas the non-Arab Asians were about 38% of the total respondents. The other nationalities, which include

Europeans, Americans and Canadians put together, are about 9% of the respondents (Table 7.1). Distribution of the respondents based on the 33rd percentile shows that around 35% of them have been staying in the country for about 5 years or less, while around 31% of them have been in the country between 6 to 15 years. The remaining 34% of the respondents have, of course, been in the country for more than 16 years (Table 7.1)

Table 7.1

Ethnic Diversity among Respondents

Years of residence in UAE: (Mean = 12.95; SD = 11.66; Median=10; Mode=1)	Number of Respondents	Percentage Distribution
Fresh (1 - 5 years)	119	34.6
Familiar (6 - 15 Years)	108	31.4
Old Hands (16 - 61 Years)	117	34.0
Residential Status:		
Citizens of UAE	47	13.4
Work Visa	298	85.2
Others	5	1.4
Nationality:		
UAE National	47	13.2
Arab Expatriates	141	39.5
Non- Arab Asians	136	38.1
Others	33	9.2

Amongst the UAE nationals, nearly 85% were male, while among the Arab expatriates, only about 76% of the respondents were male. As far as the non-Arab Asians are concerned, about 81% were male. The situation is different for the western expatriates, where only about 55% of the respondents were male. It may be mentioned here that as discussed in detail in chapter 4, this distribution generally reflects the workforce composition in the UAE. The workplaces are generally male-dominated, except in certain occupations like teaching and nursing and secretarial positions.

As would be expected, all of the UAE nationals have lived in the country for more than 16 years. Significant variations were found in the years of residence in UAE across respondents from different nationalities. Amongst those who have been in the country for 1 to 5 years only, around 44% are Arab expatriates, 40% Asian expatriates, and only 16% westerners. Amongst those reporting to be living in the country for 6 to 15 years, 44% are Arab expatriates, 49% Asians, and 6.5% westerners. Among those who have

lived in the country for more than 16 years, 40% are UAE nationals, 29% Arab expatriates, 27% Asian expatriates, and 4% westerners. It is important to note that around 26% of the Arab expatriates, 24% of the Asian expatriates, and 16% of the westerners have been living in the country for more than 16 years. As against this, nearly 38% of the Arab expatriates 36% of the Asians, and 61% of the westerners have been in the country for less than 5 years. It is also indicated that only 13% of the respondents were citizens, and the remaining 87% of the respondents were expatriates living in the country on work, residence or investment visas.

Amongst the UAE nationals, nearly 85% were male, while among the Arab expatriates only about 76% of the respondents were male. As far as the non-Arab Asians are concerned, about 81% were male. The situation is somewhat different for the western expatriates where only about 55% of the respondents were male. It seems that the work participation rate of females is the lowest among the UAE nationals, and the highest among the western expatriates. Compared to the non-Arab Asians, the Arab expatriates have higher female participation in the workplace. The relationship appears to be quite significant ($\chi^2=12.21179$; $C=.18211$; $df=3$; $p<.0069$).

As regards marital status, among the UAE nationals, as many as 38% were single, while among the Arab expatriates, only 22% were single. As regards Asians, no more than 14% were single, while among the western expatriates, as many as 27.3% were single. The relationship is found to be statistically significant ($\chi^2=18.94634$; $C=.22570$; $df=9$; $p<.02565$). As regards the high proportion of unmarried workers among the UAE nationals, the phenomenon is attributable more to their young age than anything else. As we have seen, a substantial proportion of the UAE nationals are still young.

As would be expected, all of the UAE nationals have lived in the country for more than 16 years. Significant variations were found in the years of residence in the UAE across respondents from different nationalities. Among those who have been in the country for 1 to 5 years only, around 44% are the Arab expatriates, 40% non-Arab Asian expatriates and only 16% westerners. Amongst those reporting to be living in the country for 6 to 15 years, 44% are Arab expatriates, 49% non-Arab Asians, and 6.5% westerners. Among those who have lived in the country for more than 16 years, 40% are UAE nationals, 29% non-Arab expatriates, 27% non-Arab Asian expatriates, and 4% westerners. The relationship was found to be statistically significant

(Chi=111.18584; C=.49587; df=6; p<.0000). It is important to note that around 26% of the Arab expatriates, 24% of the non-Arab Asian expatriates, and 16% of the westerners have been living in the country for more than 16 years. As against this, nearly 38% of the Arab expatriates, 36% of the Asians, and 61% of the westerners have been in the country for less than 5 years (Chi=111.18584; C=.49587; df=6; p<.0000). This is likely to have some impact on the stages of acculturation in which these workers are likely to be.

As would be obvious for all those who are familiar with the visa rules of the country, only 13% of the respondents were citizens, and the remaining 87% of the respondents were expatriates living in the country on work, residence or investment visas (Table 7.0). Although the mean years of residence in UAE works out to be around 13 years (SD = 11.65), more than 54% of the respondents have been in the country for 10 years or less. Not more than 10% of the respondents have been in the country for more than 27 years. There was found to be a significant relationship between the years of residence in the UAE and the marital status of the respondents. Among the respondents living in the country for less than 5 years, more than 38% were found to be single, while among those living in the country for 6 to 15 years, only about 6% are single. However, what is strange is the fact that among those who have been living in the country for more than 16 years, nearly 22% are single. The relationship was found to be statistically significant (Chi=39.94618; C=.32425; df=6; p<.0000). The relationship seems to indicate that those people who came to this country a long time ago found themselves cut off from their roots in the home country, found it difficult to get married, and were forced to remain single.

There was also found a significant relationship between the nationality of the respondents and the sector of employment. Among the UAE nationals, nearly 45% were working in government establishments, 11% in joint sector establishments, and the rest in the private and other sector establishments. As against this, only 18% of the Arabs were found working in the government organisations, 7% in the joint sector establishments, and the remaining 75% in the private sector organisations. Surprisingly, among the non-Arab Asian expatriates, as many as 21% were employed in the government sector, 5% in the joint sector, and the remaining 74% in the private sector. An overwhelming 91% of the westerners were found employed in the private sector.

The relationship was found to be statistically significant ($\chi^2=35.92772$; $C=.30472$; $df=9$; $p<.00004$).

A situation like this has probably arisen on account of two factors. Firstly, the governmental and public sectors show preferences for the nationals, followed by the other Arab expatriates in the matter of providing employment. Secondly, this is also on account of the fact that the national manpower has keen interest in government jobs, and does not like doing jobs in the private sector. However, the relationship between the type of organisation and the nationality was not found statistically significant ($\chi^2=15.10426$; $C=.20452$; $df=12$; $p<.23578$). This was unlike the expectation of the researcher. It is normally believed that certain nationalities have some preference for certain types of organisations, but this was not found to be true in the present study. This unexpected finding, which is supported by a similar conclusion from the previous chapter, support the inference that the UAE indeed constitutes a special case.

It is in the above context of the culturally diverse workforce that the present study seeks to examine the relationship between various measures of job satisfaction and the national origin of the workers employed in the different sectors of the UAE economy.

7.2 Section II: Job Satisfaction among Culturally Diverse Workforce

7.2.1 Overall Job Satisfaction

The overall job satisfaction has been ascertained with the help of a 15-item questionnaire covering such aspects as physical working conditions; working hours; qualitative dimensions of work like freedom in method of working, amount of responsibility, opportunities to use abilities; inter-personal relationships including the relationship with the fellow workers, relationship with immediate supervisor and management-worker relationship; job variety; job security; and extrinsic and intrinsic rewards including pay scale, chances of promotion, and recognition for good work.

The mean scores have been calculated in such a manner that the higher the mean score on any job dimension, the higher would be the reported level of satisfaction. On any individual job dimension, the mean scores may range from 1 to 6. A mean score of 1

would thus amount to the lowest level of job satisfaction, while a mean score of 6 would mean the highest level of job satisfaction reported by the respondents. The mean scores on various job dimensions of overall job satisfaction as worked out for members of different nationalities, as well as the average for all the nationalities, are presented in Table 7.2 The detailed calculations of the mean scores for workers of each nationality are given for reference in Annexures B.1 to B.4 in appendix B.

Table 7.2
Mean Scores of Overall Job Satisfaction
Across Workers of different Nationalities

Job Dimensions	Nationalities				
	All	UAE	Arabs	Asians	Others
Physical Working Conditions	4.30	4.26	4.39	4.28	4.03
Freedom in method of working	4.30	4.22	4.37	4.25	3.97
Relationship with fellow workers	4.70	4.84	4.84	4.68	4.84
Recognition for good work	4.10	3.92	4.19	4.70	3.55
Relationship with immediate Supervisor	4.60	4.28	4.78	4.60	4.67
Amount of Responsibility	4.40	4.36	4.65	4.51	4.19
Pay Scale	3.80	4.22	3.83	3.75	3.30
Opportunity to use abilities	4.10	4.03	4.23	4.20	3.97
Worker-Management Relationship	4.30	4.15	4.44	4.32	4.00
Chances of Promotion	3.70	3.71	3.85	3.55	3.23
The way employer treats you	4.30	4.12	4.56	4.35	4.03
Attention to suggestions you make	4.10	4.00	4.28	4.14	3.81
Working Hours	4.20	4.15	4.21	4.31	4.22
Job Variety	4.20	5.14	4.26	4.32	4.06
Job Security	4.00	4.02	4.06	3.95	4.06
Job Dimensions Regrouped:					
Interpersonal Relationship	4.48	4.35	4.66	4.49	4.3
Work Environment	4.20	4.28	4.33	4.35	3.82
Working Condition	4.17	4.14	4.22	4.18	3.94
Reward	3.75	3.97	3.84	3.65	4.02

It is obvious from the analysis that there is moderate to moderately high levels of job satisfaction among workers of all nationalities and across all dimensions of overall job satisfaction. However, there are differences across workers from different nationalities.

7.2.1.1 Physical Working Conditions: The average mean score for physical working conditions for all the nationalities is worked out as 4.30. Only the Arab expatriates have a mean score higher than the average (4.39), whereas the UAE nationals and Asians report mean scores slightly lower than the average for all

nationalities (4.26 and 4.28, respectively). Expectations as to the physical working conditions appears to be the highest among the other expatriates, as for they report the lowest level of satisfaction (4.03) on this count.

7.2.1.2 Freedom in Choosing Method of Working: On this job dimension as well, the data reveal a trend almost similar to what was the case with the physical working conditions. The average mean score for this job dimension for all nationalities is calculated as 4.30, with only the Arab expatriates reporting a satisfaction level higher than the average (4.37), while the UAE nationals and the Asian expatriates reported slightly lower than the average level on satisfaction from this particular job dimension (4.22 and 4.25, respectively). As was the case with the physical working conditions, other expatriates reported the lowest level of job satisfaction (3.97) as regards their experience in the freedom for choosing the method of working.

7.2.1.3 Relationship with Fellow Workers: How workers relate to each other at the workplace could be an important job dimension for maintaining a congenial work environment and team-building. The mean score of job satisfaction on account of relationship with fellow workers in the organisation for all the nationalities works out to be 4.70. Except for the Asian expatriates, for whom the mean score of satisfaction is computed to be lower than the average (4.68), workers from all other nationalities score higher than the average (4.84).

7.2.1.4 Recognition for Good Work: Do workers feel that they get recognition for the good work done by them? It appears that the UAE nationals and the other expatriates experience lower than the average level of satisfaction on this job dimension; their mean scores work out to be 3.92 and 3.55, respectively, as against the average mean scores of 4.10 for all nationalities. Even for the Arab expatriates, the mean score is only slightly higher than the average (4.19). The Asian expatriates, however, score 4.70, thus standing out in the list. The finding leads to a very important question that needs to be answered. Is there some sort of misunderstanding as to the definition of good work, or is it that the UAE nationals and other expatriates do not get recognition for their good work and are discriminated against the Arab and Asian expatriates?

7.2.1.5 Relationship with Immediate Supervisors: How cordial is the relationship between the workers and their immediate supervisors? Does it differ across workers of different nationalities? Except for the UAE nationals, whose mean score on this particular job dimension was found to be significantly lower than the average for all the nationalities, workers of all other nationalities reported higher than average level of satisfaction. The Arab expatriates reported the highest level of satisfaction as far as their relationship with their immediate supervisors is concerned. The lower level of satisfaction on this job dimension among the UAE nationals is quite meaningful. As has been discussed in the previous chapter, a significant proportion of workplaces have supervisors from nationalities other than the UAE. As the nationals may have an inherent desire to be in the supervisory position themselves, they are likely to be somewhat less satisfied with their supervisors.

7.2.1.6 Amount of Responsibility: It is interesting that Arabs and Asians report higher than average level of job satisfaction as far as the amount of responsibility dimension is concerned. In sharp contrast, the UAE nationals and the other expatriates, who basically comprise the Westerners, report lower than the average level on this dimension of the job satisfaction. This phenomenon needs further investigation.

7.2.1.7 Pay Scale: As regards pay scale, the respondents reported the lowest level of satisfaction. It appears that among the 15 different dimensions used to ascertain the overall job satisfaction among the respondents, the mean score of satisfaction from the pay scale is found to be one of the lowest of all. It means respondents across all nationalities are less satisfied with this important job dimension. However, it may be important to note that the UAE nationals report significantly higher than the average level of satisfaction on this count (4.22, as against the average of 3.80). Such a finding is quite expected. As the pay scale and service conditions for the UAE nationals are markedly higher than those applicable to the expatriates, they would only be honest to report higher level of satisfaction from the pay scale.

7.2.1.8 Opportunity to use Abilities: One of the important dimensions to job satisfaction lies in the fact that the workers should feel that they are able to use

their abilities. On this count, the average mean score for all nationalities works out to be 4.10. It is important to note that the Arab and Asian expatriates reported higher than average level of satisfaction on this parameter. This means that a higher proportion of these nationalities feel that they have an opportunity, and are able to use their abilities. As against this, the UAE nationals and the other expatriates report lower than average level of satisfaction (4.03 for UAE nationals, and 3.97 for other expatriates) on this parameter meaning thereby that a higher proportion of them feel that they do not have an opportunity to use their abilities.

7.2.1.9 Worker-Management Relationship: The average mean score of satisfaction from the worker-management relationship with the top management works out to be 4.3. Importantly, the UAE nationals and the other expatriates report satisfaction on this parameter lower than the average, whereas the Arab and Asian expatriates report higher than average level of satisfaction.

7.2.1.10 Chances of Promotion: As was the case with pay scale, the satisfaction reported on the parameter of chances of promotion was found to be the lowest as far as the average mean score for all nationalities is concerned. However, the UAE nationals and the Arab expatriates report slightly higher than average level of satisfaction as far as the chances of promotion are concerned. The Asian and other expatriates report lower than average level of satisfaction on this job dimension.

7.2.1.11 Treatment by Employer: The way the employers treat their employees goes a long way in determining the overall job satisfaction. Hence this was included in the list of job dimensions used to assess the overall job satisfaction among workers of different nationalities. The average mean score of satisfaction from treatment by the employer works out to be 4.30. It is important to note that the UAE nationals and the other expatriates report lower than average level of satisfaction on this count (4.12 and 4.03, respectively, for the UAE nationals and other expatriates). This means that a larger proportion of this category of respondents feel that they are not treated well by their employers.

7.2.1.12 Attention to Suggestions made by Workers: As far as the satisfaction from the suggestions that the workers make, the average mean score works out to be 4.10, with only UAE nationals and other expatriates reporting lower than the average level of satisfaction on this count. It means that a larger proportion of the workers from these nationalities feel that the suggestions they make are not taken positively or at worst ignored.

7.2.1.13 Working Hours: As regards satisfaction from the working hours, the average mean score for workers of all nationalities works out to be 4.20, with only UAE nationals reporting lower than average level of satisfaction. This means that a larger proportion of them consider that their working hours are unsuitable.

7.2.1.14 Job Variety: The average mean score of satisfaction from job variety is computed at 4.20, with only the other expatriates reporting lower than average level of satisfaction. Importantly, the UAE nationals reported highest level of satisfaction (5.14) on this particular job dimension.

7.2.1.15 Job Security: The average mean scores of satisfaction from job security works out to be 4.0, with only the Asian expatriates reporting lower than average. It is significant that even the UAE nationals who are normally employed on a permanent basis do not report significantly higher level of satisfaction as far as job security is concerned. This means that there is general feeling that their jobs are not secure.

In totality, the mean scores of overall job satisfaction among workers of all nationalities range between 3.99 (Variance = 0.1836) to 4.33 (Variance = 0.0886). This indicates only a moderate level of overall job satisfaction (Summary, Table 7.4). In totality, the mean scores of overall job satisfaction work out to be the highest for the Arab expatriates (mean = 4.32; Variance = .0692), and the lowest for the other expatriates (mean = 3.99; Variance = 0.1836).

Respondents of different nationalities reported different parameters of highest and lowest level of overall job satisfaction out of the 15 parameters used to calculate overall job satisfaction. The UAE nationals reported highest level of overall job satisfaction from job variety (Mean Score (ms)=5.14) followed by the relationship with fellow

workers (ms=4.84). For the UAE nationals, the lowest level of overall job satisfaction was experienced from chances of promotion (ms=3.71) and recognition for good work (ms=3.92).

Should we identify the three job dimensions on which workers of different nationalities reported the highest level of satisfaction, the data become all the clearer. For the UAE nationals, job variety, relationship with the fellow workers, and the amount of responsibility were the source of highest level of job satisfaction. In the case of Arab expatriates, the relationship with fellow workers, relationship with the immediate supervisor, and the amount of responsibility were the principal three sources of highest level of satisfaction. Thus the Arab expatriates share two of the three job dimensions with the UAE nationals. As regards Asian expatriates, recognition for good work, relationship with fellow workers, and relationship with immediate supervisors were the sources of the three highest levels of job satisfaction. Among the other expatriates, the three dimensions that provided highest level of job satisfaction were the relationship with fellow workers, relationship with immediate supervisor, and working hours.

Pay scale and the chances of promotion were the two dimensions which were responsible for the lowest level of job satisfaction among workers of at least three different nationalities, i.e. Arabs, Asians, and Others. The UAE nationals experienced lowest level of job satisfaction from chances of promotion and the recognition for good work. Among the Arab expatriates, the highest level of overall job satisfaction was reported from relationship with fellow workers (ms=4.84) and relationship with immediate supervisor (ms=4.78). Respondents of these nationalities reported the lowest level of overall job satisfaction from poor pay scales (ms=3.83) and inadequate chances of promotion (ms=3.85). (Table 7.3).

Table 7.3
Ranking of Mean Scores of various facets of Overall Job Satisfaction
across workers of different Nationalities

UAE Nationals		Arab Expatriates	
Job Variety	5.1	Relationship with fellow workers	4.8
Relationship with fellow workers	4.8	Relationship with immediate Supervisor	4.8
Amount of Responsibility	4.4	Amount of Responsibility	4.7
Relationship with immediate Supervisor	4.3	The way employer treats you	4.6
Physical Working Conditions	4.3	Worker-Management Relationship	4.4
Pay Scale	4.2	Physical Working Conditions	4.4
Freedom in method of working	4.2	Freedom in method of working	4.4
Working Hours	4.2	Attention to the Suggestions you make	4.3
Worker-Management Relationship	4.2	Job Variety	4.3
The way employer treats you	4.1	Opportunity to use abilities	4.2
Opportunity to use abilities	4.0	Working Hours	4.2
Job Security	4.0	Recognition for good work	4.2
Attention to the Suggestions you make	4.0	Job Security	4.1
Recognition for good work	3.9	Chances of Promotion	3.9
Chances of Promotion	3.7	Pay Scale	3.8
Asian Expatriates		Others	
Recognition for good work	4.7	Relationship with fellow workers	4.8
Relationship with fellow workers	4.7	Relationship with immediate Supervisor	4.7
Relationship with immediate Supervisor	4.6	Working Hours	4.2
Amount of Responsibility	4.5	Amount of Responsibility	4.2
The way employer treats you	4.4	Job Variety	4.1
Worker-Management Relationship	4.3	Job Security	4.1
Job Variety	4.3	Physical Working Conditions	4.0
Working Hours	4.3	The way employer treats you	4.0
Physical Working Conditions	4.3	Worker-Management Relationship	4.0
Freedom in method of working	4.3	Freedom in method of working	4.0
Opportunity to use abilities	4.2	Opportunity to use abilities	4.0
Attention to the Suggestions you make	4.1	Attention to the Suggestions you make	3.8
Job Security	4.0	Recognition for good work	3.6
Pay Scale	3.8	Pay Scale	3.3
Chances of Promotion	3.6	Chances of Promotion	3.2

As for the Asian expatriates, the highest level of overall job satisfaction is reported from recognition for good work (ms=4.70) and relationship with fellow workers (ms=4.68). These respondents report the lowest level of overall job satisfaction on

account of inadequate chances of promotion (ms=3.55) and poor pay scales (ms=3.75). The case with the other expatriates is quite similar. They reported the highest level of overall job satisfaction from relationship with fellow workers (ms=4.84) and relationship with immediate supervisor (ms=4.67). The lowest level of overall job satisfaction for this category of respondents arises from poor pay scale (ms=3.30) and inadequate chances of promotion (ms=3.23).

Table 7.4
Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of Overall Job Satisfaction among workers of different Nationalities

SUMMARY

<i>Groups</i>	<i>Count</i>	<i>Sum</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Variance</i>
All	15	63.10	4.2067	0.0692
UAE	15	63.42	4.2280	0.1249
Arab	15	64.94	4.3293	0.0886
Asian	15	63.91	4.2607	0.1032
Other	15	59.93	3.9953	0.1836

ANOVA

<i>Source of Variation</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P-value</i>	<i>F crit</i>
Between Groups	0.9457	4	0.2364	2.0754	0.093227076	2.5026594
Within Groups	7.9739	70	0.1139			
Total	8.9196	74				

Co-efficient of Correlation

	All	UAE	Arabs	Asians	Others
All	1.00				
UAE	0.55	1.00			
Arabs	0.97	0.46	1.00		
Asians	0.85	0.43	0.82	1.00	
Others	0.92	0.56	0.87	0.70	1.00

In total, not a very significant difference was found between overall job satisfaction and nationality of respondents. The cross-tabulation result shows that around 40% of the UAE nationals reported low overall job satisfaction, while about 32% of them reported moderate level of overall job satisfaction, and the remaining 28% reported high level of job satisfaction. As compared to this, about 30% of the Arab expatriates reported low levels job satisfaction, while 36% of them had moderate and another 34% of them had high level overall job satisfaction. The Asian expatriates are equally distributed across different level job satisfaction, whereas among the western expatriates, 46% reported moderate and 21% reported high level job satisfaction (Chi=4.13712; C= 0.10703; df=6; p<.65813). The finding is almost corroborated by the Analysis of Variance

(ANOVA) and the coefficient of correlation. The result of the analysis is given in Tables 7.4 above.

7.2.2 Satisfaction from Reward

It needs to be reiterated that a significantly larger proportion (71%) of the UAE nationals were found working for salaries of more than AED 6000, while none of them was working for a salary of less than AED 2000. As compared to this, substantial proportions (76%) of the Arab expatriates were working for salaries between AED 2000 to 6000. As regards non-Arab Asians, as many as 11% were receiving salaries of less than AED 2000, while only 11% were getting salaries of more than AED 10000. Nearly 82% of the western expatriates were getting salaries of AED 4000 to 6000. Apparently, the UAE nationals are best paid, followed by the Arabs and Western expatriates.

Interestingly, a very significant relationship was found to exist between the level of satisfaction from reward and the nationality of the respondents. Among the UAE nationals, only 21% reported low pay satisfaction, whereas as many as 31% of the Arab expatriates, 39% of the Asian expatriates, and 52% of the Western expatriates reported low level of pay satisfaction. Similarly while 51% of the UAE nationals reported high level of pay satisfaction, only 25% of the Arab expatriates, 32% of the Asian expatriates, and only 18% of the Western expatriates reported high level of pay satisfaction. The relationship seems to be statistically quite significant ($\chi^2=22.65214$; $C=.24427$; $df=6$; $p<.00092$). This association seems quite understandable in the light of the discussion that the UAE nationals are also highly paid employees in their organisations.

As for satisfaction from reward, data were collected on a 15-item questionnaire. The methodology for assigning weights to the responses was done using Likert scale. The analysis of data by nationality is presented in Table 7.5 Details of the computations of the mean scores for different nationalities are given in (Annexures B.5 to B.8). Table 7.7 shows the result of ANOVA and Coefficient of Correlation. Details of the methodology for computing mean scores of satisfaction from reward have been given in the methodology chapter. However, it is important to understand that the mean scores are calculated in such a manner that a mean score of 3 would mean the highest level of satisfaction, while a mean score of 1 would mean the lowest level of satisfaction.

Table 7.5
Mean Scores of Satisfaction from Reward
Among workers of different Nationalities

Statements	Mean Score				
	All	UAE	Arabs	Asians	Others
My pay is satisfactory	1.57	1.68	1.49	1.63	1.44
I am underpaid for what I do	1.47	1.63	1.48	1.45	1.30
My income and income of my subordinate differ significantly	1.61	1.82	1.56	1.59	1.66
My income is as good as that of others	1.52	1.78	1.49	1.48	1.45
My pay is poor	1.63	1.78	1.64	1.61	1.49
I am highly paid	1.13	1.22	1.13	1.10	1.09
My income is as good as the income of my friends	1.55	1.62	1.62	1.50	1.46
The system of promotion in my organisation is fair	1.51	1.53	1.52	1.54	1.43
The prospect of promotion in my organisation is very limited	1.31	1.56	1.34	1.22	1.18
It is easy to get promotion in my organisation	1.19	1.32	1.19	1.15	1.10
There is favouritism in promotion in my organisation	1.50	1.38	1.49	1.58	1.42
There are good opportunities for promotion in my organisation	1.38	1.47	1.40	1.35	1.17
My experience increases my prospect for promotion	1.62	1.82	1.65	1.58	1.42
The job I do is a dead-end job	1.64	1.67	1.66	1.62	1.72
The good jobs are usually taken before you hear of them	1.56	1.49	1.55	1.62	1.48

Satisfaction from Reward Regrouped:

Pay in absolute terms	1.44	1.56	1.42	1.45	1.34
Pay in relative terms	1.56	1.74	1.56	1.52	1.52
Opportunities of promotion	1.46	1.53	1.48	1.46	1.37

As was the case with the overall job satisfaction, the level of satisfaction from reward was also found to be only moderate, and in some cases only satisfactory, across workers of different nationalities. The average mean score of satisfaction from reward for workers of all nationalities works out to be 1.48. The UAE nationals and the Arab expatriates report higher than average level of satisfaction from reward, as they report a mean score of 1.58 and 1.48, whereas the Asians and the other expatriates report lower than average level of satisfaction from reward. It is important that the other expatriates report the lowest level of satisfaction, while the UAE nationals report the highest level of satisfaction on this count (Figure C.13 in appendix C).

The mean scores of satisfaction from reward have been worked out on the basis of data collected on a 15-item questionnaire. The 15 different statements used in the questionnaire did not however necessarily represent 15 different dimensions or parameters of satisfaction from reward. Instead, some of them were different ways of approaching the same issue. Those items can therefore be easily regrouped into three subgroups namely, pay in absolute terms, pay in relative terms and prospects for

promotion. The following paragraphs present a brief discussion on each of these facets of satisfaction from reward. The discussion is based on the data presented in Table 7.5

7.2.2.1 Pay in absolute terms: This is calculated with the intention of gauging the level of satisfaction from the amount of salaries and other perks that the workers receive in return for their services. The mean scores are calculated on the basis of responses received on such as 'My pay is satisfactory' 'I am underpaid for what I do' 'My pay is poor', and 'I am highly paid'. The average mean score for workers of all nationalities on this count works out to be 1.44, with Arabs and other expatriates reporting lower than average level of satisfaction. The Asian expatriates reported marginally higher than average level of satisfaction as far as the pay in absolute terms is concerned. The highest mean score is reported by the UAE nationals. This means that workers of all nationalities feel that their pay is less than satisfactory in absolute terms.

7.2.2.2 Pay in relative terms: More than how much a person draws, sometimes it become more important, particularly in a materialistic society, as to whether the salaries and other benefits received by the employees are comparable to, if not higher than the salaries received by people in their neighbourhood and friendship circle. Pay, in this case, is no more seen as a means of making ends meet. Instead, it becomes a status symbol. From this point of view, pay in relative terms becomes far more significant as far as the satisfaction from reward is concerned. To compute this mean score, responses on such statements as 'My income and the income of my subordinates differ significantly' 'My income is as good as that of others', and 'My income is as good as the income of my friends', have been used. A glance at the table reveals that the average mean score for workers of all nationalities on this count works out to be 1.56, with Asians and other expatriates reporting marginally lower than the average level of satisfaction. While the Arab expatriates report average level of satisfaction, the UAE nationals reported significantly higher than average level of satisfaction from pay in relative terms.

7.2.2.3 Prospects of Promotion: Besides current level of pay in absolute and relative terms, employees also look forward to opportunities of promotion. Hence mean scores on prospects of promotion have been worked out on the basis of

responses on such statements as 'The system of promotion in my organisation is fair', 'The prospects of promotion in my organisation is very limited', 'It is easy to get promotion in my organisation', 'There is favouritism in promotion in my organisation', 'There are good opportunities for promotion in my organisation', 'My experience increases my prospect for promotion', 'The job I do is a dead-end job', and 'The good jobs are usually taken before you hear of them'. It is interesting to note that the average mean score for workers of all nationalities on satisfaction from promotional opportunities works out to be 1.46, with only the other expatriates reporting lower than average level of satisfaction on this count. As was the case with the pay, the UAE nationals reported highest level of satisfaction on this count as well.

The satisfaction from reward as measured into three subgroups has been ranked in descending order for each of the four categories of national groups with a view to identifying which are the sources of highest and lowest of satisfaction among the workers of different nationalities. The analysis is presented in Table 7.6.

Table 7.6
Ranking of various aspects of Satisfaction from
Reward among workers of different Nationalities

UAE Nationals		Arab Expatriates	
Pay in relative terms	1.74	Pay in relative terms	1.56
Pay in absolute terms	1.56	Opportunities of promotion	1.48
Opportunities of promotion	1.53	Pay in absolute terms	1.42
Asian Expatriates		Other Expatriates	
Pay in relative terms	1.52	Pay in relative terms	1.52
Opportunities of promotion	1.46	Opportunities of promotion	1.37
Pay in absolute terms	1.45	Pay in absolute terms	1.34

It is obvious from the table that pay in relative terms is the source of highest level of satisfaction among workers of all nationalities. The pay in absolute terms appears to be the source of lowest level of satisfaction from reward among workers of all nationalities, except the UAE nationals for whom the prospect for promotion is the source of the lowest level of satisfaction.

By analysing the level of satisfaction from reward among workers of different nationalities, taking into account all of the 15 parameters used to ascertain satisfaction from reward, it becomes clear that the UAE nationals and Arab expatriates report higher than average level of satisfaction. On the other hand, the non-Arab Asians and other expatriates report lower than the average level of satisfaction from reward.

Table 7.7

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of Mean Scores and Coefficient of Correlation of Satisfaction from Reward among workers of different Nationalities

SUMMARY

<i>Groups</i>	<i>Count</i>	<i>Sum</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Variance</i>
All	15	22.19	1.479	0.0253
UAE	15	23.76	1.584	0.0342
Arabs	15	22.21	1.481	0.0251
Asians	15	22.01	1.467	0.0323
Others	15	20.81	1.387	0.0346

ANOVA

<i>Source of Variation</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P-value</i>	<i>F crit</i>
Between Groups	0.2941625	4	0.0735406	2.4275275	0.05581447	2.5026594
Within Groups	2.1206121	70	0.0302944			
Total	2.4147746	74				

Coefficient of Correlation:

	<i>All</i>	<i>UAE</i>	<i>Arabs</i>	<i>Asians</i>	<i>Others</i>
All	1.00				
UAE	0.81	1.00			
Arabs	0.80	1.00	1.00		
Asians	0.97	0.68	0.67	1.00	
Others	0.91	0.69	0.68	0.88	1.00

Nevertheless, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) (Table 7.7) indicates that these differences are mainly on account of chance, and that there is no significant difference in the level of satisfaction from reward on account of different parameters among the workers of different nationalities. This is significant, in view of the fact that there are significant differences in the salaries and other perks across the workers of different nationalities. Even in this case, where a significant relationship was not established, reward aspects kept showing that they represent an importance dimension that needs to be highlighted in the context of this research.

7.2.3 Satisfaction from Supervision

24% of the respondents report that their supervisor is a UAE national. More than 34% of the respondents were found working under an Arab supervisor, while about 22% of the respondents were supervised by an Asian. Around 3% of the respondents had westerners as their supervisor. What is important to note here is that around 10% of the respondents did not answer the question. It is important to learn that around 63% of the respondents had an immediate supervisor belonging to a nationality different from theirs.

As many as 60% of the government employees were found to be working under immediate supervision of a UAE national, while 23% of such employees reported that their immediate supervisor was an Arab expatriate. Respectively, 7 and 10% of the government employees were found to have an Asian and a Western expatriate as their immediate supervisor. In the case of respondents working in joint sector establishments, only 24% were being supervised by a UAE national, and another 33% had a supervisor who was an expatriate Arab. As many as 38% of such respondents were working under the direct supervision of an Asian expatriate, while those working under a Western expatriate were only 4%. The scene in the private sector was found to be markedly different. While only 17% of the respondents working in the private sector jobs had a UAE national as their immediate supervisor, nearly 46% of them reported to be working under the supervision of an Arab expatriate. It is also found that as many as 25% of the respondents working in the private sector establishment had an Asian expatriate as their immediate supervisor. However, the cross-tabulation between the types of organisations and the nationality of immediate supervisors did not establish any significant relationship. The workplace diversity as measured in terms of the nationality of the immediate supervisors appears to be equally distributed across all types of organisations.

Among the respondents reporting a UAE national as their immediate supervisor, 23% were young, 25% were middle-aged, and more than 52% old-aged. In the case of the respondents reporting an Arab expatriate as their immediate supervisor, as many as 30% were young, and 46% were middle-aged, but the proportion of old-aged was as low as 25%. As regards respondents reporting a non-Arab Asian expatriate as their immediate supervisor, about 30% were young, 38% middle-aged, and 32% old-aged.

Among the respondents reporting a westerner as their immediate supervisor, only about 27% were young, 41% middle-aged, and 32% old. The relationship was found to be statistically significant.

The association between the nationality of the respondents and their immediate supervisors was also found to be statistically significant. The cross-tabulation result shows that as many as 69% of the UAE nationals, are working under the supervision of another UAE nationals while another 21% of them were working under the supervision of an Arab expatriate. Not more than 5% of the UAE nationals were working under the supervision of an Asian or western expatriate. As compared to this, only 24% of the Arab expatriates were being supervised by a UAE national, but more than 62% of them had an Arab expatriate as their supervisor. An Asian or a western expatriate was supervising only about 6 to 7% of the Arab expatriates. A further analysis reveals that around 67% of the UAE nationals are being supervised by a person of their own nationality, whereas in the case of Arab expatriates, only about 25% are being supervised by another Arab expatriate. In the case of Asians, as many as 43% have supervisors from their own nationality. As compared to this, only 28% of the Western expatriates are being supervised by a person of their own nationality. The relationship was found to be statistically significant.

The satisfaction from supervision, however, seems to have a statistically significant relationship with the nationality of the respondents. The cross-tabulation result shows that as many as 57% of the UAE nationals report low level satisfaction from the supervision. As compared to this, only 35% of the Arab expatriates, 38% of the non-Arab Asian expatriates, and 30% of the Western expatriates report low level satisfaction from the supervision. Similarly, while only 19% of the UAE nationals report high level of satisfaction from the supervision, as many as 42% of the Arab expatriates, 44% of the Asian expatriates, and 46% of the Western expatriates report high level satisfaction from the supervision. The relationship was found to be statistically significant ($\text{Chi}=12.60938$; $C=.1840$; $\text{df}=6$; $p<.04968$).

In order to examine variations in the level of satisfaction from the supervision, data were collected on a 13-item questionnaire on which responses were obtained in 'yes' and 'no' format. The mean scores have been calculated in such a manner that a mean score of 3 would mean the highest level of satisfaction from supervision, while a mean

score of 1 would mean the lowest level of satisfaction from supervision. Results of the analysis are presented in Table 7.8. The table provides the mean scores of satisfaction from supervision across workers of four different national groups on all the parameters used to obtain the data. Details of the computations of mean scores for each nationality are given separately in (Annexures B.9 to B.12 in appendix B); Table 7.10 presents the result of Analysis of Variances (ANOVA) on the mean scores of satisfaction from supervision among the four categories of respondents across 13 sets of parameters.

Table 7.8
Mean Scores of Satisfaction from Supervision
Among workers of different Nationalities

Do you agree with the following statements?	Mean Scores				
	All	UAE	Arabs	Asians	Others
My immediate supervisor is friendly	1.87	1.81	2.27	1.87	1.97
My immediate supervisor is polite	1.88	1.85	1.96	1.86	2.00
My immediate supervisor is fair	1.81	1.74	1.85	1.83	2.00
My immediate supervisor knows the job	1.85	1.74	1.92	1.89	1.90
My immediate supervisor is fairly satisfactory	1.81	1.6	1.89	1.84	1.90
I can discuss problems with my immediate supervisor	1.25	1.29	1.25	1.21	1.13
My immediate supervisor puts unfair pressure on me	1.27	1.56	1.15	1.25	1.20
My immediate supervisor is snobbish	1.67	1.57	1.69	1.70	1.74
My immediate supervisor is inflexible	1.71	1.57	1.74	1.76	1.72
My immediate supervisor is reliable	1.8	1.68	1.87	1.84	1.86
My immediate supervisor accepts my advice	1.72	1.57	1.76	1.79	1.80
My immediate supervisor interferes in my work too much	1.77	1.67	1.81	1.82	1.78
I feel confident of my immediate supervisor's support when I make decisions	1.71	1.48	1.76	1.79	1.70

Parameters of Supervisory Satisfaction Regrouped:

Personal Qualities	1.79	1.7	1.9	1.81	1.88
Knowledge	1.66	1.55	1.71	1.68	1.68
Work Attitude	1.58	1.57	1.58	1.62	1.56

As was the case with the satisfaction from reward and overall job satisfaction, respondents reported a moderate level of satisfaction from supervision. The average mean scores for all the nationalities work out to be 1.7 (variance =0.043) on a scale of 3. The Asian expatriates report just about the average level of mean scores (mean = 1.7; variance = 0.051). So was the case with the other expatriates (mean = 1.7; variance = 0.077). The Arab expatriates, however, reported slightly higher than average level of satisfaction from supervision (mean = 1.8; variance = 0.084). The UAE nationals offer an exception, as their reported level of satisfaction from supervision was found to be slightly lower than average; to be specific, their mean score is 1.6 with a variance of 0.023 (Figure C.14 in appendix C).

In order to have a better grasp of the phenomenon, the thirteen parameters used to calculate mean scores of satisfaction from supervision have been regrouped into three broad categories. These are the satisfaction on account of the personal qualities of the supervisor, knowledge of the supervisor, and the work attitude of the supervisor.

7.2.3.1 Personal Qualities of Supervisors: Satisfaction on account of the personal qualities of the immediate supervisors has been assessed on the basis of responses on such statements as 'My supervisor is friendly', 'My supervisor is polite', 'My supervisor is fair', 'My supervisor is snobbish', 'My supervisor is rigid', and 'My supervisor is reliable'. Personal qualities of the immediate supervisors appear to be the source of the highest level of satisfaction from supervision across workers of all nationalities. The average mean scores for all nationalities works out to be 1.79, with only the UAE nationals reporting lower than average (mean = 1.7), whereas workers from all other national background report higher than average level of satisfaction on account of the personal qualities of the supervisors.

7.2.3.2 Knowledge of Supervisors: Satisfaction on account of the knowledge and abilities of the supervisor has been ascertained on the basis of responses on statements like 'My supervisor knows the job', 'I can discuss problems with my supervisor', and 'My supervisor accepts my advice'. The mean score of satisfaction arising on account of the knowledge and abilities of the immediate supervisors works out to be 1.66, with only the UAE nationals reporting lower than average (mean = 1.55) level of satisfaction on this count.

7.2.3.3 Work Attitude of Supervisors: Satisfaction on account of the work attitude of the supervisors has been computed on the basis of the mean scores of the responses received on such statements as 'My supervisor puts unfair pressure on me', 'My supervisor is well organised', 'My supervisor interferes in my job too much', and 'My supervisor supports me in my decisions'. The mean score of the work attitude works out to be 1.58, with the UAE nationals and the other expatriates reporting lower than average level of satisfaction on this count.

In total, the two most important factors underscoring the highest level of satisfaction from supervision among the UAE nationals lie in their belief that their immediate

supervisors are polite (85%) and that they are friendly (81%). Even amongst the Arab expatriates, these two factors account for the highest level of satisfaction from supervision. However, in the case of the Asian expatriates, their belief that their supervisors know their job (89%) and that they are friendly (87%) accounts for the highest level of satisfaction from supervision. Among the other respondents, their belief that their supervisors are polite (100%) and that they are fair in their dealings (100%) accounts for the highest level of satisfaction from supervision.

Furthermore, the two most important factors accounting for the lowest level of satisfaction from supervision among the UAE nationals arise from the belief that the respondents can not discuss their problems with their supervisor (71%), and that they do not feel confident that their supervisors would support them in their decisions (52%).

Table 7.9
Ranking of various aspects of Satisfaction from Supervision among workers of different Nationalities

UAE Nationals		Arab Expatriates	
Personal Qualities	1.70	Personal Qualities	1.90
Work Attitude	1.57	Knowledge	1.71
Knowledge	1.55	Work Attitude	1.58
Asian Expatriates		Other Expatriates	
Personal Qualities	1.81	Personal Qualities	1.81
Knowledge	1.68	Knowledge	1.68
Work Attitude	1.62	Work Attitude	1.62

Among the Arab expatriates, the two most important factors accounting for the lowest level of satisfaction from supervision lie in the belief that the supervisors put unfair pressure on the respondents (85%), and that they can not discuss their problems with their supervisors (75%). In the case of the non-Arab Asian expatriates and other expatriates, their belief that they can not discuss their problems with their supervisors (79%), and that their supervisors put unfair pressure on them (75%) are the two most important factors responsible for the lowest level of satisfaction from supervision (Table 7.9).

Taking as a whole the mean scores of satisfaction from supervision among the four categories of respondents across the 13 parameters, there is found to be no significant difference between the nationalities. Although the average mean score of overall satisfaction from supervision among the UAE nationals is lower than the average of all nationalities, in the case of the Arabs, Asians and other expatriates, it was higher than the average of all nationalities, However, these differences are more on account of chance. The ANOVA and the f test show this.

Table 7.10
Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of Mean Scores of Satisfaction from Supervision among workers of different Nationalities

SUMMARY

<i>Groups</i>	<i>Count</i>	<i>Sum</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Variance</i>
All	13	22.12	1.7	0.043
UAE	13	21.13	1.6	0.023
Arabs	13	22.92	1.8	0.084
Asians	13	22.45	1.7	0.051
Others	13	22.70	1.7	0.077

ANOVA

<i>Source of Variation</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>Df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P-value</i>	<i>F crit</i>
Between Groups	0.150902	4	0.0377253	0.68257	0.6067721	2.525212
Within Groups	3.316154	60	0.0552692			
Total	3.467055	64				

Coefficient of Correlation

	<i>All</i>	<i>UAE</i>	<i>Arabs</i>	<i>Asians</i>	<i>Others</i>
All	1.00				
UAE	0.78	1.00			
Arabs	0.95	0.76	1.00		
Asians	0.99	0.71	0.92	1.00	
Others	0.99	0.80	0.93	0.97	1.00

7.2.4 Satisfaction from Top Management

The workplaces in UAE are also multi-ethnic, in the sense that the businesses are owned and led by people of different nationalities. The fact is borne out by our analysis as well. In about 68% of the cases, respondents are working in organisations whose top manager is a UAE national. Around 13% of the respondents report an Arab Expatriate as their chief executive officer, whereas another 12% of the respondents work in

establishments whose chief executive is a non-Arab Asian. Not more than 7.4% of the respondents work in organisations whose top manager is a westerner, the term commonly used to denote people from such nationalities as European, American, and Canadian, etc. It is important to note that 74% of the respondents work in an organisation whose chief executive had a nationality different from that of the respondent.

Statistically, a very significant relationship was found between the nationality of the respondents and the nationality of their top managers. There seems to be some marked preference shown by the respondents of different nationalities. It was found that nearly 94% of the UAE nationals are working in organisations where their top managers are UAE nationals, and the remaining 6% in organisations where the top manager is an Arab expatriate. Is this the case because the UAE nationals do not get jobs in the organisations where top management is not a UAE national, or at least an Arab expatriate? Or is it because the UAE nationals do not wish to take up jobs where the chief executive is not a UAE national or an Arab? Given the cultural context and the researcher's understanding of his own country's working environment, as well as the attitude of some nationals towards being a subordinate of a non-UAE national, it is the second possibility that is most likely.

A similar trend was noted amongst the Arab expatriates as well. More than 72% of them were found employed in organisations with a UAE national as the top manager, while more than 18% of them were working in organisations where the top manager was an Arab expatriate. Only about 7% of them were found working under the leadership of a westerner, while no more than 2% were working under the leadership of a non-Arab Asian expatriate.

The situation with the Asian expatriates was found to be altogether different. While half of them were employed in organisations with a UAE national as the top manager, more than 11% were working under the leadership of an Arab, and another 28% under the leadership of another non-Arab Asian expatriate. At least 11% of such respondents were also working under a Westerner. As regards expatriates from western countries, nearly 76% of them were working under the leadership of a UAE national, while around 14% of them were working under an Arab expatriates. Around 7% of such respondents were working under an Asian, and another 3% of them were working in organisations where

the chief executive was a western expatriate himself (Chi = 68.24719; C = 0.41088; df = 9; p<00001).

It was also established that as many as 94% of the UAE nationals were working in organisations with a UAE national as the top manager. Only 6% of such respondents were experiencing workplace diversity as far as the leadership issue is concerned. As against this, 91% of the Arab expatriates experience diversity, as they are working under the leadership of a person belonging to a nationality different from theirs. Among the non-Arab Asians nearly 74% are working under a person who is from a different nationality, whereas nearly all of the western expatriates are working under the leadership of a person from a different nationality (Chi=139.84485; C=.54155; df=3; p<.00001).

It is also evident that the workplace diversity in this regard has been increasing in the recent past. A cross-tabulation between the years of residence of the respondents and the nationality of their top management shows that 82 to 83% of the respondents who have been in the country for less than 15 years are working in organisation whose top manager is not of the same nationality from theirs. As against this, only 57% of the respondents who have been living in the country are working in organisations whose top manager is of a different nationality than that of theirs. The relationship was found to be statistically significant (Chi=23.48117; C=.26033; df=.00001).

As is reflected by the relationship between the nationality of the top manager and the sector of employment, the private sector has more diversity than the joint and the government sector jobs. The cross-tabulation between the two variables shows that in 91% of the government sector organisations a UAE national is the top manager, while only 58% of the joint sector organisations have a UAE national as the top manager, and about 29% of such organisations have a western expatriate as top manager. So is the case with the private sector establishments. About 63% of such organisations have a UAE national as the top managers while 17% of them have an Arab expatriate as their top manager. In as many as 15% of cases, the top manager of the private sector establishment is a non-Arab Asian, while in about 5% of cases, Western expatriates are the top manager. The relationship was found to be statistically significant (Chi=50.19512; C=.36052; df=9; p<.00001).

Significant variations were also found in workplace diversity across types of organisations. The cross-tabulation between the nationality of the top managers and the type of organisations where the respondents work shows that 59% of the respondents working in the manufacturing types of organisations have their top managers of a nationality different from that of the respondents. Similarly, as many as 50% of the respondents in the trading and retailing sector are working under a top manager of a different nationality. In the case of respondents in construction and utilities, as many as 72 to 73% of the respondents work in a set-up where the nationality of their top manager is different from theirs. In the services sector, as many as 84% of the respondents are found working under the leadership of a person of different nationality. The relationship between the nationality of the top management and that of the respondents was found to be statistically significant ($\chi^2=16.16128$; $C=.21545$; $df=4$; $p<.00281$).

However, the relationship between the overall satisfaction from top managers and the nationality of the respondents was found to be statistically significant. As many as 70% of the UAE nationals report low level satisfaction from their top manager. As compared to this only 29% of the Arab expatriates, 34% of the Asian expatriates, and 42% of the Western expatriates report low level satisfaction from their top manager. In sharp contrast, while only 9% of the UAE nationals report high level satisfaction from their top manager, as many as 35% of the Arab expatriates, 32% of the non-Arab Asians, and 12% of the Western expatriates report high level satisfaction from their top manager. Quite similarly, while only 21% of the UAE nationals report moderate level satisfaction from their top manager, as many as 36% of the Arab expatriates, 34% of the non-Arab Asian expatriates, and 46% of the Western expatriates report moderate level satisfaction from their top managers. The relationship was found statistically significant ($\chi^2=32.87615$; $C=.29039$; $df=6$; $p<.00001$).

With a view to examining the level of satisfaction from top management across the 13 selected parameters, data were analysed for the respondents of different nationalities. The result of the analysis is presented in Table 7.11; detailed computations of the mean scores of satisfaction from top management are presented in (Annexures B.13 to B.16 in appendix B), which present the mean scores of satisfaction from top management across different parameters among the UAE nationals, Arab expatriates, non-Arab

Asian expatriates, and other expatriates. Table 7.12 provide the result of the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and co-efficient of correlation between the mean scores of satisfaction from top management among the different categories of respondents across parameters of satisfaction from top management.

Table 7.11
Mean Scores of Satisfaction from Top Management
Among workers of different Nationalities

Do you agree with the following statements?	Mean Scores				
	All	UAE	Arabs	Asians	Others
My top manager is friendly	1.79	1.61	1.88	1.80	1.75
My top manager is polite	1.88	1.92	1.96	1.84	1.88
My top manager is fair	1.77	1.59	1.84	1.81	1.71
My top manager knows the job	1.83	1.82	1.89	1.85	1.71
I can discuss problems with my top manager	1.68	1.34	1.78	1.73	1.56
My top manager puts unfair pressure on me	1.75	1.78	1.75	1.77	1.81
My top manager is well organised	1.81	1.80	1.88	1.80	1.70
My top manager is snobbish	1.63	1.51	1.67	1.67	1.59
My top manager is inflexible	1.69	1.44	1.76	1.73	1.67
My top manager is reliable	1.79	3.78	1.83	1.81	1.69
My top manager accepts my advice	1.66	1.45	1.71	1.74	1.55
My top manager interferes in my work too much	1.82	1.88	1.82	1.84	1.87
I feel confident of my top manager's support when I make decisions	1.70	1.39	1.76	1.80	1.50

Parameters of satisfaction from top management regrouped:

Personal Qualities	1.80	2.00	1.80	1.80	1.70
Knowledge & Abilities	1.72	1.54	1.79	1.77	1.61
Work Attitude	1.80	1.71	1.80	1.80	1.72

As was the case with the other aspects of job satisfaction, moderate level satisfaction was reported from the top management by the workers of all nationalities. The average mean score of satisfaction from top management for the workers of all nationalities was computed to be 1.75 (variance = 0.006) on a scale of 3, with only the other expatriates reporting less than average satisfaction on this count (mean = 1.69; variance 0.014). Importantly the UAE nationals as well reported higher than the average level of satisfaction from their top managers (mean = 1.79; variance = 0.395). These aspects are made explicit in (Figure C.15 in appendix C).

Personal qualities of the top managers are the source of the highest level of satisfaction among UAE nationals, Arab expatriates, and the Asian expatriates (Table 7.12). In contrast, the other expatriates recorded the highest level of satisfaction from top management on account of work attitude. However, the level of knowledge and

abilities of the top managers are the source of the lowest level of satisfaction from top management among workers of all nationalities.

Table 7.12
Ranking of various aspects of satisfaction from
Top Management among workers of different nationalities

UAE Nationals		Arab Expatriates	
Personal Qualities	2.00	Personal Qualities	1.80
Work Attitude	1.71	Work Attitude	1.80
Knowledge	1.54	Knowledge	1.79
Asian Expatriates		Other Expatriates	
Personal Qualities	1.80	Work Attitude	1.72
Work Attitude	1.80	Personal Qualities	1.70
Knowledge	1.77	Knowledge	1.61

For the UAE nationals, the two most important factors accounting for the highest level of satisfaction from top management arise from their feelings that their top managers are reliable (78%), and that their top managers are polite (90%). In the case of Arabs and non-Arab Asians, their feelings that their top managers are polite (95.7%, 84.4%), and that they know their jobs (82%, 85%) account for the highest level of satisfaction from top managers. Among the other expatriates, politeness of the top managers (87.5%), and non-interfering attitude of the top managers (84.3%) are the two most important factors that account for the highest level of satisfaction from top managers (Annexures B.13 to B.16 in appendix B).

The two most important factors responsible for the lowest level of satisfaction from top managers among the UAE nationals are their inability to discuss their problems with their top managers (65.9%) and their lack of dependence on the top managers for their support (61%). Among the Arab expatriates, their feelings that their top managers are snobs (67.2%), and that their top managers do not accept their advice (70.8%) are the two most important variables responsible for the lowest level of satisfaction from top managers. As far as the non-Arab Asians are concerned, their belief that their top managers are snobs (67.2%), and that their top managers are rigid in their attitude

(73.4%) are the two most important factors responsible for the lowest level of satisfaction from top managers. Among the other expatriates, their feeling that they do not feel confident about their top managers' support in their decision making (50%) and their top managers' inability to listen to their advice (45%) are the two main factors responsible for the lowest level of satisfaction from top managers (Annexures B.13 to B.16 in appendix B).

Table 7.13

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of Mean Scores of Satisfaction from Top Management among workers from different Nationalities

SUMMARY

<i>Groups</i>	<i>Count</i>	<i>Sum</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Variance</i>
All	13	22.8	1.75	0.006
UAE	13	23.31	1.79	0.395
Arabs	13	23.53	1.81	0.007
Asians	13	23.19	1.78	0.003
Others	13	21.987	1.69	0.014

ANOVA

<i>Source of Variation</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P-value</i>	<i>F crit</i>
Between Groups	0.113275	4	0.028319	0.333842	0.854122	2.525212
Within Groups	5.089599	60	0.084827			
Total	5.202874	64				

Coefficient of Correlation:

	<i>All</i>	<i>UAE</i>	<i>Arabs</i>	<i>Asians</i>	<i>Others</i>
All	1.00				
UAE	0.41	1.00			
Arabs	0.93	0.28	1.00		
Asians	0.90	0.36	0.82	1.00	
Others	0.80	0.27	0.63	0.59	1.00

In aggregate, the mean scores of satisfaction from top managers are higher than the average of all nationalities among the respondents of different nationalities, with the exception of other expatriates. However, the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) reveals that these differences are mainly on account of chance, and that there are no significant difference in the mean scores of satisfaction from top managers among the respondents of different nationalities on account of different parameters of satisfaction from top management.

7.3 Conclusion

From the above discussion, the following conclusions can be made. The level of job satisfaction across workers from UAE, Arab, Asian and other national backgrounds, employed in the UAE workplaces, was only moderate. This was true not only regarding the overall job satisfaction, but in the case of satisfaction from reward, satisfaction from direct supervision, and satisfaction from top management, as well. This may represent a worrying matter for managers and policy makers in the country.

Furthermore, despite a significant relationship between various types of job satisfaction and the nationalities of the workers, there is no significant difference in the level of job satisfaction across workers from different national backgrounds in the UAE. This similarity of job satisfaction levels, throughout four of its aspects, and between workers from UAE, Arab, Asian and other national groups in the UAE context, is quite striking. This significant outcome was unexpected, especially to the researcher, who is part of that particular work environment. Within the UAE context, it is normally believed that a strong relationship exists between the level of job satisfaction and the national background of the worker. Interestingly, such an assumption does not seem to be well-founded, at least in this study.

Finally, reward aspects seem to represent an important dimension of this study, which is hard to ignore. As was the case with the previous chapter, such aspects kept confirming the importance of reward within this chapter as well, and throughout the related findings. These findings indicated that reward factors are predominant, particularly among these workers, and generally within the UAE work environment.

Chapter 8

Summary, Findings and Conclusion

8.0 Introduction

The United Arab Emirates (UAE) has achieved spectacular economic growth in the last three decades. Described as one of the capital-rich countries suffering from severely limited indigenous human resources, the UAE has traditionally hired the required workforce from different countries around the world. Currently, the majority of the workers in the country are from the Asian subcontinent, the Far East, and relatively less rich Arab countries.

During the course of economic development, the structure of the workforce in UAE has kept changing, but the fact that the workplaces in UAE still comprise workers from different nationalities remains a truism. The UAE nationals are no more than 20% of the total population of the country, and their representation in the workforce is similar.

The presence of such a large culturally diverse expatriate population in the country has lately been a matter of great concern to the planners and policy makers of country. Traditionally, the expatriate workforce was considered necessary for the economic development of the country in view of the limited size of the national workforce. Most of the workforce in the country was recruited from the countries where they were available at the lowest cost to the employers. Asia and the Far East, the most populous countries with limited employment opportunities, were the foremost sources. Traditional trade relations and old ties may have also played an important role.

As time passed, the non-Arab workers were seen as a cultural threat, and efforts were made to hire workers from the Arab countries of Asia and Africa. The workforce from these countries was likely to share the same language and cultural heritage. However,

Arab workers are now seen by some as a potential political threat. Concerns are often expressed in the academic and intellectual circles of the country. Quite often, the national press and news media come up with debate and discussion on this issue. However, most often, such debates focus on ways and means of reducing the dependence of the country on the expatriate manpower, rather than learning how to deal with them most effectively. In other words, such debates tend to ignore an important priority at this stage, which involves utilising an existing situation, by focusing on future strategy options.

In the meantime, the national workforce has been increasing steadily. The investment in all sectors of education has ensured that the national manpower is endowed with the knowledge and skill needed for the economic development of the country. Currently, nearly a half of the country's national population comprises the young, i.e. people between the age group of 5 to 15 years. The literacy rate being 100%, and children receiving the highest level of education, it is hoped that there would be substantial demand for jobs by this workforce, and failure to provide suitable employment opportunities to well-qualified citizens will have very dire consequences.

Statistics like these are often used to make the case for the reduction of the expatriate manpower so that the deserving local population could replace it. Initially, however, most of the national workforce appear to have shown a strong preference for government jobs, and were thus absorbed there. As the government sector has reached saturation, the efforts for employing the available national manpower in the private sector have gained momentum.

Concerns like these have led to a policy of nationalising the workforce of the country. Nationalisation of the workforce amounts to replacing the expatriate workforce with the national manpower. Consequently, government jobs are now being offered to nationals on a priority basis. Banks for example, are required to replace at least 4% per year of their manpower by nationals, and are thus expected to ensure that the nationals replace the entire expatriate workforce over a period of twenty to twenty-five years. Policies like these have their own pitfalls. There are certain types of jobs for which the national manpower is still not available. In some other cases, the national manpower is registered for the job, but refuses to accept certain types of jobs because it considers them either low grade, or the ones that offer them fewer benefits than they expect.

From the previous discussion, it can be concluded that despite efforts to nationalise the workforce, it seems that the country will continue to rely substantially on the expatriate workforce for years to come. There may not be enough national manpower available to replace the existing expatriate workforce in all sectors of the economy. Workplaces are likely to be full of workers from different nationalities offering a cross-cultural human resource environment. It is against this backdrop that the present study has been undertaken to fill an existing gap in academic research in the UAE context.

The present study initially aimed at gaining an essential understanding of the demographic structure and workforce composition in a country where the majority of earlier researchers have kept complaining of the absence of reliable data with detailed breakdowns, especially on the population nationalities categories. Such demographic information in this research, which comes from a number of different respectable resources, has been carefully analysed, discussed and comprehensively presented to achieve the first aim of the research effectively. Building on the achievement of a better demographic and workforce understanding, this research aimed at obtaining a better understanding of the issues resulting from the existence of a culturally diverse workforce in the UAE work environment. In addition to its own importance in the context of this research as a significant aim that needs to be fulfilled in its own right, it provided foundational knowledge of the situation, which significantly helped in approaching the third and final aim of this research with a better grasp, combined with sharper focus as well as wider perspective. The third and primary aim of this research was to develop a better understanding of job satisfaction among workers from different national backgrounds in the UAE context. The research examined workers from UAE, Arab, Asian and other national groups working in the emirate of Abu-Dhabi. Intentionally, each of these three aims was designed to provide a foundation to the following aim, in order to achieve a well structured and more justified order, which helped in making this research a stronger unit that contains three logically connected aims. This is an important aspect of this research, which is believed to have contributed to its originality. Finally, it is believed that this is one of the very first studies in an Abu Dhabi context that examines the cultural diversity and job satisfaction relationship. This justifies the value of this research in the UAE context. On the basis of this study, it is probable that later researchers may profit in order to undertake more refined analysis.

Nonetheless, it is believed that this study represents a contribution to knowledge in its own right.

8.1 Demographic Structure and Workforce Composition

This section intends to discuss and analyse a set of selected key findings which will be highlighted in order to provide the required understanding of the demographic structure and workforce composition in the country to help in achieving the first aim of this research. As noted before, the demographic structure of the UAE is unusual, due to the fact that the nationals represent no more 20% of the active workforce. Thus, the foreigners, called expatriates in local parlance, are around 80% of the active workforce. Amongst the expatriates, Asians account for around 81%, followed by Arabs, who are about 16% of the expatriate population, and the Europeans, Americans and others are about 2% of the population.

Interestingly, it has been found that the growth in population has outpaced the growth in GDP. During the period 1982 to 1996, the GDP of the country recorded a growth of 45%; the population during the corresponding period grew by 109%. This has caused a decline in the per capita GDP by about 30%, to indicate a decline in the average productivity of the country as a result of its population growth. It is also interesting to note that during this period the total consumption expenditure has increased by about 105%, whereas the investment spending has increased only by about 27%.

The work participation rate has indeed gone up substantially since the inception of the UAE as a modern state. The work participation rate in 1968 was no more than 43% whereas it stood at 53% in 1996. This indicates a higher participation rate by women. This is somewhere between the low rates experienced in Saudi Arabia, and somewhat higher than the rate of female participation in the remaining Gulf countries. However, this issue is beyond the main focus of this study.

More than 92% of the active workforce is engaged in salaried jobs while only about 7% are acting as entrepreneurs. This low proportion in entrepreneurial activities is perceived as a problem by government and official agencies.

The educational profile of the UAE workforce has also been undergoing major changes. In 1975, more than 70% of the population was only semi-literate, whereas the proportion of such people declined to 43% in 1992. This is a massive change over such a short time period. Similarly, the proportion of people educated up to university level has gone up from a paltry 4% in 1975 to a respectable 13% in 1992. It may be of interest to note that that the foreigners and the nationals are not equally distributed across different occupations. Among the work owners and government jobs, it is the nationals that dominate the scene, whereas in the private sector establishments the foreigners hold most of the jobs. The Asians, though nearly 60% of the total population, are largely employed in low paid jobs and jobs requiring manual work. In the public sector and in the category of professionals, the Arab expatriates are in dominance. This is an important aspect of the workforce in UAE that deserves to be further studied in its own right. It is also important to understand that the UAE represent a very attractive work environment for highly qualified individuals, not merely from western backgrounds.

Unlike the earlier part of this conclusion section, which was based on analysing the general demographic data of the country, the following part intends to discuss and analyse key findings that emerged out of the analysis of data collected from the research respondents, to help in achieving the aims of this research most effectively.

In all, 390 questionnaires were returned. Of these, 30 were found to be incomplete and were therefore rejected. The remaining 360 questionnaires were found to be complete enough, and were used for the analysis. This was an adequate number to support the intended analysis. The respondent sample included 13% of the UAE nationals, 39% of the Arab Expatriates, 38% of the Asian Expatriates, and nearly 10% of the other nationalities. Nearly 77% of the respondents were male, while 23% were female. This roughly represents the work participation rate of men and women. About 21% of the respondents were from the government sector, about 7% from the joint sector, and the rest from the private sector. A little more than 5% of the respondents are employed in the manufacturing sector, about 10% in retailing and trade related activities, another 10% from the construction sector, and the rest from the services sector. Although this sample is not strictly representative, the major categories of employment were contained in it.

8.1.1 Social Diversity among the Respondents:

The study found that 76.9% of respondents were male, and 23.1% were female. This largely represents the male-female ratio in workplace situations in the country generally. The age and sex relationship appears to be quite significant. This goes in line with the general trend in the workplace, as women have only recently started participating in the workplace outside their home.

More than 76% of the respondents were married. The workplace situation in the sample seems to be socially following the norms and living a normal life. People were largely living a married family life. The relationship between the gender and age profile of the respondents was found to be statistically significant.

The age of the respondents and their years of residence in the UAE are significantly related. A very interesting conclusion was derived from this finding because it deals with an issue which is often overlooked and not usually considered when discussing techniques and strategies of controlling the number of expatriate workers in the country. Surprisingly, around 33% of the younger respondents have lived in the country for more than 16 years. In other words, around 28% of the respondents who have been living in the country for more than 16 years are young. As the UAE nationals are only around 13% in our sample, this relationship reveals that there are increasing numbers of expatriates whose children are entering the job market. Such an unexpected source of increase is hard to control, and it should always be considered in any future expatriate manpower planning in the country.

8.1.2 Educational Diversity among Respondents

Nearly 46% of the respondents had a postgraduate degree in one discipline or another. Majority of the respondents were found to be professionals. This is, in general, a highly qualified population in international terms.

A cross-tabulation between the age profile and educational profile of the respondents reveals 70% of the young respondents are educated up to university level. So was the case with middle-aged and old respondents. But there is a difference, in the sense that younger respondents are more technically qualified than older respondents. It is not hard to conclude that this is due to the increasing awareness of the importance of education in gaining better working opportunities among the young generations in the UAE

Finally, there is evidence to support that the educational profile of the workforce has remained almost unchanged over the years. A cross-tabulation between the level of education of the respondents and their years of residence in the UAE has shown only a weak relationship

8.1.3 Ethnic Diversity among Respondents

Amongst the UAE nationals, nearly 85% were male, while amongst the Arab expatriates about 76% of the respondents were male. As for the non-Arab Asians, about 81% were male. The situation is altogether different for the western expatriates, where only about 55% of the respondents were male. It is clear that work participation rate of the female is the lowest among the UAE nationals, and the highest among the western expatriates. Compared to the Asians, the Arab expatriates have higher female participation in the workplace. Obviously, this is a male-dominated work environment. The causes and effects of such low work participation rates among female workers in the UAE need to be investigated by later researchers to provide a more comprehensive explanation. However, this is beyond the focus of this present research.

Among the UAE nationals, as many as 38% were single, while among the Arab expatriates, only 22% were single. No more than 14% of the Asians were single, while among the western expatriates 27.3% were single. As regards the high proportion of unmarried workers amongst the UAE nationals, the phenomenon is attributable more to their young age than anything else. As we have seen, a substantial proportion of the UAE nationals are still young.

It was strange to find that among the expatriates who have been living in the country for more than 16 years, nearly 22% were single in a country where remaining single for a long time is not encouraged. The relationship was found to be statistically significant. The relationship seems to indicate that those people who came to this country a long time ago basically found themselves cut off from their roots in the home country, and found it difficult to get married, and preferred to remain single. However, this could also be because the single status has offered these workers the advantage of flexibility in their work as well in their social life. This is a particular characteristic of this expatriate workforce.

A significant relationship between the nationality of the respondents and the sector of employment was found. Surprisingly, among the Asian expatriates, as many as 21% were employed in the government sector, which is believed to be dominated by the UAE nationals and Arabs who are recruited in that sector on a priority basis. On the other hand, the relationship between the type of organisation and the nationality was not found statistically significant. This was unlike the expectation of the researcher. It is normally believed that certain nationalities have some preference for certain types of organisations, but this was not found to be true in the present study.

8.1.4 Organisational Diversity among Respondents

It seems that the respondents working in the joint sector and private sector establishments are relatively younger than those working in the government sector. The relationship appears to be statistically significant. The relationship seems to be quite in line with the general observation. As a substantial proportion of employees in the governmental establishments are UAE nationals, they are not on contract appointment and remain in the employment until they reach the age of retirement.

It is also important to note that more than 94% of the workers employed in the manufacturing, trading and construction sectors were men, while in the utilities and services sector only about 73% of the workforce were men and the rest women. It seems that the women have marked preferences for office-related jobs, and are still not

coming forward to take up jobs requiring fieldwork. This relationship seems quite significant.

A very significant relationship was found between the sector of employment and the years of residence in the UAE of the respondents, which had led to the following conclusion. There seems to be a marked change in the job opportunities in the country. It is obvious that the private sector has emerged as the major job provider in the UAE.

It is often reported in the media that most of the private sector organisations in the UAE are of small size. This argument seems true. There was found to be a very significant relationship between the sectors of organisation and the size. A significantly higher proportion of the government sector establishments, 63%, were of large or very large size, while as many as 51% of the private sector establishments were of small size.

The significant relationship between the age of the respondents and the number of years of service in the organisation indicates the relative job security in the workplace situations in the country, despite the fact that most of the workers are on contract appointments which are subject to review annually.

It is also important to note that a significant relationship exists between the type and the size of organisations. The cross-tabulation shows that while 50% of the manufacturing organisations are of large or very large size, as many as 70% of the trading and retailing establishments are of small or very small size. So is the case with the construction sector. While only 18% of them were found to be of large or very large size, as many as 53% of them were of small or very small size. However, the responses in the case of utility and services sector are normally distributed across different sizes. These findings are almost a reflection of the actual situation in the country.

The years of service in the organisation and the sector of employment seem to bear a significant relationship. As many as 49% of the respondents working in the government sector establishments have been with their organisation for a fairly long period of time, as compared to 38% of the respondents working in the joint sector establishments. In the case of respondents working in the private sector establishments, only 24% of them have been in their organisations for a long time. This is to conclude that the employee turnover is higher in the joint and private sector organisations. In other words, jobs in

the government sector establishments are relatively more secure and lasting. This could also be on account of a significant proportion of the government jobs being held by UAE nationals who are appointed on a permanent basis.

Finally, it can be concluded that there are clearly substantial differences in the employment experience of those employed in the different sectors studied and within their organisational contexts.

8.1.5 Economic Diversity among Respondents

As expected, respondents working in the government and joint sector establishments were getting higher salaries than those in private sector establishments. The cross-tabulation shows that 33% of the respondents working in the government sector establishments, and 38% of those working in joint sector establishments are drawing salaries of over AED 10,000. As compared to this, only 9.4% of the respondents in the private sector establishments were drawing such a high salary. Similarly, while only 23% of the government employees and 17% of the joint sector employees reported to be receiving less than AED 4000 a month, as many as 30% of the private sector employees were found to be receiving this small salary.

On the other hand, the cross-tabulation between the type of organisation and the income of the respondents as measured in terms of salaries showed no significant relationship. Therefore, it can be concluded that unlike the expectations of the researcher, the level of income of the respondents seems to be evenly distributed across all types of organisations. In fact, a stronger association between these two variables was expected.

What appears more significant is the fact that few women respondents were found to be working for salaries of less than AED 2000, but most of the women were concentrated in jobs offering salaries of AED 2000 to 6000. The proportion of women declines substantially as the salary levels go up. Only about 6% of the women workers are getting salaries higher than AED 6000. Therefore, the following can be concluded: due to the women's late entrance to the work environment, only few of them have reached high job positions, which are usually associated with higher salaries. Also, unlike men,

it seems that women in the UAE are not usually willing to accept a job unless it provides a reasonable level of financial compensation.

Interestingly, a very significant relationship was also found between the salary and the nationality of the respondents. A significantly larger proportion, 71%, of the UAE nationals were found working for salaries of more than AED 6000, while none of them was working for salaries of less than AED 2000. As compared to this, substantial proportions, 76%, of the Arab expatriates were working for salaries between AED 2000 to 6000. As regards the Asians, as many as 11% were receiving salaries of less than AED 2000, while only 11% were getting salaries of more than AED 10000. Nearly 82% of the western expatriates were getting salaries of AED 4000 to 6000. It seems that the UAE nationals are best paid, followed by the Arabs and Western expatriates. This possibly comes as a result of the fact that the majority of the UAE nationals and the Arabs are recruited on a priority basis in the public sector establishments, which is the highest paid sector in the country.

A very significant relationship was found between the years of service in the organisation and the income of the respondents. It seems that in most of the cases the experience in the organisation does count as far as the fixing of pay is concerned. It appears that people with a higher number of years of service in the organisation get relatively higher salaries.

There appears to be a significant relationship between the years of service in the organisation and the number of pay rises received by the respondents. As expected, a larger proportion of the respondents with a few years of experience reported to have received no pay rises, but a significantly larger proportion of the respondents having been in their organization for more than 7 years reported having received more than 4 pay rises. This finding indicates that work experience is highly appreciated in the UAE workplaces. It also indicates the direct influence of work experience on the level of financial compensation in the work environment in the country.

Similarly, larger proportions of the respondents working in the government sector jobs were found to have received more pay rises than those working in the joint and the private sectors. Such outcome was highly expected. It confirms what has been stated in the introductory discussion about the more attractive reward packages which are usually

offered by the public sector to its workers, compared with the other sectors of employment in the country.

Finally, it can be concluded from discussing the economic differences among the respondents of this research that the economic experience of the different groupings within this diverse workforce has been very distinctive. Furthermore, the differences found cannot be reduced merely to economic causation.

8.1.6 Workplace Diversity

It was interesting to note that 74% of the respondents work in organisation whose top manager is of a nationality different from that of the respondent. Similarly, around 63% of the respondents had an immediate supervisor belonging to nationality different from theirs. These findings are logical in the light of the large number of workers from different nationalities in the UAE. However, things can be viewed differently. From these two important findings, it can be concluded that managers in the UAE context do not prefer to employ workers from the same national group as theirs. This could be because such managers do not wish to appear they are giving priority, or even showing any preference to workers from the same national group. Therefore they tend to do the opposite, to confirm their neutrality and fairness. It could equally be a general preference that suits managers most in this UAE work environment. On top of all of that, it is possible that managers prefer to employ workers from different cultural backgrounds, in order to benefit from the diversity advantage in their workplaces. In conclusion, such arguments are showing how significant these important findings are. Thus, the diversity in this workforce is a key factor, which makes it quite distinctive.

It was also found that as many as 60% of the public sector employees were working under the direct supervision of a UAE national. In the case of respondents working in the joint sector, only 24% were being supervised by a UAE national. The scene in the private sector was found to be markedly different. Only 17% of the respondents private sector jobs had a UAE national as their immediate supervisor, while nearly 46% reported to be working under the supervision of an Arab expatriate.

Another set of findings was aiming in the same direction. Nearly 96% of the UAE nationals were working in an organisation where their top manager is a UAE national, and the remaining 4% were in organisations where their top manager is an Arab expatriate. A similar trend was noted amongst the Arab expatriates as well. More than 72% of them were found to be employed in organisations with a UAE national as a top manager. Also, half of the Asian expatriates were employed in organizations with a UAE national as the top manager, and nearly 76% of the other expatriate were found to be under the leadership of a UAE national.

A number of important conclusions have been established from the previous set of findings. It seems that UAE nationals occupy the majority of the top management positions in the country. It is also clear that workers from the UAE do not prefer to work under the top management of a person from a different national group. As a result, unlike the majority of their workmates, who came from other national groups, the great majority of the UAE respondents, 96% of them, were not experiencing workplace diversity, as far as the leadership issue is concerned. This is a clear disadvantage in today's multicultural world, which needs to be dealt with properly by managers as well as policy makers in the country.

On the other hand, a strong association was confirmed between the nationality of the respondents and their immediate supervisors. Overall, there seems to be an obvious tendency that the majority of respondents were directly supervised by people belonging to their own national group. This appears to be a significant finding that illuminates one of the characteristic ways in which organisations manage workplace diversity and reduce its possible disturbing effects.

Furthermore, it is also evident that an increasing number of workers have experienced the workplace diversity, in terms of leadership, in the recent past. A cross-tabulation between the years of residence of the respondents and the nationality of their top management shows that 83% of the respondents who have been in the country for less than 15 years are working in organisations whose top manager is not of the same nationality as theirs.

As reflected by the relationship between the nationality of the top manager and the sector of employment, the private sector has more diversity than the joint and

government sectors. The cross-tabulation between the two variables confirmed this highly expected result which contributed to a better understanding of many issues discussed within the context of this research.

Finally, it can be concluded from the discussion throughout this workplace diversity section that it is at the top of the organisation that significant impact of workplace diversity may be experienced.

To close, from the sum of what has been discussed to contribute to the achievement of the first aim of this research, the following can be concluded. The analysis and discussion of the examined aspects of demographic structure and workforce composition in the UAE have shown that there are clearly substantial social, educational, ethnic, organisational, economic and workplace differences in the employment experience of those working in the different studied sectors, and in their organisation contexts within the UAE work environment. The most related and significant of them to the research context, have been dealt with in this section of the conclusion to achieve the first research aim.

8.2 Issues and Implications of expatriate Workforce

This section of the conclusion deals with the second aim of this research. Therefore, the following discussion includes key findings and conclusions, as well as constructive recommendations which are expected to contribute to the achievement of the required understanding of the issues and implications resulting from the presence of a large, culturally diverse workforce in the UAE. The following discussed issues were carefully selected to help in identifying and analysing the aspects related to this research in the proper contexts, in order to contribute most effectively to the achievement of the second aim of this research.

The post-oil boom is seen as the root cause of the influx of foreign manpower into the UAE economy. The country simply did not have enough population to sustain the size and type of economic development triggered by the oil wealth. The professionals and technical staff were recruited from the developed countries of the west, particularly those that brought technology into the country. However, large numbers of unskilled

and semi-skilled workers was brought from low income countries of Asia and Africa. The wage differentials and lack of adequate employment opportunities in their native countries created a desire among such workers to take up employment in the UAE.

As the Asian workers were seen as a cultural threat, the emphasis gradually shifted to the low-income Arab countries of Asia and Africa. Such workers were seen to be most compatible with the language, religion and culture of the country. Increasingly, the government and public sector jobs were given to available workforce from the Arab countries. Although culturally compatible, many see these Arab workers as a political threat to the country because of their tendency of importing their political problems from their native countries. Besides, the private sector generally has shown a marked preference for workers from the country where wage rates are substantially low, so that the needed manpower they could be hired at the lowest terms. This has ensured a larger presence of non-Arab workers in the country because of their lower wages.

Some experts argued that the UAE has more manpower than it needs. They suggest that the country must resort to capital-intensive industries rather than labour-intensive. Though this is contrary to the recent experience in this economy, these experts believe that the large numbers of the unorganised sector must be replaced by technologically advanced sectors, and thereby reduce the need of manpower. Yet another argument that is often advanced is that there is substantial over-employment in the government departments and public sector establishments; in the past the government created jobs for the nationals in the government departments and public sector undertakings. The sector has not only reached saturation, but over-employment in this sector is also causing inefficiency. The argument thus emphasizes the need for rationalising the government departments and public sector undertakings, and in the process reducing the size of manpower by transferring the surplus to the private sector.

As the nationals have shown marked preference for government jobs, many researchers have been prompted to conduct a thorough investigation into this aspect. It is generally believed that better job environment and pay conditions will go a long way in changing the preference and attitude of the national workforce. The private sector is therefore being persuaded to offer better terms of work compensation, including retirement benefits on the line of the government jobs, to the national workforce. The population of the nationals has been increasing quite rapidly. Besides, nearly half of the present

population of nationals comprises people below the age of 15 years. It is expected that a large number of national manpower will be available in the job market, and the government will have to ensure gainful employment for them.

Such concerns have prompted the decision-makers to launch a drive for the nationalisation of jobs. Many public sector undertakings have developed a comprehensive plan for replacing the expatriate workforce by nationals in the medium term. The financial sector, particularly the commercial banks, are being encouraged to replace at least 4% of their manpower from the national workforce. Despite the drive for workforce nationalization, there is also a feeling that there are types of jobs for which suitably qualified national workforce is not likely to be available in the years to come. There are also jobs which will continue to be filled by the expatriate workforce for the national workforce would be least willing to take them up; these would especially include the manual work and other low-paid jobs which are not considered prestigious enough by the nationals.

It is also important to understand that the presence of the expatriate workforce in such large numbers is increasingly becoming a matter of genuine concern due to the cultural, economic and political implications. . The expatriate workers' uncomfortable impact on national culture and language, as well as the negative association of certain jobs with certain social class and national origins, and the consequences of these issues, are among the sensitive socio-cultural implications which need to be dealt with wisely by managers and policy makers in the UAE. They also need to be aware of the important economic implications represented by the drain in foreign exchange reserves and the frequent reduction in the current account balance in the country, which are caused by the huge amount of money transferred regularly outside the country by the expatriate workers. Similarly, the political implications, which can be demonstrated in the UAE nationals becoming a minority in their own country, and the impact of that on internal policies as well as on external relations and policies, are adding to these concerns. In summary, it is recommended that when dealing with the work environment of a country like the UAE, one has to cope with such social, economic and political settings of the country, in order to obtain a realistic chance of achieving a successful mission. Any attempt to ignore these aspects may prove to be very costly.

In summary, it can be concluded that since many public sector establishments have already reached saturation, and over-employment in some cases, they can no longer be considered a future major job provider in the country. The private sector, which has emerged as the main job provider in the country, is expected to be the alternative, especially for UAE nationals. The challenge can be that the UAE workers, in particular, do not prefer to join the private sector, due to certain social, psychological and economic considerations, which has been demonstrated in this research.

On the other hand, unfortunately, the private sector establishments do not prefer UAE workers because they are the most expensive to employ, but not necessarily the most experienced and productive. The preference in that sector is for Asian workers, because of the economic element, while the preference in the public sector is for Arab workers because of justified socio-cultural reasons. Furthermore, the UAE workers kept showing their marked preference for white-collar jobs at the expense of blue-collar jobs, which they kept avoiding, to add to the complications of the situation.

The situation calls for attitudinal changes both in the nationals as well as in the private sector. Many believe that the current policies of welfare state pursued by the UAE, which distributes land, other large compensations, and other benefits to the nationals, as an indirect wealth distribution effort by the government have killed the incentives for hard work. Why would they be willing to exert themselves when they can earn from the public exchequer without putting in maximum efforts? Motivating the nationals to take up jobs offered by the private sector is a tough task, and would not succeed unless attitudinal changes are brought about in them.

The government should consider adopting policies to motivate, or even in some way induce the nationals to accept undesired jobs. It might be worth offering temporary higher salaries and benefits for manual and blue-collar jobs than what others would get while working in offices as clerks and in other managerial positions.

Moreover, the private sector must also be made to accept the need for offering jobs to the nationals in a more practical manner. If necessary, legislation, rules and regulations offering job protection for the nationals must be introduced. Furthermore, the private sector establishments should be liable to pay taxes for hiring expatriate workforce. At the same time, it should be made to offer better salaries and other retirement benefits in

order to attract the national talents. In fact, the prevailing low wages, as compared to what is being offered by the public sector, and poor service conditions offered by the private sector establishments do not attract the nationals, and thus fail to motivate the nationals to take up jobs with the private sector establishments. Therefore, such recommendations may prove to be influential.

It can be suggested that development of the national human resources requires a two-pronged strategy. On the one hand, the private sector establishments should be persuaded to provide reasonable job opportunities to the nationals. If the private sector establishments are not reluctant to come forward voluntarily, they should be forced to give jobs to the nationals by making it mandatory for them to have an increasing minimum representation of UAE workers in such establishments. But most importantly, efforts must be made to make the nationals ready to work for the private sector. The nationals should be encouraged to study science and technology rather than concentrating on humanities, in order to fulfil the current manpower needs of the country. The education must be made relevant to the needs of industry, and designed to suit the requirements of the private sector. The qualitative aspects of education have to be given more attention so as to develop practical and applied skills among the nationals

The authorities might also consider introducing pension funds and other retirement funds for the nationals in the private sector. This will make the private sector equally lucrative to them. Similarly, the nationals should be encouraged to invest in the industrial sector and be motivated to work as active entrepreneurs in the trade and service establishments sponsored by them. Nationals might be provided with loans, either interest-free or at lower cost, to help them set up small projects in the desired areas. This will help them establish and run businesses on their own without depending on the foreign investors. The industry must thus be nationalised gradually, the meaning of nationalisation being that the business and industry be actively owned by the nationals rather than the expatriates. This also means that the nationals would be encouraged to take an active part in their business, rather than remaining a silent partner.

Women in Arabian Gulf countries have remained largely away from the labour market. In view of population scarcity and the national need, it is important that women should come forward to take up jobs in the socially acceptable sectors

In conclusion, the UAE is a country that achieved a spectacular development throughout the previous three decades because of the vision of its leadership, which helped in utilising the oil wealth effectively. A great awareness has been developing lately in the country about the need for developing qualified and reliable national workforce to maintain the country's development and progress with a greater dependence on its own people rather than the expatriate workforce. However, it seems that the country has no option but to remain largely dependent on the expatriate workforce. Thus, for the foreseeable future, the basic structure for the UAE labour force is likely to remain similar in its present condition. Obviously, the expatriate workers have to make up for the limited number of UAE national workforce, if the country wishes to carry on with its current levels of development and progress in many aspects of life. Therefore, obtaining a clear understanding of differences among workers from diverse national groups in the UAE, in order to learn about how to utilise these differences most effectively, is becoming a priority at this stage. This research, throughout its process, is pointing to, and more significantly contributing to that direction.

8.3 Job Satisfaction among Culturally Diverse Workforce

This conclusion section is based on the empirical analysis of the data collected through the questionnaire from 360 respondents in the emirate of Abu-Dhabi. That helped in highlighting different aspects of job satisfaction by examining the relationship of four of them, with selected work as well as non-work variables in the cross-cultural context of the UAE. This was to examine the individual and physical differences among the respondents, in order to provide a better understanding of the personality attributes and organisational climate, which are likely to influence the job satisfaction of the workers within their organisations. Such an approach was selected in order to generate the analysis and discussion that leads to the achievement of the third aim of this research.

Therefore, the intention of the following sections is to develop a better understanding of job satisfaction among the culturally diverse workforce in the UAE.

8.3.1 Overall Job Satisfaction (OJS) and Workplace Diversity

The overall job satisfaction (ojs) was calculated on the basis of a 15-item questionnaire. The responses obtained were converted into mean scores, which were categorised into high, moderate and low levels. In the following part, the analysis and discussion of the key findings that resulted from some of the key relationships of ojs with the examined variables will be presented.

As for the ojs association with the gender of the respondents, the cross-tabulation results show that while only 28% of the men were found reporting high job satisfaction, the proportion of women workers reporting high job satisfaction was significantly higher at 40%. This indicates that expecting a higher satisfaction level from a female worker in the UAE context is not as hard as obtaining the same from a male worker.

It was also found that the marital status of the respondents only mildly affects their ojs level. This was unlike the expectations of the researcher, which were based on the assumption that the emotional support from the married workers' partners is likely to influence their ojs level. Therefore, marked differences between them and the single respondents should exist. However, this was not found to be true in this study.

It was interesting to find that no significant relationship was established between the level of education of the respondents and their ojs. Again, this is an unexpected outcome. It is often believed that the educational background has an impact on how the workers view, experience and deal with situations. Normally, that should influence their level of ojs in the workplace. Obviously, this outcome does not suggest that.

By examining the differences in ojs among respondents working in the public, joint and private sectors in the emirate of Abu-Dhabi, it was concluded that there is, then, not much difference in ojs between the three sectors of employment in the country. On the other hand, the cross-tabulation between ojs and type of organisation shows that nearly 50% of the respondents working in the manufacturing types of organisations reported a

low level of ojs, while 30% of trading and retailing types of organisations reported the same. Only 22% of the manufacturing types of organisations respondents reported high level of ojs, compared to as much as 42% of the respondents in the trading and retailing organisations who reported the same high level. One can conclude that unlike the relationship with the sector of employment, there is a clear difference in ojs among the studied types of organisations. Therefore, the type of organization has more influence than the sector of employment on the workers' ojs. Also, the ojs of the respondents appeared to be moderately associated with the size of the organisation.

Finally, the cross-tabulation between ojs and pay shows that among the respondents receiving salaries as low as AED 2000 a month, around 70% reported a low level of ojs, while another 30% reported a moderate ojs level. Amongst the respondents receiving between AED 2000 to 4000, nearly 36% had low level ojs, while 35% reported high level ojs. As against this, amongst the respondents receiving a monthly salary of more than AED 10000, as many as 42% were found having a high level of ojs. In conclusion, monetary reward and overall job satisfaction are therefore clearly related. This significant relationship includes a confirmation of the important role played by the reward within this workforce in the context of the UAE. This outcome is also contributing to one of the main conclusions of this research.

8.3.2 Satisfaction from Reward (sfr) and Workplace

Diversity

Reward was the second examined aspect of job satisfaction among the respondents of this research. Reward in this case included direct financial compensation as well as prospects of promotion, and they were the ingredients of reward in this research.

Just like ojs, no significant relationship was found between the marital status of the respondents and their level of satisfaction from reward (sfr). Also, no significant relationship was found to exist between the age of the respondents and their level of sfr. The cross-tabulation between the sector of employment and the level of sfr shows only a moderate relationship.

A relationship between the types of organization and the level of sfr was found among the respondents. The respondents working in the trading, utilities and services sectors seem to be equally distributed across different levels of sfr. Interestingly, a larger proportion of the respondents working in the construction sector reported low level sfr. As demonstrated in Chapter 4, the construction sector is one of the largest in the country, where a high level of competition takes place, especially among the non-highly educated workers. Based on the observation of the researcher, usually unskilled or even semi-skilled workers are recruited to that sector on an experience basis rather than qualifications. Therefore, the competition in that sector is high, because many workers fall into that wide category of 'previous experience is enough'. As a result, workers in that sector are likely to remain in their job, even if it does not offer them the expected level of reward, because of the availability of their alternatives. This could be the reason for the low levels of sfr among the respondents in the construction sector.

Finally, as was the case with the level of ojs, the sfr was found to be significantly associated with the salary of the respondents. As many as 88% of the respondents receiving salaries of less than AED 2000 reported low level sfr, but only 40% of the respondents receiving salaries of AED 2000 to 4000 a reported low str level. Among the respondents receiving salaries as high as AED 6000 and more, as many as 45 to 47% reported high level sfr. Again, this strong association between sfr and direct financial compensation is setting a trend in this research, which should support a stronger final conclusion in that direction.

8.3.3 Satisfaction from Supervision (SFS) and Workplace Diversity

This was the third examined aspect of job satisfaction in this research. More than 38% of the total respondents reported low levels of satisfaction from supervision (sfs). On the other hand, 40% of the total respondents were experiencing high levels of sfs. Both the men and women respondents reported similar level of sfs. The level of satisfaction from the immediate supervisor and the age of the respondent too did not bear any significant relationship. Furthermore, just like ojs and sfr, the two aspects of job

satisfaction earlier examined, no significant relationship was established between the sector of employment of the respondents and their level of sfs.

The cross-tabulation of the sfs, and the types of organisation revealed that while as many as 56% of the respondents working in the manufacturing, trading and construction types of organisations reported low sfs, as many as 51% of the respondents in the services types of organizations reported a high sfs. It can be concluded that there is a clear difference in sfs among the studied types of organisations, just as with ojs and sfr, among the respondents of this research. Finally, unlike all of the other examined aspects of job satisfaction, sfs was not found significantly related with the salaries of the respondents.

8.3.4 Satisfaction from Top Management (SFTM) and Workplace Diversity

This was the fourth and final aspect of job satisfaction examined in this research. It was found that 37% of the respondents were experiencing low levels of satisfaction from top management (sftm). On the other hand, 28% of the respondents were experiencing high levels of sftm. Both men and women respondents reported similar levels of sftm.

It was strange to find that, unlike the married respondents, less than 10% of the singles reported high level sftm. Furthermore, more than 51% of the unmarried singles reported low level sftm. It could be that the singles have less fear than their married colleagues do, because they do not have partners or children to worry about. Therefore, they are likely to be less hesitant to express their most honest opinions about their top manager. But this could equally be because many unmarried people tend to be not as emotionally stable as married people are. Also, singles are generally younger, with great ambitions that are not easy to fulfil. In many situations, they do not adjust well with that, because of lack of experience and patience. As a result, their satisfaction from their top managers, who obviously have achieved a higher position than them, reaches such low levels.

Moreover, a relatively larger proportion of the young respondents reported low or moderate sftm. It can be concluded from the combination of these last two findings that it is probable that among the young single category, the sftm is lowest. This may be a concerning finding for future policy and policy makers in the country.

As many as 50 to 55% of the respondents working in the manufacturing, trading and construction types of organisations report low sftm. As against this, only 25% of the respondents working in the service types of organisations, and 36% of the respondents working in the utilities reported low sftm. This is to conclude that within all of the four examined aspects of job satisfaction, a significant difference in job satisfaction among the studied types of organizations was established. This conclusion is important, not only because it has been reconfirmed throughout all the examined aspects of job satisfaction in this research, but mainly because it establishes that it is better not to design and follow the same strategy in dealing with the job satisfaction of workers within different types of organisations in the UAE.

Finally, among the respondents receiving less than AED 2000 a month, 71% reported low sftm, while amongst the respondents receiving between AED 2000 to 6000 a month, only 30 to 33% reported low sftm. Once again, it can be concluded that the level of direct financial compensation is significantly associated with job satisfaction, as represented by sftm. This conclusion is consistent with the previous sets of conclusions that emphasised the influential role of reward in deciding the level of job satisfaction among the workers in the UAE work environment. It contributed significantly to the earlier findings and direction of conclusions, which have led to the establishment of reward as a major dimension of this research.

8.4 Job Satisfaction across Nationalities

This conclusion section is intended to discuss the four aspects of job satisfaction included in this research across workers from UAE, Arab, Asian and other national backgrounds in the UAE. The previous section of this conclusion chapter treated the respondents as a single body, while this section is considering each of the four national groups. Therefore, the role of this section is to discuss and analyse the differences in

overall job satisfaction, satisfaction from reward, satisfaction from supervision, and satisfaction from top management among the four examined national groups. The purpose is to contribute to the better understanding of job satisfaction among culturally the diverse workforce in the UAE, in order complete the fulfilment of the third and final aim of this research.

Among the respondents, around 13% were UAE nationals. Nearly 40% of the respondents were Arab expatriates, whereas the non-Arab Asians represented about 38% of the total respondents.

8.4.1 Overall Job Satisfaction and Nationality:

A few very obvious trends stand out noticeably from the foregoing discussion that may have serious implications for the planners and policy makers. The mean scores of overall job satisfaction among workers of all nationalities range between 3.99 (Variance = 0.1836) to 4.33 (Variance = 0.0886). This indicates only a moderate level of overall job satisfaction. In totality, the mean scores of overall job satisfaction work out to be the highest for the Arab expatriates (mean = 4.32; Variance = .0692) and the lowest for the other expatriates (mean = 3.99; Variance = 0.1836).

The 15 parameters used for the calculation of the overall job satisfaction were regrouped into four subgroups, which were physical working conditions, qualitative work environment, reward, and inter-personal relationship. By regrouping, things become more obvious. What appears from the analysis is that the average mean scores of satisfaction from the inter-personal relationship is the highest across the board. This means that workers from all nationalities report highest level of satisfaction on this count, both collectively as well individually. The finding indicates that the inter-personal relationship in the UAE work settings is generally strong and is appreciated by all, irrespective of their nationalities.

What is however important is the fact that the respondents of different nationalities reported different parameters of highest and the lowest ojs out of the 15 parameters used to calculate ojs. The UAE nationals reported the highest ojs on account of job variety (Mean Score (ms)=5.14) followed by the relationship with fellow workers

($ms=4.84$). For the UAE nationals, least ojs was experienced in terms of chances of promotion ($ms=3.71$), and recognition for good work ($ms=3.92$).

Pay scale and chances of promotion were the two dimensions which were responsible for the lowest ojs among workers of three different nationalities, i.e. Arabs, Asians, and others. The UAE nationals experienced lowest ojs from chances of promotion and recognition for good work. This suggests that by providing better chances of promotion and by providing mechanisms to recognise good work by the workers, overall job satisfaction of the UAE nationals can be further improved.

Among the Arab expatriates, highest ojs was reported from relationship with fellow workers ($ms=4.84$), and with immediate supervisor ($ms=4.78$). Respondents of these nationalities reported least ojs from poor pay scales ($ms=3.83$), and inadequate chances of promotion ($ms=3.85$). It may be deduced that by providing better pay scales and chances of promotion, overall job satisfaction of Arab expatriates can be further enhanced.

As regards Asian expatriates, highest ojs was reported from recognition for good work ($ms=4.70$) and relationship with fellow workers ($ms=4.68$). These respondents reported lowest ojs from inadequate chances of promotion ($ms=3.55$), and poor pay scale ($ms=3.75$). The case with the other expatriates is quite similar. They reported highest ojs from relationship with fellow workers ($ms=4.84$) and relationship with immediate supervisor ($ms=4.67$). Furthermore, it was interesting to find the lowest ojs for to this category of respondents as well arises from poor pay scale ($ms=3.30$) and inadequate chances of promotion ($ms=3.23$). It can be concluded that by improving financial reward and chances of promotion, the level of overall satisfaction can be improved among most of the workers from the different national groups.

However, in totality, not a very significant difference was found between the ojs, and the nationality of the respondents. The cross-tabulation result confirmed that respondents from UAE, Arab, Asian and other nationality groups were similarly distributed across different levels of overall job satisfaction ($Chi=4.13712$; $C=0.10703$; $df=6$; $p<.65813$). The Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and the coefficient of correlation corroborated these results

8.4.2 Satisfaction from Reward and Nationality

A very significant relationship was found to exist between the level of sfr and the nationality of the respondents. Almost 51% of the UAE nationals reported high sfr, while only 25% of the Arab expatriates, 32% of the Asian expatriates, and only 18% of the Western expatriates reported the same high level. This association seems quite understandable in the light the UAE nationals being the highest paid among the respondents.

As was the case with the ojs, the level of sfr and promotion was also found to be only moderate across workers of different nationalities. The average mean score of satisfaction from reward for workers of all nationalities worked out to be 1.48. The UAE nationals and the Arab expatriates reported a higher than average level, while the Asians and other expatriates reported a lower than average level. Such low levels of sfr have to be improved by dealing with its causes, to avoid any possible negative effect on the work, and the work environment of such workers.

The 15 different statements used in the questionnaire, which represented 15 different dimensions or parameters of sfr, were regrouped into three subgroups. The three subgroups were named pay in absolute terms, pay in relative terms and prospects for promotion, based on their content, to help in analysing the results more effectively. Workers of all nationalities felt that their pay is less than satisfactory in absolute terms. On the other hand, Asians and other expatriates reported a marginally lower than average level of sfr, compared with Arab expatriates who reported an average level sfr, and the UAE nationals who reported significantly a higher than the average sfr, as far as pay in relative terms is concerned. Thirdly, it was interesting to note that the average mean score on satisfaction from promotional opportunities for workers of all nationalities worked out to be 1.46, with only the other expatriates reporting lower than average sfr on this count. Similarly, as was the case with the pay in relative terms, the UAE nationals reported the highest level of satisfaction on this count as well. It seems that among the examined national groups, UAE workers had a relatively better level of sfr, compared with their colleagues.

Interestingly, it was found that pay in relative terms was the source of highest satisfaction among workers of all nationalities. The pay in absolute terms appears to be

the source of lowest sfr among workers of all nationalities, except the UAE nationals for whom prospects for promotion is the source of the lowest satisfaction. Such outcome can be beneficial for managers in workplaces in considering the most suitable type of reward for each national group in the UAE context, as well as in developing a useful general guideline in that direction.

Finally, when analysing the sfr among workers of different nationalities, taking into account all of the 15 parameters used to ascertain it, the following becomes clear. UAE nationals and Arab expatriates reported higher than the average sfr, while the Asians and other expatriates reported lower than the average sfr. Nevertheless, analysis of Variance (ANOVA) indicates that these differences are mainly on account of chance, and there is no significant difference in sfr on account of the different parameters among the workers of different nationalities. This is significant, in view of the fact that there are significant differences in the salaries and other perks across the workers of different nationalities.

8.4.3 Satisfaction from Supervision and Nationality

As was the case with the ojs and sfr, respondents reported moderate level of sfs. The average mean scores for all the nationalities worked out to be 1.7 (variance =0.043) on a scale of 3. In order to have a better grasp of the phenomenon, the 13 parameters used to calculate mean scores of sfs have been regrouped into three broad categories. These are the satisfaction on account of the personal qualities of the supervisor, knowledge of the supervisor, and the work attitude of the supervisor.

The average mean scores for all nationalities worked out to be 1.79, with only the UAE nationals reporting lower than average (mean = 1.7), whereas workers from all other national backgrounds reported higher than average satisfaction from the personal qualities of the supervisors. Moreover, only the UAE nationals reported lower than average satisfaction from knowledge of the supervisor (mean = 1.55). Similarly, UAE nationals and the other expatriates reported lower than average satisfaction from work attitude of the supervisor. Obviously, among all of the examined national groups, UAE respondents reported the lowest satisfaction on all three counts of sfs. Urgently, there is

a great need to improve such low levels of satisfaction from supervision among UAE workers in particular. In the light of the country's massive efforts and investments in developing the national manpower, this should be a matter of concern for the managers and policy makers of the country. Such a matter has serious consequences for the outcome of the UAE workers in the country.

The two most important factors accounting for the lowest sfs among the UAE nationals arise from the belief that the respondents can not discuss their problems with their supervisor (71%), and that they do not feel confident that their supervisors would support them in their decisions (52%). Among the Arab expatriates, the two most important factors accounting for the lowest sfs lie in the feeling that the supervisors put unfair pressure on the respondents (85%), and that they cannot discuss their problems with their supervisors (75%). In the case of the Asian and other expatriates, their belief that they cannot discuss their problems with their supervisors (79%) and that their supervisors put unfair pressure on them (75%) are the two most important factors responsible for the lowest level of sfs. In conclusion, by improving the factors responsible for low sfs, and maintaining the factors responsible for high sfs, the relationship between the workers and their supervisors will be enhanced within the UAE work environment.

Taken as a whole, the mean scores of overall satisfaction among the four categories of respondents, across the 13 parameters, established the following conclusion. There is no significant difference in satisfaction from supervision between workers from different national backgrounds in the UAE. Although the average mean scores of satisfaction from supervision among the UAE nationals were lower than the average of all other nationalities, while they were higher in the case of Arabs, Asians and other expatriates, but these were chance differences, as confirmed by the ANOVA and the f test.

8.4.4 Satisfaction from Top Management and Nationality

As was the case with the other aspects of job satisfaction, the workers of all nationalities reported moderate level of satisfaction from top management (sftm). The average mean sftm score for the workers of all nationalities was computed to be 1.75

(variance = 0.006) on a scale of 3, with only the other expatriates reporting less than average satisfaction on this count (mean = 1.69; variance 0.014). Importantly, the UAE nationals as well reported higher than the average sftm, (mean = 1.79; variance = 0.395).

For the sake of more focused analysis, the same three regrouping factors of sfs, were used to regroup the 13 sftm parameters. It needs to be highlighted here that the personal qualities of the top managers are the source of the highest sftm among UAE nationals, Arab expatriates, and the Asian expatriates. In contrast, the other expatriates recorded the highest sftm from work attitude. However, the level of knowledge and abilities of the top managers were the source of the lowest sftm among workers of all nationalities. This final finding is questioning the quality of the top managers in the UAE work environment. Workers from all national backgrounds have expressed the same feeling, which makes this finding a significant one. In fact, profound knowledge and well-developed abilities are considered among the most valuable assets of the contemporary manager. If the majority of the top managers in the UAE context do not reflect such qualities, this should be a very concerning matter which the policy makers in the UAE cannot afford to ignore.

In aggregate, the mean sftm scores were higher than the average of all nationalities on account of the parameters examined. This was the case among the respondents from different nationalities, with the exception of other expatriates. However, the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) revealed that these differences were mainly on account of chance. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is no significant difference in satisfaction from top management among the respondents of different nationalities.

8.5 Summary and conclusion

From the discussion throughout the previous sections, the following major conclusions can be drawn. It has been concluded that the job satisfaction among workers of different nationalities was only moderate. This was true not only of overall job satisfaction but also in the case of the various aspects, parameters and dimensions of job satisfaction examined throughout this research. There is thus an urgent need to take steps to

improve the level of job satisfaction for workers of all nationalities. Besides, it is also clear that despite a significant relationship between the various types of job satisfaction and the nationalities of the workers, but in aggregate, there is no significant difference in the level of job satisfaction across workers of different nationalities in the UAE.

Similar conclusions were arrived at in a study of Euro-Americans and Hispanics, where the ethnicity of the respondents was not found to be significantly associated with job satisfaction (Omundson, Schroeder and Stevens, 1996). The present study also partly confirms the findings of another study on Asian attitudes and the relationship between culture and job satisfaction that managers of different national backgrounds are concerned with different aspects of job satisfaction (Swierczek, 1988).

The findings largely corroborate earlier studies that have reported that the importance workers attach to specific job rewards differ by race and that the racial differences in job values persist (Martin and Tuch, 1993). Findings of the present study appear to be contrary to some earlier studies which reported that the workers from the minority groups were more satisfied than Anglos (Lopez and Greenhaus, 1978; Gottlieb, 1964).

In contrast to the studies reporting that Hispanics and Mexican Americans are consistently more satisfied with work than either Anglos or Blacks (Bartell, 1981; Dworkin, 1980; Hawkes et al, 1984; Moch, 1980; McNeely, 1989), the present study amply indicates that neither overall job satisfaction nor satisfaction on different job dimensions differ significantly across workers of different nationalities. Thus, the findings of the present study generally confirm an earlier study that reported no significant difference between Anglos and Hispanics (Valdez, 1983).

Interestingly, the present study finds some parallel with a recent study on the job experiences and attitudes of Arab and Jewish workers sharing the same work site in manufacturing concerns, that reported that Arabs and Jews differ in terms of demographic, job status, and job treatment factors, as well as in levels of job satisfaction. (Wolkinson and Montemayor, 1998). Building on the works of Gibson and Teasely (1973) and Hackman and Oldham (1980), a study conducted in the context of the public sector of Saudi Arabia reported that the job environment, especially supervision, promotion practices and job mobility is of substantial importance in predicting job satisfaction (Al Rahimi, 1990). The analysis of the study also indicates

that individual attributes do also influence job satisfaction through affecting perceptions of the work situations. These findings are also partly confirmed in the present study. Finally, throughout all of the discussion of apparently comparable studies, the special characteristics of the UAE economy must be borne in mind, in order to achieve a better understanding of this significant conclusion in its proper context.

In summary, the discussion and analysis of this chapter have led to the following important conclusions. There is clearly a substantial difference in the employment experience of those employed in the surveyed sectors of employment, and within their organisational contexts in the UAE, as far as the social, educational, ethnic, organisational, economic and workplace dimensions are concerned. This conclusion is demonstrating the importance of understanding these differences for better utilisation of such a culturally diverse workforce. Furthermore, it offers further justification of the importance of this research by describing the unique position of the UAE in today's global economy. It demonstrated the differences that made the country, with its culturally diverse workforce, a special case that needed to be understood and properly positioned in today's global context of the world.

Noticeably, a great awareness is developing among the policy makers and the manpower planners in the country about the need for developing a qualified and reliable national workforce to take over, eventually, from the dominating expatriate workforce, in order to meet the country's natural development needs. However, in spite of efforts like nationalisation of jobs, gradual replacement of expatriates, pressuring the private sector for a more active role in employing nationals, or even persuading more nationals to join other than the public sector, the UAE national workforce is simply too short in quality and quantity, considering its the skills and experience, and the needs of the economy, to replace the country's current high expatriate population. Therefore, it has been concluded that the expatriate workers are likely to remain in the country as major force, at least in the short and medium terms. As a result, better understanding and utilisation of that situation become a necessity at this critical stage to gain the diversity advantage, as well as to minimise the psychological, social, political and economic disadvantages that resulted from the presence of such a large multicultural workforce in the UAE.

Therefore, the human resource manager in the UAE has no choice but to cope with the socio-cultural, political and economic implications of managing a culturally diverse workforce in the UAE. He/she certainly cannot afford to ignore controversial issues like reducing the number of expatriate workers, or even replacing Asians by Arab workers in order to achieve his/her mission most effectively.

It has been established by this research that the national background of the worker is not a modifier of job satisfaction, as represented by four of its aspects in the cross-cultural context of UAE. Despite a few identified significant relationships between the examined aspects of job satisfaction and the nationality of the respondents, in aggregate there was no significant difference in overall job satisfaction, satisfaction from reward, satisfaction from supervision, and satisfaction from top management, across workers from UAE, Asian, Arab, and other national backgrounds in the UAE. This is likely to contain significant implications for all of those who need to deal with the UAE work environment in any form.

Interestingly, among all examined national groups, the respondents were least satisfied with their reward packages. This was the case not only among the lower paid workers, but also among the highest paid respondents. That significantly indicated the role played by promotion and monetary compensation, which were the reward ingredients in this research, in deciding the level of job satisfaction among workers in the UAE. This is a very special workforce, where many came with high economic expectations, which they could have not, or even may not be able to fulfil, even in a country like the UAE. This significant outcome about the influence of reward on the employee's job satisfaction needs to be taken further by later researchers because of its serious implications for the UAE workplace environment

Furthermore, the combination of analysis throughout this research from different directions, points in one main direction, which clearly indicates that this is a highly reward-oriented workforce. The question whether theories of motivation are fully applicable in the UAE context will be enhanced by this interesting conclusion. From a wider point of view, this conclusion reinforces the perspective that the UAE represents an economy and labour market with special characteristics in the global economy. This supports the view that globalisation must be understood as a diverse set of processes, in which competitive advantage may accrue to a "region state" with unique characteristics.

In total, the whole trend of these results indicates that the UAE workforce is truly culturally diverse. The implications for management philosophies as well as practice are profound. Nonetheless, the balance of the different elements and basis of job satisfaction can be considered in general similar among the different communities and national groups of workers examined in this study. On balance, therefore, the multiplicity of expectations, efforts-reward decisions, and management styles appear to work surprisingly well within this culturally diverse workforce.

Finally, although there are different sources of job satisfaction in this culturally diverse workforce, reasonable levels of job satisfaction, except in relation to reward, are definitely experienced within this particular UAE context and within its unique work environment.

8.6 Directions for Future Research

This can be considered a pioneering study of cultural diversity and the work attitude of job satisfaction in a developing country such as the UAE. The study has attempted to achieve its aims and produce important findings and conclusions, as well as significant implications for theory and practice. Naturally, as with any other research, questions have to be raised for further study. Such questions may represent a base for future researches that can be conducted, not only in the UAE, but also in many similar contexts.

The sample of this research was limited to the Emirate of Abu-Dhabi. The question that can be raised here, is whether the results of this research would be the same if it was conducted in one of the other six Emirates of the UAE. Furthermore, this research has addressed numerous issues related to cultural diversity and job satisfaction. However, it is impossible for a single piece of research to cover all issues related to both concepts, considering the time limit of this research and the time of the respondents. Many of the unstudied issues in this research may represent a potential for further research in the UAE context.

The instruments and measurements of the variables of this research were carefully selected and treated with extreme caution, but a certain degree of error can not be

avoided. This is due to the fact that these measurements were developed in a different culture and environment. Therefore, similar future research could enhance the results of this study, and as a result, improve the validity and reliability of its measurements.

Furthermore, more questions can be asked to help future researchers in choosing a better direction. Would the results of this research be the same if it were replicated over time? Or if it were replicated using a more qualitative approach? From that point of view, more research is still needed, and many questions remain to be answered by later researchers.

Therefore, this research suggests that further empirical research on the cultural diversity, job satisfaction, and their relationship among workers in the UAE context would present a more meaningful view of these variables. In addition, it is important to suggest that organisational behaviour variables, including job satisfaction, should be surveyed in the UAE from time to time in order to develop the relevant strategies that consider these variables, and deals with them appropriately. Finally, this research, with its analysis, findings, discussions, conclusions and recommendations can represent in its own right, a very useful guide for future researchers in the context of UAE, and among its culturally diverse workforce, within that special work environment.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Questionnaire

Appendix A

Questionnaire

We are conducting a research on job satisfaction among culturally diverse work force in United Arab Emirates.

You will kindly appreciate that a research of this type depends a great deal on the responses of eminent people like you. We are, therefore, approaching you with a questionnaire and request your kind cooperation in this regard.

The information collected from you shall be treated strictly confidential. The identity of the respondent will not be disclosed and discussed in the research and the information given by you shall not be used for any purpose other than that of our research.

Thank you very much for your kind cooperation

The researcher

Talal Al Junaibi

Section A: Identifying Information

Please check the appropriate Box

Sex:

Male	Female
------	--------

Marital Status:

Single	Married	Divorced	Other
--------	---------	----------	-------

Age (in years):

Residential Status:

Citizen	Work Visa	Residence Visa	Other
---------	-----------	----------------	-------

National Origin: (Please name the country you belong to:

Years of residence in UAE (in Years):

Level of Education:

Primary School	Preparatory School	Secondary School	Diploma	Higher Diploma	Under Graduate	Post Graduate	Other
----------------	--------------------	------------------	---------	----------------	----------------	---------------	-------

Area of Specialisation:

Business	Engineering	Medicine	Education	General science	Media	Other
----------	-------------	----------	-----------	-----------------	-------	-------

Specific Area of specialisation (e.g. mechanical engineering, Marketing etc):

Section B
Job and Place of Work

Type of your organisation:

Government Establishment	Joint Sector Establishment	Private Sector Establishment	Other (Please specify)
--------------------------	----------------------------	------------------------------	------------------------

Nature of your organisation:

Manufacturing	Trading/Retailing	Construction	Utilities	Services	Other (Please specify)
---------------	-------------------	--------------	-----------	----------	------------------------

**National Origin of the top manager of your company
(Please name the nationality of your employer) :**

Approximate number of people working in your organization

Your Job Title/ Position:

Length of service in the present organization (in Years):

Nature of your employment contract (If applicable):

Single Status	Family Status
---------------	---------------

Salary per month (in UAE Durham):

Under 1000	1001 - 2000	2001 - 4000	4001 - 6000	6001 - 8000	8001 - 10000	Over 10000
------------	-------------	-------------	-------------	-------------	--------------	------------

Has your employer given you housing facility?

Yes	No
-----	----

If so, Are you satisfied with the housing facility?

Yes	No
-----	----

How many pay raises did you get from your present employer?

None	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10 or more
------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------------

Is your family staying with you in UAE?

Yes	No
-----	----

National Origin of your immediate supervisor:

Section C

Overall Job Satisfaction

Given below are some statements concerning various aspects of your job. Please give your view on each of the following statements. Please tick the appropriate choice.

There are no right or wrong answers. Please give your most honest opinion.

The physical work conditions:

I am

Extremely dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied	Moderately dissatisfied	Moderately satisfied	Very satisfied	Extremely satisfied
------------------------	-------------------	-------------------------	----------------------	----------------	---------------------

The freedom to choose your own method of working

I am

Extremely dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied	Moderately dissatisfied	Moderately satisfied	Very satisfied	Extremely satisfied
------------------------	-------------------	-------------------------	----------------------	----------------	---------------------

Your relationship with fellow workers

I am

Extremely dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied	Moderately dissatisfied	Moderately satisfied	Very satisfied	Extremely satisfied
------------------------	-------------------	-------------------------	----------------------	----------------	---------------------

The recognition you get for good work

I am

Extremely dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied	Moderately dissatisfied	Moderately satisfied	Very satisfied	Extremely satisfied
------------------------	-------------------	-------------------------	----------------------	----------------	---------------------

Your relationship with the immediate supervisor

I am

Extremely dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied	Moderately dissatisfied	Moderately satisfied	Very satisfied	Extremely satisfied
------------------------	-------------------	-------------------------	----------------------	----------------	---------------------

The amount of responsibility you are given

I am

Extremely dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied	Moderately dissatisfied	Moderately satisfied	Very satisfied	Extremely satisfied
------------------------	-------------------	-------------------------	----------------------	----------------	---------------------

Your pay scale

I am

Extremely dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied	Moderately dissatisfied	Moderately satisfied	Very satisfied	Extremely satisfied
------------------------	-------------------	-------------------------	----------------------	----------------	---------------------

The opportunity to use your abilities

I am

Extremely dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied	Moderately dissatisfied	Moderately satisfied	Very satisfied	Extremely satisfied
------------------------	-------------------	-------------------------	----------------------	----------------	---------------------

Relationship between management and workers of your company

I am

Extremely dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied	Moderately dissatisfied	Moderately satisfied	Very satisfied	Extremely satisfied
------------------------	-------------------	-------------------------	----------------------	----------------	---------------------

Your chances of promotion

I am

Extremely dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied	Moderately dissatisfied	Moderately satisfied	Very satisfied	Extremely satisfied
------------------------	-------------------	-------------------------	----------------------	----------------	---------------------

The way you are treated by your employer

I am

Extremely dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied	Moderately dissatisfied	Moderately satisfied	Very satisfied	Extremely satisfied
------------------------	-------------------	-------------------------	----------------------	----------------	---------------------

The attention paid to the suggestion you make

I am

Extremely dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied	Moderately dissatisfied	Moderately satisfied	Very satisfied	Extremely satisfied
------------------------	-------------------	-------------------------	----------------------	----------------	---------------------

Your hours of work

I am

Extremely dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied	Moderately dissatisfied	Moderately satisfied	Very satisfied	Extremely satisfied
------------------------	-------------------	-------------------------	----------------------	----------------	---------------------

The amount of variety in your job

I am

Extremely dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied	Moderately dissatisfied	Moderately satisfied	Very satisfied	Extremely satisfied
------------------------	-------------------	-------------------------	----------------------	----------------	---------------------

Your job security

I am

Extremely dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied	Moderately dissatisfied	Moderately satisfied	Very satisfied	Extremely satisfied
------------------------	-------------------	-------------------------	----------------------	----------------	---------------------

Section D

Satisfaction from Reward

Given below are some statements concerning your pay scale. Please give your view on each of the following statements. Please tick the appropriate choice.

There are no right or wrong answers. Please give your most honest opinion.

My pay is satisfactory:

Yes	No
-----	----

I am underpaid for what I Do:

Yes	No
-----	----

The difference between my income and the income of my subordinates is enough

Yes	No
-----	----

My income is as good as that of others at similar position

Yes	No
-----	----

My pay is poor

Yes	No
-----	----

I am highly paid:

Yes	No
-----	----

My income is as good as the income of people I mix with socially:

Yes	No
-----	----

The system of promotion in my organization is fair

Yes	No
-----	----

The prospects of promotion in my organization is very limited

Yes	No
-----	----

It is easy to get promotion in my organization;

Yes	No
-----	----

There is favoritism in promotion in my organization

Yes	No
-----	----

There are good opportunities for promotion in my organization:

Yes	No
-----	----

My experience increases my prospects for promotion

Yes	No
-----	----

The job I do is a dead-end job:

Yes	No
-----	----

The good jobs are usually taken before you hear of them:

Yes	No
-----	----

Section E

Satisfaction from Supervision

Given below are some statements concerning your supervisor. Please give your views on each of the following statements. Please tick the appropriate choice.

There are no right or wrong answers. Please give your most honest opinion.

My immediate supervisor is friendly

Yes	No
-----	----

My immediate supervisor is polite

Yes	No
-----	----

My immediate supervisor is fair

Yes	No
-----	----

My immediate supervisor knows the job

Yes	No
-----	----

I feel I can discuss problems with my immediate supervisor

Yes	No
-----	----

My immediate supervisor puts unfair pressure on me

Yes	No
-----	----

My immediate supervisor is well organised

Yes	No
-----	----

My immediate supervisor does not treat me as an equal

Yes	No
-----	----

My immediate supervisor is inflexible

Yes	No
-----	----

My immediate supervisor is reliable

Yes	No
-----	----

My immediate supervisor accepts my advice

Yes	No
-----	----

My immediate supervisor interferes in my work too much

Yes	No
-----	----

I can feel confident of my immediate supervisor's support when I make decision

Yes	No
-----	----

Section F

Satisfaction from the top manager

Given below are some statements concerning your boss. Please give your views on each of the following statements. Please tick the appropriate choice.

There are no right or wrong answers. Please give your most honest opinion.

My top manager is friendly

Yes	No
-----	----

My top manager is polite

Yes	No
-----	----

My top manager is fair

Yes	No
-----	----

My top manager knows the job

Yes	No
-----	----

I feel I can discuss problems with my top manager

Yes	No
-----	----

My top manager puts unfair pressure on me

Yes	No
-----	----

My top manager is well organised

Yes	No
-----	----

My top manager does not treat me as an equal

Yes	No
-----	----

My top manager is inflexible

Yes	No
-----	----

My top manager is reliable

Yes	No
-----	----

My top manager accepts my advice

Yes	No
-----	----

My top manager interferes in my work too much

Yes	No
-----	----

I can feel confident of my top manager's support when I make decision

Yes	No
-----	----

Appendix B: Annexures

Appendix B
Annexure B.1
Overall Job Satisfaction among UAE Nationals

Parameters of Overall Job Satisfaction	Mean Score	Percentage of Respondents Saying						No. of Respondents
		Extremely Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied	Moderately Dissatisfied	Moderately Satisfied	Very Satisfied	Extremely Satisfied	
Physical Working Condition	4.26	0	2.2	21.7	28.3	43.5	4.3	46
Freedom in method of working	4.22	2.1	0	12.8	51.1	27.7	6.4	47
Relationship with fellow workers	4.84	0	0	3.5	27	51.1	18.4	47
Recognition for good work	3.92	4.3	6.4	14.9	42.6	31.9	0	47
Relationship with immediate Supervisor	4.28	2.2	4.4	4.4	44.4	40	4.4	45
Amount of Responsibility	4.36	2.2	2.2	8.9	37.8	42.2	6.7	45
Pay Scale	4.22	2.2	4.3	13	41.3	28.3	10.9	46
Opportunity to use abilities	4.03	4.3	2.1	21.3	36.2	31.9	4.3	47
Worker-Management Relationship	4.15	2.2	2.2	15.2	43.5	32.6	4.3	46
Chances of Promotion	3.71	2.4	11.9	26.2	35.7	19	4.8	42
The way employer treats you	4.12	2.4	4.8	11.9	42.9	35.7	2.4	42
Attention to the Suggestions you make	4.00	2.3	4.5	18.2	43.2	29.5	2.3	44
Working Hours	4.15	2.2	4.3	15.2	32.6	45.7	0	46
Job Variety	5.14	2.2	4.3	28.3	30.4	32.6	22.2	46
Job Security	4.02	2.2	6.5	17.4	39.1	30.4	4.3	46

Annexure B.2

Overall Job Satisfaction among Arab Expatriates

Parameters of Overall Job Satisfaction	Mean Score	Percentage of Respondents Saying						No. of Respondents
		Extremely Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied	Moderately Dissatisfied	Moderately Satisfied	Very Satisfied	Extremely Satisfied	
Physical Working Condition	4.39	0	1.4	10	45	35	8.6	140
Freedom in method of working	4.37	4.3	3.5	2.8	39.7	39	10.6	141
Relationship with fellow workers	4.84	0	0	3.5	27	51.1	18.4	141
Recognition for good work	4.19	2.9	3.6	9.4	47.8	28.3	8	138
Relationship with immediate Supervisor	4.78	0	1.4	3.5	29.1	47.5	18.4	141
Amount of Responsibility	4.65	22.9	2.9	7.1	37.9	32.9	16.4	140
Pay Scale	3.83	3.6	3.6	18.7	58.3	11.5	4.3	139
Opportunity to use abilities	4.23	5.2	6.7	6.7	35.6	33.3	12.6	135
Worker-Management Relationship	4.44	2.9	0.7	7.3	40.1	36.5	12.4	137
Chances of Promotion	3.85	5.8	8.8	16.8	40.9	18.2	9.5	137
The way employer treats you	4.56	2.9	2.9	5.9	31.6	36.8	19.9	136
Attention to the Suggestions you make	4.28	3	1.5	11.9	41	33.6	9	134
Working Hours	4.21	0	7.3	11.7	40.9	33.6	6.6	137
Job Variety	4.26	2.9	2.9	11.8	36	40.4	5.9	136
Job Security	4.06	5.8	6.6	13.9	32.1	32.8	8.8	137

Annexure B.3

Overall Job Satisfaction among Asian Expatriates

Parameters of Overall Job Satisfaction	Mean Score	Percentage of Respondents Saying								No. of Respondents
		Extremely Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied	Moderately Dissatisfied	Moderately Satisfied	Very Satisfied	Extremely Satisfied			
Physical Working Condition	4.28	2.2	0.7	8.2	52.2	28.4	8.2		134	
Freedom in method of working	4.25	3	3	7.5	46.3	33.6	6.7		134	
Relationship with fellow workers	4.68	0.7	0	3.7	31.3	54.5	9.7		134	
Recognition for good work	4.70	1.5	22.3	10.6	43.2	35.6	6.8		132	
Relationship with immediate Supervisor	4.60	0.8	0.8	6.8	34.6	44.4	12.8		133	
Amount of Responsibility	4.51	0	3	4.5	38.3	47.4	6.8		133	
Pay Scale	3.75	4.5	9.1	21.2	40.2	22	3		132	
Opportunity to use abilities	4.20	2.4	3.1	11.8	44.9	30.7	7.1		127	
Worker-Management Relationship	4.32	0.8	1.5	10	45.4	36.9	5.4		130	
Chances of Promotion	3.55	10.4	8	24.8	32	22.4	2.4		125	
The way employer treats you	4.35	1.6	2.4	10.3	42.1	32.5	11.1		126	
Attention to the Suggestions you make	4.14	2.3	3.9	14.8	39.1	35.9	3.9		128	
Working Hours	4.31	1.5	8.5	13.1	20.8	46.9	9.2		130	
Job Variety	4.32	1.5	1.5	11.5	40.8	37.7	6.9		130	
Job Security	3.95	5.4	6.2	14	41.9	27.1	5.4		129	

Annexure B.4

Overall Job Satisfaction among Other Expatriates

Parameters of Overall Job Satisfaction	Mean Score	Percentage of Respondents Saying							
		Extremely Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied	Moderately Dissatisfied	Moderately Satisfied	Very Satisfied	Extremely Satisfied	No. of Respondents	
Physical Working Condition	4.03	3	6.1	12.1	45.5	30.3	3	33	
Freedom in method of working	3.97	3	6.1	18.2	42.4	24.2	6.1	33	
Relationship with fellow workers	4.84	0	0	3.1	25	56.3	15.6	32	
Recognition for good work	3.55	6.1	12.1	24.2	39.4	15.2	3	33	
Relationship with immediate Supervisor	4.67	3	3	3	24.2	48.5	18.2	33	
Amount of Responsibility	4.19	6.3	6.3	3.1	40.66	34.4	9.4	32	
Pay Scale	3.30	15.2	12.1	12.1	48.5	12.1	0	33	
Opportunity to use abilities	3.97	6.5	9.7	6.5	45.2	22.6	9.7	31	
Worker-Management Relationship	4.00	0	6.3	18.8	46.9	25	3.1	32	
Chances of Promotion	3.23	12.9	16.1	22.6	35.5	9.7	3.2	31	
The way employer treats you	4.03	6.3	3.1	15.6	40.6	25	9.4	32	
Attention to the Suggestions you make	3.81	6.5	6.5	16.1	45.2	22.6	3.2	31	
Working Hours	4.22	6.3	3.1	6.3	40.6	34.4	9.4	32	
Job Variety	4.06	3.1	3.1	12.5	50	28.1	3.1	32	
Job Security	4.06	12.5	3.1	12.5	37.5	25	12.5	32	

Annexure B.5

Satisfaction from Reward among UAE Nationals

Do you agree with the following statements?	Percentage of Respondents saying		
	Yes	No	Mean Score
My pay is satisfactory	68.1	31.9	1.681
I am underpaid for what I do	37	63	1.630
My income and income of my subordinate differs significantly	82.2	17.8	1.822
My income is as good as that of others	77.8	22.2	1.778
My pay is poor	22.2	77.8	1.778
I am highly paid	22.2	77.8	1.222
My income is as good as the income of my friends	62.2	37.8	1.622
The system of promotion in my organisation is fair	53.3	46.7	1.533
The prospect of promotion in my organisation is very limited	44.4	55.6	1.556
It is easy to get promotion in my organization	31.8	68.2	1.318
There is favoritism in promotion in my organization	62.2	37.8	1.378
There are good opportunities for promotion in my organization	46.7	53.3	1.467
My experience increases my prospect for promotion	82.2	17.8	1.822
The job I do is a dead end job	33.3	66.7	1.667
The good jobs are usually taken before you hear of them	51.1	48.9	1.489

Annexure B.6

Satisfaction from Reward among Arab Expatriates

Do you agree with the following statements?	Percentage of Respondents saying		
	Yes	No	Mean Score
My pay is satisfactory	49.3	50.7	1.49
I am underpaid for what I do	52.2	47.8	1.48
My income and income of my subordinate differs significantly	56.3	43.8	1.56
My income is as good as that of others	48.9	51.1	1.49
My pay is poor	36.2	63.8	1.64
I am highly paid	12.9	87.1	1.13
My income is as good as the income of my friends	62.3	37.7	1.62
The system of promotion in my organisation is fair	51.8	48.2	1.52
The prospect of promotion in my organisation is very limited	66.4	33.6	1.34
It is easy to get promotion in my organization	19.1	80.9	1.19
There is favoritism in promotion in my organization	50.8	49.2	1.49
There are good opportunities for promotion in my organization	40.3	59.7	1.40
My experience increases my prospect for promotion	64.7	35.3	1.65
The job I do is a dead end job	34.4	65.6	1.66
The good jobs are usually taken before you hear of them	44.8	55.2	1.55

Annexure B.7

Satisfaction from Reward among Asian Expatriates

Do you agree with the following statements?	Percentage of Respondents saying		
	Yes	No	Mean Score
My pay is satisfactory	62.7	37.3	1.627
I am underpaid for what I do	55.5	44.5	1.445
My income and income of my subordinate differs significantly	58.9	41.1	1.589
My income is as good as that of others	48.1	51.9	1.481
My pay is poor	38.8	61.2	1.612
I am highly paid	9.8	90.2	1.098
My income is as good as the income of my friends	50	50	1.500
The system of promotion in my organisation is fair	53.5	46.5	1.535
The prospect of promotion in my organisation is very limited	77.7	22.3	1.223
It is easy to get promotion in my organization	14.6	85.4	1.146
There is favoritism in promotion in my organization	42.5	57.5	1.575
There are good opportunities for promotion in my organization	35.1	64.9	1.351
My experience increases my prospect for promotion	58.3	41.7	1.583
The job I do is a dead end job	38	62	1.620
The good jobs are usually taken before you hear of them	37.8	62.2	1.622

Annexure B.8

Satisfaction from Reward among Other Expatriates

Do you agree with the following statements?	Percentage of Respondents saying		
	Yes	No	Mean Score
My pay is satisfactory	43.8	56.3	1.439
I am underpaid for what I do	69.7	30.3	1.303
My income and income of my subordinate differs significantly	65.5	34.5	1.655
My income is as good as that of others	45.2	54.8	1.452
My pay is poor	51.5	48.5	1.485
I am highly paid	9.1	90.9	1.091
My income is as good as the income of my friends	40.6	59.4	1.406
The system of promotion in my organisation is fair	42.9	57.1	1.429
The prospect of promotion in my organisation is very limited	81.8	18.2	1.182
It is easy to get promotion in my organization	9.7	90.3	1.097
There is favoritism in promotion in my organization	57.7	42.3	1.423
There are good opportunities for promotion in my organization	17.2	82.8	1.172
My experience increases my prospect for promotion	41.9	58.1	1.419
The job I do is a dead end job	28.1	71.9	1.719
The good jobs are usually taken before you hear of them	51.6	48.4	1.484

Annexure B.9
Mean Scores of Satisfaction from
Supervision among UAE Nationals

Do you agree with the following statements	Yes	No	Mean Scores
My immediate supervisor is friendly	81	19	1.81
My immediate supervisor is polite	85	15	1.85
My immediate supervisor is fair	74	26	1.74
My immediate supervisor knows the job	74	26	1.74
My immediate supervisor is fairly satisfactory	60	41	1.60
I can discuss problem with my immediate supervisor	29	71	1.29
My immediate supervisor puts unfair pressure on me	44	56	1.56
My immediate supervisor is snobbish	43	57	1.57
My immediate supervisor is inflexible	43	57	1.57
My immediate supervisor is reliable	68	32	1.68
My immediate supervisor accepts my advice	57	43	1.57
My immediate supervisor interferes in my work too much	33	67	1.67
I feel confident of my immediate supervisor's support when I make decision	48	52	1.48

Annexure B.10
Mean Scores of Satisfaction from
Supervision among Arab Expatriates

Do You agree with the following statements	Yes	No	Mean Scores
My immediate supervisor is friendly	95	38	2.27
My immediate supervisor is polite	96	4	1.96
My immediate supervisor is fair	85	15	1.85
My immediate supervisor knows the job	92	8	1.92
My immediate supervisor is fairly satisfactory	89	12	1.89
I can discuss problem with my immediate supervisor	25	75	1.25
My immediate supervisor puts unfair pressure on me	85	15	1.15
My immediate supervisor is snobbish	31	69	1.69
My immediate supervisor is inflexible	26	74	1.74
My immediate supervisor is reliable	87	13	1.87
My immediate supervisor accepts my advice	76	24	1.76
My immediate supervisor interferes in my work too much	19	81	1.81
I feel confident of my immediate supervisor's support when I make decision	76	24	1.76

Annexure B.11
Mean Scores of Satisfaction from
Supervision among Asian Expatriates

Do you agree with the following statements	Yes	No	Mean Scores
My immediate supervisor is friendly	87	13	1.87
My immediate supervisor is polite	86	14	1.86
My immediate supervisor is fair	83	18	1.83
My immediate supervisor knows the job	89	11	1.89
My immediate supervisor is fairly satisfactory	84	16	1.84
I can discuss problem with my immediate supervisor	21	79	1.21
My immediate supervisor puts unfair pressure on me	75	25	1.25
My immediate supervisor is snobbish	30	70	1.70
My immediate supervisor is inflexible	24	76	1.76
My immediate supervisor is reliable	84	16	1.84
My immediate supervisor accepts my advice	79	22	1.79
My immediate supervisor interferes in my work too much	18	82	1.82
I feel confident of my immediate supervisor's support when I make decision	79	21	1.79

Annexure B.12
Mean Scores of Satisfaction from
Supervision among other Expatriates

Do you agree with the following statements?	Yes	No	Mean Scores
My immediate supervisor is friendly	97	3	1.97
My immediate supervisor is polite	100	0	2.00
My immediate supervisor is fair	100	0	2.00
My immediate supervisor knows the job	90	10	1.90
My immediate supervisor is fairly satisfactory	90	10	1.90
I can discuss problem with my immediate supervisor	13	88	1.13
My immediate supervisor puts unfair pressure on me	80	20	1.20
My immediate supervisor is snobbish	26	74	1.74
My immediate supervisor is inflexible	28	72	1.72
My immediate supervisor is reliable	86	14	1.86
My immediate supervisor accepts my advice	80	20	1.80
My immediate supervisor interferes in my work too much	22	78	1.78
I feel confident of my immediate supervisor's support when I make decision	70	30	1.7

Annexure B.13
Mean Scores of Satisfaction from
Top Management among UAE Nationals

Do you agree with the following statements	Yes	No	Mean Scores
My top manager is friendly	61	39	1.61
My top manager is polite	90.2	11.8	1.92
My top manager is fair	58.5	41.5	1.59
My top manager knows the job	82.1	17.9	1.82
I can discuss problem with my top manager	34.1	65.9	1.34
My top manager puts unfair pressure on me	22	78	1.78
My top manager is well organized	80	20	1.80
My top manager is snobbish	48.8	51.2	1.51
My top manager is inflexible	56.1	43.9	1.44
My top manager is reliable	78	22	3.78
My top manager accepts my advice	45	55	1.45
My top manager interferes in my work too much	12.2	87.8	1.88
I feel confident of my top manager's support when I make decision	39	61	1.39

Annexure B.14
Mean Scores of Satisfaction from
Top Management among Arab Expatriates

Do you agree with the following statements	Yes	No	Mean Scores
My top manager is friendly	88.4	11.6	1.88
My top manager is polite	95.7	4.3	1.96
My top manager is fair	84.4	15.6	1.84
My top manager knows the job	89	11	1.89
I can discuss problem with my top manager	77.5	22.5	1.78
My top manager puts unfair pressure on me	25.4	74.6	1.75
My top manager is well organized	87.8	12.2	1.88
My top manager is snobbish	32.8	67.2	1.67
My top manager is inflexible	24.1	75.9	1.76
My top manager is reliable	83.3	16.7	1.83
My top manager accepts my advice	70.8	29.2	1.71
My top manager interferes in my work too much	18.2	81.8	1.82
I feel confident of my top manager's support when I make decision	76.1	23.9	1.76

Annexure B.15
Mean Scores of Satisfaction from
Top Management among Asian Expatriates

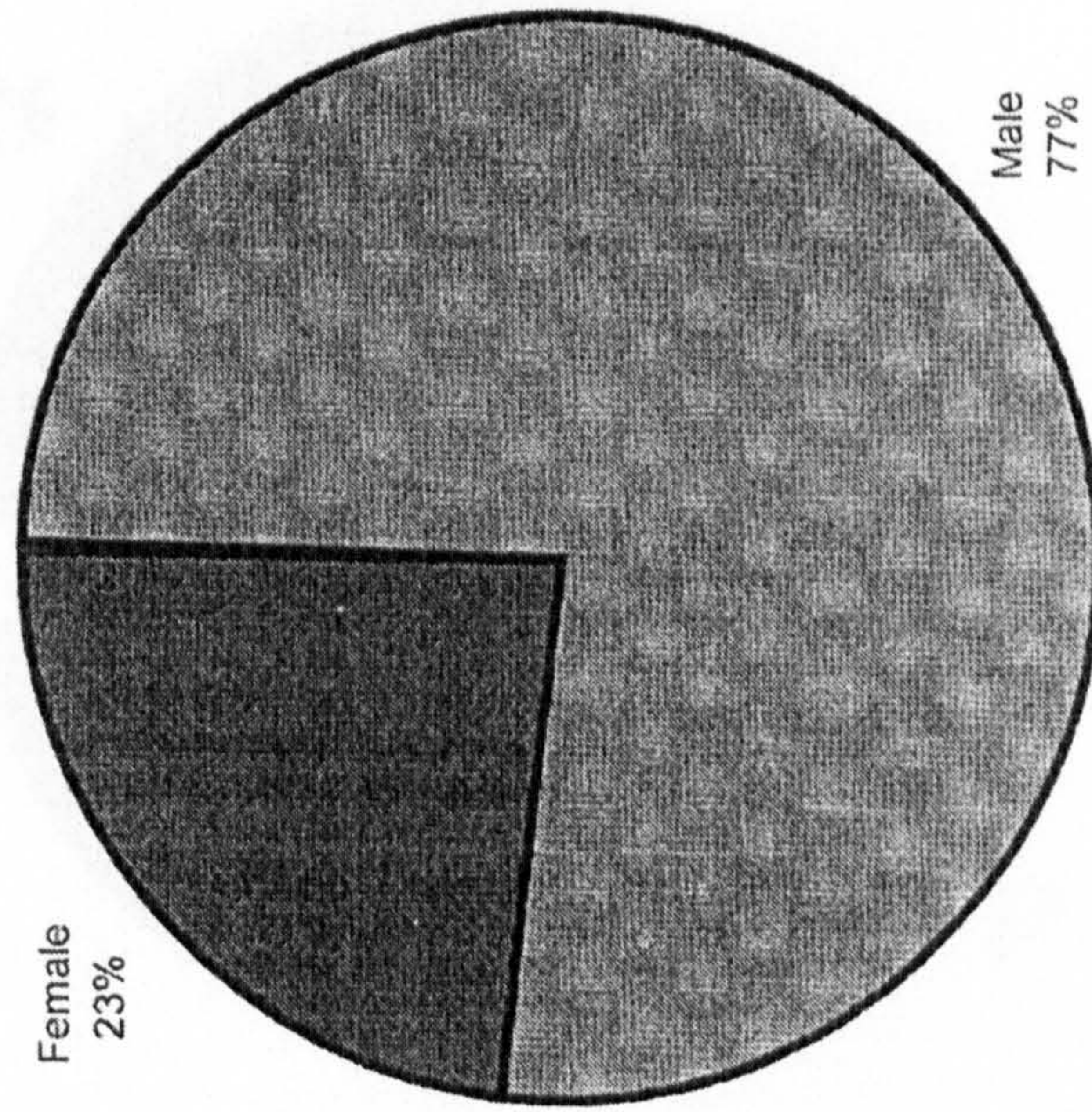
	Yes	No	Mean Scores
My top manager is friendly	79.7	20.3	1.80
My top manager is polite	84.4	15.6	1.84
My top manager is fair	80.6	19.4	1.81
My top manager knows the job	85.2	14.8	1.85
I can discuss problem with my top manager	72.7	27.3	1.73
My top manager puts unfair pressure on me	23.4	76.6	1.77
My top manager is well organized	80.3	19.7	1.80
My top manager is snobbish	32.8	67.2	1.67
My top manager is inflexible	26.6	73.4	1.73
My top manager is reliable	81	19	1.81
My top manager accepts my advice	74.2	25.8	1.74
My top manager interferes in my work too much	15.7	84.3	1.84
I feel confident of my top manager's support when I make decision	80.2	19.8	1.80

Annexure B.16
Mean Scores of Satisfaction from
Top Management among Other Expatriates

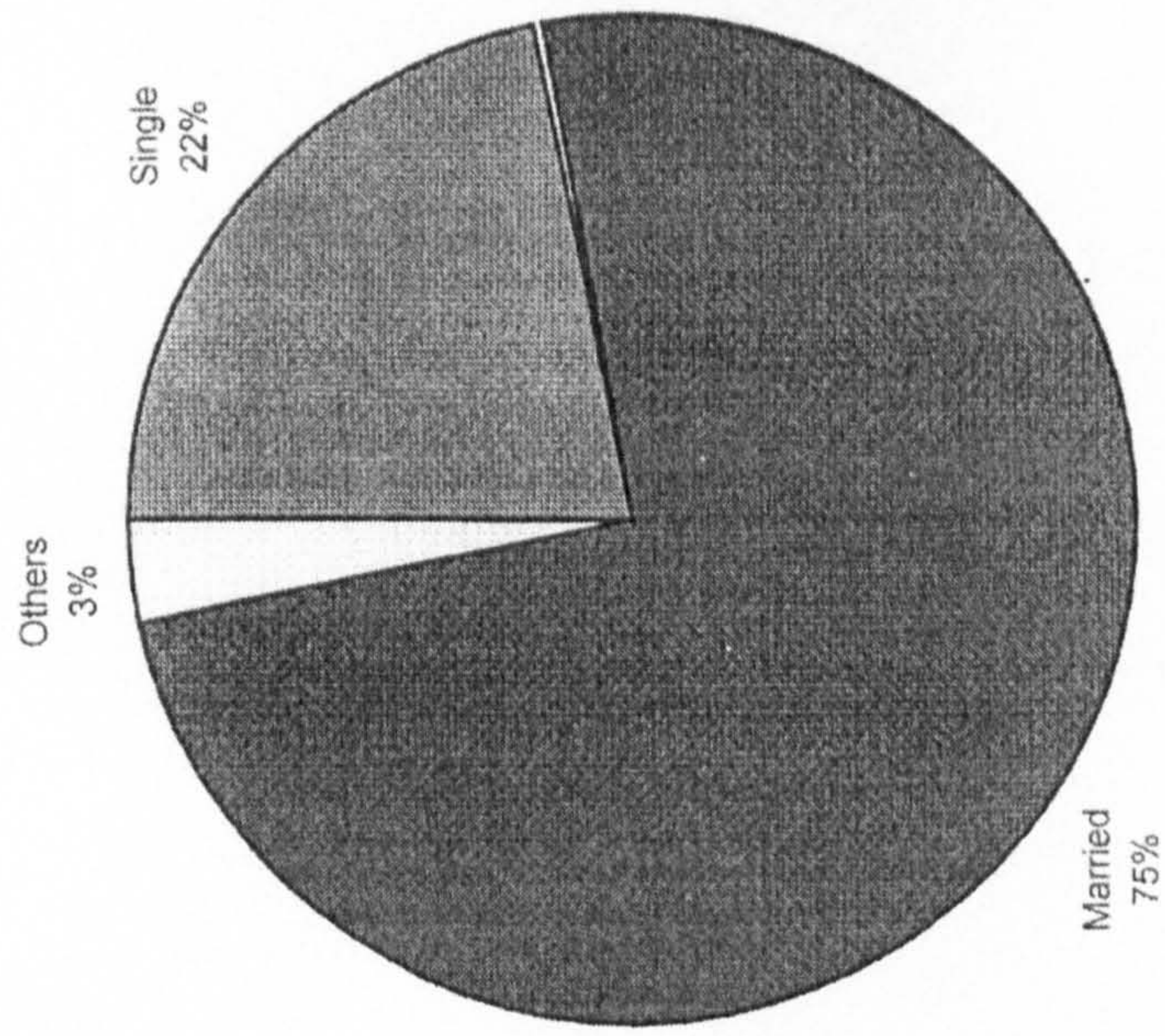
Do You agree with the following statements?	Yes	No	Mean Scores
My top manager is friendly	75	25	1.75
My top manager is polite	87.5	12.5	1.88
My top manager is fair	71	29	1.71
My top manager knows the job	71	29	1.71
I can discuss problem with my top manager	56.3	43.8	1.56
My top manager puts unfair pressure on me	18.8	81.3	1.81
My top manager is well organized	70	30	1.70
My top manager is snobbish	41.4	58.6	1.59
My top manager is inflexible	33.3	66.7	1.67
My top manager is reliable	69	31	1.69
My top manager accepts my advice	55.2	44.8	1.55
My top manager interferes in my work too much	13.3	86.7	1.87
I feel confident of my top manager's support when I make decision	50	50	1.50

Appendix C: Figures

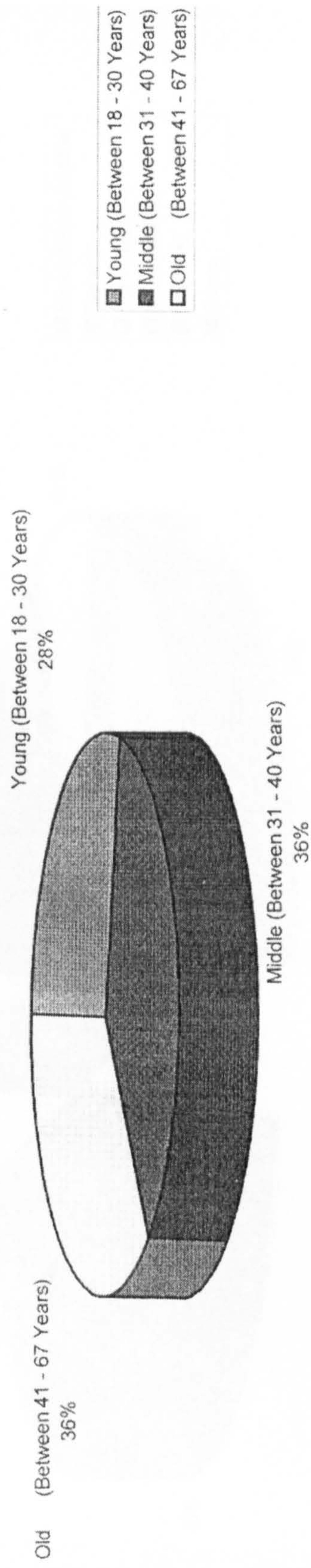
C.1. Gender of the Respondents



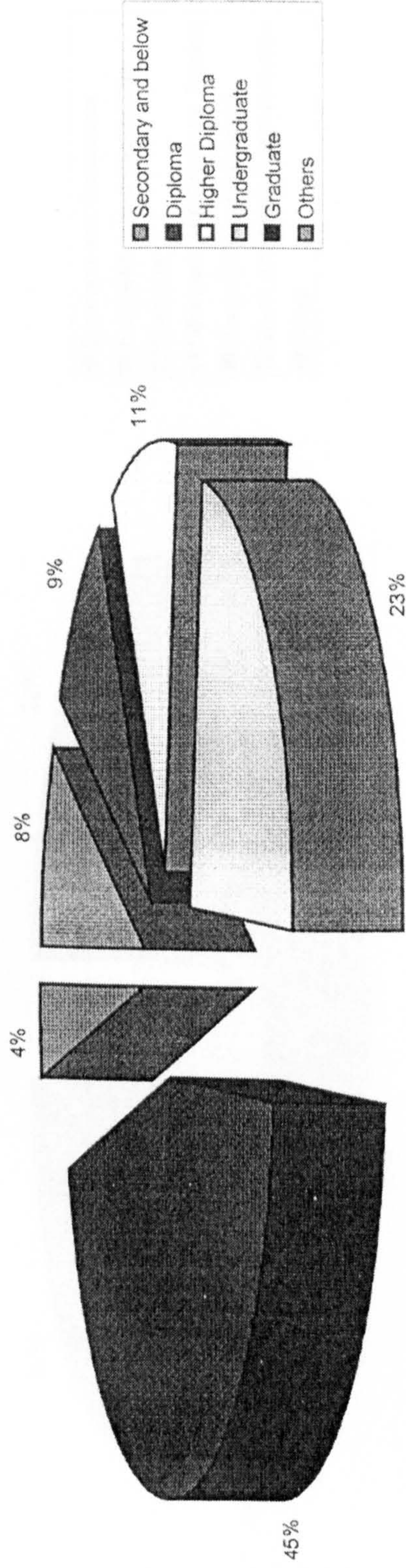
C.2. Marital Status of the Respondents



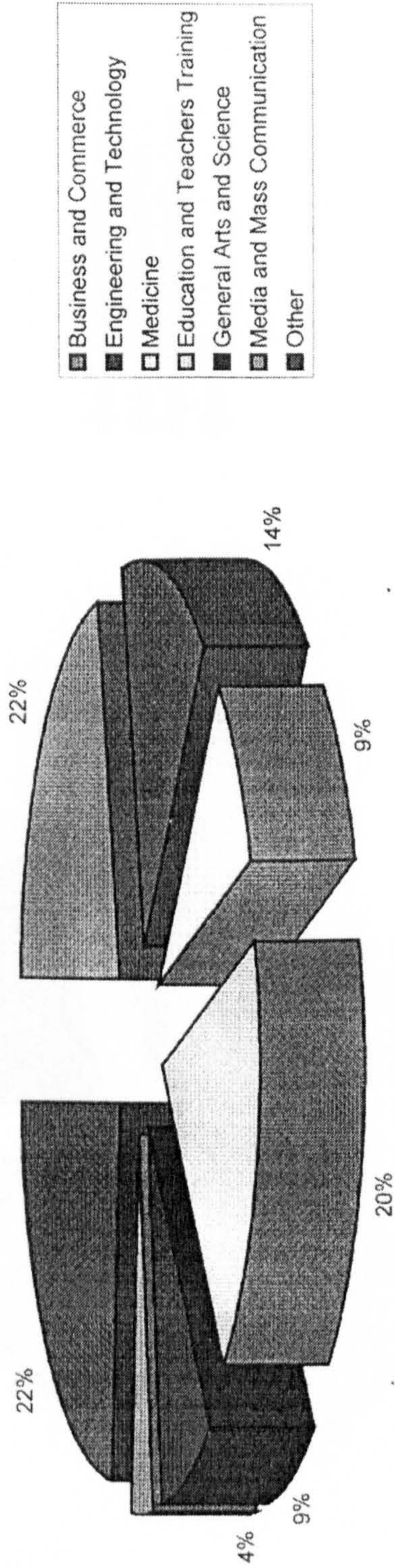
C.3. Age Profile of the Respondents



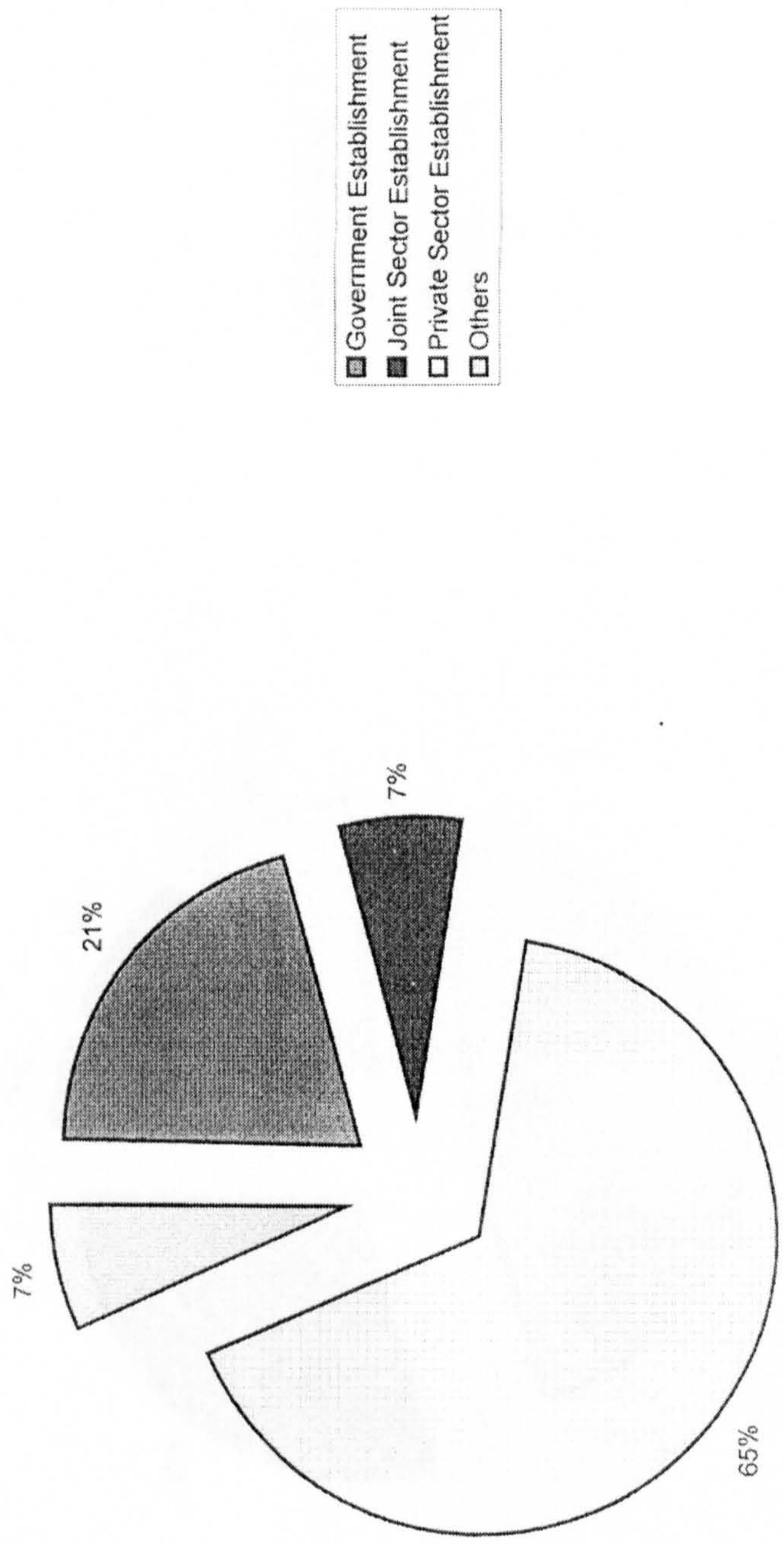
C.4. Educational Profile of the Respondents



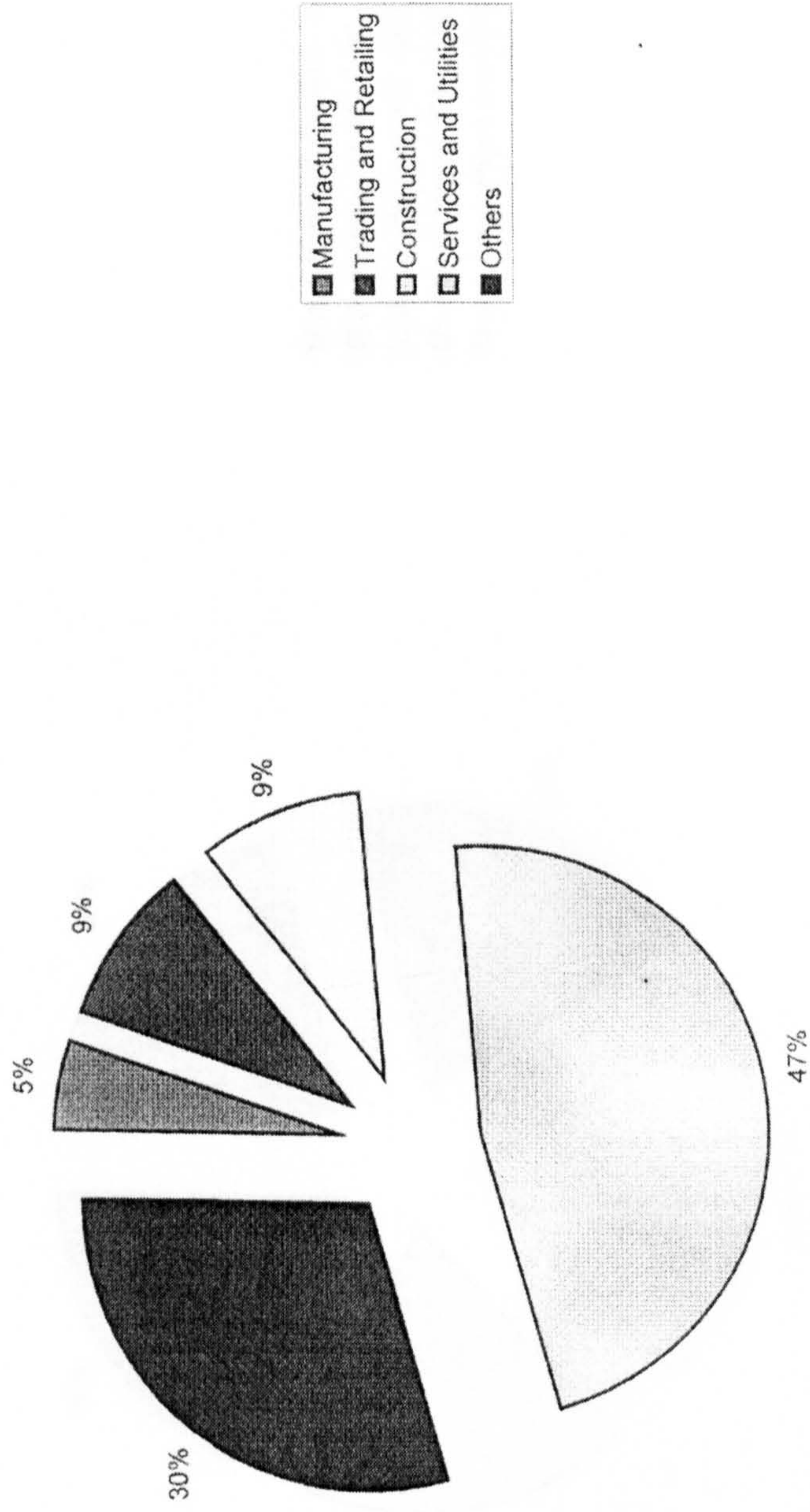
C.5. Specialisation of the Respondents



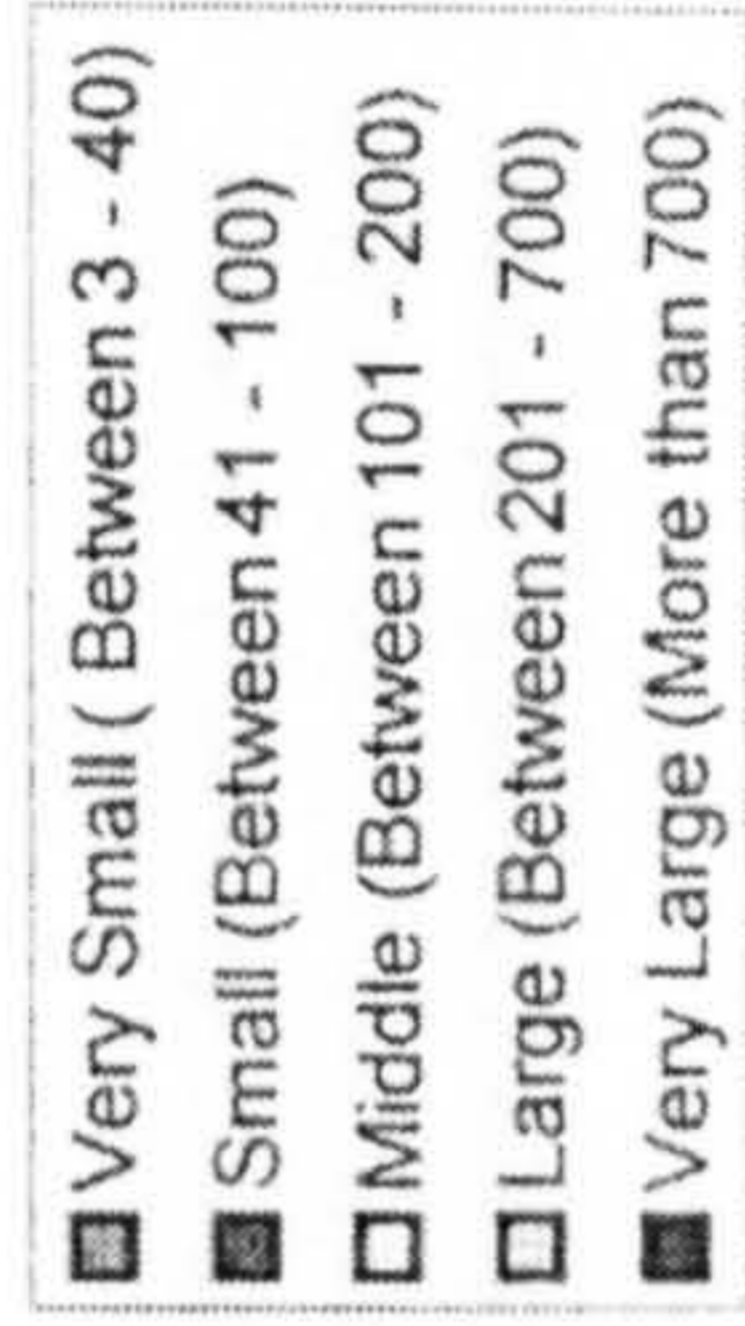
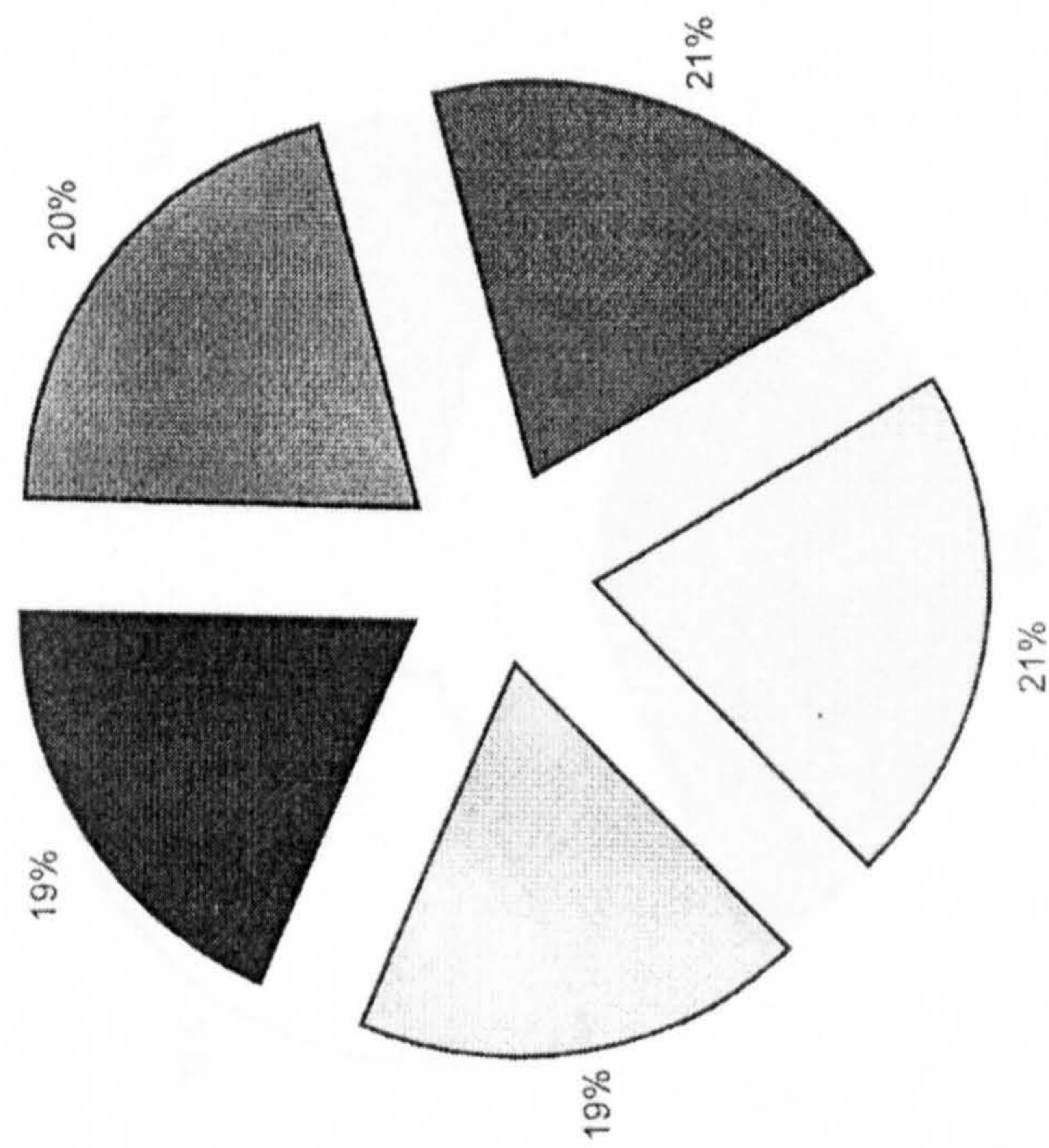
C.6. Type of Organisations



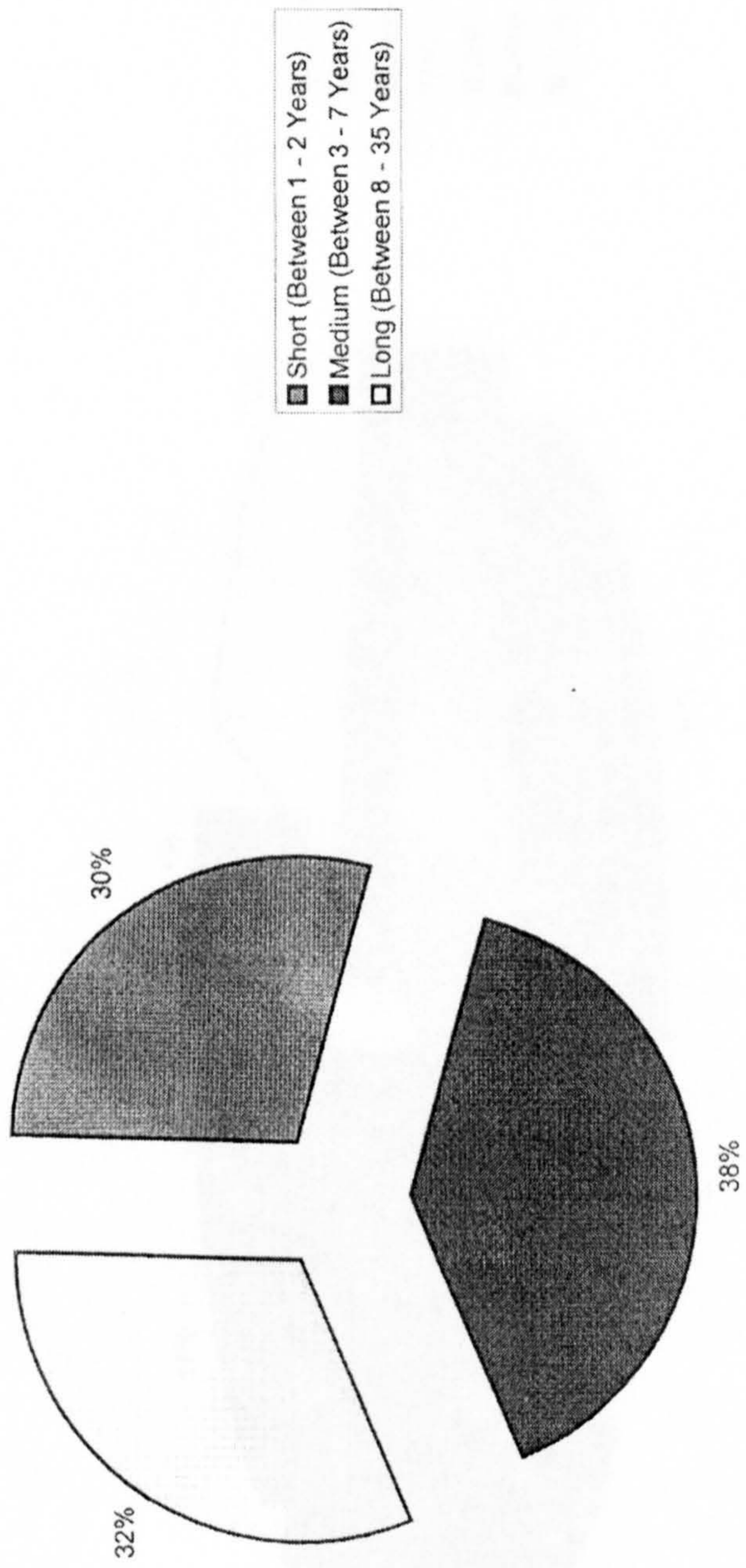
C.7. Nature of Organisations



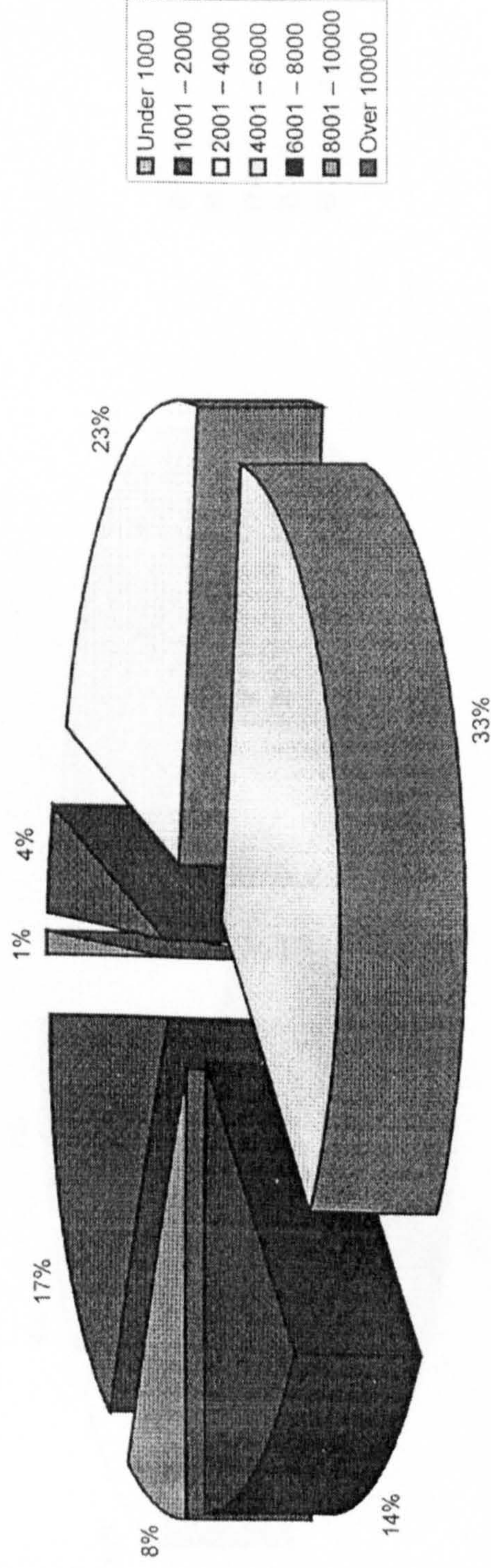
C.8. Size of the Organisations



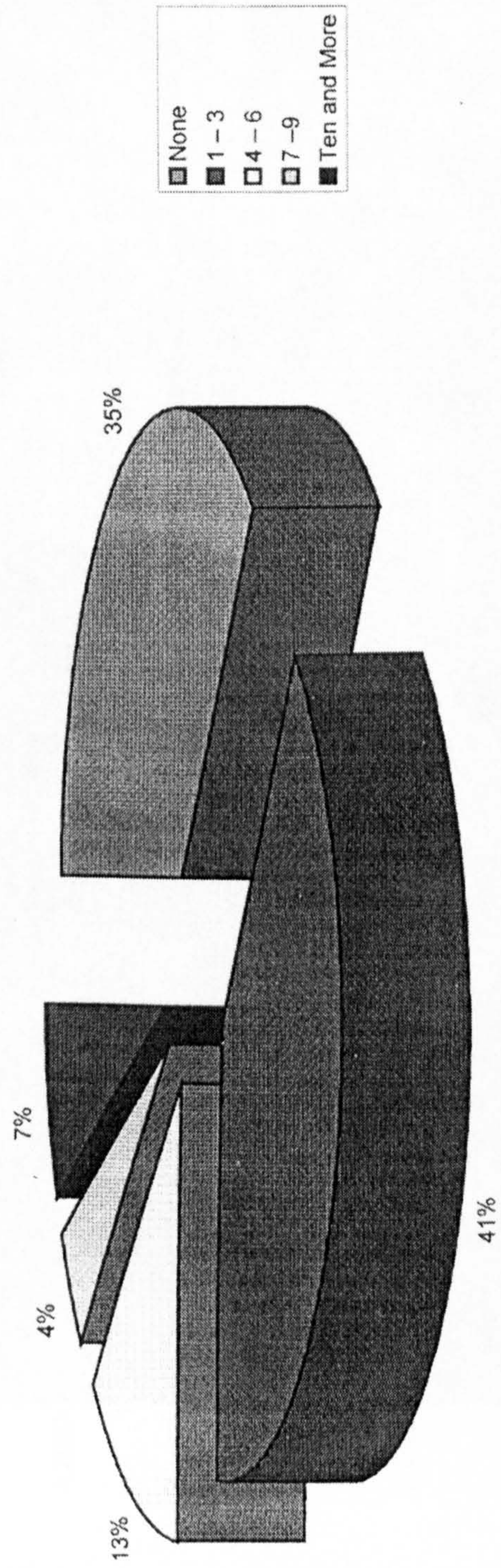
C.9. Respondents' Year of Service



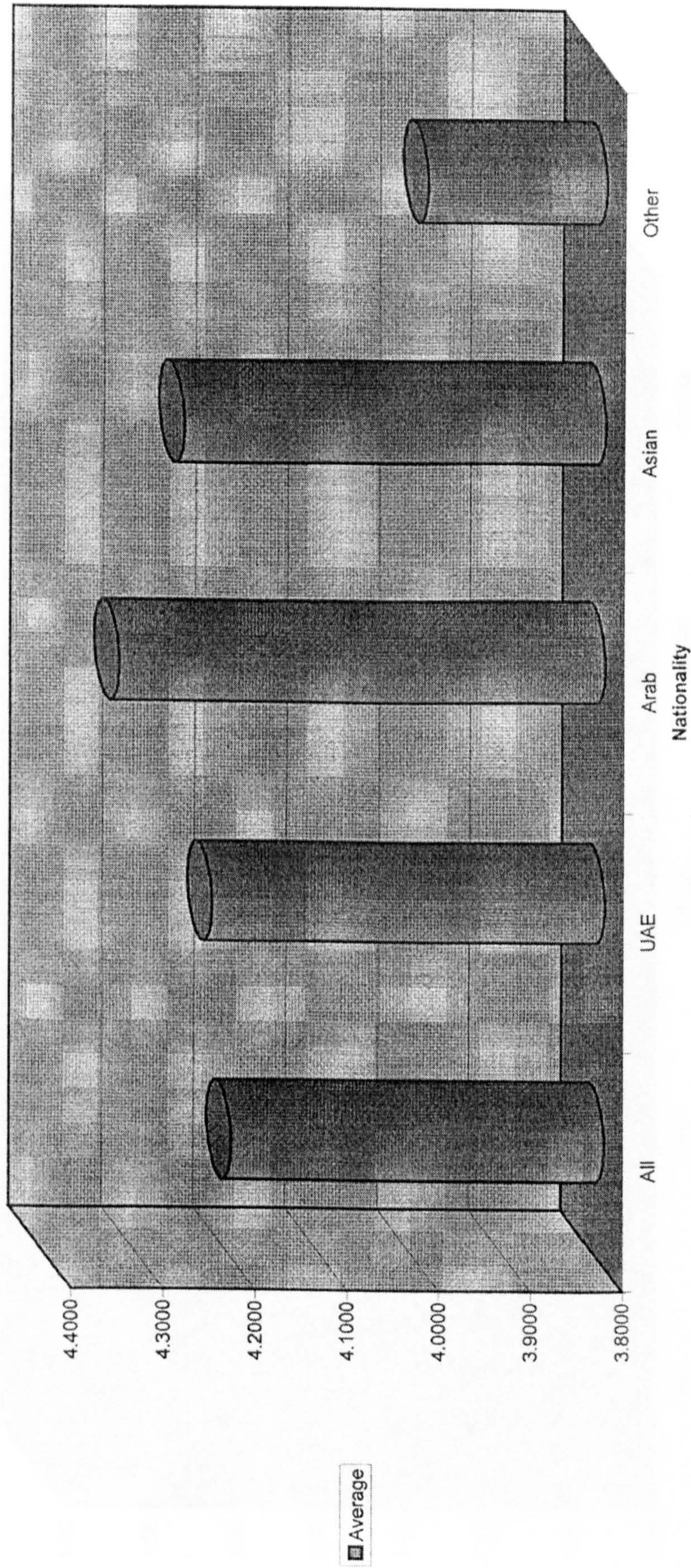
C.10. Salary of the Respondents



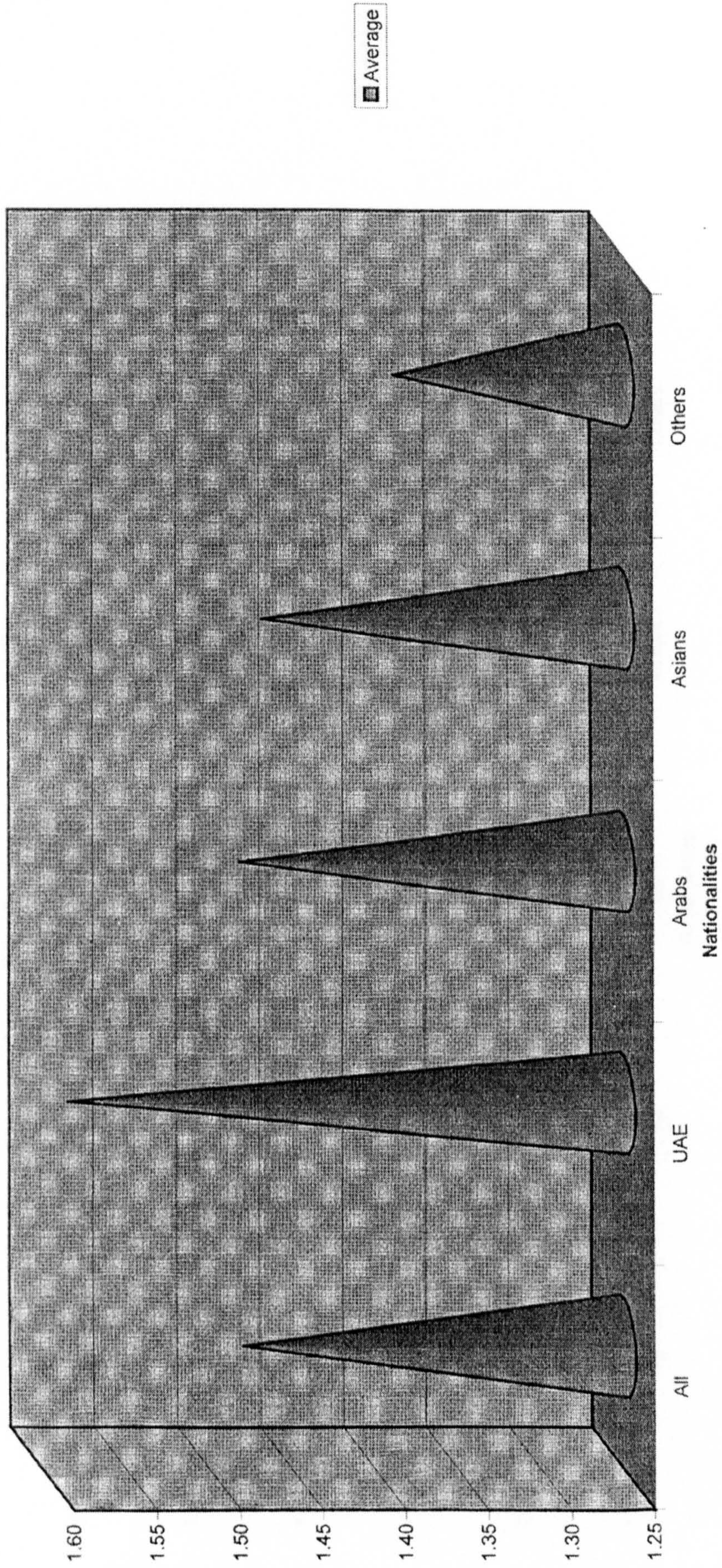
C.11. Pay Raises Received by the Respondents



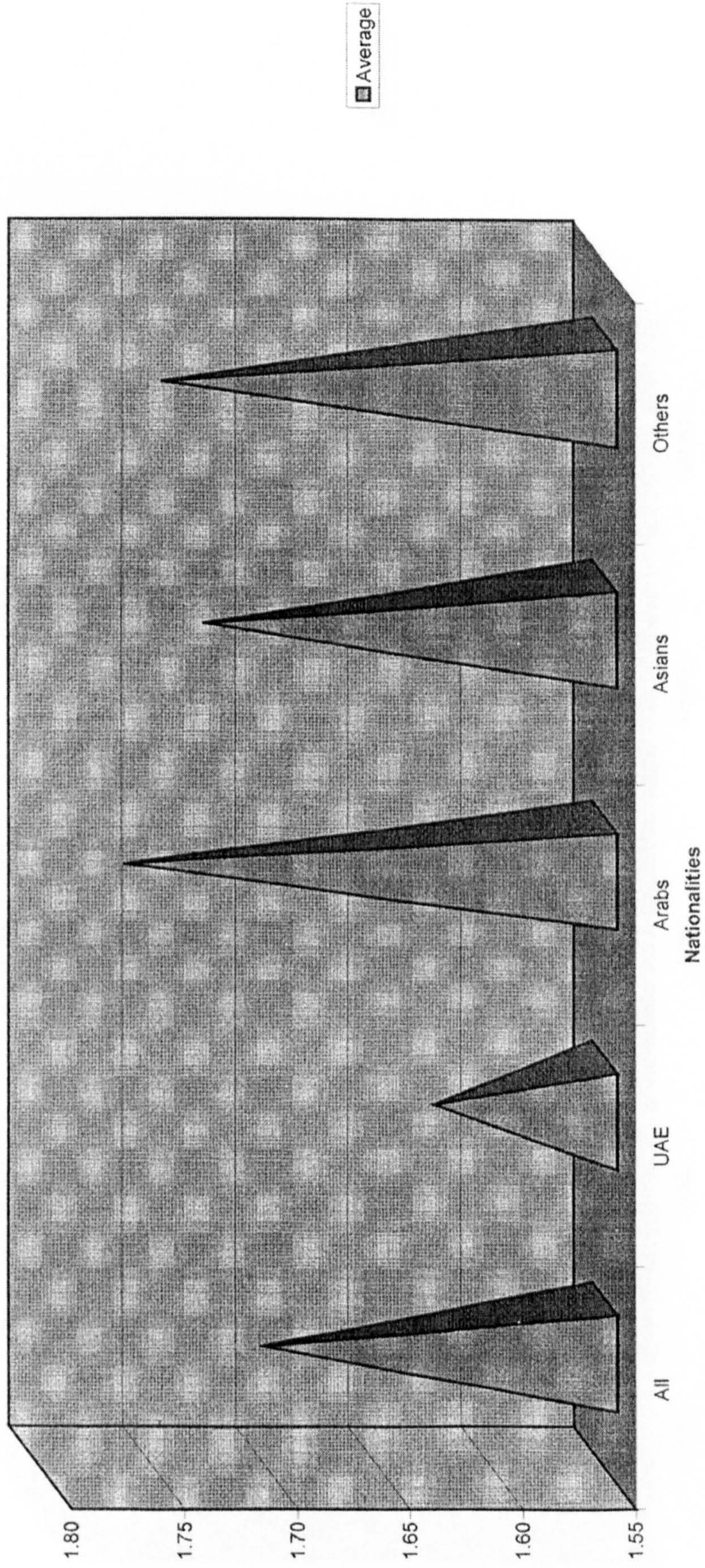
C.12. Mean Scores of Overall Job Satisfaction among workers of different Nationalities



C.13. Mean Scores of Satisfaction from Reward among workers of different nationalities



C.14. Mean Scores of Satisfaction from Supervision among workers of different nationalities



C.15. Mean Scores of Satisfaction from Top Management among workers from different nationalities

