

Flying Academics – Examining Short-Term International Teaching
Assignments Impact on Academics’ Career Success and Work-Life
Balance

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from the RMIT University.

Statement of Authorship

I certify that except where due acknowledgement has been made, the work is that of the author alone; the work has not been submitted previously, in whole or in part, to qualify for any other academic award; the content of this thesis is the result of work, which has been carried out since the official commencement date of the approved research program; and, any editorial work, paid or unpaid, carried out by a third party is acknowledged.

Juraifa Jais

May 2012

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Summary

Australia, the world's third-largest exporter of higher education services, has been an aggressive global competitor in transnational education (Wang 2008). Matthews (2002) estimated transnational education business to be in excess of \$3 billion to the Australian economy. Currently, about one-third of international students are enrolled offshore, while the remainder are educated on Australian university campuses (Dunn & Wallace 2008). According to the Global Alliance for Transnational Education (GATE), the demand for transnational education in Asian countries will increase to more than 480,000 students by 2020 (Mok & Ng 2008).

Given the changing topography of higher education, transnational education presents a unique opportunity for academic staff to be internationally mobile (McBurnie & Ziguras 2007; Seah & Edwards 2006). The increasing mobility of academics generates a number of important issues (e.g., career, work-life balance). With only a few exceptions (Dunn & Wallace 2006; Debowski 2003; Gribble & Ziguras 2003), studies focusing on the organisational support for academics is almost non-existent. At present, there is no complete central source of data on *flying academics*, which are the backbone of a multi-billion dollar industry. In the contexts of these economic and academic issues, this thesis explores the views and experience of academics involved in short-term international teaching assignments and the specific strategies employed by universities to manage and support their career success and work-life balance. Accordingly, this thesis examines the challenges faced, and the type and quality of support that might be deemed as appropriate for academics.

The present thesis involves two interrelated studies (Study 1 & Study 2), utilizing a sequential exploratory design characterized by a qualitative investigation prior to quantitative data collection and analysis (Creswell et al. 2003). Respectively, the principal questions addressed in each study are how do short-term international teaching assignments affect academics' career success and work-life balance? And to what extent does perceived organisational support influence academics' career success and work-life balance?

This thesis was undertaken for six reasons. First, there is limited literature on short-term assignments. Investigations have focused predominantly on the long-term engagements (Meyskens et al. 2009). Despite the significance of long-term international assignments, research (Starr & Currie 2009) demonstrates a growing trend of short-term appointments. Similarly, increased participation of higher education in global market has been paralleled by an accelerated growth in short-term international teaching assignments (McBurnie & Ziguras 2001). Despite growth in this area, there seems to be a burgeoning gap between research and practice. Given this lacuna, this thesis explores the phenomenon of short-term international teaching assignments in higher education, offering new perspectives and raising issues about the nature of these assignments.

Second, there is a dearth of information on *flying academics*. Australian academics teach in 24 countries (DEEWR 2011a), where English language is either spoken (e.g., Singapore) or not spoken (e.g., China). Despite the extensive official data on international and mobile students (Ziguras & McBurnie 2008), governments and universities retain little consolidated information about *flying academics*.

Third, development of appropriate supports and related mechanism for academics is lagging, owing to a lack of appropriate theoretical frameworks and an inadequate understanding of processes underlying short-term international teaching assignments. It appears that studies (Armstrong-Stassen & Ursel 2009; Erdogan, Kraimer & Liden 2004) have tended to focus on an examination of influences of perceived organisational support (POS) in domestic rather than international context. The influence of POS in different domains, particularly in relation to employees expatriated on short-term international teaching assignments has yet to be examined in detail.

Fourth, according to the Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee (AVCC 2001), internationalisation is a major priority for Australian universities and must be achieved if Australian universities are to remain internationally competitive and recognized globally for quality education. Thus, the importance of appropriate staffing for the successful implementation of international business strategies remains crucial as the higher education accommodates to global economic markets.

Fifth, this thesis explores academics' work-life balance experiences during short-term international teaching assignments. Studies in the field of work-life balance and expatriation remain limited (Fischlmayr & Kollinger 2010). Usually, academics who teach offshore are also accountable for onshore activities including lecturing, research, supervision of higher degree students, mentoring, and publishing. These additional responsibilities challenge work and life balance. Finally, a majority of studies on POS has adopted a quantitative focus in a domestic setting (Eisenberger et al. 2002). In addressing Research Question 2, the present thesis extends current conceptualizations of POS by taking a broad spectrum approach to an understanding of short-term international teaching assignments. The following sections describe Studies 1 and 2, and report on key findings, ending with a conclusion.

STUDY 1

Study 1 is a single-organisation qualitative case-study. The primary objective of Study 1 is to gain an understanding of academics' views of short-term international teaching assignments and what concomitant supports academics regard as important.

Method

Participants

Eleven academics (eight males, three females) were interviewed. Inclusion criteria are having worked in Australian universities, and have travelled to other countries to teach in transnational programs. Consideration was also given to sampling participants across different level of seniority, age, gender; and years teaching offshore. Briefly, participants included Deputy Head of School, a Director of International Teaching, four Senior Lecturers, and five Lecturers, involved in offshore teaching programs either in Singapore, Malaysia, Hong Kong, Vietnam, and Shanghai.

Data Collection Procedures

An interview protocol was developed and used during the interviewing process in order to initiate and refocus discussion when necessary. Semi-structured interviews, documents analysis, and creation of reflective journal were utilised. The participants were identified

from the RMIT University website. Interview sessions were conducted in private, usually in the participant's general work area. Tape recorded semi-structured interviews of approximately 30-to-60 minutes were carried out.

Data Analytic Procedures

Interview material was transcribed by the present investigator. Transcripts were read and analysed using open coding until patterns of groups and themes emerged (Creswell 2007). Continuous comparisons were made between codes created and data gathered in order to generate categories and to verify relationships.

Results

Findings reveal the impact of short-term international teaching assignments on academics' career success and work-life balance. In line with the spillover perspective (Friedman & Greenhaus 2000), Study 1 highlights that relationships between work and non-work domains during international teaching assignments involve both positive and negative spillover effects. For a number of participants, positive career impacts include enhancement of personal development, creation of social capital, and external marketability. Teaching in foreign countries also generates intrinsic rewards associated with students' successes and making a difference to their lives.

On the negative side, constant short-trips create delays in academics' research activities, which in turn hinder promotion and obstruct career paths. Similar to Starr and Currie (2009), this study confirms work-life issues arising from short-term assignments (e.g., family separation, long working hours). While there appears to be limited university support, academics outlined three main areas of organisational support, including HR, financial, and career support. Emergent themes from interviews culminated in the development of an hypothesized conceptual model tested in Study 2.

STUDY 2

As noted earlier, Study 2 aimed to extend the findings of Study 1, and to identify and prioritize support factors involved in short-term international teaching assignments. Based on an extensive review of the literature and findings from Study 1, five hypotheses were tested.

Hypothesis 1: *Perceived organisational support is related positively to career success.*

Hypothesis 2: *Perceived organisational HR support is related positively to career success.*

Hypothesis 3: *Perceived organisational financial support is related positively to career success.*

Hypothesis 4: *Perceived organisational career support is related positively to career success.*

Hypothesis 5: *Career success is related positively to work-life balance.*

Method

Participants

Participants are 193 academics from 24 Australian universities. These universities are active in transnational education as reported on websites and Australian Universities Quality Agency (AUQA) reports (IDP 2009; AVCC 2001). The typical participant is aged at least 50 years or older (48.3%), male (65.3%), lecturers (31%) with more than 5 years of offshore teaching experience (56.4%).

Instrument: Short-Term International Teaching Assignments Questionnaire (STITA)

Questionnaire items are based on established measures of *perceived organisational support* (Eisenberger et al. 1986), *career success* (Stephens, Szajna & Broome 1998; Greenhaus, Parasuraman & Wormley 1990) and *work-life balance* (Fisher, Bulger & Smith 2009). Notwithstanding, as the existing scale of perceived organisational support involves limited consideration of support factors for short-term international teaching assignments, a multidimensional measure of support tapping into academics' needs and demands was developed. This measure was triangulated from four sources: extant literature (Debowski

2003; Gribble & Ziguras 2003), critical reflection, outcomes emerging from Study 1 and pilot testing. All constructs are measured on 5-point Likert scales ranging from *Strongly Disagree* to *Strongly Agree*.

Data Collection Procedures

Data were collected electronically using commercial web survey software called SurveyMonkey. Preceding the link to the survey, an introductory email letter explaining the nature and purpose of the present study, a Plain Language Statement, and directions for completing the questionnaire were included. Response rate was 10.6 % ($n=193$).

Statistical Procedures

Data analyses involved four main steps: Data Screening, Exploratory Factor Analysis, Confirmatory Factor Analysis, and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). SPSS 18.0 and AMOS 18 were utilised. Data were assessed for violations of statistical assumptions (e.g., multicollinearity, outliers, and normality) and replacement of missing data.

Results

The final model (Figure 1) involves four components of perceived organisational support (i.e., perceived organisational support, perceived organisational HR support, perceived organisational financial support, perceived organisational career support), three of career success (i.e., career satisfaction, career development, career balance), and two of work-life balance (i.e., work enhancement of personal life, personal life enhancement of work). The model fits the data well: $\chi^2/df=1.496$, RMSEA=0.051, SRMR=0.0588, GFI=0.893, AGFI=0.852, TLI=0.929, CFI=0.943. In terms of explanatory power, the present model accounts for 63% of the variance in career development, 35% of the variance in work enhancement of personal life, 34% of the variance in career balance, 27% of the variance in career satisfaction, and 12% of the variance in personal life enhancement of work. With respect to structural paths, 3 of the 5 hypothesized relationships are supported.

Quantitative findings reveal that perceived organisational support and perceived organisational career support have positive relationships with career success dimensions

(i.e., career satisfaction, career development, career balance). This finding suggests that academics' career success can be enhanced by improving the quality of perceived organisational support and perceived organisational career support. When employees perceive their organisation as caring about their well-being, and providing a conducive environment in which to pursue their career goals, employees report raised levels of career success (Erdogan, Kraimer & Liden 2004). Research (Kraimer et al. 2011; Marshall, White & Tansky 2010; Benson & Pattie 2008) advocates that aligning career developmental support to individual career plans is a significant attitude stimulus, leading to career satisfaction (Barnett & Bradley 2007; Baruch 2006). Conversely, it appears that employees who believe that their career interests and goals are not aligned with the support provided by their organisation might well be dissatisfied, even to the point of seeking employment elsewhere (Kraimer & Wayne 2004). Perceived organisational HR support and perceived organisational financial support are nonsignificant contributors to career success within the context of the proposed hypothesized model.

Findings also reveal significant positive relationships between career success dimensions (i.e., career satisfaction, career development, career balance) and work-life balance dimensions (i.e., work enhancement of personal life, personal life enhancement of work). These findings support a positive spillover model of work-nonwork relationships (Ballout 2008; Lyness & Judiesch 2008). Based on the spillover perspective, an individual's experiences at work can extend into the home, and experiences at home can affect one's work. Work-related activities can provide emotional rewards such as satisfaction and pride, which can spill over positively into the non-work domain (Haar & Bardoel 2007). For example, an academic who derives much satisfaction from offshore teaching might carry over such feelings into their personal domain.

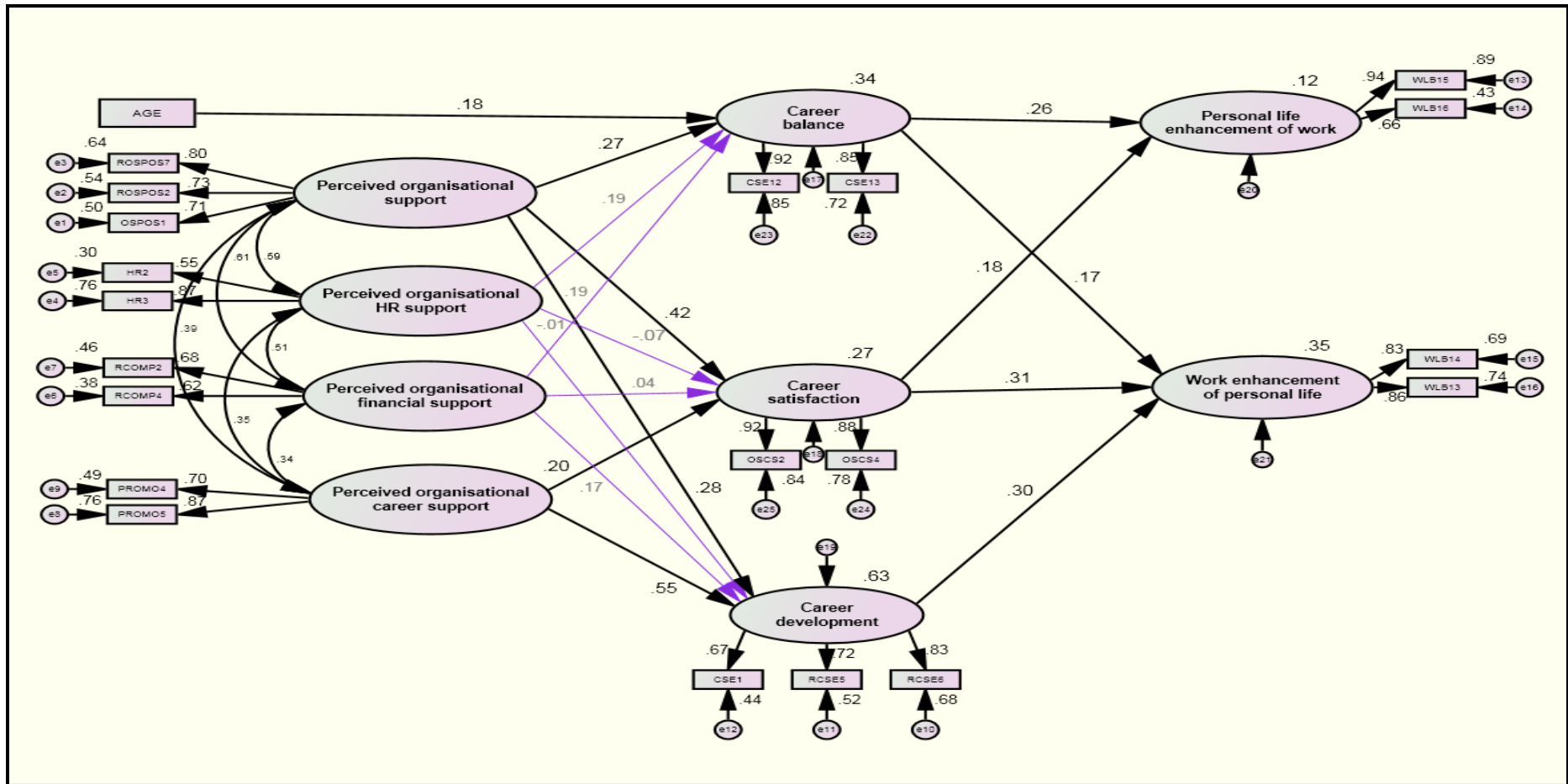


Figure 1. Final path model of hypothesized relationships

Conclusion

The present thesis shows how short-term international teaching assignments impact on Australian academics, exploring associated challenges and issues. Findings of Study 1 demonstrate the inter relationships between perceived organisational support, career success, and work-life balance; explicating why these relationships are important for academics engaged in short-term international teaching assignments. Findings also indicate that on the whole, current university policies and practices inclusive of human resource management (HRM) appear to address inadequately academics' personal needs. HRM tends to be centred on basic administration and travelling issue, rather than core employee issues such as career and work-life issues. Research indicates that lack of organisational support in international assignments can lead to dissatisfaction (Armstrong-Stassen & Ursel 2009), demotivation (Bonache, Sanchez & Zarraga-Oberty 2009; Eisenberger et al. 1986), and turnover risk (Eisenberger et al. 2002).

Study 2 extends the proposed model formulated in Study 1, aiming to prioritize support factors involved in short-term international teaching assignments. Findings indicate that perceived organisational support and perceived organisational career support are related significantly to academics' career success. Specifically, findings suggest that academics who perceive their organisation as career-supportive experience enhanced levels of career satisfaction, and career development. Findings also suggest that employees' career success appear to be related strongly to work-life balance. These findings point to the all-round benefits that can result when universities reward their academics and capitalize on their offshore teaching experience. Such affirmative action would appear to acknowledge offshore teaching experience as being both important and integral to academics' career development.

A number of implications for university HRM practices, university policy concerning offshore teaching assignments, and theory emerge from this thesis. The modern day interpretation of short-term mobility necessitates not only an innovative HR response, but more responsive support in general if employees' needs are to be

satisfactorily addressed (Tremblay et al. 2010). Academics are no exception in that such support can be highly influential to career success and work-life balance.

In closing the present thesis involves a number of notable features. First, this thesis is one of the first quantitative studies on Australian *flying academics*, and contributes to the expatriate literature, which up to this point, has focussed predominantly on business executives. Second, the present thesis employs a mixed method, adopting a broad spectrum approach to gain a definitive understanding of short-term international teaching assignments. The mixed method design provides a nuanced picture of academics' offshore teaching experiences than has previously been possible. Third, the current thesis broadens prior work in transnational education research by developing a contextual model that illustrates the influences of perceived organisational support on academics who undertake short-term international teaching assignments.

Finally, this thesis provides organisations with guidelines as to how they might better formulate appropriate support for academics than how they do at present. The critical nature of support cannot be overstated because offshore teaching is integral to Australian transnational education (Pannan, Gribble & Barnes 2005). Research (Edwards 2009) discloses that support has to be relevant to the situation at hand in order to achieve desired results. According to Haslberger and Brewster (2008, p. 330), *the wrong type of support may aggravate rather than alleviate problems.*

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an overview of the principal reasons for undertaking this thesis, followed by a discussion of research purpose, research background and the present rationale. Research objectives are then outlined and finally the structure of this dissertation is presented.

Purpose

This thesis explores the views and experience of academics involved in short-term international teaching assignments and the specific strategies employed to manage and to support their career success and work-life balance. Despite an extensive literature base on expatriation (McNulty, De Cieri & Hutchings 2009), and an emerging body of literature on non-traditional expatriate assignments (Konopaske, Ribie & Ivancevich 2009) in the broader human resource (HR) literature, there is relatively little, if any, research that deals with the impact of short-term international teaching assignments on academics. Accordingly, this thesis examines the short-term international teaching experiences of a growing number of academics, the challenges faced, and the type of support that might be deemed as appropriate.

In an examination of the short-term international teaching assignments, the present thesis is grounded in three distinct but related fields of research and literature; perceived organisational support (POS) (Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002), work-life balance (Lyness & Judiesch 2008), and career success (Dries, Pepermans & Carlier 2008). This thesis integrates these three fields of research to spotlight the impact of short-term international teaching assignments, to analyse views amongst academics, and to identify and recommend management practices that might best support academics.

Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison and Sowa (1986) noted that POS concerns employees' belief about the extent to which an organisation values their work contributions and cares about employee well-being. The present thesis extends

Eisenberger et al.'s (1986) concept of POS, exploring the multi-dimensional support for short-term international teaching assignments. This thesis proposes that perceived organisational HR support, perceived organisational financial support, and perceived organisational career support are distinct dimensions of POS. Organisations demonstrate appreciation by acknowledging that employees face specific demands and by providing an adequate support which enhances career success and work-life balance. In this light, a measure that captures the multifaceted nature of support provided by organisations is developed to complement existing generic measures of this construct. The following section provides an overview to the background of this thesis.

Research Background

In recent decades, international business has grown rapidly, leading to heightened pressures on organisations to expand operations into the global business arena (Ahsan & Musteen 2011). The higher education sector is not an exception to this phenomenon. Australian universities are increasingly reliant on income generated through teaching from onshore and offshore students (Naidoo 2009). According to the International Development Program of Australian Universities and Colleges Ltd (IDP) (2010), the demand for Australian international higher education will grow from 163,345 in 2005 to 290,848 in 2025. While much of this teaching occurs at onshore university campuses, there has been a growth in the use of teaching partnerships in Asia, where courses are delivered by Australian-based academics (Ziguras 2007). Currently, research on international education has concentrated on the experience and challenges faced by students (Chapman & Pyvis 2005; Leask 2003), or on organisational issues relating to marketing education to potential students (IDP 2009). Research on academics, their challenges and practices concerning short-term international teaching assignments appears limited.

Drawing on theory of work adjustment (TWA) (Dawis & Lofquist 1984), this thesis incorporates perceived support to predict the outcomes of a match between academics and their work environment, and to illustrate the ongoing process of interaction within this context. Appropriate support for short-term international

teaching assignments should enable an effective implementation of HRM policies and practices that respond to both organisational and employee needs. The subsequent section highlights the rationale of this thesis, identifying six major reasons for undertaking this research: an apparent void of literature on short-term assignments; a dearth of information on *flying academics*; an inadequate understanding of processes underlying short-term international teaching assignments; the importance of appropriate staffing for the successful international business strategies; a limited focus on academics' work-life balance during short-term international teaching assignments; and the predominance of quantitative focus in POS studies.

Rationale

First, there is an apparent void of literature on short-term assignments. With respect to expatriation, studies of international assignments have predominantly focused on the long-term engagements (Meyskens et al. 2009). Despite the significance of long-term international assignments, research demonstrates a growing trend of short-term appointments (Starr & Currie 2009). International surveys reveal that up to 70% of international assignments are now less than one-year in duration (GMAC 2004). Similarly, increased participation of higher education in transnational education has been paralleled by an accelerated growth in short-term international teaching assignments (McBurnie & Ziguras 2001). Despite this growth in the area, there seems to be a burgeoning gap in the research. Given this lacuna, this thesis explores the phenomenon of short-term international teaching assignments in higher education, offering new perspectives and raising issues about the nature of these assignments.

Second, there is a dearth of information on *flying academics*. Based on a growing phenomenon of transnational education, Australian academics teach in 24 countries (DEEWR 2011a), where their native language is spoken (e.g., Australians in Singapore) and not spoken (e.g., Australians in China). The short-term international teaching assignments are an important practice in the higher education sector, having a profound effect on academics. Academics are expected to perform in environments

which are culturally different to their own. While there is information on offshore programs, international students, Australian universities and their partner institutions, information on so-called *flying academics* is virtually non-existent. Correspondingly, the relevance and generalizability of expatriate literature to academics is unclear as multinational companies present a different organisational environment. Given the relatively large number of academics teaching and administrating overseas, this segment of the population merits investigation. Indeed, their unique experiences have been consistently overlooked in organisational studies.

Third, developing appropriate supports and related mechanism for academics is limited, owing to a lack of appropriate theoretical frameworks and an inadequate understanding of processes underlying short-term international teaching assignments. It appears that previous studies (Armstrong-Stassen & Ursel 2009; Turner, Lingard & Francis 2009) have tended to focus on an examination of influences of POS, including causal links between POS, career success, and work-life balance. These investigations have tended to utilised employee and employer populations in domestic settings (Takeuchi et al. 2009; Kraimer & Wayne 2004). The influence of POS in different domains, particularly in relation to employees expatriated on short-term assignments has yet to be examined in detail. Furthermore, existing POS studies (Eder & Eisenberger 2008; Sluss, Klimchak & Holmes 2008) seem to have limited relevance to the unique Australian academic context. Thus, this thesis addresses an apparent information gap by developing a conceptual framework geared to support academics in their international assignments. Drawing upon different disciplines, the conceptual framework integrates theory of work adjustment, theory of social exchange, and theory of human capital in explaining processes involved in short-term international teaching assignments. The proposed conceptual framework provides integrated guidelines, targeting organisational policies, systems, and practices.

Fourth, according to the Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee (AVCC 2001), internationalisation is a major priority for Australian universities and must be achieved if Australian universities are to remain internationally competitive and recognized globally for quality education. Approximately 41% of growth in

international education has been in offshore enrolments, with each of Australia's 38 universities delivering offshore education (Dunn & Wallace 2006). Therefore, retaining high quality staff and the battle for brainpower is becoming a priority for organisations aiming to gain or maintain a competitive advantage (Economist 2006). The importance of appropriate staffing for the successful implementation of international business strategies remains crucial as the higher education accommodates to global economic markets. Thus, findings from this thesis have practical implications for universities and educational service providers of international assignments.

Fifth, this thesis explores academics' work-life balance experiences during short-term international teaching assignments. Studies in the field of work-life balance and expatriation remain limited (Fischlmayr & Kollinger 2010). Usually, academics who teach offshore are also accountable for onshore activities including lecturing, research, supervision of higher degree students, mentoring, and publishing. These additional responsibilities challenge work and life balance. To date, research (Lé, Tissington & Budhwar 2010; Kreiner, Hollensbe & Sheep 2009) has focused primarily on ways in which organisation strategies relating to employees' work and family life balance. However, this thesis focuses on employees' needs during their international assignments, broadening the scope of research on work-life balance.

Finally, a majority of studies on POS has adopted a quantitative focus in a domestic setting (Eisenberger et al. 2002). In addressing Research Question 2, the present thesis extends current conceptualizations of POS and takes a broad spectrum approach to an understanding of short-term international teaching assignments. Accordingly, this thesis comprises two studies: Study 1 a case study approach, and Study 2, a quantitative study. Respectively, the principal questions addressed in each study are how do short-term international teaching assignments affect academics' career success and work-life balance? And to what extent does perceived support influence academics' career success and work-life balance?

As an exploratory investigation, Study 1 aims to identify themes and constructs that constituting support factors in short-term international teaching assignments; and to ensure the content validity of construct domains derived from an in-depth literature review. Study 2 extends Study 1 and aims to investigate relationship between perceived organisational support, career success, and work-life balance; and to identify and prioritize support factors involved in short-term international teaching assignments.

For Study 1, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 11 academics. Data were analysed using thematic analysis. Emergent themes from interviews culminate in the development of a conceptual model and questionnaire employed to test a series of Hypotheses in Study 2. Study 2 involves a cross sectional survey design, building upon findings derived from Study 1. Study 2 developed and tested on the hypothesized model using structural equation modelling.

Thesis Structure

Chapter 2 provides an in-depth literature review on short-term international teaching assignments in the higher education sector, examining three pertinent literature streams: perceived organisational support, career success, and work-life balance.

Chapter 3 reports on Study 1, which employs a case study methodology. This chapter begins with an overview of assumptions, underlying the use of a mixed method approach. Next, the justification of mixed methods studies is explained before detailing the research design, method, and findings of the study. Study 1 adopts an exploratory approach aimed at developing and informing the quantitative phase of Study 2.

Chapter 4 reports the findings of Study 2, with the structure of this chapter mirroring content of Chapter 3. Study 2 extends findings emanating from Study 1, identifying and prioritizing support factors involved in short-term international teaching assignments. Tests of hypothesized relationships using path analysis are then

discussed. Chapter 4 concludes with a discussion of findings, together with reflections on the limitations and generalizability of results.

Chapter 5, the conclusion, presents an interpretation and analysis of both qualitative and quantitative of data relevant to the research problems and questions. A discussion of implications for practice, conclusions, and suggestions for further research are outlined.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter 2 begins with an analysis of linkages between globalisation and short-term international teaching assignments in higher education. Followed by a cross-disciplinary literature review, which embodies three constructs; perceived organisational support, career success, and work-life balance. Relevant literatures in relation to these factors are examined in the context of expatriation and transnational education. This chapter concludes with a discussion of the three theoretical conceptualizations (theory of work adjustment, theory of social exchange, theory of human capital) underpinning the present thesis.

Globalisation and Alternative International assignments

Globalisation and liberation of economies has dramatically triggered many organisations to expand their markets and re-establish their reputation internationally (Edwards & Rees 2006). Indeed, nearly 50% of organisations indicate that they are planning to increase the number of international assignments in Asia Pacific, Europe, Middle East, and Japan (ORC Worldwide 2011). This trend signals the importance of international assignments as a part of management strategy and planning (Collings et al. 2011), and a growing influence on job mobility (Harzing & Pinnington 2011; Dowling & Welch 2004).

Factors associated with increasing job mobility have made expatriation a topic of interest for HR managers and researchers (Benson & Pattie 2008; Anderson 2005; Harrison, Shaffer & Bhaskar-Shrinivas 2004). The expatriation literature has focused mainly on failure of expatriation (Anderson 2005; Forster 2000b), selection (Tharenou & Harvey 2006; Selmer 2001), willingness to accept international assignments (Dickmann et al. 2008), adjustment processes (Takeuchi et al. 2005; Mayerhofer et al. 2004), organisational support practices for expatriates and

repatriates (Suutari & Brewster 2003) and cross-cultural training (Romero 2002). In general, the expatriation literature has been devoted mainly to long-term assignments of 12 months or longer (Tarique, Schuler & Gong 2006; Tahvanainen, Welch & Worm 2005).

Despite the predominance of literature on long term assignments, recent times have seen an emergence of alternative forms of international assignments (Collings, Morley & Gunnigle 2008; Konopaske & Werner 2005; Tahvanainen, Welch & Worm 2005). Research (Bonache, Brewster & Suutari 2007; Collings, Scullion & Morley 2007) suggests that owing to uncertain global conditions and cost issues, long-term assignments have been replaced with short-term assignments, commuter assignments, international business travel, and so-called virtual assignments. Short-term assignments require personnel to relocate internationally for a less than 12 months (Konopaske & Werner 2005; Tahvanainen, Welch & Worm 2005; Harrison, Shaffer & Bhaskar-Shrinivas 2004). However, the length of these assignments vary in accordance with function and organisational goals (Harrison, Shaffer & Bhaskar-Shrinivas 2004). Family members are not likely to accompany expatriates on short-term assignments (Tahvanainen, Welch & Worm 2005).

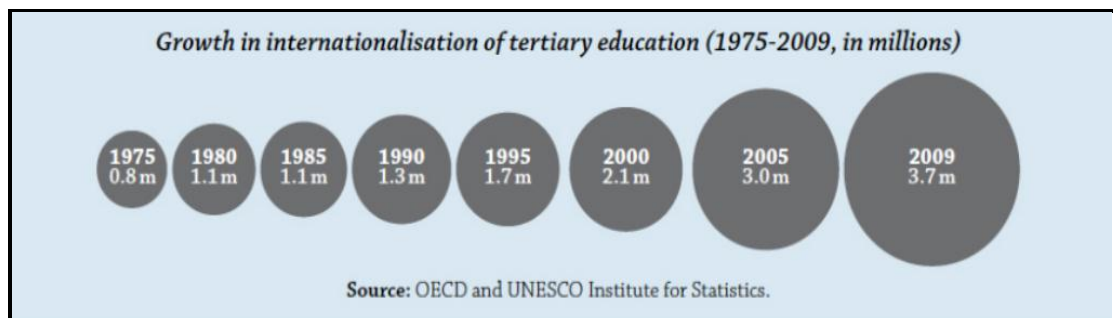
Short-term Assignments and Higher Education

Short-term international teaching assignments are common practice in the higher education sector (Evans & Tregenza 2002; Ziguras 2002). Globalisation, together with neo-liberalism have transformed universities from parochial stable organisations into internationally competitive corporations (Marginson 1999), leading to permanently changed local institutions (Marginson 2003). Neo-liberalism asserts that *the market is the core institution of modern – capitalist – societies and that both domestic and international politics are (and should be) increasingly concerned with making markets work well* (Cerny 2004, p. 4). In the globalised neo-liberal age, higher education policies have focused on developing entrepreneurial practices, moulding universities into enterprise-oriented universities (Marginson & Considine 2000b). A number of authors (Bolton & Nie 2010; Adam 2001; McBurnie & Ziguras

2001) concur with the view that higher education is part of a growing globalisation of trade in goods and services. As a result, market mechanisms such as funding grant cuts to encourage Australian universities to create revenue and reduce dependence on federal government funds have been implemented (Meek & Hayden 2005). In adapting to changes associated with neo-liberalism, funding for Australian universities comes primarily from fee-paying Australian and international students, research activities, and from return on investment of capital assets (Bay 2011). This market approach has indeed helped to promulgate international student intake in Australian universities (Zheng 2010).

IDP Education Australia predicted that the number of international students pursuing education in or from a foreign country will increase to 3.1 million in 2025 (McBurnie & Ziguras 2001). Naidoo (2006) concluded that the growth in export of education has shifted from aid to trade. In reviewing the Australian higher education and expatriation literature, this thesis adopts two elements of short-term assignments that they are predominantly assignment less than one year (Collings, Scullion & Morley 2007; Petrovic, Harris & Brewster 2000) and that the assignee's family usually remain in the home country, with salaries, superannuation, and social security benefits being overseen by their employer (Tahvanainen, Welch & Worm 2005).

There has been considerable debate on the internationalisation of the higher education sector (Knight 2003; Schoorman 2000). Internationalisation can be defined as the process of integrating an international, intercultural and/or global dimension in the goals, functions and delivery of higher education (Plaisent et al. 2008). Internationalisation also incorporates the process of international and intercultural dimensions in teaching, research, and management (Elkin, Devjee & Farnsworth 2005; Knight 2003). It also connotes the movement of people (students, academics), providers (institutions with a virtual or physical presence in a host country), programs (courses or programs of instruction), and projects (such as joint curricula or development projects) as part of trade in education services (Knight 2004; Knight & DeWit 1997). Figure 2.1 shows the long-term growth in internationalisation of tertiary education from 1975 to 2009. The figure shows a 4.6 fold growth in numbers of international students between 1975 and 2009.



Note. Data on foreign enrolment worldwide come from both the OECD and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS). UIS provided the data on all countries for 1975-95 and most of the non-OECD countries for 200, 2005 and 2009. The OECD provided the data on OECD countries and the other non-OECD economies in 2000 and 2009. Both sources use similar definitions, thus making the aggregation of data possible. Missing data were imputed with the closest data reports to ensure that breaks in coverage do not result in breaks in time series.

Figure 2.1 Long-term growth in the number of students enrolled outside their country of citizenship (OECD 2011)

Internationalisation has not only become a university priority, but also a government concern (DEST 2009). According to the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), high intakes of international students enhance a country's domestic research and development (Hazelkorn 2008). International students contribute not only to skilled graduates and research, but also through the demand for goods and services (Yao & Bai 2008). To exemplify, the recruitment of non-EU students has generated over £1bn for the UK economy (McNulty 2003). More recently, Kim (2009b) noted that annually the UK economy benefited directly by almost £11 billion and indirectly by about £12 billion from education-related exports.

In Australia, education is a \$12.5 billion export industry and it is the third-largest Australian export dollar earner after coal and iron ore (Hazelkorn 2008). International education was worth more than \$19 billion to the Australian economy in 2009/10 (Collins 2011). Consequently, internationalisation has reshaped the landscape of Australian higher education (McBurnie & Ziguras 2007; Leask 2006, 2004; McBurnie & Ziguras 2003). Currently, Australia has the highest proportion of international students in higher education (21.5%), exceeding the OECD average of 6.7% (OECD, 2011). Indeed, *Australia with 0.3% of the world's population has 6% of the international students* (OECD 2007, p. 304). Apart from the economic

benefits, the internationalisation of higher education is also *important to Australia for its social, cultural and intellectual benefits* (AVCC 2004, p. 22-23 cited in Bell 2008).

It is estimated that the international education sector is a \$2.2 trillion business worldwide (Feast & Bretag 2005). Thus, there is a shift in focus to invest in international education, which is reflected visibly in various forms such as the emergence of transnational education, internationalisation of faculties, and development of international curricula (Dutschke 2009; Hazelkorn 2008; Chapman & Pyvis 2006). Figure 2.2 indicates percentage of international students in tertiary education, with Australia, the UK, Austria, Switzerland and New Zealand leading the pack.

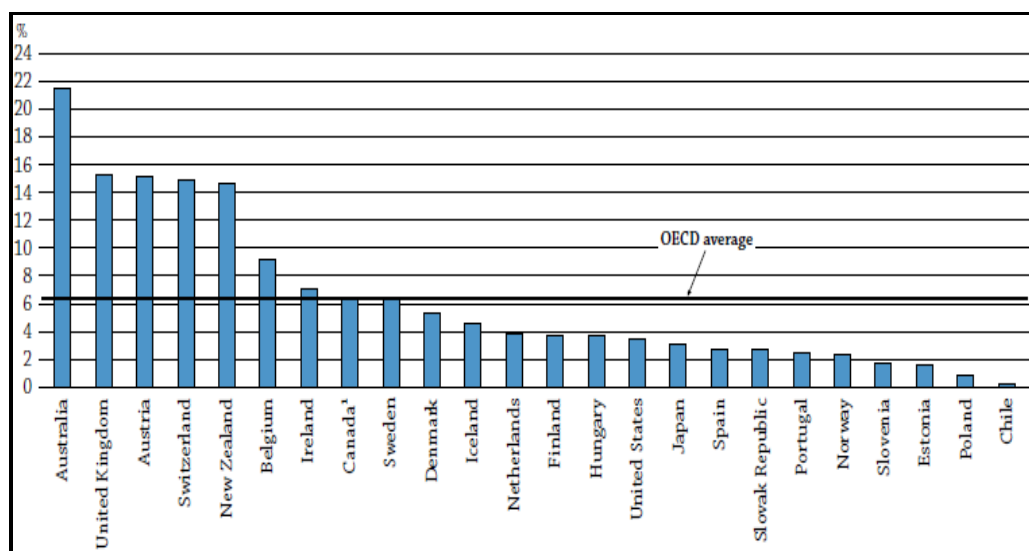


Figure 2.2 Percentage of international students in tertiary education (OECD 2011)

Transnational Education

International trade in education is beneficial to the economies of exporting nations, but does not build capacity in the students' home countries (McBurnie & Ziguras 2007). Research (Baruch, Budhwar & Khatri 2007) indicates that student mobility has several drawbacks: expensive, inconvenience for people already in the

workforce, and so-called brain drain of highly educated people. Transnational education, by contrast, is attractive to foreign students as it provides opportunities for attaining foreign qualifications at a substantially reduced cost (Debowski 2008; Ziguras & McBurnie 2008). In some importing countries such as Malaysia, transnational education contributes to nation building through the creation of local employment and growing human capital (Dobos 2011; The Observatory on Borderless Higher Education 2002; McBurnie & Ziguras 2001).

The World Trade Organization (WTO) identified transnational education as an important component of international trade (Thorn 2005). The concept of transnational education was first coined in the mid-1990s by the Global Alliance for Transnational Education (GATE) (McBurnie 2000). In the 1990s, transnational education was *adopted in Australia as the preferred term for internationally mobile programs* (McBurnie & Ziguras 2007, p. 22). Literally, transnational education means an education *in which learners are located in a country different from the one where the awarding institution is based* (UNESCO; Council of Europe 2001)

Transnational education is conducted through distance education, partner-supported delivery, and via branch campuses (McBurnie & Ziguras 2007). A number of authors (Mahmud et al. 2009; Stella & Gnanam 2004; Debowski 2003) view transnational education through the lens of type of offshore programs, such as twinning, distance learning, franchising, moderated programs, joint award, internet delivery, and offshore campuses. Mahmud et. al. (2009) suggested that the use of the term transnational education is not common as different countries employ a range of terms such as *offshore programs, borderless education, collaborative international provision, and cross-border education*. Nevertheless, the terms transnational and offshore are the most frequent used terms utilized by academics and government in Australia and New Zealand (Stella & Bhushan 2011; McBurnie & Ziguras 2007). For this reason, the terms transnational and offshore education will be used interchangeably throughout this thesis.

Australia Universities and Transnational Education

Australia, the world's third-largest exporter of higher education services, has been an aggressive global competitor in transnational education (Wang 2008; McBurnie & Pollock 2000). Matthews (2002) estimated transnational education business to be in excess of \$3 billion to the Australian economy. The rapid growth of transnational education from the late 1990s until early in the new millennium has been linked to the history of trade liberalisation and the Asian economic crisis (Mahmud et al. 2009). Indeed, the total number of Australian offshore programs grew from 307 in 1996 to 1569 in 2003, reducing to 1002 in 2007 (Universities Australia 2007).

Overall, Australian universities transnational programs are focused geographically with more than 70% of programs located in four countries including Singapore, Malaysia, people's republic of China and the Hong Kong special administrative region (Mahmud et al. 2009). Historically, Hong Kong and Singapore have been primarily the dominant consumers of undergraduate transnational programs (Leask 2008a; Garrett & Verbik 2004; Leask 2004). In Hong Kong, and Singapore respectively, Australian institutions account for approximately 37% and 53 % (Garrett & Verbik 2004).

Currently, about one-third of international students are enrolled offshore, while the remainder are educated on Australian university campuses (Dunn & Wallace 2008). Table 2.1 shows the growth in transnational education enrolments between 2004 and 2010 accounting for about 34% of all international students in the Australian tertiary education system in 2010 (DEEWR 2011b; DEST 2011). Figure 2.3 highlights the proportion of 2010 offshore students' enrolment by institution (DEST 2011). According to GATE, the demand for transnational education in Asian countries will increase to more than 480,000 students by 2020 (Mok & Ng 2008).

Table 2.1 Students enrolled in transnational education (DEEWR 2011b; DEST 2011)

	International students	Offshore students
2004	186449	51833
2007	273099	72282
2010	227230	76446

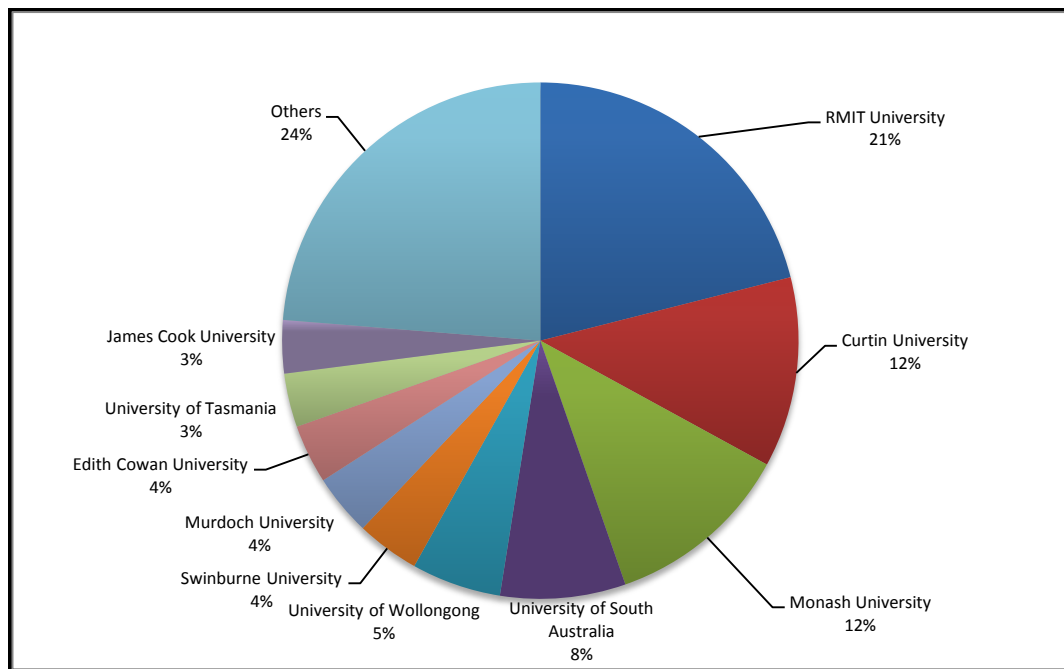


Figure 2.3 Australian universities offshore students by institution, 2010 (DEST 2011)

Mobility of Academics

International staff mobility is cultivated by the policies of national and supranational institutions (Smeby & Trondal 2005; Musselin 2004; McNulty 2003; Enders 2001), and enhanced by the proliferation of transnational education (McBurnie 2000). Transnational programs have become an integral part of the internationalisation activity of most Australian universities (Hoare 2012; Dunn & Wallace 2006; Welch 2002). Given the changing topography of higher education, transnational education

presents a unique opportunity for academic staff to be internationally mobile (Onsman 2010). Since the 1990s, new recruitment policy strategies and the liberalisation of trade policies by successive Australian governments have increased the scale and speed of cross-border academic mobility (Kim 2009a). Hoffman (2009) and Kim (2009b) concur that the international mobility of academics between institutions is an integral approach for developing communication, collaboration and scientific progress.

The increasing mobility of academics generates a number of important issues (e.g., career, work-life balance). In addition to teaching offshore responsibilities, academics are accountable for onshore teaching, research, supervision, mentoring, and publishing (Leask 2004). Given these varied roles and responsibilities, academics are faced with the challenge of balancing their work and life outside of work. Despite its significance, there appears to be limited research on the impact of transnational teaching on academics' career and work-life balance.

With only a few exceptions (Dunn & Wallace 2006; Debowski 2003; Gribble & Ziguras 2003), studies focusing on the organisational support for academics is almost non-existent. An overview of studies on *flying academics* is provided in Table 2.2. McBurnie and Ziguras (2007) indicate that transnational education is data poor in many respects. At present, there is no complete central source of data on *flying academics*, which are the backbone of a multi-billion dollar industry. Even though mobile students are well covered by official data (Ziguras & McBurnie 2008), governments and universities retain little consolidated information about *flying academics*.

Table 2.2 Overview of research on flying academics

Author(s)	Focus
Hoare, L.A. (2012)	Academics' teaching experiences, focusing on personal and pedagogical adaptation.
Jones, S., Applebee, A., Harvey, M. & Lefoe, G. (2010)	Research into distributed leadership within Higher Education.
Poole, D., & Craig, E. (2010)	International management deficiencies, suggesting more-active academic role in marketing processes.
Roberts, S., Butcher, L. & Brooker, M. (2010)	Non-formal, unit coordinator-level academics who take leadership roles.
Smith, K. (2009a)	Experience of being a transnational teacher and working in a culture very different to one's own, leading to 'perspective transformation'.
Smith, L. (2009b)	Academic work in an offshore campus of an Australian university located in the UAE.
International Education Association of Australia (2008)	Requirements of teaching offshore, staff preparation/reward for offshore teaching.
Cohen, L. & Bunker, A. (2007)	Role of unit coordinators at an Australian university.
Dunn, L. & Wallace, M. (2006)	Academics' teaching experience, highlighting academic development.
Macdonald, I. (2006)	Quality assurance offshore, discussing academics' career planning and support.
Seah, W.T. & Edwards, J. (2006)	Offshore teaching experiences.
Debowski (2005)	Australian staff teaching an MBA in China.
Dunn, L. & Wallace, M. (2004)	Experience of Singaporean students and Australian academics in an offshore degree program.
Leask, B. (2004)	The various roles and pressures placed on teaching staff in off-shore campuses.
Debowski, S. (2003)	The difficulties faced by academics in offshore teaching and the lack of support provided by the universities.
Gribble, K. & Ziguras, C. (2003)	Challenges facing academics participating in offshore programs, concentrating on pre-departure cross-cultural training.

The lack of research on academics' work-life is surprising considering that these academics have contributed extensively to the successful implementation of transnational programs. It is argued that *a beautifully designed and delivered approach which is inefficiently administered or inappropriately resourced would neither assure quality nor ensure standards* (Gallager 2000). Even though there is an option to provide multimedia delivery, research (Wood, Tapsall & Soutar 2005; Ziguras 2001) reveals that students prefer face-to-face learning with high calibre academics. Debowski (2003) highlighted the need to develop organisational

guidelines to enable the effective support and maintenance of critical human resources during expatriate sojourns. Additionally, Newton (2006) advocated the need for theory-guided approaches, calling for an increase in the theoretical and methodological sophistication in higher education research. Debowski (2003) further suggested that the organisational practices that have been explored extensively in the expatriation literature could serve as a useful frame of reference. Responding to these calls, the following discussion considers the relevant factors associated with organisational support and employee perception of the support, a much needed first step towards designing best practices that maximize employee satisfaction and motivation (Edwards 2009). Three major factors are identified, including perceived organisational support, career success, and work-life balance. The theoretical conceptualization underpinning this thesis is presented following this discussion.

Perceived Organisational Support

Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison and Sowa (1986, p. 9) introduced the notion of organisational support for employees, proposing the *perceptions of organisational support* (POS) construct. POS is a measure of employees' general beliefs about the extent to which an organisation values their membership, commitment of them, and concerned about employees' well-being (Eisenberger et al. 1986). The POS concept is derived from organisational support theory and multiple studies on causes and consequences of employee perceptions of support (Erdogan & Enders 2007; Eisenberger et al. 2002).

According to organisational support theory, POS associated with employees' tendency to anthropomorphise organisations (Edwards 2009). In this regard, POS is enhanced when employees believe that any investment and recognition of their contributions are voluntary rather than as an outcome of external controls such as government rules or union pressures (Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002; Armeli et al. 1998). High POS occurs when employees' needs for esteem, approval, and social identity are met, reinforcing an expectation that performance outcomes and anticipated behaviors are acknowledged and rewarded (Aselage & Eisenberger

2003). Such support enhances employees commitment to organisations (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway 2005). Thus, organisational commitment to employees contributes to fostering POS (Allen, Shore & Griffeth 2003).

Theoretical and empirical work relating to POS can be traced back to the seminal work of Blau (1964), who proposed a theory of social exchange involving trust and earn trustworthiness as essential components. In social exchange relationships, norms of reciprocity (Gouldner 1960) dictate that perceptions of support from organisations create obligations to repay that organisation for its commitment and care (Allen, Shore & Griffeth 2003). When relationships conform to norms of reciprocity and when patterns of exchange are perceived as fair, individuals are more likely than not, to believe that they will not be exploited (Blau 1964). Parties involved understand that favors received in the present create expectations of repayment in the future (Gouldner 1960). To exemplify, caring actions of a partner generate a sense of indebtedness on the part of the other partner, which can direct to beneficial attitudes and behaviors directed toward the caring partner (Colquitt, Scott & LePine 2007).

Theory of social exchange states that organisations are the centre point of social and mutual long-term transactions between employees and employer (Panaccio & Vandenberghe 2009). Fundamentally, theory of social exchange applied in the work context argues that employees are willing to exchange their effort and time for various rewards offered to them by an organisation (Cropanzano & Mitchell 2005). *POS may be used by employees as an indicator of the organisation's benevolent or malevolent intent in the expression of exchange of employee effort for reward and recognition* (Lynch, Eisenberger & Armeli 1999, pp. 469-70). As noted earlier, social exchange relationships are dependent on the trust of one of the parties with regard to the obligations of the other party over a relatively long-term period (Konovsky 2000). Each party's contributions increase gradually when relationships are demonstrably and mutually satisfying over time (Konovsky 2000).

When organisations perform practices that reflect investment in, and support of employees, there is an implication that the organisation is seeking to maintain a

social exchange relationship with its employees (Allen, Shore & Griffeth 2003; Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002). Riggle et. al (2009) stated that investments made by organisations in POS programs result in strong associations between POS, and important attitudinal and behavioral employee outcomes. A large body of evidence suggests that employees with high levels of POS experience their jobs most favourably (Eder & Eisenberger 2008; Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002). In summary, POS has a strong, positive effect on organisational commitment (Riggle, Edmondson & Hansen 2009; Eder & Eisenberger 2008; Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002); job satisfaction (Armstrong-Stassen & Ursel 2009; Riggle, Edmondson & Hansen 2009), and intentions to remain at an organisation (Allen, Shore & Griffeth 2003). Moreover, POS enhances work performance, fosters positive mood, and reduces levels of stress (Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002). It also acts as an important source of esteem, affiliation, emotional support, and approval in the workplace (Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli 2001).

Perceived Organisational Support and Expatriates

POS has triggered considerable interest over the previous decade (Takeuchi et al. 2009; Erdogan & Enders 2007; Erdogan, Kraimer & Liden 2004; Aselage & Eisenberger 2003). However, only a limited number of studies have examined the role of POS in the expatriate literature (Takeuchi et al. 2009), the research of which (Hutchings, French & Hatcher 2008) suggests that organisational support is significant in the context of expatriation. From a social exchange perspective, expatriates who experience positive relationships with their organisation tend to be willing to reciprocate (Settoon, Bennett & Liden 1996). In other words, positive POS allows, *expatriates to perform better and stay committed to their assignments to the extent that they feel content about their lives in the new cultural context* (Aycan 1997, p. 9). Takeuchi et al. (2009) added that the significance of discretionary judgment in ongoing social exchange relationships between expatriates and employers is consistent uniformly positive organisational practices. Findings reveal that expatriates who perceive high levels of POS during their overseas assignments show high levels of commitment to their organisations (Takeuchi et al. 2009). Consistent with social exchange process, expatriates exert sustained efforts in their

jobs, resulting in reciprocation as demonstrated by improved overall job performance (Takeuchi et al. 2009; Hutchings 2005).

However, many organisations continue to adopt an ad-hoc approach to staff preparedness, failing to execute formal preparation for expatriates undertaking short-term assignments (Tahvanainen, Welch & Worm 2005). Mendenhall and Stahl (2000) stated that pre-departure provision such as training can cultivate perceptions that their employer has the best interests of its expatriate workers, at heart. Research (Lazarova & Tarique 2005; Scullion 2001) shows that expatriates are hesitant to accept offers to undertake international assignments when organisations fail to support and manage international assignments problems. Compared to domestic employees, POS tends to be most important for expatriates because international assignments normally detach employees from their routines and/or their social support structures (Kraimer & Wayne 2004; Kraimer, Wayne & Jaworski 2001). In the expatriate literature, different types of organisational support are proposed to facilitate international assignments, namely selection criteria and pre-departure training, as elaborated, below.

Selection Criteria

Selection criteria for particular posts are an outcome of a job analysis (De Cieri & Kramer 2005). Job analysis is a major element of human resource activity, recognizing the knowledge, skills, qualifications, experience, abilities and competencies that a person requires to effectively undertake a specific role (Morgeson & Campion 2000). The outcome of any job analysis can culminate in critical and ideal selection criteria for recruitment and selection processes (De Cieri & Kramer 2005).

Owing to the challenging nature of international assignments, the critical role of selection criteria is highlighted in the expatriation process (Tungli & Peiperl 2009). Shin, Morgeson and Campion (2007) emphasize differences between expatriate and domestic jobs, as the former require different profiles of skills, ability, and

personality, when compared with the latter. According to Harris and Brewster (1999), the top five expatriates selection criteria are international negotiation, global awareness, international strategy, international marketing and cultural empathy. Additionally, Tung (2004, 1989, 1987) identified four key factors associated with expatriate success: technical competence on the job, personality traits or relational abilities, environmental variables, and family situation.

However, Mayerhofer et al. (2004) suggested that the rigor of selection processes can be less stringent for short-term assignees. Owing to a need to execute tasks competently in shorter periods of time (Harris & Brewster 1999), selection criteria for short-term assignees have concentrated mainly on technical expertise (Tahvanainen, Welch & Worm 2005; Harris & Brewster 1999). In some cases, the process involves selecting individuals who are willing and available to travel (Mayerhofer et al. 2004).

Pre-departure Training

Once an employee has been selected, pre-departure training becomes the next crucial step to ensure effectiveness and success abroad (Mendenhall & Stahl 2000). Pre-departure training can include cross-cultural awareness, specific country briefing, transfer of skills and knowledge across cultures language training, business etiquette and procedures (Hurn 2007). Perhaps surprisingly, having knowledge of specific challenges associated with a foreign country is not a sufficient criteria for working successfully beyond one's own cultural borders (Puck, Kittler & Wright 2008).

Pre-departure training can enhance the adjustment of expatriates by developing individuals' awareness of differences in norms and behaviors between home and host countries (Bailey 2011; Black & Mendenhall 1990). Such training has the capacity to modify expectations (Caligiuri et al. 2001), educate employees about potential value differences (Van der Heijden, Van Engen & Paauwe 2009), assist expatriates in decision making (Mendenhall & Stahl 2000), and provide a realistic preview of what is expected from international assignments (Bolino & Feldman 2000). However,

Forster (2000a) argued that different types of training programs should be tailored to different assignments depending on varying durations of stay.

In regards to academics, limited research attention has been given to those who travel on short-term international teaching assignments (McBurnie & Ziguras 2007). Support offered by universities appears to be deficient in comparison with that provided to business executives (Debowski 2003). The literature (Hoare 2012; Leask 2004; Debowski 2003) illustrates that offshore teaching involves different dimensions and challenges from onshore teaching. Nevertheless, a number of authors (Dunn & Wallace 2006; Leask et al. 2005; Pyvis & Chapman 2004) agree that the prevailing assumption of offshore programs as delivered to international students somehow hinders the recognition of a need for high levels of organisational support. Both Smith (2009a) and Leask (2008b) argued that transnational teaching is not merely teaching international students, but demands greater expertise from 'home' teaching.

Likewise, Pyvis and Chapman (2004) noted that offshore student populations are far more diverse than is typically recognised. Hoare (2012) found that most of the students in her case study were mature-aged learners and they had relatively difficult early education experiences. A combination of these factors leads to a higher probability of miscommunication and misinterpretation in different intercultural environments than in Australia (Leask et al. 2005). Inherent in this discussion, academic leaders and disciplinary culture have been identified as critical components of positive work environments (Scott, Coates & Anderson 2008; Debowski & Blake 2004). Supportive academic leaders and disciplinary culture provide instrumental and socioemotional support for academics undertaking transnational teaching (Onsman 2010; Debowski & Blake 2004). Academic leaders facilitate the enactment of HR practices, assisting employees meet multiple role demands (Rothwell & Benschoter 2012).

In a similar vein, supervisory support provided by academic leaders can assist in career enhancing functions such as providing mentoring (Pan, Sun & Chow 2010),

visibility (Baranik, Roling & Eby 2010), funding (Wickramasinghe & Jayaweera 2010), counselling (Feldman & Bolino 1999), and social support (Stroppa & Spieß 2010; Bozionelos 2009). In other studies (Wickramasinghe & Jayaweera 2010; Allen et al. 2004), supervisory support has been shown to be linked to career satisfaction. For example, when employees obtain more support from their supervisor, they tend to reinforce both their determination to achieve their goals and organisational commitment (Liu & Ipe 2010).

Nevertheless, it appears that university practices and quality measures have not kept pace with the rapid expansion of transnational education (Dunn & Wallace 2006). Debowski (2008, p. 210) concluded that *the issue of staff preparedness is an area that is both complex and largely under managed*. This phenomenon underlines the need for universities to provide appropriate support in ensuring that academics are prepared for any risks and opportunities that might arise during the course of offshore teaching assignments. Thus, this thesis investigates the relevant support available to assist academics in addressing the challenges they face, the details of which are explored further in Chapter 3.

Career Success

Another area which merits discussion is academics' career issues. A career is the perceived lifelong sequence of role-related experiences and activities of individuals (Hall 2002). Career success has been defined as a consequence of a person's career experiences, resulting from an achievement of desirable work-related performance over time (Arthur, Khapova & Wilderom 2005). Measuring careers, or the outcome of career success, has been a fundamental part of career research (Heslin 2005).

Conventional indicators of career success are objective outcomes such as progression in salary, title, and position (Allen et al. 2004; Cable & DeRue 2002). However, success can also be expressed subjectively in terms of the pride in accomplishment an individual feels from achieving personal goals in life, rather than those goals

shaped by organisations and society at large (Seibert, Kraimer & Liden 2001). Gunz and Heslin (2005) argued that people's subjective understanding of success can exhibit patterns of shared understanding amongst those involved in similar social contexts. Similarly, Arthur et al. (2005) suggested that individuals develop their careers and pursue career success by adjusting themselves to related peer groups or work-related communities.

Hughes (1951), widely acknowledged as a seminal contributor to the modern field of career studies, provides a framework providing a clear distinction between objective and subjective career success. Objective measures of career success are directly observable and measurable (Seibert & Kraimer 2001; Nicholson 2000), such as pay, promotion, and occupational status (Dries, Pepermans & Carlier 2008). Nevertheless, a number of authors (Gunz & Heslin 2005; Heslin 2003; Cable & DeRue 2002) argue that objective measures of career success fail to capture relevant features of the career success construct and are inadequate when it comes to explaining less tangible aspects that people seek from their career.

In contrast to visible objective measures, the subjective career success is personal (Heslin 2005; Ng et al. 2005), and can be defined as an individual's internal assessment of his or her career across any dimensions that are significant to that individual (Breland et al. 2007). Sturges (1999) identified internal and intangible criteria when examining male and female managers' conceptions of career success, including recognition at work, levels of influence, feelings of accomplishment and achievement, and enjoyment of work and integrity through work-life balance. Dimensions of career success are examined using constructs such as career satisfaction (Cable & DeRue 2002; Martins, Eddleston & Veiga 2002), career development (Hoekstra 2011), and career balance (Clark 2001).

A number of authors (Dries, Pepermans & Carlier 2008; Gunz & Heslin 2005; Heslin 2005; Aryee & Luk 1996) concur that career satisfaction is most commonly associated with subjective career success, and can be defined as a general affective direction of an individual towards his or her career or work role. Similarly, Hayfaa

and Saleema (2011) found that women managers perceived career success as their satisfaction with the subjective rather than the objective aspects of their careers. Career satisfaction measures the extent to which individuals believe that their career advancement match to their own objective, preferences, and standards (Erdogan, Kraimer & Liden 2004). Interestingly, studies (Hayfaa & Saleema 2011; Heslin 2005; Gerrity et al. 1997) reveal that dissatisfaction with objective aspects of career success (i.e., salary, bonus) will not prevent employees from being subjectively satisfied with their careers. Career development, however, concentrates on the integration of individual subjective career aspects and the objective career aspects of an organisation; and involves career planning and organisational practices that assist employees to execute their own career plan (Egan, Upton & Lynham 2006). In terms of career development, daily assessment and micro-development can gradually shape career progress (Hoekstra 2011).

Over time, career success dimension shift across generations and recently career success has been assessed in term of striking a balance between work and non-work domains (Gunz & Heslin 2005). Career balance is a less tangible outcome that goes beyond the objective measurement of career success (Heslin 2003). People tend to highlight a balance between their work and family lives when measuring their careers particularly as they advance to the maturity stage of their careers (Martins, Eddleston & Veiga 2002). Finegold and Mohrman's (2001) survey of 4500 knowledge workers and managers across eight countries identified work-life balance as the most important aspect of career. Indeed, some individuals assess career success in term of striking a balance between work and non-work domains, involving both objective and subjective dimension of career success (Gunz & Heslin 2005).

While most of these career success dimensions are examined interdependently of each other (Arthur, Khapova & Wilderom 2005; Seibert, Kraimer & Liden 2001) or one dimension is more important than other (Hofmans, Dries & Pepermans 2008), there seems to be a growing consensus that career success should be assessed concurrently with the use of both objective and subjective measures (Pachulicz, Schmitt & Kuljanin 2008); and interpretations and assessment of career success

depend on dimensions that are important to that individual (Colakoglu 2011). In line with these important elements, this thesis examines career success from both subjective and objective perspectives. Consequently, the career satisfaction, career development and career balance are regarded as career success dimensions. Abilities to achieve these dimensions are taken as career success.

Academic International Assignment

With the expansion of transnational education, an increasing number of academics are engaged in short-term assignments (McBurnie & Ziguras 2007). There is little doubt that international assignments involving consistent visits to international markets, have an effect on academics (Dunn & Wallace 2006). Despite the significance, the transnational education literature has been virtually silent regarding the implications of mobility on academic careers (Debowski 2003). Drawing upon the expatriate literature, studies (Collings et al. 2011; Benson & Pattie 2008; Mendenhall & Stahl 2000) demonstrate that international assignments can affect careers positively, enhancing personal and professional skills. Studies show that individuals with substantial international experience perform better (Benson & Pattie 2008), achieve higher financial rewards (Konopaske & Werner 2005), and are more likely to assume top executive positions (Marshall, White & Tansky 2010; Ng et al. 2005). Interestingly, Harvey and Novicevic (2004) stated that expatriation can lead to the development of valuable political skills and political capital. These findings parallel those that reveal motivations for accepting international assignments are typically financial benefits, personal interest in international experiences, a search for new experiences, and career progression (Dickmann et al. 2008; Konopaske & Werner 2005; Stahl, Miller & Tung 2002; Suutari & Brewster 2000). Research (Stahl, Miller & Tung 2002) also indicates that international assignments enhance individual capability, which can be transferred and valued across organisations and external labor market.

In contrast, there are studies (Hamori & Koyuncu 2011; Kraimer, Shaffer & Bolino 2009; Dickmann & Doherty 2008; Stahl, Miller & Tung 2002) indicating that international assignments can impact careers negatively. Kraimer et al. (2009) found

that international assignments did not advance careers within an employee's organisation. Hamori and Koyuncu (2011) study of 1001 chief executives across 23 countries revealed that international assignments can actually retard and hinder career advancement. Other findings (Dickmann & Doherty 2008; Dickmann & Harris 2005) suggest that the career impact of international assignments is not adequately clear.

Nevertheless, some authors (Agullo & Egawa 2009; Stahl & Cerdin 2004) claim that the career benefits of international experience are mixed. Studies (Benson & Pattie 2008) show that the career impact within one's current organisation can be negative, yet positive outside of one's organisation. Having said that, most expatriates view their international assignments as enhancing their careers and their marketability with other employers (Daily, Certo & Dalton 2000). Despite the inconclusiveness evidence, there is a general consensus that any negative career effects of expatriation can be solved via organisational career support (Marshall, White & Tansky 2010; Stahl et al. 2009; Kraimer & Wayne 2004).

Overall, opinions regarding the impact of international assignments on careers vary amongst scholars (Stahl et al. 2009). Indeed, the expatriate literature offers a useful platform to understand careers evolving across international boundaries, yet little is known about the impact of short-term mobility on academics' career. Given the importance of transnational education to the higher education sector, and the critical role that academics play, it is clear that this topic is worthy of in-depth exploration. The following section now turns the discussion to work-life balance issues for academics.

Work Life Balance

Kirchmeyer (2000, p. 81) defined work-life balance as *achieving satisfying experiences in all life domains, [and that] to do so requires personal resources such as energy, time, and commitment be well distributed across domains*. The idea of work-life balance involves employees having a measure of control and choice over when, where, and how they work. It is gained when an individual's right to a satisfied life inside and outside paid work is established and respected as a norm (Shortland &

Cummins 2007). Similarly, Clark (2000) noted that work–life balance involved *satisfaction and good functioning at work and at home with a minimum of role conflict* (Clark 2000, p. 751). However, Fisher (2001) suggested that balance entails more than a lack of interference, but also possible synergies from an interaction between work and personal life.

Greenhaus, Collins and Shaw (2003) pointed to a common element in the definitions of work-life balance, which is sharing a notion of equality between experiences in work and family roles, adding that positive balance entails an equally high level of satisfaction with work and family roles, with negative balance proposes an equally low level of satisfaction with each role (Greenhaus, Collins & Shaw 2003). Work–life balance is often regarded in the context of work–life balance policies and employees’ perceptions of work–life balance support expressed in terms of these policies (Lewis, Gambles & Rapoport 2007).

Research (Bulger, Matthews & Hoffman 2007) proposes three models explaining relationships between work and life activities: That is, segmentation, compensation, and spillover models. In the segmentation model, work and life are dissimilar and non-interacting domains. The compensation model suggests that life activities are different to work activities, yet one compensates for the other by offering satisfaction not realized in the other sphere. The spillover model, proposes that one’s choice of life or work activities can be influenced by attitudes and interests in the other domain. In this thesis, work-life balance is conceptualised based on research (Fisher, Bulger & Smith 2009; Hayman 2005) that includes both negative influences of work on personal life and the potential for positive enhancement between work and non-work. These researchers (i.e., Fisher, Bulger & Smith 2009; Hayman 2005) concluded that work-life balance is comprised of four dimensions: Work interference with personal life, personal life interference with work, and work enhancement of personal life, and personal life enhancement of work. In the subsequent section, these dimensions are examined further.

Work Interference with Personal Life

Work interference with personal life occurs when work-related activities conflict with personal life (Edwards & Rothbard 2000). This type of interference is not uncommon for expatriates (Shortland & Cummins 2007). Glanz (2003, p. 268) argued that *expatriation is a situation where all aspects of life have been affected by a move for work, and to some extent, work is affected by other aspects of life in an exaggerated way*. Significantly high proportions of expatriates assert that work impacts their home life to a greater extent than prior to embarking assignments (Shortland & Cummins 2007). Key issues are long working hours, burnout, travel fatigue, and resentment caused by separation from the family (Shortland & Cummins 2007; Tahvanainen, Welch & Worm 2005).

In regards to academics, a common travelling pattern requires academics to fly the day prior to a teaching commitment, teach, and then return to recommence their normal routine as local academics (Debowski 2003). Smith (2009a) adds transnational teaching can be very long and intense. These teaching arrangement can be disruptive presenting high physical demands, low recreational opportunities, and high emotional load (Debowski 2003). Sometimes, academics are invited to dinner by students, resulting in further, unplanned extended hours for the academics (Debowski 2003). Consequently, it increases the load and demands on the academics (Mazzolini 2010; Poole & Ewan 2010; Seah & Edwards 2006). Allport (2000) concludes that offshore teaching and frequent travel have placed anticipated stress on university staff, which might further affect the high quality of offshore programs.

Personal Life Interference with Work

Personal life interference with work happens when involvement in a personal life activity interferes with work-related activities (Bulger, Matthews & Hoffman 2007). Short-term assignments tend to minimize interferences from personal life to work domains (Starr & Currie 2009), offering flexibility, simplicity, and cost effectiveness for organisation (Konopaske, Ribie & Ivancevich 2009; Bonache, Brewster & Suutari

2007; Tahvanainen, Welch & Worm 2005). Costs occurring from an employee's family relocation such as large family apartments and school payments are eliminated through the implementation of short-term assignments (Tahvanainen, Welch & Worm 2005). Konapasko and Werner (2005) suggesting that managers are more willing to accept shorter assignments, because they can gain global business experiences without disrupting their families' lives over the long term. *The absence of family members may be a positive in the sense that partner and children adjustment problems do not create a spill-over effect* (Tahvanainen, Welch & Worm 2005, p. 670). Moreover, short-term assignments do not have direct effects on career of partners or children's education (Collings, Scullion & Morley 2007; Shortland & Cummins 2007). From this perspective, short-term assignments offer fewer disruptions in the personal and family life of employees (Caligiuri & Lazarova 2005).

Nevertheless, frequent separation from family and lack of local support can intensify expatriates' adjustment process (Caligiuri & Lazarova 2005; Tahvanainen, Welch & Worm 2005). Black and Stephens (1989) found that spouses' attitudes and intentions to their partners decision are correlated positively with their adjustment to their general environment and their adaptability level with host nationals. Similarly, De Cieri, Dowling and Taylor (1991) note that spouse possessing high levels of control can not only influence the decision making process, but is also directly linked to their partner's satisfaction with life in the pre-departure and early stages of expatriation.

In a similar vein, the intrusion of short-term assignments in time spent with family can result in family conflict (Grant-Vallone & Ensher 2001). Expatriates reporting high levels of work-family overlap present opportunities for demands in one domain to intrude on the behavioural resources allocated to the other (Shaffer et al. 2001). Many authors (Shortland & Cummins 2007; Clark 2000; Black, Gregersen & Mendenhall 1992; Harvey 1985) agree that distraction from work by personal issues will lead to decreased job performance and organisational effectiveness. Indeed, international assignments appear to be a fertile ground for both work-family and family-work conflicts (Shaffer et al. 2001). To exemplify, preserving a balanced work life might involve expatriates accepting more work demands, such as frequent

travel and greater levels of responsibility (Starr & Currie 2009). However, increased work demands can consume time and energy that can be spent in the family domain, culminating in work-family conflict (Shaffer et al. 2001). Thus, a decision to accept international assignments is believed to be influenced highly by family factors (Copeland 2008a; Caligiuri & Lazarova 2005; Grant-Vallone & Ensher 2001).

Work Enhancement of Personal Life

Recently, scholars (Grawitch & Barber 2010) have examined the positive impact of work on personal life, and occurs when work experiences improve the quality of personal life (Graves, Ohlott & Ruderman 2007). Spillover from one role to another can be positive because participation in multiple domains can enhance the personal resources in other domains (Voydanoff 2002). Role accumulation can enhance status security, achievement of social capital, performance, personality enrichment, and increased self-esteem (Gordon, Whelan-Berry & Hamilton 2007). Rothbard (2001, p. 656) suggested that *a greater number of role commitments provide benefits to individuals rather than draining them*. Similarly, Stevanovic and Rupert (2009) found that personal accomplishment at work is related to positive spillover effects, thereby leading to an improved life satisfaction and family support. In the expatriate context, benefits attained from international assignments such as personal development, skill acquirement, and long-term career progression may increase expatriates satisfaction (Bonache 2005). Such feelings of satisfaction can carry over to personal domains and positively influence individuals work-family interaction (Wadsworth & Owens 2007). Research also reveals that positive spillover from work to family domains enhances individual's role performance in the family (Gordon, Whelan-Berry & Hamilton 2007).

Personal Life Enhancement of Work

Personal life enhancement of work occurs when experience in personal domain improves the quality of work domain (Fisher, Bulger & Smith 2009). Inter role facilitation happens when an individual's personal life enhanced one's energy or

mood at work (Grzywacz & Marks 2000). Positive spill over effects often involve supportive family relationships (Gordon, Whelan-Berry & Hamilton 2007). Family experiences provide resources such as support, positive feelings, work-related skills, and alternate perspectives (Graves, Ohlott & Ruderman 2007; Rothbard 2001). These resources assist individuals to use skills acquired at home on the job (Gordon, Whelan-Berry & Hamilton 2007). For example, successfully managing challenges in the family domain might enhance individuals' feelings of self-esteem, acceptance, and confidence, thereby giving them the emotional resources to deal with challenges at work (Greenhaus & Powell 2006). Relationships with partners might also compensate for negative feelings about one's job by providing individuals with valuable channels to express emotions concerning stressful work situations (Allis & O'Driscoll 2008; Voydanoff 2002).

Evidence indicates that family can help to mitigate the negative effects of mobility by acting as a vital support mechanism (Richardson & Mallon 2005; Van der Zee & Salome 2005). There is a wide recognition of the impact of spouses and families on the success of expatriate assignments, particularly in terms of adjustment and motivation (Mäkelä & Suutari 2011; Anderson 2005). Expatriates often suffer culture shock (Pires, Stanton & Ostefeld 2006). Family can assist employees to address culture shock by providing positive moral support and encouragement (Pires, Stanton & Ostefeld 2006; Richardson & Mallon 2005). Furthermore, research (Lé, Tissington & Budhwar 2010) demonstrates that social supports provided by family members and work colleagues can positively affect individuals' well-being and health. When individuals are comfortable with their personal balance, positive sentiments towards work and organisation can develop (Fischlmayr & Kollinger 2010).

Overall, authors (Shortland & Cummins 2007; Caligiuri & Lazarova 2005; Grant-Vallone & Ensher 2001) agree that employees on international assignments experience excessive demands in both work and personal life. However, expatriates who utilise family-related support services are likely to report less work-family interferences than those who utilise fewer services (Copeland 2008b). Despite the

literature focusing on family-related issues concerning long-term assignments, there is a paucity of studies focusing on short-term assignees (Starr & Currie 2009). Even though families and spouses are physically excluded from short-term assignments, they nevertheless play a significant role in the assignment process (Konopaske, Ribie & Ivancevich 2005; Copeland & Norell 2002).

In regards to academics, research (Watts & Robertson 2011; Kinman & Jones 2008) demonstrates that the potential for conflict between work and non-work domains has increased in the higher education sector. Interestingly, academics (Watts & Robertson 2011; Jie 2010; Luxon & Peelo 2009; Kinman & Jones 2008) agree that the higher education sector is no longer a reasonably low-stress working environment, elucidating mounting pressure both to publish and acquire external research funding.

However, research on work-life conflict experienced and reported by *flying academics* is largely absent from discussions. Eventhough *flying academics* have onshore teaching and supervision responsibilities, they are also confronted with specific challenges abroad, such as working in new cultural settings (Debowski 2008). Constant short-trips can increase demands in one domain, encroaching on the behavioral resources allocated to the other (Starr & Currie 2009). To exemplify, international assignments might chew up time and energy necessary for one's own marital relationship or family. Indeed, expatriate literature (Stroppa & Spieß 2010; Shaffer et al. 2001) indicates that the international assignments involve risks, which can fuel work-life conflict and negatively influence performance. All these factors can place stress on *flying academics* and result in poor physical health, absenteeism, and turnover (Panaccio & Vandenberghe 2009; De Croon et al. 2004; Hardy, Woods & Wall 2003). Thus, an understanding of how *flying academics* deal with increasingly heavy demands of both work and life is important for both organisations and individuals.

Theoretical Conceptualization Underpinning the Present Thesis

As mentioned earlier, there is a need for theory-guided approaches in higher education research (Newton 2006). This thesis is underpinned by three theoretical frameworks: Theories of work adjustment (Dawis 1984), social exchange (Blau 1964) and human capital (Becker 1964). These theories provide in depth explanations of workplace relationships and are discussed below.

Theory of Work Adjustment

The theory of work adjustment is the outcome of more than five decades of research at the University of Minnesota (Eggerth 2008), and belongs to a class of theories known as P-E theories (Dawis 2000). P-E theories concern person (P) in environment (E), and describe the fit and interaction between of P and E (Dawis 2000). Person-environment (PE) fit is defined as the compatibility that occurs when individual and work environment characteristics are well matched (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman & Johnson 2005). Research (Ostroff, Shin & Kinicki 2005; Cable & DeRue 2002) finds that PE fit plays a significant role in the areas of career satisfaction, performance, commitment, and career-related outcomes.

Particularly, theory of work adjustment concerns the work environment and adjustment (Dawis 1984). Dawis and Lofquist (1984, p. 237) defined work adjustment as a *continuous and dynamic process by which a worker seeks to achieve and maintain correspondence with a work environment*. This theory is one of the most prominent theories in explaining relationship and fit between persons and their working environment (Dawis 2005), elaborating on the interactive and reciprocal processes (Dawis & Kazdin 2000). Theory of work adjustment provides a framework within which to predict the match between individual and work environment (the predictive model) and to explain the ongoing process of interaction between workers and work environment (the interaction model) (Eggerth 2008). According to the theory of work adjustment, individuals are willing to complete the labor requirements of their work environment in exchange for fulfilment of social, financial, and psychological needs of the individual (Dawis 2005). Thus,

correspondence reflects a state in which *the individual [is] fulfilling the requirements of the work environment and the work environment [is] fulfilling the requirements of the individual* (Dawis & Lofquist 1984, p. 54).

Theory of work adjustment suggests that work adjustment can be attained only when two conditions are met: an employee's ability match the requirements of the workplace and the extent to which an employee's needs are fulfilled by through reinforcements and rewards provided by an organisation. Individuals actively seek to match their skills and needs with the requirements and reinforcers of work environments (Tinsley 2000). A close fit between an individual's needs and the work environment reinforcers and rewards leads to satisfaction (Breiden, Mohr & Mirza 2006). Satisfaction denotes a level of comfort and emotional attachment of an employee (Renfro-Michel, Burlew & Robert 2009). In maintaining work adjustments, perceptions influence individuals' assessment of and reaction to their environments (Lyons, Brenner & Fassinger 2005). Cable and DeRue (2002) stated that individuals develop and utilise perceptions of fit as they adapt and survive through organisational life.

Theory of work adjustment provides a useful framework for understanding the abilities, needs requirements and reinforcers associated with transnational teaching. When levels of work adjustment are examined, it is crucial to identify the level of correspondence between an individual's specific needs and the intellectual, emotional, and financial incentives available during international assignments (Breiden, Mirza & Mohr 2004). Organisational supports that are perceived as important assist any correspondence between academics and their working environment. Failure to provide appropriate support can jeopardize correspondence between person-environment. Satisfaction is achieved only through the interplay between the requirements of the work environment and the individual (Tinsley 2000). Thus, it would seem necessary to identify the specific needs and challenges encountered by *flying academics* during their short-term international teaching assignments. These issues are considered in depth, in Chapter 3.

Theory of Social Exchange

Theory of social exchange has been the foundation for much of the research on employee-organisation relationships (Haar 2006). Recently, researchers (Takeuchi et al. 2009) have suggested that theory of social exchange might be an appropriate theoretical lens for viewing expatriation. As mentioned earlier, this theory regards employees and organisations as exchange partners. Theorists (Blau 1964) agree that social exchange comprises a series of interactions that generate obligations, these interactions of which are considered as interdependent on the actions of another person (Lavelle, Rupp & Brockner 2007). Theory of social exchange suggests that these interdependent transactions have the potential to create high-quality relationships (O'Neill et al. 2009). In work environment, social exchange relationships evolve when organisation care for their employees by providing support and resources (Cropanzano & Mitchell 2005). However, when the cost of a relationship is perceived to outweigh perceived benefits, it is most likely that an individual will end the relationship (Ensher, Thomas & Murphy 2001).

In the present thesis, theory of social exchange provides a framework for understanding the support deemed most relevant to employee-organisation relationships. Theory of social exchange highlights that employees who value benefits received from their organisation, such as fringe benefits, salary, or working conditions will reciprocate with positive work attitudes (Gibney, Zagenczyk & Masters 2009). When employees perceive their organisation to be highly supportive, they feel a sense of belonging and likely to view their organisation's problems as their own (Battistelli, Marianp & Bello 2006). In contrast, employees are unlikely to exceed minimum job requirements when organisational treatment is experienced as negative or neutral (Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002).

Interestingly, only when the resource or support provided by organisations is regarded as valuable (Cropanzano & Mitchell 2005), it will engage employees in exchange behaviors (Cable & DeRue 2002). A mutual dependence in acquiring valued resources is imperative in order for the exchange to occur (O'Neill et al. 2009). Thus, both parties must abide by certain rules of exchange (Ensher, Thomas &

Murphy 2001). For the current thesis, theory of social exchange informs and drives the model-building processes by examining the effectiveness of various types of support in short-term international teaching assignments. The various supports are discussed in detail later in terms of support deemed pertinent for *flying academics* in Chapter 3, and at how these supports relate to their career success and work-life balance in Chapter 4.

Theory of Human Capital

Theory of human capital is rooted in economics and was formerly used as a method of measuring industrial training (Wang, Dou & Li 2002). Originally posited by Becker (1975), theory of human capital, is based on the assumption that employees make rational selections regarding investments in their own human capital. Human capital is commonly defined as an individual's set of knowledge, skills, and abilities acquired through education and experience (Becker 1975; Becker 1964). Theory of human capital argues that individuals decide rationally on whether or not they want to invest more effort, time, and money in education, training, and experience. According to the theory of human capital (Becker 1964), individuals invest in their human capital to further improve their future careers (Cerdin & Pargneux 2009). A key element of the human capital model is work experience that offers opportunities for learning and skill development (Benson & Pattie 2008).

Within the context of human capital theory, this thesis takes the position that short-term international teaching assignments provide academics with opportunities to invest in knowledge, skills, and abilities, suggesting that international assignments are valuable learning experiences, granting them with a distinctive strategic competence (Benson & Pattie 2008). International assignments expose employees to different value systems, languages, and institutional environments (Carpenter & Fredrickson 2001). Indeed, placing employees in unusual or difficult assignments, such as working in foreign countries, can result in significant learning (McCauley et al. 1994). Thus, the theory of human capital proposes that the acquisition of skills during international assignments increases marketability significantly.

The theory of human capital also contends that individuals' investments in their education, training, and work experience are rewarded (e.g., a higher salary, promotion) by their employers. This theory further suggests that individuals with international assignment experience are more highly rewarded than those without it (Hamori & Koyuncu 2011). However, individuals are not in total control of their careers (Cerdin & Pargneux 2009). Individuals' careers are also dictated by the characteristics of the internal labor market and organisational policies (Cerdin & Pargneux 2009). Research (Lazarova & Caligiuri 2001; Feldman & Thomas 1992) shows that organisations often do a poor job placing, supporting and compensating expatriates. Drawing up on the theory of human capital, the present thesis reviews how universities compensate academics' human capital in transnational teaching.

Theory of human capital also provides further basis for understanding work-life balance of individuals undertaking international assignments (Shaffer et al. 2001). This theory prioritizes the broad domains of activity: work, family, and leisure (Becker 1975). People are motivated to spend their resources (e.g., time, energy) on activities they want to pursue and limit resource expenditure on activities that are less preferred (Warhurst, Eikhof & Haunschild 2008). However, time and energy are exhaustible resources, forcing people to make choices about how to spend their resources (Grawitch & Barber 2010).

According to the theory of human capital (Becker 1975), inter-role conflict occurs when there is a struggle to maintain a balance between two domains: work and life. Theory of human capital further argues that employees taking on international assignments in general face pressures to balance their work with other aspects of life (Shaffer et al. 2001). Research (Fischlmayr & Kollinger 2010; Starr & Currie 2009) reveals that understanding the work-life interface is a pivotal concern of international assignments. Thus, by employing the theory of human capital, this thesis attempts to understand how academics spend their resources (e.g., time, energy) during short-term international teaching assignments, through an exploration of support measures offered by organisation.

Conclusion

Although research on transnational education has made significant steps forward, inadequacies remain. Currently, the experiences of academics involved in short-term international teaching assignments is poorly understood and documented. This chapter examined academics' mobility in the light of three perspectives: perceived organisational support, career success, and work-life balance. As discussed in the present chapter, short-term assignments impact upon academics in various ways. Issues concerning academic mobility are becoming critical to organisational sustainability and strategy as transnational education expands. Further research is required to help the development of organisational policies and practices necessary for supporting academics. Well-designed and maintained support mechanisms can ensure that problems are alleviated, minimized, and academics remain motivated. The following chapter reports on theory and the qualitative findings of Study 1, illuminating issues faced by *flying academics*. Relevant supports needed in short-term international teaching assignments are also explored.

CHAPTER 3: STUDY 1

Chapter 3 reports on the qualitative findings of Study 1, beginning with a discussion of the present research paradigm, followed by discussion of methodology and research design. The chapter then describes the participants involved, instruments used, data collection and analysis procedures. The last section presents the current findings and a discussion of hypotheses, which outline the foundation for Study 2.

This thesis employs a mixed methods design involving two studies: Study 1 is qualitative and Study 2 quantitative. Mixed methods research allows the use of both words and numbers to obtain a better understanding (Maylor & Blackmon 2005). The primary objective of Study 1 is to gain an understanding of academics' views of short-term international teaching assignments and what support academics perceive to be important in international assignments. Despite the increasing interest in *flying academics* in transnational education literature, there remains a paucity of evidence on the impact of transnational teaching and organisation strategies aimed at supporting academics.

Therefore, qualitative methods, which are said to be important in researching a new area (Edmondson & Mcmanus 2007), were considered methodologically appropriate. In a qualitative approach, analyses and interpretations are established and verified through the views of respondents (Miles & Huberman 1994). This approach best captures an individual's point of view regarding the working environment, and details rich descriptions of the challenges. Overall, it allows for comprehensive accounts of the processes and nuances under investigation (Rugg & Petre 2007).

Theoretical Conceptualisation

The paradigm (or conceptual framework) underpinning Study 1 is realism. The following sections consider a number of paradigms (positivism, critical theory, constructivism, & realism) with an emphasis on their relevance for this thesis. The discussion then justifies the selection of a realism paradigm as a theoretical basis for study.

Research Paradigm

According to Kuhn (1970), research is guided by ideological frameworks, called paradigms, which focus the scientific community in one direction or another. A paradigm is a package of beliefs (Crotty 2003) or a *distillation of what we think about the world (but cannot prove)* (Lincoln & Guba 1985, p. 15). Interestingly, Kuhn (1970) is of the opinion that a paradigm could not be adequately described in words, yet a paradigm can be viewed as a set of basic beliefs that deal with ultimates or first principles (Guba & Lincoln 1994). These paradigms prescribe the variety of experiments conducted, questions asked, and subject matter considered by scientific communities (Kennedy 2011).

However, a research paradigm can have a restricting or biasing effect because researchers tend to conduct experiments that support or confirm a research paradigm rather than explore all possible routes to the solution (Creswell 2009). The paradigm selected guides the researcher in philosophical assumptions about the research and in the selection of tools, instruments, participants, and methods used in the study (Denzin & Lincoln 2000). According to scholars (Healy & Perry 2000; Guba & Lincoln 1994), the philosophical assumptions surrounding the research paradigm can be grouped as positivism, critical theory, constructivism and realism. Philosophical assumptions that depict these four different paradigms are summarised in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Four categories of scientific paradigms and their elements

Element	Paradigm			
	Positivism	Critical theory	Constructivism	Realism
Ontology	Reality is real and apprehensible	"Virtual" reality shaped by social, economic, ethnic, political, cultural, and gender values, crystallised over time	Multiple local and specific "constructed" realities	Reality is "real" but only imperfectly and probabilistically apprehensible
Epistemology	<i>Objectivist</i> : findings true	<i>Subjectivist</i> : value mediated findings	<i>Subjectivist</i> : created findings	<i>Modified objectivist</i> : findings probably true
Common methodologies	<i>Experiments/surveys</i> : verification of hypotheses, chiefly quantitative methods	<i>Dialogic/dialectical</i> : researcher is a "transformative intellectual" who changes the social world within which participants live	<i>Hermeneutical/dialectical</i> : researcher is a "passionate participant" within the world being investigated	<i>Case studies/convergent interviewing</i> : triangulation, interpretation of research issues by qualitative and by some quantitative methods such as structural equation modelling

Note. Essentially, ontology is 'reality', epistemology is the relationship between that reality and the researcher, and methodology is the technique used by the researcher to investigate that reality: adapted from Perry et al. (1997, p. 547) based on Guba and Lincoln (1994). Source: Healy and Perry (2000)

Positivism prevails in science and presumes that research quantitatively measures independent facts about a single apprehensible reality (Healy & Perry 2000). In other words, the data and its analysis are value-free and data do not change because they are being observed (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007). It is a position that holds that the true knowledge is based on experience of senses and can be obtained by observation and experiment (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007). Knowledge of anything beyond that, a positivist would hold, is impossible (Trochim 2010). Deductive reasoning is used to postulate theories that can be tested. Based on the results of studies, we may discover that a theory does not fit the facts well and so the theory must be altered to better predict reality (Healy & Perry 2000).

As little is known about short-term assignments and much of the prior theoretical and empirical research is descriptive (Brewster, Harris & Petrovic 2001), it appears that adopting purely positivist paradigm is inappropriate for this thesis (Edmondson & Mcmanus 2007). Additionally, to understand the implications of short-term international teaching assignments for academics, the researcher must probe, figure, comprehend, and revise meanings from the experience of academics within the context of diverse and complex organisations (Lincoln & Guba 1985).

While positivist researchers are said to separate themselves from the world they study, researchers within other paradigms are more inclined to recognize that they have to participate in real-world life to some extent in order to comprehend and articulate its emergent properties and features (Thyer 2010; Denscombe 2007). Critical theory and constructivism paradigms are qualitative interpretivist approaches that assume that knowledge and meaning are acts of interpretation, because objective knowledge is dependent on human thinking and reasoning (Healy & Perry 2000; Ticehurst & Veal 2000). Investigations using these qualitative paradigms utilise inductive reasoning to produce rich data for theory building (Sobh & Perry 2006; Cavana, Delahaye & Sekaran 2001).

In contrast to positivists' preference for statistical rigour, critical theory relies upon conceptions of trustworthiness and authenticity, criteria that endure from absence of a common standard of measurement (Kincheloe & McLaren 2000). Critical theorists contribute and influence results of a research process (Guba & Lincoln 1994), aiming for a transformative outcome (Clark 2010). Thus, utilising purely critical theory appears less appropriate as this thesis seeks to examine and understand the extent to which short-term international teaching assignments impact on academics' career success and work-life balance, however the process of undertaking the research does not aim to change the nature of short-term international teaching assignments.

As opposed to positivism, constructivism takes a relativist position that assumes multiple and equally valid realities (Schwandt 1994). Fundamentally, researchers who favour constructivism embrace the notion that reality is constructed in the mind of the individual, rather than being an externally singular entity (Hanson et al. 2005). Advocates of constructivism highlight the goal of understanding the *lived experiences (Erlebnis)* from the point of view of those who live it day-to-day (Schwandt 2000). The constructivist position adopts a hermeneutical approach, which asserts that meaning is hidden and must be brought to the surface through deep reflection (Schwandt 2000). This paradigm further suggests that each person's constructed reality has a strong influence on their behaviour (Healy & Perry 2000). In

particular, any external reality is relatively unimportant. Thus, this paradigm also appears less applicable to this thesis because, in working with *flying academics*, HRM have to deal with managing employees and this necessarily involves comparing and managing many constructed realities and an organisational reality that may be external to academics.

Owing to the limitations of the discussed paradigms, a realism approach was considered the most appropriate paradigm for this thesis. The rationale for this discussion follows.

Realism

Realism is *plural with respect to methodologies and theories* (Olsen 2004, p. 4), presenting a sound platform for integrated mixed-methods research. Generally, realism is the view that material objects exist externally to us and independently of our sense experience (Hirst 1967). Within the realism paradigm, abstract things, born of people's minds, exist independently of any one person (Magee 1985). A person's perceptions are a window on to that unclear, external reality (Magee 1985). Realists recognize the variation between the world and particular perceptions of it, and the significance of that world (Perry, Riege & Brown 1998). However, realists believe there is only one reality although that reality must be triangulated with other people's perceptions (Perry, Riege & Brown 1998).

In realism, triangulation enables mixing of data types in validating any knowledge claims proposed by researchers (Olsen 2004). An aim of realism research is discovery of observable and non-observable structures, and instruments that underlie events and experiences (Kazi 2003; Tsoukas 1989). In short, a rationale for using a realism paradigm in this thesis was that it would support a comprehensive and rigorous approach, embracing both inductive and deductive reasoning. This rationale is explained in Figure 3.1, which summarises a representative range of

methodologies from theory-building to theory-testing methodologies, depicting methodological triangulation in realism research.

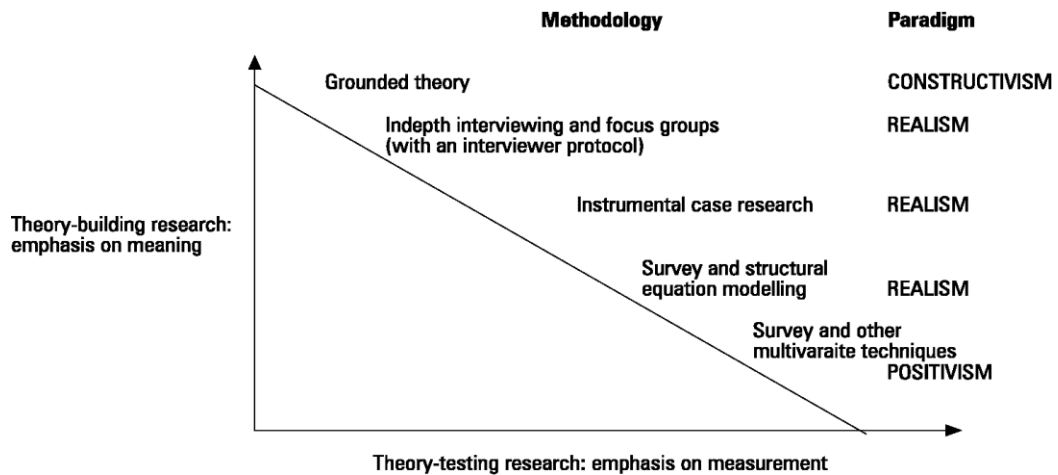


Figure 3.1 A representative range of methodologies and their related paradigms
Source: Healy and Perry (2000)

Mixed-Methods

In line with a realism paradigm, a mixed methods research approach is employed in this thesis. In general, *mixed-methods research employs both qualitative and quantitative approaches in data collection*, the application of which is on the rise academic literature (Tashakkori & Creswell 2007, p. 47). However, only a relatively few studies of expatriates have employed mixed methods research design, particularly in which triangulation plays a critical role (Kießling & Harvey 2005).

The idea that mixed method studies permit researchers to pragmatically access the best of both [qualitative and quantitative] worlds is clearly advantageous (Giddings 2006). Results can be generalised through the use of quantitative data while providing individual voices through the use of qualitative data (Tashakkori & Teddlie

2003). Blending together both quantitative and qualitative approaches in research is said to provide valuable insights and enhance the validity of a study (Welter & Lasch 2008; Rugg & Petre 2007).

Despite the advantages of mixed-methods, the integration of qualitative and quantitative methodologies is challenging (Cameron 2011). A number of studies (Cameron 2011; Wiggins 2011; Creswell et al. 2003) highlight the limited resources with which to conduct mixed-methods research, including time, money, and personnel. Another issue is access to tools and programs with which to store and arrange data to integrate both qualitative and quantitative information (Creswell 2011; Wiggins 2011).

A mixed methods approach was selected for this thesis in order to overcome the weaknesses of each individual approach, strengthening theory building, hypothesis testing, and generalising results (Creswell 2009; Morell & Tan 2009; Rugg & Petre 2007). This decision is in keeping with what Lincoln and Guba (1985) observed as the choice between research paradigms, wherein decisions concerning research approaches consider the best fit between a paradigm and phenomenon being studied.

The application of mixed-methods is viewed as complementary rather than as a rivalry (Patton 2002), providing a breadth of perspectives on the phenomena being investigated (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner 2007). Thus, the employment of mixed-methods and triangulation promised to enrich the thesis with richness of data providing a high degree of accuracy and therefore valid results and conclusions (Maylor & Blackmon 2005). From the thesis's conception to results, the mixed methods approach was used to guide the current research design, data collection, data analysis, and the reporting of findings.

Research Design

The research design is the overarching framework for a study that is a statement of how all aspects of the research are interrelated (Bryman & Bell 2007). The selected research design must be within the chosen paradigms and methodology to protect the quality and validity of research (Cavana et al., 2001). This two-phase mixed methods thesis examines issues related to academics, using multiple sources of data including interviews and surveys. Whilst the previous discussion provides a theoretical foundation for the two-phase research design of this thesis, the following sections explain and justify the process undertaken.

Exploratory Sequential Design

An exploratory design is the specific type of mixed methods design used for this study. This design is appropriate because of the lack of specific instruments and a guiding theory related to short-term international teaching assignments. The design began with the exploration of the phenomenon and the discovery of an emergent framework (Creswell & Plano Clark 2007).

The present design is characterized by an initial phase of qualitative data collection (Study 1) and analysis followed by a phase of quantitative data collection (Study 2) and analysis (Creswell & Plano Clark 2007). By using sequential procedures, a researcher seeks to elaborate on or expand the findings of one method with another method (Creswell 2009). The results from the qualitative phases assist in developing and informing the quantitative phase. Figure 3.2 is a diagram of the exploratory mixed methods design.

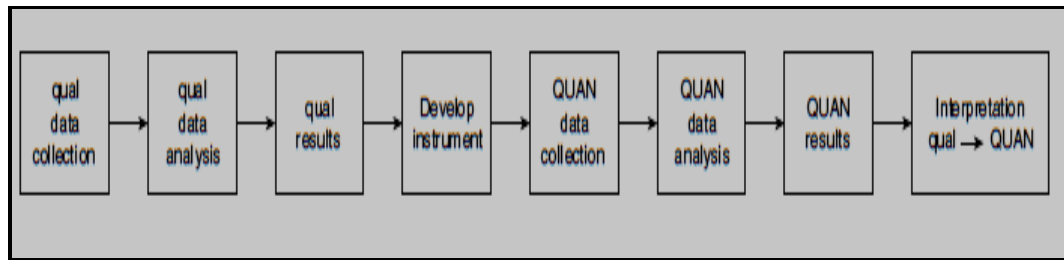
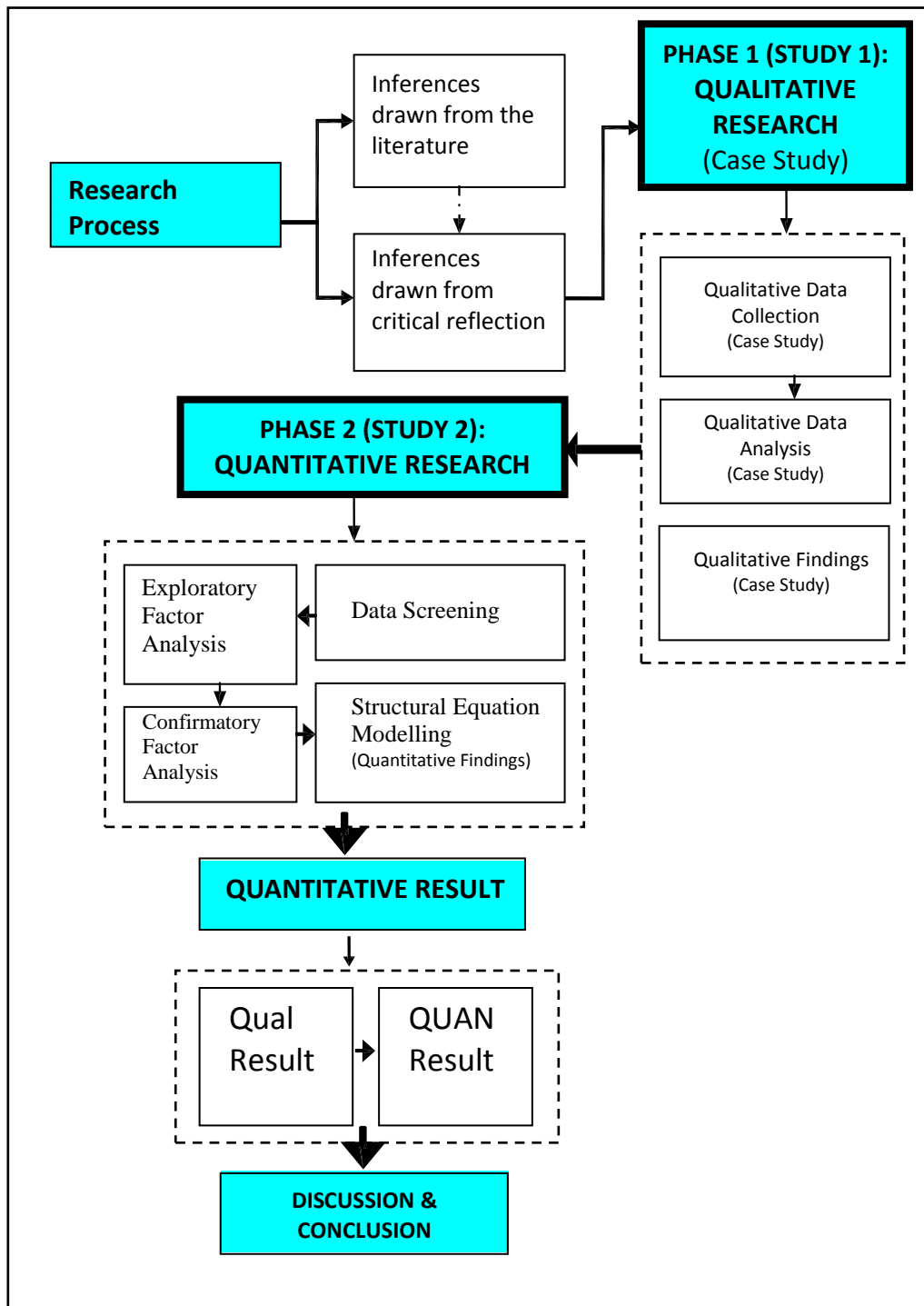


Figure 3.2 Exploratory Mixed Methods Design (Creswell & Plano Clark 2007)

As outlined in Figures 3.3, this thesis involves two phases (Study 1 & 2). Phase 1 (Study 1) involves qualitative research utilising a case study design explained subsequently in this chapter. Selected academics were interviewed to develop an in-depth understanding of their experiences in short-term international teaching assignments. Findings assist in identifying support factors and eliminating redundant variables. The qualitative component of this thesis assists in clarifying not only individual participant responses but also ensures that conclusions drawing from the literature review and critical reflection are valid.

For Phase 2 (Study 2), concepts derived from qualitative findings are operationalised, and hypotheses are tested with quantitative techniques. The cross-sectional survey research design utilised in this phase solicits responses from academics. Information derived from the quantitative phase permits data triangulation and generalisation of information to a larger population. A number of measures were used to elicit data in this study, including scales developed by researchers (e.g., Fisher et al. 2009; Stephens et al. 1998; Greenhaus et al. 1990) and adapted for this thesis. This study also aims to extend Eisenberger et al. (1986) by exploring dimensions of organisation support in a non-domestic setting.



Figures 3.3: Design of the Present Two-phase Mixed Methods Study

Method

The section below outlines the case study design for Study 1, data collection procedures; and the present case study.

Case Study Method (Study 1)

A case study design was applied because it was an appropriate method for the research questions addressed. Over the years, case study research has steadily gained prominence in many areas and disciplines (Denscombe 2007). Eisenhardt (1989, p. 534) defined the case study approach as *a research strategy which focuses on understanding the dynamics present within single settings*. Literature (Siggelkow 2007; Denzin & Lincoln 2000) reveals the application of the case study method is advantageous when a holistic in-depth investigation is required. Yin (2009) suggested that case studies are appropriate to answer exploratory questions such as ‘how’ and ‘why’, rather than ‘who’, ‘what’ and ‘where’ questions. This advantage is particularly relevant for this thesis, with its requirement to comprehend how short-term international teaching assignments affect academics’ career success and work-life balance.

Yin (2009, p. 18) further stated that a case study strategy *investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used*. Under this definition, a case-study method encourages triangulation. It has the capacity to embrace multiple paradigms (Dooley 2002) and mixed methods application (Denscombe 2007), allowing more in-depth relationships and processes to be analysed. A number of authors (Yin 2009; Dooley 2002; Denzin & Lincoln 2000; Eisenhardt 1989) conclude that case study research contributes to all phases of theory development, in a complete way.

However, the main criticism of case studies is the lack of generalizability of findings (Yin 2009; Flyvbjerg 2006). Criticisms centre on how researcher can justify making generalizations from a limited number of cases (Dooley 2002). Such criticism

frequently emanates from studies where there is no substantial indication of the degree to which a case is representative of other cases (Flyvbjerg 2006). Other criticism focuses on the potential for researcher bias (Stake 2000) and replication problems (Gerring 2007).

In response to such criticisms, Yin (2009) contended that the relative size of the sample used does not change a multiple case into a macroscopic study. Correspondingly, even a single case could be considered adequate, as long as it achieves the set objective (Yin 2009; Stake 2000; Tellis 1997). Yin (2009) explains that parameters are created via the objective of the study, which is applicable to all research. Yin (2009, p. 15) explains that *in doing a case study, your goal will be to expand and generalize theories (analytic generalization) and not to enumerate frequencies (statistical generalizations)*.

Similarly, authors (Yin 2009; Edmondson & Mcmanus 2007; Teagarden et al. 1995; Eisenhardt 1989) agree that single case studies are useful for inductive theory building in the early development of a field of research. Single case studies allow researchers to comprehend and challenge specific issues that emerge (Dyer & Wilkins 1991) or confirm a theory (Yin 2009). Both Gerring (2007) and Yin (1981) concurred that it is improper to equate case studies with the norms of experimental design, which specify that a single case study or a small group of cases could never offer a persuasive justification for a single variable. Interestingly, Stake (1995) went so far as to consider bias as positive, highlighting that the case study is situational, distinct, and intricate.

Most case studies should contribute to theory (Dul & Hak 2008; Siggelkow 2007). Nevertheless, opinions are divided amongst researchers in the use of conceptual theory. Indeed, there appear to be two contrasting views. Eisenhardt (1989) favors case studies for developing theory inductively and suggests that research should remain open to new potentials, therefore, remaining as close as possible to the ideal of having no preconceived theories or hypotheses to test. Coffey and Atkinson (1996), however, consider that theory building is inventive and intellectual work. The

theory building process involves clarification and categorisation of concepts (Denscombe 2007). Theory is induced from identifying patterns of relationships among constructs within or across cases of investigated subject (Dul & Hak 2008).

In contrast, Yin (2009) suggested a more focused approach with a priori constructs, advocating deductive or theory testing using case studies. Theory-testing case studies follow hypothetic-deductive logic by first stating hypotheses and then striving to test the propositions (Dul & Hak 2008). Nevertheless, both Eisenhardt (1989) and Yin (2009) concurred that a definition of research questions and a priori constructs are beneficial in the initial design phase of research.

Owing to the dearth of empirical research on *flying academics* and the likelihood that research on expatriation has limited generalizability to academics, an inductive single case study is deemed appropriate for this thesis. The depth of exploration is achieved by selecting participants (e.g., different position, age, gender, tenure) that maximize the diversity relevant to the research questions. This approach ensures the identification of key common patterns that cut across variations (Gerring 2007). It also allows findings to be confirmed across organisations where participants have similar short-term international teaching experiences.

In keeping within this inductive case study approach (Eisenhardt 1989), data are collected and analysed using an exploratory rather than a confirmatory hypothesis-testing approach (Eisenhardt 1989). Patterns are identified in the data, and then the present researcher returned to the literature for conceptual explanation of those patterns. Finally, hypotheses are developed on the basis of the findings. Even though analysing data from a single case study does not build reliability in extending theory, this qualitative component of study (Study 1) was both important and fundamental because it confirmed whether the issues under examination represented a theoretical difference and merited further consideration.

Participants

Choosing the ideal sample size for interviews rests on what is to be found and why, and how the findings are to be applied (Patton 1990). In Study 1, eleven academics (eight males, three females) were interviewed. The sample size in this study is relatively small in view of the fact that this study is exploratory rather than confirmatory in nature. Within the realm of management, small samples have been used effectively in the past to explore phenomenon (Mintzberg 1979; Mintzberg 1973).

The number of participants was decided in consideration of previous studies (Fischlmayr & Kollinger 2010; Mayerhofer et al. 2004) and the nature of convergent interviewing. Both Guest et al. (2006) and Romney, Batchelder, and Weller (1986) agree that small sample size is able to achieve data saturation and sufficient information, providing that the sample is homogenous (e.g., flying academics) and possess expertise about the domain of inquiry. According to Guest et al. (2006), the data collection can stop when data saturation (defined as the point when no further input is being found and properties of the category can be developed) is reached.

In this study, participants were chosen according to some common criteria and they had experiences and competency with respect to the research domain. The participants for this research study were identified through a purposeful sampling technique. Purposeful sampling is the method of choice for most qualitative researchers (Costello & Osborne 2005; Rao & Perry 2003; Fabrigar et al. 1999; Miles & Huberman 1994). Purposeful sampling is a strategy employed to achieve *information-rich cases* (Patton 1987, p. 52). The type of purposeful sampling techniques used to select the participants for this study was criterion, which allows patterns to emerge (Patton 2002). Inclusion criteria are having worked in Australian universities, and have travelled to other countries to teach in transnational programs. The criterion sample was identified as available and willing to be interviewed in person.

This study ensures maximum variation by sampling participants across different level of seniority, age, gender; and years teaching offshore. Briefly, participants included Deputy Head of School, a Director of International Teaching, four Senior Lecturers, and five Lecturers, who are involved in offshore teaching programs in either Singapore, Malaysia, Hong Kong, Vietnam, and Shanghai. A profile of the interviewees appears in Table 3.2. Consistent with issues of confidentiality, interviewee names are disguised with a numeric 1 to 12.

Table 3.2: Participants' Profile

Name	Age	Marital Status	No. of Children	Level of Teaching Assignment	Experience in Teaching (years)	Experience in Offshore Teaching (years)	Countries of offshore teaching
P1	50-59	Married/De facto	2	Undergraduate teaching	Over 20	10	Malaysia, Singapore Vietnam & Hong Kong
P2	40-49	Married/De facto	2	Undergraduate teaching	18	13	China, Hong Kong, Malaysia & Singapore
P3	60 or greater	Married/De facto	4	Undergraduate teaching	16	16	China, Hong Kong & Singapore
P4	50-59	Married/De facto	2	Undergraduate teaching	6	3	Hong Kong, Singapore & Vietnam
P5	40-49	Married/De facto	-	Undergraduate teaching & Postgraduate research	15	10	China, Hong Kong, Malaysia & Singapore
P6	40-49	Married/De facto	1	Undergraduate teaching	13	1	Hong Kong & Singapore
P7	50-59	Married/De facto	-	Undergraduate teaching & Postgraduate research	8	5	Hong Kong & Singapore
P8	40-49	Married/De facto	2	Undergraduate teaching & Postgraduate research	Over 10	2	Hong Kong, Singapore & Vietnam
P9	60 or greater	Single	2	Undergraduate teaching	35	5	Hong Kong & Singapore
P10	40-49	Married/De facto	No answer	Undergraduate teaching & Postgraduate research	15	3	China
P11	30-40	Married/De facto	No answer	Undergraduate teaching & Postgraduate research	6	3	China, Hong Kong & Singapore

Instrument

In this study, the method of data gathering consisted of semi-structured interviews, document analysis, and a researcher's reflective journal. The following section outlines the details:

Interviews

The study design was a qualitative analysis using face-to-face exploratory semi-structured interviews. The face-to-face interviews enabled the researcher to comprehend experiences and attitudes (Dilley 2000); emotions and feelings (Ticehurst & Veal 2000); gestures and facial expressions made by the respondents, allowing for deeper understanding and interpretation (Hesse-Biber & Leavy 2006). The objective of the interview is to gain insights into the research problem and serves as a preliminary investigation of the phenomenon. A medium-length (often 30–60 min) interview was carried out.

Convergent Interviewing

The convergent interviewing technique was applied in this study. Dick (1990) coined the term *convergent interviewing* as a technique which collects, analyses, and interprets data through the use of a limited number of interviews with selected experts in the field. Jepsen and Rodwell (2008) states that the convergent interviewing technique assists the discovery of key or deep-seated issues in a population.

In convergent interviewing, the first interview serves as a tentative interpretation of the data (Dick 1990). As the research proceeds, probe questions are formed to check the pattern of agreements (convergence) or disagreements (divergence) of the participant's interpretations (Nair & Riege 1995). The method is utilised to refine both points of agreement and disagreement until a consensus is attained (Dick 1990).

Indeed, it is a cyclic process, converging on key issues rapidly in an area of emergent research (Rao & Perry 2003).

Reige and Nair (2004) conclude that convergent interviewing is highly suitable for exploratory, inductive research such as that required for Study 1 of this research, and the method also complies with requirement of validity and credibility (Lincoln & Guba 1985), specifying that the method leads to the subject matter being accurately identified and described (Golafshani 2003).

Document Analysis

The researcher also used document analysis as a means of supplementing the interview data. Documents related to research are published and unpublished printed materials, such as company reports, letters, government reports, visuals memos, faxes, and newspaper articles (Silverman 2001). The documentary sources for Study 1 included university working offshore policy, university working offshore procedure, university website, university annual report, National Tertiary Education Union (NTEU) report and Enterprise Bargaining Agreement (EBA)(RMIT University 2011a).

Reflective Journal

By encouraging reflection on the process, journal writing can enhance researcher's capacity to reflect and interpret the findings. A reflective journal is a non-intrusive mechanism for recording a researcher's impression and thoughts throughout the research process (Plack et al. 2005). In Study 1, journal notes were written during and after interviews, and while listening to recorded interviews. Notes on the researcher's first impressions, the date and time of interview, the responses received and appointments made were recorded to complement the interpretation of interview data. The reflective journal provide a critical reflection time for the researcher to reconstruct and deeply understand the impact of short-term international teaching assignments on academics.

Data Collection Procedures

The participants were identified from RMIT University website. Thirty academics were approached by email and invited to take part in the study (see Appendix B). Eleven academics agreed to participate. Follow-up emails that summarized the purpose of the study and requested written consent (see Appendix C) were sent to these academics. Interview sessions were conducted in private, usually in the participant's general work area. A comfortable interview setting for participants was expected to stimulate the cooperation and readiness to discuss their views on the themes related to their situation. Furthermore, the more secure respondents feel, the more likely they are to elaborate their answers on the research topic (Gubrium et al. 2012; Gillham 2005). After each interview, notes were made and the information was immediately checked. Further interpretations or reflections were added to ensure that relevant information was not overlooked.

Interview Protocol

An interview protocol was developed and used during the interviewing process in order to initiate and refocus discussion when necessary. In convergent interviewing, the process is semi-structured (Dick 1990). In line with this principle, the interview begins with as open a question as possible, later moving onto specific issues. All relevant issues were addressed and consistently communicated to the interviewees. The expansion of progressive information after each interview functions as a useful medium for production of research findings (Driedger et al. 2006; Williams & Lewis 2005).

Demographic information was also collected from each participant. The researcher used background data collection forms to determine the gender, age, level of teaching assignment, current job title, and number of years in teaching offshore of each participant. In the interviews, participants were encouraged to recollect their offshore teaching experiences and answered a series of questions about the assignment. The

interviews elicited accounts in which participants could describe and interpret their experiences of short-term international teaching assignments in their own words.

Participants were asked to discuss their concerns and perceptions, as well as the factual details of their experiences. Current practices, perceived issues, and broad individual expectations about short-term international teaching assignments were explored through the interviews, in particular, their perception of organisational support in short-term international teaching assignments, and the impact of the organisational support on career success and work-life balance.

Generally, the questioning followed the specified sequence in the interview protocol, although in some cases dialogue was adjusted to ensure a relaxing atmosphere. The researcher also practised active listening aimed at motivating each interviewee to provide more descriptions and explanations (Gillham 2005). In doing so, she suspended judgment, listened attentively, used eye contact, and paraphrased each interviewee's responses to signify understanding and to present opportunities for clarification or additional information. Though the interview allowed for probes and clarifications during interviews, the researcher aimed to follow the semi-structured protocol. An example of interview protocol is provided in Appendix D.

Confidentiality and Data Security

This thesis followed Ethics Guideline Procedures outlined by RMIT University in the Ethics Review Process. Ethics approval was obtained to carry out this research (Reference: Ethics Appl.1000124, Appendix E).

Qualitative Reliability and Validity

In qualitative research, Lincoln and Guba (1985) substituted reliability and validity with the parallel concept of *trustworthiness*, meaning credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability. In this study, trustworthiness was sought through specific verification procedures including triangulation, and peer debriefing. Triangulation of data collection was achieved through comparative analysis of data sources in the form of interviews, documents, and researcher's reflective journal.

Peer debriefing was also executed by a graduate colleague, who re-evaluated and enquired about the researcher's perspectives and assumptions on the findings. Lincoln and Guba (1985, p. 308) concluded that peer debriefing is *a process of exposing oneself to a disinterested peer in a manner paralleling an analytic session and for the purpose of exploring aspects of the inquiry that might otherwise remain only implicit within the inquirer's mind*. Peer debriefing provided an opportunity for the researcher to test the plausibility and accuracy of the data interpretations from the study. As the analysis progressed, feedback from peers involved in similar qualitative research led to alternative examinations and explanations for the evidence which had not been considered previously. This technique assisted researcher to refine the provisional interpretations and framework.

Data Analytic Procedures

Interview material was transcribed by the present investigator. Patton (2002) recommends researchers do at least some of their own transcription work as a way of getting *immersed in the data* (Patton 2002, p. 441). On average, 8-10 hours were required per interview and the transcript sizes ranged from 6 to 18 pages. The researcher agrees with Bryman and Bell (2007) that transcribing is a time consuming and tedious job, but serves as a useful tool to assist comprehension.

Transcripts were read and analysed using open coding until patterns of groups and themes emerged (Creswell 2007). With coding, each word, sentence, paragraph, and passage is measured as a feasible unit of text. Codes are short-hand terms (i.e., working hours, promotion and financial) that are used to classify units of texts. Continuous comparisons were made between codes created and data gathered in order to generate categories and to verify relationships. When the interviews were finalised, the converged key issues were examined for particular categories or groupings. After the initial categories were developed, subcategories were made and a codebook was developed. An analysis of the themes was performed by attempting to group the key issues in different ways and looking for similarities and differences between issues. The thematic categories were used to develop the survey for phase two of the research.

Case Study Background and Context

RMIT University has campuses in Melbourne, Vietnam and partnerships across the South-East Asian Region and is actively involved in transnational education. The university offers over 700 programs at vocational (TAFE), undergraduate, postgraduate and research levels (RMIT University 2010). In 2010, the RMIT university has 70,000 enrolled students with more than 29, 000 international students (RMIT University 2010). It has been a provider of award programs offshore since 1987 and the university's total student population includes 29,165 international students, of whom 17,250 are taught offshore (RMIT University 2010). Currently, RMIT University has the highest number of offshore students enrolment (DEEWR 2011b). Due to a large number offshore student enrolment, transnational education is integral to teaching and learning at the university. Table 3.3 details the university's statistical snapshot of enrolment.

Table 3.3 Student enrolment 2006-2010

Enrolments by Sector* (headcount)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010*
Onshore	8,899	9,134	10,077	11,148	11,915
Offshore	10, 622	10,837	11,735	11,444	11,585
Vietnam	1,841	2,914	3,964	4,893	5,665

Source: RMIT Annual Report, 2010 *HE enrolments data provisional as at March 2011.

To ensure that teaching operations are consistent between Australia-based and offshore deliveries, RMIT University establishes an academic plan that intends to embed international perspectives within curricula, and promote international mobility opportunities to enhance students' experience (RMIT University 2010). The university's strategic goals 2011-2015 indicate the university's objective is to achieve international excellence in curriculum and to deliver high quality service across all campuses and international partnerships (RMIT University 2010).

The Impact of Short-Term International Teaching Assignments

The university offshore programs are offered through 17 partners outside Australia, including in Singapore, Hong Kong, Kuala Lumpur, Shanghai and Colombo (RMIT University 2010). These programs have provided requirements for the university's

academics to travel internationally. Understanding the impact of short-term international teaching assignments on these academics is a crucial step in planning and implementing effective support programs. Specifically, the semi-structured face to face interviews aimed to clarify one of the central research questions: How do short-term international teaching assignments affect academics' career success and work-life balance?

Career Impact

Overall, the results suggest that short-term international teaching assignments have an impact on the person's overall career success that can be both positive and negative. Table 3.5 summarises the responses from participants.

Table 3.5: Findings of the Interviews: Career impact

Career impact	Consensus Position on career impact	Dissenting Opinion or Additional observations
Link to Promotion	Many (9 out of 11) agreed that offshore teaching had no promotion value.	Five participants stated that transnational teaching was merely evaluated as similar to onshore teaching.
Research Activities	Many (9 out of 11) held the view that international assignments interfered with their research activities. All agreed that there was a lack of organisation support in integrating research and short-term international teaching assignments.	Two participants added that transnational teaching experiences assisted them in doing research.
Personal development	All believed that offshore teaching broaden their horizon, improving their approaches in multicultural classrooms.	
Creation of social capital	Many (8 out of 11) discussed creating networks with individuals internally and externally to the partner universities. Some (4 out of 11) stated that the expanded network assisted them in knowledge sharing and collaboration.	For career benefits, one participant highlighted that they had to take personal initiative in expanding network.
External marketability	Many (7 out of 11) acknowledged that transnational teaching increases participants' marketability to other prospective employers.	Three participants argued that their offshore teaching experiences are only valuable to universities involved in transnational education.

The majority of participants (9 out of 11) indicated that international assignment experiences were detrimental to their career progression and felt that organisation did not acknowledge short-term international teaching assignments as a major component of employees' career progression planning. It was suggested that the

capability to demonstrate a high degree of a dedication, adaptability, and resilience as demanded by an international assignment, was not recognized by their organisation in any formal or positive manner. For example, participant 3, explained: *I think transnational teaching has no promotion value. It has no dimension to it at all. It's not a factor. Promotion is almost exclusively linked to your academic research and publications.*

In this context of a research-driven career path, the current findings also demonstrate that short-term international teaching assignments are often viewed as a *career disruption*. The participants argued that repetitive short-term mobility coupled with a tiresome travelling routine, offshore teaching load and a lack of proper organisation support imposed fatal interruptions to research activities. Participants felt that they had been lagging behind their peers who did not teach offshore in term of research productivity. Consequently, the more frequently academics are required to travel, the larger the potential negative impact on their research activities. Due to this issue, many participants (9 out of 11) agreed that short-term international teaching assignments can sometimes have a detrimental effect on career success. In terms of promotion, all agreed that research proved more beneficial for them rather than teaching transnationally. Participant 6 commented: *I think it takes a lot of time, particularly administrative time. The impact largely comes with a cost to research.*

In contrast, the present findings also suggest that short-term international teaching assignments have the potential to bring multiple career benefits. Some participants (4 out of 11) explained that the professional development that it creates is rare and valuable and believed that transnational teaching had enhanced their career development. Two participants shared their perspectives on their international assignments: *In my case, it's a valuable career opportunity but I am probably a bit unusual. My research is about X. So, you know it's very relevant. It is where I want my career path to go* (Participant 7). Participant 2 explained: *I think it's quite valuable particularly in my case because I'm interested in X. Going to Asia is a part of my research interest indirectly. It does add up to my general interest and understanding of Asian IR and politics.*

Participants also agreed that the international exposure was a transforming experience for them. They stated that teaching transnationally entailed not only knowledge of the taught subject but also understanding of the local context. Accordingly, participants gained a deeper understanding of their international students' background, norms and values, which they considered important in creating an effective learning environment. They also believed that their valuable experiences and competencies have the potential to further impact on their approaches in multicultural classrooms in Australia. This finding is illustrated in the following comment: *You get the opportunity to view different culture perspectives from different students and you can bring it back with you* (Participant 1).

It is also emerged in the findings that short-term international teaching assignments contribute to the creation of social capital through networking activity. Specifically, the participants perceived that they established not only the personal relationships within the partner universities, but also relationships with individuals external to the partner universities such as key people in their research area. Some participants (4 out of 11) mentioned that teaching transnationally assisted them in information access, which allowed more opportunity for knowledge sharing and collaboration. Participant 4, a senior academic talking about his experiences of teaching in China: *Apart from teaching, I'm doing a joint paper with someone from China. I want another dimension because I think the paper will be richer. The person I'm working with is very intelligent, a senior manager in China and he has a very good PhD.*

Another important finding is that transnational teaching increases participants' marketability to other prospective employers. Universities whose branch and programmes are spread across foreign countries would benefit from academics who can draw upon firsthand knowledge of the offshore programmes and who are able to respond appropriately in diverse cultural conditions. Participant 2 spoke about how short-term international teaching assignments make him more marketable: *When I came to this university, I was able to say that I've taught in Asia. I got the experience and I'm willing to go. So, people probably think that is a good thing. I'll be a useful member of the team and I'll be able to fit it in that sense.*

Work-Life Balance Impact

Similar to Shaffer et al. (2001), this study has found that short-term international teaching assignments have an impact on academics' work-life balance. In order to understand the nature of the impact, participants were asked to identify the change in their work-life balance when they were assigned short-term international teaching assignments. Four work-life issues invariably topped the list: family separation, long working hours, intrinsic rewards and new learning experiences. Table 3.4 contains a summary of participants' answers.

Table 3.4: Findings of the Interviews: work-life balance impact

Work-life balance impact	Consensus Position on work-life balance impact	Dissenting Opinion or Additional observations
Family separation	Many (7 out of 11) discussed about family separation when being asked the impact of short-term assignments on their work-life balance. Most agreed that work-life balance was non-existent when they were offshore.	One participant added that his partner travelled a lot. He did not have the stress of being separated from his partner and he enjoyed travelling. He further added that offshore teaching improved his work-life balance.
Impact of family separation	Many (7 out of 11) agreed that they felt guilty leaving the family behind. They talked about the unfulfilled family responsibilities while they were offshore.	One participant argued that the impact of family separation was only significant to young families.
Long working hours	All were concerned about long working hours and stress associated with short-term assignments. They agreed it impacted negatively on their work performance.	
Intrinsic rewards	All agreed that they gained satisfaction from assisting students learn, seeing their successes, and making a difference in their lives.	
New learning experiences	They (8 out of 11) enjoyed the new cultural experiences that generate positive spillover to personal domain.	Two participants argued that travelling encroached on the time available to spend with the family.

Family separation

The findings indicate that participants found it difficult to balance work and life during their international assignments. Participants stated that the nature of their assignments means being separated from their families. In the majority of cases (7 out of 11), the limited support from family and friends made the work domain more significant during the international assignments. Participant 8 noted: *Talking about the work-life balance, it (balancing) is difficult.* Participant 2 added: *You can't work your time around to suit your family requirement. Obviously when you're offshore, you don't have that flexibility. It does not exist at all.*

Indeed, it emerged that the key concern of academics was how to deal with the work-family interface during their international assignments. Participants sought to maintain regular communication with their families, and had to bear the cost of childcare while overseas. Apart from traveling employees' per diem reimbursement, all participants said they received no compensation for offshore teaching. The per diem allowances are fragmented into three categories - accommodation; food and drink (breakfast, lunch, and dinner); and incidentals (including laundry; hotel extras; phone calls) (Australia Taxation Office 2012).

A few participants reported (3 out of 11) that they had to stretch the per diem allowance to cover family expenses (e.g., childcare). A participant who disclosed to the interviewer that she faced difficulty to teach offshore: *Normally, I've to take my children to X to be with my parents, and I flew to Singapore. Then, I flew back to X to pick up my children and we went back to Melbourne. It's very expensive and I have to pay out of my pocket in order to teach offshore* (Participant 8).

Participants also explained that they had manifold responsibilities and commitments to others, both at work and outside of work. During short-term international teaching assignments, they could not fulfil their commitments to people in non-work domain such as their significant others, their children, their parents, their friends and their community. Participant 6 with daughter aged six years old explained that: *Here, you do nine to five sort of thing. You go home and you got the routine. You can assist with*

the cooking, you can assist with the cleaning and you can assist getting the child to the bed. There, you are sitting in the hotel room, killing time. Not particularly enjoyable.

Inevitably, most participants (7 out of 11) expressed that international assignments affect the whole family, not only the assignee. Indeed, the short-term international teaching assignments were found to have had the potential to cause stress for participants' spouses and other family members. According to family system theory, frequent travelling of a family member is a change that requires the family to restructure, develop, and adapt (Fingerman & Bermann 2000). Thus, these circumstances required a high degree of understanding and co-operation from the family. For example, participant 6 commented: *My wife has to take time off from work in order for her to be able to take over the responsibility.* Similarly, both participants 10 and 8 affirmed: *My partner has to do something that I would normally do* (Participant 10). *Both my husband and I are full time employees. When I am overseas, we have to arrange activities and work commitment accordingly. If it is more than a week, it becomes quite a challenge for me to arrange my family as well as work* (Participant 8).

This inability to fulfil the family commitments produced a significant amount of guilt in the majority of the participants (7 out 11). Participant 8, who disclosed that she felt guilty, leaving her two young children behind, commented: *When you came back, your family is waiting for you to sort out of things. No one is taking over when you left.*

Likewise, participant 2 who has had 13 years of offshore teaching experiences, remarked how the short-term international teaching assignments infringed on the work-home boundary, creating self-guilt: *You don't have that sort of flexibility especially related to family commitments. If there is necessity or they do something, I cannot join. If the children need to be taken somewhere or whatever, I cannot assist if I am overseas.* These findings confirm research (Starr & Currie 2009), which indicates the significant role of family-related issues in short-term assignments. In

line with the expatriate literature (Starr & Currie 2009; Shortland & Cummins 2007), family separation is widely known to be a cause of stress for expatriates.

Long working hours

The second emerging theme identified is *long working hours*. Specifically, participants are likely to have spillover between the work and non-work domains when they are on short-term international teaching assignments.

According to the participants, teaching across national borders requires different approaches. Participant 2 explained that the number of students with language difficulties and a huge number of students in a class were the common scenario in transnational teaching. Academics are required to adapt and adjust their teaching in a shorter period of time (Smith 2009a). As also found by Pyvis and Chapman (2004), the fact that students had worked all day and they were often tired made transnational teaching even more demanding.

Nevertheless, participants strongly stated that they must ensure that offshore students received a well-delivered course equivalent to those at the university's home campus. Effective teaching of international students in a foreign context requires the ability to respond appropriately to cultural differences, to understand local factors and to make adjustments in communication style when necessary (Hoare 2006). Consequently, participants expressed that such circumstances created distinctive challenges to prepare for teaching in transnational programs.

Some participants (6 out of 11) attempted to meet the needs and interests of local students by incorporating local readings and case studies to enhance the learning experiences. As a result, the planning and preparation stage typically involves long working hours prior departure and during sojourns. Unfortunately, the long working hours involved in the process were considered by respondents to have been unnoticed and overlooked by the organisation. In particular, participant 3 explained: *A lot*

pressure on having a good quality program and making sure that students are being treated appropriately and respectably. But in term of work-life balance, I don't think I get enough leisure.

Participants further described the working days overseas as tiring, busy and challenging. It was typically very difficult for them to have relaxing days off due to an intensive teaching module and students' inquiries. To exemplify, participants stated that a HK teaching model involved an intensive two weekend delivery of course material by the subject coordinator. Academics arrived on Thursday or Friday and their classes commenced on the same day from 6 to 10 pm. On Saturday, the teaching schedule started at 2 pm until 10 pm. On Sunday, the classes started at 9 am to 5 pm. After a marathon of lectures and students' inquiries, they found themselves too tired to do much of anything.

Participants also indicated that they found themselves teaching in the partner universities without any backup plan. If they got sick, they most likely had to continue teaching, a situation which they found added extra stress and challenge. Overall, the amount of time participants committed to non-work domain was substantially less than the time devoted to work. Participants were more likely to give priority to students' inquiries and invitations than their own leisure. The following remarks illustrate the above findings:

I'm so tired. What I'll do is spend the day in bed (after weekend teaching).

That's true. I've never wake up before the lunch hour (Participant7).

Lecturers are tired. Students are tired. Of course when you go and disappear, they don't have the support like the onshore module (Participant 6).

I am mentally and physically tired (Participant 8).

Some of the students showed up in the office during the break. You have a few students who want to talk about academic work, personal issue or

complain about other students. It's really wearing. At the end of the day, I fell asleep (Participant 5).

During short-term international teaching assignments, academics are accommodated at five star hotels. This may explain why some of participants complained that their colleagues labelled short-term international teaching assignments as a *vacation trip* to foreign countries. In reality, time was usually spent making lesson plans for the day, answering students' email and doing research. Participant 4 pointed out: *We are doing onshore and offshore duties as well. People think that is a luxury to stay at the five star hotels. It's just another room and you hook up to the computer.*

In summary, even though the participants were given *days off*, some participants did not really have *days off*. They strongly agreed that transnational teaching required a great amount of skill and commitment. In addition to teaching skills, participants must be able to interact with both students and other members of the faculty in the partner universities. In fact, students always contacted them, and they expected participants to respond rapidly to their questions. This makes the transnational teaching experience even more challenging. For example, participant 2 stated: *When I'm offshore, I'm mainly working, focusing on the course, doing the research and answering students' email. I am doing a lot of work. I don't get a lot of leisure.* Participant 6 expressed frustration as highlighted in the following quote: *It's not enjoyable. It is not fun and fulfilling. It's tiring and you're not spending as much time with students as you like to be and there's distance (geographic).*

Apart from teaching, participants were aware of their role of ambassador for the university. A few of academics (3 out 11) were invited to dinner with management people from the partner universities. They realized that they had dual roles: teaching and forging relationships overseas. Participant 11 added: *I have been invited to attend dinner with their management people. They even asked me a lot of questions on university planning, strategic direction and administration issues.*

Many participants (6 out of 11) perceived insufficient organisational support with the inability of organisation to measure the workload of short-term international teaching assignments. Moreover, academics struggled with the challenges in transnational teaching while still having teaching responsibilities on campus in Australia during the semester. The different timeframe between offshore offerings and the onshore offerings of each course worsens the workload of participants. A comment made by participant 5 reflects: *I'm frustrated about those issues (workload and work-life issues). I think that management doesn't quite appreciate how much work is actually involved in it.*

Intrinsic rewards

Although participants were more likely to discuss the negative effects on their work-life balance, they also talked about the positive effects of short-term international teaching assignments. It is interesting to note that all academics in this study felt that they had an intrinsic reward as a result of transnational teaching. One academic reflected that: *Indulging your research interest and see people change to develop is very rewarding. I see some of my students really learn about the thing that they didn't know is a wonderful experience. It's very enriching and that's why most people stay in this field* (Participant 4). One academic's comment summarised the impact: *It makes a difference to somebody's life. That's very rewarding* (Participant 7).

New learning experiences

In terms of work-related issues, participants discussed having new experiences dealing with different countries. Indeed, participants indicated that teaching in foreign countries can be a remarkable cultural experience. For example, Participant 5, a middle-aged male academic with a partner, commented: *My partner also travels. We do not need to be home together a lot. I do not have that stress being away and I actually enjoy travelling. So, I think it serves a bigger advantage.*

He further explained: *For me, actually offshore teaching improves my work-life balance as it gives me more flexibility in terms of time structure. It is nice to experience another culture. It's horrible sitting on the plane and going to the airports. Not glamorous but being in another culture and country is great. It is personally rewarding. It makes us more global.* Similarly, participant 1, a female employee with grown up children stated: *The fact that you've gone for seven, ten days for young family is very significant. For somebody like myself whose children have grown up, it's not such a problem.*

Perceived Organisational Support

The common view among participants was that short-term international teaching assignments present significant challenges and risks that may impact their career and work-life balance. Therefore, organisational support plays a vital role in the short-term international teaching assignment process. While the organisation ostensibly supports the internationalisation of curriculum and practicalities aspect of short-term international teaching assignments, it is important to note that current support to academics is perceived to be insufficient.

This section addresses dimensions of perceived support in short-term international teaching assignments. It demonstrates how academics perceived specific support as significant in dealing with the challenges being abroad. Participants were specifically asked to discuss the type of support and workplace policies which they thought would enhance career success and work-life balance.

Organisation Support

As a major player in the Australian transnational education arena, RMIT University does have associated policies and working procedures. Among the policies is a *working offshore* policy (RMIT University 2011b). The main objectives of the policy are to support the university's strategic direction, provide an equitable framework for

staff working offshore and ensure that the staff have a good understanding of their rights and responsibilities when working offshore. Overall, the policy aims to support, attract and retain staff working offshore.

According to the university policy, the material support for offshore assignments includes travel to and from the offshore destination, temporary accommodation at offshore location, travel and health insurance, pre-departure medical advice and required vaccinations, pre-assignment briefing including overview of key tasks, key contacts offshore, destination preview and relocation assistance if applicable. The university policy further describes that staff required to work offshore will be provided with basic support depending on the location, duration and nature of the assignment.

However, accessing organisational policy in the RMIT website is difficult and time consuming. The policy is buried in too many layers of menus. Thus, having to navigate through layers of nested menus before reaching the policy content was frustrating for academics. Most participants emphasized that there was lack of information dissemination in regards to university policy. No participants expressed ever being informed about the policy. For example, participant 8 commented: *No one told me about the policy for us.*

Participants reported that organisation is merely providing the basic administration and services to support the travelling for offshore assignments. According to their perceptions, the organisation support failed to address their growing needs in dealing with the challenges of short-term international teaching assignments. As participant 2 implied: *I suppose they give a per diem allowance, a reasonable accommodation, and time off work. They give the basic. It could be better.*

The majority of participants (10 out of 11) commented that organisation should be aware of the emergent issues in short-term international teaching assignments and more support should be offered to academics. Findings also revealed that a lack of socio-emotional support (e.g., recognition) from the organisation created frustration among participants. One respondent noted: *They give support in terms of*

organisational well-being such as the course quality but they don't have any support at the individual level. (Participant 8)

Reflecting on their experiences teaching transnationally, most participants (10 out of 11) considered that there was insufficient information dissemination in relation to policy and support from the organisation. The types of support which were identified and discussed by the participants in the interviews predominantly focus on three major dimensions: HR, financial and career support.

HR Support

Many participants (9 out of 11) articulated that the complexity of teaching transnationally was not recognised in the university's current HR policies and practices. Consistent with the challenges associated with short-term international teaching assignments, more HR support for staff working in culturally diverse environments was perceived to be needed. The subsequent section discusses three major sub-themes that emerged, and that relate to HR practices: selection criteria, pre-departure training and work-life balance support. The following sections briefly describe each area.

Selection criteria

The majority of the participants (9 out of 11) held the opinion that no specific criteria or selection procedures existed for offshore teaching. Participants further claimed that it was a matter of getting the job done as they had the knowledge and competency to deliver the subject matter. As some participants noted: *I assisted somebody else to teach offshore and then all of sudden that person left. I was the only one who could do it because I was running the subject (Participant 4). I don't know that any specific criteria for teaching offshore exist at all. If there is, it has never been communicated to anybody. Whether the person is ethnocentric, rude, sexist, biased or good. It does not make any difference. You just get sent (Participant 7). I think it was a case of desperation (Participant 6).*

Conversely, two respondents stated that selection criteria were based on job competence: *...on the basis of teaching and disciplinary expertise* (Participant 1). Participant 2 noted: *They monitored my performance. I was allowed to go if they thought that I was going to be ok.*

The variation in opinions about the selection criteria clearly indicates that the selection process is unclear or not communicated to the employees. Many of the participants mentioned a more systematic selection process to enhance performance would be preferred. For example, participant 3 reported: *It is not just teaching. I will be representing the brand. It is the brand image and it is critical here. They would judge the university based on your performance and your cultural sensitivity.* He further argued: *It is important to send the right person because you cannot send someone who is going to destroy your brand.*

Based on findings, there was a clear view that the academics travelling to teach transnationally should be highly knowledgeable and competent (e.g., personal adaptability to foreign culture, familiarity with assignment country/local case studies). With a different cohort of international students in a foreign context, participants must ensure that offshore teaching should be equivalent to comparable courses onshore. Thus, the complexity of transnational teaching entails skills beyond the scope of the taught subject. Overall, participants agreed that the ability to connect and engage with students and local staff from partner universities in culturally diverse environments requires a careful recruitment decision. Table 3.6 presents summary of the findings.

Table 3.6: Findings of the Interviews: HR Practices Support (Recruitment and Selection)

Human Resource Issues	Consensus Position on Human Resource Issues	Dissenting Opinion or Additional observations
Academics Selection		
Selection process	Many participants (9 out of 11) agreed that there was no clear selection process. The selection criteria were almost non-existent or not communicated to the staff.	Two interviewees added that the criteria were based on teaching and disciplinary experiences.
Impact of selection process	Many interviewees (8 out of 11) believed it was a matter to get the job done. Some pointed out that there were people who hated Asia being sent offshore.	Without the selection process, one interviewee proclaimed that his qualification and experience in education was sufficient to undertake the short-term assignment.
Replacement issue	All participants were responsible to find the replacement if they rejected the short-term assignments. It was difficult for them to find the replacement in short notice. They depended on the peer support if there was a need for replacement.	
Academics Skills		
Job competence - covering technical skills, experience, approach to applying skills and understanding of development work/context	All interviewees stated that they had knowledge and competence of the subject matter.	
Soft skills- interpersonal skills, cultural skills and sensitivity	Many interviewees (7 out of 11) asserted that the organisation did not highlight soft skills as a major factor. It was not the determinant for evaluation.	Two interviewees argued that soft skill should be a significant factor to be considered in the selection process. The soft skills would facilitate the ability to adapt to the new environment.

Pre-departure training

When the researcher asked about pre-departure provision for offshore teaching, participants often referred almost immediately to past negative experiences with the organisation. To participants, lack of information and training were examples of how they perceived that the organisation treated them unfavourably. Individual interviews demonstrated that all information about their travel and destination is gathered through personal initiative. All agreed that they had not been provided with pre-departure training before being sent overseas. For instance, participant 7 explained: *Nothing. There is no briefing about the pragmatic aspects such as how to get to the airport. Nothing. The culture, about the country - nothing.*

In the university working offshore procedure, employees are recommended to register travel plans online via Smartraveller website under the Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade, Australian government (Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade 2012). The registration is intended to assist academics in obtaining country-specific health and safety advice.

Employees are also advised to visit the International SOS website prior to departure and print out an emergency contact card. In the case of emergency, employees should contact International SOS, a provider of 24-hour advice and assistance for medical, security or other emergencies (International SOS 2011). Based on the university procedure, employees are also encouraged to acquire a pre-departure health check to verify medical fitness for the assignment and to attain required immunisations.

Nevertheless, this study has been unable to demonstrate that this important information has been communicated to the participants. Due to the total absence of pre-departure training, participants were not aware of the available organisation support. Two disappointed participants pointed out: *No orientation, no training, and no briefing. I do not even know the travel policy in detail. By accident, I found out the SOS support* (Participant 8). Participant 7 added: *No training. Someone will informally mention something to you if you are lucky.*

All participants firmly believed that academics must have an understanding of the legal, cultural, political, and economic contexts of country in which they were teaching. Consensually, participants (10 out of 11) agreed about the significance of pre-departure training as part of the organisational support. Participant 4 commented: *As academics, we can find the information for ourselves but it would be nice if someone put together good information about the country. So, we can go with a good understanding.*

Due to a deficit of formal preparation, participants resorted to informal channels such as casual conversations with colleagues who had experiences teaching transnationally. Participant 3 explained: *If you are not sure about local culture, then you need to talk with someone who has been there before. I think it would be important.*

Nevertheless, two participants (P7 and P11) voiced their concern that such informal methods could be misleading as the information is filtered through individual perspectives. They further explained that the negatively biased information can be passed down from one academic to another if someone has a bad experience teaching transnationally. The misleading information could inhibit academics' capacity to appreciate the diverse lens that a new culture, country, and set of students can offer. Participant 7 reflected: *There are people who really don't want to go overseas. There are people who hate Asia but they are forced to work there. What usually happens is they entrench a negative viewpoint that 'they are all rote learners, they plagiarise and all that'.* Table 3.7 details the findings of the interviews.

Table 3.7: Findings of the Interviews: HR Practices Support (Pre-departure Training)

Human Resource Issues	Consensus Position on Human Resource Issues	Dissenting Opinion or Additional observations
Induction	All participants agreed that induction training was not provided. They argued that they need pre-departure training before departing for short-term assignments. They believed that pre-departure training had the potential to improve their job performance.	
Cross cultural awareness	All participants agreed that cross-cultural awareness training was not provided. The majority of interviewees (7 out of 11) acknowledged the need for cross-cultural training.	Some interviewees (3 out of 11) mentioned that cross-cultural training might not be necessary for experienced travellers.
Specific country briefing	All participants agreed that specific country briefing was not provided. Specific country briefing was perceived necessary for both experienced and newcomers.	
Transfer of skills and knowledge across cultures	Most agreed that they developed an ability to learn new things from the host culture. They developed an understanding of how the host culture worked.	One interviewee argued that there was not much can be learned in a short-term period of assignment.
Language training	All agreed that language training was not provided.	A small number of interviewees (4 out of 11) maintained that language training might not necessary for experienced traveller.
Preparation for teaching in different context	All agreed that preparation for teaching in different context was not provided. Preparation for teaching in different context was perceived necessary for both experienced and newcomers. Some (5 out of 11) stated that customized training would assist them in their job performance.	One interviewee argued that preparation for teaching in different context was not essential for experienced academics.

Work-life balance support

In relation to short-term international teaching assignments, participants' perceptions about work-life balance support from their organisations were also examined. A majority of the participants (9 out of 11) emphasized a lack of support from the organisation, as the following interviewee explained: *Caring about your staff and their work life balance is very important. At the moment, we don't have the support*

(Participant 8). One participant commented on the need for organisations to demonstrate a better support for work-life balance: *The organisation should be more responsive to the employees' needs* (Participant 2).

The current findings also suggest that the perceived deficit in organisational support not only negatively affected employees' work-life balance, but also their work performance. As one participant noted: *We do not have that support. It is a struggle for us and it is not healthy. It affects our work quality* (Participant 5).

All participants also reflected on their perception of the poor planning related to the semester of offshore teaching. Some participants (4 out of 11) considered that workloads could be excessive and unreasonable particularly in circumstances where there was a predictable clash between onshore and offshore subjects' for which they had responsibility. Participants pointed out that prior work planning may assist their work-life balance. For instance, one participant explained: *I suppose there is a need for flexibility and planning when we can take or do the teaching trips. It must correspond with our own personal life. Often, the timeline of when the teaching trips are going to be is not clear and precise. It creates complication with managing your work life and family life* (Participant 6).

Although most participants (9 out of 11) commented negatively on the much-reported lack of organisational support in relation to work-life balance, two participants had divergent views. For example, one academic who was married with grown up children had a variance view of the organisational support. She commented: *"From my perspective, it is sufficient. That is for me personally rather than the role that I am in as a senior teaching academic. What's provided for me is sufficient"* (Participant 1). Table 3.8 summarizes the findings of the interviews.

Table 3.8: Findings of the Interviews: HR Practices Support

Human Resource Issues	Consensus Position on Human Resource Issues	Dissenting Opinion or Additional observations
Work-life balance		
Family support	Many participants (7 out of 11) discussed about the lack of support to communicate with their families while they were offshore. They agreed that organisation should provide communication budget in their planning for short-term assignments.	One participant stated that family support was sufficient for her.
Prior Work Planning	All interviewees asserted that the semester for offshore teaching was not planned properly. It clashed with the onshore teaching commitments often.	

Financial Support

Participants also spoke about the financial support from their organisation. According to the university offshore working procedure, academics are entitled to get reimbursement in all expenses related to logistics, accommodation and pre-departure health checks. As stated in the procedure, a per diem travel allowance is offered under certain terms and conditions to cover meal and incidental costs incurred by academics. In this university, offshore teaching is included as part of normal teaching load. If transnational teaching is as part of the normal workload, academics will be covered by Enterprise Bargaining Agreement (RMIT University 2011a). Thus, in cases where difficulties occur, the National Tertiary Education Union (NTEU) will be able to support and represent employees (NTEU 2004). Employees are only given additional monetary compensation if offshore teaching is above their normal workload (NTEU 2004).

Participants mentioned that travel costs related to arrival at the destination have been included into the per diem value and the rate of per diem depends on the travel destination. However, many participants (7 out of 11) perceived that the reimbursement and per diem were inadequate in compensating the academics. They were of the opinion that that their contributions to the organisation had increased, yet their relative compensation had not, and they found this frustrating. Participant 2 commented: *Teaching overseas can be draining in term of time and energy but we don't receive any extra remuneration for it.*

On the whole, academics were dissatisfied with the way the organisation managed their international assignments, and the source of this dissatisfaction for some academics (5 out of 11) was related to a lack of financial reward. A typical quotation was: *There was no financial reward for offshore teaching* (Participant 8). Participant 4 added: *I think it's inequitable. There is no valid reward from a financial position.*

The importance of having a well-managed remuneration system in place appears to be important for academic; depriving academics of what they perceive to be adequate financial remuneration is likely to affect morale adversely and hamper the willingness to travel offshore. Approximately half of the respondents (6 out of 11) acknowledged financial organisational support as an issue. Participant 3 stated: *We are not financially rewarded. Some people don't teach offshore because of that.*

At the same time, however, the majority of participants (10 out of 11) recognised that organisations were constrained by budgets and financial obligations and they were becoming ever more aware of the need to keep the costs of international assignments down. Although many realized the constraints facing organisations, some academics (4 out of 11) believed a more systematic approach is needed to compensate academics undertaking transnational teaching. Participant 6 commented: *More attention must be paid to the finer details of offshore teaching compensation.* From a slightly different viewpoint, another participant stated that while he was not necessarily motivated by the financial reward, he could not deny its importance. His concerns revolved around how the organisation compensated the work-life issue

during short-term international teaching assignment, as the following comments reflect: *I think we need more compensation. More reward because we don't get any recognition being away from the family* (Participant 3). Participant 7 noted: *There's not any allowance for family overseas (family separation), with who we haven't been in contact for two weeks. That doesn't happen.*

Alternatively, some participants (3 out of 11) commented about the desirability of a flexible policy that would allow them to have a choice between incentives (i.e., additional compensation versus a reduction in course load), as participant 2 mentioned: *Personally, I would prefer it off my workload. Or I would rather do that on top of the workload and get paid more. It's more demanding teaching overseas than teaching here.* Table 3.9 shows the findings of the interviews.

Table 3.9: Findings of the Interviews: Financial Support

Financial Support Issues	Consensus Position on Financial Support Issues	Dissenting Opinion or Additional observations
Per diem	Many participants (7 out of 11) perceived that per diem was inadequate to reflect the true value of their international assignments.	Three participants argued that per diem was sufficient for their daily expenses. However, they noted that individuals and families' needs were significantly diverse.
Compensation	Many participants (6 out of 11) perceived lower financial compensation in their international assignments.	One participant stated that compensation was adequate.
	Many participants (6 out of 11) highlighted that compensation for family disruption should be considered by the organisation.	One participant stated that family disruption only happened to young families.

Career Support

Based on the interviews, another important issue emerged was the lack of career support provided by the organisation. Participants explained that there appeared to be little or no organisational support in linking offshore teaching more directly to career paths. As a result, their international experience was not benefit positively to their career in the organisation. Many participants (9 out of 11) lamented that transnational teaching experience has never been linked to the measures used for career advancement. From the participants' perspectives, it was not considered for promotion criteria, and rarely presented as a valuable career development strategy, as shared in the concerns of the following: *If I was seeking promotion like the younger people are, it's really a problem (Participant 7). It becomes a part of the job rather than advancing the career (Participant 1).*

Indeed, most participants (10 out of 11) expressed a need to have recognition of their offshore teaching contributions. Participants pointed out that recognition through the career support will stimulate career satisfaction and attachment to the job and the organisation. However, participants argued that their international skills, experiences and knowledge in other cultures, have apparently been undervalued by the organisation. It appears that teaching in an unfamiliar setting, which clearly imposes significant challenges to academics, is perceived by the organisation as routine rather than an added career value.

Participants also believed that offshore teaching was merely evaluated as similar to onshore teaching. They claimed that equating offshore teaching with an onshore teaching is problematic, and must be questioned. Gradually, the lack of recognition was becoming a source of frustration among participants, as the following interviewee described: *I guess we need the recognition. If anyone in this organisation is thinking that I'm on holiday, I'm going to kick them. I really get sick of that attitude (Participant 7).*

Participants also regularly expressed strong concerns about the impact of offshore teaching to their research activities. Currently, participants have to take personal

initiative to integrate offshore teaching and research without any tangible support or apparent interest from the organisation. Participants highlighted that the integration was necessary to minimize the risk to their research productivity. For example, an academic explained: *When I make a trip to HK, I personally contact them and we do research collaboration* (Participant 4).

Participants commented that the organisation should overtly sponsor the incorporation of research activities in short-term international teaching planning. The combined research and teaching components would provide an opportunity for academics to gain a greater appreciation for short-term international teaching assignments. This would constitute career support from the organisation and could stimulate the academics' interest in advancing their research, benefiting both the individual and the organisation. The following interview extracts show the dilemma an academic experienced: *If they want to support, that's the part that organisation needs to look at. At the moment, if we stay at Hong Kong or Singapore for a couple of days more, they don't pay us per diem allowance. We need to arrive the day before lectures and leave 24 hours after last lectures* (Participant 8).

Parallel to this discussion, participants considered that the lack of organisational support may be linked to the short-duration of their international assignments. Participants equated the absence of support with an organisational assumption that the impact of short-term mobility on individual's careers was minimal. However, the current findings reveal that there is a crucial need for improved support in obviating the negative impact to academics' careers. Academics may be more likely to invest more energy, time and commitment towards their international assignments if the organisation acknowledges the connection between offshore teaching and long-term career path. Table 3.10 shows the findings of the interviews.

Table 3.10: Findings of the Interviews: Career Support

Career Support Issues	Consensus Position on Career Support Issues	Dissenting Opinion or Additional observations
Integration with career progression	All agreed that their international assignments should be a value-added to their career progression.	
Integration with research activities	All supported that research activities should be integrated with short-term international teaching assignments. Interviewees claimed that organisation support was crucial to enable them to play an active researcher role.	
Recognition	Many participants (10 out of 11) agreed that there was a lack of recognition from the organisation in related to offshore teaching. The demand of offshore teaching was different compare to the onshore teaching.	One interviewee claimed that the recognition from the organisation was sufficient.

Discussion

This study sets out to analyse the impact of short-term international teaching assignments on academics and to identify the types of support required in their international assignments. Based on the current findings, two important issues emerge: dual impact (positive & negative) of offshore teaching, and limited organisational support.

With respect to the first issue, results show that offshore teaching have a profound dual impact, both positive and negative, on academics' career success and work-life balance. It is recognized that the effects vary across academics. Overall, the disruptive effects of constant short-trips to both career and work-life balance emerge as a key factor. Similar to Starr and Currie (2009), this study confirms the emergence of work-life issues that arise from undertaking short-term assignments (e.g., family separation, long working hours). Short-term international teaching assignments can foster the development of a number of dilemmas for academics. On the one hand, they can provide more dilemmas is that frequent visits allow assistance to offshore students, but on the other hand, there are difficulties managing work-life, evident in the finding that it is not uncommon for the partner of academics (e.g., spouse) to take over home-related responsibilities while academics are offshore.

Offshore teaching is also detrimental to research activities, thus hindering career promotion. The current results provide support for Debowski (2003) who recommended that the impact of offshore teaching on academics needed careful review. Conversely, number of participants highlighted enhancement of personal development, social capital, and external marketability, suggesting the intrinsic rewards and new learning experiences in non-work domains.

Second, the present findings indicate that academics appear to hold a perception of receiving limited organisational support, adding weight to existing evidence in the area (Tahvanainen, Welch & Worm 2005). Particularly, Study 1 reveals that offshore teaching places demands on academics' ability to function in unfamiliar surroundings and to manage cultural differences efficiently. Participants spoke of the

importance of organisational support to facilitate their international assignments. Yet, the current findings seem to suggest that organisations do not provide an adequate level of support, neglecting academics' career and work-life balance needs.

Research (Perry-Smith & Blum 2000) states that organisational support is a key feature and positive employer-employee relationships are fundamental to achieve competitive advantage. Given that transnational education is integral to universities, it is important to establish strategic support systems that manage and retain *flying academics*. Nevertheless, this study suggests the presence of a gap between rhetoric and reality. Consistent with theory of social exchange (Adams 1965), academics expect organisations to reciprocate by providing support and assistance when academics make an effort to teach offshore. Based on current findings, academics who perceive their organisations as caring for their well-being and appreciate their contributions tend to express high levels of career satisfaction. Likewise, Armstrong-Stassen and Ursel (2009) highlighted the contribution that perceived organisational support makes to enhancing employees' career success. Accordingly, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 1: *Perceived organisational support is related positively to career success*

Implications

Academics are exposed to a unique set of demands during international assignments that increase the likelihood of affecting the manner in which work is carried out. Support is often overlooked when they are abroad. Both research and practice suggest that organisations are a crucial source of material and socio-emotional support for employees (Gibney, Zagenczyk & Masters 2009). However, universities fail to meet employees' socio-emotional needs in the workplace, such as recognition for offshore teaching, and failure to respect their contributions and to provide care for their well-being (Debowski 2003). Thus, it is imperative for organisations to understand the appropriate supports that assist employees in short-term international

teaching assignments. According to social exchange theory (Armeli et al. 1998), fulfilment of these socio-emotional needs by organisations can generate an obligation by employees to repay organisations through increased performance.

The current findings identify three types of organisational support that contribute to academics' material and socio-emotional needs: perceived organisational HR support, perceived organisational financial support, and perceived organisational career support, as detailed below:

Perceived Organisational HR Support

Perceived organisational HR support is defined as the extent to which the organisation cares about employees' HR needs when undertaking short-term international teaching assignments. Collings et al. (2011) proposed that mobility of employees across national boundaries requires adequate HRM practices that include selection, training and work-life policies which facilitate international assignments. Accordingly, universities need to provide HR practices that are perceived as important by academics.

Nevertheless, it emerges that most decisions concerning academics' suitability to teach offshore are based on job-specific criteria that relate to technical competencies rather than person-specific criteria. In general, academics are accustomed to offshore teaching as an integral part of their work, the requirement of which are usually acknowledged at appointment. Interestingly, Caligiuri, Tarique and Jacobs (2009) observed that a record of success in a domestic context is not a guarantee of success in an international context. Furthermore, others (Caligiuri & Colakoglu 2007; Selmer 2001), note that international assignee selection systems is surprisingly unstructured. For this reason, scholars (Kreng & Huang 2009; Olsen & Martins 2009; Hechanova, Beehr & Christiansen 2003) suggest that person-specific criteria, relating to personality, the value-system of individuals, language skills, and international experience are essential inclusion selection criteria. Harrison, Shaffer and Bhaskar-Shrinivas (2004), who reviewed 25 years of research on expatriate experiences,

strongly suggested that priority should be given to various traits that will assist expatriates to function efficiently in diverse contexts, further arguing that an individual who is outgoing and high in openness is more likely to adapt better than others.

Similarly, Leask et al. (2005) agreed that academics travelling to teach offshore should be highly competent, and experienced in teaching, and possess a well-liked personality, stating that *a sense of humour, a willingness to learn, to connect and engage with students both inside and outside the class* were highly valued in offshore teaching (2005, p. 33). However, Selmer (2001) argued that the unattractiveness of international assignments can lead HR managers to select people who are willing to do the job instead of opting for a thorough selection process. Yet Caligiuri et al. (2009) warned that ignoring proper selection is extremely short-sighted and risky to both organisations and individuals.

As reflected in other investigations (Collings, Scullion & Morley 2007; Tahvanainen, Welch & Worm 2005), findings of Study 1 confirm that pre-departure training is often not provided for short-term assignees. Gribble and Ziguras (2003) reported on the virtual non-existence of pre-departure training for academics undertaking transnational teaching and a corresponding belief on the part of academics that, in an environment with a paucity of training, past experience teaching international students in Australia is sufficient. More recently, Pyvis and Chapman (2005) found that training is not commonly implemented across Australian universities. In stark contrast to evident practice, the 2002 Code of Practice of the Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee (AVCC) stated that Australian universities should provide cross-cultural training for academics undertaking offshore teaching (Pyvis & Chapman 2005). The code further warns that offshore teaching can contribute to culture shock.

Perhaps most surprisingly, findings reveal that acquisition of offshore teaching information to a large extent lies on the hands of academics and work colleagues. This finding mirrors Tung (1998) who reported that expatriates relied on their own

resources to survive in new environments. Scholars (Hoare 2012; Dunn & Wallace 2006; Leask 2004) agreed that informal developments and protocols without expert facilitation expose academics to high levels of risk, increasing the likelihood of experienced staff moving to other positions or institution, taking with them valuable tacit knowledge (Dunn & Wallace 2006).

In a similar vein, Hoare (2012) stated that informal mentoring can entrench undesirable attitudes and behaviors among academics. To exemplify, information on offshore students is frequently inconsistent and inadequate (Hoare 2012; Gribble & Ziguas 2003). Hoare (2012, p. 5) added that the reference points (e.g., own experiences of teaching international students, advice of faculty members) *were at best negatively skewed and at worst ethnocentric and ill-informed*. Earlier research (Caligiuri & Colakoglu 2007; Dunn & Wallace 2006; Leask 2004) also demonstrated that informal organisational practices can lead to stereotyping and misconceptions, with Mendenhall and Stahl (2000, p. 252) noting that *in many cases this turns into the blind leading the blind*. Thus, studies (Selmer 2005; McNulty & Tharenou 2004; Caligiuri et al. 2001) recommend that pre-departure training should be a part of HR practices. Such customized training can lead to improved levels of cross-cultural adjustment (Caligiuri et al. 2001), more realistic expectations (Tahvanainen, Welch & Worm 2005), and better overall employee performance (Hurn 2007). Overall, the current findings support the view (Edwards 2009) that HR practices are important for developing employees' careers. It is apparent that HR support provides relevant resources for academics, enabling them to achieve career success. Thus, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 2: *Perceived organisational HR support is related positively to career success*

Perceived Organisational Financial Support

A second clear implication of this study is that organisations need to provide sound financial support. Perceived organisational financial support can be defined as the

extent to which the organisation addresses employees' financial needs and reward employees for their contribution in terms of income, and employment benefits when undertaking short-term international teaching assignments. Theory of work adjustment proposes individual differences in preferred work reinforcers (i.e., work environment, high salary) consistent with the conceptualization, Dawis and Lofquist (1984) asserted that people who might hold similar levels of career satisfaction might have different needs in the same work environment. Likewise, research (Konopaske, Ribie & Ivancevich 2009) demonstrates that the motives for accepting international assignments can also vary. While some individuals willingly accept an international assignment for intrinsic reward such as gaining new experiences and challenges (Suutari 2003), others are motivated by extrinsic rewards such as financial benefits. Extrinsic motivation occurs when employees are able to satisfy their needs indirectly, most importantly through monetary compensation (Osterloh, Frey & Frost 2002, p. 64). Not surprisingly, financial support that rewards and compensates best motivate expatriates to perform in their international assignments (Benson & Pattie 2008; Lowe et al. 2002).

In line with the theory of social exchange, financial factors and compensation are influential when it comes to determining the value and meaning of exchange relationships between employees and employers, sending clear messages to employees about expected attitudes and behaviors (Rousseau & Ho 2000). However, social exchange occurs only when social behaviors are motivated by expected returns or responses from other parties (Panaccio & Vandenberghe 2009). The current findings confirm that academics demand high levels of financial support to compensate for personal sacrifices (e.g., long working hours) and additional expenses (e.g., childcare). Such demands do not appear to be frivolous as research (Osterloh & Frey 2009; Manolopoulos 2006) shows that adequate financial compensation assist individuals to respond effectively to increased life demands. Indeed, escalating work-life issues increase the need for organisations to develop effective systems of financial support.

Notwithstanding, Herzberg (2003) argued that money is a hygiene factor. Employees will be dissatisfied when the hygiene factor (i.e., financial resources) is perceived as insufficient (Frijters, Haisken-DeNew & Shields 2004). Similarly, the present findings reveal that inadequate compensation for offshore teaching contribute to feelings of dissatisfaction and perceptions of lack of recognition for their efforts. Expectancy theory (Bonache, Sanchez & Zarraga-Oberty 2009; Vroom 1964) posits that external rewards can be viewed as motivational factors that fuel behavior. According to this framework, employees exert effort when they believe that their labors will culminate in expected outcomes (Bonache, Sanchez & Zarraga-Oberty 2009; Vroom 1964). In line with this perspective, Nyberg (2010) stated that high performing employees are less likely to leave voluntarily when there is a clear connection between performance and rewards.

Consistent with Suutari and Tornikoski (2001), the current findings demonstrate the importance of international assignment compensation, highlighting the role of financial support in employees' career success. Academics who believed that they received low levels of compensation report feeling less satisfied with their careers. Thus, understanding the compensation elements and rewards that motivate academics most during their short-term international teaching assignments is undoubtedly crucial. As organisations expand internationally, it seems that any compensation program will have to meet the diverse needs of academics, while supporting an organisation's strategic objectives (Watson & Singh 2005). For these reasons, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 3: *Perceived organisational financial support is related positively to career success*

Perceived Organisational Career Support

A third implication is that organisations should pay more attention to the employees' career issues than they do at present. Perceived organisational career support can be defined as the extent to which organisation care about their employees' career needs

when undertaking short-term international teaching assignments. In comparison to the rewards associated with outcomes research, Bailey (1999, p. 346) wrote that *good university teachers rarely get rewarded by promotion*. In accord with this view, the current findings reveal that short-term international teaching assignments are not rewarded with respect to career advancement.

Thus, the present findings do not support propositions subsumed within human capital theory predicting that investment in global management skills enhance career rewards, but support studies (Hamori & Koyuncu 2011; Kraimer, Shaffer & Bolino 2009; Stahl, Miller & Tung 2002) suggesting that international assignments impact negatively on careers, at least in the short-term. In line with Debowski (2003), the current findings reveal that the time spent both traveling and in offshore teaching if anything, disconnect academics from their research. In obviating the negative impact, scholars (Stahl et al. 2009; Benson & Pattie 2008; Kraimer & Wayne 2004) agree on the need for organisations to provide employee-centred career support.

Moreover, this study finds that relatively little of any recognition is given to contributions made by academics to offshore teaching, a source of heightened dissatisfaction. Although academics can gain culturally and develop international competencies in foreign contexts, while adding to their career capital (Smith 2009a), Study 1 shows that their experiences, skills and knowledge are largely sidelined in favor of research outputs, a major criterion for promotion purposes.

Similarly, other studies (Benson & Pattie 2008; Bonache 2005; Stahl, Miller & Tung 2002) show that it is not uncommon for repatriates to complain that their acquired international skills, experiences and knowledge are not utilized upon returning home. Consequently, this perceived, if not actual devaluation of international experience tends to decrease the attractiveness of international assignments (Kraimer, Shaffer & Bolino 2009; Lazarova & Caligiuri 2001). And as Smith (2009a) notes university should acknowledge and recognize its value by addressing this issue.

Nevertheless, Study 1 seems to suggest that organisations are not prepared for the challenges and demands that lie ahead in the higher education sector. A number of authors (Dunn & Wallace 2006; Leask et al. 2005; Debowski 2003) propose that organisations need to go beyond concentrating only on travel matters and provide support that enhances career value, through university policy and practices. In line with earlier studies (Kraimer et al. 2011; Stahl et al. 2009; Van der Heijden, Van Engen & Paauwe 2009), the present findings reveal that organisational career support assists employees to attain career success (i.e., career satisfaction, career development). That is, academics are likely to rate measures of career success highly when their offshore teaching experiences are valued and rewarded. In order to attract and retain key employees, organisations need to address such concerns to ensure that academics receive appropriate career support during international assignments. In the light of these findings, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 4: *Perceived organisational career support is related positively to career success*

Interplay between work and non-work domains

Finally, the current findings suggest that there is an interplay between work and non-work domains. The spillover perspective (Stevanovic & Rupert 2009) proposes that the interaction between work and non-work domain can be either negative or positive (Friedman & Greenhaus 2000). The present findings reveal that participants experience difficulties balancing the demands of work and family as a result of offshore teaching, such as family separation and long working hours. Consistent with these findings, Starr and Currie (2009) reported that employees undertaking short-term assignments are frequently neglected and face high levels of pressure to balance their work-life and to perform effectively in different work environments. Likewise, Yang (2007) stated that employees on short-term assignments struggle to attain successful careers while experiencing the demands of family.

On the positive side, the current findings demonstrate that transnational teaching can herald multiple career benefits, enhancing academics' career success (i.e., career satisfaction). Academics report that the rewards (i.e., seeing students' succeed and making a difference in their lives) of offshore teaching were outweigh the costs. In line with Haar and Bardoel (2007), these intrinsic rewards can enhance satisfaction levels that can spillover into academics' personal lives. Thus, the current results indicate that when academics attain career success, they tend to report experiencing a certain level of work-life balance. Against this background, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 5: Career success is related positively to work-life balance

In summary, the findings of Study 1 highlight five key considerations or factors: perceived organisational support, perceived organisational HR support, perceived organisational financial support, perceived organisational career support, interplay between work and non-work domains associated with short-term international teaching assignments. Organisational practices that enhance perceptions of organisational support help to strengthen the employee-employer relationship (Edwards 2009; Takeuchi et al. 2009). Balanced employer-employee relationship help to improve attitudinal and behavioral outcomes including performance and retention (Armeli et al. 1998). These five factors play a significant role in the development of an hypothesized model developed and subsequently tested in Study 2.

Limitations

Findings need to be positioned within the context of three main limitations: generalizability on external validity of findings, relatively small sample size, and researcher bias. First, academics from only one Australian university were interviewed because of the researcher's interest in examining specific concerns pertaining to Australian transnational education. Accordingly, findings might not be generalizable across other universities and other countries. Australia has a long history in the transnational education sector, thus, future studies might consider undertaking cross national investigations involving academics from other countries.

Second, the use of a relatively small sample size ($n=11$) from a single organisation presents another limitation. Small sample sizes can restrict the depth and breadth of findings. The decision to study a single organisation was taken on the bases of available resources for a PhD candidate and owing to the exploratory nature of this study. Consistent with exploratory intent, Study 1 provided insights into the effects of short-term international teaching assignments on individuals and their views.

A third limitation relates to the face-to-face interviews. No independent observation in the field to verify the data collection procedures, reporting, synthesis, analysis, and interpretation of material garnered from the interviews. Face-to-face interviews are open and sensitive to the influences of the present researcher's personal values and worldviews (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie 2004). However, in line with Kelley et al. (2003), the wording, form, and order of interview questions were designed carefully and piloted in order to minimize bias.

Future research

Further research is required to extend our understanding of the research problem. Many avenues can be explored to build upon the results presented here. A deeper examination of short-term international teaching assignments issues would provide valuable additional insight. The outcomes of Study 1 clearly suggest the existence of relationships between perceived organisational support, career success, and work-life balance; with organisational support being a key contributor to academic career success and work-life balance. However, findings do not provide any insight into the relative prominence of each type of support in short-term international teaching assignments.

In order to address the second research question: *“to what extent does perceived organisation support relate to academics' career success and work-life balance?”* findings emerging from Study 1 in the context of an in-depth literature review were culminated in the identification of five hypotheses. These hypotheses form the basis

for the development of a proposed hypothesized model as shown in Figure 3.4. This model presents the foundation for research and is tested in Study 2 (Chapter 4).

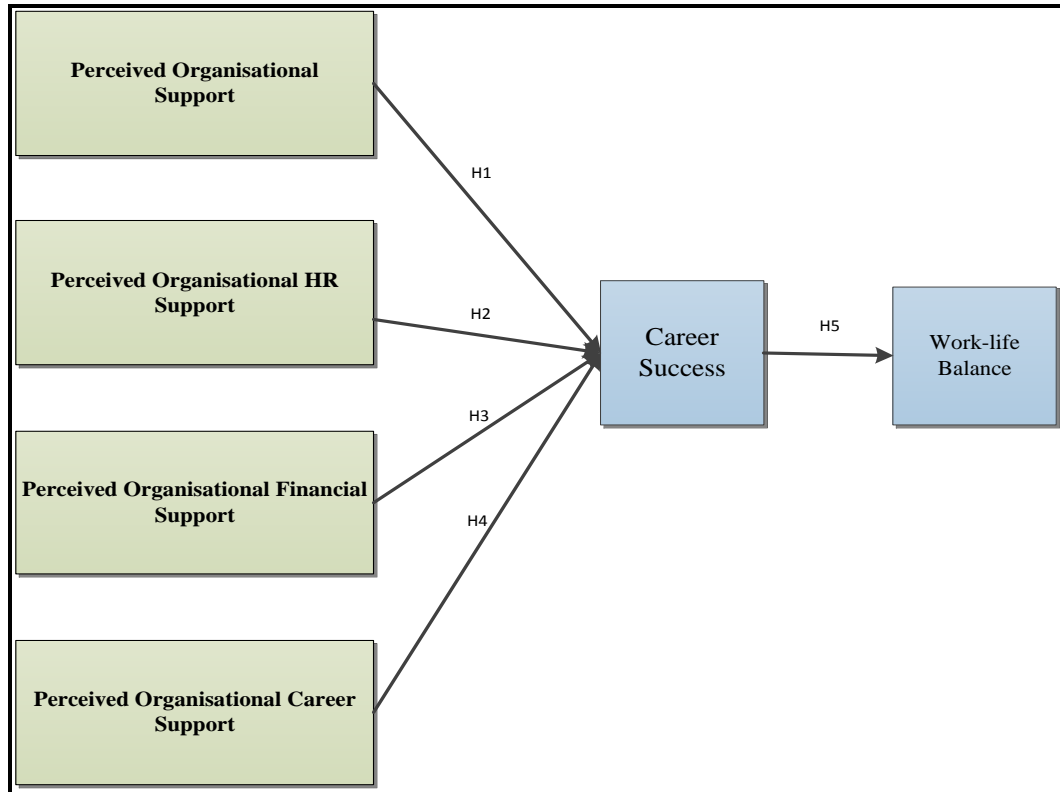


Figure 3.4: A conceptual model of research hypotheses

Conclusion

This chapter discussed academics' experiences of short-term international teaching assignments, enhancing our understanding of the challenges faced by academics. Evidence demonstrates a tension between rhetoric of organisational practices and the reality of academics' experiences. Bearing in mind the importance of organisational support, this chapter culminated in the development of a model showing the interrelationships between critical support factors and academics' career success and work-life balance. Study 2 tests this model and evaluated hypotheses via a quantitative survey design, the details of which are reported in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 4: STUDY 2

As mentioned in Chapter 3, Study 2 comprises the quantitative component of this thesis. This chapter describes demographics of participants, reviews measures of constructs comprising the current hypothesized model, and describes data collection and statistical procedures. Next, results of inferential analyses to test hypotheses are reported. This chapter concludes with a discussion of findings, limitations, and implications of this study.

Study 2 extends findings emanating from Study 1, a qualitative exploration of 11 Australian academics leading to the development and testing of an hypothesized model of perceived organisational support, career success and work-life balance. Although an outcome of Study 1 clearly identifies relevant support variables, findings do not indicate what support is valued when academics undertake short-term international teaching assignments, and contributes to academic career success and work-life balance.

Accordingly, Study 2 aims to identify and prioritize support factors involved in short-term international teaching assignments. Specifically, perceived organisational support, perceived organisational HR support, perceived organisational financial support, perceived organisational career support are examined to determine those that are most meaningful to academics. The following section describes the present Method including Participants, Measures, reports on validity and reliability of scales, and data collection and statistical procedures utilised in this study.

Method

Participants

Participants are academics from 24 Australian universities. These universities were selected because they are known to be active in transnational education from their websites and/or their Australian Universities Quality Agency (AUQA) reports (IDP 2009; AVCC 2001). Table 4.1 shows selected universities arranged into six groups on the bases of institutional type. The recruitment pool consisted of academics from a spectrum of disciplinary areas (Education, Engineering, Business, Information Technology, Law, Arts, Health, Humanities and Science) and experienced in transnational teaching. Owing to the unavailability of a commercially available *flying academics* database, sample of prospective participants was obtained by retrieving a list of academics from official universities websites. A snowballing sampling procedure was adopted, whereby participants referred the researcher to other potential informants. A snowball sample emerged during the e-mailed surveys.

Table 4.1: Classification of University Association

Segment	Selected Universities
Sandstones	University of Western Australia
Redbricks	Australian National University University of New South Wales Monash University
Unitechs	RMIT University Queensland University of Technology Curtin University University of South Australia
Gumtrees	Griffith University James Cook University Flinders University Deakin University Macquarie University Murdoch University University of New England
New	Central Queensland University Edith Cowan University Charles Sturt University Victoria University of Technology Swinburne University of Technology University of Ballarat University of Canberra Charles Darwin University
Private	Bond University

Note. Adapted from Marginson and Considine (2000a, p. 190).

Table 4.2 reports participant demographics showing that the typical participant is aged 50 years or older (48.3%), male (65.3%), living as part of a family with children (39.9%), working more than 40 hours each week (46%), and holding more than 5 years (58.5%) tenure. The majority of participants are lecturers (31%), holding continuing full-time employment status (68.4%), with more than 5 years of offshore teaching experience (56.4%), involving paid (78.3%) offshore teaching assignments in Asia (87.6%).

Table 4.2 Participant Demographics

Demographic	% (n=193)		\bar{x}	(SD)
Gender		Age	49.4	(10.56)
Male	65.30	Hours worked each week	44.53	(17.87)
Female	34.70	Tenure	3.27	(1.17)
Current Living Arrangement		Years of Offshore Teaching Experience	2.74	(1.11)
Couple family with children	39.90	Length of Offshore Teaching Assignments	18.47	(46.47)
Couple family without children	28.00			
One parent family	3.10			
Other family (Unrelated individual living in a family household/Group household member/Visitor)	3.60			
Single	8.30			
Position				
Professor	9.00			
Associate Professor/Reader	13.00			
Senior Lecturer	26.00			
Lecturer	31.00			
Assistant Lecturer/Tutor	4.00			
Others	3.00			
Employment Status				
Continuing full-time	68.40			
Continuing part-time	3.60			
Fixed-term full-time	5.20			
Fixed-term part-time	4.70			
Casual	2.60			
Others	0.50			
Countries ^a				
Asia	87.60			
America	6.70			
Europe	10.40			
Africa	1.60			
Oceania	1.60			
Level of offshore teaching assignments ^a				
Foundation courses	4.10			
Undergraduate courses	45.90			
Postgraduate courses	41.30			
Postgraduate research	6.90			
Other	1.80			

Note. ^a Some participants went to one or more continent and taught one or more courses.

Offshore teaching policy

For approximately 28% of participants, paid offshore teaching is included in their workload; 13% are not paid for offshore teaching; while 50.3% are paid for offshore teaching not included in their workload.

Instruments

A short-term international teaching assignments (STITA) questionnaire was developed for this study, comprising five major sections: Participant background, offshore teaching, perceived organisational support (Eisenberger et al. 1986), career success (Greenhaus, Parasuraman & Wormley 1990) and work-life balance (Fisher, Bulger & Smith 2009). Where available, previously developed scales with reported measurement properties were utilised. However, given the dearth of research on short-term international teaching assignments, several scales were either developed or adapted for this thesis. All constructs are measured on 5-point Likert scales ranging from *Strongly Disagree* to *Strongly Agree* (see Appendix H, for a copy of the STITA questionnaire). The following section describes measures employed to test the present hypothesized model.

Perceived Organisational Support

Eisenberger et al. (1986) developed the Perceived Organisational Support (POS) scale. This construct, consisting of 36 items, assesses the extent to which organisations value employees' efforts and care for their wellbeing. There are two versions of this scale including a short version (Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002) involving only eight-items.

The full and shortened versions of the POS display high internal reliability and unidimensionality with coefficient alphas ranging from $\alpha=.87$ to $\alpha=.93$ (Shanock & Eisenberger 2006). Item-total correlations range from .42 to .83 (Shanock & Eisenberger 2006). Eisenberger et al. (1986) reported mean and median item-total correlations of $\bar{X}=.67$ and $M=.66$ respectively. In this study, eight items (e.g., 1. *The organisation values my contribution to its well-being*) were selected to assess

POS (Eisenberger et al., 1986), and demonstrate acceptable levels of reliability with $\alpha = .93$ (Vandenberghe et al. 2007) and $\alpha = .91$ (Chen et al. 2009).

The existing scale of perceived organisational support involves limited consideration of support factors for short-term international teaching assignments. For this reason, a multidimensional measure of support that taps into academics' needs and demands was triangulated from four sources: extant literature (Debowksi 2003; Gribble & Ziguras 2003), critical reflection, outcomes from the qualitative phase (Study 1) and pilot study.

Scale Item Development

The scale development stages recommended by Netemeyer, Bearden and Sharma (2003a) was followed to develop new measurement scales and to test for unidimensionality, reliability, and validity. An important step in scale development is content validation (DeVellis 2003). After inferences drawn from the related literature and critical reflections, interviews with academics were conducted to explore and confirm sub dimensions of perceived support. Details of this stage are explained in Study 1, which identifies three dimensions of support incorporated in the STITA. The next step in the development of the measure involved generating 19-item scales related to the dimensions of perceived organisational support (perceived organisational HR support, perceived organisational financial support, and perceived organisational career support).

Consistent with Kraimer and Wayne (2004), Eisenberger et al. (1986), and Shore and Tetrick (1991), content validity of the STITA was determined by administering it to 30 academics and 11 doctoral students. Participants received a copy of the 19-item draft instrument and operational definitions for the three dimensions identified in the qualitative study. They were also requested to rate both the relevance and clarity of each item on two dimensions, each using a scale of 1 to 4. For relevance, a rating of 1 meant not relevant and 4 indicated highly relevant; for clarity, a rating of 1 meant very confusing and 4 indicated an item was very clear. Items not assigned to a

dimension were deleted. This process resulted in an 18-item scale. Eighteen items plus the original 8 items from the POS scale were subjected to an exploratory factor analysis (EFA), the findings of which are detailed in the Result Section.

Career Success

Objective and subjective career success are assessed using the 5-item Career Satisfaction scale (Greenhaus, Parasuraman & Wormley 1990) and a 13-item scale established by Stephens et al. (1998). Nine items from the Stephens et al. (1998) scale were adapted to reflect short-term international teaching assignments. For example, *international work* is substituted with the expression: *short-term international teaching assignments*.

Work-life balance

This study measures work-life balance with the Fisher, Bulger and Smith (2009) 17-item scale. This scale was modified by replacing the word *work* with *international assignments*. The work-life balance assesses the amount of time spent both at work and at leisure, allocation of work and personal activities, and feelings toward work and personal life. Five items examine work interference with personal life. Six items tap the extent to which personal life interferes with work, three items assess work enhancement of personal life, and a further three items explore personal life enhancement of work.

Pilot Testing of the STITA

The STITA questionnaire was pilot tested on 30 academics and 11 business doctoral students in order to obtain feedback, reduce and/ or remove bias, enhance clarity of items, to identify any problems and pertinent questions not asked, and to eliminate jargon, inconsistencies or leading questions. Feedback on estimated completion time and electronic layout of the STITA which was hosted on SurveyMonkey (<http://www.surveymonkey.com/flyAcademics>) was also provided.

Validity and Reliability

Netemeyer, Bearden and Sharma (2003b) recommended that researchers consider the construct validity, content validity, reliability, unidimensionality, convergent validity, and discriminant validity of scales. Content validity is concerned with the make-up of scales (DeVellis 2003), representing the degree to which an empirical measurement reflects the domain of variables being assessed (Hair et al. 2003). In this thesis, instruments are derived from the literature, and pilot testing scales on academics and graduate students is regarded as an integral part of the validity and reliability process.

Construct validity is *an assessment of the degree to which a measure actually measures the latent construct it is intended to measure* (Netemeyer, Bearden & Sharma 2003b, p. 8). Hair et al. (2006) added that unidimensionality is a criterion for achieving construct validity, an underlying assumption of internal reliability of multiple-indicator constructs. Once unidimensionality has been established, reliability is assessed (DeVellis 2003; Netemeyer, Bearden & Sharma 2003b). Reliability is a measure of consistency (George & Mallery 2003). For the present thesis, all scales have Cronbach's alpha values greater than $\alpha=0.7$ (George & Mallery 2003), a measure of lower bound reliability.

Additionally, test for convergent validity and discriminate validity (DeVellis 2003) are reported in the Results section. Convergent validity exists when multiple items of a specific construct converge and discriminant validity indicates the extent to which dimensions differ (Hair et al. 2006). In the current thesis, construct validity of scales is confirmed by the application of multi-factor analyses (see Result section).

Data Collection Procedures

As noted earlier, data were collected electronically using a commercial web survey software called SurveyMonkey, which provides multiple layers of security and confidentiality. The web-based STITA was created as a link to be sent in an email

message. Preceding the link to the survey, an introductory email letter explaining the nature and purpose of the present study, an informed consent form, and directions for completing the questionnaire were included (see Appendix F). The estimated time required to complete the STITA was up to 15 minutes. To encourage participation, an electronic message was sent to participants to thank those who had completed the survey and to remind those who had not to please take part (Appendix G). Response rate was 10.6 % ($n=193$).

Despite the use of Internet and follow-up emails, the number of participants was comparatively small. While ICT-based surveys are relatively effective research tools (Rhodes, Bowie & Hergenrather 2003; Church 2001), they have their limitations, including being potentially biased (Carini et al. 2003). To exemplify, those who complete an online survey tend to be technologically savvy (Carini et al. 2003). Evidence (Scott et al. 2011) also reveals that web-based surveys have a 10-11% lower response rate compared to other modes. Added to these concerns is the fact that there are no hard data on how many academics are involved in transnational teaching. Thus, emails were also sent to academics who might not teach offshore. The relatively low response rate of the internet survey may impact statistical inference and generalizability that could be used to inform policy. Responses to the online survey were imported into SPSS for in-depth analysis.

Statistical Procedures

As shown in Figure 4.1, data analyses proceeded in four main stages (data screening, exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, structural equation modelling) using SPSS 18.0 and AMOS 18.

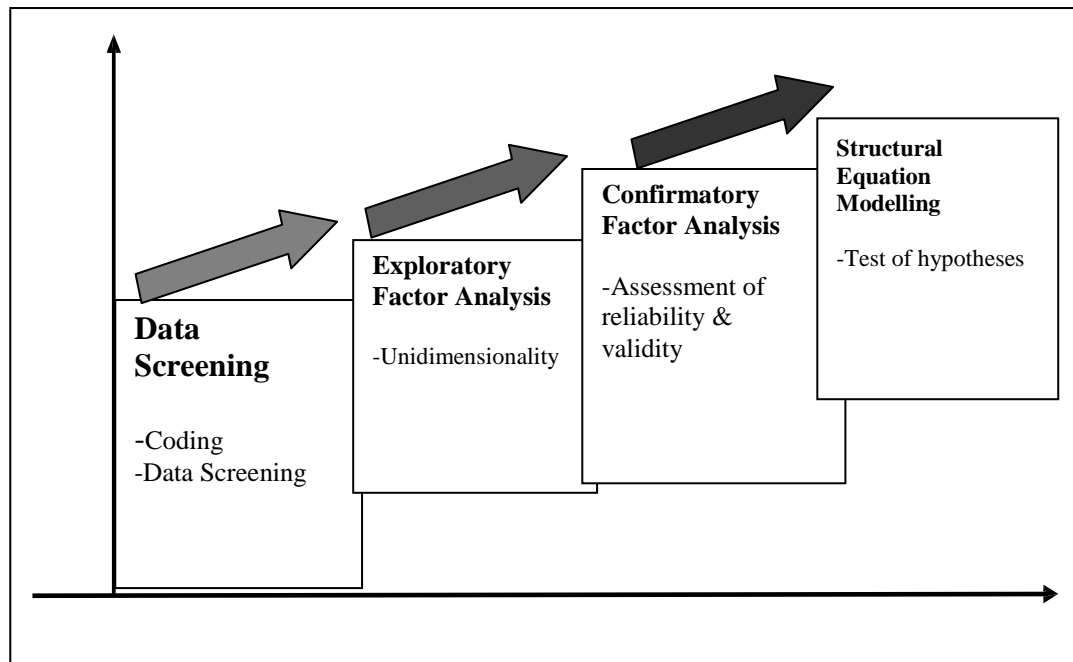


Figure 4.1: Data analyses procedure

Data Screening

In line with Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), data were assessed for violations of statistical assumptions underlying multivariate procedures. First, a comprehensive codebook was developed. The codebook comprised a list of the variables used in this study, along with operational definitions, assigned numeric values and labels. Data verification was performed by reviewing all sections of the STITA, and recoding of reverse scored items. Coding and double-checking were performed on all items.

Data were screened for the presence of missing data and distribution of missing values was further assessed using SPSS 18.0 Missing Value Analysis. This analysis indicated that the missing cases were missing at random. The Expected Maximization (EM) imputation was utilised to apply maximum likelihood estimation for imputing missing data values. Garson (2006) stated that this method makes fewer demands of data in terms of statistical assumptions and is generally regarded superior to imputation by multiple regression.

Multicollinearity problem exists in the presence of bivariate correlations of $r = .90$ or

higher among independent variables (Tabachnick & Fidell 2007). This assumption was not violated. The skewness and kurtosis of each variable were found to be with acceptable levels, ranging from 0.03 to 0.25.

Variables were screened for outliers using Normal probability plots and Mahalanobis distance (D). Normal probability plots were examined to detect univariate outliers. Residuals should be rectangularly distributed, with most scores concentrated in the centre (along the zero point) (Tabachnick & Fidell 2007). Any scores that extend more than 1.5 box-lengths from the box can be labelled as outliers (Pallant 2009). Mahalanobis distance (D) refers to the *distance of a case from the centroid where the centroid is the point defined by the means of all the variables taken as a whole* (Burdenski 2000, p. 19). To determine which cases are multivariate outliers, the critical chi-square at the desired alpha value is identified (Tabachnick & Fidell 2007). Mahalanobis distance statistics larger than a critical value are considered multivariate outliers. There are 61 IVs in this thesis. D values range from 20.14 to 98.19, which are below the critical value of 100.88, suggesting that the present data involve no multivariate outliers. The following section involves a discussion of exploratory factor analysis (EFA), criteria adopted for extracting EFA factors, and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA).

Exploratory Factor Analysis

Consistent with analytic procedures for the empirical assessment of construct validity (Hair et al. 2006; Netemeyer, Bearden & Sharma 2003b), the first step for validation of the STITA questionnaire was to refine measurement scales, assess unidimensionality, and examine internal consistency of scales. EFA can be executed in the early stages of scale development to determine the number of latent constructs underlying a set of items (Wegener & Fabrigar 2000).

EFA provides a preliminary understanding of variables (items) that form a relatively coherent subset, independent of others (Tabachnick & Fidell 2007; Wegener & Fabrigar 2000). Potentially problematic items that might cause poor confirmatory

factor analysis fit can also be identified (Farrell & Rudd 2009). The final set of items for each dimension are subsequently analysed to ensure that they are clear, reliable, and adequately represent each dimension of the scale. In this study, items were analysed using principal component analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation, to determine the underlying dimensions (factors) and their appropriateness.

Criteria for Extracting Factors

For this thesis, the decision to extract the factors was based on five criteria: item loadings, Kaiser's criterion, scree plot tests, proportion of variance and interpretability of the factors (Costello & Osborne 2005). Items were eliminated when factor loadings were less than 0.4, and when cross loadings were high or when items loaded on more than one factor (Pallant 2009; Suhr 2006). Kaiser's eigenvalue criterion of values greater than one was used to determine the optimum number of factors that could be extracted. (Suhr 2006). Additionally, Cattell's (1966) scree test and interpretability were considered when determining the appropriate number of factors to retain (Browne 2001).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Empirical data reduction techniques such as EFA do not address the issue of content adequacy, which is based on the theoretical correspondence between a measure's items and a factor's delineated content domain (Brown 2006). Further, EFA does not ensure that items loading on a single factor are measuring the same theoretical content (Hancock & Mueller 2006). Following Schreiber et al. (2006), this study used CFA to improve the rigor with which content validity is measured.

CFA permits researchers *to test the hypothesis that a relationship between the observed variables and their underlying latent construct(s) exists* (Suhr 2006, p. 2). Relationship patterns are postulated based on theory, empirical research, or both (Byrne 2010; Brown 2006). CFA can also be employed to verify the reliability of scales representing constructs in a theoretical model (Lance & Vandenberg 2001),

and help to determine whether data are consistent within constrained structures to meet conditions of model identification (Worthington & Whittaker 2006). There are three categories of fit indices (i.e., absolute fit, incremental fit, and parsimonious fit indices) through which model fitness assessment can be made. The following section describes three categories of fit indices used in this study.

Absolute fit indices, such as the model Chi-square statistics was interpreted by its departure from zero as a worse fit and its relation to the degrees of freedom with a ratio of 2-to-3 usually representing arbitrary good fit (Kline 2010). Chi-square acts as an index of absolute model fit estimating the degree to which covariances implied by a model's structure match the observed covariances (Worthington & Whittaker 2006). Chi-square statistics are extremely sensitive to large sample sizes, and do not fully correct sample size influences (Suhr 2006). The TLI, CFI, and GFI are incremental indices that compare the fit of an hypothesized model with that of a null baseline model (Hair et al. 2006). These fit statistics indicate a better fit as they approach one, with an arbitrary indicator of good fit at a value of .90 or greater (Joreskog & Sorbom 2001).

Parsimonious fit indices, such as the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) provides an estimate of measurement error. This is a measure of fit between an unknown but optimally chosen parameter of values and the population covariance matrix (Brown 2006). Values less than 0.05 indicate sound fit, and values as high as 0.08 represent reasonable fit. Similarly, values ranging from between 0.06 to 0.08 can be viewed as indicative of good fit (Schreiber et al. 2006; Lance & Vandenberg 2001). Kline (2010) advocated use of the Standardised Root Mean-square Residual (SRMR) to assess model fit. This value represents the standardized difference between covariances in observed data (model) and predicted covariances (in the predicted model). Researchers (Hooper, Coughlan & Mullen 2008; Schreiber et al. 2006; Hu & Bentler 1999) deem that SRMR values as high as 0.08 are acceptable. Accordingly, $\chi^2/df \leq 2$ or 3; GFI, TLI and CFI of 0.90 or greater; RMSEA and SRMR less than 0.08 were adopted (Kline 2010).

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

SEM was performed to test the five main hypotheses. SEM is described as a combination of EFA (Ullman 2001) and multiple regression (Streiner 2005) or as a mixture of CFA and multiple regression (Schreiber et al. 2006). SEM can be divided into two parts: a measurement model and a structural model (Byrne 2010). The measurement model encompasses associations between measured variables and latent variables (Byrne 2010). The structural model comprises relationships between latent variables (Hancock & Mueller 2006). SEM tests hypothesized patterns of directional and nondirectional relationships among a set of measured and latent variables (MacCallum & Austin 2000).

The aim of SEM is finding a model that fits the data well enough to illustrate reality and parsimony (Hancock & Mueller 2006). In order to improve model fit or achieve a parsimonious model, modifications can be undertaken (Schumacker & Lomax 2004) by adding new pathways or removing original ones (Byrne 2010), or by either freeing parameters that were fixed or fixing parameters that were free (Ullman 2001). Notwithstanding, modified models must be theoretically sensible (Schreiber et al. 2006). In this study, adequacy of a hypothesized model and detection of incorrect estimation in the model was assessed based on goodness-of-fit statistics described earlier. Additionally, statistical significance of the regression weights (p -values), standardized regression weights (parameter estimates), and squared multiple correlations (R^2) are also examined. The subsequent section presents EFA and CFA results, path model results and analysis of hypothesized relationships.

Results

Exploratory Factor Analysis

Descriptive statistics and correlation coefficients of items contained main constructs (perceived organisational support, career success and work-life balance) are shown in Tables 4.3 to 4.5. Factor loadings associated with each construct measured following EFA are shown in Tables 4.6 to 4.8.

Table 4.3: Descriptive statistics and correlation matrix for items comprising the perceived organisational support construct

POS Items	Mean Score	Std. Dev	OSPOS1	ROSPOS2	ROSPOS3	OSPOS4	ROSPOS5	OSPOS6	ROSPOS7	OSPOS8	RCOMP1	RCOMP2	COMP3	RCOMP4	RHR1	HR2	HR3	HR4	R PROMO1	R PROMO2	PROMO4
OSPOS1	3.30	1.01	1																		
ROSPOS2 ^a	2.85	1.21	.48**	1																	
ROSPOS3 ^a	3.29	1.10	.51**	.61**	1																
OSPOS4	2.97	1.12	.63**	.40**	.48**	1															
ROSPOS5 ^a	2.98	1.12	.46**	.53**	.56**	.45**	1														
OSPOS6	3.02	1.13	.61**	.51**	.54**	.67**	.42**	1													
ROSPOS7 ^a	3.21	1.14	.59**	.60**	.60**	.52**	.61**	.53**	1												
OSPOS8	3.14	1.05	.62**	.40**	.44**	.56**	.48**	.60**	.50**	1											
RCOMP1 ^a	3.40	1.10	.19**	.25**	.24**	.29**	.23**	.21**	.23**	.23**	1										
RCOMP2 ^a	2.81	1.17	.28**	.35**	.33**	.40**	.30**	.30**	.34**	.24**	.66**	1									
COMP3	3.58	1.04	.10**	.14*	.14	.16*	.20**	.10**	.20**	.09	.39**	.35**	1								
RCOMP4 ^a	2.72	1.12	.19**	.32**	.37**	.24**	.16*	.25**	.29**	.16*	.34**	.42**	.18*	1							
RHR1 ^a	3.39	1.02	.25**	.28**	.29**	.19**	.16*	.28**	.34**	.21**	.31**	.34**	.27**	.36**	1						
HR2	2.42	1.16	.13**	.34**	.26**	.16*	.37**	.21**	.26**	.14	.14	.17*	.19**	.18*	.18*	1					
HR3	2.99	1.03	.40**	.35**	.34**	.38**	.32**	.37**	.41**	.32**	.18*	.31**	.28**	.27**	.46**	.48**	1				
HR4	3.05	1.07	.30**	.25**	.26**	.27**	.25**	.26**	.25**	.20**	.24**	.22**	.26**	.17*	.40**	.27**	.64**	1			
R PROMO1 ^a	2.53	1.06	.31**	.36**	.19**	.24**	.15*	.27**	.29**	.22**	.29**	.35**	.11	.25**	.38**	.17*	.29**	.19**	1		
R PROMO2 ^a	1.65	0.97	.21**	.20**	.14**	.16*	.08**	.16*	.15*	.07	.11**	.27**	.04	.15*	.23**	.13	.18*	.06	.49**	1	
PROMO4	2.75	0.99	.23**	.21**	.30**	.33**	.16*	.33**	.15*	.31**	.17*	.167*	.08	.17*	.18*	.10	.24**	.08	.29**	.18*	1
PROMO5	2.34	0.98	.31**	.27**	.22**	.33**	.14**	.30**	.22**	.32**	.11	.20**	.01	.15*	.19**	.19**	.24**	.13	.39**	.37**	.61**

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$ ^a Reversed items

Table 4.4 Descriptive statistics and correlation matrix for items comprising the career success construct

Career Success Items	Mean Score	Std. Dev	OSCS1	OSCS2	OSCS3	OSCS4	OSCS5	CSE1	RCSE2	RCSE3	RCSE4	RCSE5	RCSE6	CSE11	CSE12
OSCS1	3.61	1.05	1												
OSCS2	3.54	1.07	.86**	1											
OSCS3	3.31	1.15	.65**	.71**	1										
OSCS4	3.35	1.16	.72**	.81**	.69**	1									
OSCS5	3.53	1.22	.54**	.63**	.58**	.58**	1								
CSE1	2.83	1.11	.22**	.24**	.16*	.27**	.15*	1							
RCSE2 ^a	2.23	0.97	.32**	.35**	.34**	.40**	.26**	.40**	1						
RCSE3 ^a	2.83	1.04	.19**	.20**	.13	.19**	.19**	.46**	.46**	1					
RCSE4 ^a	3.09	1.16	.18*	.19**	.16*	.19**	.16*	.46**	.30**	.43**	1				
RCSE5 ^a	2.85	1.12	.22**	.26**	.21**	.29**	.20**	.55**	.43**	.46**	.59**	1			
RCSE6 ^a	2.56	1.08	.31**	.33**	.28**	.36**	.22**	.51**	.54**	.53**	.48**	.61**	1		
CSE11	2.99	1.19	.27**	.30**	.16*	.14*	.25**	.28**	.32**	.39**	.23**	.32**	.38**	1	
CSE12	3.00	0.94	.21**	.20**	.11	.13	.22**	.20**	.26**	.25**	.17*	.32**	.23**	.65**	1
CSE13	3.01	1.04	.27**	.24**	.12	.13	.25**	.26**	.24**	.30**	.24**	.30**	.28**	.61**	.78**

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$ ^a Reversed items

Table 4.5 Descriptive statistics and correlation matrix for items comprising the work-life balance construct

Work-life Balance Items	Mean Score	Std. Dev	RWLB1	RWLB2	RWLB3	RWLB4	RWLB5	RWLB6	RWLB7	RWLB8	RWLB9	RWLB10	RWLB11	WLB12	WLB13	WLB14	WLB15	WLB16
RWLB1 ^a	2.65	1.18	1															
RWLB2 ^a	2.92	1.25	.63**	1														
RWLB3 ^a	2.62	1.18	.64**	.70**	1													
RWLB4 ^a	2.94	1.24	.58**	.75**	.76**	1												
RWLB5 ^a	3.04	1.18	.50**	.63**	.67**	.69**	1											
RWLB6 ^a	3.85	0.94	.23**	.09	.13	.17*	.14*	1										
RWLB7 ^a	4.00	0.92	.15*	.01	.08	.13	.10	.63**	1									
RWLB8 ^a	3.81	1.04	.04	.06	-.03	.05	-.01	.59**	.62**	1								
RWLB9 ^a	4.11	0.81	.096	.05	-.01	.11	.08	.60**	.57**	.61**	1							
RWLB10 ^a	3.73	0.99	.19*	.19**	.22**	.23**	.14	.27**	.32**	.35**	.44**	1						
RWLB11 ^a	4.10	0.79	.08	.12	.08	.14	.09	.34**	.46**	.44**	.52**	.45**	1					
WLB12	2.89	1.05	.43**	.48**	.36**	.48**	.30**	-.03	-.07	-.05	-.07	.07	-.06	1				
WLB13	2.94	1.15	.39**	.43**	.41**	.47**	.36**	.02	.02	-.05	.02	.12	-.02	.61**	1			
WLB14	2.78	1.11	.33**	.29**	.31**	.30**	.23**	.07	.07	.05	.04	.17*	-.02	.52**	.72**	1		
WLB15	3.52	0.94	.19**	.11	.10	.16*	.02	.04	.09	.10	.12	.20**	-.02	.28**	.40**	.34**	1	
WLB16	3.54	0.94	.23**	.16*	.20**	.23**	.10	.09	.08	.05	.01	.26**	-.01	.32**	.34**	.32**	.62**	1
WLB17	3.54	0.90	.33**	.26**	.32**	.25**	.23**	.01	.08	.01	.02	.18*	-.08	.32**	.41**	.41**	.57**	.64*

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$ ^a Reversed items

Table 4.6 Factor loadings associated with the perceived organisational support scale following principal component analysis

Perceived Organisational Support Measures Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy=0.87 Bartlett test of sphericity=1730.00, p=0.001		Factor 1 Perceived Organisational Support	Factor 2 Perceived Organisational HR Support	Factor 3 Perceived Organisational Financial Support	Factor 4 Perceived Organisational Career Support
OSPOS1	The organisation values my contribution to its well-being.	0.78			
ROSPOS2	The organisation fails to appreciate any extra effort from me. ^a	0.60			
ROSPOS3	The organisation would ignore any complaint from me. ^a	0.73			
OSPOS4	The organisation really cares about my well-being.	0.74			
ROSPOS5	Even if I did the best job possible, the organisation would fail to notice. ^a	0.73			
OSPOS6	The organisation cares about my general satisfaction at work.	0.77			
ROSPOS7	The organisation shows very little concern for me. ^a	0.74			
OSPOS8	The organisation takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	0.79			
RHR1	My working time is wasted because of inadequate planning for the short-term international teaching assignments. ^a		0.41		
HR2	The university provides pre-departure training (for example cultural awareness) and preparation for the short-term international teaching assignments.		0.71		
HR3	I am satisfied with the organisational support given to short-term international teaching assignments.		0.78		
HR4	There are selection criteria for short-term international teaching assignments.		0.73		
RCOMP1	I am out of pocket every time I travel for short-term international teaching assignments. ^a			0.86	
RCOMP2	The university administration does not understand the true cost to the individual of travelling offshore for teaching. ^a			0.80	
COMP3	The university reimburses me within a timely manner.			0.56	
RCOMP4	The financial compensation for teaching offshore is inadequate. ^a			0.53	
RPROMO1	There are better career options if I focus on a core discipline like marketing economics or management, rather than international teaching. ^a				0.63
RPROMO2	Research rather than short-term international teaching experience is the most important consideration in academic staff promotion. ^a				0.69
PROMO4	Short-term international teaching experience is valued by interview panels.				0.63
PROMO5	Short-term international teaching experience contributes to promotion.				0.80
Eigenvalues		7.14	1.90	1.76	1.38
Percentage of variance explained		34.01	9.05	8.39	6.57
Factor Correlation Matrix					
Factor					
	1	1.00			
	2	0.29	1.00		
	3	0.34	0.20	1.00	
	4	0.34	0.32	0.18	1.00

Note. ^a= reverse scored items.

Perceived organisational support

Table 4.6 shows the EFA of the 26 items involving the POS scale resulting in a four-factor structure with loadings equal to .40 or above. Factor loading range from .41 to .86. Six items (HR5, HR6, HR7, HR8, COMP5, PROMO3) were deleted because their loadings were less than 0.4 and these items displayed cross loadings. Interpretation of the four-factor solution, which explained 54% of the variance, was accomplished by relating clusters of items for each construct to their corresponding construct. These four factors are named: perceived organisational support, perceived organisational HR support, perceived organisational financial support, and perceived organisational career support. Discriminant validity is demonstrated as correlations between factors range between $r=.18$ and $r=.34$.

Career Success

As shown in Table 4.7, EFA of the 18 career success items identified three factors (career satisfaction, career development, career balance). In line with theory, all items load on their corresponding constructs, accounting for 66% of variance. Four items (CSE7, CSE 8, CSE 9, CSE 10) were deleted owing to low factor loadings and cross loadings. Discriminant validity is demonstrated as correlations between factors range between $r= -.16$ and $r=.41$.

Work-life balance

EFA of the 17 work-life balance items identified four factors (Table 4.8), accounting for 69% of variance. Theoretically, the four dimensions include work interference with personal life, personal life interference with work, work enhancement of personal life, and personal life enhancement of work. Correlations between factors range between $r=-.01$ and $r=.43$.

Table 4.7 Factor loadings associated with career success scale following principal component analysis

Career Success Measures		Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy=0.862		Career	Career	Career
Bartlett test of sphericity=1797.25,p=0.001		Satisfaction	Development	Balance
OSCS1	I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career.	-0.86		
OSCS2	I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals.	-0.92		
OSCS3	I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for income.	-0.87		
OSCS4	I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement.	-0.87		
OSCS5	I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for the development of new skills.	-0.76		
CSE1	Short-term international teaching assignments would be a boost to my professional reputation.		0.65	
RCSE2	Participation in short-term international teaching assignments would probably not lead to promotion and desirable career development opportunities for me in this organisation. ^a		0.63	
RCSE3	Participation in short-term international teaching assignments would be of less benefit to me professionally than a similar work assignment in a domestic geographical location. ^a		0.79	
RCSE4	In the long run, my professional career would not benefit from work experience in the international work arena. ^a		0.76	
RCSE5	Short-term international teaching assignments would not improve my ability to keep pace with my peers in this organisation. ^a		0.71	
RCSE6	Having short-term international teaching experience would not increase recognition of the value of my contributions to this organisation. ^a		0.76	
CSE11	My participation in short-term international teaching assignments would not, in the long run, upset the balance I have established between my work and private life.			0.78
CSE12	Career opportunities coming as a result of short-term international teaching assignments would not reduce my involvement in personal interests and leisure activities.			0.92
CSE13	The equilibrium between my personal and professional lives would not be upset as a result of career opportunities arising out of my international work experience.			0.89
Eigenvalues		6.36	2.66	1.06
Percentage of variance explained		35.32	14.78	5.88
Factor Correlation Matrix				
Factor				
1		1.00		
2		-0.31	1.00	
3		0.41	-0.16	1.00

Note: ^a=reverse scored items.

Table 4.8 Factor loadings associated with the work-life balance scale following principal component analysis

Work-life Balance Measures		Factor1	Factor2	Factor3	Factor4
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy=0.86		WIPL	PLIW	WEPL	PLEW
Bartlett test of sphericity=3652.79, p=0.000					
RWLB1	I come home from work too tired to do things I would like to do. ^a	0.771			
RWLB2	My job makes it difficult to maintain the kind of personal life I would like. ^a	0.889			
RWLB3	I often neglect my personal needs because of the demands of my work. ^a	0.936			
RWLB4	My personal life suffers because of my work. ^a	0.857			
RWLB5	I have to miss important personal activities due to the amount of time I spend doing work. ^a	0.875			
RWLB6	My personal life drains me of the energy I need to do my job. ^a		0.764		
RWLB7	My work suffers because of everything going on in my personal life. ^a		0.866		
RWLB8	I would devote more time to work if it weren't for everything I have going on in my personal life. ^a		0.831		
RWLB9	I am too tired to be effective at work because of things I have going on in my personal life. ^a		0.888		
RWLB10	When I'm at work, I worry about things I need to do outside work. ^a		0.614		
RWLB11	I have difficulty getting my work done because I am preoccupied with personal matters at work. ^a		0.779		
WLB12	My job gives me energy to pursue activities outside of work that are important to me.			0.866	
WLB13	Because of my job, I am in a better mood at home.			0.921	
WLB14	The things I do at work help me deal with personal and practical issues at home.			0.886	
WLB15	I am in a better mood at work because of everything I have going for me in my personal life.				0.816
WLB16	My personal life gives me the energy to do my job.				0.826
WLB17	My personal life helps me relax and feel ready for the next day's work.				0.898
	Eigenvalues	5.493	3.719	2.123	1.163
	Percentage of variance explained	32.31	21.874	12.49	6.84
	Factor Correlation Matrix				
	Factor				
	1	1			
	2	0.11	1		
	3	0.26	0.18	1	
	4	0.43	-0.01	0.39	1

Note.^a= reverse scored items. WIPL=work interference with personal life; PLIW=personal life interference with work; WEPL=work enhancement of personal life; PLEW=personal life enhancement of work.

Confirmatory Factor Analyses

The subsequent section reports on related one-factor and multi-factor congeneric models (CFA procedures) of EFA derived factors.

One-factor Congeneric Measurement Models

A one-factor congeneric measurement model involves a single latent variable measured by a number of observed variables (Jöreskog 1971). Congeneric models examine interrelationships among observed variables for a single latent factor (DeVellis 2003), minimize measurement error in items (Graham 2006) and increase reliability levels of composite factors (Lance & Vandenberg 2001).

A congeneric measurement model will be just identified when a latent construct is associated with at least 3 indicators and it will be under identified if latent construct is associated with only 2 indicators (Kline 2010); but can become identified when part of a larger model (Fox 2002). In this study, 11 independent one-factor congeneric models are evaluated. Perceived organisational career support, career balance, and personal life enhancement of work models were just identified. Work enhancement of personal life is under identified. Items with standardized regression weights demonstrating weak effects, and involving low (less than .3) squared multiple correlations or non-significant *t*-values were omitted.

Validity of composite factors was measured by examining fit statistics which estimate how well a model fits the data. Table 4.9 shows items (and associated questionnaire numbering) that are linked to each one-factor congeneric measurement model and goodness-of-fit statistics. The remaining seven one-factor models fit the data well (range of statistics: χ^2/df 1.173 - 2.403; *RMSEA* 0.030 - 0.086; *TLI* 0.963 - 0.996; *CFI* 0.981 - 0.998; *AGFI* 0.927 - 0.963). Tables 4.9 to 4.12 show standardized coefficients and *t*-values for each one-factor congeneric measurement model.

Table 4.9 Questionnaire items and goodness-of-fit statistics for the one-factor congeneric measurement models

Construct	Questions	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	AGFI	
Perceived Organisational Support									
Perceived Organisational Support ^a	OSPOS1,ROSPOS2,ROSPOS3,ROSPOS5, ROSPOS7	5.866	5	1.173	0.030	0.996	0.998	0.963	
Perceived Organisational HR Support ^a	RHR1, HR2,HR3,HR4	4.806	2	2.403	0.086	0.96	0.986	0.934	
Perceived Organisational Financial Support ^a	RCOMP1,RCOMP2,COMP3,RCOMP4	2.858	2	1.429	0.048	0.99	0.995	0.961	
Perceived Organisational Career Support ^b	R PROMO2, PROMO4,PROMO5								
Career Success									
Career Satisfaction ^a	OSCS1,OSCS2,OSCS4,OSCS5	2.914	2	1.457	0.049	0.995	0.998	0.961	
Career Development ^a	CSE1,RCSE2,RCSE3,RCSE5,RCSE6	7.891	5	1.578	0.055	0.982	0.991	0.950	
Career Balance ^a	CSE11,CSE12,CSE13								
Work-life balance									
Work interference with personal life ^a	RWLB1,RWLB2,RWLB3,RWLB4,RWLB5	9.972	5	1.994	0.073	0.983	0.992	0.941	
Personal life interference with work ^a	RWLB6, RWLB7,RWLB8, RWLB9,RWLB11	11.804	5	2.361	0.085	0.963	0.981	0.927	
Work enhancement of personal life ^c	WLB13,WLB14								
Personal life enhancement of work ^c	WLB15,WLB16,WLB17								

Note. ^a=Over identified model. ^b=Just identified/saturated model. ^c=Unidentified model.

Table 4.10 Standardised coefficients and *t*-values for perceived organisational support

One-Factor Congeneric Measurement Models for the Perceived Organisational Support Construct		Standardized Coefficients	<i>t</i> -value ^a
Perceived Organisational Support			
OSPOS1:	The organisation values my contribution to its well-being.	0.67	Scaling
OSPOS2:	The organisation fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.	0.75	8.79
OSPOS3:	The organisation would ignore any complaint from me.	0.77	9.01
OSPOS5:	Even if I did the best job possible, the organisation would fail to notice.	0.72	8.57
OSPOS7:	The organisation shows very little concern for me.	0.82	9.41
Perceived Organisational HR Support			
RHR1:	My working time is wasted because of inadequate planning for the short-term offshore teaching assignments.	0.48	Scaling
HR2:	The university provides pre-departure training (for example cultural awareness) and preparation for the short-term offshore teaching assignments.	0.49	5.22
HR3:	I am satisfied with the organisational support given to short-term international teaching assignments.	0.98	5.91
HR4:	There are selection criteria for short-term international teaching assignments.	0.66	6.16
Perceived Organisational Financial Support			
COMP1:	I am out of pocket every time I travel for short-term offshore teaching assignments.	0.79	Scaling
COMP2:	The university administration does not understand the true cost to the individual of travelling offshore for teaching.	0.84	7.96
COMP3:	The university reimburses me within a timely manner.	0.44	5.45
COMP4:	The financial compensation for teaching offshore is inadequate.	0.47	5.85
Perceived Organisational Career Support			
R PROMO2:	Research rather than short-term offshore teaching experience is the most important consideration in academic staff promotion.	0.33	Scaling
PROMO4:	Short-term offshore teaching experience is viewed positively by interview panels.	0.55	4.74
PROMO5:	Short-term offshore teaching experience positively contributes to promotion.	1.12	2.66

Note. ^a Scaling denotes standardised factor loadings value of indicator set to 1 to enable latent factor identification

Table 4.11 Standardised coefficients and *t*-values for career success

One-Factor Congeneric Measurement Models for the Career Success Expectation Construct	Standardized Coefficients	<i>t</i> -value ^a
Career Satisfaction		
OSCS1: I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career.	0.87	10.33
OSCS2: I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals.	0.98	10.96
OSCS4: I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement.	0.83	9.93
OSCS5: I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for the development of new skills.	0.65	Scaling
Career Development		
CSE1: Short-term offshore teaching assignments would be a boost to my professional reputation.	0.68	Scaling
RCSE2: Participation in short-term offshore teaching assignments would probably not lead to promotion and desirable career development opportunities for me in this organisation.	0.61	7.34
RCSE3: Participation in short-term offshore teaching assignments would be of less benefit to me professionally than a similar work assignment in a domestic geographical location.	0.65	7.41
RCSE4: In the long run, my professional career would not benefit from work experience in the international work arena.	0.66	7.89
RCSE5: Short-term offshore teaching assignments would not improve my ability to keep pace with my peers in this organisation.	0.78	9.09
RCSE6: Having short-term offshore teaching experience would not increase recognition of the value of my contributions to this organisation.	0.78	9.09
Career Balance		
CSE11: My participation in short-term offshore teaching assignments would not, in the long run, upset the balance I have established between my work and private life.	0.73	11.13
CSE12: Career opportunities coming as a result of short-term offshore teaching would not reduce my involvement in personal interests and leisure activities.	0.89	13.48
CSE13: The equilibrium between my personal and professional lives would not be upset as a result of career opportunities arising out of my international work experience.	0.87	Scaling

Note. ^a Scaling denotes standardised factor loadings value of indicator set to 1 to enable latent factor identification

Table 4.12 Standardised coefficients and *t*-values for work-life balance

One-Factor Congeneric Measurement Models for the Work-life Balance Construct		Standardized Coefficients	<i>t</i> -value ^a
Work interference with personal life			
WLB1:	I come home from work too tired to do things I would like to do.	0.7	Scaling
WLB2:	My job makes it difficult to maintain the kind of personal life I would like.	0.84	10.77
WLB3:	I often neglect my personal needs because of the demands of my work.	0.86	11.03
WLB4:	My personal life suffers because of my work.	0.88	11.22
WLB5:	I have to miss important personal activities due to the amount of time I spend doing work.	0.77	9.91
Personal life interference with work			
WLB6:	My personal life drains me of the energy I need to do my job.	0.77	Scaling
WLB7:	My work suffers because of everything going on in my personal life.	0.78	10.42
WLB8:	I would devote more time to work if it weren't for everything I have going on in my personal life.	0.78	10.49
WLB9:	I am too tired to be effective at work because of things I have going on in my personal life.	0.77	10.33
WLB11:	I have difficulty getting my work done because I am preoccupied with personal matters at work.	0.45	5.81
Work enhancement of personal life			
WLB12:	My job gives me energy to pursue activities outside of work that are important to me.	0.66	Scaling
WLB13:	Because of my job, I am in a better mood at home.	0.92	8.79
WLB14:	The things I do at work help me deal with personal and practical issues at home.	0.78	9.05
Personal life enhancement of work			
WLB15:	I am in a better mood at work because of everything I have going for me in my personal life.	0.74	Scaling
WLB16:	My personal life gives me the energy to do my job.	0.84	9.42
WLB17:	My personal life helps me relax and feel ready for the next day's work.	0.77	9.31

Note. ^a Scaling denotes standardised factor loadings value of indicator set to 1 to enable latent factor identification

Multi-factor Analyses

Multi-factor models are identified when each factor has two or more indicators. These models test multidimensionality of theoretical constructs, and can be utilised to calculate weighted composite scores and test for convergent and discriminant validity (Kline 2010). Multi-factor models also examine scale reliability (Cronbach's alpha), internal consistency (construct reliability), and distinct validity (variance extracted) (Hancock & Mueller 2006). Figures 4.2 to 4.4 show three multi-factor models and goodness of fit statistics associated with each final model. It should be noted that in order to avoid repetition, results only from the final models are reported.

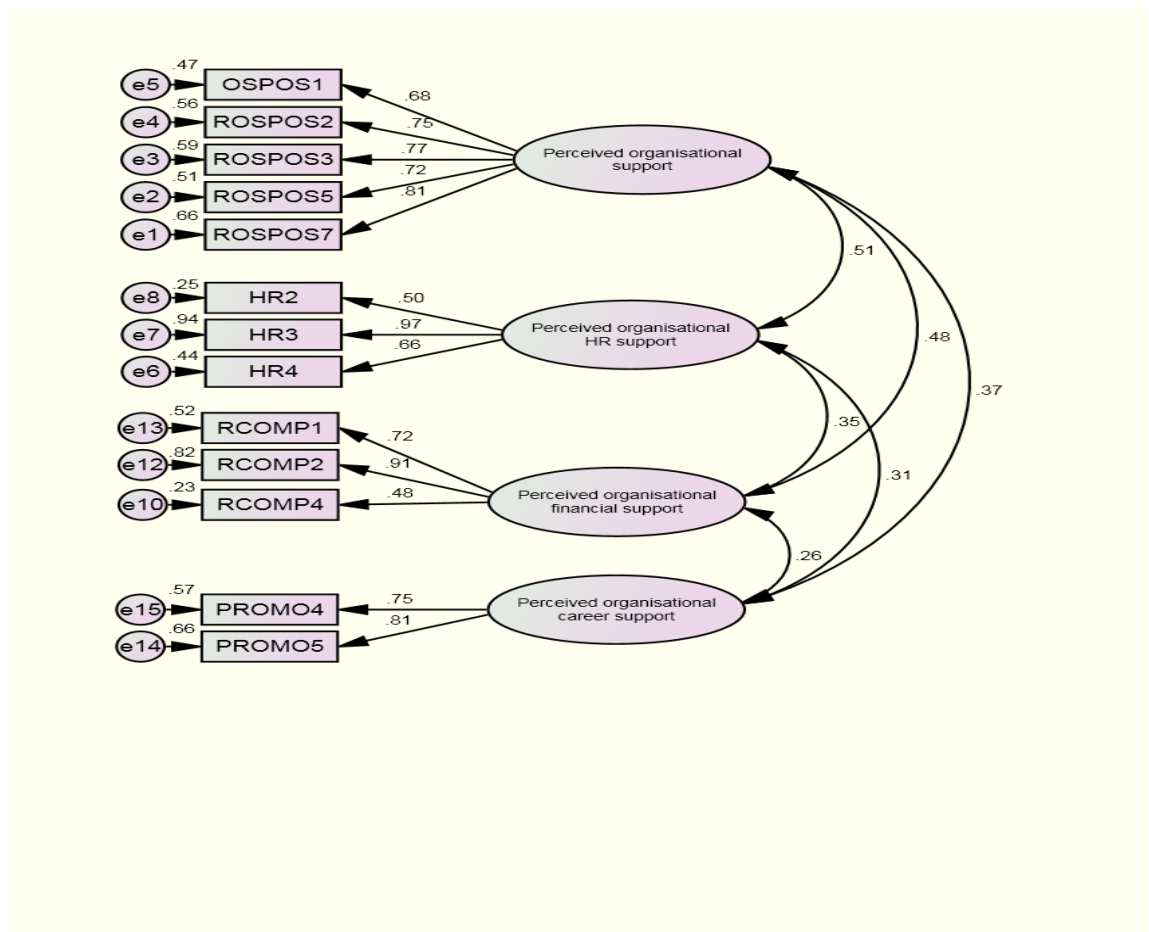


Figure 4.2 Four-factor perceived organisational support measurement model

Perceived organisational support comprises four factors (i.e., perceived organisational support, perceived organisational HR support, perceived organisational financial support, perceived organisational career support). Respectively, these factors are made up of five perceived organisation support, three perceived organisational HR support, three perceived organisational financial support, and two perceived organisational career support items. However, following the multi-factor congeneric measurement models (Figure 4.2), the final perceived organisational support measurement model comprises 13 items that fit the data well: $\chi^2=127.175$, $df=71$, $\chi^2/df=1.791$, $RMSEA=0.065$, $SRMR= 0.0533$, $TLI=0.925$, $CFI=0.942$, $GFI=0.917$. All $ps<.001$.

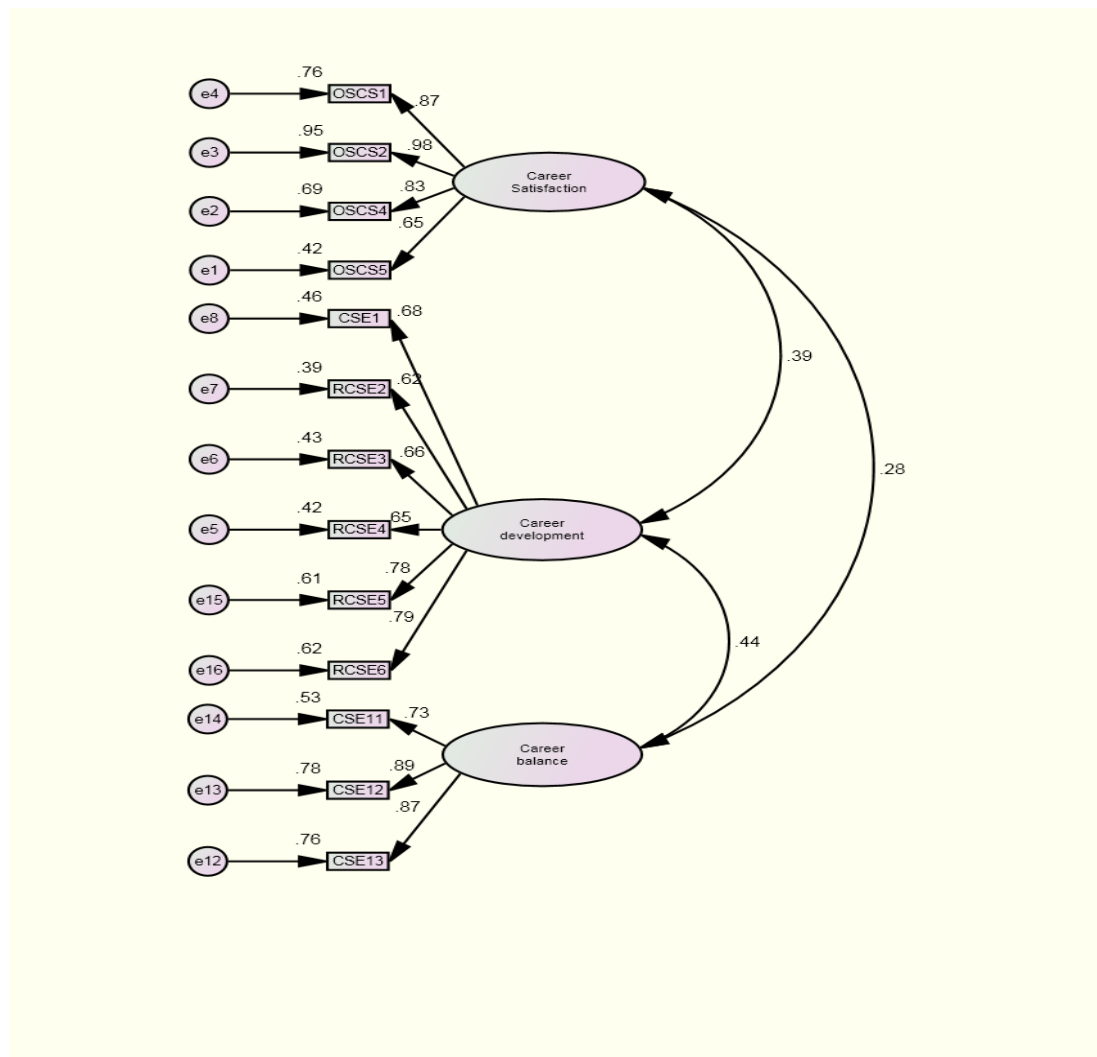


Figure 4.3 Three-factor career success measurement model

As shown in Figure 4.3, career success comprises three factors (i.e., career satisfaction, career development, career balance) involving 13 items that fit the data well: $\chi^2=99.774$, $df=62$, $\chi^2/df=1.609$, $RMSEA=0.057$, $SRMR= 0.0565$, $TLI=0.964$, $CFI=0.971$, $GFI=0.929$. All $ps <.001$.

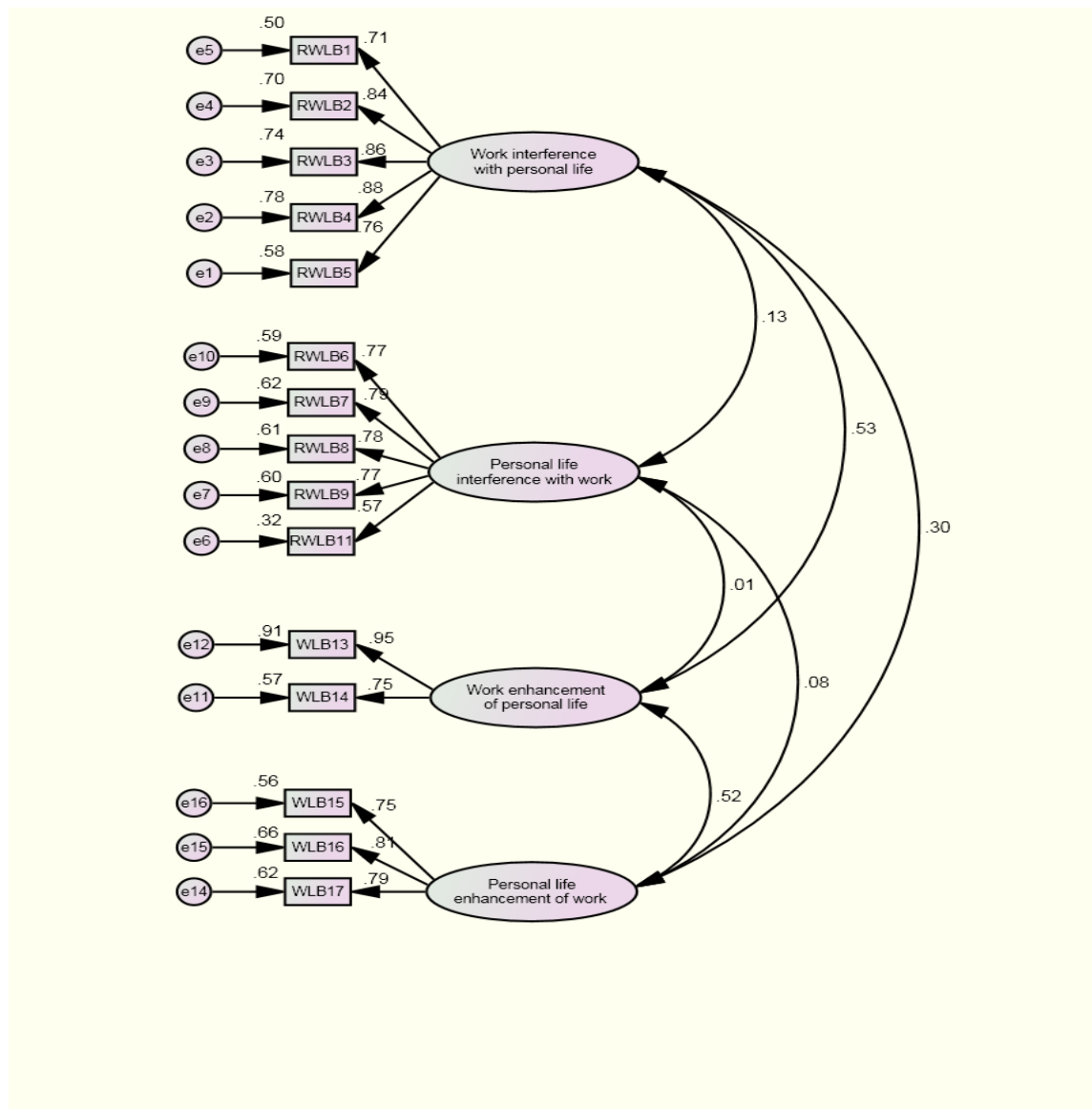


Figure 4.4 Four-factor work-life balance measurement model

Work-life balance consists of four factors (i.e., work interference with personal life; personal life interference with work; work enhancement of personal life; personal life enhancement of work). As Figure 4.4 and associated goodness-of-fit statistics show, the final work-life balance measurement model comprises 15 items that fit the data well: $\chi^2=151.018$, $df=84$, $\chi^2/df=1.798$, $RMSEA=0.065$, $SRMR=0.0656$, $TLI=0.942$, $CFI=0.953$, $GFI=0.915$. All $ps < .001$.

Convergent and Discriminant Validity

Reliability and validity are fundamental cornerstones in the evaluation of research. This study evaluates construct validity in relation to convergent and divergent validity. Convergent validity is agreement between measures of the same construct (Gefen, Straub & Boudreau 2000), as indicated by factor loadings, variance extracted (VE) (Fornell & Larcker 1981), construct reliability (CR) (Straub, Boudreau & Gefen 2004), and associated significant t -values (Gallagher, Ting & Palmer 2008). Tables 4.14 to 4.16 show standardized parameter estimates (factor loadings) ranging from 0.45 - 0.97, and all loadings are significant (t -values ≥ 1.96 , $p < 0.05$). VE assesses the degree of variance captured by a construct's measure due to random measurement error (Gefen, Straub & Boudreau 2000). CR is a measure of internal consistency (Kline 2010). According to Gallagher, Ting and Palmer (2008), VE values should be .5 or greater and estimated CR should be above a threshold of .6 to suggest adequate convergent validity. Formulae used to calculate variance extracted (VE) and construct reliability (CR) are as follows:

$$\text{Variance Extracted (VE)} = \frac{\sum \lambda^2}{[\sum \lambda^2 + \sum (1 - \lambda_j^2)]^*}$$

$$\text{Construct Reliability (CR)} = \frac{(\sum \lambda)^2}{(\sum \lambda)^2 + \sum (1 - \lambda_j^2)^*}$$

* λ = standardized factor loadings, $1 - \lambda_j^2$ = error variance

For the present thesis, CR values range from 0.76 to 0.90 and VE values range between 0.49 and 0.71, indicating middling to high internal consistency and distinct validity. Tables 4.14 to 4.16 display standardized factor loadings, t -values, CR, and

VE values for each multi-factor measurement model. One possible explanation for the middling values relates to latent variables comprising relatively few items, in four cases, only three items.

In contrast, discriminant validity refers to the extent in which a construct is different from other latent constructs (Byrne 2010). Measurement scales might not function appropriately when a factor analysis is misread, and discriminant validity is not established (Farrell 2010). Discriminant validity among latent variables is evidenced when intercorrelations are moderate in magnitude, less than 0.9 (Kline 2010). In this thesis, estimated correlations among factors were low to middling (0.01 to 0.53), reflecting that dimensions (scales) most likely measure different aspects of perceived organisational support, career success and work-life balance.

Finally, Cronbach's alpha was calculated to assess reliability of items loading on factors. George and Mallery (2003) suggested that a factor should not be retained when it does not achieve a reliability level of at least 0.60. Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) recommend that at early stages of research, alpha standards of reliability should exceed .70. Reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) were calculated for measures of perceived organisational support ($\alpha = 0.85$), career success ($\alpha = 0.87$), and work-life balance ($\alpha = 0.85$).

Table 4.14 Standardized factor loadings, *t*-values, factor score weights, standardized factor score weights, construct reliability and variance extracted values for the four-factor perceived organisational support measurement model

Construct	Standardised Factor Loading	<i>t</i> -value ^a	Construct Reliability (CR)	Variance Extracted (VE)
Perceived Organisational Support			0.86	0.56
OSPOS1	0.98	9.65		
ROSPOS2	0.75	10.81		
ROSPOS3	0.77	11.15		
ROSPOS5	0.71	10.20		
ROSPOS7	0.81	Scaling		
Perceived Organisational HR Support			0.77	0.54
HR2	0.50	6.39		
HR3	0.97	7.84		
HR4	0.66	Scaling		
Perceived Organisational Financial Support			0.76	0.53
RCOMP1	0.72	6.11		
RCOMP2	0.91	5.96		
RCOMP4	0.48	Scaling		
Perceived Organisational Career Support			0.76	0.61
PROMO4	0.75	4.74		
PROMO5	0.81	Scaling		

Note. ^a Scaling denotes standardized factor loadings value of indicator set to 1 to enable latent factor identification.

Table 4.15 Standardized factor loadings, *t*-values, factor score weights, standardized factor score weights, construct reliability and variance extracted values for the three-factor career success support measurement model

Construct	Standardised Factor Loading	<i>t</i> -value ^a	Construct Reliability (CR)	Variance Extracted (VE)
Career Satisfaction				
			0.90	0.71
OSCS1	0.87	10.33		
OSCS2	0.98	10.97		
OSCS4	0.83	9.94		
OSCS5	0.65	Scaling		
Career Development				
			0.85	0.49
CSE1	0.68	7.79		
RCSE2	0.62	7.28		
RCSE3	0.66	7.60		
RCSE4	0.65	Scaling		
RCSE5	0.78	8.67		
RCSE6	0.79	8.73		
Career Balance				
			0.87	0.69
CSE11	0.73	11.15		
CSE12	0.89	13.49		
CSE13	0.87	Scaling		

Note. ^a Scaling denotes standardized factor loadings value of indicator set to 1 to enable latent factor identification.

Table 4.16 Standardized factor loadings, *t*-values, factor score weights, standardized factor score weights, construct reliability and variance extracted values for the four-factor work-life balance support measurement model

Construct	Standardised Factor Loading	<i>t</i> -value ^a	Construct Reliability (CR)	Variance Extracted (VE)
Work interference with personal life			0.91	0.66
RWLB1	0.71	9.95		
RWLB2	0.84	12.14		
RWLB3	0.86	12.47		
RWLB4	0.88	12.88		
RWLB5	0.76	Scaling		
Personal life interference with work			0.84	0.52
RWLB6	0.77	5.89		
RWLB7	0.78	5.91		
RWLB8	0.78	5.91		
RWLB9	0.77	5.88		
RWLB11	0.45	Scaling		
Work enhancement of personal life			0.84	0.73
WLB13	0.95	Scaling		
WLB14	0.75	9.1		
Personal life enhancement of work			0.83	0.61
WLB15	0.75	Scaling		
WLB16	0.81	9.82		
WLB17	0.79	9.68		

Note. ^a Scaling denotes standardized factor loadings value of indicator set to 1 to enable latent factor identification.

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

Path Analysis: Test of hypotheses

Path analysis is a variation of multiple-regression analysis, serving as a tool for examining issues in causal analysis (Stage, Carter & Nora 2004), providing estimates of magnitude and significance of hypothesized causal connections among variables (MacCallum & Austin 2000). In this thesis, results only from the final model are reported to avoid the likelihood of repetition.

Table 4.17 Descriptive statistics (Mean scores, Standard Deviation) of constructs in the final path model

Construct	Mean Scores	Std. Dev.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1.Perceived organisation support	9.36	2.82	1								
2.Perceived organisation HR support	5.41	1.88	.43**	1							
3.Perceived organisation financial support	5.53	1.94	.42**	.32**	1						
4.Perceived organisation career support	5.1	1.77	.30**	.25**	.23**	1					
5.Career satisfaction	6.89	2.12	.41**	.21**	.24**	.28**	1				
6.Career development	8.24	2.77	.44**	.30**	.34**	.55**	.37**	1			
7.Career balance	6.01	1.86	.40**	.32**	.33**	.30**	.19**	.34**	1		
8.Work enhancement of personal life	7.06	1.69	.38**	.22**	.20**	.33**	.40**	.38**	.28**	1	
8. Personal life enhancement of work	5.72	2.1	0.10	0.10	.19**	.16*	.16*	.15*	.24**	.42**	1

*p<0.05. **p<0.01

Figure 4.5 shows that the final path model involves four components of perceived organisational support (i.e., perceived organisational support, perceived organisational HR support, perceived organisational financial support, perceived organisational career support), three of career success (i.e., career satisfaction, career development, career balance), and two of work-life balance (i.e., work enhancement of personal life, personal life enhancement of work). As shown in Figure 4.5, the hypothesized model consists of 5 main and 24 minor hypotheses, with the final model fitting the data well: $\chi^2/df=1.496$, RMSEA=0.051, SRMR=0.0588, GFI=0.893, AGFI=0.852, TLI=0.929, CFI=0.943. The following section reports on Results in relation to tests of the five main hypotheses.

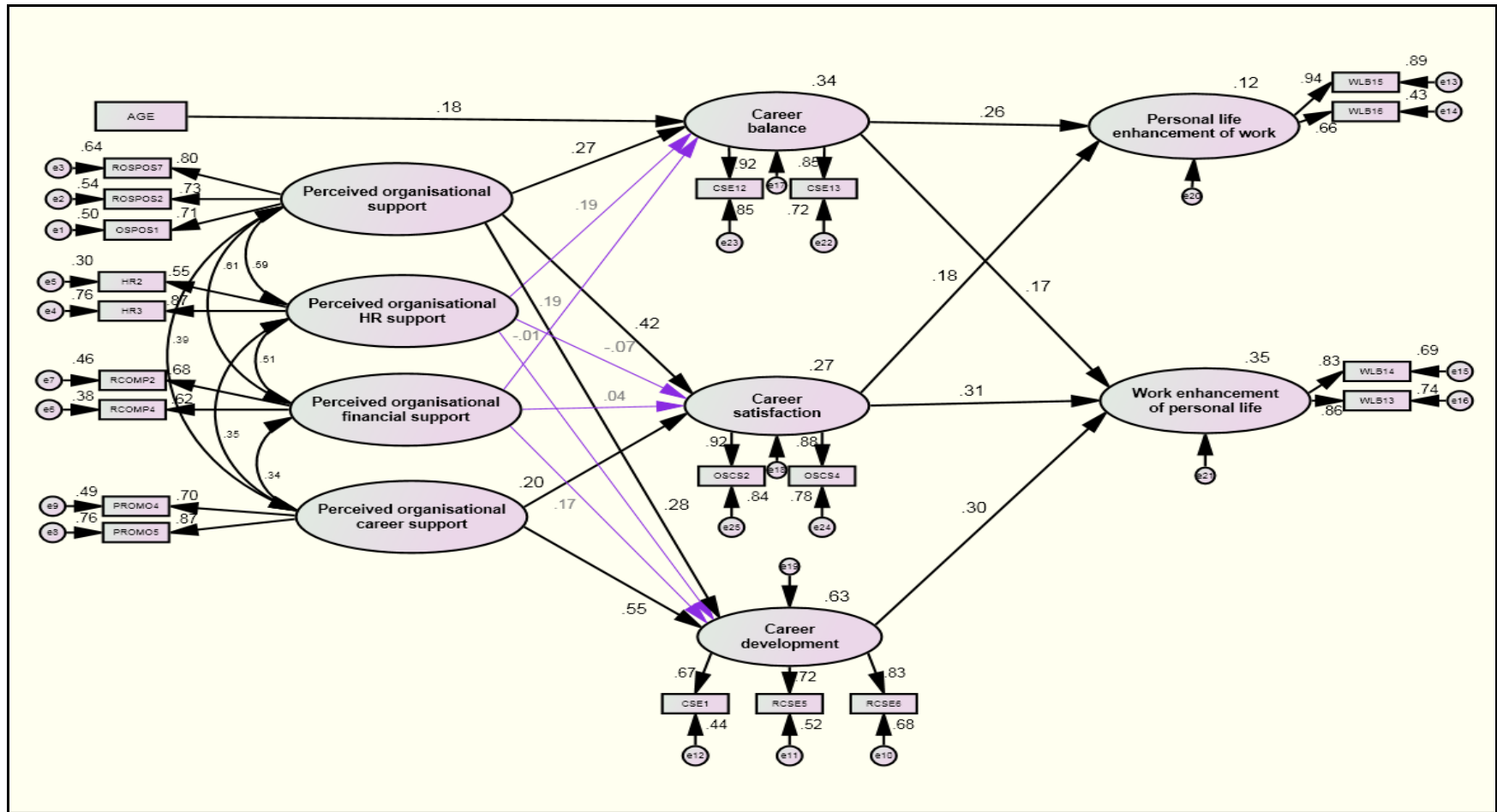


Figure 4.5 Final path model of hypothesized relationships

Hypothesis 1: Perceived organisational support is related positively to career success. As shown in Figure 4.5, perceived organisational support is related significantly and positively to career satisfaction (.42, $t=3.08$), career development (.28, $t=2.32$) and career balance, (.27, $t=2.11$). Accordingly, H1 is supported fully.

Hypothesis 2: Perceived organisational HR support is related positively to career success. Findings indicate that paths between perceived organisational HR support and career success are nonsignificant, failing to support H2.

Hypothesis 3: Perceived organisational financial support is related positively to career success. Perceived organisational financial support is not related significantly to career success, thus failing to support H3.

Hypothesis 4: Perceived organisational career support is related positively to career success. Perceived organisational career support is related significantly and positively to career satisfaction (.20, $t=2.27$) and career development (.55, $t=5.54$). Paths between perceived organisational career support and career balance is nonsignificant. Thus, H4 is supported partially.

Hypothesis 5: Career success is related positively to work-life balance. Results reveal that three dimensions of career success (career satisfaction, career development, career balance) are related significantly and positively to two dimensions of work-life balance (work enhancement of personal life, personal life enhancement of work). Career satisfaction is related significantly and positively to work enhancement of personal life (.31, $t=3.68$) and to personal life enhancement of work (.18, $t=2.17$). Career development is related positively to work enhancement of personal life (.30, $t=3.24$). Career balance is related significantly to work enhancement of personal life (.17, $t=2.17$) and personal life enhancement of work (.26, $t=3.15$). Paths between career success and other work-life balance dimensions (i.e., work interference with personal life, personal life interference with work) are nonsignificant. Thus, H5 is supported partially.

Table 4.18 Path model results

Hypothesis (Paths Modeled)	Standardized Coefficient	Hypothesis Result
<i>H1: Perceived organisational support is related positively to career success</i>		
H1a: Perceived organisational support is related positively to career satisfaction	0.42***	Supported
H1b: Perceived organisational support is related positively to career development	0.28*	Supported
H1c: Perceived organisational support is related positively to career balance	0.27*	Supported
<i>H2: Perceived organisational HR support is related positively to career success</i>		
H2a: Perceived organisational HR support is related positively to career satisfaction	-0.07	Not supported
H2b: Perceived organisational HR support is related positively to career development	-0.01	Not supported
H2c: Perceived organisational HR support is related positively to career balance	0.19	Not supported
<i>H3: Perceived organisational financial support is related positively to career success</i>		
H3a: Perceived organisational financial support is related positively to career satisfaction	0.04	Not supported
H3b: Perceived organisational financial support is related positively to career development	0.17	Not supported
H3c: Perceived organisational financial support is related positively to career balance	0.19	Not supported
<i>H4: Perceived organisational career support is related positively to career success</i>		
H4a: Perceived organisational career support is related positively to career satisfaction	0.20*	Supported
H4b: Perceived organisational career support is related positively to career development	0.55***	Supported
<i>H5: Career success is related positively to work-life balance</i>		
H5c: Career satisfaction is related positively to work enhancement of personal life	0.18*	Supported
H5d: Career satisfaction is related positively to personal life enhancement of work	0.32***	Supported
H5g: Career development is related positively to work enhancement of personal life	0.3***	Supported
H5k: Career balance is related positively to work enhancement of personal life	0.17*	Supported
H5l: Career balance is related positively to personal life enhancement of work	0.26**	Supported
Demographics		
Age is related positively to career balance	0.18**	Supported

Note. *p<0.05. **p<0.01. ***p<0.001.

Discussion

In this section, results of Study 2 are discussed in terms of hypotheses, prevailing literature and theories. The section concludes with implications and limitations. This thesis fills a significant gap in our understanding of the nature of relationships between perceived organisational support, career success, and work-life balance. An hypothesized model (Figure 4.6) was developed and tested demonstrating important support factors associated with academics' career success and work-life balance. Two dimensions of work-life balance (*work interference with personal life*, *personal life interference with work*) were excluded on the grounds that these variables lead to negative variance estimates, making the model inadmissible (Jöreskog & Sörbom 1984). The two dimensions of work-life balance that are retained (*work enhancement of personal life*, *personal life enhancement of work*) demonstrate significant relationships with career variables (i.e., career satisfaction, career development, career balance) and appear to capture all facets of work-life balance. As will be noted, the terms interference and enhancement used in conjunction with working life and personal life are diametrical opposites.

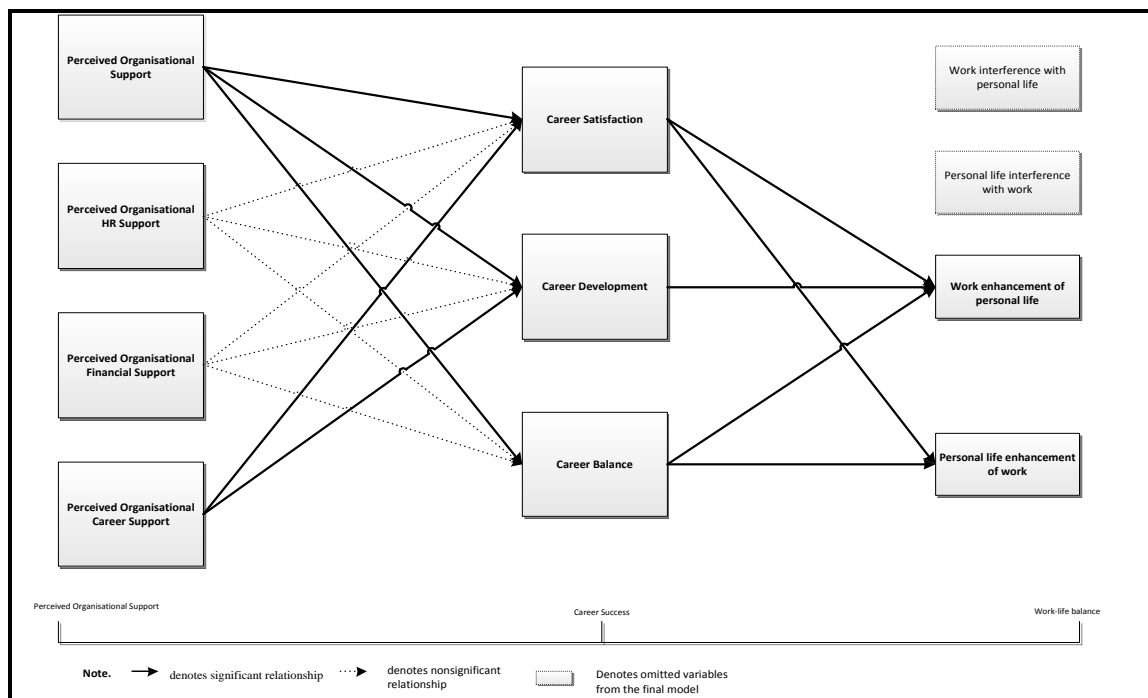


Figure 4.6 Relationships between perceived organisational support, career success and work-life balance

Hypothesis 1: *Perceived organisational support is related positively to career success*

Findings indicate significant positive relationships between perceived organisational support and three constructs of career success (i.e., career satisfaction, career development, & career balance), supporting Hypothesis 1. These findings suggest that academics' career success can be enhanced by raising the quality of support they receive. When employees perceive their organisation as caring about their well-being, and providing a conducive environment in which to pursue their career goals, employees report raised levels of career success (Erdogan et al. 2004). This finding is consistent with theory of work adjustment (Eggerth 2008), purporting that employees' subjective evaluations of career success is related to the degree to which their requirements (e.g., career goals) are met by their environment (Ballout 2007).

Research (Aubé, Rousseau & Morin 2007, p. 480) suggests that organisational support enables employees to view their employers as *willing to equitably compensate them for their efforts, help them in case of need, make their work interesting and stimulating, and provide them with adequate working conditions*. Accordingly, over time, employees who regard their organisations as supportive achieve relatively higher levels of success than those who do not (Baranik, Roling & Eby 2010). As a case in point, in a study of 458 Australian psychologists, who perceived their work environment as supportive reported higher levels of job outcomes and positive work experiences than those that did not (Burke, Burgess & Oberklaid 2003). Perhaps not surprisingly, Lazarova and Caligiuri (2001) found that employees' perceptions of their organisations' support has a greater impact on career outcomes, than so-called objective evaluations of such practices.

The present findings also mirror Cable and DeRue (2002), that perceived organisational support is related positively to career satisfaction. Armstrong-Stassen and Ursel (2009) stated that professional women who feel that their organisations value their contributions express higher levels of satisfaction with their career than professional women who lack such support. Similarly, Erdogan, Kraimer, and Liden (2004) noted that perceived organisational support is a critical ingredient of satisfaction for employees low in value congruence with their organisations.

The current findings confirm the importance of perceived organisational support in encouraging career development (Marshall, White & Tansky 2010). Evidence (Barnett & Bradley 2007) suggests that employees who perceive their organisation as supportive experience higher levels of career development than employees who lack such support. Academics take on a multitude of roles, including teaching (Smith 2009a), research (Leask 2006), supervision (Debowski 2003), and marketing (Poole & Ewan 2010). Development of careers across these domains requires substantial organisational support. With regard to offshore teaching, academics judge whether and to what extent their organisation values their efforts and commitment, suggesting a positive relationship between acknowledgement of their effort, and career development (Jie 2010). Likewise, Peterson and White (1992) concluded that faculty and academic administrators' perceptions of their organisational support influenced their motivation and individual performance.

The present findings support observations (Fischlmayr & Kollinger 2010; Hutchings, French & Hatcher 2008) that perceived organisational support impacts positively on career balance. Researchers (Valcour et al. 2011; Fischlmayr & Kollinger 2010; Panaccio & Vandenberghe 2009) note that perceived organisational support helps to promote balance between work and non-work domains. In line with Grant-Vallone and Ensher (2001), this thesis finds that perceived organisational support lowers work-life conflict, enabling employees to attain balance. Notwithstanding, short-term international teaching assignments often involve regular ongoing visits to international markets, posing challenges for academics. Study 1 reveals that in order to integrate international assignments and personal life effectively, support from employers is necessary. Valcour et al. (2011) contended that perceived organisational support is an indicator of an organisation's overall level of sensitivity to employees' family and personal needs.

Establishing footholds in new markets is considered a strong indicator for a rising number of *flying academics*. This phenomenon poses new challenges for organisations in terms of academics' needs, demands, and expectations (McBurnie & Ziguras 2007). Drawing upon literature concerning the role of perceived organisational support in international assignments (Stahl et al. 2009), research demonstrates that this type of support facilitates expatriates' adjustment (Takeuchi et al. 2009), enhances job performance (Erdogan,

Kraimer & Liden 2004), and assists expatriates' objectives (Kraimer, Wayne & Jaworski 2001). Liu (2009) concurs, stating that providing the right support to employees is vital when organisations intend to expand globally.

Overall, the findings highlight that organisations must understand how their own practices contribute to employees' career success in order to attract and retain the best employees (Erdogan, Kraimer & Liden 2004). Producing the most favourable conditions for growth serves the interests of all concerned. Organisational support has a valuable role to play in this regard. Few would deny that the engagement of quality employees helps to ensure that international strategies and offshore programs are not only viable, but also successful (Dobos 2011).

Hypothesis 2: Perceived organisational HR support is related positively to career success

Interestingly, the present results show that perceived organisational HR support fails to correlate with career success. This finding is inconsistent with previous studies (Godard 2010; Edwards 2009) highlighting the importance of HR practices for employees' careers. However, a number of researchers (Liao et al. 2009; Wright & Kehoe 2007; Bowen & Ostroff 2004) suggest that HR practices serve as communication mechanisms for employees, the communication of which is interpreted through each individual's personal lens. Wright and Nishii (2007) proposed that the value of the HR practices are not dependent on what has been outlined in policy documents, but rather on how employees experience HR practices. Research (Wright & Kehoe 2007; Bowen & Ostroff 2004) reveals that employees tend to perceive and react differently to the same practices. Consequently, there appears to be a gap between the implementation of HR practices and how such HR practices are experienced by employees (Liao et al. 2009).

The current findings support the view (Kraimer et al. 2011) that employee's perception of value is determined by the degree to which career goals and organisational development efforts align. This body of research further suggests that career success is dependent on the degree to which employees perceive HR practices as being aligned with their career goals and aspirations. The Study 1 findings reveal that academics regard short-term international

teaching assignments as having limited value in terms of career promotion, possibly because it is not congruent with academics' career goals and needs. The same value criterion is equally applicable to HR support practices. It can be said that organisational HR support needs to be aligned with career goals and needs, for it to show a positive relationship with career success. Study 1 findings indicate that academics view short-term international teaching assignments largely as part of their routine, rather than as activities and responsibilities that enhance their career. Debowski (2008) suggested that transnational teaching involves a number of complexities that could have a negative impact on academics' careers. The present findings highlight the need for HR practices should be geared towards helping academics to meet their career goals and needs. Organisational HR support of this type could then said to be of value and of benefit to all concerned.

A number of studies (Caligiuri, Tarique & Jacobs 2009; Stahl, Miller & Tung 2002; Mendenhall & Stahl 2000) have criticised corporate international human resource management (IHRM) policies and practices on the grounds of being *ad hoc* and non-strategic. For example, Stahl et al. (2002) reported that 65% of expatriates identified inconsistencies between their organisation's international strategy and actual IHRM policies and practices, adding that a lack of long-term career planning and organisational support during international assignments contributes to perceptions of inconsistency (Stahl, Miller & Tung 2002). Although international experience can be advantageous to one's career (Lazarova & Caligiuri 2001), scholars (Caligiuri, Tarique & Jacobs 2009; Mayerhofer et al. 2004) criticise HR practices because they merely focus on providing travel arrangements, securing visas and basic information on health and safety regulations in foreign countries. Similarly, Welch, Steen and Tahvanainen (2009) concluded that IHRM has a limited role to play in the context of employee career needs and concerns. In practice, *support in professional matters through the HR department has only secondary importance* (Mayerhofer et al. 2004, p. 1381).

The current findings support a behavioral approach championed in career literature (Ballout 2007; Patton & McMahon 2006). This approach is based on the premise that individuals ideally wish to have control over their career growth, and to map out of their own success plans (Greenhaus, Callanan & Godshalk 2000). Empowerment enables

employees to chart career strategies that are in line with career goals. Career success, however, is not truly a one-sided affair (Heslin 2005). Organisations can also play a part in this endeavour. Specific HR practices that are congruent with employee's career goals and needs tend to be perceived as having real value in this regard.

The observation that there is no significant evidence to point to a link between perceived organisational HR support and career success in the hypothesized model might be, in part, attributable to HR practices, such as pre-departure training, being not tailored to academics' needs. Studies (Puck, Kittler & Wright 2008; Caligiuri et al. 2001) reveal mixed findings on the outcome of pre-departure training. Pre-departure training is often used to assist employees in adjusting and developing the appropriate skills in cross-cultural communication (Hurn 2007; Caligiuri et al. 2001; Mendenhall & Stahl 2000). However, some studies (Puck, Kittler & Wright 2008; Gregersen & Black 1992) suggest that pre-departure training has no effect on expatriates' adjustment and performance in international assignments. The present results do not support Stassen and Cameron (2005), suggesting that relatively older professional managers who lack access to training opportunities are less likely to experience career success and therefore are less likely to be satisfied with their careers. The current results are consistent with Gribble and Ziguras (2003) investigating the preparatory needs for academic staff teaching offshore. These authors (Gribble & Ziguras 2003) argued that academics preferred informal methods to more formal programs which were viewed as merely fundamental and generalised. Lazarova and Caligiuri (2001) strongly suggest that HR measures can only achieve highly binding effects when employees perceive HR measures as adaptable to their interests.

A number of arguments (Guest 2007; Rynes, Colbert & Brown 2002) have been advanced regarding the best type of HR practice to offer employees. HR practices can potentially be of considerable value to academics in terms of career success and by affiliation, to organisations in terms of employee performance. It is quite possible HR practices not yet formulated could help contribute to career success, however, their value criterion would most likely remain, as outlined.

Hypothesis 3: *Perceived organisational financial support is related positively to career success*

Contrary to expectations, perceived organisational financial support is not related to career success. This finding is contrary to a number of studies (Manolopoulos 2006; Lazar 2001) reporting significant relationships between financial and career success measures. According to a number of authors (Manolopoulos 2006; Kraimer & Wayne 2004; Messmer & Taylor 2001), financial variables are important career success stimuli. Changes in salary or compensation levels are taken as an indicator of career success. Insufficient financial compensation signals that organisations are not supportive or employees are performing at levels that do not merit significant financial advances (Pachulicz, Schmitt & Kuljanin 2008). Further, Kraimer and Wayne (2004) reported that financial rewards created a sense of reciprocal obligation for employees undertaking international assignments.

The absence of any significant relationship between perceived organisational financial support and career success can be attributed, in part, to changing career environments, where traditional concepts of career success are no longer in vogue. Traditional career theory suggests that individuals seek out indications of occupational success through extrinsic outcomes, such as salary and bonuses (Baruch 2006). However, recent *protean or boundaryless career* concepts define career success differently (Gunz & Heslin 2005, p. 109). Protean career reflects the extent to which an individual manages his or her career in a proactive and self-directed way driven by personal values (Vos & Soens 2008). Accordingly, individuals evaluate their career success not just in terms of promotions and salary, but also by subjective or intrinsic success criteria (Heslin 2005; Hall 2002). Such intrinsic success criteria concentrate on perceptions of satisfaction with one's overall job experiences (Erdogan, Kraimer & Liden 2004). Many authors (Bonache 2005; Erdogan, Kraimer & Liden 2004; Rousseau & Ho 2000) seem to agree that employees remain committed to organisation provided that they believe it is helping them achieve positive career experiences. It is quite plausible however, that offshore teaching makes a valuable contribution and provides a purpose to academics' actions in the work context. These intrinsic rewards can be satisfying.

Differences in findings from other research in this field (Benson & Pattie 2008; Manolopoulos 2006; Kraimer & Wayne 2004) can be attributed to the study sample. Earlier studies focused on business executives (Benson & Pattie 2008; Kraimer & Wayne 2004) and scientists (Manolopoulos 2006), whereas this thesis targeted academics. Variations in populations might invariably mean differences in findings. As well, scholars note that different individuals might interpret the financial reward in different ways (Haines III, Saba & Choquette 2008; Bonache 2005). For example, some employees might interpret a healthy financial reward as being an expression or manifestation of employer value assessment (Kraimer & Wayne 2004). Others may interpret a healthy financial reward as an offering for heavy workload (Boies & Rothstein 2002). Such examples illustrate the subjective nature of perception. In this context, academics can view financial rewards in other terms. The present findings, while failing to support hypothesis 3, are indeed consistent with studies (Watts & Robertson 2011; Osterloh & Frey 2009; Gillespie et al. 2001) suggesting that academics are in general concerned with the relational dimensions of satisfaction such as work-derived intrinsic rewards (i.e., seeing students' successes).

The present findings also support the view Malhotra, Budhwar and Prowse (2007) that financial rewards alone are insufficient to influence career success or bind employees to organisations. In a study of expatriates across 3 different sectors (manufacturing, banking, & brewing), Pate and Scullion (2010) found that employees in the banking sector were the most dissatisfied expatriates even though their organisations offered more competitive financial rewards than other organisations. Similarly, Boies and Rothstein (2002) noted that financial rewards are related negatively to managers' interest in international assignments.

Indeed, current findings are in line with Smith (2009a) and Leask (2004) that transnational education is an emotional journey. Similarly, Hoare (2011) stated that transnational education, provides opportunities for second chance learners, can go beyond economic objectives. It has been found that *the best professional development for such teaching is the experience of working with international students* (Gribble & Ziguras (2003) cited in Dunn & Wallace 2006, p. 359). As well, Gerrity et al. (1997) found that teaching has positive

effects on clinician-educators' job and career satisfaction by providing personal satisfaction through contact with students. These findings suggest that universities can motivate academics by focussing on intrinsic benefits, going beyond only extrinsic rewards (i.e., financial reward, bonus etc.). Herein lays a challenge for universities.

Hypothesis 4: *Perceived organisational career support is related positively to career success*

The hypothesized model confirms that perceived organisational career support is an important determinant of both career satisfaction and career development, supporting Hypothesis 4. Academics are far more likely to rate measures of career success highly when organisational career support is experienced as present, signaling that their contributions and offshore teaching experiences are valued and rewarded.

Consistent with the career theory perspective (Baruch 2006), the current findings reflect a changing career orientation from a traditional career to protean career. Scholars (Vos & Soens 2008; Pearce & Randel 2004) agree that a protean career, which transcends the boundary of a single employer, can dictate employees' career plans. Consequently, employees have their own perspectives of career success (Heslin 2005), which in effect shapes their career goals. Research (Kraimer et al. 2011; Marshall, White & Tansky 2010; Benson & Pattie 2008) advocates that aligning career developmental support to individual career plans is a significant attitude stimulus, leading to career satisfaction (Barnett & Bradley 2007; Baruch 2006). This argument reflects findings emanating from Study 1 which reveal that academics who undertake offshore teaching are less than satisfied with their careers when they regard receiving limited organisational career support. In the light of this finding, it appears that employees who believe that their career interests and goals are not aligned with the support provided by their organisation might well be dissatisfied, even to the point of seeking employment elsewhere (Kraimer & Wayne 2004).

In line with Kraimer and Wayne (2004), the present findings reveal a positive association between perceived organisational career support and career development. That is, employees who perceive their international work experience as enhancing their career development when they are in receipt of organisational support (Stahl et al. 2009).

Notwithstanding, a number of studies (Kraimer et al. 2011; Stahl et al. 2009; Van der Heijden, Van Engen & Paauwe 2009) have failed to demonstrate this association in samples of expatriates.

A review of the transnational education literature (Debowski 2003) reveals that research on the impact of that the offshore teaching on academics' careers has been a relatively neglected area. Perhaps surprisingly the more offshore teaching academics engage in and the longer time they spend outside their organisation, the greater the impact on their research productivity (Debowski 2003). Study 1 findings indicate that problems arise with a backlog of tasks accumulating during an offshore teaching period, generating conflicting and competing demands. Drawing on the expatriate literature (Marshall, White & Tansky 2010; Stahl et al. 2009; Kraimer & Wayne 2004), the negative career impact of expatriation can be addressed effectively by improving organisational career support. The same can be said in relation to the issues raised in Study 1. The current findings urge organisations to revisit the performance management and career planning matters for academics. Having a clear career development plan enables goal setting and assists the articulation of how offshore teaching experiences can be integrated and rewarded in academics' long-term career plans.

Hypothesis 5: *Career success is related positively to work-life balance*

The present findings reveal significant positive relationships between *career satisfaction* and *work enhancement of personal life*, *career satisfaction* and *personal life enhancement of work*, *career development* and *work enhancement of personal life*, *career balance* and *work enhancement of personal life*, and *career balance* and *personal life enhancement of work*, partially support Hypothesis 5. These findings suggest that when academics attain some measure of career success, they are likely to gain work-life balance. This finding is consistent with research (Ballout 2008; Lyness & Judiesch 2008), reporting significant and positive associations between these variables supporting a spillover model of work-nonwork relationship. Based on the spillover perspective, an individual's experiences at work can extend into the home, and experiences at home can affect one's work (Caligiuri et al. 1998). Accordingly, the spillover model founded on integration of both domains,

suggests that work and nonwork domains are inherently intertwined (Greenhaus & Powell 2006).

The current results do not, however, support Ashforth, Kreiner and Fugate (2000) who separated work and family into separate spheres. Consistent with Caligiuri et al. (1998), the present findings suggest integration of both domains is more appropriate for the international context. The effects of spillover from both domains can enhance or negatively influence an expatriate's performance (Caligiuri et al. 1998). Contrary to domestic assignments, international assignments can distort the boundary between home and work in that the employees' entire family is involved (Selmer & Fenner 2009). Research reveals that family is an influential factor in every phase of an international assignment; from the willingness of the expatriate to accept an assignment (Fischlmayr & Kollinger 2010; Lazarova, Westman & Shaffer 2010; Konopaske & Werner 2005), right through to the repatriation process (Jaime 2005; Grant-Vallone & Ensher 2001). This family factor is no less relevant to short-term assignments, where there is a high frequency of family separation (Konopaske, Ribie & Ivancevich 2009). Starr and Currie (2009) demonstrate that a *stay behind* spouse in a short-term assignments situation must contend with family issues that are similar to those of a spouse engaged in a long-term assignment situation.

The present findings lend support to previous literature (Greenhaus & Powell 2006; Grzywacz & Marks 2000) which sets out strong evidence for positive spillover by demonstrating career satisfaction is a predictor of *work enhancement of personal life* and *personal life enhancement of work*. The current results indicate that academics who experience high levels of career satisfaction tend to be energized and capable of fulfilling their roles in non-work domains. Academics who undertake offshore teaching participate in various roles, such as teaching, supervision, and research (Leask 2006; Debowski 2003). As proposed in both expansionist and enrichment theory (King, Botsford & Huffman 2009), engagement in multiple roles can generate positive spillover in the form of energy, support, positive affect, and confidence that can be experienced as valuable in most areas of life. Work-related activities can provide emotional rewards such as satisfaction and pride, which can spill over positively into the non-work domain (Haar & Bardoel 2007).

For example, an academic who derives much satisfaction from offshore teaching might carry over this most desirable feeling into his or her personal domain.

The current findings correspond with Lyness and Judiesch (2008) who hold that successful career development will enable one to meet the demands of the non-work domain. Similarly, Greenhaus and Powell (2006) found that improved career development results in intrinsic rewards such as improved self-esteem, and extrinsic rewards such as praise which act as a buffer against negative life events. Moreover, a job that provides a high degree of positive spillover in the form of personal growth opportunities, recognition at work and financial security can enhance an individual's role as a better family member (Grzywacz & Marks 2000). Overall, little recognition has been given to offshore teaching experiences. For a number of years, the career development of academics undertaking offshore teaching has been poorly understood (Smith 2009a; Mazzolini & Yeo 2008). For this reason, Debowski (2003) asserted that these issues should be addressed and suitable organisational support should be tailored to academics' career needs.

In accord with the overall hypothesized model, career balance plays an important role in relation to *work enhancement of personal life* and *personal life enhancement of work*. Career balance refers specifically to the extent to which one's career opportunities do not hinder the personal life of an individual (Stephens, Szajna & Broome 1998). Individuals with high levels of career balance tend to devote balanced resources to both work and non-work domains, thereby enriching both domains (Lyness & Judiesch 2008). This present finding is consistent with the suggestion (Grzywacz, Almeida & McDonald 2002) that people who have been able to integrate work and non-work domains are more satisfied with their careers and personal life than those who have not. The greater one's career balance, the more likely one is to integrate successfully work roles with non-work roles. Findings of Study 1 indicate that the breadth and level of responsibilities in offshore teaching are typically higher than onshore teaching. Accordingly, this situation puts academics into a difficult position to cope with work and non-work concerns. Consequently, academics teaching offshore face a number of challenges coping with work and non-work duties. In this regard, organisational assistance would be in the interests of all concerned. A low stress academic who is experiencing some measure of work-life

balance is far more likely to maintain a high standard of output (Watts & Robertson 2011). It is therefore highly desirable for organisations to develop work-life balance strategies by cultivating an understanding of what promotes and impedes work-life balance relative to offshore teaching.

Though not the main focus of this study, the present results show significant relationships between age and career balance. This finding is consistent with the work-life balance literature (Armstrong-Stassen & Ursel 2009; Gordon, Whelan-Berry & Hamilton 2007) suggesting that aging workers alter their attitudes towards their work attempting to gain equilibrium between work and career. Tremblay (2008) found that aging workers strive for better organisation of working time towards the end of their career. Thus, studies (Valcour et al. 2011; Blake-Beard et al. 2010; Stassen & Cameron 2005) reveal that work options such as flexible work schedules are important determinants of continued participation in an organisation. The present findings also confirm Hugo's (2004) proposition that Australian university teaching staff has a significantly older age structure than the workforce as a whole. Considering the challenges related to transnational teaching and increased demands on academics (i.e., rising workloads, frequent restructuring), universities need to understand how academics' professional behavior changes over their career in order to retain high quality staff. Other demographic data (i.e., gender) yield insignificant effects in the model.

Implications

First, this investigation extends Study 1, exploring relationships between POS, career success, and work-life balance. The majority of POS studies involve domestic setting contexts. Study 2 is one of the first studies to adapt the general measure of POS (Eisenberger et al. 1986) to *flying academics* with respect to career success and work-life balance. Study 1 indicates that organisations are a central source of support with respect to offshore teaching. Organisational support theory (Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002) posits employees develop positive attitudes toward an organisation that are favourably disposed, and that perceptions of support is an integral component of international assignments (Takeuchi et al. 2009).

Second, the proposed framework proposed in Study 2 addresses a number of the deficiencies associated with the role of organisational support as part of offshore teaching. This framework provides important insight into how employees perceive specific organisational support, highlighting the potential mechanisms for achieving career success and enhancing work-life balance. Research (Konopaske & Werner 2005; Kraimer & Wayne 2004) reveals that providing relevant organisational support in international assignments is likely to have a positive effect on expatriates. By focusing on the degree and quality of relevant support, the present study refines our understanding and prediction of selected outcomes for academics. Further, the proposed framework provides a blueprint for the development of other related support models that could possibly conceptualize academics' needs and demands associated with overseas teaching assignment.

Third, Study 2 culminates in the development of STITA Scale for Academics. The STITA Scale employs a multi-dimensional rather than unidimensional scoring system permitting an assessment of a diverse range of support needs among academics. SEM procedures demonstrate high levels of reliability and validity of this scale.

Fourth, in line with Collings et al. (2011), Study 2 confirms the importance of career support for employees undertaking international assignments. Despite the relatively short length of assignments, Study 1 reveals the profound impact that offshore teaching has on academics' careers. The Study 2 findings strongly suggest a need for strengthening current organisational support mechanism and structures, in order to promote a continuous improvement in academics' career planning. These processes are critical not only for the recruitment and retainment of academics, but also to ensure and promote the quality delivery of transnational education.

Fifth, the current results support the contention (Marginson 2000) that a re-examination of HR practices in universities is required. Reflecting Meyskens et al. (2009), the present findings highlight the pressing needs to have the right mix of HR practices applied to international assignments. Study 2 shows that the effective use of HR policies and practices depends on academics' perception of these practices. In a similar vein, research (Edwards

2009) reveals that relevant and supportive HR practices can lead to high levels of psychological engagement with employing organisations.

Limitations

The current findings should be assessed in the light of four principal limitations associated with this research: limitation of cross-sectional design, limited generalizability of finding, small sample size and measurement.

First, the present findings are based on self-report cross-sectional data. Cross-sectional data precludes conclusive inferences regarding causal relationships among study variables, utilising one-time measurement of variables. Thus, caution must be exercised in interpretation of results. In particular, any potential constraints possibly associated with shared method variance need to be taken into consideration. Longitudinal research efforts are needed to go beyond correlational methods and reduce the likelihood of cognitive accessibility of responses. This type of methodology can provide strong inferences about causal processes and depth.

Second, the present study involved Australian academics in 24 Australian universities. Australian academics might be quite different from those overseas. Moreover, it is unclear whether there are differences in terms of organisational culture and internationalisation of staff, and whether university status and rankings, structures, and orientation to research are other important factors that need to be considered. Thus, it is possible that Australian academics' experiences differ from those living in other countries. Accordingly, the generalizability of findings to other populations may be limited.

Third, findings are based on a sample of $n=193$ academics undertaking offshore teaching. The relatively small sample size might have contributed to the low statistical power and associated non-significant paths. Although the results yielded valuable information, perhaps a larger representative sample from a number of universities might have culminated in different results. Therefore, this study needs to be replicated with a larger and diverse sample of academics.

Finally, the attempt to address complexities associated with measures of perceived organisational support poses as yet another limitation. This investigation appears to be the first attempt to empirically validate a multifaceted measure of perceived organisational support for offshore teaching. At the risk of sounding somewhat conservative, the current findings should be considered as preliminary, requiring validation across multiple and differing samples.

Conclusion

In conclusion, Study 2 investigates associations between dimensions of perceived organisational support, career success and work-life balance. The hypothesized model supports significant interrelationships between perceived organisational support, perceived organisational career support and academics' career success, suggesting spillover effects between work and non-work domains. As discussed in this chapter, there is a growing need for organisations to tailor pertinent organisational and career supports in order to meet their needs. The following chapter integrates findings and conclusions emanating from Studies 1 and 2, ending with a discussion of implications for HRM, university policy, theory and research.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

Chapter 5 integrates and reviews key research findings of Studies 1 and 2. Implications and recommendations for future research are outlined. This chapter concludes with summary.

Using a mixed-method research design, the current thesis investigates experiences and challenges faced by academics in short-term international teaching assignments and seek to understand the organisational support perceived important. This thesis extended Eisenberger et al. (1986) by evaluating multidimensional perceived organisational support (POS), and identifying how POS relates to academics' career success and work-life balance. Findings from this thesis will assist organisations determine the consequences of perceptions of organisational support on behalf of academics undertaking short-term international teaching assignments. In understanding the holistic picture of academics' needs and demands, this thesis is the first to include measure that specifically target organisational support for offshore teaching.

This thesis incorporates two inter-related studies. Study 1 provides an in-depth understanding of academics' offshore teaching experiences, demonstrating academics' needs and challenges. This investigation identifies appropriate supports for offshore teaching, including HR, financial, and career to assist academics in their career and work-life balance. Findings also reveal tensions between the rhetoric of HR practice and the reality of academics' experiences, indicating a perception of limited organisational support being made available to academics. Based on findings, Study 1 develops model of critical support factors influencing academics' career success and work-life balance, integrating findings and identifying the best support for academics involved in short-term international teaching assignments. As previously stated (see Chapter 3), findings inform Study 2 offering insights into relationships between POS, career success, and work-life balance.

Indeed, tailoring organisational support to narrow the gap between rhetoric and reality in practice can increase employee performance and satisfaction (Lowe et al. 2002).

Study 2 extends Study 1 enabling an in-depth examination of the impact of specific organisational supports. In the transnational education literature, the lack of empirical research on perceptions of offshore teaching support can be explained partially by the absence of a comprehensive and theoretically grounded scale measuring offshore teaching support. To fill this gap, a new measure was developed extending existing measures of POS. As detailed in Chapter 4, the strength of relationships between POS (Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002), career success (Heslin 2005), and work-life balance was determined (Fisher, Bulger & Smith 2009), using SEM. The subsequent section discusses key findings in relation to the two research questions (RQ) promulgated in Chapter 1.

RQ1: How do short-term international teaching assignments affect academics’ career success and work-life balance?

As shown in Figure 5.1, Study 1 findings highlight the positive and negative impact of short-term international teaching assignments on academics’ career success and work-life balance is significant.

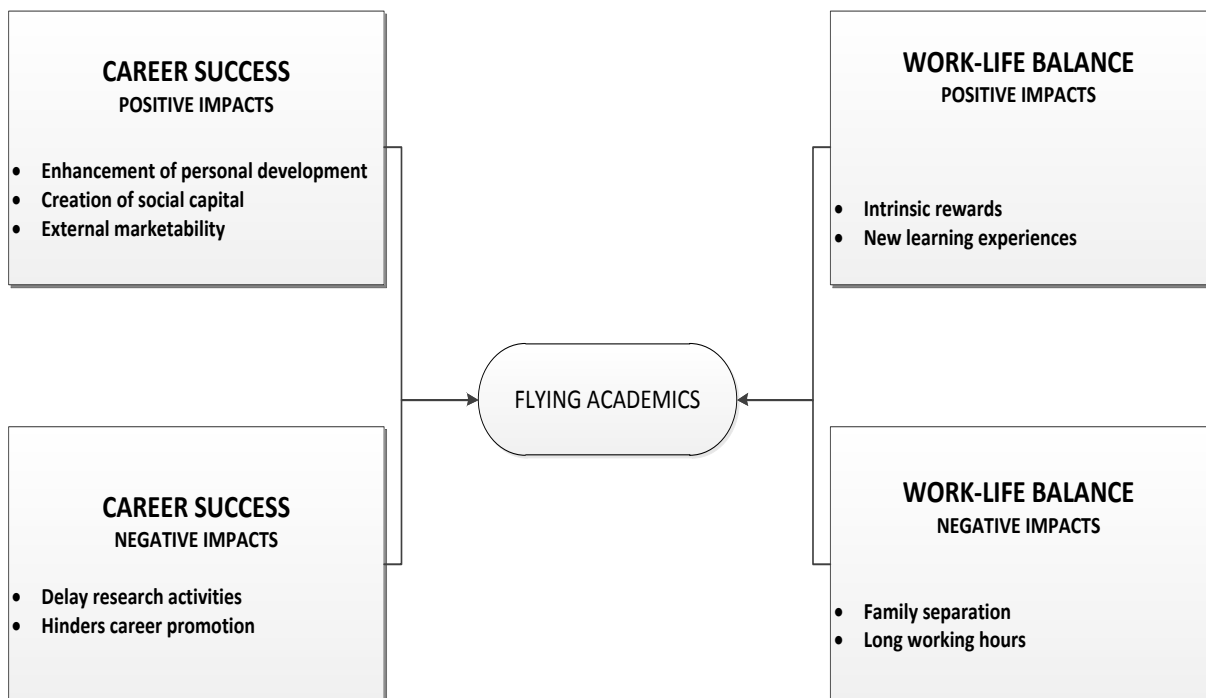


Figure 5.1 Impact of short-term international teaching assignments on academics

Career Success

As offshore teaching becomes more the norm than the exception, this thesis reveals that transnational education experience has significant impact on academics' careers, and can be detrimental to career progression and research activities. Frequency and length of offshore teaching trips create delays in academics' research activities, which in turn hinder promotion and obstruct career paths. The present findings extend Debowski (2003) that offshore teaching can have a substantial negative impact on academics' career paths, research outcomes, and reputation. Even though theory of human capital suggests that international assignments create new skills which should be acknowledged and rewarded, the present findings demonstrate that organisations tend not to recognize the value of these acquired skills. Thus, this thesis highlights the need for universities to provide relevant career support to academics taking into account the reality of offshore teaching. Failure to provide appropriate support can jeopardize the person-environment correspondence. Dawis and Lofquist (1984, p. 55) stated that *the achievement of minimal correspondence enables an individual to remain in a work environment*. If correspondence is not attained, there is a risk that the work relationship will be terminated (Breiden, Mirza & Mohr 2004).

Notwithstanding, Study 1 also illustrates positive aspects of offshore teaching: the enhancement of personal development, creation of social capital, and extension of external marketability. The opportunity to work with people from other cultures, managing uncommon problems, and coping with demanding situations allow academics to broaden their horizons and self-development. As well, academics are able to build a broad range of networks, offering opportunities and ideas for research. Consistent with Benson and Pattie (2008), the present findings indicate that international assignments can enhance academics' external marketability, presenting future job prospects. However, research (Stahl et al. 2009; Welch, Steen & Tahvanainen 2009) suggests that voluntary turnover presents itself when employees realize that they can compete for positions in other organisations.

Work-life Balance

Similarly, short-term international teaching assignments have a dual impact on academics' work-life balance. Study 1 highlights the negative impact of family separation and long working hours, adding strain on academics' personal lives, including the burdens placed on partners having to assume added responsibilities during times of absence.

Consistent with the theory of human capital (Shaffer et al. 2001), findings suggest that employees taking international assignments generally face work pressures to balance their work with other aspects of life. In line with Starr and Currie (2009), findings indicate that short-term assignments generate different versions of family-related issues which demand attention from university's human resource policies and procedures.

Conversely, short-term international teaching assignments can enhance satisfaction levels that occasionally spillover into academics' personal lives. To exemplify, teaching in foreign countries can generate intrinsic rewards associated with students' successes and making a difference in their lives. Offshore teaching also presents new learning experiences that create positive feelings in non-work domain.

As noted in Chapter 3, perceived organisational support influences the impact of offshore teaching on academics. Providing adequate organisational support is one of the key challenges confronting HRM. Academics tend to perceive organisations as unresponsive to their needs and demands, concentrating only on administrative and, at best, practical travelling issues, rather than career planning and ways to secure and reap the benefits of international experiences. Stahl et al. (2009) argued that employees are less likely to be interested in an international assignment when organisations mismanage international assignees and fail to integrate international assignments into long-term career paths. Indeed, this thesis suggests that organisational support needs to be tailored to the specific needs of *flying academics* in order to increase commitment and ensure retention.

RQ2: To what extent does perceived organisational support relate to academics' career success and work-life balance?

Study 2 provides support for the positive relationship between POS and dimensions of career success (i.e., career satisfaction, career development, career balance). Consistent with organisational support theory (Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002), the current results reveal that when employees believe that their organisation cares for their wellbeing, they will be more likely to achieve career satisfaction (Armstrong-Stassen & Ursel 2009), enhance their career development (Marshall, White & Tansky 2010) and to attain career balance (Fischlmayr & Kollinger 2010). Employees are also more likely to become attached to an organisation because they perceive an equitable exchange relationship between their contributions to the organisation and the rewards they receive for service (Tremblay et al. 2010).

Furthermore, as hypothesized in the current research model (see Chapter 4), perceived organisational career support is instrumental in achieving career success (i.e., career satisfaction, career development). In accord with theory of work adjustment (Dawis 1984), employees are likely to attain career satisfaction when they perceive that appropriate support is provided to meet their needs. Theory (Dawis 1984) suggests that a close fit between individual needs and reinforcements available in the work environment leads to high levels of satisfaction (Breiden, Mohr & Mirza 2006). For organisations, understanding employee fit can help to identify and maintain key employees (Newbury, Belkin & Ansari 2008). The present findings are in line with research (Collings et al. 2011; Benson & Pattie 2008; Kraimer & Wayne 2004) advocating the importance of organisational career support for the taking of advantage of career development opportunities.

Findings lend theoretical support for positive linkages between career success and work-life balance suggesting that employees who achieve a desirable level of career success are able to attain work-life balance. Additionally, findings provide empirical support for the spillover model (Grzywacz & Marks 2000) proposing that career satisfaction can be a major contributor to personal life enhancement. For example, the benefits attained from international assignments can increase employees' levels of satisfaction (Bonache 2005),

which in turn positively influence employees' work-family interaction (Wadsworth & Owens 2007).

In summary, findings in Studies 1 and 2 converge to suggest that it is not uncommon for mismatches between offshore teaching assignment and organisational support, in part attributable to the mismanagement of people rather than to problems with technical systems per se. General and career support for offshore teaching can be associated with academic career success and work-life balance. For these reasons, organisation should seriously consider incorporating both general and career support services for *flying academics*. Addressing the concerns of *flying academics* might serve as a catalyst for adapting university policies and practices for such purposes.

Implications

As discussed below, three important implications emerge from this thesis relating to university HRM practices, university policy concerning offshore teaching assignments and theory.

Implications for HRM

First, this thesis demonstrates that frequent transnational mobility has a number of career and work-life related consequences for academics. However, owing to the short duration of assignments, the impact on HRM activities remains unclear. As the academic is generally unaccompanied, family-related issues are commonly of less concern to organisations. Issues surrounding academics' selection, training, career, and work-life policies are also of marginal relevance. Substantial evidence (Riggle, Edmondson & Hansen 2009) suggests that organisational support is a significant dimension affecting employees' actions and reactions within organisations. However, current findings reveal that organisations have not paid sufficiently close attention to the implication associated with frequent mobility.

Despite genuine attempts by universities to meet academics' needs, findings indicate that HR functions and policies are perceived by academics as insensitive policies. Study 1 suggests that HRM tends to be centred only on basic administration and travelling issues that occur prior to departure, rather than core employee issues such as career and work-life issues. This finding is consistent with the weight of evidence (Stahl et al. 2012; Edwards & Rees 2006) highlighting that most HR departments take on administrative and cost centres roles rather than employee-oriented focus. Research indicates that lack of organisational support practices can lead to dissatisfaction (Armstrong-Stassen & Ursel 2009), demotivation (Bonache, Sanchez & Zarraga-Oberty 2009), and turnover risk (Eisenberger et al. 2002). The apparent failure of organisation to value employees' international experiences and skills can also lessen the attractiveness of international assignments (Konopaske, Ribie & Ivancevich 2009). HR functions have come under fire because of their limited response in meeting such challenges with addressing issues concerning the career value of international assignments (Gill & Meyer 2011). Eventually, this failure has the potential to inhibit the development of organisational capability and affect Australia position as a key player in global transnational education business sector.

Second, research reveals that short international visits can impact on the assignee's health (Lirio 2010), family relationships (Starr & Currie 2009), and performance (Welch & Welch 1994). Consistent with this literature, this thesis suggests that HRM needs to be operationalized as a strategic business process, rather than at the functional staff unit level. University HRM practices need to align with international strategy in order to address significant employee-related concerns and to add value to offshore teaching (e.g., introduction of HR policies and practices that recognize the value of international work experience). This thesis recommends that HR practitioners work towards understanding the concerns expressed by employees, and how optimal support for employees can be advantageous for organisations. According to organisational theory, employees are likely to reciprocate and identify with organisations to a high extent when organisations manage and treat employees supportively (Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002).

This thesis further recommends that university HRM processes and practices shift their approach from a focus on conventional administration (e.g. adequate travelling support) to

an emphasis on integrated employee-oriented HRM practices that enhance career success and work-life balance. In line with Boon et al. (2011), integrated employee-oriented HR systems should comprise three major components: HR practices that improve employees' skills and abilities, compensation that increases employees motivation, and a medium for employees participation and feedback. With respect to these components, it is imperative that organisations offer HR practices that allow employees to prepare for offshore teaching and develop social contacts in different parts of the organisation. Concurrently, organisations should incorporate customized training, and provide informal and unstructured developmental experiences such as providing support groups or informal meetings to enable the academics to share and exchange experiences with other academics. A number of authors (Marshall, White & Tansky 2010; Benson & Pattie 2008; Mezias & Scandura 2005) recommend the introduction of relationship support mechanism during pre-departure stages of international assignments will develop their employees' human capital.

Third, in line with recent studies (Collings et al. 2011; Marshall, White & Tansky 2010), the current findings reveal the importance of career support in international assignments, which increases the likelihood that offshore teaching experiences are acknowledged and valued. Internationalisation raises a host of new questions about academics teaching across borders, notably the degree of recognition received for offshore teaching (Kim 2009b; Leask 2004; Bailey 1999). Offshore teaching can be regarded as a developmental experience that leads to new knowledge, skills, and an international perspective which are an added value to human capital (Poole & Ewan 2010; Gribble & Ziguras 2003). Based on equity theory (Adams 1965), it is well understood that academics want their organisations to value their offshore teaching experience. In line with Kraimer, Shaffer and Bolino (2009), this thesis demonstrate that in general organisations inadequately recognize, value, and reward the human capital developed through international assignments. Thus, a key challenge for universities is to link short-term international teaching assignments directly to academics' career paths in order to capitalize on their international experiences and skills. Universities need to assist academics to build upon their offshore teaching experiences in their career planning, which should incorporate skill utilisation planning that meets both organisations and employees' professional expectations. According to theory of social

exchange (Blau 1964), addressing employee development and career concerns linked to more positive perceptions of organisation (Prince 2005).

Finally, this thesis highlights a need for accurate and adequate information on offshore teaching. Findings suggest that there is a need for a 'one-stop centre' portal, providing knowledge resources such as cultural concerns, health and safety issues, and university policy updates. A 'one-stop centre' portal enables organisation to meet a number of the professional needs of academics in a more accessible and comprehensive way than individual entities can do single-handedly, offering academics access to appropriate information. Such a portal would provide academics a channel to share and exchange insights, advice and discuss issues with each other, cultivating an enhanced awareness and knowledge for offshore teaching. Maintaining open-channels of communication would assist academics prepare in advance for offshore teaching assignment, and could help to extend network of contacts professionally and geographically, contributing to key information and career development benefits (Suutari & Mäkelä 2007). Tremblay et al. (2010) noted that information sharing nurtures the emergence of mutual respect and fosters a climate of trust. Consistent with social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), employees who gain access to information and resources are likely to develop and hold positive attitudes about their organisation's employees' development policies (Kraimer et al. 2011).

Implications for University Policy

Findings point to four important implications for university policy and practice. First, present results reveal that university policies fail to adequately address academics' needs and expectations. In line with studies (Sukirno & Sununta 2011; Tight 2010; Enders 2001), the current findings show that academics' are inclined to pursue meaningful work, to be involved in organisational decisions, and integrate work with life. These changes have placed demands on universities to articulate new ways to meet these challenges.

Second, there is a need to develop adaptable offshore work policies to manage academics' needs. In line with Debowski (2003), this thesis suggests a multi-stakeholder approach to developing university policy, in order to reduce the likelihood of one-sided perspectives

that exclude academics' concerns and needs. A multistakeholder involving university HR practitioners, academics, union representatives, and members of the executive would allow new and powerful perspectives for addressing offshore teaching concerns.

Third, universities should be aware of the critical nature of factors in compensating *flying academics* adequately. As universities expand their operations globally, compensation policies must evolve to mirror the global strategies and policies of universities. Nevertheless, this thesis reveals that current compensation policies may be inadequate. To exemplify, academics need to maintain regular communication with their families, and often have to bear the cost of childcare while overseas. The resultant discrepancies between *flying academics* and universities compensation create challenges associated with internal equity. The present findings show that academics who believed that they receive low levels of compensation report feeling less satisfied with their careers. Thus, universities must identify key issues (e.g., long working hours, family separation) that should be considered when developing alternative compensation plans in achieving equity and flexibility to meet diverse *flying academics*' needs. More specifically, alternative compensation could include time in lieu of weekend teaching and additional funding to cover childcare and other personal hardship costs. Effective compensation policies can enhance competitiveness through attracting, retaining, and motivating their workforce.

Finally, the present results support Locock and Boaz (2004) who contend that appropriate tactical systems must be in place to communicate well-designed policies to academics. Simply formulating optimal policies will not suffice to manage an apparent gap between rhetoric and reality in the implementation of offshore work policies. Therefore, well communicated policies help to create the awareness that could improve employees' perceptions about organisational support (Kirby & Krone 2002) and aid HR practitioners' implementation of efficient changes (Friedman 2007). Indeed, opportunity exists after both comprehensive offshore work policies and sound communication channels permeate offshore teaching concerns and demands.

Implications for Theory

In terms of theory, this thesis contributes to the transnational education literature by directly addressing calls to integrate the expatriate literature in identifying support for academics in short-term international teaching assignments (Debowski 2003). Bringing the transnational education literature together with the expatriate literature helps to clarify the construct of organisational support in offshore teaching, and broadens transnational education research through development of a contextual model illustrating the influences of perceived organisational support on academics undertaking offshore teaching.

Second, this thesis extends the perceived organisational support research in the international context. The proposed framework, drawing principally from theory of work adjustment (Dawis 2005), theory of social exchange (Blau 1964), and theory of human capital (Becker 1975), explains relationships between perceived organisational support, career success, and work-life balance. This framework provides an in-depth insight into the conditions under which organisation support will (and will not) have a positive effect on academics' career success and work-life balance when they undertake offshore teaching. In line with Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002), findings highlight that organisational support sends a significant signal to employees that they are regarded as valued people. With a sample drawn from Australian academics involved with offshore teaching, this thesis widens the primarily domestic-focused perceived organisational support literature (Edwards & Peccei 2010; Armstrong-Stassen & Ursel 2009).

Third, the present thesis contributes to the development of STITA which may assist in prompting a contextual understanding of the experiences of *flying academics*' in transnational teaching settings. This measure could be used by universities to determine which existing support to invest in, and which supports have a significant impact. This instrument could be tested cross-culturally to enable further development for contribution to transnational education literature.

Finally, this thesis addresses an underrepresented area of research which has focused traditionally on long-term international assignments. Building on prior research on short-term assignments (Tahvanainen, Welch & Worm 2005), this thesis is one of the few to examine the career implications of short-term assignments on different samples of employees, focusing on academics rather than business executives. Further, the identification of spillover that exists on links between career success and work-life balance provides a foundation for understanding the academic experiences associated with international assignments.

Future Research

Future research might want to consider examining the impact of social supports on academics involved in offshore teaching. The expatriate literature (Stroppa & Spieß 2010) reveals that social supports have emerged as a significant support factor for expatriates prior to undertaking international assignments. Social supports provide expatriates with valuable insights into the host country (Caligiuri & Lazarova 2002), reducing unrealistic expectations (Forster 2000b), improving psychological wellbeing (Linehan & Scullion 2008) and enhance job performance of assignees (Wang & Kanungo 2004). However, research into the role of social supports is relatively rare particularly in regard to short-term international teaching assignments. Given this, it may be useful for future research to highlight how social support systems can be implemented effectively among academics.

Future research might consider re-examining the enactment of HR practices targeting support for academics undertaking offshore teaching. Research (Edwards 2009; Wright & Kehoe 2007) reveals that HRM policies and practices improve employees' performance and behaviors only when they are perceived as being aligned with their interests and meet their needs. This thesis demonstrates that clear implementation of HRM functions (i.e., training, career planning) for academics is important, since conflicts can arise when they are vague. Successful enactment of HR practices requires academic leaders' roles and responsibilities to be defined clearly so that functional HRM practices for *flying academics* can be developed accordingly. Transnational teaching carries both financial and emotional costs, and academic leaders must anticipate and be prepared to reformulate HRM practices

in order to enhance a conducive organisational culture and employee satisfaction. Indeed, identifying the right mix of HR practices could go some way towards bridging the theory-practice divide that currently exists. Having said that, identifying and understanding the best HR practices for academics would require longitudinal investigations involving diverse samples of cases to ensure validity of findings and representativeness.

As noted earlier, short-term assignments can pose fewer disruptions on work-life because it does not require family relocation. However, frequent travel to different countries can place pressures on family and work commitments. Current university-based work-life strategies do not appear to cater the diverse needs of this workforce (Watts & Robertson 2011). Accordingly, work-life initiatives geared to the specific needs and expectations of *flying academics* warrant further investigation.

Summary

This thesis clarifies issues regarding the impact of short-term international teaching assignments on Australian academics. Study 1 explores the views and challenges faced by academics, revealing a dual effect on career success and work-life balance. Findings provide an understanding of employees' expectations. Building on Study 1, Study 2 explores relationships between perceived organisational support, career success, and work-life balance, identifying the appropriate support needed for academics.

Most importantly, this thesis reveals that perceived organisational support and positive career strategies are important for *flying academics*. Over time, academics' latest developments are a shift towards personal fulfilment as a work value (Watts & Robertson 2011). This shift appears to embrace an emphasis on balance and self-fulfilment (Jie 2010). However, it appears that universities have not incorporated these values in their policies outlining rewards and promotions (Poole & Ewan 2010; Smith 2009b). Universities need to be aware that experiences associated with transnational teaching are dependent on academics' perceptions of organisational support. Organisational support and positive career strategies flag a perception of investment and recognition of employees.

Understanding the needs and concerns of *flying academics* can provide important insights in managing and retaining the workforce.

This thesis incorporates three theoretical perspectives: theory of work adjustment, theory of social exchange, and theory of human capital. These theories underpin the foundation of employer–employee relationships in understanding outcomes affected by particular organisational support. As noted earlier, this dissertation culminates in the discussion of a number of important implications for HRM, university policy, and theory. Another significant feature of this thesis is its concurrent investigation of perceived organisational support, career success and work-life balance, with the context of different support provided for academics. Further, this thesis is one of the first large-scale quantitative surveys of *flying academics*, extending the expatriate literature that focuses predominantly on business executives. As well, this dissertation expands prior work on transnational education by developing a contextual model that illustrates the influences of perceived organisational support on academics undertaking offshore teaching. Expanding on existing measures of POS (Eisenberger et al., 1986), this thesis proposes inclusive validated measures of offshore teaching support, that are tested for validity and reliability. Finally, the thesis utilizes mixed method, adopting a broad spectrum approach to an understanding of short-term international teaching assignments.

In conclusion, this thesis brings to the surface a number of important issues regarding *flying academics*, exploring the human resource dimension of transnational education. No matter how comprehensive university strategies are or how meticulously offshore programs are designed, success or failure is likely to depend upon the ways in which universities manage their human capital. Organisations must appreciate the contributions *flying academics* make to their institution, and this thesis goes someway to highlighting their needs and directions which universities should consider taking.

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Appendix A - List of Acronyms Used

AGFI	Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index
AUQA	Australian Universities Quality Agency
AVCC	Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CR	Construct Reliability
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
GATE	Global Alliance for Transnational Education
HRM	Human Resource Management
IDP	International Development Program
IVs	Independent Variables
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
POS	Perceived Organisational Support
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SRMR	Standardized Root Mean Square Residual
STITA	Short-Term International Teaching Assignments Questionnaire
TNE	Transnational Education
VE	Variance Extracted
WTO	World Trade Organisation

Appendix B - Plain Language Statement



INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH PROJECT
PROJECT INFORMATION STATEMENT

Plain language Statement of Interview

Project Title: Flying Academics: Examining short-term international teaching assignments impact on academics' career success and work-life balance.

Investigator:

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Dear Participant,

You are invited to participate in a PhD research project being conducted through RMIT University, which will take approximately 30-60 minutes to complete. This information sheet describes the project in straightforward language, or 'plain language'. Please read this sheet carefully and be confident that you understand its contents before deciding to participate. If you have any questions about the project, please ask one of the investigators identified above.

This research is being conducted by Juraifa Jais, a PhD student enrolled in the School of Management at RMIT University, Melbourne. The research is supervised by Professor Kosmas Smyrnios, School of Management, RMIT University and Dr Lynnel Hoare, School of Management, RMIT University. This research project has been approved by the RMIT Human Research Ethics Sub-Committee.

This study is designed to explore the impact of short-term international teaching assignments on academics' career success and work-life balance. You have been approached to participate in this research because you have been identified as having an experience in teaching in transnational/offshore programs. The main data collection method for this research is via interviews. The questions to be asked will focus on perceived career benefits, highlighting the linkage between the transnational/offshore teaching assignments and career success. The next set of questions explores how participants evaluate their work-life balance in related to the transnational/offshore teaching assignments. The findings of this study will be disseminated in conferences and published in journals.

There are no perceived risks associated with participation in this research. If you are concerned about your responses or if you find participation in the project distressing, you should contact my supervisors as soon as possible. My supervisors will discuss your concerns with you confidentially and suggest appropriate follow-up, if necessary. Participation in this research is entirely voluntary and anonymous; you may withdraw your participation and any unprocessed data concerning you at any time, without prejudice. There is no direct benefit to the participants as a result of their participation. However, I will be delighted to provide you with a copy of the research report upon request as soon as it is published.

Your privacy and confidentiality will be strictly maintained in such a manner that you will not be identified in the thesis report or any publication. Any information that you provide can be disclosed only if (1) it is to protect you or others from harm, (2) a court order is produced, or (3) you provide the researchers with written permission. Interview data will be only seen by my supervisor and examiners who will also protect you from any risks.

To ensure that the collected data is protected, the data will be retained for five years upon completion of the project after which time paper records will be shredded and placed in a security recycle bin and electronic data will be deleted/destroyed in a secure manner. All hard data will be kept in a locked filing cabinet and soft data in a password protected computer in the office of the investigator in the research lab at RMIT University. Data will be saved on the University network system where practicable (as the system provides a high level of manageable security and data integrity, can provide secure remote access, and is backed up on a regular basis). Only the researcher will have access to the data.

You have right to withdraw their participation at any time, without prejudice. You have the right to have any unprocessed data withdrawn and destroyed, provided it can be reliably identified, and it does not increase the risk for the participant. Participants have also the right to have any questions, in relation to the project and their participation, answered at any time.

If you have any queries regarding this project please contact me at +61 3 9925 5618 or +61 41225 3775 or email me at juraifa.jais@rmit.edu.au; or the supervisors listed above.

Thank you very much for your contribution to this research.

Yours Sincerely,

Juraifa Jais

PhD Candidate
School of Management
RMIT University, Melbourne, Australia

Appendix C - Informed Consent

RMIT BUSINESS COLLEGE HUMAN ETHICS ADVISORY NETWORK Prescribed Consent Form for Persons Participating In Research Projects Involving Interviews, Questionnaires, Focus Groups or Disclosure of Personal Information

COLLEGE OF	Business		
SCHOOL/CENTRE OF	Management		
Name of Participant:	_____		
Project Title:	Flying Academics – Examining Short-Term Assignments Impact On Academics’ Career Success and Work-Life Balance		
Name(s) of Investigators:	_____		
(1)	Juraifa Jais	Phone:	0412253775
(2)	Prof. Kosmas Smyrnios	Phone:	+ (61 3) 9925 1633
(3)	Dr. Lynnel Hoare	Phone:	+ (61 3) 9925 5941

1. I have received a statement explaining the interview/questionnaire involved in this project.
2. I consent to participate in the above project, the particulars of which - including details of the interviews or questionnaires - have been explained to me.
3. I authorise the investigator or his or her assistant to interview me or administer a questionnaire.
4. I give my permission to be audio taped: Yes No
5. I give my permission for my name or identity to be used: Yes No
6. I acknowledge that:
 - (a) Having read the Plain Language Statement, I agree to the general purpose, methods and demands of the study.
 - (b) I have been informed that I am free to withdraw from the project at any time and to withdraw any unprocessed data previously supplied.
 - (c) The project is for the purpose of research and/or teaching. It may not be of direct benefit to me.
 - (d) The privacy of the information I provide will be safeguarded. However should information of a private nature need to be disclosed for moral, clinical or legal reasons, I will be given an opportunity to negotiate the terms of this disclosure.
If I participate in a focus group I understand that whilst all participants will be asked to keep the conversation confidential, the researcher cannot guarantee that other participants will do this.
 - (e) The security of the research data is assured during and after completion of the study. The data collected during the study may be published, and a report of the project outcomes will be provided to RMIT University and to the wider academic community. Any information which may be used to identify me will not be used unless I have given my permission (see point 5).

Participant’s Consent

Name: _____ Date: _____
(Participant)

Name: _____ Date: _____
(Witness to signature)

Appendix D - Semi-Structured Interview Protocol

Interview Protocol Form

Institution: _____

Interviewee (Title and Name): _____

Interviewer: Juraifa Jais

Interview Section Used:

_____ 1: Background of the academic

_____ 2: Impact of short-term teaching international assignments to academics' career success

_____ 3: Impact of short-term international teaching assignments to academics' work-life balance

_____ 4: Type of organisational support given to academics

_____ 5: Organisational support that affects academics' career success

_____ 6: Organisational support that affects academics' work-life balance

_____ 7: Other arising issue

Other Topics Discussed: _____

Documents Obtained: _____

Post Interview Comments or Leads:

Short-term International Teaching Assignments Interviews

Introductory Protocol

To facilitate our note-taking, I would like to audio tape our conversations today. Please sign the consent form. For your information, only researchers on the project will be privy to the tapes which will be eventually destroyed after they are transcribed. Essentially, this document states that: (1) all information will be held confidential, (2) your participation is voluntary and you may stop at any time if you feel uncomfortable, and (3) we do not intend to inflict any harm. Thank you for your agreeing to participate.

This interview has been planned to last no longer than one hour. During this time, I have several questions that I would like to cover. If time begins to run short, it may be necessary to interrupt you in order to push ahead and complete this line of questioning.

Introduction

You have been selected to be interviewed today because you have been identified as someone who has a great deal to share about offshore teaching assignment. This research project as a whole focuses on the effect of short-term international teaching assignments on academics, with particular interest in understanding how academics are engaged in this activity, how it affects their career success and work life balance. You may also share what you know about making a difference in the organisational support and practices. This study does not aim to evaluate your techniques or experiences. Rather, this study is trying to learn more about short-term international teaching assignments, and hopefully learn about organisational practices that help improve the support for academics.

1 : Background of the academic

How long have you been ...

- 1.1 _____ working in academic field?
- 1.2 _____ involved in offshore teaching?
- 1.3 What countries have you had short-term assignments, and how long has each assignment been?
- 1.4 Do you anticipate offshore assignment during 2010? If yes, where and for what length of time?
- 1.5 Can you please tell me about your offshore teaching assignments?
- 1.6 Probes: How you were selected to teach offshore?

2 : Career Success

- 2.1 How do you think offshore teaching affects your career?
- 2.2 Probes: What is your opinion about offshore teaching experience adds to intercultural competency?
- 2.3 To what extent do you think that offshore teaching experience is a valuable career opportunity?

3 : Work-life balance

- 3.1 What does work-life balance mean to you?
- 3.2 How does your work life balance change when you are teaching offshore compared with teaching at home?
- 3.3 In what ways has your work life balance changed since you became involved in offshore teaching?
- 3.4 Probes: In what ways offshore teaching assignments interferes with your personal/family responsibilities?
- 3.5 When you are teaching offshore, what activities and/or interests do you pursue as a means of relaxation?
- 3.6 Probes: Can you explain difficulty or problem during offshore teaching?
- 3.7 Do you think that offshore teaching is a part of your job or it is an extra workload?
If yes, why?

4 : Perceived organisational support (Type of support)

- 4.1 Does your university give support for your offshore teaching?
If yes, could you explain what are the types of support given by your university?
- 4.2 Probes: Is the university support sufficient? If no, what are the common problems faced in dealing with the university support?
- 4.3 What kind of support do you receive in preparation for offshore teaching?
- 4.4 Have you received cross-cultural training? How long did it last? Was it helpful?
- 4.5 How would you change or improve training, if you could?
- 4.6 What is the appropriate training that should be given by the university?
- 4.7 Probes: Are there other kinds of support that you think appropriate for offshore teaching?

5 : Organisational support that affects academics' career success

- 5.1 Do you think that you have been adequately rewarded for offshore teaching?
If no, why?
- 5.2 How do you think that offshore teaching interferes with your research activity?
If yes, how?
- 5.3 Probes: Does your supervisor provide assignments that give you the opportunity to develop and strengthen new skills?

6 : Organisational support that affects academics' work-life balance

- 6.1 Can you explain how do you receive support from the university while you are teaching offshore?
If yes, how?
- 6.2 Probes: Are you generally happy with the organisational support by your university?
- 6.3 What kind of work life balance support that you need from the university while you are teaching offshore?

7 : Other arising issue

- 7.1 Do you support the university's participation in offshore education?
- 7.2 How would you change or improve offshore teaching policies, if you could?
- 7.3 Is there anything else you think we should know about your experience teaching offshore?

Post Interview Comments and/or Observations:

Appendix E – Ethics Approval



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www.rmit.edu.au

Ref: Ethics Appl. 1000124

Wednesday, April 28 2010

Juraifa Jais
107 Nicholson St
Coburg
Vic 3058

Dear Juraifa

I am pleased to advise that your application for ethics approval for a Research Project has been approved by the Chair of the Business College Human Ethics Advisory Network. Approval has been granted for the period from 21 April 2010 to 20 July 2011.

The RMIT Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) requires the submission of Annual and Final reports. These reports should be forwarded to the Business College Human Ethics Advisory Network Secretary. Annual Reports are due in December for applications submitted prior to September the year concerned. I have enclosed a copy of the Annual/ Final report form for your convenience. Please note that this form also incorporates a request for extension of approval, if required.

Best wishes for your research.

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'K. Tsoulis-Reay', written in a cursive style.

Kristina Tsoulis-Reay
Secretary
Business College Human Ethics Advisory Network

Encl.

Appendix F - Introduction email

Dear (name),

You are invited to participate in Flying Academics survey. The currently available information about short-term international teaching assignments experienced by academics is incomplete. Hence, we are interested in the opinions of academics who are involved in offshore teaching. The Flying Academics Survey asks your opinions on how to provide a better organisational support for offshore teaching assignments. Some questions concerning your career and work-life balance are also included. Feedback from the survey will be used to help inform policy on what is important to you in terms of support from your organisation. This survey will take approximately 15 minutes to complete. Your responses will be treated as CONFIDENTIAL and only aggregated result will be published. Kindly contribute and make a change.

Neither your name nor the name of your university will be associated with your responses. Unless you have given permission otherwise, your contact details and all data you provide will be treated in the strictest confidence. More details about the study are available in the Information Statement attached to this email.

How to participate in the survey.

The survey can be completed on-line at:

<http://www.surveymonkey.com/flyAcademics>
(either click on this link or copy and paste the text into your browser)

Thank you for participating in the Flying Academics survey. Your views are highly valued.

Best regards,
Juraifa Jais
PhD candidate
School of Management
RMIT University, Melbourne, Australia

Appendix G- Follow up email

Dear (name),

In late November 2010, you received an email invitation from me to participate in web-based survey research. The research focuses on the short-term international teaching assignments impact on academics' career success and work-life balance. We are interested in the opinions of academics who are involved in offshore teaching. Individuals who meet the criteria have been invited to participate.

Since the survey results are received anonymously, I do not know whether you have completed the survey. If you did complete the web-based survey, I sincerely thank you for your willingness to help me with my doctoral research work. I realize that completing the survey was time consuming and cut in to what I know is your extremely busy work schedule. Your efforts are highly appreciated. Your contribution will help to ensure the validity and generalizability of the findings to all academics.

If you did not yet complete the web-based survey, I kindly remind you that there is still time. Your response to this survey is critical for formulating valid conclusions. This survey takes approximately 15 minutes to be completed. The link to the web-based survey is attached below.

<http://www.surveymonkey.com/flyAcademics>

You should be able to enter the web-based survey by clicking on the link. Should this not be the case I kindly ask that you copy and paste the link in to your internet address window.

Many thanks,
Juraifa Jais
PhD candidate
School of Management
RMIT University, Melbourne, Australia

Appendix H- The STITA Survey



INSTRUCTIONS: The currently available information about short-term international teaching assignments experienced by academics is incomplete. Therefore, the researcher is collecting a variety of academics' opinions to improve that body of information. The researcher would appreciate if you would take a few minutes to share your opinions about short-term international teaching assignments. Your comments and suggestions are appreciated. Your participation is voluntary and anonymous. Neither your name nor the name of your university will be associated with your responses. If you choose to participate, you are free to decline to answer any question on this questionnaire for any reason.

SECTION 1: BACKGROUND OF THE ACADEMIC

First, I would like to ask you some questions about yourself, your family, your job and the organisation you work for. Please check the response that best describes your background.

1. Gender

- a. Male
- b. Female

2. What is your age?

3. Which university you are in? _____

4. Please identify your position in the university

- a. Assistant Lecturer/Tutor
- b. Lecturer
- c. Senior Lecturer
- d. Associate Professor/Reader
- e. Professor
- f. Others (please specify): _____

5. How long have you been working at the university?

- a. Less than one year
- b. 1-4 years
- c. 5-9 years
- d. 10-19 years
- e. 20 or more years

6. What is your current employment status?

- a. Continuing full-time
- b. Continuing part-time
- c. Fixed-term full-time
- d. Fixed-term part-time
- e. Casual
- f. Others (please specify): _____

7. What is your current living arrangement?

- a. Couple family with children
- b. Couple family without children
- c. One parent family
- d. Other family*
- e. Single

*Unrelated individual living in family household/Group household member/Visitor

SECTION 2: INFORMATION ABOUT YOUR WORK

The following questions ask for details of your career, which includes workload and promotion.

8. On average, how many hours per week do you work on your job IN TOTAL (including work and at home)? _____ hours per week

9. What areas of the world have you travelled to teach?

10. How many years have you taught offshore?

- a. Less than one year
- b. 1- 3 years
- c. 4 - 9 years
- d. 10 – 19 years
- e. 20 or more years

1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=not sure/neutral, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree

Perceived Organisational HR Support	
1. My working time is wasted because of inadequate planning for the short-term international teaching assignments.	1 2 3 4 5
2. The university provides pre-departure training (for example cultural awareness) and preparation for the short-term international teaching assignments.	1 2 3 4 5
3. I am satisfied with the organisational support given to short-term international teaching assignments.	1 2 3 4 5
4. There are selection criteria for short-term international teaching assignments.	1 2 3 4 5
5. The university provides childcare support while I am offshore.	1 2 3 4 5
6. The university appreciates my feedback about short-term international teaching assignments issues.	1 2 3 4 5
7. My current work place provides help to improve/assist my work-life balance.	1 2 3 4 5
8. There is a good administrative support for short-term international teaching assignments.	1 2 3 4 5

1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=not sure/neutral, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree

Perceived Organisational Financial Support	
1. I am out of pocket every time I travel for short-term international teaching assignments.	1 2 3 4 5
2. The university administration does not understand the true cost to the individual of travelling offshore for teaching.	1 2 3 4 5
3. The university reimburses me within a timely manner.	1 2 3 4 5
4. The financial compensation for teaching offshore is inadequate.	1 2 3 4 5
5. I have difficulty when I try to reimburse for short-term international teaching assignments.	

1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=not sure/neutral, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree

Perceived Organisational Career Support	
1. There are better career options if I focus on a core discipline like marketing economics or management, rather than international teaching.	1 2 3 4 5
2. Research rather than short-term international teaching experience is more important consideration in academic staff promotion.	1 2 3 4 5
3. To be promoted I would have to change universities.	1 2 3 4 5
4. Short-term international teaching experience is valued by interview panels.	1 2 3 4 5
5. Short-term international teaching experience contributes to promotion.	1 2 3 4 5

SECTION 4: INFORMATION ABOUT YOUR CAREER

Listed below are statements that represent possible opinions that YOU may have about working at your university. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by marking the response in each row that best represents your point of view about your career.

1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=not sure/neutral, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree

	1 2 3 4 5
1. I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career.	1 2 3 4 5
2. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals.	1 2 3 4 5
3. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for income.	1 2 3 4 5
4. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement.	1 2 3 4 5
5. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for the development of new skills.	1 2 3 4 5
6. Short-term international teaching assignments would be a boost to my professional reputation.	1 2 3 4 5
7. Participation in short-term international teaching assignments would probably not lead to promotion and desirable career development opportunities for me in this organisation.	1 2 3 4 5

8. Participation in short-term international teaching assignments would be of less benefit to me professionally than a similar work assignment in a domestic geographical location.	1	2	3	4	5
9. In the long run, my professional career would not benefit from work experience in the international work arena.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Short-term international teaching assignments would not improve my ability to keep pace with my peers in this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Having short-term international teaching experience would not increase recognition of the value of my contributions to this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
12. In an international work assignment, I would have the opportunity to make important and meaningful contributions to my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
13. My ability to do my job well would not be enhanced with short-term offshore teaching experience.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Short-term international teaching assignments would improve my ability to obtain the professional awards and honors to which I aspire.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Short-term international teaching assignments would improve my ability to be creative in my professional activities	1	2	3	4	5
16. My participation in short-term international teaching assignments would not, in the long run, upset the balance I have established between my work and private life.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Career opportunities coming as a result of short-term international teaching assignments would not reduce my involvement in personal interests and leisure activities.	1	2	3	4	5
18. The equilibrium between my personal and professional lives would not be upset as a result of career opportunities arising out of my international work experience.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION 5: WORK-LIFE BALANCE

The remainder of the questionnaire relates to your work-life balance. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=not sure/neutral, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree

1. I come home from work too tired to do things I would like to do.	1	2	3	4	5
2. My job makes it difficult to maintain the kind of personal life I would like.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I often neglect my personal needs because of the demands of my work.	1	2	3	4	5
4. My personal life suffers because of my work.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I have to miss important personal activities due to the amount of time I spend doing work.	1	2	3	4	5
6. My personal life drains me of the energy I need to do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
7. My work suffers because of everything going on in my personal life.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I would devote more time to work if it weren't for everything I have going on in my personal life.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I am too tired to be effective at work because of things I have going on in my personal life.	1	2	3	4	5
10. When I'm at work, I worry about things I need to do outside work.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I have difficulty getting my work done because I am preoccupied with personal matters at work.	1	2	3	4	5
12. My job gives me energy to pursue activities outside of work that are important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Because of my job, I am in a better mood at home.	1	2	3	4	5
14. The things I do at work help me deal with personal and practical issues at home.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I am in a better mood at work because of everything I have going for me in my personal life.	1	2	3	4	5
16. My personal life gives me the energy to do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
17. My personal life helps me relax and feel ready for the next day's work.	1	2	3	4	5

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND COOPERATION. If you wish to receive a summary of the results of this survey, please write your name and address on the following lines:
