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On the Motivations and Career Orientations of Self-Initiated and Conventional Expatriates Employed in the Saudi Arabian Banking Industry: A Two Scale Contextual Validation and an Inter-cohort Cross-sectional Investigation with Controls

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Declaration

The work presented in this thesis is the sole work of the author except where duly acknowledged and referenced. It has not been submitted to any other university or higher education institution or for any other academic award.

Saeed Turki Alshahrani

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List of Abbreviations

CEs:	Conventional Expatriates
SEs:	Self-Initiated Expatriates
IA:	International Assignment
OECD:	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
GCC:	Gulf Cooperation Council Countries
COI:	Career Orientations Inventory
GDP:	The Gross Domestic Product
ILO:	The International Labour Organization
FDI:	Foreign Direct Investment
KACST :	King Abdul-Aziz City for Science and Technology
CSI:	Science Citation Index
AMF:	Arab Monetary Fund
IMF:	The International Monetary Fund
SAMA:	Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency
KMO:	The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
PCA:	Principle Components Analysis
BTS:	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity
EFA:	Exploratory Factor Analysis
MNCs:	Multinational Corporations
IHRM:	International Human Resource Management
HRM:	Human Resource Management
SMEs:	Small and Medium Enterprises

Abstract

This cross-sectional inter-cohort study explores the dominant motivational factors and career orientations among conventional (CE) and self-initiated (SE) expatriates. Quantitative data was obtained from a sample of 344 SEs and 74 CEs working in the banking sector in Saudi Arabia. Firstly, a principal components analysis (PCA) was conducted to validate a pull-push model of motivations governing the decision to expatriate and a career anchors model. Secondly, six motivational hypotheses and eight career hypotheses derived from a review of the extant literature were tested by means of logistic regression using a forward stepwise procedure.

The results of the contextual validation provided support for a five factor pull-push construct and for a nine-career-anchor construct model in contrast with the original eight-anchor model. The findings from the logistic regression analysis reveal that age, marital status and position level made significant contributions to the motivational factors model. The push-motives factor was the strongest predictor in this study to distinguish between CEs and SEs regardless of the effect of the control variables that were included in the model. The results also showed that none of the pull motivational factors produced significant results in predicting either cohort. With respect to career orientations, SEs were more anchored by the 'pure challenge' and 'security and stability' career orientations than their CE counterparts. The position level variable was the only control variable that made significant contributions to the career orientations model. The results also revealed that 'technical and functional competence' was among the top career orientations for this sample of CEs and SEs in the banking sector. The theoretical, empirical and practical implications arising from the research are set down and directions for future research are offered.

Chapter 1: Introduction

As a result of on-going changes in the global business and investment environments, international organisations are enduring continuous pressure to reduce their operational costs and are, consequently, adopting different strategies in order to survive (Collings; Scullion and Morley, 2007). Indeed, the changing business environment, in combination with high levels of financial and investment uncertainty, has resulted in 46% of international organisations reducing their international assignments in 2009, the highest rate in 15 years according to the Brookfield Global Relocation Services report (2010). Accordingly, many international organisations are now employing different international human resource management (IHRM) practices, policies and approaches to develop innovative programmes in order to balance their short and long-term human resource needs, thereby enabling them to maintain their competitiveness in the global market. For example, many multinational corporations (MNCs) and small and medium enterprises (SMEs) around the world have introduced new internal practices such as the use of 'virtual teams' and/or external cross-management services, such as global centres of excellence, in order to access specific and customised business operations (Mayrhofer; Sparrow and Zimmermann, 2008; Brookfield, 2012).

International staffing is one of many complex and challenging tasks for any international company in terms of balancing profits and risks, as well as reducing costs, against a background of strong competition for knowledge and for a scarce pool of talented workers (Scullion, 1994; Torbiörn, 1997; Tharenou and Harvey, 2006; Collings *et al.*, 2007). Past literature has placed a strong focus on conventional expatriates as the sole available staffing strategy for filling overseas vacancies (Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Richardson and Mallon, 2005), although more recent empirical findings indicate an emerging shift towards utilising contemporary international recruitment strategies, such as posting different types of expatriates including flexpatriates, international business-travellers and short-term assignees as alternatives to conventional expatriates CEs (Inkson and Myers, 2003; Collings *et al.*, 2007; Collings; McDonnell; Gunnigle and Lavelle, 2010).

Another alternative staffing strategy is evident in the significant increase seen in the deployment of self-initiated expatriates (SEs) to substitute conventional expatriates CEs globally (Inkson, Arthur, Pringle, and Barry 1997). SEs are individuals who take the initiative to travel on their own to pursue global careers in a different country or countries (Inkson *et al.*, 1997). As a topic, SEs have been somewhat overlooked in the literature; nevertheless, they represent a significant cohort in the global workforce and are being extensively employed by MNCs and SMEs around the world (Inkson *et al.*, 1997; Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Jokinen; Brewster and Suutari, 2008; Biemann and Andresen, 2010; Cerdin and Pargneux, 2010; Doherty; Dickmann and Mills, 2011; Selmer and Lauring 2011a; Lin; Lu and Lin, 2012). It is evident that more in-depth, inter-cohort investigations of SEs and CEs are required to enable the identification of multiple commonalities and/or differences in these two cohorts of international assignees. This is necessary in order to establish the extent to which they either represent different approaches to international staffing or can serve to complement each other as part of an organisation's international talent pool.

1.1. Research Objectives

Firstly, this cross-sectional inter-cohort study seeks to explore the dominant motivations held by CEs and SEs for becoming expatriates and making the decision to work and live abroad. In doing so, a model of pull and push motivational factors will be contextually validated and will be used to measure various motivational factors among CEs and SEs using an inter-cohort investigation approach.

1.1.1 The first objective is to reveal the extent to which the cross-sectional inter-cohort investigation is helpful to understanding the two cohorts and whether or not CEs and SEs might converge or diverge in terms of their motivational factors as a result of pursuing global careers from different route trajectories. The unearthing of new evidence relating to this objective may have implications for a number of interest groups:

- In the academic sphere, the literature around SEs is still developing in terms of identifying different motivational factors for this group in undertaking an

international assignment, which has led many researchers to conduct further studies in order to explore new scientific measures and/or models that can be used to understand expatriates' underlying motives. In order to understand the underlying motives, this cross-sectional study controls for seven personal and professional variables including age, gender, nationality, education, marital status, job level and the previous international work experience on the outcomes of expatriates career and experience in order to go beyond the expatriates' cohorts types.

- For organisations, knowing the dominant motivational factors of expatriates and how they differ in terms of such motivational factors will help international organisations to:

- Develop appropriate operational and strategic policies and procedures to suit each expatriate group rather than following a 'one size fits all' approach. These policies can be reflected in many organisational functions, such as in IHRM (e.g. attracting and hiring, training, compensation and performance management), in strategic planning (e.g. long and short-term workforce planning) and in cross-cultural management practices and objectives (e.g. contingency and proactive strategies).

- Make more informed decisions in terms of the timing and reasoning for employing either cohort based on the short and long-term organisational objectives that are being pursued.

1.1.2 The second objective of this study is to explore the dominant career orientations of SEs and CEs through undertaking an inter-cohort comparative analysis, given their distinct route trajectories in moving abroad. In doing so, Schein's (1990) career anchor model is contextually validated and is then subsequently used to measure the career orientations evident among CEs and SEs. Addressing this objective may also have broader implications on a number of fronts as follows:

- Findings from the second objective will contribute to the career literature in two ways. Firstly, it will elucidate aspects relating to the differing directions of organisational and individual-managed careers through an inter-cohort exploration of CEs and SEs. In this way, it will distinguish between these two fields of research and clarify whether the two career orientations are converging or diverging. Secondly, this information will add to the pre-existing knowledge established by the expatriate career literature through exploring the differences and similarities between CEs and SEs using the career anchors model. This will aid the development of operational and strategic policies and procedures that best suit each expatriate group.

- In addition, it will help international organisations to understand the importance of organisational support, as well as the individual and professional needs of each group/sub-group, in order to customise and prioritise the organisational activities that best suit CEs and SEs, respectively.

1.1.3 Turning to our third objective, much of the extant investigating expatriate motives and cross-cultural experiences is written from a developed country perspective. We argue that the unique context in which this study is conducted offers the prospect of new contextual insights. It is acknowledged that "little is known about SEs who move between culturally distant regions" (Cao; Hirschi and Deller, 2012:167) and this knowledge deficit merits attention considering that empirical and theoretical findings reveal that SEs are attracted to work in specific host locations, rather than for a specific organisations (Rodriguez and Scurry 2014). In addition, as specific research context, Saudi Arabia has the largest economy, population and landmass of the Gulf Cooperation Council Countries (GCC) and every year attracts millions of expatriates from around the world to fill its skill gaps, yet this important context for mobile workers is under-represented in the international literature (Girgis; Handoussa and Tzannatos, 2002; Ariss, 2014). All in all, the findings from recent research point to the importance of the host location of an international assignment in terms of offering context-specific characteristics that attract expatriates to work and live in a particular country and

the extent to which the host location has implications for expatriates' personal motives as well as their career experiences. Addressing this objective may also have the following broader implications:

- In the academic field, it is worth exploring the influence of host location on CE and SE motives given that the attraction of a particular host location is one of the most dominant motivational factors for expatriation to certain developed countries. This will facilitate an investigation of how CEs and SEs perceive the importance of host location as a defining motive for going in the first instance and its impact on their decision to move to Saudi Arabia. In doing so, this study will also help to unearth any contextual factors that go beyond expatriates' cohort types. It is intended that these findings will add to the current literature by examining the under-researched context of Saudi Arabia and how it influences the motivational factors and career orientations of CEs and SEs.

- For managers, the findings will allow an exploration and unearthing of any specific host location factors that may have an impact on the motivational factors and cross-cultural experiences of CEs and SEs. Once again, this may help organisations to develop operational and strategic policies and procedures that best suit the different needs of CEs and SEs and that, furthermore, incorporate cross-cultural sensitivity as part of the decision making and planning process governing expatriates transfers.

Overall therefore, gaining insights into CE and SE expatriates' motives for embarking on an international assignment, coupled with understanding their experiences while on the ground in the host location, will help both academic and business practitioners to better appreciate the complexity of hiring and/or relocating the right candidates for employment, as well as the on-going management of expatriates' dominant cross-cultural issues as they arise.

1.2. Personal Motives Underpinning the Programme of Research

The researcher worked for more than four years within the human resource unit (HR) of an American banking corporation in Saudi Arabia. During this period, he was engaged in managing employment offers and contracts for local and international staff. The bank employed different hiring strategies, including deployment of conventional expatriates from its headquarters in the USA, as well as from other regional offices around the world. The bank also attracted talented expatriates from local and international labour markets. The bank's headquarters assigned a HR representative in Saudi Arabia to deal with management issues for those conventional expatriates who are subject to US employment policies while they are working in Saudi Arabia, particularly in terms of their performance management, cross-cultural training and career development. However, non-corporate expatriates were hired based on local contracts and, as a result, they were subject to local employment practices rather than having expatriate terms and conditions. The turnover rate was high, especially among non-corporate expatriates due to the use of a single human resource management (HRM) policy that did not recognise their individual and career needs as being distinctive from those of locals and of other expatriate cohorts, including CEs. Consequently, against this backdrop this research sought to conduct a cross-sectional inter-cohort investigation among SEs in order to explore their various motives for working and living in Saudi Arabia, as well as to investigate their perceived career orientations, in comparison with their CE counterparts. It did so in order to enable a deepening of our understanding about SEs' individual and career characteristics and the extent to which knowledge about these can be used to develop workable and effective HRM policies and tools for this cohort. It also offers the prospect of furthering our understanding of how this cohort can be distinguished from corporate expatriates based on their motivational factors for working abroad, as well as their perceived career orientations.

1.3. The Structure Of The Thesis

The reminder of thesis is presented in the following manner:

- Chapter 2 is subdivided into four parts. Firstly, the introduction serves to highlight the basic argument underscoring the thesis and the theoretical rationale for conducting this research. Secondly, there is a review of the existing expatriation literature relating to conventional and self-initiated expatriates in terms of how they are defined and what are their distinguishing characteristics. Thirdly, the literature relating to the dominant motives among expatriates for going abroad are explored through the lens of pull and push motivational factors in order to formulate six hypotheses concerning CEs and SEs. Finally, this chapter employs Schein's (1990) Career Anchors Model to produce 8 further hypotheses concerning the career orientations among CEs and SEs.

- Chapter 3 highlights the context of this study in order to understand the Saudi Arabian economy, culture, legal system, labour laws and labour market. In addition, this chapter also explores the existing migration policy and government systems regarding the hiring and governance of expatriates in Saudi Arabia. This Chapter also outlines the financial sector as well as the research tradition in Saudi Arabia through taking a contextual perspective.

- Chapter 4 outlines the strategy for conducting the research, particularly in terms of the philosophical perspective adopted and the methodology and data gathering technique employed in undertaking the fieldwork. The research barriers and difficulties in Saudi Arabia are also highlighted in this chapter. The remaining part of the chapter details the sampling process used, including the gathering of demographic and professional variables and the measures employed for the purpose of the study to provide data on the participants' motivational factors and career orientations. This chapter concludes with a discussion of the control variables employed in the analysis.

- Chapter 5 is sub-divided into three main sections. First, an analysis of the demographic characteristics of both cohorts is followed by a presentation of the results regarding their personal and professional variables. Secondly, this chapter also presents the procedure used for establishing the validity and reliability of both measures using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and the PCA. Finally, logistic regression analysis is employed to address and present the results of the hypotheses testing related to the motivational factors and career orientations of CEs and SEs.

- Chapter 6 discusses the overall findings in the context of the enfolding literature on the motivational factors and career orientations of CEs and SEs. It outlines the key areas in which conceptual and empirical contributions are made by the thesis, as well as its methodological and practical contributions. The limitations of the study are also discussed, together with conclusions and suggestions for future research. Aspects of the personal learning that characterised the research journey of the candidate are also set down.

Chapter 2: Literature Review and Hypotheses Development

2.1 Introduction

Academics within the field of expatriation are increasingly urging human resource practitioners to develop well-defined expatriate policies in order to be successful in a competitive business environment (see for example, Brewster; Sparrow and Harris, 2005; Stonehouse; Campbell; Hamill and Purdie, 2007). However, so far, they have not been able to provide such HR practitioners with clear definitions outlining the specific characteristics of the relevant cohorts within the broader expatriate domain. For instance, there is a long history of research on conventional expatriates (CEs), who typically embark on international organisational missions (Hechanova; Beehr and Christiansen, 2003; Bhaskar-Shrinivas; Harrison; Shaffer and Luk, 2005). CEs are generally sent abroad to accomplish organisational tasks within a particular timeframe, with on-going organisational support during the assignment and a plan regarding eventual repatriation when it ends (Adler and Bartholomew, 1992; Carney and Wilbraham, 1993; Aycan and Kanungo, 1997; Pucik and Saba, 1998). A phenomenon of more recent vintage is the notion of self-initiated expatriates (SEs). This term was first coined by Inkson, Arthur, Pringle and Barry (1997) to refer to those individuals travelling abroad independently without organisational assistance who tend to be driven by a variety of both individual and career-related motivational factors. Empirical findings reveal that SEs are employed extensively by local and international companies around the world and that they are higher in number than their CE counterparts (Inkson *et al.*, 1997; Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Jokinen *et al.*, 2008; Biemann and Andresen, 2010; Cerdin and Pargneux, 2010; Doherty *et al.*, 2011; Selmer and Lauring 2011a; Lin *et al.*, 2012).

Arising from the expatriation literature, it may be suggested that SEs and CEs can be distinguished from each other based on a number of individual characteristics, in particular, their respective motives for going abroad and their respective perceptions of their international careers (Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Cerdin and Pargneux, 2010; Doherty *et al.*, 2011). Despite the fact that the expatriation literature contributes significant findings that help to understand SEs, several research gaps remain. Firstly,

the notion of the SE is not clearly defined and they tend to be confused with other non-organisational expatriates as well as with professional migrants. Secondly, the lack of inter-cohort investigations on various expatriates who are working and living in non-Western contexts is evident in the expatriation literature. For example, the research around the motivational factors for SEs and CEs to work and live in what are sometimes considered to be challenging host locations such as Saudi Arabia is under-represented in the expatriation literature.

"Context is an essential variable in understanding research outcomes" (Dickmann; Doherty; Mills and Brewster, 2008:735). Based on the expatriation literature, the host location of the assignment is one of the key motivational factors governing the expatriates' decision to work and live in a particular country (Dickmann *et al.*, 2008; Hippler, 2009; Thorn, 2009; Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010; Doherty *et al.*, 2011; Dickmann, 2012). However, most of the empirical findings so far concerning the host location specific motivational factors are drawn from samples travelling from or to popular international host locations such as Europe, United States, Australia, Japan and New Zealand.

Thirdly, most of the theoretical and empirical studies that target SEs have thus far tended to focus on single nationality samples (see for example, Inkson *et al.*, 1997; Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Tharenou, 2003; Jokinen *et al.*, 2008; Thorn, 2009; Biemann and Andresen, 2010; Cerdin and Pargneux, 2010; Tharenou, 2010b; Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010; Doherty *et al.*, 2011; Cerdin, 2013; Doherty; Richardson and Thorn, 2013). This limits the scope for completing inter-cohort analyses and broader understandings of how various nationalities differ within each expatriate cohort accordingly. Finally, the notion of how SEs perceive their international careers in different contexts is also under-represented within the expatriation literature.

Against this backdrop, this study seeks to distinguish between CEs and SEs as different expatriate types by reviewing the literature pertaining to how they are defined, their characteristics, their respective motivations for going abroad and, specifically, whether these cohorts differ from each other. It then highlights the existing literature concerning career orientations in order to explore how CEs and SEs

perceive their international experiences and unearths differences and/or similarities between the two cohorts.

Empirical findings to date show that SEs are more motivated to go abroad than CEs due to the perceived value attached to international experience (Doherty *et al.*, 2011), a stronger desire for adventure (Inkson *et al.*, 1997) and because the particular host location of the international assignment proves attractive (Tharenou, 2010b; Doherty *et al.*, 2011). In contrast, CEs are generally driven by organisational motives in addition to individual ones, which leads them to take on greater responsibilities in terms of balancing their personal needs with those of their employers prior to accepting an international posting (Miller and Cheng, 1978; Stahl; Miller and Tung, 2002; Doherty *et al.*, 2011). For example, evidence from Pinto et al. (2012) shows that CEs may accept overseas assignments, even if they are unwilling to relocate, in order to maintain a good relationship with their employers' parent company. Having to manage their personal and organisational needs reveals the inherent complexity involved for CEs in deciding to accept or reject a future international posting, as they must simultaneously manage mixed organisational and individual objectives. However, according to Stahl et al., there is 'little insight into the personal and professional trade-offs associated with the decision to accept an international assignment' (2002:218).

In addition, the destination of the international experience and the attractions of the host location are among the most significant factors that guide the expatriation decision-making behaviour of CEs and SEs. For example, some empirical studies show that SEs tend to travel mostly to developed countries (Ariss and Özbilgin, 2010; Tharenou, 2010a) as they seek more secure and stable host locations and a better lifestyle. This approach enables them to overcome the lack of external organisational support, which is provided to their CE counterparts since they are travelling on their own (Vance, 2005; Cerdin and Pargneux, 2010). It is also evident from the literature that the host context frequently presents certain key factors that make travelling to a particular host location more attractive and acceptable to expatriates. The findings from Doherty et al. (2011) reveal that host location attraction, host reputation and home-host relations are among the most important factors that motivate expatriates to travel abroad. Of the 34 motivational factors for travelling abroad explored by

Doherty et al. (2011), 14 were related to the host country attractions, which included the perceived popularity of the host location, the reputation of the host country for providing attractive working opportunities and its openness to foreigners. They also argue that, while country-level initiatives, regulations and social patterns will not influence how expatriates see a particular nation, they may have a significant impact on their decision to travel to that country. Similarly, Rodriguez and Scurry (2014) and Cooper and Rumford (2011) emphasise the role of regulatory regimes in many countries around the world in determining the opportunities that SEs are able to pursue in these countries. Therefore, factors such as host location, reputation and opportunities are among the significant motives that attract SEs to specific destinations and organisations (Thorn and Inkson, 2012).

A pre-requisite to fully understanding the differences between CEs and SEs is a thorough examination of their career dynamics, particularly given that the definitions presented above reveal that, unlike SEs, CEs have on-going organisational affiliation and support. It is evident from the literature that career orientations can be used to predict whether individuals will follow organisational or individual-managed career paths. For example, findings from Cerdin and Pargneux (2010) reveal that SEs are more strongly anchored by the pure challenge of the change than their CE counterparts, which points to the personal challenge associated with the SE expatriation journey. On the other hand, managerial competence, which is associated with traditional organisational expatriation, is found to be more widespread among CEs than SEs (Cerdin and Pargneux, 2010). In addition, unlike SEs, who take on the risks involved in travelling abroad on an individual basis, CEs perceive the international experience as a less risky endeavour as a result of having guaranteed organisational support and affiliation for the course of their expatriation journey (Cerdin and Pargneux, 2010).

An inter-cohort investigation will further our insights into the extent to which the two cohorts differ and may serve to clarify some of the complexities associated with the nature of international assignments involving different types of expatriates. In pursuing this approach, this study will review the literature around these two distinct cohorts, and particularly in relation to their respective definitions, characteristics, motives for going abroad and international career orientations. The outcomes should

contribute to the wider expatriation knowledge base in two particular ways. First, the comparative nature of the study should aid our understanding of how CEs and SEs can be distinguished from each other based on their motivational factors for going abroad and their perceived career orientations. The outcomes of this investigation may assist in determining how different expatriates perceive and manage their international careers while they are following different career path trajectories.

Building on the literature pertaining to contextual factors and host location attractions, the second contribution of this study lies in seeking to unearth the specific host location and contextual factors that may differentially influence the decisions of the two cohorts to travel and work in Saudi Arabia. This will include an exploration of how certain contextual and host location-related factors are perceived by CEs and SEs in deciding to live and work in Saudi Arabia. The findings from this analysis may help to uncover any host location-specific factors that could influence expatriates' decisions in coming to Saudi Arabia. Interestingly, despite being one of the top destinations in the world for mobile workers (Okruhlik and Conge, 1997), Saudi is under-represented in the expatriation literature. Indeed, until the late 1970s, most of the knowledge pertaining to managing and developing expatriates developed from the North American theoretical model, and this in turn was followed by a significant development in the expatriation literature from Europe, Australia, Japan and New Zealand and more recently from the emerging economies (Pierce and Garven, 1995; Brewster and Scullion, 1997; Scullion and Brewster, 2001; Tarique and Schuler, 2008; Scullion and Collings, 2012). Furthermore, some host location attractions relate to the prestige of working in a particular country, the UK being one common example (Dickmann, 2012), and to the desire to travel and work in similar developed countries in the pursuit of a better and a more secure lifestyle (Ariss and Özbilgin, 2010; Tharenou, 2010a). This makes Saudi Arabia a unique context that merits exploration in terms of its specific host location attractions, how these may influence expatriates' decisions to work there and whether the identified attractions differ for CEs and SEs. These contributions should serve to clarify some of the existing confusion concerning CEs and SEs in terms of their motives and career orientations and highlight any implications that follow concerning the international career trajectories of the two cohorts.

The complexities of the phenomenon of SEs and the extent to which SEs differ from CEs are arguably significant challenges which confront both organisations and HR practitioners in terms of providing programmes, policies and procedures that can cater for the needs of different expatriates rather than utilising a 'one-size-fits-all' management approach. Furthermore, according to Howe-Walsh and Schyns (2010:261), understanding expatriates' motives for going abroad will allow HR practitioners to "… differentiate which HR practices are more or less relevant for which type of self-initiated expatriate". Indeed, given that organisations are engaged in developing multiple programmes, policies and HR tools, including training courses, performance management strategies and retention programmes, it is important that such programmes and policies meet the needs and aspirations of different employees if they are to be successful. It is evident from the expatriation literature that ensuring organisational success relies increasingly on balancing the business goals and objectives of the organisation as well as satisfying the needs and aspirations of its employees (Mendenhall; Dunbar and Oddou, 1987). Drawing on the theory of "Fit" (perspective of fit between motivation to go abroad and international assignment), Cerdin and Pargneux (2009) suggest that expatriates' motives for going abroad and their career characteristics, including career anchors, are essential factors that can be used to promote the success of an international assignment (IA). However, in order for organisations to develop effective and efficient HR tools and policies, deeper inter-cohort analyses are required to uncover how CEs and SEs differ and to ensure that these differences are reflected in HR policies and approaches where appropriate. To this end, the following section reviews the relevant literature related to CEs and SEs and, in particular, focuses on definitional aspects, underlying characteristics and whether they can be distinguished from each other, as well as from other international workforce cohorts and migrants.

2.2 Conventional Expatriates (CEs)

The word 'expatriate' is derived from the Latin term '*ex patria'*, which means living away from one's country of origin. Individuals living *ex patria* may be legal foreign workers, migrants, immigrants, refugees, asylum seekers, illegal workers/residents, temporary or long-term visitors or world travellers. According to the Tourism Encyclopaedia, an expatriate is a member of staff, often in a managerial position, who

has been sent abroad by his/her employer (typically a multinational firm) to work in a country other than his/her homeland (Jafari, 2013). In the field of management, the word expatriate is primarily used to refer to assigned expatriates (Adler and Bartholomew, 1992; Carney and Wilbraham, 1993; Guzzo, 1996; Aycan and Kanungo, 1997; Pucik and Saba, 1998). Researchers within this field use a variety of different terms to refer to organisational expatriates. These include traditional expatriates, conventional expatriates (CEs), company-backed expatriates, organisational expatriates and assigned expatriates. Despite the existence of multiple terms such as these, the key element that characterises the overall definition used in this study is the organisational affiliation between individuals and their corporate senders. However, much of the confusion pertaining to definition occurs as a result of organisations considering different international tasks and alternative forms of expatriation that can be executed using short-term international trips rather than relying on long-term relocation in accordance with the definition set out above.

These alternative forms of international expatriation encompass the notion of short-term assignments, such as the concept of *flexpatriates* introduced by Mayerhofer and her colleagues (2004). According to Mayerhofer et al. (2004), *flexpatriate* assignees are frequent flyers who travel to execute short-term international tasks that do not require employees to relocate. As a result of these alternative forms of expatriation, the definition of CEs became more complicated and was expanded to include, in addition to *flexpatriates,* other CE subgroups, such as international business travellers (IBTs) (Welch and Worm, 2006) and short-term assignees (Mayrhofer and Scullion, 2002; Tahvanainen; Welch and Worm, 2005). The establishment of specific definitions for each of these CE subgroups is essential to enable both academics and professionals to provide the appropriate local and international support and effective management tools to target each one. For example, the term, CE, can be used within the expatriation literature to refer to long-term and short-term expatriation as well as to *flexpatriates* who have no specific expatriation timeframe and others for whom the nature of their international assignment falls within the CE definition outlined above. However, based on the expatriation literature, it is clear that long-term expatriation differs from frequent and short-term expatriation in terms of its related HR practices and management tools, which involve consideration of individual, organisational and cross-cultural contexts. For example, unlike CEs who are challenged primarily by

cross-culture adjustment issues (see, for example, Black, 1988), *flexpatriates* are affected most significantly by time zone differences, work/family balance and multi and complex cultural customs (see, for example, Mayerhofer *et al.*, 2004).

In addition, according to the CE definition above, the duration of the international assignment for CEs is not clear-cut and can only be divided into the categories of short-term and long-term assignment (Tahvanainen *et al.*, 2005). For an assignment to be considered short-term, researchers suggest that the international experience should be more than a single business trip and less than a year (Tahvanainen *et al.*, 2005; Collings *et al.*, 2007; Konopaske; Robie and Ivancevich, 2009). Similarly, the scope of the long-term assignment is not defined; however, some researchers have found that the average long-term assignment is five years in duration (Tung, 1987) and that more than five years will be considered an indefinite assignment (Nurney, 2001). Empirical findings from Peterson, Napier and Shim (1996) reveal that some European employers have limited the length of the international assignment to five years in total. In this regard, when an expatriate exceeds five years of working abroad, his/her status will be changed to local staff and, as a result, the local HR policies, benefits and management arrangements will apply to him/her (Peterson *et al.*, 1996; Wentland, 2003).

Equally, the definition of SEs is also unclear as is evident from the emerging literature that documents this cohort and attempts to identify their characteristics and set out how SEs are distinguishable from other expatriates. The following section will review aspects of the relevant literature on SEs in order to develop a greater understanding of them, in respect of both how they are defined and what characteristics they exhibit.

2.3 Self-Initiated Expatriates (SEs)

The expatriation literature on SEs is still developing in terms of their definition and with regard to the subgroups that may be identified within this highly diversified expatriate group (Andresen; Bergdolt; Margenfeld and Dickmann, 2014; Cerdin and Selmer, 2014). Despite being characterised in the literature as highly qualified

individuals who travel abroad individually without organisational support, the SE definition remains very broad. One of the reasons for having such a broad definition is related to SEs' varied motives for travelling abroad. For example, while CEs travel for work purposes, SEs travel abroad for a variety of individual reasons and, in some cases, for purposes other than work, including for adventure and to see the world, amongst other migration purposes (Dickmann *et al.*, 2008; Ariss and Özbilgin, 2010; Cerdin and Selmer, 2014). Despite being characterised as professional and highly skilled individuals (Inkson *et al.*, 1997; Suutari and Brewster, 2000), many of the SE definitions do not include 'work' as a main purpose for their international relocation (see, for example, Andresen; Bergdolt and Margenfeld, 2012; Ariss and Crowley-Henry, 2013; Cerdin, 2013). SEs who travel abroad to find jobs are often found to be working in unskilled, casual and temporary employment due to the various institutional, organisational and employment barriers they meet in the host context (Inkson *et al.*, 1997; Carr; Inkson and Thorn, 2005; Lee, 2005; Ariss, 2010; Cappellen and Janssens, 2010; Zikic; Bonache and Cerdin, 2010). For example, many well educated medical professionals cannot by law practice in many Western countries as they are required to obtain country specific licenses or accreditations (Baugh; Bowling and Carraher, 2013). Therefore, those who travel abroad without having a job arranged prior to their departure, with the aim of finding a job while abroad, are often found to be working in professions unrelated to their actual career and these individuals fall into the original category of migrants and are generally represented in the migration literature (see for example, Ariss and Özbilgin, 2010).

A literature specific to SEs was originally established by Inkson et al. (1997) in order to introduce into the expatriation nomenclature a different expatriate cohort that is distinct from CEs. The development of the literature on SEs has progressed through different phases, which reveal some of the complexity around this cohort and their definition. For example, the early research on SEs, including that by Inkson et al. (1997), Suutari and Brewster (2000), Inkson and Myers (2003) and Tharenou (2003) originally focused on professional and highly skilled individuals travelling from New Zealand, Australia and Europe, driven by both work and non-work motives. Some of their target samples were young professionals travelling for work and non-work purposes, which represented a combination of expatriates and migrants. This combination has attracted other researchers from the migration domain including, for

example, Ariss and Özbilgin (2010) who are interested in the field of highly skilled migrants. After more than 17 years since the first study on SEs, some researchers in this field now seek to distinguish SEs from other expatriates as well as from other highly skilled migrants. Recently, some researchers have proposed different criteria and models to define SEs. Such studies include research conducted by Andresen et al. (2014) and Cerdin and Selmer (2014). These studies, as well as others that aim to clarify the issues of definition around SEs, will be elaborated on below in order to understand how SEs are defined and characterised within the expatriation literature.

Based on an extensive literature review, Andresen et al. (2014) suggest a theoretical demarcation model to clarify the confusion around the definitions of CEs, SEs and migrants. They argue that going abroad for work purposes and being legally employed are the most distinctive elements that differentiate expatriates from migrants. In addition, the same authors argue that the differences between CEs and SEs are based on three developmental phases, namely, *pre-actional*, *actional* and *post-actional*. During the first phase, CEs and SEs are similar in terms of having the intention and motives to relocate and work abroad. The *actional* phase involves CEs receiving and accepting international job offers from their current employers in their home country, whereas SEs apply personally for international vacancies and manage their relocation independently. According to the same study, the real difference between CEs and SEs, therefore, becomes apparent during the second, or *actional* stage. The final, *post-actional*, phase is the process of evaluating the international experience by individuals and, specifically, assessing the extent to which this intentional experience was successful or not. The study is useful in terms of offering a demarcation model to reduce the ambiguity around CE and SE definitions; however, it also assumes that the expatriation process follows systematic phases and, as a result, it gives an oversimplified description of the process of sending expatriates abroad intentionally. For example, it is evident from the expatriation literature that the process of sending an individual abroad can be ad hoc and can occur without prior preparation (see for example, Harris and Brewster, 1999). In addition, the demarcation model proposed does not include the timeframe of the international assignment for CEs and SEs and the extent to which the international task is linked to either a temporary or an indefinite period.

To illustrate some of the heterogeneity in the current literature around the definition of SEs', we present the decision tree proposed by Andresen *et al.* (2014) (Figure 2.1) to examine and illustrate various definitions employed by some empirical studies and published by different journals. Table 2.1 presents the outcomes of this analysis. It is obvious from the analysis that many studies utilise a simple definition to distinguish between CEs and SEs. For example, some studies in Table 2.1 tend to rely on whether an individual is traveling on his/her own or whether he/she has an organisational affiliation in the home country to differentiate between CEs and SEs (see for example, Lee, 2005; Begley; Collings and Scullion, 2008; Cerdin and Pargneux, 2010). On the other hand, some studies added more defining characteristics for SEs, which means that authors try to narrow the scope of the ambiguity of the simple definition through adding some defining factors such as travelling for work purposes, involving geographic relocation, currently employed and having a job arrangement prior to departure. Interestingly, 3 studies including Crowley-Henry (2007), Bozionelos (2009) and Nolan and Morley (2013) out of 18 empirical studies presented in Table 2.1 were using SE samples, whereas the remaining according to the decision tree Model were using migrants or mixed samples of SEs and migrants (including, Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Inkson and Myers, 2003; Lee, 2005; Myers and Pringle, 2005; Begley *et al.*, 2008; Jokinen *et al.*, 2008; Peltokorpi and Froese, 2009; Ariss and Özbilgin, 2010; Biemann and Andresen, 2010; Cerdin and Pargneux, 2010; Doherty *et al.*, 2011; Myers, 2011; Cao; Hirschi and Deller, 2013; Bjerregaard, 2014) and this is including the original study by Inkson and his colleagues (1997). This illustrates the extent of the complexity around this cohort in the literature.

Another issue that is not clear from the SE definitions discussed in the extant literature pertains to the samples employed in establishing these definitions and the target destinations of their expatriation. For example, arguably, SEs travelling from New Zealand and Australia to the UK, the US and Europe are faced with relocation and work permit difficulties to a greater extent than SEs from Europe travelling within Europe, including the UK (Suutari and Brewster, 2000). On the other hand, SEs from New Zealand and Australia who are travelling to the UK and/or continental Europe have to deal with lesser work and migration barriers compared to those SEs travelling from European countries to the Middle East and vice versa. For example,

Australian SEs are able to travel and stay in the UK or certain European countries even if they do not have work visas or actual job offers prior to their departure.

Figure 2. 1-Decision tree model adapted from Andresen *et al.* (2014).

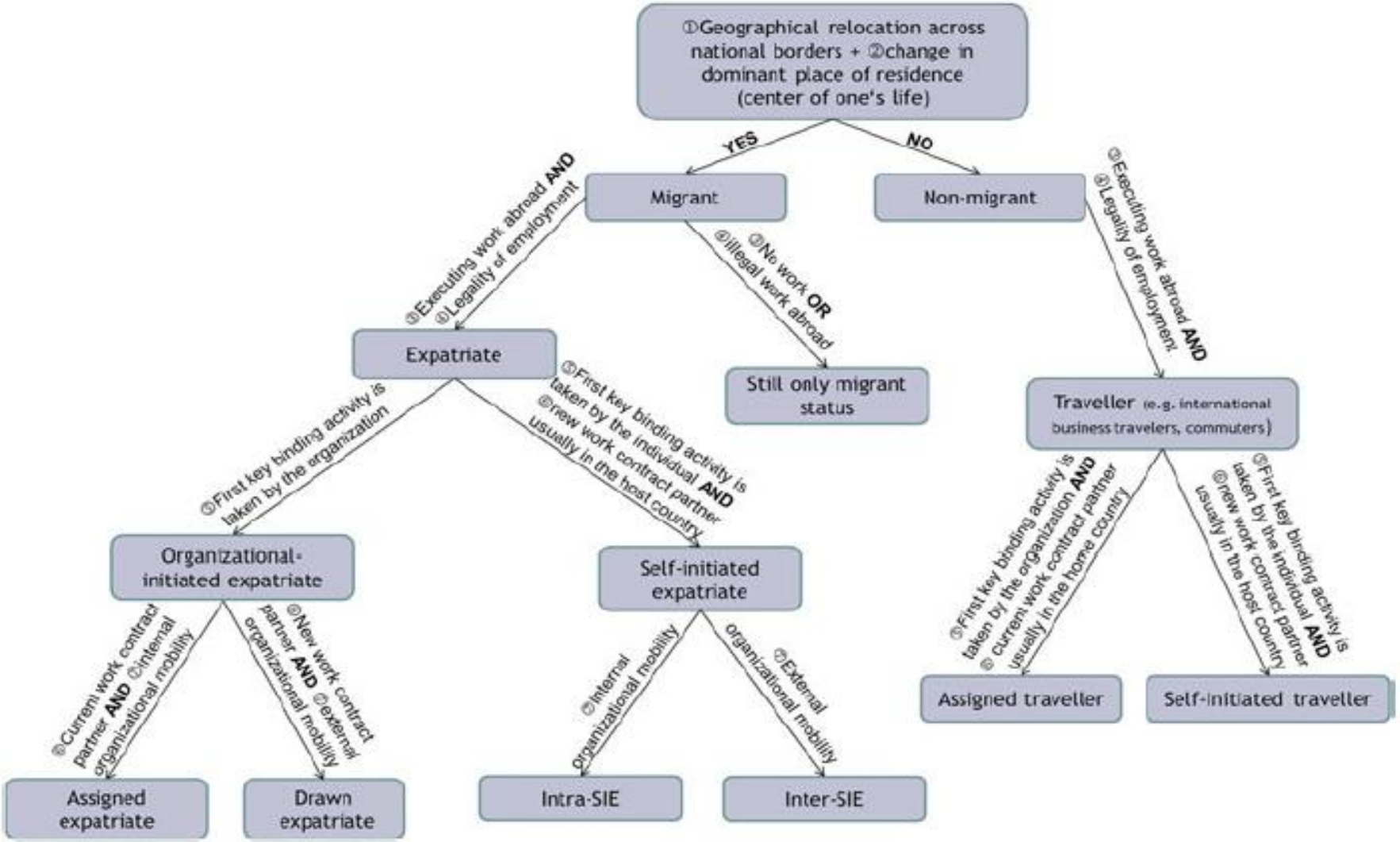


Table 2. 1-An Analysis of SE definitions in various empirical studies based on the decision tree developed by Andresen et al. (2014)

Source	Has definition	Simple definition	More elaborate definition	Participants motivated by work	Participant has job offer/job arrangement prior to departure	Decision
(Lee 2005)	Yes	Yes	Nil	Unknown	Unknown	Migrants
(Inkson and Myers 2003)	Yes	Yes	Yes	*"Go to London, find somewhere to stay, and look for a job" (n=40)*	Only 10 out of 50	Mixed SEs & majority migrants
(Begley et al. 2008)	Yes	Yes	Nil	Unknown	Unknown	Migrants
(Cao et al. 2013)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	*"70 percent had gone to college in Germany prior to their working experiences"*	Mixed SEs & majority migrants
(Doherty et al. 2011)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Unknown	Migrants
(Cerdin and Pargneux 2010)	Yes	Yes	Nil	Yes	Unknown	Migrants
(Biemann and Andresen 2010)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Unknown	Migrants
(Ariss and Özbilgin 2010)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Unknown	Migrants
(Myers 2011)	Yes	Yes	Nil	Mix of work and free travel	Unknown	Migrants
(Myers and Pringle 2005)	Yes	Yes	Yes	*"'free' travellers"*	*"...were not going to pre-arranged jobs"*	Migrants
(Crowley-Henry 2007)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Locally hired expatriates	SEs
(Jokinen et al. 2008)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Unknown	Migrants
(Peltokorpi and Jintae Froese 2009)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Unknown	Migrants
(Suutari and Brewster 2000)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Unknown	Migrants
(Inkson et al. 1997)	Yes	Yes	Yes	*"motivated by broad curiosity ...and jobs are regarded as temporary"*	*"The exercise is seen as recreational and social more than career-oriented"*	Migrants
(Bozionelos 2009)	Yes	Yes	Nil	Yes	Yes (work visa)	SEs
(Nolan and Morley 2013)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes (work visa)	SEs
(Bjerregaard 2014)	Yes	Yes	Yes	*"Majority motivated by new job and few reported adventure and travel"*	Unknown	Migrants

On the other hand, SEs who travel to countries like Saudi Arabia have to obtain actual job offers and visas prior to their departure as Saudi has no immigration policy allowing SEs to enter the country in order to find jobs, as exists for Australian SEs who are travelling to the UK. In these circumstances, it is very difficult to distinguish between SEs and migrants who are travelling without jobs prior to their departure and who may also be confronted with similar employment barriers (see for example, Ariss, 2010).

As a way of elucidating the difference between migrant workers and SEs, some authors, including Cao et al. (2012) and Ariss (2010), argue that migrants are individuals who normally travel from developing countries to more developed countries, whereas SEs often travel from developed to developing countries. According to the International Labour Office (ILO), in the past decade, there has been an increase in the migration of highly skilled workers travelling from developing to developed countries as a result of high skills shortages, and consequent demand, in developed nations (Lowell and Findlay, 2002). However, Cao et al. (2012) and Ariss (2010) suggest that the argument for limiting the SE definition to particular geographic host locations, such as developed countries, is not supported for a number of reasons. Firstly, some empirical studies that explore SE mobility reveal that SEs are also found to travel from certain developed countries, such as New Zealand, Australia, the UK and Europe, to seek work and non-work opportunities in both other developed and developing countries such as Asia and the Middle East (see for example, Carr *et al.*, 2005; OECD, 2008; Thorn, 2009; Tharenou, 2010b; Stalker and Mavin, 2011; Belot and Ederveen, 2012; Rodriguez and Scurry, 2014).

Secondly, so far, there is no clear definition that can be used to distinguish SEs from highly skilled migrants and it is evident that the empirical studies available in Table 2.1 tend to mix expatriates and migrants. For example, some samples employed to examine SEs target individuals travelling for a broad spectrum of reasons that include work, further education, adventure, tourism and school holidays (see for example, Inkson and Myers, 2003; Tharenou, 2003; Thorn, 2009; Myers, 2011). In addition, one reason underlying the common assumption that SEs mostly travel from developed nations, in contrast with migrants, could be that most of the literature on SEs is contributed to by researchers from developed countries who, therefore, target samples

from these countries (see for example, Inkson *et al.*, 1997; Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Tharenou, 2003; Biemann and Andresen, 2010; Selmer and Lauring, 2010; Tharenou, 2010b; Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010; Selmer and Lauring 2011a).

As a result, it is difficult to distinguish SEs from other professional migrants, especially in the absence of a prearranged job offer prior to departure. Having a job offer in hand prior to departure is one significant factor that can be used to distinguish SEs from other highly skilled migrants who also travel abroad to find work or to settle indefinitely and ultimately become citizens of their host countries. Furthermore, expatriates who have job offers and travel mainly for work purposes tend to be bound by specific work tasks and timeframes to accomplish these tasks rather than having the freedom to travel and settle abroad indefinitely. Doherty et al. (2013) suggest that task temporariness can also be used to distinguish SEs from migrants. Unlike SEs, migrants tend to live in host countries for several years and may have the intention to stay in their host countries indefinitely from the outset (Tharenou, 2010b; Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010).

Cerdin and Selmer (2014) have proposed a definition of SEs based on four criteria. The first is that SEs initiate their relocation themselves without company support. This criterion distinguishes SEs from CEs and 'Overseas Experience' migrants (OEs) who have access to some, or full, home company support during their international relocations. The second and third criteria are that SEs have regular employment as well as the intention of relocating to the host country for a temporary stay to maintain regular employment between past and future assignments. This combined factor will help to distinguish SEs from sojourners who travel for short visits, as well as from immigrants who relocate for an indefinite period of time. Finally, SEs are defined by having skills and professional qualifications. Again, this criterion is helpful to distinguish SEs from immigrants who may be compelled to accept lower-skilled jobs as a result of not having secured contractual employment prior to entering the host country (Ariss and Özbilgin, 2010). The definition suggested by Cerdin and Selmer (2014) is helpful in clarifying some of the ambiguity around SEs in terms of their definition and how they may be distinguished from other expatriates including highly skilled migrants; however, even within the criteria proposed, confusion still exists about the difference between SEs and professional migrants. For example, both SEs

and highly skilled migrants are found to have regular employment in their host countries and to have the intention of only moving there temporarily (Ariss and Özbilgin, 2010). Other issues related to their definition include whether SEs have job offers prior to their departure or not. This aspect is very important as it highlights those expatriates travelling for job purposes as distinct from those travelling for various other reasons.

For the purposes of this study, and building on the demarcation model by Andresen et al. (2014), as well as the four criteria proposed by Cerdin and Selmer (2014), an SE is defined as:

> 'A skilled and professional individual who has a job offer/work visa in hand prior to his/her expatriation and who takes the decision to go abroad through self-funding and self-control to embark on a temporary work-related assignment'.

This definition distinguishes SEs from other global business travellers, including CEs, skilled immigrants/migrants and other international travellers, who travel without a corporate individual employment relationship. Therefore, having an employment relationship prior to expatriation can be linked easily to their expatriation motives and help expatriates to avoid any possible structural difficulties due to host, institutional and administrative-based barriers (see for example, Ariss and Özbilgin, 2010).

On the other hand, drawing on the work of Adler and Bartholomew (1992), Carney and Wilbraham (1993), Aycan and Kanungo (1997) and Pucik and Saba (1998) for the purpose of this research a CE is defined as:

> 'A skilled and professional individual who has been sent abroad to accomplish organisational tasks within a particular timeframe, with on-going organisational support during the assignment and a plan regarding eventual repatriation when it ends'

This distinction is significant in terms of establishing a solid foundation on which to conduct further inter-cohort analyses of the two groups from both individual and professional perspectives. For example, expatriates' motivational factors for going

abroad and career orientations represent significant individual and professional factors that can be analysed in order to understand how these factors are perceived among CEs and SEs through undertaking deeper inter-cohort analyses.

This kind of deeper analysis is helpful in facilitating an understanding of CEs and SEs from their respective individual and professional perspectives and the outcomes of such an analysis can be used to offer insights on which to base well-defined policies and HR tools to suit each cohort. The remainder of this chapter will review the expatriation literature to explore the dominant motivational factors and career orientations among CEs and SEs in order to construct hypotheses concerning the two cohorts. These Hypotheses will subsequently tested in the inter-group empirical study conducted for this thesis.

2.4 Motivations for Going Abroad Among CEs and SEs

Empirical findings reveal that SEs' motivational factors for going abroad remain largely unknown, particularly since studies that investigate their motives have been somewhat fragmented (Doherty *et al.*, 2011; Cerdin, 2013). Indeed, the study of expatriates' motives is highly complex since it requires an investigation of many different types of individual travelling for different reasons and to different locations. It is evident from the expatriation literature that early scholars in this field contributed valuable knowledge to the understanding of expatriates' motives for going abroad (see for example, Cleveland; Mangone and Adams, 1960; Gonzalez and Negandhi, 1967; Miller and Cheng, 1978). However, the contemporary international business environment is becoming increasingly complex, particularly given the involvement of various international stakeholders including those SEs who travel independently and who are driven to expatriate by non-traditional motivational factors that go beyond those under the control or sponsorship of any single employer.

Specifically, changing employment relationships and the shift from traditional employment to less constrained careers have gone beyond organisational boundaries and have led to the pursuit of alternative employment opportunities, such as international entrepreneurship and self-employment (Arthur and Rousseau, 1996; Sullivan, 1999; Banai and Harry, 2004; Bonache; Brewster and Suutari, 2007; Pate

and Scullion, 2009). As a result, expatriates' motivations and expectations are changing. For example, 'organisation recognition' and 'the sense of vocation' were found to be significant motivational factors in early expatriation research and especially for assigned expatriates (Cleveland *et al.*, 1960; Gonzalez and Negandhi, 1967). On the other hand, recent research reveals that motivational factors such as seeking personal challenge and accepting international assignments according to their geographic locations were found to be significant, not only for SEs, who have more freedom of choice in their decisions, but also for CEs (Doherty *et al.*, 2011; Dickmann, 2012; Cerdin, 2013).

In this context, the focus of this study will be on the recent research into expatriates' motives that focuses on SEs who are pursuing independent careers going beyond traditional employment structures and organisational borders. It is evident that researchers in this field investigate expatriates' motives from three angles, namely: motives for going abroad (see for example, Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Dickmann *et al.*, 2008; Doherty *et al.*, 2011; Cerdin, 2013); motives for staying abroad and motives for repatriation to the homeland (see for example, Jackson; Carr; Edwards; Thorn; Allfree; Hooks and Inkson, 2005; Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010).

It is also evident that researchers employ various approaches to understanding the motives underlying expatriation. One of these approaches is to examine expatriates' motives through the lens of 'push/pull' factors governing their decision by evaluating the international attractions and rewards (pull factors) perceived by individuals in opposition to their home country/personal disadvantages and forces (push factors) (Oteiza, 1968; Bierbrauer and Pedersen, 1996; Massey and Espinosa, 1997; Zweig, 1997; Baruch, 2004; Jackson *et al.*, 2005). Economic recession, high unemployment and individual hardship in the home country have been identified as the dominant motivational factors that pushed expatriates out of their homelands (Torbiörn, 1982; Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Tharenou, 2010b; Doherty *et al.*, 2011; Froese, 2011). On the other hand, the personal agency aspect of expatriates' willingness to travel, monetary gain, the international learning experience and career advancement that can be attained were identified as significant 'pull' motivational factors in accepting the international assignment (Fish and Wood, 1997; Dickmann *et al.*, 2008; Froese, 2011).

In addition, recent research explores expatriates' motives by adopting a thematic approaches. For example, Cerdin (2013), constructs 12 motivational factors based on previous research by Stahl, Miller and Tung (2002), Günter and Cerdin (2004), Borg (1987) and Torbiörn (1976). Of these, the following ten 'pull' motivational factors were identified: (1) monetary considerations, (2) family considerations (non-job related), (3) normal career advancement patterns, (4) professional development, (5) personal challenge, (6) importance of the job itself, (7) future opportunities for advancement, (8) encouragement from colleagues and superiors, (9) encouragement from spouse or partner and (10) geographic host location of the assignment. The two push motivational factors identified were: (1) the desire to escape from a social or economic environment related to the home country and (2) the desire to escape from personal problems at home.

Similarly, Carr et al. (2005) propose five major motivational factors based on economic, political, cultural, family and career factors. Economic and political factors, for Carr et al. (2005), represent the push factors that tend to impel individuals to escape their home countries. These two push factors reflect the social and economic aspects identified by Cerdin (2013) that lead individuals to seek to escape their home country. Carr et al. (2005) suggest that a cultural motivational factor works as a pull factor that attracts individuals to a specific host location, which is similar to the factor relating to the geographic host location of an assignment proposed by Cerdin (2013). In addition, in common with Cerdin (2013), Carr et al. (2005) suggest that career and family motivational factors are also significant pull factors in terms of offering career development for individuals as well as opportunities for their family members to have a better life abroad. Therefore, host location-specific motivational factors, both economic and political, tend to constitute a positive pull attracting individuals towards particular countries that have greater political and economic advantages while, at the same time, they feel impelled to escape from disadvantages in their homelands. On the other hand, Cerdin (2013) emphasises, to a greater extent than Carr et al. (2005), personal motivational factors such as professional development, personal challenge, future opportunities for advancement and encouragement from colleagues and superiors, all of which represent pull factors while also supported by the push factor of the desire to escape personal problems at home. Both studies reveal the importance

of a combination of career, host location and personal driving factors in assessing the extent to which expatriates are motivated, by either negative or positive forces, to go abroad.

Suutari and Brewster (2000) also suggest seven motivational factors for expatriation that fit the 'push/pull' model. The pull factors that they have identified encompass: interest in internationalisation, desire for new experiences, professional development, career progression and economic benefits. They also identified motivational push factors: employer initiative and an unfavourable employment situation being major ones. Similar to Carr et al. (2005) and Cerdin (2013), Suutari and Brewster (2000) emphasise the role of career and personal motivational factors; however, their study is silent on those motives that relate to the host location of the assignment. In contrast, Doherty et al. (2011) highlight that motives relating to the host location of an assignment are significant motivational factors in driving individuals to relocate to a particular country. They propose seven 'pull' components, which relate to host location, career, foreign experience, the host country, family benefits, host-home country relations and personal relationships, with a single component that represents a push factor. Of the 'pull' components, three are related to the host location of the assignment: host location, host country and host-home country relations. This indicates the importance of the target host location and, in particular, the country's characteristics as primary 'pull' motivational factors that have a significant influence on individuals' decision to work and live in a specific country. On the other hand, the push factor from the same study represents reasons for expatriates to escape some disadvantages in their home countries including poor employment and to distance themselves from personal problems. The motivational factors proposed by Doherty et al. (2011) were adopted from previous research conducted by Dickmann et al. (2008).

Overall therefore, based on evidence in the background literature, the motivational factors for going abroad among CEs and SEs can be grouped into push and pull themes. The push factors encompass personal, professional and home-country related features, while the pull factors relate to host location country, home-host relations, career, family and personal relationships considerations and the desire for an international experience. Arising from the utility of this push-pull nexus as an organising framework for the literature, the next section explicates in greater details

the push and pull factors at play in the decision to expatriate and advances a series of linked hypotheses on variations in the push and pull dynamics at play for SEs and CEs as distinct expatriate cohorts.

2.4.1 Push Factors

Push factors at their most fundamental refer to the negative conditions that impel individuals to escape dissatisfaction in the home country, which may be related to personal or professional circumstances experienced by the individual (Cerdin, 2013). The push factors relating to personal circumstances are evident in the findings of Myers (2011), where older women were found to be highly motivated to seek SE expatriation in order to escape hardship in the home country. Similarly, Tharenou (2010b) argues that women travel to work abroad as a result of encountering local career barriers and experiencing a lack of career or managerial advancement at home. This occurs due to existing unfair and unethical business practices that discriminate against women during the selection process, as is evident from the lower percentage of expatriate females in the higher and executive levels compared to men (Forster, 1999; Linehan, 2000; Tung, 2004; Adler and Gundersen, 2008). In addition, findings from Cerdin (2013) indicate that SEs tend to feel impelled to go abroad, to a greater extent than their CE counterparts, when they are confronted by social or economic disadvantages as well as by personal problems at home.

Unfavourable labour market conditions in the home country represent another push factor that leads SEs to seek work in other countries, even if they are not eager to relocate (Froese, 2011). Furthermore, the findings of Alonso-Garbayo and Maben (2009) reveal that low salaries in the home country are amongst the most significant push factors for nurses travelling from the Philippines and India to work in countries such as Bahrain, Oman and Saudi Arabia. While push factors are found to be especially common as a root trajectory for expatriation among SEs, some organisational practices are also utilised to push CEs to go abroad. This is including the use of management power strategies over CEs to compel them to accept international assignments even if they would prefer not to take on an international posting (Osland, 1995; Stahl *et al.*, 2002; Pinto *et al.*, 2012). For example, findings

from Stahl et al. (2002) reveal that over 60% of their CE sample believed that they were compelled to accept the international assignment even if they were unwilling to go abroad and they anticipated negative consequences from their employers if they rejected the assignment. This leads to the formulation of the first hypothesis for this study:

Hypothesis 1: Push factors will be more dominant motivational factors among SEs than among their CEs counterparts.

2.4.2 Pull Factors

In contrast to the push factors, the pull factors are based on the positive motivations and expectations for the international assignment that literally pull or draw individuals towards expatriation, as opposed to pushing them to so do. The following section sets down the major pull factors derived from the extant literature, namely; host location, host-home relations, career, family and personal relationships considerations and the desire for an international experience.

2.4.2.1 Host Location -Related Pull Factors

The host location of the international assignment is found to be a major influential factor in driving expatriation (see for example, Yurkiewicz and Rosen, 1995; Scullion and Brewster, 2001; Thorn, 2009; Tharenou, 2010b). The attraction of the particular host location is another significant factor in driving the decision to expatriate there. For example, Dickmann (2012) found that most of the participants in his study were attracted by what he called London-specific motivational factors as result of London being the global centre for the interviewees' work. His findings indicate the importance of the assignment location in terms of offering career and professional related characteristics such as the prestige of working and living in London. Unlike London, which represented a prestigious location offering positive career prospects, the Gulf Cooperation Council Countries (GCC) became a large employer that attracted expatriates globally by offering job opportunities and actively seeking to employ expatriates, but the question remains whether the GCC Countries could be also considered to offer prestigious career prospects or whether they have different

host location attractions. For example, findings from Scurry et al. (2013b) reveal that SEs travelling to GCC, and especially to Qatar, were found to be attracted by the job opportunities, the free-tax environment and the high salaries. Consequently, according to Okruhlik and Conge 'Saudi became the magnet for much of the migration of labour in the region' (1997:555).

To this end, each country/city has its unique attractions that influence expatiates' in their decision to work and live in that particular context. Therefore, our second hypothesis reads as follows:

Hypothesis 2: SEs will be more highly motivated by the host/location attractions available in Saudi Arabia than their CEs counterparts.

2.4.2.2 Host-Home Relations Pull Factor

Beyond the importance of the assignment location, this research also examines the role of host-home relations as motivational factors that could influence CEs and SEs decisions to relocate and live in Saudi Arabia. Doherty et al. (2011) emphasise the importance of using different samples in understating the nature and character of global talent flow. The literature on SEs reveals that this cohort show a preference for expatriating to countries that have a culture, language and set of customs similar to their own (see, for example,Inkson *et al.*, 1997; Inkson and Myers, 2003; Doherty *et al.*, 2011; Myers, 2011). Other findings also indicate that SEs travel primarily to developed countries as they have particular concerns pertaining to the need for security and, in addition, they seek a better lifestyle, political stability and stronger education and health systems (Tharenou, 2003; Ariss and Özbilgin, 2010). According to Inkson and Myers (2003), a common phenomenon is that of young people travelling on 'working holiday' visas from Australia to New Zealand and vice versa. According to the same authors, it has also become a tradition for young people from these two countries to travel to the UK prior to starting third-level education as a way of accumulating international experience or in pursuit of international adventure and change.

Australia, New Zealand and the UK share a common language and similar cultural profiles, customs and government arrangements, in that young travellers between these countries may obtain working holiday visas for up to two years (Hofstede, 1980; Inkson and Myers, 2003). As a result, in the context of home-host relations fewer cultural barriers exist between these countries, allowing young people to travel freely between Australia, New Zealand and the UK. According to Belot and Ederveen (2012), cultural proximity is a very significant factor when considering individual mobility between two countries and, moreover, it extends beyond economic differences (between sending and receiving countries) in terms of influence. In addition, the presence of cultural links, as well as a national community, functions as a means of networking in the host country and may increase its attractiveness (Carrington; Detragiache and Vishwanath, 1996). The same authors argue that the presence of certain ethnic groups in the destination country, for example in the form of "Little Italy's" and "Chinatowns", can provide information about the local customs and values as well as job opportunities, which can motivate people to travel to these host locations.

Empirical findings reveal that Saudi Arabia, the context for our investigation, is one of the top destinations for expatriates travelling from South-East Asian countries such as India, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Thailand and the Philippines (Omar, 1996). According to Kapiszewski (2006), Asian expatriates working in the GCC represent the majority of all nationalities there, including those coming from Arab countries. Kapiszewski (2006) also suggests that there are several reasons underlying the increasing demand for Asian expatriates, including low wages compared to other nationalities such as Western and Arab expatriates, the long historical relationship between Asian workers and Saudi and the existence of political instabilities between Saudi and certain Arab countries. To this end, our third hypothesis reads:

Hypothesis 3: SEs will be more highly motivated by the host-home relations dynamic than their CEs counterparts.

2.4.2.3 Career-Related Pull Factor

Similar to the host location of the assignment, career is also rated among the top motivational pull factors in expatriate mobility (Brett and Stroh, 1995; Günter and Cerdin, 2004; Dickmann *et al.*, 2008; Hippler, 2009; Thorn, 2009; Doherty *et al.*, 2011). However, empirical findings indicate that prioritisation of career as a major motivational factor in expatriation varies among CEs and SEs. For example, findings from Brett and Stroh (1995), Stahl and Cerdin (2004), Doherty et al. (2011), Dickmann et al. (2008) and Thorn (2009) reveal that career progression is a major reason for CEs to expatriate, with financial considerations deemed a secondary reason. On the other hand, some findings reveal that career is not a major motivational factor for SEs as they perceive their career to be part of their life trajectory rather than a major driver on its own (see for example, Doherty *et al.*, 2011).

One of the explanations for SEs to be less motivated by their career is possibly as a result of travelling without a job offer in advance. It is evident from the expatriation literature that SEs may be of a type who have encountered many employment and professional-based barriers in the host country and as result, SEs have been found to be working in unrelated professions or in lower-skilled jobs (Inkson and Myers, 2003; Ariss and Özbilgin, 2010). In order to avoid such contextual and professional barriers in the host country, each individual in the SE sample employed for this research has an employment relationship, permit and visa prior to their working in Saudi Arabia. It is also evident from the literature that older, and female SEs, are more highly motivated to go abroad based on the importance of career to them relative to younger expatriates who are more motivated by other factors, including economic rewards (Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Myers and Pringle, 2005; Fitzgerald and Howe-Walsh, 2009; Thorn, 2009). Therefore, our fourth hypothesis is:

Hypothesis 4: CEs will be more highly motivated by career considerations than their SE counterparts.

2.4.2.4 Family and Personal Relationships-Related Pull Factors

While the furtherance of an expatriate's career is a significant motivational factor for going abroad, the expatriate's family is another critical consideration for a host of reasons, especially for careerists who are married or are in a committed relationship (Harvey, 1985; Tung, 1987; Copeland and Norell, 2002; Lazarova; Westman and Shaffer, 2010). According to Lazarova et al. (2010), international assignments often disturb normal family life, which tends to be built around a systematic and balanced routine. One of the issues involved in moving abroad is that expatriates and their families have to make complex decisions pertaining to their work and familial responsibilities. In the context of the traditional assignment, the household will often have to rely on a single income and, in some cases, the expatriate's partner may be compelled to abandon his/her career in order to handle the resultant parenting responsibilities (Black and Stephens, 1989; Lauring and Selmer, 2010). This is evident from The Global Relocation Trends Survey report (Brookfield, 2012), which reveals that only 6% of spouses were employed during the international assignment. In addition, findings from Andersen (2014) reveal that the old model where spouses do not work is evident in his study. Furthermore, a significant amount of research has also contributed to knowledge of issues around dual-career couples moving abroad and the extent to which the international experience has negative or positive impacts on one or both partners, both during the expatriation phase and upon repatriation (see for example, Harvey, 1997). However, the majority of the dual-career research focuses on the career side of the international experience (Lauring and Selmer, 2010). However, the international experience is highly complex and is not limited to expatriates' careers alone, but also often involves additional social, economic and psychological aspects (Munton, 1990; Cornille, 1993).

As a result, the expatriation literature emphasises the role of the expatriate's family to provide social support, to enhance work performance, to minimise cross-cultural hardship and difficulties, to facilitate cross-cultural adjustment and even to contribute to an expatriate's success (Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985; Black and Stephens, 1989; Caligiuri; Hyland; Joshi and Bross, 1998; Shaffer; Harrison; Gilley and Luk, 2001; Ward; Bochner and Furnham, 2001; Copeland and Norell, 2002; Haslberger and Brewster, 2008; Lazarova *et al.*, 2010). In addition, social interaction and social

support, including those relating to family support during expatriation have been found to be significant factors for expatriates in achieving cross-cultural adjustment (Caligiuri and Lazarova, 2002).

Some empirical findings indicate that "a family's perceptions of relocation can influence how stressful it actually becomes, or perhaps, how well they cope" (Copeland and Norell, 2002:257). For instance, families who have positive attitudes toward the international assignment and an active involvement during the relocation decision tend to acquire more proactive coping behaviours which tend to lead to better adjustment in the host country (Feldman and Tompson, 1993; Frame and Shehan, 1994; De Verthelyi, 1995; Anderzén and Arnetz, 1997; Copeland and Norell, 2002). In a study carried out in the United States, De Verthelyi (1995) highlights the importance of involving spouses during the initial process of expatriation in reducing the high levels of uncertainty around the international assignment and highlights the spouse's role during the assignment. It is evident from the literature that some findings indicate that spouses can be significant sources of support which contributes to their partners' success abroad (see for example, De Verthelyi, 1995; Lauring and Selmer, 2010) On the other hand, contrary findings indicate that they also can be an additional stress factor and a possible interference in their partners' success (see for example, Adelegan and Parks, 1985; Hechanova *et al.*, 2003; Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005). Arguably, spouses often have needs and motives that are may differ from those of their partners and balancing these conflicting needs and motives can be a challenging task for both partners.

Findings from Caligiuri et al. (1998) reveal that families who perceive the international assignment as positive require fewer coping characteristics and have better cross-cultural adjustment compared to those who view the move as negative. Consequently, the organisational support for expatriates' families is a topic of much debate in the expatriation literature. According to Bauer and Taylor (2001), organisations tend to ignore spouses despite empirical findings revealing that spouses require considerable preparation and extensive pre-departure training in relation to having direct contact with locals and because they often experience significant adjustment difficulties. The lack of organisational support for spouses is evident from the expatriation literature and is found to be a key factor behind poor spousal

adjustment and expatriates failing to succeed (Punnett; Crocker and Stevens, 1992; Brewster and Pickard, 1994; Shaffer *et al.*, 2001; Hutchings, 2003; Cole, 2011). On the other hand, some writers, including De Cieri et al. (1991), emphasise some of the organisational practices that target spouses such as communicating pre-departure notices and information about the assignment policies, which are normally sent to spouses three to twelve months in advance. Furthermore, the majority of organisations in their sample provided housing assistance (83%) and some also assisted with expatriates' children's education (47%) (De Cieri *et al.*, 1991).

Unlike CEs, SEs perceive the international assignment as a highly risky decision for their accompanying family, especially when travelling in culturally distant contexts (Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Howe-Walsh and Schyns, 2010). In addition, findings from Selmer and Lauring (2010) and Richardson and McKenna (2003) reveal that considerations related to family and spouses are among the more significant motivational factors in SEs deciding to go abroad. However, the role of SEs' families during the international assignment is under-researched despite some findings revealing that SEs are better adjusted to the host culture and have higher levels of interaction with host-country nationals than CEs (Peltokorpi and Froese, 2009). Similarly, findings from Vance and McNulty (2014) reveal that females undertaking SEs in their study appear to desire personal relationships and networking more than men. Arguably, SEs have substantial responsibilities in terms of assessing both their professional and their family needs in deciding future international relocation, especially regarding novel and culturally distant contexts. Meanwhile, CEs and their families often rely on the corporate sponsor to provide at least partial organisational support in relation to work and family issues (Caligiuri *et al.*, 1998; Kraimer and Wayne, 2004). This leads to our fifth hypothesis:

Hypothesis 5: SEs will be more highly motivated by family and personal considerations than their CE counterparts.

2.4.2.5 The International Experience Pull Factor

The fundamental desire for international experience is another significant motivational factor as it offers expatriates many and varied opportunities such as

adventure, career development, exploration, building of self-confidence and skills acquisition (Inkson and Myers, 2003; Mayrhofer *et al.*, 2008; Doherty *et al.*, 2011). As is evident from the expatriation literature, such international experience helps expatriates to be more open-minded and improves their creative-thinking abilities (Fee and Gray, 2012). In the context of CEs, there is evidence that internationalism which refers to "the state or process of being international" (Stevenson, 2010:914) is an (intrinsic) motivational factor that leads individuals to accept international assignments because they believe that the international experience will bring a positive return to their personal and career objectives (Miller and Cheng, 1978; Tung, 1988; Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Andersen and Scheuer, 2004; Suutari and Taka, 2004; Cerdin and Pargneux, 2010). In contrast, SEs are found to be highly driven individually by strong intrinsic personal motivational factors (Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Froese, 2011). For example, findings from Doherty et al. (2011) indicate that SEs are highly attracted to the international experience by their own personal motivational factors including their personal ability to explore the world and a confidence in their capacity to work and live abroad. On the other hand, CEs perceive the international experience as a way of developing their individual and organisational careers (Doherty *et al.*, 2011). In addition, Richardson and McKenna (2003) found that the need to travel, seek adventure and pursue these changes, both for the expatriate's family and as a life experience, as well as for personal learning, are among the significant motivational factors for SEs in expatriating. Findings also reveal that SEs are more likely to have a stronger tendency to work in other countries and more willing to have a permanent stay in these countries compared to CEs (Suutari and Brewster, 2000). Therefore, the sixth hypothesis we offer is:

Hypothesis 6: SEs will be more highly motivated by the desire for foreign experience than their CE counterparts.

2.5 Career Orientations among CEs And SEs

Similar to the motivational factors discussed thus far, career anchors provide further aspects that can be utilised to aid an understanding of the perceived values that expatriates attach to their international career journey and experience (Suutari and

Taka, 2004; Cerdin and Pargneux, 2010; Lazarova; Cerdin and Liao, 2014). These aspects include self-perceived motives, values and talents (Schein, 1990). According to Wils et al. (2010), career anchors can be directly linked to the motivational domain as they have a similar meaning and common underlying elements. For instance, Wils et al. (2010) argue that a family consideration-related pull factor may be linked to a lifestyle career anchor by a common meaning that relates family values and commitments. Similarly, career as a pull factor may be associated with certain career-oriented anchors including managerial competence and technical/functional competence in terms of promoting career development and progression.

Consequently, drawing upon career anchors theory for this research will assist in distinguishing between CEs and SEs. Empirical findings reveal that type of international career is strongly linked to an individual's motivational factors, as well as to his/her own career anchors (Cerdin and Bird, 2008; Cerdin, 2013). According to Lazarova, Cerdin and Liao, the career anchors model provides "a useful framework that can enhance understanding of individual decisions to undertake international mobility (2014:11)". In addition, many scholars in this field have suggested that Schein's model offers the appropriate theoretical lens to guide future work (Lazarova *et al.*, 2014). In the next section we present a review of literature concerning the career anchors model as well as the reasons for employing this model for the purpose of this research.

2.5.1 Career Anchors

The primary concept underpinning the notion of a career anchor is that an individual's self-perceived needs, values and talents are developed during the course of his or her real experiences and as a result of interaction with the environment, all of which contribute to the formation of his or her career identity (Feldman and Bolino, 1996). In other words, "a career anchor refers to the self-perceived needs, values and talents of an individual that give shape to his or her career decisions" (Igbaria and Baroudi, 1993:3). According to Feldman and Bolino, "Schein's work has made a major contribution to how career scholars conceptualise the development of a stable career identity and distinguish it as a process from initial vocational choice" (1996:90). For instance, most vocational and career models show that occupational choices made in

early adulthood are based on what a person likes to do (for example, wanting to work as a doctor or an engineer). In contrast, Schein's model shows that the formation of a stable career identity occurs as a result of an interaction between the individual's interests and his or her abilities and values (Feldman and Bolino, 1996).

The career anchors literature provides a broad perspective in terms of taking into account the many contributing factors relating to the individual, including talents, motives and values. This contrasts with other career models that focus on a single factor of an individual, such as motivation (Holland's model) or talent (Arthur's model). Moreover, "the literature on vocational choice has taken as its endpoint criterion the selection of an occupation (e.g. medicine, law or acting)" (Feldman and Bolino, 1996:90). In contrast, Schein's work considers the different career paths existing within a single occupation; for example, a person entering an accounting career may subsequently take a technical career path within accounting to develop software programs (Feldman and Bolino, 1996). Initially, Schein presented five anchors representing competencies relating to the career concept: (1) technical/functional competence; (2) managerial competence; (3) security and stability; (4) autonomy and independence; and (5) entrepreneurial creativity. In his later work (Schein, 1987; Schein, 1990), he adds three additional anchors: (6) service and dedication to a cause; (7) pure challenge; and (8) lifestyle. Table 2.2 presents a summary of Schein's Career Anchors.

Similar to the pull and push motivational factors hypothesised above, the career anchors model will also be utilised for the purpose of this study to conduct an inter-cohort analysis between CEs and SEs for the following reasons. Firstly, the career anchors model addresses both traditional and contemporary career aspects. For instance, empirical findings show that managerial and technical competences are still evident in career orientations among CEs (Cerdin and Pargneux, 2010). At the same time, the model recognises career aspects that are related to 21st century career orientations, such as lifestyle, independence, pure challenge, entrepreneurial activity and creativity (Baruch, 2004). Secondly, the career anchors model is particularly suitable for a changing career concept that extends beyond organisational borders.

Table 2. 2-Summary of Schein's Career Anchors

Anchor	Meaning/Identity
Technical/Functional Competence	Internally driven by the content of the work rather than positions/responsibilities or job roles; prefers advancement only in his/her technical or functional area of skills: perceives general management as undesirable.
Managerial Competence	Internally driven by the opportunity to analyse and solve problems under conditions of incomplete information and uncertainty; likes to manage people/organisations to accomplish common goals: stimulated (rather than exhausted) by challenging tasks and their ability to exercise power and make decisions without guilt or shame.
Security and Stability	Internally driven by job security and long-term employment; willing to conform and to be fully socialised into an organisation's identity and values; tends to dislike travel and relocation. Tends to like to be told what to do, when to travel, where to live and how often to switch assignments.
Entrepreneurial Creativity	Internally driven by the need to build or create something that is entirely their own business and project; easily bored and tends to invent new projects within the current ones to make another new start; more interested in initiating new organisations and projects than running previously established companies.
Autonomy and Independence	Internally driven to seek work situations that are free of organisational restrictions; wants to set their own timeframe; is more willing to accept contracts and part-time jobs.
Service and Dedication to a Cause	Internally driven to improve the world in some fashion; wants to align work activities with personal values involving helping society and people; more concerned with finding jobs that meet their values rather than their skills and not only limited to service-oriented occupations.
Pure Challenge	Internally driven to overcome impossible obstacles solve almost unsolvable problems or win out over extremely tough rivals; defines their careers in terms of daily combat or competition in which winning is everything. Pure challenge is the thing that matters most.
Lifestyle	Internally driven to balance career with lifestyle; highly concerned with work-life balance and wants flexibility more than anything else.

Source: Schein, E. H. (1990) *Career Anchors: Discovering Your Real Values*, San Diego, CA: Pfeiffer & Company, pp. 26-49.

In order to address non-traditional careers that go beyond organisational borders, contemporary career research stimulates imaginative development by presenting the concepts of the boundaryless career (Arthur and Rousseau, 1996) and the protean career (Hall, 1996). The concept of the boundaryless career was introduced by Arthur (1994). It suggests that an individual's career path is no longer determined by a specific organisation or particular employer, as people are able to move across departments, organisations, industries and even professions.

The boundaryless career concept has been subjected to increasing criticism as a result of its association with a highly individualistic bias through its focus on what the individual gains rather than on balancing both the risks and the gains of the boundaryless career (Lazarova; Dany and Mayrhofer, 2012). In addition, Inkson and colleagues (2012) have criticised the term 'boundaryless' career for its inaccurate labelling and loose definitions. They believe it overemphasises personal agency and lacks empirical support for its claim as a now dominant this type of career. The same authors call for a return to a focus on career boundaries in order for scholars to explore the type of boundaries that have been crossed through examining organisational, occupational, geographical and industry boundaries. As a result, they introduce the term *boundary-focused career scholarship,* which asks questions based on boundary theory about the circumstances that lead career actors to cross or not to cross career boundaries, as well as addressing the impact of crossing or not crossing such boundaries. Some empirical studies have produced evidence that there is no relationship between the boundaryless mind-set and actual mobility, which suggests that boundarylessness should not be used as a proxy measure to test the boundaryless career attitude (Sullivan and Baruch, 2009).

Within the concept of the "boundaryless" career, the "protean" career has emerged (Crowley-Henry, 2007). Hall was the first to introduce the notion of the "protean career", which he describes as "a career orientation in which the person, not the organization, is in charge, where the person's core values are driving career decisions, and where the main success criteria are subjective (psychological success)" (1996:1). Individuals following the organisational career normally take a passive role and tend to seek direction from their organisations; however, those who follow a 'protean' career experience more responsibilities and control over their career choices and

opportunities (De Vos and Soens, 2008). Although the protean career concept has had a major impact on the career literature through exploring correlations between the protean career, personality types and individual behaviour, it is limited in that it does not have an associated measure (Sullivan and Baruch, 2009). Another criticism that may be levelled at the protean career concept is that its primary focus is on individuals (in being value-driven and self-directed) and, consequently, it ignores the role of the organisation as an essential player. Therefore, the main difference between the boundaryless and protean career concepts is manifested in the individuals' attitude towards their employers. For example, individuals who are more oriented by the boundaryless career tend to prioritise their employability over the long-term employment relationship, whereas protean careerists, on the other hand, tend to take more responsibility over their career without the need to cross the organisational boundaries (Scurry; Blenkinsopp and Hay, 2013a).

The third advantage of the career anchors model is that one of the key elements required to develop an understanding of the difference between CEs and SEs is an examination of their respective career dynamics. This is manifested in the distinctive career path trajectories (organisational versus individual) that the two cohorts are pursuing in building their human capital, knowledge and skills. Given that the career anchors model is found to be more dynamic compared to other career models based on evidence in the background literature, it has some limitations. One limitation is suggested by Schein (1990) in which he argues that every individual has one dominant career anchor that works as stabiliser and tend to dominate other anchors. He proposes that people "can adapt to circumstances and make the best of them, but their anchors do not change (1990:53)". According to Schein (1990), the absence of having a clear single career anchor is explained by a lack of life experience that could help a person to develop priorities. However, Feldman and Bolino (1996) argue against this as they question the existence of a single stable career anchor that dominates the life of a person, basing their argument on the literature on vocational choices which suggests that young adults largely use assumptions (rather than actual life experience) to make their vocational choices about their future careers. Furthermore, theoretical and empirical findings indicate that this may be too simplistic and results reveal that individuals could have up to three career anchors that can be attributed to their career choices (Feldman and Bolino, 1996; Suutari and Taka,

2004). In addition, according to DeLong (1982), Feldman and Bolino (1996), Butler, Waldroop (1999) and (Wils *et al.*, 2010), an individual's career and work preferences can be illustrated by either one or multiple career anchors that cluster together to form his or her career orientations. The findings from Martineau et al. (2005) reveal that 69% of their participants indicate having multiple career anchors that they take into consideration to determine their career choices. Therefore, "forcing all respondents to categorise themselves in terms of only one career anchor can distort the psychological reality respondents are trying to convey" (Feldman and Bolino, 1996:105).

In addition, the concept of career anchors has also been criticised for the limited empirical investigations supporting it despite its extensive use by both individuals and organisations (Arnold, 1997; Yarnall, 1998). The study of Feldman and Bolino (1996) is the first to review Schein's Career Anchors Model in terms of its theoretical and methodological approaches. Feldman and Bolino (1996) suggest four methodological refinements for future research including the need for factor analyses of the Career Orientations Inventory (COI) in order to determine the independence and underlying patterns of career anchor types. The COI, which was developed by Schein (1990) to measure the eight career anchors has a set of 40 items constructed to measure career attitudes, values and needs. According to DeLong (1982), the COI does not measure career anchors but rather focuses on a central point of the concept of career anchors, namely *career orientations*. The findings from DeLong (1982) indicate that the COI can be used to measure career attitudes, values and needs but is not able to reflect individuals' perceptions of their talents. The second refinement proposed by Feldman and Bolino (1996) is the need to develop a categorisation scheme, which will allow for multiple career anchors rather than forcing participants into a single career anchor. Thirdly, they suggest the need for using further behavioural as well as attitudinal dependant variables in order to have greater confidence in the career anchor model. The fourth refinement is to encourage the use of more heterogeneous samples and databases in future research.

Leong and colleagues (2014) evaluated the psychometric properties of the COI based on the correlation between the Career Anchors and Holland's career interests in order to examine the validity of the COI. Their findings revealed strengths as well as some weaknesses attaching to COI. The results from the factor analysis used in Leong *et al.*

(2014) have provided support for the factor structure of the COI and the Likert-type response scale was found appropriate for evaluating the psychometric properties of COI. In addition, their validity assessment indicates that COI has convergent and discriminant validities with Holland's (1973) typology of career interests. For example, their findings suggest that the technical career anchor was found to be related to the investigative subscale of Holland's (1973) framework. Moreover, a significant positive association was found between the managerial competence and Holland's (1973) enterprising subscale. However, their findings also revealed that the lifestyle career anchor was not related to any of Holland's (1973) subscales. On the other hand, some of the COI weaknesses in the Leong *et al.* (2014) study related to the 5 items designed to measure the pure challenge loaded on two different factors and this indicates that the pure challenge could be divided into two anchors. Another weakness is manifested in items cross-loaded on the lifestyle and the autonomy/freedom career anchors and the overlap between these two anchors.

In the context of acknowledging these limitations, as well as the three advantages outlined above, the career anchor model and its COI measure is considered the most appropriate for the purpose of this cross-sectional inter-cohort study. This is especially the case given the evidence of the many empirical studies conducted to date on career orientations in various professions, including Danziger and Valency (2006), Coetzee and Schreuder (2009), Igbaria et al. (1991) and Melinde et al. (2010). Moreover, the findings of Van Vuuren and Fourie (2000) and Leong *et al.* (2014) show support for using the COI to measure individuals' career orientations and confirm that it is psychometrically acceptable.

The career anchors model has been used to explore the career orientations among expatriates in several studies to date, including the work of Suutari & Taka (2004), Suutari (2003), Cerdin and Le Pargneux (2008; 2010), and Cerdin and Dickmann (2011). Suutari and Taka (2004) conducted an in-depth interview with 22 Finnish expatriates to explore the most typical career anchors among global managers. The findings of Suutari and Taka (2004) indicate that the most typical career anchors among their participants were managerial competence and pure challenge. Their results also indicate that lifestyle and the desire to help and serve others are more common career anchors among global managers than technical-functional

competence, autonomy and independence, security and stability, and entrepreneurial creativity anchors. In addition, Suutari and Taka (2004) propose a new career anchor that they believe is more common among global managers, namely, internationalism. Their results show that 17 of their participants were anchored by the career anchor of internationalism. According to Suutari and Taka (2004) individuals who are anchored by internationalism are often motivated by working internationally, tend to develop their competencies and skills in the international environment, and are more inclined to navigate culturally diverse and unfamiliar environments than others. Recently, Lazarova et al. (2014) conducted a study using two samples from students and business professionals to validate the internationalism career anchor. Their findings provide empirical evidence and validation for the anchor introduced by Suutari and Taka (2004). The study of Lazarova et al. (2014) offers a conceptualisation and a measurement scale that could be used to expand Schein's (1990) original career anchors framework to include specific international career aspects for global managers. For example, the validation of the internationalism career anchor might encourage other scholars in this field to introduce further global-specific career anchors such as that related to expatriates' global mobility and their international skills acquisition. This will lead the career anchors model to be more applicable to individuals working globally.

Furthermore, research conducted by Cerdin and Pargneux (2008; 2010) also employs Schein's (1990) original career anchor model as well as the internationalism career anchor to explore career orientations among CEs (n=165) and SEs (n=138). Their findings revealed that the lifestyle career anchor was most common among their participants, supporting the findings of Suutari and Taka (2004), which indicated the importance of a work-life balance among expatriates. In addition, the internationalism and pure challenge career anchors were among the top three career orientations for CEs and SEs. Although these studies provide a valuable understanding of the career orientations among expatriates, and particularly those related to CEs and SEs, Cerdin and Pargneux's (2008; 2010) study does not control for variables such as age, marital situation and current international experiences despite their findings revealing that these variables were found to be statistically significant among CEs and SEs and to have correlations with career anchors. As in other expatriate research that uses the regression analysis technique to test hypotheses, these variables should be controlled

for so that their effect can be assessed independently (Feldman; Folks and Turnley, 1998).

In addition, these studies are also limited, to some extent, to the European context given that the findings above were primarily derived from samples from Europe, which show that the lifestyle career anchor is most dominant across CEs and SEs. However, the empirical findings from Marshall and Bonner (2003) reveal that the lifestyle career anchor is also the most dominant career orientation among their participants from North America, Australia, New Zealand and Asia, and was the second most dominant anchor for the UK/Ireland and the third for Africa. Furthermore, previous empirical studies have tended to combine different professions for the purpose of examining career orientations (see for example, Suutari, 2003; Suutari and Taka, 2004; Cerdin and Pargneux, 2008; 2010); however, this could underestimate the importance of adopting a narrower scope by analysing career orientations among expatriates in a single profession, such as the banking industry as is the focus of this study. The following section will review the expatriation literature using Schein's (1990) career anchors model to formulate a series of hypotheses concerning CEs and their SE counterparts.

2.5.1.1. Managerial Competence

The managerial competence anchor primarily represents managerial behaviour that involves problem solving in the context of incomplete information and managing people in order to achieve organisational objectives (Schein, 1990). It is evident from the expatriation literature that, typically, CEs are sent overseas by their employers to work in managerial positions (Hays, 1971; Thomas, 2002; Andersen, 2014) and to deal with competitive business environments (Parker and Inkson, 1999). The main corporate reasons for sending these CEs abroad include position filling, management development, coordination and control (Harzing, 2001), which require a certain level of managerial competence and superior personal skills. Therefore, selection of expatriates has attracted considerable attention in the literature and highlights the organisational practices involved, which can vary widely. Such practices range from systematic and careful approaches to irrational and ad hoc selections (Mendenhall *et al.*, 1987; Harris and Brewster, 1999; Anderson, 2005). Systematic selection involves

targeting certain personal and technical attributes such as stress reduction, dealing with isolation and alienation, relationships skills, willingness to communicate and high tolerance for ambiguity (Mendenhall *et al.*, 1987). This is because managerial competence requires a high level of interpersonal skills and emotional intelligence and entails expatriates making critical business decisions that can have important consequences (Marshall and Bonner, 2003).

As a result, given that the role of CEs is primarily to manage and coordinate foreign affiliates, especially in environments that are considered culturally distant (Edström and Galbraith, 1977; Boyacigiller, 1990; Harzing, 2001), managerial competence is most likely to be an important career orientation among this cohort. On the other hand, the role of SEs abroad is more heterogonous compared to their CE counterparts in terms of their work and personal motivational factors as well as their complex roles and job responsibilities. For instance, Lee's (2005) study reveals that SEs are more likely to feel underemployed as a result of lack of job suitability, which prevents them from utilising their abilities to their full potential. In addition, findings from Cerdin and Pargneux (2010) reveal that managerial competence is a more widespread career anchor among CEs than among SEs. Therefore, our seventh hypothesis is:

Hypothesis 7: The Managerial competence career anchor will be more dominant among CEs than among their SE counterparts.

2.5.1.2. Technical/Functional Competence

Technical competence can be considered a career orientation that stands in contrast to the managerial competence described above. Individuals anchored by technical and functional competence seek to be good at what they do and tend to focus on advancing their technical knowledge while distancing themselves from their managerial roles and responsibilities (Schein, 1990). According to Cerdin and Pargneux (2010), the nature of the international assignment is contrary to this anchor because expatriates tend to accept high ambiguity, which involves dealing with unfamiliar environments, organisations and people. Similarly, Suutari and Taka (2004) argue that the technical/functional competence anchor is not a common career

anchor among global managers because expatriates tend to be motivated more by managerial competence and working under conditions of incomplete information and high uncertainty. The work of Cerdin and Pargneux (2010) is the only study so far which we could identified that explores SEs in terms of their career orientations. However, the technical competence anchor in their study did not work as the results from the factor analysis conducted indicated that unrelated factors were included within this anchor which made it difficult to interpret and they discarded it as a result. Their CE and SE samples represented a number of different industries, including banking, IT, hotel management and metallurgy; however, the distribution of their samples across these industries and professions is not known. In addition, findings from Suutari and Taka (2004) reveal that, of their 22 Finnish CEs, only 2 were anchored by technical competence. However, Suutari and Taka (2004) did not include the industries and professions of their selected participants. On the other hand, findings from Schein (1990), Igbaria et al. (1991), Yarnall (1998), Marshall and Bonner (2003), and Danziger and Valency (2006) revealed that the technical anchor was found to be either the most, or the second most, prevalent career orientation across those studies that target particular professions. Arguably, it is important to consider the profession as a relevant factor that could exert an influence on expatriates' career orientations (Andersen, 2014).

In this regard, in a study investigating research scientists and engineers, Lee and Wong (2004) found that those with a technical anchor intended to find jobs that related to their technical fields, whereas those who worked in applied research intended to seek jobs outside their technical fields. Given that CEs are more likely to be anchored by the managerial competence anchor based on the nature of their international roles and job responsibilities, technical competence is less likely to be a dominant career orientation among CEs. This leads us to the eighth hypothesis:

Hypothesis 8: The Technical/Functional competence career anchor will be more dominant among SEs than among their CE counterparts.

2.5.1.3. Security and Stability

Individuals anchored by security and stability tend to be motivated by their job security and long-term attachment to a single organisation through work-socialisation and business integration (Schein, 1990). The changing environment of business, as well as of organisations, has failed to continue to provide security of work for life as a result of adapting to new forms of employment, implementing new strategies such as downsizing (also termed 'rightsizing') and altering the contractual relationship between individuals and organisations that had previously been built upon long-term commitment and loyalty (Robinson; Kraatz and Rousseau, 1994). This is in addition to the shift from a skills-based to a knowledge-based labour market and the utilisation of a more flattening organisational perspective, in contrast to the vertical hierarchical organisational structure that promotes authoritarian and bureaucratic management approaches (Baruch, 2004). According to Schein (1996), the meaning of security and stability has changed recently from dependence on an organisation to dependence on oneself, whereby individuals use organisations to gain learning and experiences to bolster their *employability security* rather than for *employment security.*

Suutari and Taka (2004) indicate that security and stability are not common career anchors among global managers many of whom consider the international environment as their home. Similarly, Cerdin and Pargneux (2010) reveal that both CEs and SEs tend not to be anchored by job security. Similarly, the results of Marshall and Bonner (2003) also indicated that, even during a company's downsizing, job security and stability remained the least important career orientation for their participants. Moreover, Lazarova *et al.* (2014) reveal that the security and stability anchor is the only career one that indicates significant (negative) correlations with the extent of openness to mobility. Thus, this leads to the ninth hypothesis:

Hypothesis 9: The Security and Stability career anchor will be low among both SEs and among their CE counterparts.

2.5.1.4. Entrepreneurial/ Creativity

Individuals anchored by a career orientation based on entrepreneurial creativity are primarily motivated by a desire to move between projects and organisations and tend to be attracted to creating new ventures as opposed to managing old enterprises (Schein, 1990). According to Arthur (2008), managers who acquire entrepreneurial skills are found to be widely valued for their knowledge and experience as it can be incorporated into new ventures. Findings from Cerdin and Pargneux (2010) revealed no significant difference between CEs and SEs in terms of this career anchor, which was ranked in seventh position among the original eight anchors in terms of prevalence. However, their findings also indicate that the mean for SEs was higher than the mean for the CEs. Meanwhile, no difference was found between CEs and SEs in terms of their previous working experience because no information was provided about the number of previous organisations or countries that the two cohorts had worked for in the past that would facilitate an examination of their prior work movements. On the other hand, findings from Biemann and Andresen (2010) showed that SEs tend to change employers more than their CE counterparts and are inclined to express the intention to change employers in the future. Low and MacMillan (1988) suggest that the key to the entrepreneurial creativity anchor lies in the decisions of those individuals who are able to identify opportunities, develop strategies, assemble resources and take initiative. Furthermore, Brandstätter's (1997) findings indicate that being independent is an essential characteristic that encourages entrepreneurial behaviour. Individuals demonstrating entrepreneurial behaviour tend to avoid the organisational structure and its predictable job-hopping behaviours (De Vries, 1977). Given that SEs make the key decisions regarding their expatriation and have more freedom in changing employers compared to CEs, SEs are also more likely to be considered entrepreneurs than CEs, who tend to be bounded by the objectives of their corporate senders. This leads us to formulate the tenth hypothesis as follows:

Hypothesis 10: The Entrepreneurial Creativity career anchor will be more dominant among SEs than among their CE counterparts.

2.5.1.5. Autonomy and Independence

Individuals anchored by autonomy and independence tend to be motivated by work tasks that allow them to have more freedom to act according to their own schedules and without organisational restrictions, even if they have to compromise other opportunities (Schein, 1990). Birdsey and Hill (1995) found that job autonomy was the second most important factor in their study to predict expatriate turnover and expatriates' intentions to leave their jobs, assignment locations and even organisations. Similarly, findings from Culpan and Wright (2002) show that job autonomy has the greatest impact on job satisfaction among global female expatriates. Moreover, studies have shown a significant positive relationship between decision autonomy and all three factors relating to expatriate adjustment, namely: work adjustment, general adjustment and interaction adjustment (see for example, Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005; Takeuchi; Shay and Jiatao, 2008). Research also indicates that the autonomy and independence career anchor is found to be a more common career anchor among self-employed individuals as it provides them with greater levels of freedom than they might enjoy in traditional employment (Schein, 1978; 1990; Feldman and Bolino, 1996; Feldman and Bolino, 2000).

In addition, findings from Myers and Pringle (2005) indicate that self-employment is a significant motive among SEs which could determine their future career choices. Furthermore, empirical findings show that SEs have more independence over their career choices (Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Lee, 2005) than CEs who have to obey orders given by their employers and superiors. Therefore, acknowledging self-employment and career independence as common career characteristics among SEs leads to the eleventh hypothesis:

Hypothesis 11: The Autonomy and Independence career anchor will be more dominant among SEs than among their CE counterparts.

2.5.1.6. Service and Dedication to a Cause

Individuals anchored by service and dedication to a cause are primarily driven by their values rather than by their skills and, in particular, tend to be motivated by their own values regarding helping people and societies (Schein, 1990). Suutari and Taka (2004) argue that this anchor is not common in the business world and is particularly uncommon among global managers as they consider it to be more related to certain professions within the public sector, such as health care, teaching and other humanitarian-oriented endeavours. Their findings revealed that just 4 out of their 22 participants were anchored by this feature. In addition, service and dedication to a cause was found to be the principal anchor for 45 per cent of a sample of overseas volunteer development workers (Hudson and Inkson, 2006). On the other hand, empirical findings from Cerdin and Pargneux (2010) indicate that this anchor is more prevalent among SEs than CEs. They found that service and dedication to a cause ranked fourth out of the eight anchors for SEs and fifth out of eight for CEs; however, this anchor is not among the most common career orientations for SEs. Fee and Karsaklian (2013) suggest that SEs differ from these international volunteers, essentially because their decision to expatriate is fundamentally a personal one based on the pursuit of tangible personal benefits in their placements. Arguably, SEs would accept international volunteering assignments in order to work internationally and to overcome the limited international work opportunities, which typically involve high levels of competition to secure. The findings of Fee and Gray (2011) indicate the importance of the accumulated learning experience and knowledge that individuals acquire from their international volunteering experiences and which contribute towards their expatriation in the future. Given that the context of this study mainly relates to the work/professional domains and includes expatriates travelling with work visas, this career anchor is likely to be a rare orientation among CEs and SEs in our sample. Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis for this anchor:

Hypothesis 12: The Service and Dedication to a cause career anchor will be low among both SEs and among their CE counterparts.

2.5.1.7. Pure Challenge

Those who are anchored by a career orientation based on pure challenge are primarily motivated by work tasks that offer them opportunities to test themselves to solve complex problems and to engage in a competitive daily working environment (Schein, 1990). The international assignment is a challenging experience in itself and involves international risk, isolation and the ability to deal with complex psychological and physical relocation factors, as is evident from certain organisational practices deemed necessary such as pre-departure preparation and cross-cultural training (Black and Mendenhall, 1990; Kraimer; Wayne and Jaworski, 2001). In addition, the pure challenge anchor is one of the career orientations emerging in the 21st century that goes beyond traditional career boundaries and tangible objectives (Baruch, 2004). According to McNulty (2013), the pure challenge career orientation can be explained by individuals' motives for undertaking an international assignment in itself, such as seeking a challenge abroad. Hippler (2009) distinguishes between "seeking a professional challenge" and "seeking a private challenge". According to Hippler (2009), seeking a professional challenge involves mastering difficult technical problems, building new projects from scratch or working under difficult circumstances. On the other hand, seeking a private challenge involves non-professional challenges that could include seeking adventure, the desire to explore the unknown and the desire to develop one's personality.

Marshall and Bonner (2003) used the career anchor model to examine the career orientations among 423 graduate business students in Australia, the USA, Malaysia, South Africa, the UK and Ireland. They examined the relationships between career anchors, age, culture, gender, employment experience and the impact of downsizing on career planning. They found that pure challenge was the second most valued career anchor after lifestyle for all participants. Through undertaking further inter-cohort analyses, they also found that this anchor ranked first for South African participants and was the most significant career anchor for people aged between 23 and 43 years of age. Consequently, these results indicated that the value of pure challenge decreased for those individuals younger than 23 and those older than 43 in their study. Furthermore, empirical findings have revealed that the pure challenge anchor is one of

the top three career orientations for both CEs and SEs (Suutari and Taka, 2004; Cerdin and Pargneux, 2010).

However, the context in which the research for this thesis was completed highlights the considerable challenges faced by expatriates in terms of cultural distance that the host location represents for some and the challenges that they encounter in adapting to the unique working and employment conditions that exist there (Bhuian; Al-shammari and Jefri, 2001). Naithani and Jha (2010) presented some of the challenges faced by expatriate workers in GCC Countries, including gender segregation, the salary gaps within expatriate communities and weak labour laws. In addition, "local and expatriate populations in these countries have lower social and culture interaction with each other" (Naithani and Jha, 2010:99). Due to the significant growth in female expatriates, especially in certain developing countries (Collings *et al.*, 2007), female expatriates working in countries such as Saudi Arabia have to deal with even more complex challenges related to both work and non-work aspects such as these associated with the Saudi Arabian culture including segregation in the workplace and compliance with certain religious and cultural etiquette. These challenges will be even greater for SEs as a result of having more direct contact with the Saudi system and culture, as well as with locals, compared to CEs who rely more on their employers to facilitate the transition of their relocation. Therefore, our hypothesis related to this anchor is:

Hypothesis 13: The Pure Challenge career anchor will be more dominant among SEs than among their CE counterparts.

2.5.1.8. Lifestyle

Individuals anchored by lifestyle are primarily motivated by the desire to balance their professional and family needs (Schein, 1990). Lifestyle is a prevalent factor in the expatriation literature and this is manifested in various studies around work-life balance, gendered research, adjustment, expatriates' families, dual-career couples and life satisfaction (Harvey, 1985; Tung, 1987; Caligiuri *et al.*, 1998; Shaffer and Harrison, 1998; Copeland and Norell, 2002; Casper; Eby; Bordeaux; Lockwood and

Lambert, 2007; Lazarova *et al.*, 2010). According to Schein (1990), individuals anchored by lifestyle are not likely to desire geographic mobility, yet many empirical studies have revealed that this anchor is ranked among the top career anchors for expatriates and is highly influential in their career choices (Marshall and Bonner, 2003; Suutari and Taka, 2004; Cerdin and Pargneux, 2008; 2010). Schein (1990) observed this career anchor for the first time in women graduates, which could explain the argument he puts forward regarding the unwillingness of career occupants anchored by lifestyle to move geographically. However, such reticence may also be explained by the following two reasons: firstly, at the time of the early research on career anchors in the 1970s, female were not a major expatriate cohort and, secondly, females tend to demonstrate more concern about balancing their work and family issues than do males. For instance, findings from Marshall and Bonner (2003) indicate that women in their sample valued the lifestyle career anchor more than men.

Similar to the pure challenge anchor, the lifestyle career anchor is highly relevant to the career developments of the 21st century, which involve a variety of different international assignment and assignee types (Reis and Baruch, 2013). Findings from Cerdin and Pargneux (2010) have revealed that this anchor is also one of the dominant career anchors among both CEs and SEs. Arguably, however, it is more relevant to the particular circumstances of individuals, such as family circumstances and commitments, rather than to their status as CEs or SEs. This leads us to the following final hypothesis:

Hypothesis 14: The Lifestyle career anchor will be dominant among both CEs and among their SE counterparts.

2.6 Conclusion

The first part of this chapter delivered a detailed review of the relevant literature related to CEs and SEs, particularly regarding their definition and underlying characteristics, and highlighted the distinction between the two cohorts, as well as how they each differ from other international workforce cohorts and migrants. For this purpose, the decision tree by Andresen et al. (2014) was used to demonstrate

some of the confusion in the literature around defining SEs. Table 2.1 reveals that many published studies of SEs were in fact using samples of migrants or mixed samples of SEs and migrants, which underlines the ambiguities surrounding knowledge of this cohort and how its members are defined in the expatriation literature. However, a review of the literature on CEs and SEs indicates clear definitions for both, which will be used for the purpose of this study to define the two cohorts.

Secondly, this chapter reviewed the expatriation literature on dominant expatriate motivational factors and formulated six hypotheses relating to CEs and SEs. The current literature suggests that SEs are more likely to be pushed to go abroad in order to escape dissatisfaction in their home country, which may be related to either personal or professional circumstances. Furthermore, a study of the current literature reveals that host location, home-host relations, family and personal relationships and international experience are found to be significant motivational factors that pull or draw SEs towards expatriation to a greater extent than their CE counterparts.

Thirdly, this chapter utilised Schein's (1990) career anchor model to formulate a further eight hypotheses concerning the perceived career orientations among the two cohorts. A review of the literature suggests that 'managerial competence' is more likely to be a typical career orientation among CEs than SEs. On the other hand, a study of the literature suggests that 'technical function', 'entrepreneurial/creativity', 'autonomy/independence' and 'pure challenge' are predicted to be more dominant career orientations among SEs than CEs.

Following this formulation of the hypotheses related to the pull and push motivational factors and the perceived career orientations of CEs and SEs, the next chapter will explore the context of this study. This exploration will facilitate an understanding of the Saudi Arabian culture, legal system, labour law, labour market, migration policy, information related to expatriates' lives, financial system and finally the research tradition from a contextual perspective.

Chapter 3: The Context of the Study

The role of the host location of an international assignment as presented in Chapter 2 is found to be a significant motivational factor for global mobility around the world and has significant influence on the value perceived international experience among various expatriate cohorts (Inkson *et al.*, 1997; Inkson and Myers, 2003; Tharenou, 2003; Lee, 2005; Myers and Pringle, 2005; Jokinen *et al.*, 2008; Peltokorpi and Froese, 2009; Biemann and Andresen, 2010; Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010; Doherty *et al.*, 2011; Selmer and Lauring 2011a; Selmer and Lauring 2011b; Tornikoski, 2011). However, little attention has been given to non-Western contexts (Tharenou, 2003; Ariss and Özbilgin, 2010) despite the awareness of the influence of cultural aspects on attracting and managing individual employees (Hofstede, 1980).

Consequently, it is worth exploring the contextual factors involved in expanding global mobility to certain countries such as Saudi Arabia. Saudi has very different characteristics in terms of context and host location, which are under documented in the existing literature. For instance, the expatriation literature reveals that one of the motivational factors that attracts expatriates to travel to certain countries is to be found in the common immigration practices and policies established between the sending and receiving countries, which reduce some of the cross-border mobility restrictions. However, such immigration rules and policies are not available in countries like Saudi Arabia which rely exclusively on work visas and employment relationships to attract expatriates from around the world (Bhuian *et al.*, 2001). Therefore, some of the motivational factors found in the European expatriation literature, such as 'possibility of gaining permanent residency' (Doherty *et al.*, 2011), are arguably not typical motivational factors among expatriates travelling to Saudi Arabia.

Given how little Saudi Arabia features as a context for expatriation in the extant literature, this chapter briefly outlines the institutional and cultural context along with the processes surrounding expatriation into the Country. In so doing, the chapter outlines the legal system, labour laws, labour markets and migration procedures and policies, as well as the information pertaining to hiring and governing expatriates in

Saudi Arabia. This Chapter also briefly profiles the financial sector as well as the research tradition in Saudi Arabia in an effort to contextualise the overall research effort.

3.1 Saudi Arabia

According to the Central Department for Statistics and Information in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (2014), the latest figures in 2013 showed a population of 29,195,895. Saudi Arabia has 13 district regions including Al-Baha, Al-Jouf, Al-Madinah Al-Monawarah, Aseer, Eastern Region, Hail, Jazan, Makkah Al-Mokarramah, Najran, Northern Borders, Al-Qasim, Tabouk and the Central region. Figures 3.1 and Table 3.1 present the 13 district regions and the population distribution (Saudi and non-Saudi) across these regions. Riyadh, the capital city is the administrative and political centre of Saudi Arabia. The gross domestic product (GDP) growth figures in 2012 and 2013 were 6% and 4% respectively (World-Bank, 2015). Figure 3.2 presents the annual GDP trends from 2006 to 2013.

Figure 3. 1-Saudi Arabia map

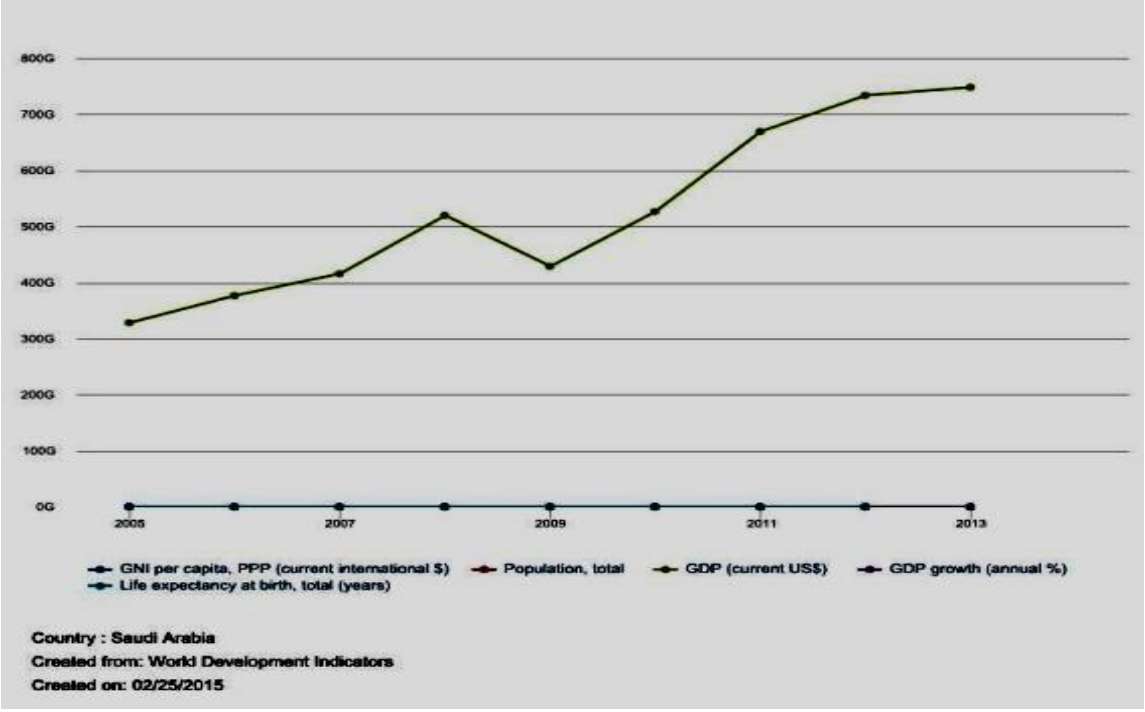
Source: EIU 'Country Report: Saudi Arabia'

Table 3. 1 Population Distribution (Saudis and Non-Saudis) by Areas 2013

Administrative Area	SAUDI	NON-SAUDI	TOTAL
Al-Riyadh	4556482	2753484	7309966
Makkah Al-Mokarramah	4364881	3107094	7471975
Al-Madinah Al-Monawarah	1338831	572167	1910998
Al-Qaseem	984618	319005	1303623
Eastern Region	3065883	1348395	4414278
Aseer	1687014	358056	2045070
Tabouk	701120	144737	845857
Hail	516655	122044	638699
Northern Borders	284388	58110	342498
Jazan	1171898	288642	1460540
Najran	426751	114593	541344
Al-Baha	369711	70216	439927
Al-Jouf	370216	100904	471120
Total	**19,838,448**	**9,357,447**	**29,195,895**

Source: Central Department of Statistics & Information (CDSI) in Saudi Arabia

Figure 3. 2 Annual GDP trends (Saudi Arabia)



Source: World Bank Report (Saudi Arabia)

3.2.1. The Legal System

The legal system in Saudi is based on the Alnizam Alasasi (The Basic Law Of Government), which was approved by Royal Decree in 1992 by the late King Fahad Bin Abdulaziz Al-Saud (Ash-Shura, 2011). Article 1 of the Alnizam Alasasi indicates that the religion of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is Islam, its Constitution is the Book of Allah (GOD) Most High and the Sunna (Narration) of His Prophet, Peace be upon him (Ash-Shura, 2011). Article 48 indicates that courts shall apply the Islamic rules of Sharia Law (based on the Book of Allah and the Sunna principles). However, as a result of the signature and adoption of many international legal agreements and conventions, Saudi has integrated some of these laws into its legal system. Some examples include agreements relating to human rights including rights of women and children and anti-discrimination laws related specifically to refugees and slavery (NSHR, 2012). Other laws relate to bilateral and multilateral trade and investment agreements (SAGIA, 2012). For example, in order to comply with human rights issues, Saudi imposed a new law in 2009 targeting those who committed human trafficking offences, with a punishment attached of a maximum of 15 years in prison and/or a fine of US$ 266,667 (ILO, 2012b). In 2007, the Saudi Government introduced major reforms related to its judicial system and governing bodies and established, for the first time, the High Court as the highest judicial authority in the country, in addition to abolishing the old system by establishing new courts of appeal that exercise their jurisdiction through commercial, criminal and civil circuits (Ansary, 2008). Within the broad legal system domain in Saudi Arabia, labour law is highly relevant to expatriates' work and life and is presented next.

3.2.2. Labour Law

Labour legislation was approved by Royal Decree (Number M/51) on the 15th November 1969 and the most recent amendment was in 2006 (ILO, 2012c). Labour laws regulate all issues relating to duties and rights of workers (Saudi and non-Saudi), as well as duties and rights of local employers in the private sector. Foreign workers should have a valid working visa prior to entering the country and must have local employers (sponsors) or Kafalah which can be individuals (Saudi or non-Saudi residents) or private or public organisations (Labour, 2011). However, Saudi has announced lately that it is going to abolish Kafalah (the sponsor system) for foreign

workers as a new strategy to fight against the black market that trade in working visas (Alarabiya, 2012). Labour disputes and arbitrations in the private sector come under the jurisdiction of the Commission for the Settlement of Labour Disputes, which is regulated by the Ministry of Labour (ILO, 2012a). By the end of 2011, the Ministry of Labour had admitted that many dispute cases involving expatriates and their employers are still pending (Gazette, 2011). According to ministry officials, this is related to the high number of expatriates working in Saudi and, as a result, these cases involve individual and organisational sponsorships (Gazette, 2011). On the other hand, the Ministry of Labour is working to implement new workplace rules and regulations, including those related to workplace discrimination and other policies in order to regulate workers' and employers' relationships (Gazette, 2011).

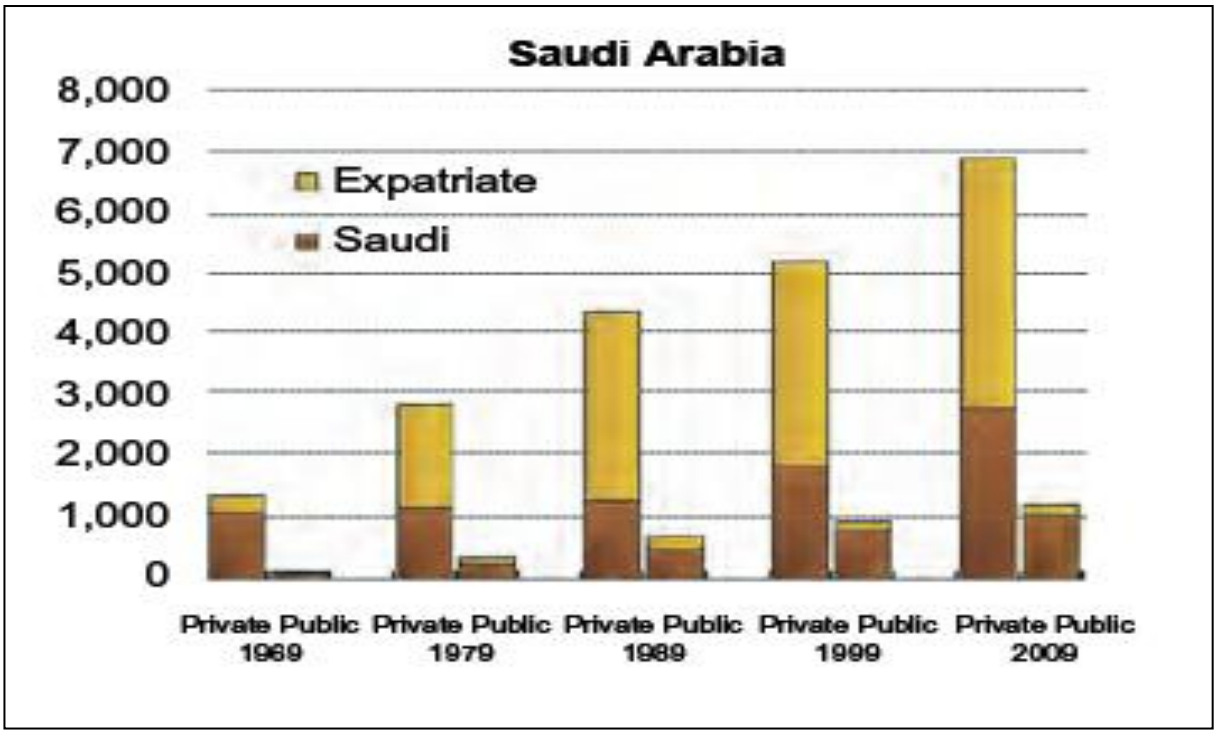
3.2.3. The Labour Market in Saudi Arabia and the Demand for Expatriates

The unemployment rate has fluctuated in recent years and, according to the IMF report, it was above 10% in 2011. To deal with this problem, in November 2011 the Saudi Government introduced an unemployment allowance for the first time (Ministry of Labour 2011). The unemployment allowance was introduced as a temporary measure to address the unemployment rate and to encourage citizen workers to look for jobs locally. On the other hand, the proportion of expatriates is rising in both public and private sectors as a result of the skill and generation gaps that exist, particularly in the lowest and the highest paying jobs (IMF, 2011). Figure 3.3 shows the labour force in Saudi Arabia by sector and origin. According to the International Labour Organization (ILO) report (see Figure 3.4), the generation gap in Saudi Arabia is significant compared to other Arab countries in that more than 50% of the population is under 15 years old (ILO, 2011). Recent figures reveal that about 400,000 Saudis are reaching working age every year and the Government is struggling to create new jobs, especially in view of the fact that the public sector has reached the limits of its absorptive capacity (Hertog, 2012).

In addition, the participation of women in the workforce remains extremely low as only 15% of the Saudi workforce is female (ILO, 2011). The Saudi Government recently introduced new labour laws and policies in 2011 and early 2012 to increase female participation in the Saudi workforce. For example, in 2011 the Saudi

Government introduced a new law to ban men from working in shops that sell female products in order to create more than 300,000 new jobs for women (Alriyadh, 2011). Furthermore, the Government has also introduced new legislation to allow women to enrol and practise for the first time in certain professions, such as law, engineering and politics (Sharq, 2012). One of the initiatives that Saudi Arabia has employed to reduce the unemployment rate as well to control the labour market is manifested in utilising hiring quotas across industries referred is as the Nitaqat programme. Further details are provided below.

Figure 3. 3 The workforce in Saudi Arabia (public and private sectors)



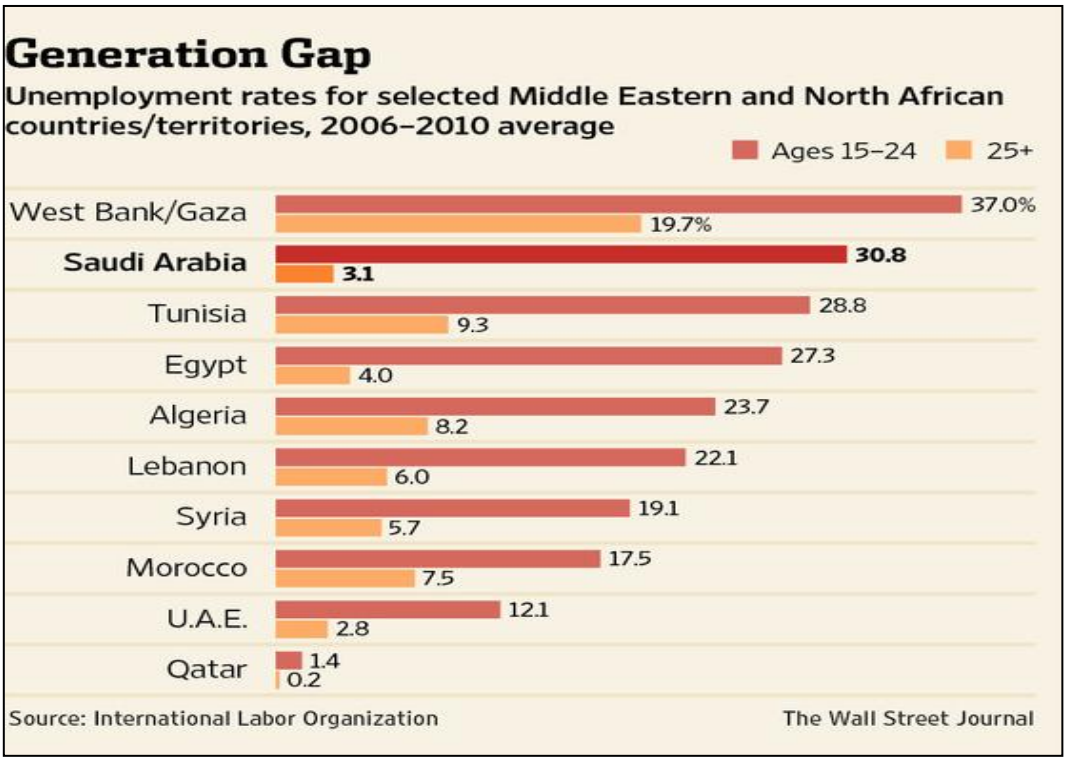
(Source: IMF (2011)

3.2.4. Hiring Quotas (Nitaqat Programme in Saudi Arabia)

Hiring quotas is evident in the labour economics literature and often employed by countries to increase the participation of a particular group in jobs that could be related to private/public sectors, government projects and/or certain management levels (Peck, 2014; Amblard; Miguel; Blanchet and Gaudou, 2015). For example, affirmative action policies in the United Sates have been applied to increase the work

participation of particular disadvantaged groups or minorities in certain jobs or position levels (Kennedy, 1986).

Figure 3. 4 Generation Gap in Saudi Arabia



The Saudi Government has introduced the hiring quotas (Nitaqat) in May 2011 to reduce the number of foreign labour work visas and to enhance Saudization (Saudi workforce participation) across 52 different industries (Ramady, 2013). The Government utilised both sanctions and benefits to encourage employers to hire Saudi citizens and classified each employer according to the achieved percentage of Saudization using colour bands as follows (Red=0-2%), (Yellow=2-6%), (Green=6-28%) and (Platinum= 28+). Red or Yellow employers are considered lower profiles and often face higher government restrictions unless they increase the level of Saudization and achieve the Green colour band, on the other hand, Platinum employers' often enjoy more benefits from all government agencies. The Ministry of Labour in Saudi Arabia has claimed that the Nitagat Programme has helped to increase the Saudi workforce by 72 percent between 2011 and 2012, compared to only 7 perecnt increase in the number of expatriates during the same period (Peck, 2014).

3.2.5. Migration Policy in Saudi Arabia

The migration of foreign labour to Saudi Arabia started to increase after the discovery of oil in the 1930s (Seccombe and Lawless, 1986). According to Okruhlik and Conge (1997), by the late 1970s Saudi's economy was almost exclusively staffed by foreign workers and "Saudi became the magnet for much of the migration of labour in the region" (1997:555). In 2011, there were more than nine million migrants working in Saudi, which represents more than 31% of the total population (Al-Eqtisadiah, 2011). Table 3.1 presents the population distribution of non-Saudis by areas. As a result, the Government has recently decided to implement a long-term plan for a new initiative to balance its population structure through reducing the migrant population to a maximum of 20% of the total population and to limit the number of migrants from a single nationality to 10% of the total expatriate population (Al-Eqtisadiah, 2011). Empirical findings reveal that Saudi is one of the top destinations for expatriates travelling from South-East Asian countries such as India, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Thailand and the Philippines (Omar, 1996). According to Kapiszewski (2006), Asian expatriates working in the GCC represent the majority among all nationalities, including those coming from Arab countries. For example, in 2010 Saudi was the host for more than 1.14 million Bangladeshi (Rahman, 2011), 1.42 million Indian (MOIA, 2010) and over 1 million Filipino (Johnson, 2010) migrant workers, which resulting in the largest Asian diaspora in the region.

In addition, previous research on expatriates indicates that Asian expatriates represent the majority in some professions in Saudi, for example nursing (Bozionelos, 2009; Hanan, 2009). According to Kapiszewski (2006), there are different reasons behind the increasing demand for Asian expatriates including low wages, the long history of Asian workers' relationship with Saudi and certain political instabilities existing between Saudi and some Arab countries. The new economic and commercial reforms that Saudi Arabia has witnessed recently have attracted foreign direct investment (FDI) and have encouraged mixed investment across many industries, including manufacturing, banking, agriculture, tourism, education and the petrochemical industry (SAGIA, 2012). Some incentives provided by Government bodies to foreign

businessmen include 100% ownership of companies and lands by foreign investors, no restrictions on capital transfer abroad, investor sponsorship by his/her project, non-availability of tax income and removal of obstacles to the development of the investment and competitive environment in the Kingdom (SAGIA, 2012).

Migration in Saudi is basically related to temporary work whereby each individual is required to have a limited residence permit (Iqama) that allows workers to stay for a specific time period; this is currently at a maximum of two years but can be extended (Labour, 2011). Thus, Saudi has no immigration policies that allow individuals to immigrate permanently or for purposes other than work such as that available to citizens travelling between certain developed countries. For example, migration policies, which attract highly qualified migrants to fill the skills gaps in countries such as Australia, Canada, the UK and the USA, are not available in Saudi Arabia. These countries allow migrants to obtain permanent residency and citizenship; however, Saudi Arabia does not allow migrants workers to obtain either permanent residency or citizenship.

3.2.6. The Saudi Arabian Culture

Saudi culture is influenced heavily by traditional Islamic values with its principles built upon strict family and tribal networks (Ali, 1995; Assad, 2002; Noer; Leupold and Valle, 2007). In the context of the famous study of cultural dimensions by Hofstede (1980), Saudi Arabia is considered to be very high in terms of its scale of power distance (95/100), which clearly articulates the lack of equality among people and local societies and reveals that people accept these differences without questioning such inequality. In terms of uncertainty avoidance, Saudi culture scores high (80/100) because people tend to follow the rulebook in order to reduce the likelihood of future risks and uncertainty (Malshe; Al-Khatib; Al-Habib and Ezzi, 2012). Saudi Arabia is a highly collectivist nation where the individualism index is (25/100) compared to (91/100) for the USA and people value group gain over individual gain. Saudi is a more masculine than feminine nation (60/100) and people value competition, achievement and success over quality of life. Figure 3.5 shows the cultural differences between Saudi, other Arab countries and the US based on Hofstede's four dimensions. To reflect these dimensions with regard to the Saudi

management style, the Saudi manager expects social distance from his/her subordinates as they are obligated to show strong loyalty and obedience (Noer *et al.*, 2007).

Among the factors contributing to the high dependency on expatriates workers, are the underlying social and cultural perceptions towards certain manual labour (Madhi and Barrientos, 2003). Saudi people are reluctant to work in some occupations such as a mechanic, a plumber, a blacksmith, and many other blue-collar work-related occupations. People in Saudi Arabia find it shameful to work in jobs like cleaning, servicing and most Saudis tend to look down upon those who are doing such jobs. In addition, wages in these occupations are very low and tend to attract unskilled and illegal migrants. Women on the other hand, are prohibited by culture and social restrictions to work in mixed workplaces and have fewer opportunities to participate in the wider Saudi labour market.

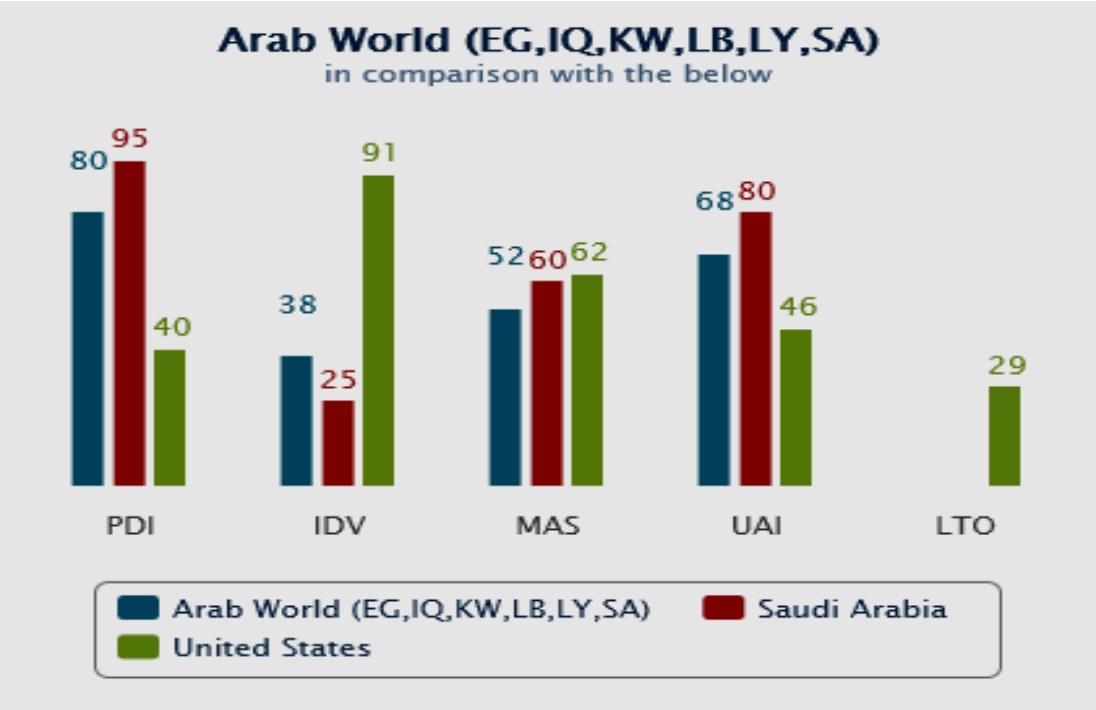
Recently, such negative attitudes towards the manual labour and other low status jobs are starting to change and they are becoming more accepted in the fabric of the Saudi society. The shrinking of the middle class after the stock market crisis in 2006 (Neaime, 2012) as well as the increasing unemployment rate especially among the young generation are forcing Saudi people to reassess their attitude to the working class. As such, in recent years Saudis are entering manual and service labour markets despite the challenges and the negative attitude among traditional Saudi society. The Saudi government intervene regularly in the labour market to increase the participation of its citizens across industries (Amblard *et al.*, 2015). Female participation in the workforce is increasing and working for the first time in jobs that were limited historically to men such as the service industry and outlet markets (Amblard *et al.*, 2015).

3.2.7. Expatriates in Saudi

The majority of expatriates in Saudi are low-skilled, working in the construction, service, manufacturing, agricultural and domestic sectors, whereas a smaller cohort of professional expatriates enjoy high incomes free of tax and with other benefits

including transportation, accommodation, health insurance and free education, both for the individuals and for their dependents (Naithani and Jha, 2010; Rahman, 2011).

Figure 3. 5 Culture index (Arab World vs. United States)



(Hofstede, 2012)

Expatriates primarily hired through local and international recruiting agencies and business networks play a significant role in attracting professional workforces to the Kingdom (Rahman, 2011). The process of hiring new expatriates involves a variety of governmental bodies including the Ministry of Labour (work permits), the Ministry of Interior (residence permits and security approvals) and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (visas) (USDC, 2012). Expatriates' life experiences are influenced to a great extent by their cultural backgrounds and, in some cases, the type of job they perform. For example, Glasze's (2006) study shows that Western expatriates live in compounds in order to practise their normal lifestyle away from the strict cultural restrictions that exist outside of these compounds, whereas many other types of international workers live in more open compounds or in normal houses alongside locals. Empirical findings show that the rent inside closed compounds is very high and rental accommodation is difficult to secure as a result of the high demand and limited supply

(Glasze, 2006). Furthermore, the Saudi government also requires any company that employs more than fifty expatriates to have a compound, which is a way of controlling and limiting foreign external cultural influences on the local society (Bombacci, 1998).

In addition, expatriates' salaries and other fringe benefits vary significantly according to their countries of origin. For instance, most western expatriates working in the GCC countries enjoy high salaries and other benefits to a greater extent than their counterparts of different nationalities (Al-Meer, 1989; Naithani and Jha, 2010). Furthermore, there is wide variation in expatriates' salaries across the GCC countries. For example, expatriates who are working in the UAE, Kuwait and Qatar tend to receive higher salaries than their counterparts working in Saudi Arabia, Bahrain and Oman (Hertog, 2012). However, recent data also shows that inflation is surging across GCC countries and this is affecting expatriates' salaries in terms of increases in living expenses as well as fluctuations in the currency exchange markets (GOIBank, 2013; Kim and Hammoudeh, 2013). On the other hand, the number of illegal workers in Saudi Arabia is not known and varies depending on the source provider. However, according to the General Department of Passports in Riyadh, more than 800,000 illegal workers have been deported between 2012 and 2013 alone (Carey, 2013).

3.2.8. Financial Sector in Saudi Arabia

Turning to the financial sector which provides the context for this study, according to the Arab Monetary Fund's (AMF) report in 2012 (3rd quarter), the Saudi market in 2012 was valued at 45.5% of the total market value of the 16 Arab countries (AMF, 2012). Saudi has a robust economy evidenced by its –AA credit rating; as a result, it was reported as having a stable outlook in the long term by Standard and Poors and Fitch in 2012 (Reuters, 2014). Figure 3.6 shows that the financial sector in Saudi is the largest of all sectors, according to Standard and Poor's (2013). Its financial sector is divided into different markets, including banking, money exchange, insurance/reinsurance and financial leasing companies. The banking market is the largest within the financial sector and accounts for more than half of the total sector's assets and 85% of the GDP (IMF, 2012).

According to the latest report by the Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency (SAMA) in 2012, Saudi had 24 commercial banks, of which, 12 are domestic and 12 are foreign-owned banks (see Table 3.2) (SAMA, 2012). The International Monetary Fund's (IMF) report reveals that the financial sector in Saudi is fairly regulated compared to other sectors in Saudi, however, coordination across all sectors in Saudi is lacking (IMF, 2012). SAMA is the regulatory body for commercial banks in Saudi and it issues licences for other financial institutions, including money exchange, insurance/reinsurance and financial leasing companies. SAMA also governs the hiring and selecting of the decision makers and managers in all banks operating in Saudi Arabia. Appendices X and Y present the some of the regulations in relation to the selection and hiring candidates in these banks. The next section will briefly highlight the research tradition in Saudi Arabia as well as the research institutions as it is relevant context in this study.

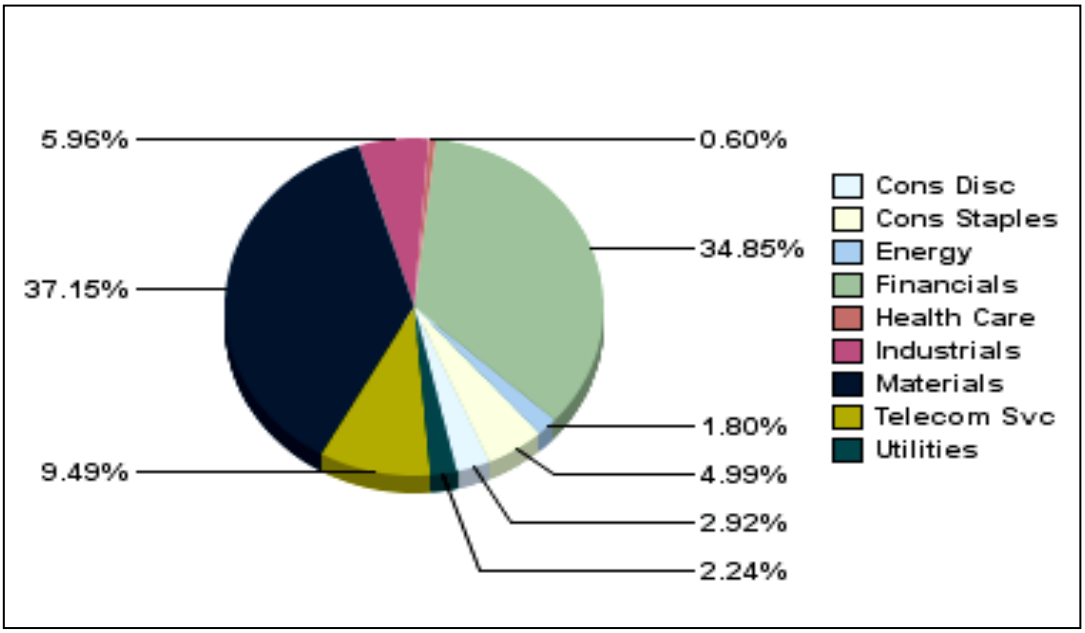
Table 3. 2 Saudi and foreign licenced banks operating in Saudi Arabia as of 2012

No.	Licenced Saudi Banks	Total Employees***	Licenced Foreign Banks
1	The National Commercial Bank	Saudi 4644 Non-Saudi 756	Deutsche Bank**
2	The Saudi British Bank*	Saudi 2627 Non-Saudi 440	BNP Paribas**
3	Saudi Investment Bank	Saudi 750 Non-Saudi 321	J.P. Morgan Chase N.A**
4	Alinma Bank	Saudi 1198 Non-Saudi 211	National Bank of Pakistan**
5	Banque Saudi Fransi*	Saudi 1952 Non-Saudi 836	State Bank of India**
6	Riyad Bank	Saudi 4888 Non-Saudi 368	Ziraat Bankası**
7	Samba Financial Group (Samba)	Saudi 2140 Non-Saudi 917	Industrial and Commercial Bank of China (Has Not Started Yet)**
8	Saudi Hollandi Bank*	Saudi 1421 Non-Saudi 185	Gulf International Bank(GIB)**
9	Al Rajhi Bank	Saudi 8927 Non-Saudi 1334	Emirates (NBD)** (GCC BANK)
10	Arab National Bank*	Saudi 3179 Non-Saudi 353	National Bank of Bahrain (NBB)** (GCC BNAK)
11	Bank AlBilad	Saudi 1595 Non-Saudi 652	National Bank of Kuwait (NBK)** (GCC BANK)
12	Bank AlJazira	Saudi 546 Non-Saudi 75	Muscat Bank (MB)** (GCC BANK)
Total	**12**	**Saudi 33867 Non-Saudi 6448**	**12**

*Mixed ownership (Saudi & foreign) ** Foreign ownership *** Based on Banks' annual reports 2011/2012

Source: Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency (SAMA) Annual Report 2013 (Licenced Banks).

Figure 3. 6 Financial sector breakdown in Saudi Arabia



Source: The S&P Saudi Arabia BMI, StandardPoor's (2013).

3.2.9. Research Tradition (Context Perspective)

Research and experimental development (R&D) are the bases for creating a knowledge-based economy and the vehicles for attaining higher levels of innovation and competiveness. The concept of Research and Development is defined as "…any creative systematic activity undertaken in order to increase the stock of knowledge, including knowledge of man, culture and society, and the use of this knowledge to devise new applications" (UNESCO, 2001:65-68). The competition existing between the member countries of the OECD over increasing their stocks of knowledge is demonstrated by the considerable amount of money invested in knowledge during the 1990s, which, indeed, exceeded expenditure on physical investment (including the purchasing of machines, tools and plants for the purpose of production) (Khan, 2012).

However, spending on Research and Development in Saudi is very low compared to many developed countries. The World Bank has measured R&D expenditure as a percentage of a nation's GDP. The following Table 3.3 shows the Saudi government's

spending on R&D in 2009, according to the World Bank, in comparison with the highest spending nation from Arab countries.

Table 3. 3 Research and Development expenditure (% of GDP) in 2009

Country	GDP (Billion $)	Expenditure (%)
Saudi Arabia	**476.304**	**0.08**
Tunisia	**44.87**	**1.10**

Source: World Bank Report: Research and Development Expenditure (% of GDP)

Despite its modest spending on research, Saudi has 1167 research labs and more than 169 research centres, as well as 238 scientific research chair programmes across 32 public and private universities (MOHE, 2012). However, the information related to the roles, budgets and deliverables of research centres is not available in the Ministry of Higher Education's (MOHE) report in 2012. In addition, the exact number of research centres and institutes outside of the universities is unclear. Although the website of the King Abdulaziz City for Science and Technology (KACST) (The Saudi Government agency for technology, information and science) provides a list of around 120 research centres, including universities (KACST, 2013), many of these listed research centres have no publicly available information or access to their websites.

A coordination between public and private research centres and institutes in Saudi is lacking as there is no governing or organising body that registers, organises and regulates the Research and Development industry across the country. For example, MOHE is responsible for organising and managing research centres within the public and private universities and colleges, while other ministries manage and organise research centres that come under their respective remits. Furthermore, private companies, including ARAMCO, SABIC and other oil, chemical and metal companies, operate research centres that serve their own business interests. Interestingly, the Gulf States, which include Saudi, have established independent national research centres as a result of failing to utilise the universities' research centres effectively (Al-rumaihi, 2000). According to Alshayea's (2013) research, Saudi suffers from many problems, in particular, low funding, lack of coordination

and out of date regulations. Thus, it is difficult to obtain reliable figures related to total research investments and outputs across industries in Saudi.

One barometer of the scientific research published by Saudi is the contents of the Science Citation Index (CSI), published by Thomson Reuters Web of knowledge, where this study examines the period from 2008 to 2014. A total of 2648 published items were recorded across different research areas, including physics, engineering, chemistry, medicine, environmental sciences, ecology, energy, IT and other science fields. Published items, as well as the citations for each year are presented in the following bar charts. Figures 3.7 and 3.8 show that the research is increasing since 2008 and this could be related to the King Abdullah Scholarship program introduced by the Custodian of the Two Holy Mosques King Abdullah Bin Abdulaziz Al Saud in 2005. The program sponsors more than 150,000 Saudi students who enrol in highly-selective universities to pursue their higher education in more than 30 countries around the world (MOHE, 2013).

3.2 Conclusion

The present chapter has landscaped aspects of the context of this study including the Saudi Arabian culture, legal system, labour law, labour market, migration policy and expatriates. Finally, the financial sector and the research tradition in Saudi Arabia were also outlined briefly. These context specific characteristics are helpful to the extent to which these contextual elements can be related to the motivational factors and the perceived career orientations among CEs and SEs. In doing so, some of these contextual characteristics will be explored further within the next chapters outlining the methodology, the analysis and a discussion of the main findings in the context of the broader enfolding literature.

Figure 3. 7 Published Items in Each Year (Saudi)

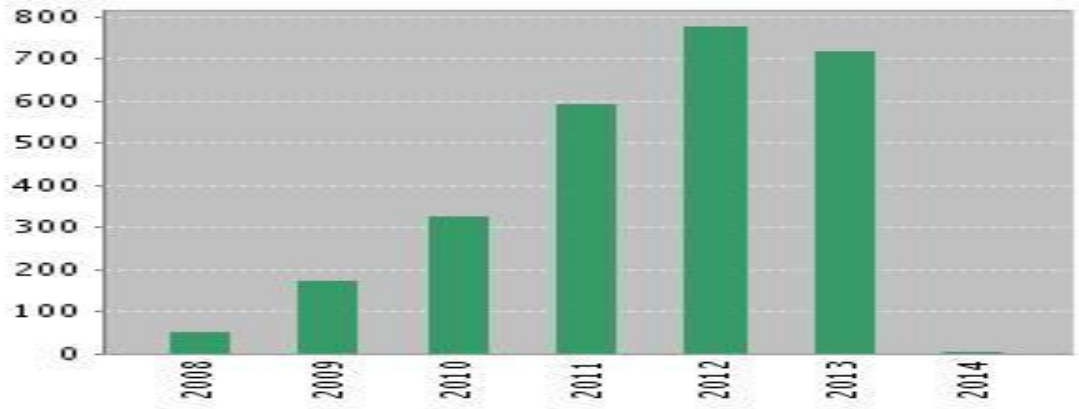
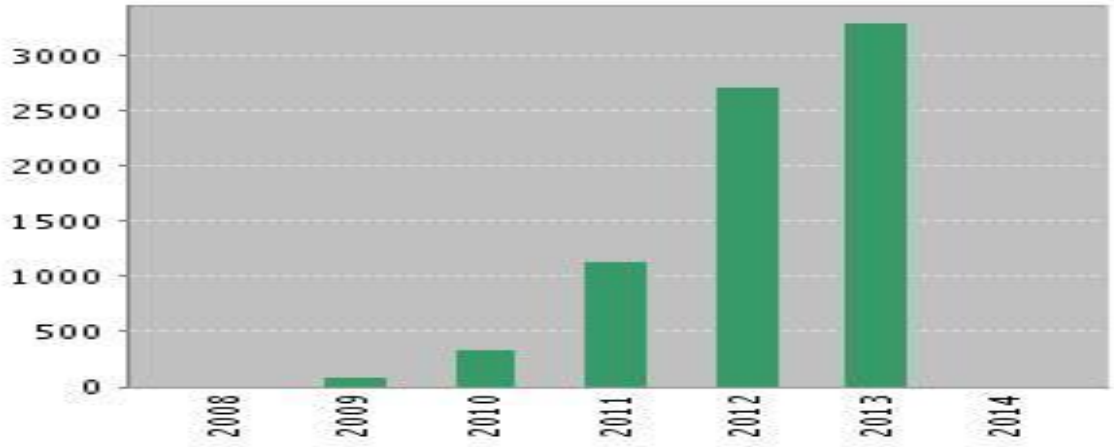


Figure 3. 8 Citations in Each Year (Saudi)



Source (Figure3.7 & Figure 3.8): Saudi Arabian's research activities from 2008 to 2014 based on the Institute for Scientific Information (ISI) as of November 2013.

Chapter 4: Methodology

This chapter details the methodology that has been employed for the purpose of this cross-sectional inter-cohort study in order to answer the 14 hypotheses presented in Chapter two concerning CEs and SEs. Before going into the main research strategy underpinning this study, the research barriers and the difficulties that arose during the process of data gathering are addressed in order that the reader might further appreciate the context for this research. The research rationale is then presented against the backdrop of exploring the methods that have been most frequently adopted heretofore in this field and the manner in which this study differs in terms of its methodological approach is established. In addition, the personal and professional characteristics of the participants are set out in detail for the purpose of the inter-cohort investigation. This is followed by an exploration of the measures that have been utilised in this study. Finally, the conclusion is presented.

4.1 Research Barriers and Difficulties in Saudi Arabia

The lack of databases and repositories containing information about expatriates' contacts and current work information, especially for bankers, was one of the main research barriers for this study in Saudi Arabia. Such information was not even available from the organising governmental body (SAMA) and, despite several written contacts with SAMA, the researcher had access only to the figures for the total number of expatriates published by SAMA in 2012, which differs from the figures published annually by the banks. Unlike many countries around the world, Saudi has no labour unions that could be approached by the researcher for research purposes. As a consequence, the researcher was compelled to rely on participating banks to distribute and collect questionnaires for the target sample. In this regard, the researcher needed to enter into negotiations with HR managers concerning the number of questionnaires that the managers were able to distribute to participants. Furthermore, the researcher was obliged to offer an executive report of the findings of this study to some participating banks in order to incentivise the HR managers to distribute the questionnaires. In addition, using the mailing services and pre-paid

envelopes is highly utilised sampling method within the expatriation literature, however, in Saudi Arabia, most researchers rely on on-line surveys or/and distributing hard copies in order to reach out to their participants (Bhuian *et al.*, 2001). However, as a result of some recent on-line security concerns, some organisations will not allow the use of on-line surveys.

4.2 Qualitative Vs. Quantitative Research Approaches

The research strategy adopted in this study is quantitative focused on providing a cross-sectional inter-cohort investigation. Before explaining the approach selected in more detail, the distinction between qualitative and quantitative research approaches will be presented. Qualitative and quantitative are two different schools of thought that form the primary methodological bases within the field of expatriate literature. The two methods emerged within social science research from two different epistemological stances, namely positivist and interpretivism. The dichotomy between the two approaches is not straightforward as overlaps do exist between them (Morgan and Smircich, 1980; Bryman, 2012) but these go beyond the scope of this study.

To a large extent, the quantitative approach is linked to the positivist tradition, which advocates the application of a natural science model to the study of social science and is based on the assumption that knowledge is an external and objective reality (Bryman, 2012). This research strategy uses theory to deduce hypotheses that can be tested using a quantification-based method of collecting and analysing data (Bryman, 2012). In this way, the relationship between research and theory is founded on a deductive approach and the findings are incorporated back into the theory that has been employed in order to create new knowledge and/or recommendations. The quantitative approach is a popular and commonly used strategy in social science research (Bryman, 2012), business and management research (Saunders; Saunders; Lewis and Thornhill, 2011) and, particularly, in research relating to expatriates (Richardson and McKenna, 2006).

Despite its popularity, quantitative research has been criticised for many reasons, in particular, by spokespersons for the qualitative research method (Bryman, 2012). The

criticisms are, in general, related to the epistemological approach taken in terms of the measures and instruments that quantitative researchers adopt for data collection, management and analysis. For example, quantitative researchers rely solely on natural science and the primacy of objectivity and tend to neglect the subjective aspect of research that reveals individuals' personal experiences and self-reflections on their environment (Bryman, 2012). Another criticism levelled at quantitative research is that the measurement process yields an artificial and spurious sense of precision and accuracy (Bryman, 2012). Part of this criticism refers to the allegation that this approach is based on the assumption, rather than the experience, of a real connection between the research measures and the concepts that are revealed through using predefined categories (Bryman, 2012).

In contrast, the qualitative approach is linked, to a large degree, with the interpretivism approach. However, unlike the positivism approach, which employs a natural science model, the interpretivism approach examines the world through the lens of its participants in order to explore the subjective meaning of a social action (Bryman, 2012). In other words, the researcher utilises the participants' human experiences and interpretations of meaning while they are engaging with their world in order to propose a theory or pattern derived from these (Creswell, 2003). Consequently, in contrast to the quantitative approach, the relationship between research and theory using the qualitative approach is inductive, whereby new findings drawn from the findings of this approach are utilised to create a theory or pattern (Creswell, 2003). Likewise, the qualitative approach also attracts criticism, much of which is contributed by advocates of the quantitative approach.

The qualitative approach is criticised for its high degree of subjectivity, since researchers are considered part of the methodological process but are also significantly influenced by their own evaluations and judgments (Bryman, 2012). Advocates of the quantitative approach believe that using systematic techniques, as opposed to relying on personal interpretations, is essential in order to minimise the influence of human biases. In addition, qualitative studies have been criticised for being difficult to replicate due to the fact that researchers differ in terms of their backgrounds, values and experiences, as well as their differing personal and linguistic expression (Jick, 1979; Bryman, 2012).

4.3 Research Rationale

The vast majority of the literature published to date on Self-initiated Expatriates (SEs) is primarily derived from samples of individuals travelling from Western countries and/or working in Western countries (see for example, Inkson *et al.*, 1997; Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Tharenou, 2003; Jokinen *et al.*, 2008; Thorn, 2009; Biemann and Andresen, 2010; Cerdin and Pargneux, 2010; Tharenou, 2010b; Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010; Doherty *et al.*, 2011; Cerdin, 2013; Doherty *et al.*, 2013). The findings from these studies emphasise the importance of the host location of the international assignment in terms of its attractions, barriers and implications over some aspects including expatriates' motives for travelling to certain host locations as well as their career perspectives in these host locations. However, contexts such as Saudi Arabia, which attracts millions of expatriates every year remain neglected in the expatriation literature. To this end, this study differs from previous studies in several ways.

Firstly, an empirical field study has been conducted using a heterogeneous sample representing 27 different nationalities, different positions and different occupations. The sample comprises both CEs and SEs working in the banking sector in Saudi Arabia. Splitting the sample allows for the conducting of an inter-cohort investigation that goes beyond expatriates' cohort types. Many of the empirical studies on SEs tend to target single nationality (see for example, Inkson *et al.*, 1997; Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Tharenou, 2003; Jokinen *et al.*, 2008; Thorn, 2009; Biemann and Andresen, 2010; Cerdin and Pargneux, 2010; Tharenou, 2010b; Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010; Doherty *et al.*, 2011; Cerdin, 2013; Doherty *et al.*, 2013) and this limits the scope for conducting inter-cohort analysis and for providing broader understanding of how various nationalities differ within each expatriate cohort group. Secondly, the context of this study is a unique one and differs from the majority of these studies that utilise expatriates samples travelling between less restricted boarders such as expatriates moving between the European Union and between Australia, New Zealand and the UK. In addition, given that some previous research tended to employ fragmented samples that comprised SE and migrant mixes who are traveling for various reasons, comparability was a problem. Following our definition proposed in Chapter two, participants in this study are mainly professional bankers who are travelling for work

purposes and had work arrangements made prior to their departure to Saudi Arabia. Finally, this cross-sectional inter-cohort study distinguishes multiple mobility root trajectories, namely work-related mobility, non-work related experiences, early international exposure, inter-company or inter-industry movements and cultural proximity or distance between the home and host location of the expatriate, in order to analyse the patterns of mobility among a cohort of SEs and CEs.

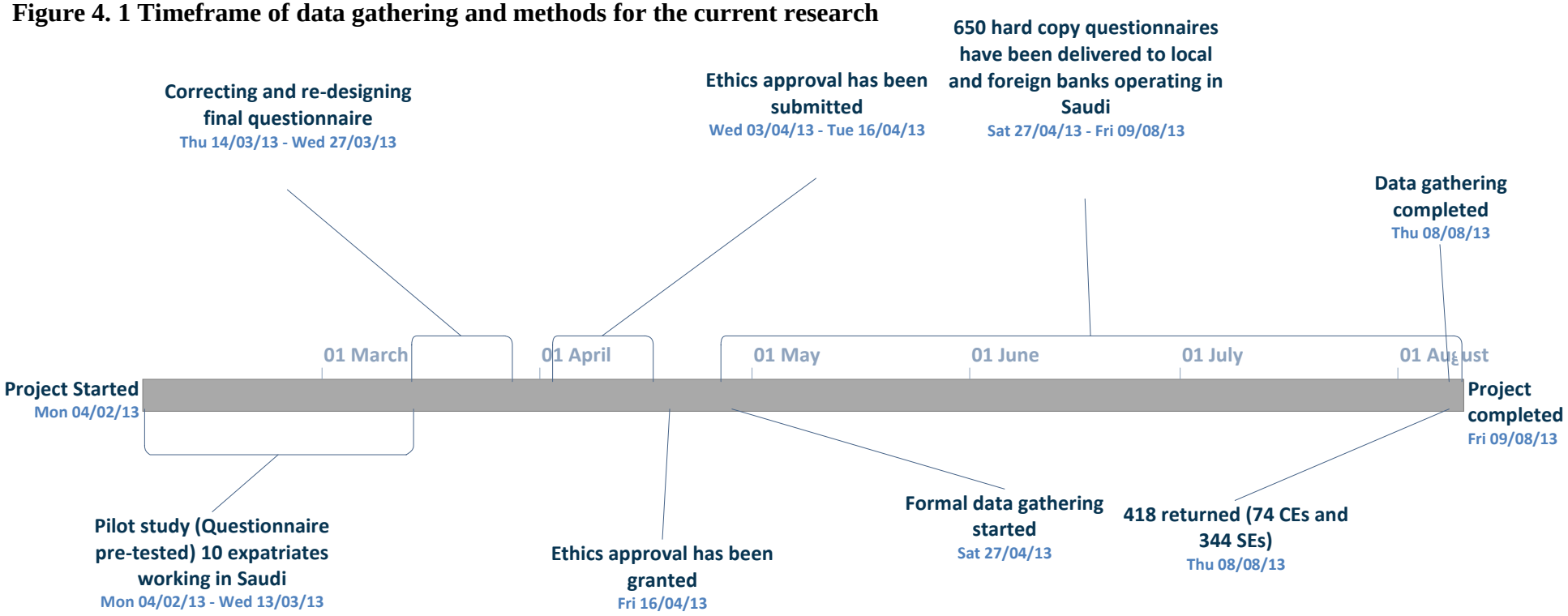
4.4 Sampling

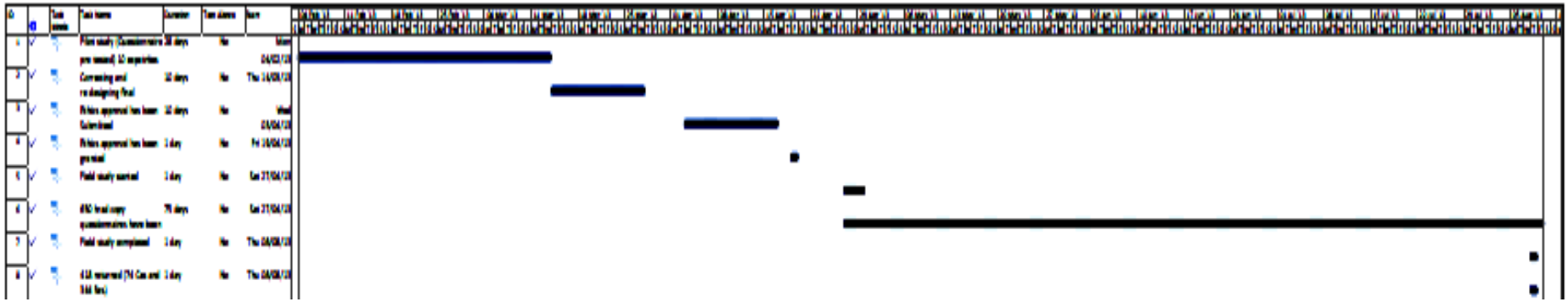
In this inter-cohort study, a survey instrument was used and pilot-tested to obtain information through questionnaires that were administrated to CEs and SEs through their banks' HR departments. The timeframe for data gathering and the methods employed are presented in Figure 4.1. The survey (see Appendix B) was in English because this is a language requirement stipulated for the hiring of personnel by banks, especially for expatriates, and because English is the standard language used for business in Saudi Arabia (Yavas; Luqmani and Quraeshi, 1990).

4.5 Pilot Study

According to Oppenheim (2000), pilot studies are an effective means of saving time and money. It is, therefore, essential to pilot test every question and scale during the process of developing and designing research questionnaires. In addition, the respondents to the pilot work should be as similar as possible to the actual target sample (Oppenheim, 2000). For these reasons, a pilot study was conducted at an early stage of developing the questionnaire for this research, The pilot study took place between February and March 2013 in two phases. Phase One involved eight participants from both academic and non-academic backgrounds in order to collect feedback related to the questionnaire's wording, design and average completion time. Subsequently, ten expatriates working in Saudi were invited to participate in Phase Two of the pilot test. Both pilot study phases contributed useful insights and helped in developing the final questionnaire.

Figure 4. 1 Timeframe of data gathering and methods for the current research





For example, during Phase One, the researcher benefitted from the early feedback given by the academic and non-academic participants as it enabled him to correct issues related to the questionnaire's wording, grammar, logical flow and coherence. The time required to complete the questionnaire was also tested and, as a result, some questions were deleted or paraphrased in order to achieve an average completion time of 16 minutes. Feedback from Phase Two of the pilot study was also helpful because the respondents were ten expatriates working in Saudi. The changes that were made to the original questionnaire as a result of this feedback were related to the use of age group rather than exact age and the researcher also decided to reduce the gap between each group as a result. Other modifications related to questions that distinguished CEs from SEs. For example, the final question used to identify each cohort was changed to "how did you get your first job in Saudi?" Some possible answers were "being sent by employer overseas to work in Saudi Arabia", "being sent by my employer but I quit and I am on my own" and "I was seeking employment internationally on my own volition". An option, "other (please specify)", was also included to allow participants to provide an alternative answer to this question in writing if they were not satisfied with the options provided.

The option to provide an alternative personal response was useful because several participants chose to do this and the researcher could then use this information to decide to which cohort these participants belonged. For example, to the question "how did you get your first job in Saudi?" one participant responded "I received an offer in my country from Saudi and I travelled to work for a Saudi company" and this participant was accordingly placed in the SEs group. Some other participants were born in Saudi and the researcher decided to exclude them later as part of the sampling quality control process for the following reasons. Firstly, this cohort considered themselves local, though they were not citizens, and some of them had not travelled beyond Saudi since they were born. Secondly, this cohort did not fit into any of the definitions used for the purpose of this study to define CEs and SEs. Finally, most of the elements pertaining to the motivational factors measure, which was used to rate participants' decision to travel and work abroad, were not applicable to those who had been born in Saudi because they had no choice regarding these motivational factors to travel abroad. Future research should, therefore, consider this cohort within the wider

domain of expatriates. Given that a full discussion of emigrants born in other countries and living for a significant time as foreigners will go beyond the scope of this research, it is worth highlighting some of the issues related to Saudi initiatives to tackle this problem. Although, Saudi has no immigration policy similar to those of the UK, Canada and the US in order to restrict illegal residents, the number of people who are born in Saudi and live there for a long time with their families is increasing. The first action taken by the Saudi Government to organise and correct the legal residency of those born in Saudi occurred in early 2013. At this time, the Government announced it was granting permanent residency to the more than 250,000 Burmese (citizens of, currently, the Republic of the Union of Myanmar) who had been living in Makkah since 1960 (Alsharq, 2013). This will allow Burmese to work in Saudi and to access public and private services similar to Saudi citizens, including access to free education and health. However, more illegal residents of other nationalities are still waiting for the Government to correct their legal residency similar to Burmese.

Another outcome from Phase Two was related to the motivational factors measure. The measure was adapted to the Saudi context as the original measure was used by Doherty et al. (2011) to test the motivational factors pertaining to CEs and SEs working in different European countries. The same authors called on future researchers to utilise their measure within the context of the particular research being conducted and, as a result, some questions were tailored to the Saudi context. In order to contextualise this measure, several elements were adapted, such as "Desire to live in Saudi", "Standard of living in Saudi" and "Close ties of your country of origin with Saudi". This amendment was helpful to clarify any possible confusion among participants relating to the motivational factors and to make the factors more contextually sensitive (or oriented).

4.6 Research Ethics

Ethics approval was granted for this study by the Research Ethics Committee in Kemmy Business School on 16th April 2013 (Appendix A). A cover letter was included in the questionnaire to explain the purpose and procedure of the study as

well as to inform participants of their right to withdraw at any time and to assure them that confidentiality would be maintained.

4.7 Actual Fieldwork

The actual fieldwork and the process of gathering data commenced in April 2013 and concluded in August 2013 (see figure 4.1). During this period, the researcher attended many meetings with HR department representatives within banks in order to explain the target sample, including the definitions for the two expatriate cohorts of interest in this study. For the purpose of this cross-sectional inter-cohort study, participants were asked to answer the following question: "How did you get your first job in Saudi?" Listed options included "I was sent by my employer overseas to work in Saudi Arabia"; "I was sent by my employer but I quit and I am on my own"; "I was seeking employment internationally of my own volition" and "if other, please specify". Interestingly, the researcher in this study found that many HR managers could not distinguish between CEs and SEs as they are both treated as expatriates, regardless of their employment status.

The average number of visits to the banks' sites was four times and the time taken to obtain responses varied from two weeks to two months. Questionnaires were randomly distributed by the HR departments to CEs and SEs across nationalities, ages, genders, occupations and job levels. There was no identifying information requested from participants. The researcher delivered the questionnaires to the HR departments and later returned to collect those that had been completed. This drop-off and pick-up method was used in this study for several reasons. Firstly, it is a method that is commonly used when conducting research using a survey instrument in the Saudi Arabian context and this method has been employed in many empirical studies in this field (Yavas *et al.*, 1990; Bhuian and Al-Jabri, 1993; Bhuian *et al.*, 2001; Bozionelos, 2009). Secondly, for security and privacy reasons most banks refused to circulate online surveys that used external links and, therefore, the use of hardcopy questionnaires was the only option available to the researcher. Thirdly, a lack of information and databases providing reliable information about expatriates, including their contact information in Saudi, is one of the research obstacles that limits the options and methods available to the researcher (Tuncalp, 1988; Crick; Al Obaidi and

Chaudhry, 1998). Unlike the context of this study, the vast majority of empirical studies so far that have utilised surveys as a means of obtaining data have good access to CE and SE information through databases and/or repositories from government and non-government agencies (Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Jokinen *et al.*, 2008; Thorn, 2009; Biemann and Andresen, 2010; Selmer and Lauring, 2010; Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010).

4.8 Participants

The participants for this study were approached through their employers' HR departments, for which the researcher obtained an official letter from the Chamber of Commerce in Riyadh (see Appendix C) to allow him to distribute the questionnaires. The target sample was CEs and SEs working in all local and foreign banks in Saudi. The banks' headquarters were all in Riyadh, with the exception of one bank for which the researcher sent the request to its headquarter through the regional office in Riyadh.

4.9 Sample Size and Response Rate

In previous comparative studies that have employed a quantitative approach, the sample size of CEs and SEs varies from 40 participants (for example, Biemann and Andresen, 2010) to 339 participants (for example, Doherty *et al.*, 2011) for a single cohort. According to the SAMA report in 2013 (1st Quarter), local banks and other foreign bank branches in Saudi employ 6004 expatriates (5694 male and 310 female); however, these figures differ slightly from the figures published by the banks, which reveal a total number of expatriates employed in 2012 of 6448. Table 3.2 lists all the licensed banks and foreign branches present in Saudi Arabia in 2013 (1st Quarter), as well as the number of expatriates working in these banks based on the published annual reports. Three local banks refused to participate in this study and 650 questionnaires were distributed by HR departments to expatriates working in local and foreign banks operating in Saudi. The total of 650 questionnaires were the maximum number that researcher was allowed to distribute among participating banks for the following reasons.

Banks indicated that they only allow a certain number of questionnaires to be distributed to their employees in order for HR departments to distribute questionnaires and follow up responses. Another reason was to avoid workplace disruptions. A total of 650 questionnaire were eventually accepted for distribution by the HR representatives of the banks that agreed to participate. Of these, 460 questionnaires were returned, resulting in a 70% response rate. Subsequently, 30 questionnaires (5%) were excluded as a result of being incomplete and 12 were excluded due to quality issues. Some of these quality issues related to participants not meeting any of the cohorts definitions such as those who were born in Saudi and living there for long time. Another quality issue related to the way that some questionnaires were completed which showed some participants were using perfect lines across all options and this line specifies in many occasions two or more answers for a single option. A total of 418 questionnaires, made up of 377 (90%) male and 41 (10%) female respondents, were usable. This indicated a response rate of 64.3%. Among those respondents, 344 (82%) were self-initiated (SEs) and 74 (18%) were company-backed (CEs).

4.10 Background Variables

Individual related background variables measured for all participants in the present study followed a curriculum vitae approach, whereby individuals answered questions related to their demographic information and their work and non-work related international experiences. Unlike other empirical studies, this study included information on previous international experiences that related to work and non-work variables to explore expatriates' past, current and future international mobility history.

4.11 Demographic Variables

Eight items were used to measure participants' individual variables, including gender (0 male, 1 female) and age (ordinal ranging from younger than 23, 23-29, 30-36, 37-42, 43-49, 50-59 and 60 or older). Participants were also asked to specify their nationalities and marital status (0 married, single 1). In addition, some variables were related to participants' spouses and dependents to investigate if their spouses lived in

Saudi (0 No, 1 Yes), were working in Saudi (0 No, 1 Yes) and whether they had children (0 No, 1 Yes). Participants' level of education was also included (0 less than high school, 1 high school degree, 2 some college but no degree, 3 associate degree, 4 bachelor degree, 5 masters degree, 6 doctoral degree). Finally, expatriate cohort types were assigned according to participants' responses to the listed options above (0 for CEs and 1 for SEs).

4.12 Professional Variables

Seven items, developed for the purpose of this cross-sectional inter-cohort study, were used to explore further variables among the two cohorts. Numbers were assigned to each criterion to construct a measure. The first of these was their current occupation (including management, consultancy, business and financial operations and other occupations). Secondly, participants were asked to identify their current positions from a list of examples (board member, executive/senior management, middle management, lower management and other, please specify). Position levels were measured by an ordinal variable ranging from one for lower management to three for top management. The third category was the number of organisations the participant had worked for in Saudi, followed by the fourth category which was the type of industries worked in (0 if same industry type and 1 if different industries), which was used to track the expatriates' employment movements and to compare the two cohorts accordingly (0 if same organisation and 1 if different organisations). Participants were then asked to indicate the total number of past organisations worked for. The fifth category was the total length of time the participant worked in Saudi (in months/years). The sixth and seventh items were related to participants having a guaranteed job/assignment upon finishing their job in Saudi (0 No, 1 Yes) and, if the response was yes, whether they had information about their future role/responsibility (0 No, 1 Yes).

4.13 Measures

For the purpose of this study, different standardised measures were employed to gather information on how CEs and SEs navigated their international career

experiences, were motivated to go abroad and how they perceived their career orientations.

4.13.1 The Pattern of The Global Mobility Among CEs And SEs

The pattern of global mobility for all participants was measured using 11 items to illustrate participants' work and non-work related international experiences. These were developed specifically for the purpose of inter-cohort study. Participants were asked to answer questions related to their international work experiences including: (1) total number of years of previous work-related international experience (continuous 0, 1, 2 etc.); (2) number of international organisations worked for (continuous 0, 1, 2 etc.); (3) number of countries worked in before coming to Saudi (continuous 0, 1, 2 etc.); and (4) host locations of previous work-related international experiences (participants were asked to list countries they visited for work purposes).

In terms of non-work related international experiences, these were measured using seven items and participants were first asked if they had had general international (non-work) experiences prior to their work in Saudi (0 No, 1 Yes). The second item concerned the age at which they had international exposure for the first time (ordinal (0) never travelled, (1) younger than 10 Years, (2) 10-19 years, (3) 20-30 years, (4) more than 30 years). The third item indicated the total number of trips taken relating to non-work related international travel experiences (continuous 0, 1, 2 etc.). In addition, the fourth item was related to the number of countries that they had visited for non-work related international experiences (continuous 0, 1, 2 etc.). Moreover, participants were asked in the fifth item to indicate the number of visited countries (continuous 0, 1, 2 etc.). The sixth item was related to the total length of this non-work international experience (years/months). For the seventh item, participants were asked to specify the purpose of their non-work related international travel experience in terms of whether it was (1) vacation/recreation abroad, (2) study/education abroad, (3) both, (4) other general travel, or (5) vacation/recreation abroad, study and other general travel).

4.13.2 Motivational Factors to Go Abroad

Motivational factors were measured through eight interlinked elements. The motivational factors to go abroad for CEs and SEs were measured through adapting the eight components derived from Doherty et al.'s (2011) pull and push motivational factors model. Participants were asked to indicate how much influence each of a number of factors had on their decision to work abroad. A seven-point Likert-type scale was used, ranging from (1) "No influence" to (7) "Very great influence". The first of these eight components was host location, which comprised seven items, including; Saudi culture; desire to live in Saudi; standard of living in Saudi; desire to live in host city/location; ability to adapt to Saudi; balance between work and social life; and possibility of gaining permanent residency in Saudi.

Beyond Doherty et al.'s (2011) model, career as a driving motivation was also measured. It comprised seven items, namely: having the relevant job skills; the job you were offered; potential for skills development; impact on career; maintaining work networks with home country; expected length of stay; and personal financial impact.

Foreign experience as a source of motivation was also measured and it included five items: desire for adventure; to see the world; confidence in your ability to work/live abroad; professional challenge of working abroad; and the opportunity to improve your language skills.

The importance of the host country (Saudi) as a motivational factor comprised 4 items: superior career opportunities in Saudi; reputation of Saudi in your area of work; reputation of Saudi being open to foreigners; and prestige of working in Saudi.

Family benefits as a motivational factor comprised just two items: better opportunity for your family; and ability to support your family better abroad.

The sixth component was the significance of host-home relations and it contained three items: close ties of your country of origin with Saudi; pre-departure preparation; and opportunities to network in Saudi.

The seventh factor was personal relationships and encompassed 4 items: maintaining personal networks; to be with/near a loved person; successful previous experience in foreign environment; and willingness of family/partner to move.

Finally, the eighth component related to push factors in terms of the extent to which participants were pushed to emigrate by factors relating to disadvantages in their home country. These were measured according to two items, namely, poor employment situation at home and desire to distance yourself from a problem. According to Doherty et al. (2011), the push factors scale of "poor employment situation at home" and "to distance yourself from a problem" indicate a low reliability of 0.28. Table 4.1 presents the reliability test for internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) of the pull/push motivational factors from Doherty et al. (2011).

Table 4. 1 Reliability test using Cronbach's alpha for the motivational factors measure from Doherty et al. (2011)

Component matrix factors	**(Doherty *et al.*, 2011)**
	α
(1) Location	0.84
Host culture	
Desire to live in the host country	
Standard of living in the host country	
Desire to live in host city/location	
Your ability to adapt to the host country	
Balance between work and social life	
Possibility of gaining permanent residency in host country	
(2) Career	0.77
Having the relevant job skills	
The job you were offered	
Potential for skills development	
Impact on career	
Maintaining work networks with the home country	
Expected length of stay	
Personal financial impact	
(3) Foreign experience	0.75
Desire for adventure	
To see the world	
Confidence in your ability to work/live abroad	
Professional challenge of working abroad	
The opportunity to improve your language skills	
(4) Host	0.71
Superior career opportunities in the host country	
Reputation of host country in your area of work	
Reputation of host country being open to foreigners	
Prestige of working in the host country	
(5) Family benefits	0.77
Better opportunities for your family	
Ability to support your family better abroad	
(6) Host–Home relations	0.66
Close ties to your country of origin with host country	
Pre-departure preparation	
Opportunities to network in the host country	
(7) Personal relationships	0.54
Maintaining personal networks	
To be with/near loved person(s)	
Successful previous experience in a foreign environment	
Willingness of family/partner to move	
(8) Push factors	0.28
Poor employment situation at home	
To distance yourself from a problem	

4.13.3 Career Orientations

Schein's (1990) 40-item scale was used to examine career orientations for the two cohorts. The Career Orientations Inventory (COI) has been utilised by other studies (see for example, Danziger; Rachman-Moore and Valency, 2008; Lazarova *et al.*, 2014; Leong *et al.*, 2014). According to Schein's (1990), the eight career anchors employed by this study were proposed to measure:

(1) The 'technical/functional competence' (TF) constructs measure the importance of the content of work for individuals regarding improving their technical and functional areas of expertise.

(2) 'General managerial competence' (GM) measures the importance of work in allowing individuals to manage people and organisations and to solve work-related problems that require challenging managerial behaviour.

(3) 'Autonomy/independence' (AI) measures the extent to which work is free from organisational restrictions whereby workers are able to complete their tasks according to their own schedules and timeframes.

(4) 'Security/stability' (SS) measures the importance of job security and long-term employability to individuals.

(5) 'Entrepreneurial/creativity' (EC) measures the extent to which individuals prefer to create projects or organisations of their own rather than to work for previously established ones.

(6) The 'Service/dedication' (SD) constructs measure the extent to which individuals are influenced by their values in terms of helping society and seek jobs that meet their values rather than their skills.

(7) 'Pure challenge' (CH) measures the importance of working on challenging tasks that require high levels of competition and daily conflict.

(8) ‘Lifestyle’ (LS) measures the value to individuals of work that provides a work-life balance.

A five-point Likert-type scale was employed, ranging from (1) “Strongly disagree” to (5) “Strongly agree”, whereby individuals were asked to indicate how important each of a number of specified statements was for their career. The items used for each anchor are listed in Figure 4.2, based on Schein’s (1990) original eight anchors. Table 4.2 presents the internal consistency reliability of the COI using Cronbach’s alpha from Danziger et al. (2008).

4.14 Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

Construct validation is used whenever a test is to be interpreted as a measurement of certain attributes through following established and accurate assessment procedures (Cronbach and Meehl, 1955). Principal component analysis is often used by researchers in this field to produce a smaller number of linear combinations of the original variables that accounts for most of the variability in the patterns of correlations (Pallant, 2010). Similar to PCA is Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), which is employed for the same purpose; however, the two techniques differ in a number of ways. For instance, the PCA method transforms the original variables into a smaller set of linear combinations that captures all of the variance in the variables being analysed (Pallant, 2010). On the other hand, EFA estimates factors rather than using the original ones, using a mathematical model to analyse the shared variance only. Both PCA and EFA are broadly applied statistical techniques in the social sciences and are debated extensively among scholars, some of whom support EFA, such as Gorsuch (1990) and Costello and Osborne (2005) and others of whom support PCA, including Arrindell and Van der Ende (1985) and Guadagnoli and Velicer (1988) . For the purpose of this analysis, PCA will be used to analyse the data.

4.15 Control Variables

Many expatriate researchers emphasise the importance of controlling for the influence of some personal variables such as age, gender, nationality, education, marital status, job level and the previous international work experience on the outcomes of expatriates career, experience and motives to expatriate (Feldman *et al.*, 1998; Kraimer *et al.*, 2001; Tung, 2004; Bolino, 2007; Alonso-Garbayo and Maben, 2009; Selmer and Lauring, 2010). Given that, the purpose of this cross-sectional inter-cohort study is to explore the motivational factors and career orientations among CEs and SEs, the personal variables including expatriates' age, gender, marital status, job level, education, cultural backgrounds and previous work-related international experience will be used as controls in the model testing in order to control for their potential influence on the empirical findings.

With regard to age, previous research suggests that SEs are found typically to be younger than their CE counterparts (see for example, Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Inkson and Myers, 2003; Biemann and Andresen, 2010; Cerdin and Pargneux, 2010). Findings from Marshall and Bonner (2003) reveal that participant age is a significant factor that influences the perceived career orientations of young and old individuals. It is also evident from the literature that CEs are often sent abroad to work in managerial and executive positions in contrast to their SE counterparts (Hays, 1971; Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Thomas, 2002; Hechanova *et al.*, 2003; Andersen, 2014). In addition, nationality and cultural background are found to be significant factors in diminishing expatriates' motivations to travel and live in certain host locations (see for example, Alonso-Garbayo and Maben, 2009; Myers, 2011). The role of gender is also evident in the literature in relation to the factors driving female expatriates to travel to certain host locations (Tharenou, 2003; Carr, 2010; Tharenou, 2010a) and the pattern of female participation is higher among SEs than among their CE counterparts (Thorn, 2009; Tharenou, 2010b).

Moreover, empirical findings reveal that marital status and family commitments in the home country are significant factors that influence SEs' decisions to go abroad. For example, the findings from Tharenou (2003) reveal that SEs often have a greater

willingness to relocate and pursue an international career when they have few family and relationship commitments in their home country. Furthermore, the literature suggests that the level of education among SEs differs from CEs; findings indicate that large number of SEs often travel abroad after high school during their 'gap year' (Inkson and Myers, 2003). Finally, the literature suggests that previous work-related international experience plays a significant learning experience role among CEs in terms of accruing knowledge and building their international career (Osland, 1995; Berthoin Antal, 2000); however, the same literature also indicates that SEs often embark on an international career without prior work-related international experiences or are motivated to go abroad by non-work purposes (Inkson *et al.*, 1997; Inkson and Myers, 2003; Dickmann *et al.*, 2008; Ariss and Özbilgin, 2010; Cerdin and Selmer, 2014).

4.16 The Analytical Procedure for Testing the Hypotheses

Logistic regression analysis where the controls were entered in step 1 will be performed to assess the set of motivational factors and the career orientations in two separate models. This is done in order to assess the model fit for all variables in the first block and later assess the difference that these control variables contribute to the second block. This analysis seeks to explore whether or not the set of the motivational factors and career orientations are helpful to predicting an individual to be either a CE or SE.

Figure 4. 2 Career Orientations Inventory (COI) by Schein's (1990)

Item number based-on original COI	Anchor/Scale
	Technical/functional competence (TF)
1	I dream of being so good at what I do that my expert advice will be sought continuously.
9	I will feel successful in my career only if I can develop my technical or functional skills to a very high level of competence.
17	Becoming a senior functional manager in my area of expertise is more attractive to me than becoming a general manager.
26	I would rather leave my organisation than accept a rotational assignment that would take me out of my area of expertise.
35	I am most fulfilled in my work when I have been able to use my special skills and talents.
	General managerial competence (GM)
2	I am most fulfilled in my work when I have been able to integrate and manage the efforts of others.
10	I dream of being in charge of a complex organisation and making decisions that affect many people.
21	I will feel successful in my career only if I become a general manager in some organization.
30	Becoming a general manager is more attractive to me than becoming a senior functional manager in my current area of expertise.
36	I would rather leave my organisation than accept a job that would take me away from the general managerial track.
	Autonomy/independence (AI)
3	I dream of having a career that will allow me the freedom to do a job on my own way and according to my own schedule.
11	I am most fulfilled in my work when I am completely free to define my own tasks, schedules, and procedures.
18	I will feel successful in my career only if I achieve complete autonomy and freedom.
31	The chance to do a job my own way, free of rules and constraints, is more important to me than security.
38	I would rather leave my organisation than accept a job that would reduce my autonomy and freedom.
	Security/stability (SS)
5	Security and stability are more important to me than freedom and autonomy.
12	I would not stay in an organisation that would give me assignments that would jeopardise my job security.
19	I seek jobs in organisations that will give me a sense of security and stability.
37	I am most fulfilled in my work when I feel that I have complete financial and employment security.
25	I dream of having a career that will allow me to feel a sense of security and stability.

Entrepreneurial and Creativity ((EC)

4	I am always on the lookout for ideas that would permit me to start my own enterprise.
13	Building my own business is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position in someone else's organisation.
33	I dream of starting up and building my own business.
20	I am most fulfilled in my career when I have been able to build something that is entirely the result of my own ideas and efforts.
29	I will feel successful in my career only if I have succeeded in creating or building something that is entirely my own product or idea.

Service/dedication (SD)

7	I will feel successful in my career only if I have a feeling of having made a real contribution to the welfare of society.
14	I am most fulfilled in my career when I have been able to use my talents in the service of others.
22	Using my skills to make the world a better place to live and work in is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position.
28	I dream of having a career that makes a real contribution to humanity and society.
34	I would rather leave my organisation than accept an assignment that would undermine my ability to be of service to others.

Pure challenge (PC)

8	I dream of a career in which I can solve problems or win out in situations that are extremely challenging.
15	I will feel successful in my career only if I face and overcome very difficult challenges.
23	I have been most fulfilled in my career when I have solved seemingly unsolvable problems or won out over seemingly impossible odds.
32	I seek out work opportunities that strongly challenge my problem-solving and/or competitive skills.
40	Working on problems that are almost unsolvable is more important to me than achieving a high level managerial position.

Lifestyle (LS)

6	I would rather leave my organisation than be placed in a job that would compromise my ability to pursue personal and family concerns.
16	I dream of a career that will permit me to integrate my personal, family, and work needs.
24	I feel successful in my life only if I have been able to balance my personal, family, and career requirements.
27	Balancing the demands of personal and professional life is more important to me than achieving a high level managerial position.
39	I have always sought our work opportunities that minimise interference with my personal and family needs.

Table 4. 2 Career Orientations Inventory (COI) by Schein's (1990) reliability test using Cronbach's alpha

Item number in original COI	(Danziger *et al.*, 2008)
	α
(1) TF 1 – 9 – 17- 26- 35	0.601
(2) GM 2-10-21-30-36	0.795
(3) AI 3-11-18-31-38	0.723
(4) SS 5-12-19-37-25	0.821
(5) E 4-13-33	0.887
(6) C 20-29	0.680
(7) SD 7-14-22-28-34	0.786
(8) PC 8-15-23-32-40	0.779
(9) LS 6-16-24-27-39	0.28

Source: Danziger, N., Rachman-Moore, D. and Valency, R. (2008) 'The construct validity of Schein's career anchors orientation inventory', *Career Development International*, 13(1), 7-19.

4.17 Conclusion

This Chapter presented the methodology employed for the study. The research barriers and difficulties that arose during the data gathering have being highlighted in order to understand the context of this study differs from other research contexts such as that in Europe and the United States. The research rationale and the methodological approach used for this study were presented in this chapter by setting out the research timeframe and the steps involved in executing the sampling strategy and engaging in the data gathering process. Data related to the sample size and response rate, background variables, demographic variables and professional variables was also presented. This chapter also explained the measures related to expatriates' global mobility patterns among CEs and SEs, the pull and push motivational factors as well as their perceived career anchors. Finally, the control variables employed for this inter-cohort study were also examined from the expatriation literature perspective.

Chapter 5: Data Analysis and Findings

Following on from Chapter 4, which outlined the methodology underpinning how the study is conducted, this chapter presents the results of the data analyses and the major findings in three sections. It starts by introducing the respondents of the questionnaire, describing the two cohorts' demographic information, their work and non-work international experiences, their different motives for travelling and living in Saudi Arabia and their perceived career orientations. It distinguishes between the two cohorts based on their different career route trajectories. Secondly, the principal components analysis (PCA) is conducted on the measures employed in this study to examine the pull and push motivational factors and the perceived career orientations in order to establish the contextual validity and reliability of the two scales. Finally, logistic regression using the forward stepwise method is conducted to test the hypotheses concerning CEs and SEs, while controlling for the effect of age, gender, marital status, position level, level of education, cultural background and previous work-related international experience.

5.1 Sample Description

Table 5.1 shows there were some significant differences between CE and SEs in terms of their demographic information, including aspects related to their work and non-work global mobility. The following section provides a detailed description of the respondents.

Table 5. 1-Demographic Data Summary (n=418)

			CEs (n=74)		SEs (n=344)		Total	
			n	%	n	%	N	%
Gender		F	4	5	37	11	41	10
	(χ^2 =1.971)	M	70	95	307	89	377	90
Marital status		Married	47	64	277	80	324	77
	(χ^2 =13.586***)	Single	27	36	67	20	94	23
Accompanying family	(χ^2 =1.780)	Yes	35	47	192	56	227	54
With Children	(χ^2 =4.426*)	Yes	43	58.1	243	70.6	286	68.4
Spouses working	(χ^2 =0.067)	Yes	7	9	36	10	43	10
Age		(18-22)	0	0	1	100	1	0.2
		(23-29)	13	20.6	50	79.4	63	15.1
	(χ^2 =8777)	(30-36)	27	22.3	94	77.7	121	28.9
		(37-42)	17	17.9	78	82.1	95	22.7
		(43-49)	11	19.3	46	80.7	57	13.6
		(50-59)	6	8.5	65	91.5	71	17
		(60+)	0	0	10	100	10	2.4
Education		Less than Bachelor	6	8	22	23	28	7
		Bachelor	35	47	215	62	250	60
	(χ^2 =11.070)	Masters	31	42	98	28	129	31
		Doctoral	2	3	9	3	11	2
Cultural Background		Arab	18	24	86	25	104	25
	(χ^2 =12.355*)	Asian	25	34	207	60	232	55
		Western	31	42	51	15	82	20
Position		Executive	30	41	43	13	73	17
		Middle management	28	38	104	30	132	32
	(χ^2 =44.587***)	Lower management	5	7	80	23	85	20
		Non-supervisory/trainee	0	0	11	3	11	3
		Technical/Specialist	11	15	106	31	117	28
Occupation		Management	25	34	109	32	134	32
		Consultancy	7	9	12	3	19	4
	(χ^2 =12.355*)	Financial	14	19	110	32	124	30
		Technical	14	19	77	22	91	22
		Engineering	14	19	36	10	50	12

***p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001**

Table 5.1 Continue …

			CEs (n=74)		SEs (n=344)		Total	
			n	%	n	%	N	%
Working Experience in Saudi		1 to 2 Years	13	17.6	61	17.7	74	17.7
		3 to 5 Years	41	55.4	99	28.8	140	33.5
	(χ^2 =28.041***)	6 to 10 Years	17	23	86	25	103	24.6
		11 to 36	3	4.1	98	28.5	101	24.2
Working for the same company	(χ^2 =21.995***)	Yes	65	87.8	203	59	286	64.1
Number of the companies worked for in Saudi	(χ^2 =22.149***)	Single employer	65	87.8	203	59	268	64.1
		2 to 5	9	12.2	135	39.2	144	34.4
		6 to 20	0	0	6	1.7	6	1.4
Same industry since arrived	(χ^2 =8.810***)	Yes	70	94.6	276	80.2	346	82.8
Previous international experience	(χ^2 =4.946*)	Yes	43	58.1	151	43.9	194	46.4
Total years of previous international work-related experience	(U =11043)	Median	2.5		0		0	
Number of the previous international employers	(U =11005*)	Median	1		0		0	
Number of countries visited for work	(U =10676**)	Median	1		0		0	
Have previous general non-work-related experience	(χ^2 =12.008***)	Yes	31	41.9	219	63.7	250	59.8
Age when first international exposure	(χ^2 =23.565***)	Younger than 10 Years	8	10.8	121	35.2	129	30.9
		10-19 Years	9	12.2	34	9.9	43	10.3
		20-29 Years	14	18.9	47	13.7	61	14.6
		30+	0	0	16	4.7	16	3.8
Total years of previous international non-work - related experience	(U =10356***)	Median	0		1		1	
Have a guaranteed job/assignment upon completing job in Saudi	(χ^2 =260.133***)	Yes	62	83.8	14	4.1	76	18.2
Have information about the future role/ responsibility upon completing job in Saudi	(χ^2 =72.346***)	Yes	22	29.7	7	2	29	6.9

***p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001**

5.1.1 Gender

A total of 418 questionnaires, made up of 377 (90%) male and 41 (10%) female respondents, showed similar findings to previous research that revealed the predominance of males among expatriates travelling from Europe (Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Jokinen *et al.*, 2008; Biemann and Andresen, 2010; Cerdin and Pargneux, 2010; Selmer and Lauring, 2010; Doherty *et al.*, 2011), Asia and the Pacific (Peltokorpi and Froese, 2009; Thorn, 2009; Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010; Froese, 2011), America (Vance, 2005) and Africa (Groutsis and Arnold, 2012). The glass ceiling in terms of the underrepresentation of women in the global workforce is a topic of debate within the expatriate literature as a result of female expatriates being confronted with both organisational and non-organisational career barriers (Brewster, 1991; Linehan, 2000; Tharenou, 2010b). Table 5.2 shows the percentages of male and female participants among CEs and SEs in this study.

Table 5. 2 Sample based on gender

Expatriates type * Gender Crosstabulation

			Gender		
			Male	Female	Total
Expatriates type	Conventional expatriate	Count	70	4	74
		Expected Count	66.7	7.3	74.0
		% within Gender	18.6%	9.8%	17.7%
		% of Total	16.7%	1.0%	17.7%
	Self-initiated expatriate	Count	307	37	344
		Expected Count	310.3	33.7	344.0
		% within Gender	81.4%	90.2%	82.3%
		% of Total	73.4%	8.9%	82.3%
Total		Count	377	41	418
		Expected Count	377.0	41.0	418.0
		% within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	90.2%	9.8%	100.0%

5.1.2 Age

The weighted mean for all respondents is 39.6 years (n=418). Data shows that the average ages for males and females in this study are 40.2 (n=377) years and 33.4 (n=41) years old respectively. The CE group seems slightly younger than their SE

counterpart as the weighted mean age is 37 years (n=74) and 40 years (n=344) respectively. The age groups for the two cohorts are analysed and presented in Crosstabulation according to participants' gender and expatriate type in Tables 5.3 and 5.4. Furthermore, the findings from Table 5.4 indicates that SEs are represented in all age groups, similar to findings of Suutari and Brewster (2000). CEs' age groups in this study fall between 23 and 59 years old, however, SEs are found to be working beyond the legal working age in Saudi, which is 60 years old. The legal working age in the private sector in Saudi Arabia is governed by the Ministry of Labour and is stipulated as 18 to 60 years for men and 18 to 55 for women 'unless the two parties agree upon continuing work after this age' (Labour, 2011:10).

The average age for the two cohorts varies from previous research findings. For example, some findings reveal no significant difference between the two cohorts in age (see for example, Peltokorpi and Froese, 2009; Doherty *et al.*, 2011), whereas other studies show that SEs are younger (see for example, Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Inkson and Myers, 2003; Biemann and Andresen, 2010; Cerdin and Pargneux, 2010). On the other hand, comparative research similar to this study shows that SEs, in fact, can often be older than CEs (see for example,Jokinen *et al.*, 2008). However, some of these studies target samples from populations of students, graduates, young professionals or, in some cases, older expatriates and this could explain the age variation for SEs (see for example, Tharenou, 2003; Felker, 2011; Myers, 2011).

Table 5. 3 Age of participants based on gender

Gender * Age of participant Crosstabulation

			Age of participant							
			Younger than 23	23-29	30-36	37-42	43-49	50-59	60+	Total
Gender	Male	Count	1	48	106	90	53	69	10	377
		Expected Count	.9	56.8	109.1	85.7	51.4	64.0	9.0	377.0
		% within Age of participant	100.0%	76.2%	87.6%	94.7%	93.0%	97.2%	100.0%	90.2%
		% of Total	0.2%	11.5%	25.4%	21.5%	12.7%	16.5%	2.4%	90.2%
	Female	Count	0	15	15	5	4	2	0	41
		Expected Count	.1	6.2	11.9	9.3	5.6	7.0	1.0	41.0
		% within Age of participant	0.0%	23.8%	12.4%	5.3%	7.0%	2.8%	0.0%	9.8%
		% of Total	0.0%	3.6%	3.6%	1.2%	1.0%	0.5%	0.0%	9.8%
Total		Count	1	63	121	95	57	71	10	418
		Expected Count	1.0	63.0	121.0	95.0	57.0	71.0	10.0	418.0
		% within Age of participant	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	0.2%	15.1%	28.9%	22.7%	13.6%	17.0%	2.4%	100.0%

Table 5. 4 Age of participants based on expatriates' type

Expatriates type * Age of participant Crosstabulation

			Age of participant							
			Younger than 23	23-29	30-36	37-42	43-49	50-59	60+	Total
Expatriates type	Conventional expatriate	Count	0	13	27	17	11	6	0	74
		Expected Count	.2	11.2	21.4	16.8	10.1	12.6	1.8	74.0
		% within Age of participant	0.0%	20.6%	22.3%	17.9%	19.3%	8.5%	0.0%	17.7%
		% of Total	0.0%	3.1%	6.5%	4.1%	2.6%	1.4%	0.0%	17.7%
	Self-initiated expatriate	Count	1	50	94	78	46	65	10	344
		Expected Count	.8	51.8	99.6	78.2	46.9	58.4	8.2	344.0
		% within Age of participant	100.0%	79.4%	77.7%	82.1%	80.7%	91.5%	100.0%	82.3%
		% of Total	0.2%	12.0%	22.5%	18.7%	11.0%	15.6%	2.4%	82.3%
Total		Count	1	63	121	95	57	71	10	418
		Expected Count	1.0	63.0	121.0	95.0	57.0	71.0	10.0	418.0
		% within Age of participant	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	0.2%	15.1%	28.9%	22.7%	13.6%	17.0%	2.4%	100.0%

5.1.3 Nationality

Twenty seven nationalities are included in this sample and presented in Table 5.5. This Table shows that Indians are the largest group among other nationalities within the SEs cohort, whereas British expatriates' are the largest within the CEs cohort. Given that some nationalities represent small percentage within each cohort, for analysis purposes the sample was re-classified into Arab, Asian and Western. Figure 5.1 shows CEs and SEs based on their country of origin background. Clearly, Western is the largest group within the CEs cohort representing 7%, followed by Asian and Arab 6%, 4% respectively. On the other hand, Asian represents 50% within the SEs, followed by Arab and Western 21% and 12% respectively.

5.1.4 Marital Status

Table 5.1 reveals that most participants were married (77%, n=418) with the remainder (23%) being single. Similarly, most CEs and SEs were married, at 64% (n=74) and 80% (n=344) respectively. Amongst these, nearly half of CEs and SEs had been accompanied by their spouses and only about 10% of their spouses were working in Saudi. The proportions of SEs and CEs who had children were 70.6% (n=344) and 58.1% (n=74) respectively.

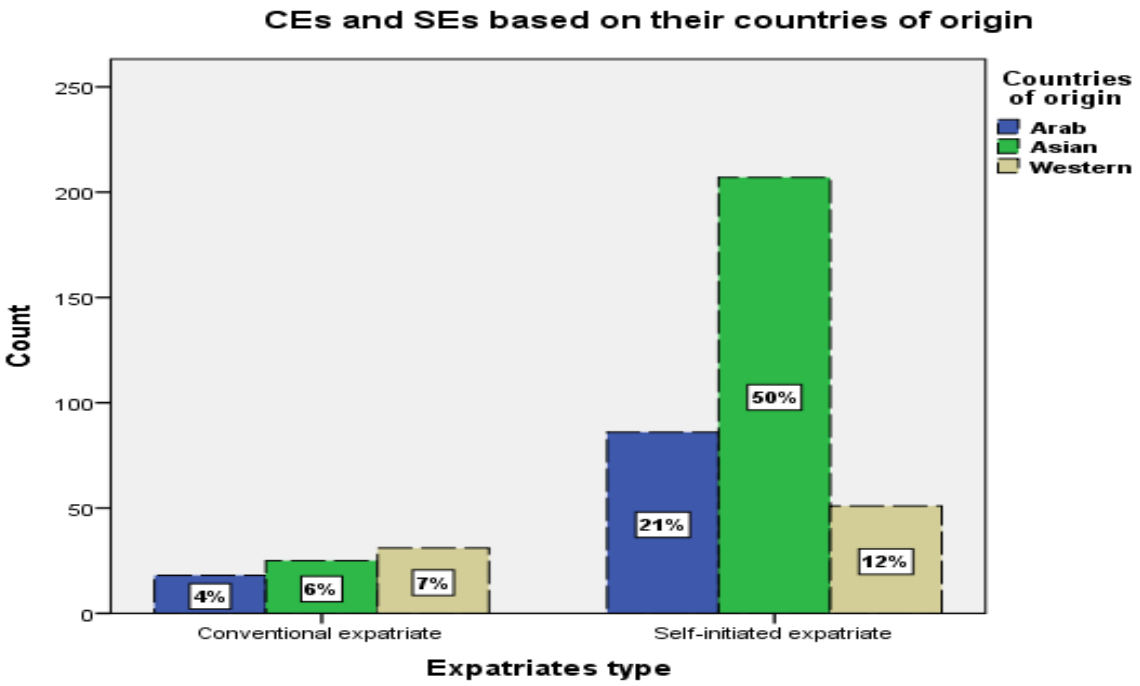
Table 5. 5 Participants based on nationality and expatriates type

Nationality * Expatriates type Crosstabulation

Count

		Expatriates type		
		Conventional expatriate	Self-initiated expatriate	Total
Nationality	Filipino	3	57	60
	Indian	7	89	96
	Egyptian	6	18	24
	Pakistani	9	44	53
	Sri Lankan	2	8	10
	British	17	29	46
	Malaysian	4	1	5
	Irish	1	2	3
	Jordanian	3	28	31
	South African	1	7	8
	Syrian	0	12	12
	American	5	2	7
	Lebanese	4	11	15
	Sudanese	1	6	7
	Turkish	0	1	1
	Australian	0	2	2
	Yemeni	2	4	6
	Swedish	2	0	2
	Italian	4	0	4
	Palestinian	0	5	5
	Bangladeshi	0	7	7
	Bahraini	2	0	2
	Tunisian	0	2	2
	Dutch	0	2	2
	German	0	4	4
	Canadian	0	3	3
	New Zealander	1	0	1
Total		74	344	418

Figure 5. 1 Participants based on their countries of origin



5.1.5 Level of Education

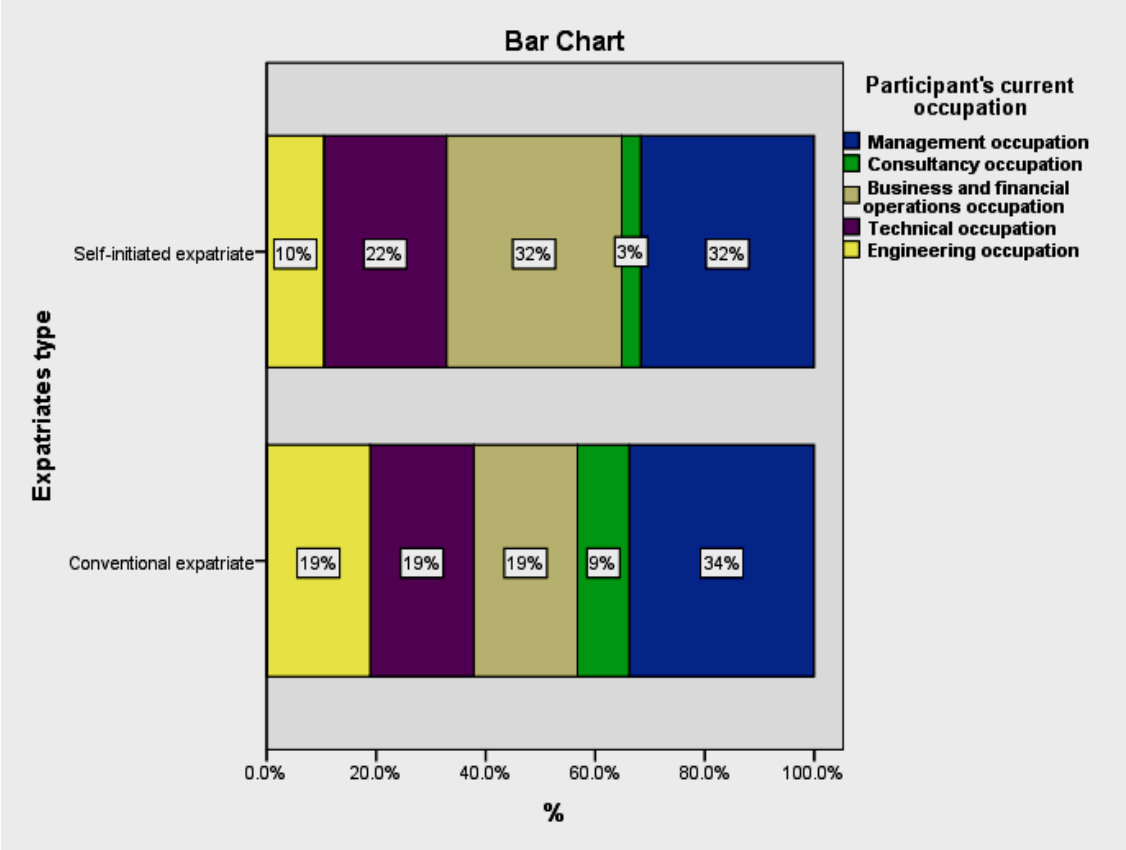
Participants' level of education varied between CEs and SEs. Findings in Table 5.1 show that most of the SEs in this study had a Bachelor degree (62%, n=344), while the remaining 28% had Masters degrees and 3% had a Doctoral degree. On the other hand, 47% (n=74) of CEs had Bachelor degrees, while the remaining 42% had Masters degrees and 3% had Doctoral degrees. CEs' level of education is represented at the postgraduate level to a greater extent than their SE counterparts. Another difference relates to SEs being represented across all education categories, starting from below high school, whereas the minimum level of education for CEs was some college training but no degree.

5.1.6 Current Occupation

CEs and SEs have some similarities and differences in terms of their current occupations. For example, the vast majority of the two cohorts have high representation within the management occupation (32%, n=344 and 34%, n=74) however, SEs are more representative in financial occupations than their CE

counterparts (32% and 19% respectively). On the other hand, CEs are more represented in the consultancy occupation more than SEs (9% and 3% respectively). Participants' current occupations are reported in Figure 5.2.

Figure 5. 2 Participants based on their current occupation



5.1.7 Level of Position

Examining the level of position among the two cohorts reveals that CEs are more represented in the higher and executive positions (41%, n=74) compared to SEs, who work more in middle management (30%, n=344) and, in technical jobs (31%, n=344). In contrast to the proportion of SEs in lower level positions (23%), only 7% of CEs work in these positions and none are at the supervisory and management trainee level. Figure 5.3 shows participants based on level of position. In order to understand the difference between the two cohorts in relation to the level of position, Figure 5.4 reveals the median differences between CEs and SEs according to the top, middle and lower management positions.

Figure 5. 3 Participants based on their level of position

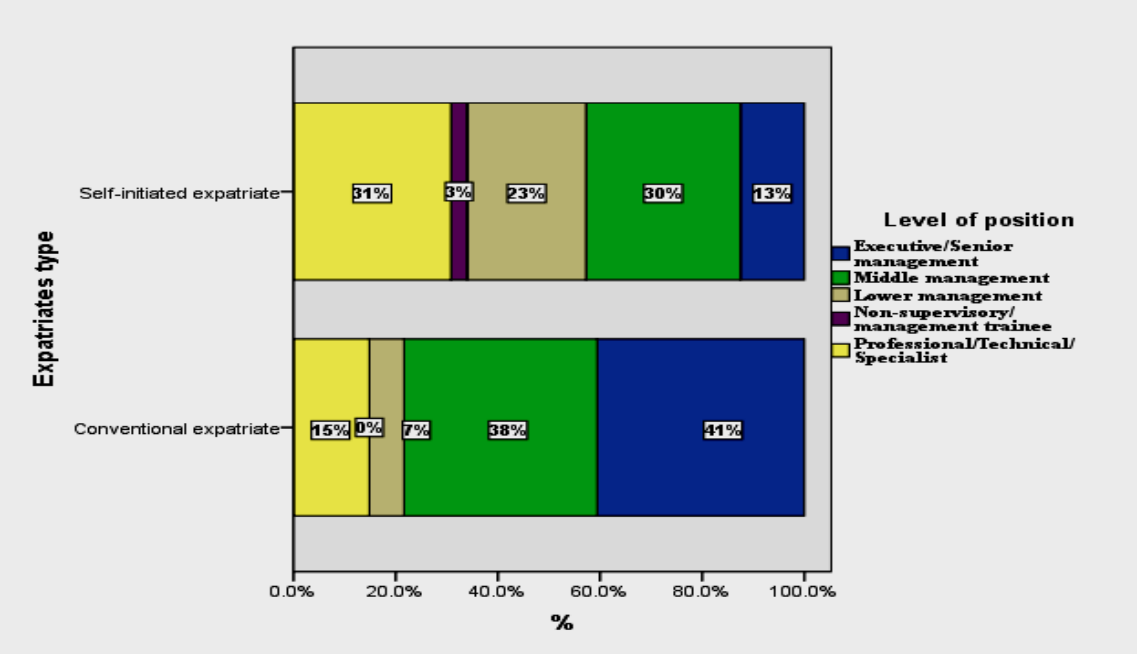
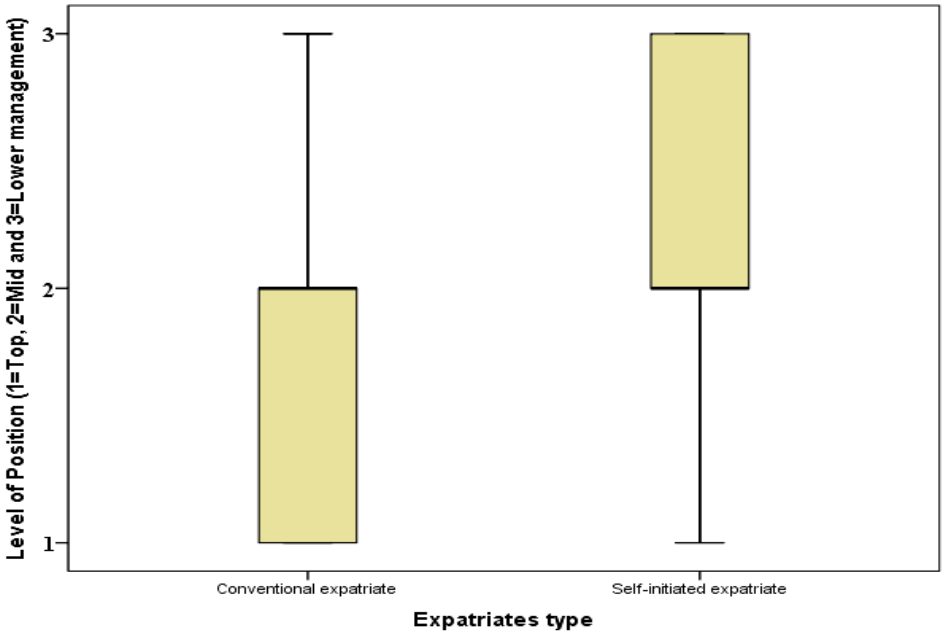


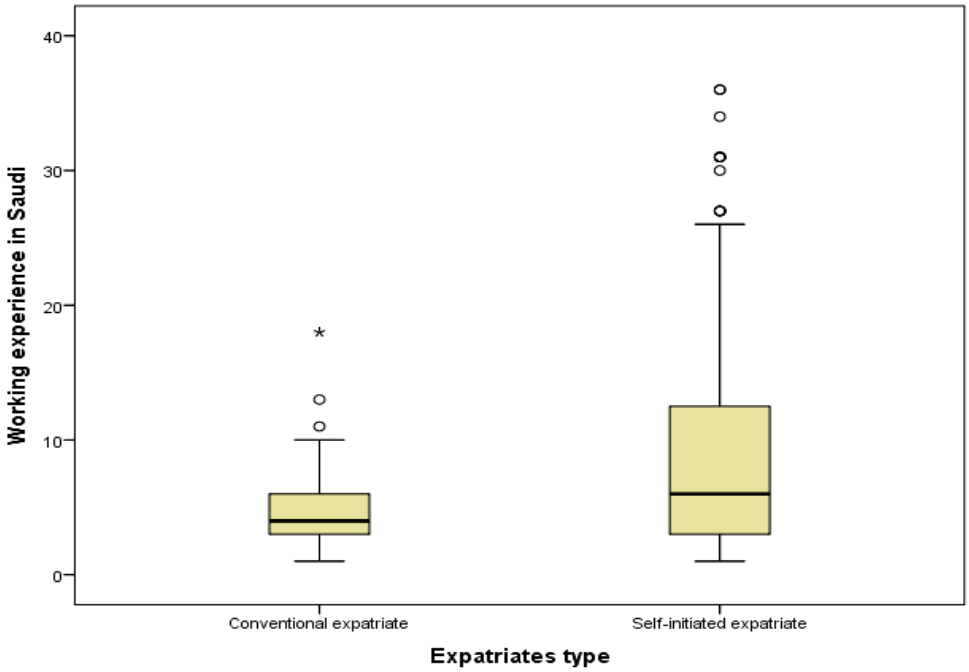
Figure 5. 4 Participants based on level of position (Top, Middle and Lower-management positions)



5.1.8 Working Experience in Saudi

The median number of years' working experience in Saudi Arabia for all participants in this study was 5 years (n=418). However, the median for SEs (6 years, n=344) is higher than for CEs (4 years, n=74). A Mann-Whitney U Test revealed significant difference in the working experience in Saudi of CEs (Md= 4, n=74) and SEs (Md= 6, n=344), U = 8979, $p < .001$. Figure 5.5 presents participants based on the total years of working experience in Saudi Arabia.

Figure 5. 5 Participants based on the total years of working experience in Saudi Arabia



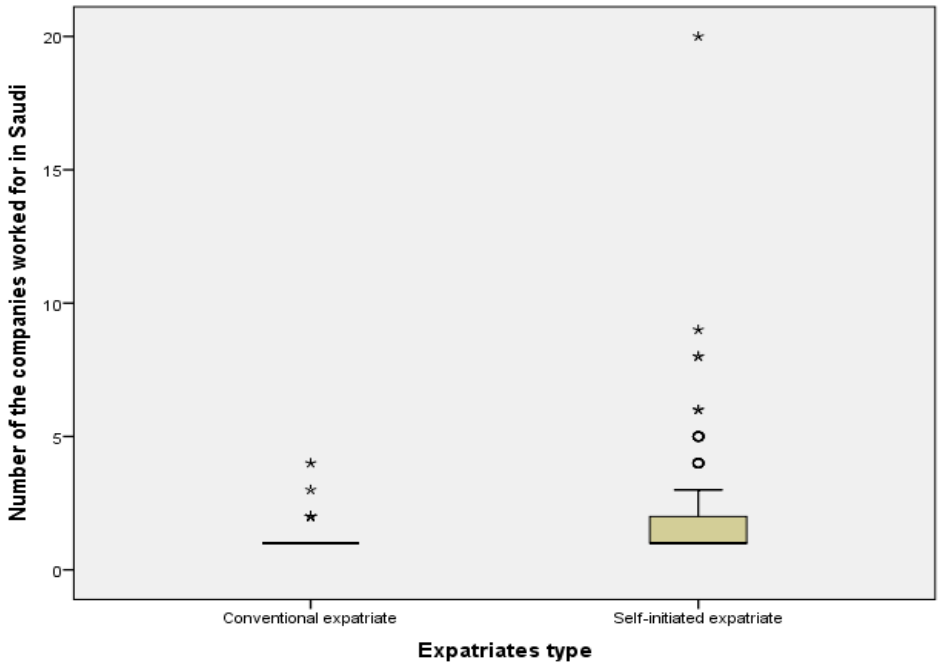
5.1.9 Working for the Same Company in Saudi Arabia

Findings also reveal a difference between CEs and SEs in terms of working for the same company since they arrived in Saudi. A total of 41% (n=344) of SEs had worked for more than one company compared to 12% (n=74) of CEs. A Chi-square test for independence (with Yates Continuity Correction) indicated a significant association between expatriate type (CE/SE) and working for more than one company, χ^2 (1, n= 418) = .23, $p< .001$.

5.1.10 Number of Companies Worked for in Saudi Arabia

The number of companies that individual participants worked for in Saudi varies significantly, from a single company to up to twenty companies. SEs moved between companies significantly more than their CE counterparts. For example, 27% of SEs worked for up to two companies (n= 344), compared to 10% (n= 74) of CEs. Additionally compared to SEs, who worked for up to twenty companies, CEs worked for four companies as a maximum and only 3% did so at this level. A Mann-Whitney U Test revealed a significant difference in the number of companies worked for in Saudi between CEs (Md= 1, n= 74) and SEs (Md= 1, n = 344), U= 8975, p> .001. Figure 5.6 shows participants based on the number of companies worked for in Saudi Arabia.

Figure 5. 6 Participants based on number of companies worked for in Saudi Arabia



5.1.11 Type of Industries

Results show that 20% (n= 344) of SEs worked in different industries in Saudi since their arrival and exhibit higher inter-industry movements compared to their CE counterparts. This is evident from the results that show only 5% (n= 74) of CE participants worked in different industries during their assignment in Saudi. A Chi-square test for independence (with Yates Continuity Correction) indicated a

significant association between expatriate type and working in different industries, χ^2 (1, n= 418) = .15, p = .005.

5.2 Previous Work-Related International Experiences

Results in Table 5.1 pertaining to previous work-related international experience indicated that CEs are more likely to engage in the international workforce than SEs, at 58% (n= 74) compared to 44% (n= 344). A Chi-square test for independence (with Yates Continuity Correction) indicated a significant association between expatriate type (CE/SE) and previous work-related international experience, χ^2=4.946 (1, n = 418), p = .036. In addition, CEs and SEs differ in terms of the number of international organisations that each cohort worked for before coming to Saudi. CEs seem to work in international organisations (MR=233, n=74) more than SEs (MR= 204, n= 344). A Mann-Whitney U Test revealed a significant difference in the number of international organisations worked for between CEs (Md= 1, n= 74) and SEs (Md= 0, n = 344), U= 11005, p= .046. Moreover, the number of countries that each cohort worked for before coming to Saudi is statistically significant and shows that CEs tend to work in more countries than their SE counterparts. A Mann-Whitney U Test revealed a significant difference in the number of countries worked for between CEs (Md= 1, n= 74) and SEs (Md= 0, n = 344), U= 10676, p= .017.

5.3 Previous General (Non-Work Related) International Travel Experience

The results in Table 5.1 indicate a difference between CEs and SEs in terms of their previous general (non-work related) international travel experience. Findings reveal that 64% (n= 344) of SEs have previous general non-work related international travel experience compared to 42% (n = 74) of CEs. A Chi-square test for independence indicated a significant association between expatriate type (CE/SE) and previous general non-work related international exposure, χ^2=12.008 (1, n = 418), p< .001. These results reveal a statistical difference between CEs and SEs and show that SEs have higher general non-work related international mobility than CEs. In addition, the findings reveal a difference between CEs and SEs in terms of their age when they first

had international exposure. SEs tend to have their first international exposure at an early age (younger than 10 years), with a figure of 35% (n= 344), compared to CEs, at 11% (n= 74). A Chi-square test for independence indicated a significant association between expatriate type (CE/SE) and age of first international exposure, χ^2=23.565 (4, n = 418) = 23.65, p< .001. Figure 5.7 presents participants according to the age of first international exposure.

The findings reveal no difference between CEs and SEs in terms of the number of countries visited for non-work related international travel experiences. However, findings from the analysis indicate that 58% of CEs never visited any country before coming to Saudi Arabia, compared to only 37% of SEs. For the purpose of this study, the number of countries has been grouped into four categories namely: 1 to 3, 4 to 6, 7 to 10 and 11 or more countries. Figures 5.8 and 5.9 present the findings of this analysis. The two cohorts differ in terms of the total number of years of previous non-work related international experiences. A Mann-Whitney U Test revealed a significant difference in the total number of previous non-work related international experiences for CEs (Md= 0, n= 74) and SEs (Md= 1, n = 344), U= 10356, p= .008. The findings indicate that SEs spend more time overseas for non-work related experience compared to CEs.

Figure 5. 7 Age of first international exposure

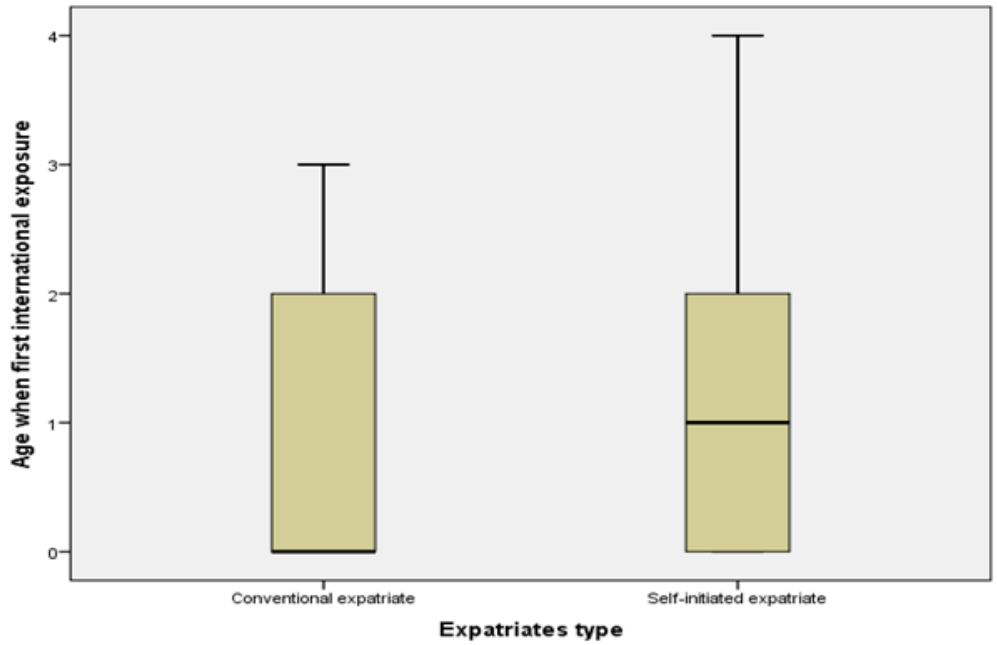


Figure 5. 8 CEs according to number of countries visited for non-work related international experiences

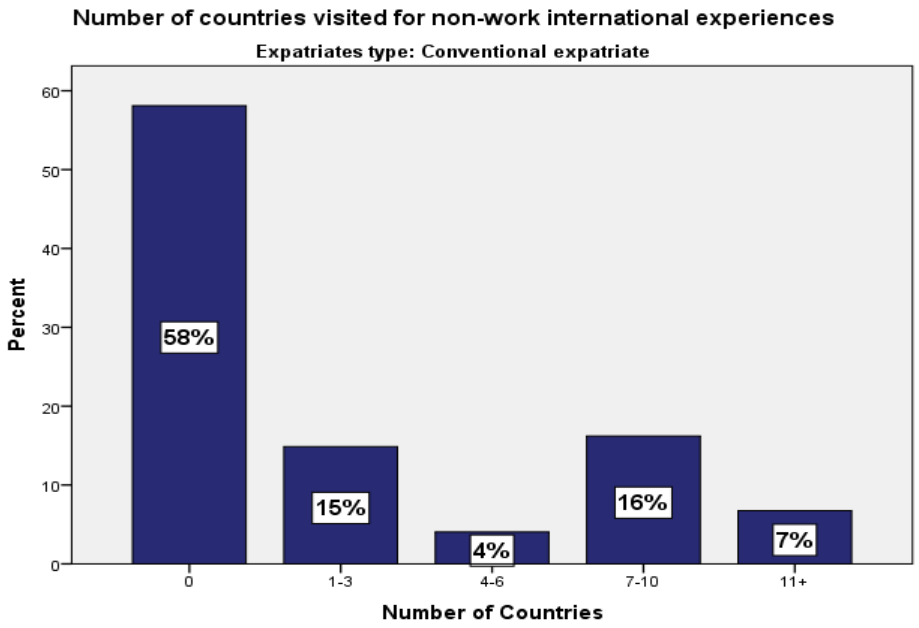
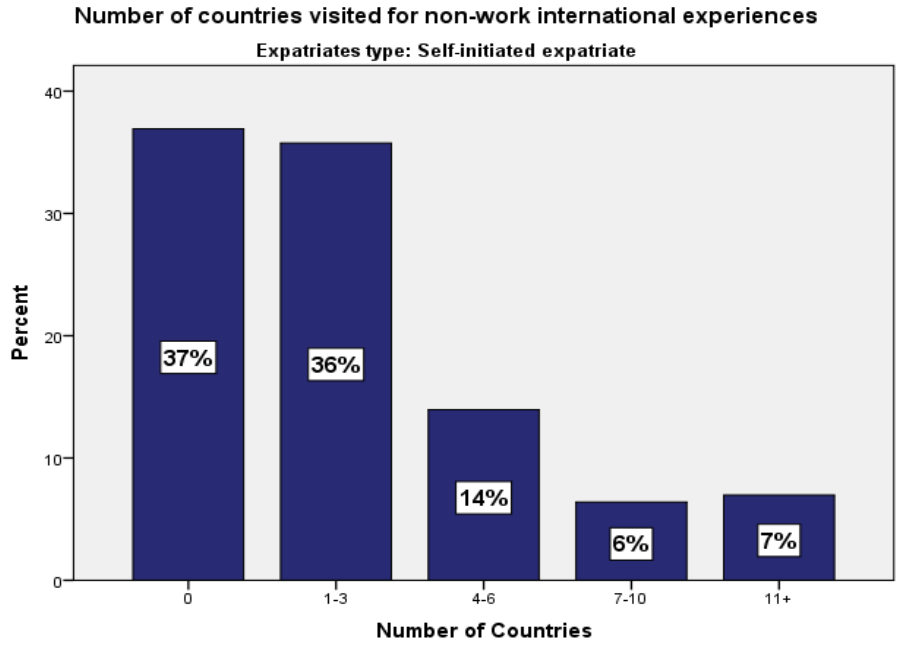


Figure 5. 9 SEs according to the number of countries visited for non-work international experiences (CEs)



5.4 Contextual Validation of the Motivational and Career Scales

5.4.1. Contextual Validation of the Motivational Measure

Prior to conducting PCA, the suitability of the data for factor analysis was assessed. Inspection of the correlation matrix in Table 5.7 indicated the presence of many coefficients of .3 and above (Pallant, 2010). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value of sampling adequacy (KMO) was .92, exceeding the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser, 1970; 1974) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS) (Bartlett, 1954) revealed statistical significance (p>.001), which supports the factorability of the correlation matrix. Table 5.6 shows the results from the KMO and BTS tests of sampling adequacy. Overall, six factors emerged from the Principal Component Analysis with eigenvalues exceeding 1, explaining 60.7%, 57.3%, 53.8%, 49%, 44% and 36.7% of the variance respectively. Appendix E shows the table of total variance explained using the extraction method and Principal Components Analysis. An inspection of the Scree Plot, presented in Appendix F, revealed a clear break after the seventh factor. Based on the Cattell's (1966) Scree Test, six factors were retained for further investigation. To aid in interpretation of these six factors, Kaiser's (1958) varimax rotation method was performed with the exclusion of absolute values lower than .50. The reason for using the rotation method in this analysis is to simplify and clarify the data structure (Costello and Osborne, 2005).

Table 5. 6 Sampling Adequacy Tests (Motivational Factors)

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.920
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	7998.803
	df	561
	Sig.	0.000***

* $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, ***$p<0.001$

Table 5. 7 Correlation Matrix (Motivational Factors)

No	Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1	Impact on career	1																	
2	Potential for skills development	0.683	1																
3	Professional challenge of working abroad	0.547	0.566	1															
4	To see the world	0.262	0.256	0.429	1														
5	Confidence in your ability to work/live abroad	0.25	0.264	0.462	0.434	1													
6	The job you were offered	0.105	0.144	0.104	0.277	0.157	1												
7	Having the relevant job skills	0.242	0.265	0.381	0.232	0.432	0.225	1											
8	Desire for adventure	0.239	0.243	0.444	0.535	0.364	0.25	0.267	1										
9	Desire to live in Saudi	0.177	0.165	0.156	0.315	0.195	0.297	0.202	0.295	1									
10	Personal financial impact	0.149	0.135	0.185	0.135	0.132	0.205	0.351	0.159	0.104	1								
11	Your ability to adapt to the Saudi context/culture	0.207	0.206	0.297	0.318	0.337	0.235	0.278	0.276	0.512	0.22	1							
12	Standard of living in Saudi	0.19	0.271	0.276	0.239	0.256	0.268	0.213	0.242	0.511	0.27	0.62	1						
13	Desire to live in host city/location	0.2	0.219	0.298	0.333	0.28	0.352	0.198	0.309	0.534	0.194	0.489	0.617	1					
14	The opportunity to improve your language skills	0.112	0.148	0.193	0.303	0.271	0.343	0.163	0.31	0.355	0.096	0.42	0.452	0.531	1				
15	Balance between work and social life	0.23	0.257	0.27	0.298	0.308	0.223	0.288	0.276	0.4	0.212	0.466	0.575	0.458	0.528	1			
16	Expected length of stay	0.267	0.286	0.296	0.265	0.308	0.327	0.237	0.34	0.329	0.253	0.439	0.546	0.492	0.542	0.623	1		
17	Saudi culture	0.132	0.187	0.238	0.323	0.229	0.228	0.198	0.291	0.521	0.176	0.569	0.611	0.564	0.521	0.596	0.573	1	
18	Successful previous experience in a foreign environment	0.169	0.143	0.199	0.206	0.228	0.153	0.161	0.203	0.251	0.152	0.295	0.295	0.389	0.378	0.332	0.24	0.366	1

Table 5.7 continue

No	Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34
19	Willingness of family/partner to move abroad	0.109	0.11	0.202	0.176	0.239	0.193	0.258	0.16	0.327	0.171	0.289	0.357	0.4	0.356	0.392	0.442	0.349	0.447	1															
20	Maintaining personal networks	0.275	0.357	0.343	0.318	0.312	0.226	0.268	0.306	0.381	0.169	0.393	0.483	0.483	0.477	0.51	0.54	0.472	0.341	0.468	1														
21	Maintaining work networks with the home country	0.222	0.297	0.293	0.318	0.295	0.251	0.288	0.304	0.373	0.202	0.394	0.453	0.514	0.481	0.447	0.483	0.472	0.325	0.44	0.817	1													
22	Superior career opportunities in Saudi	0.253	0.314	0.162	0.123	0.151	0.221	0.115	0.109	0.283	0.188	0.348	0.456	0.359	0.26	0.317	0.305	0.329	0.172	0.292	0.342	0.338	1												
23	Reputation of Saudi being open to foreigners	0.304	0.316	0.332	0.206	0.229	0.284	0.213	0.255	0.448	0.196	0.478	0.577	0.48	0.346	0.414	0.516	0.549	0.32	0.385	0.585	0.572	0.532	1											
24	Prestige of working in Saudi	0.127	0.173	0.244	0.23	0.244	0.148	0.161	0.214	0.464	0.116	0.457	0.583	0.494	0.45	0.481	0.481	0.608	0.273	0.36	0.577	0.528	0.411	0.653	1										
25	Opportunities to network in Saudi	0.296	0.368	0.295	0.184	0.194	0.214	0.245	0.293	0.473	0.149	0.422	0.528	0.442	0.379	0.456	0.522	0.493	0.285	0.368	0.636	0.557	0.464	0.651	0.653	1									
26	Pre-departure preparation	0.28	0.313	0.311	0.3	0.238	0.304	0.249	0.367	0.428	0.173	0.466	0.544	0.533	0.494	0.475	0.522	0.51	0.385	0.498	0.67	0.617	0.412	0.605	0.542	0.616	1								
27	Close ties to your country of origin with Saudi	0.237	0.304	0.251	0.228	0.243	0.233	0.265	0.265	0.426	0.212	0.399	0.493	0.425	0.268	0.386	0.436	0.477	0.259	0.334	0.464	0.454	0.388	0.515	0.485	0.605	0.507	1							
28	Reputation of Saudi/company in your area of work	0.234	0.285	0.266	0.211	0.223	0.191	0.327	0.204	0.309	0.254	0.322	0.494	0.416	0.222	0.377	0.4	0.398	0.249	0.349	0.437	0.414	0.389	0.533	0.473	0.545	0.416	0.571	1						
29	Better opportunities for your family (in terms of living, work etc)	-0.175	-0.211	-0.182	-0.186	-0.172	-0.272	-0.2	-0.152	-0.376	-0.211	-0.359	-0.534	-0.419	-0.334	-0.422	-0.455	-0.472	-0.126	-0.438	-0.445	-0.381	-0.349	-0.424	-0.436	-0.451	-0.435	-0.496	-0.414	1					
30	Poor employment situation at home	0.008	0.072	0.026	0.058	0.069	0.393	0.145	0.114	0.273	0.257	0.205	0.302	0.259	0.193	0.204	0.253	0.286	0.06	0.204	0.285	0.226	0.331	0.311	0.276	0.261	0.302	0.299	0.216	-0.319	1				
31	Ability to support your family better abroad	-0.074	-0.138	-0.155	-0.174	-0.15	-0.331	-0.225	-0.154	-0.331	-0.314	-0.418	-0.481	-0.434	-0.306	-0.36	-0.432	-0.402	-0.205	-0.42	-0.449	-0.442	-0.334	-0.44	-0.397	-0.388	-0.467	-0.455	-0.4	0.662	-0.465	1			
32	To be with/near loved person/s	0.156	0.273	0.201	0.184	0.212	0.291	0.166	0.17	0.435	0.161	0.417	0.524	0.438	0.341	0.403	0.432	0.442	0.3	0.42	0.558	0.536	0.392	0.544	0.457	0.522	0.566	0.506	0.473	-0.44	0.367	-0.466	1		
33	To distance yourself from a problem	0.02	0.111	0.039	0.134	0.072	0.301	0.121	0.209	0.304	0.199	0.23	0.266	0.305	0.22	0.159	0.249	0.312	0.137	0.235	0.293	0.242	0.322	0.329	0.28	0.294	0.345	0.362	0.251	-0.24	0.76	-0.381	0.409	1	
34	Possibility of gaining permanent residency in Saudi	0.084	0.125	0.152	0.209	0.173	0.268	0.144	0.205	0.394	0.151	0.407	0.427	0.423	0.316	0.335	0.3	0.428	0.274	0.378	0.404	0.382	0.351	0.415	0.423	0.424	0.426	0.345	0.286	-0.383	0.241	-0.357	0.604	0.318	1

Appendix G shows the components and the loading scores, which range from .516 to .847. The results from the rotation method (varimax) reveal higher loading in this analysis compared to the original study by Doherty *et al.* (2011), which scored loading between .401 and .840. The rotated solution revealed the presence of a simple structure (Kaiser, 1958), with all 6 factors showing the presence of 28 components with strong loadings and revealing a total of 9 components in Factor 1 referring to location motivational based on the original variables proposed by Doherty *et al.* (2011) to measure both location and host factors.

Table 5. 8 Motivational Factors (Contextual Validity) (PCA).

Factor	Component	Loading
(F1)	**Location**	
	1. Desire to live in Saudi	.629
	2. Saudi culture	.755
	3. Your ability to adapt to the	.691
	4. Standard of living in Saudi	.797
	5. Desire to live in host city/location	.598
	6. Balance between work and social life	.614
	Host	
	7. Expected length of stay	.551
	8. Reputation of Saudi being open to foreigners	.575
	9. Prestige of working in Saudi	.683
	10. Opportunities to network in Saudi	.559
	11. Close ties to your country of origin with Saudi	.513
(F2)	**Family and Personal relationships**	
	12. Successful previous experience in a foreign environment	.586
	13. Willingness of family/partner to move abroad	.683
	14. Maintaining personal networks	.698
	15. Maintaining work networks with the home country	.684
	16. Pre-departure preparation	.580
(F3)	**Career**	
	17. Professional challenge of working abroad	.619
	18. Impact on career	.781
	19. Potential for skills development	.812
(F4)	**Push**	
	20. Poor employment situation at home	.847
	21. To distance yourself from a problem	.837
	22. The job you were offered	.516
(F5)	**Foreign Experience**	
	23. To see the world	.726
	24. Confidence in your ability to work/live abroad	.551
	25. Desire for adventure	.688

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

In addition, 2 items, namely, 'Close ties of your country of origin with Saudi' and 'Opportunities to network in Saudi' were extracted from the factor proposed to measure Host-Home relations in the original study and moved to the host location factor in this analysis. Furthermore, another item, namely, 'Better opportunities for your family (in terms of living, work, etc…)' was also extracted from the family factor in the original measure and loaded negatively (-.593) in the host location factor in this analysis. On the other hand, three items were omitted from this analysis, namely, 'Possibility of gaining permanent residency in Saudi', 'Reputation of Saudi/company in your area of work' and 'Superior career opportunities in Saudi'.

Thus, the two new items, namely, 'Close ties of your country of origin with Saudi' and 'Opportunities to network in Saudi' can be interpreted and incorporated into the host location factor and were retained with the other items proposed to measure the host location motivational factors. However, the item 'Better opportunities for your family (in terms of living, work, etc…)' was omitted as it revealed a lower reliability score in Cronbach's coefficient alpha of α .863 compared to α .918 for the remaining 11 items proposed to test the host location motivational factor. As a result, 11 items were retained for the purpose of this analysis to measure the motivational factors related to host location. Appendix H presents the reliability test results for the host location motivational factor scale in this analysis.

Factor number 2 referring to family and personal relationships has 5 items. The first 4 refer to 'Willingness of family/partner to move abroad', 'Maintaining personal networks', 'Pre-departure preparation' and 'Successful previous experience in a foreign environment'. Additionally, the item 'Maintaining work networks with the home country' was extracted from the career factor in the original study by Doherty *et al.* (2011) and loaded in the personal relationships and family factor bundle in this study. The reliability test showed a higher score of α .828 for the five items, which indicated a stronger reliability than for the 4 items, which scored α .772; therefore, for the purpose of this analysis, the five items above were used to measure the personal relationships and family factor. Appendix I shows the reliability scores for the personal relationships and family scale.

Factor number 3 has three items relating to career motivational aspects based on the original study by Doherty *et al.* (2011), namely: 'Impact on career', 'Potential for skills development' and 'Professional challenge of working abroad'. The three items were tested for reliability and indicated a score of α .817. Therefore, the career factor in this analysis revealed a higher reliability using three items only, as opposed to the seven items in the original study by Doherty *et al.* (2011), which scored a lower reliability of α .77. Appendix J presents the reliability test results for the career motivational factor scale.

Factor number 4 in this analysis has three items that can be interpreted and incorporated into the push factor category namely: 'To distance yourself from a problem', 'Poor employment situation at home' and 'The job you were offered'. The original study by Doherty *et al.* (2011) used only the first two items to measure the push factor and scored a weak reliability of α .28; however, the third item, 'The job you were offered' was used to measure the career factor in their study. Yet, the item 'the job you were offered' in this study was the only item that was loaded negatively in the push factors, among other motivational pull items. Arguably, for a job to be classified as a positive pull factor, certain aspects should be considered including the financial impact associated with accepting that job and the opportunity to develop an individual's own career. However, these two items were omitted by the PCA in this study despite being used in the original career scale by Doherty *et al.* (2011). The reliability test results for the three items scored a coefficient alpha of .737 in this analysis whereas, for the two items 'To distance yourself from a problem' and 'Poor employment situation at home', reliability tests scored α .862. Although a higher reliability score was attained using only two items as a measure, many scholars from the social sciences, including Lazarova *et al.* (2014) and Costello and Osborne (2005), caution against relying on scales that have less than three items, considering them to be weak and unusable. Consequently, for the purpose of this analysis, the three items will be retained as a measure of the push factor. The reliability scores for the push factor scale are presented in Appendix K.

Factor number 5 in this analysis has three items related to foreign experience as a motivational factor, namely, 'To see the world', 'Confidence in your ability to work/live abroad' and 'Desire for adventure', which match three items out of five

from the original study by Doherty *et al.* (2011). The item related to 'The opportunity to improve your language skills', which was included in the original scale, was extracted from this analysis due to its lower loading score. In tests for reliability, the foreign experience factor revealed a coefficient alpha of .707 using only three items rather than five. Appendix L presents the reliability scores for the foreign experience motivational factor scale.

Finally Factor number 6 had only two items (originally related to the career motivational aspects), 'Having the relevant job skills' and 'Personal financial impact'. However, because two items cannot be used as a suitable measurement scale and especially where the factor analysis method is applied (Costello and Osborne, 2005), it was dropped. Therefore, the final motivational construct comprised five factors namely: host location, career, personal relationships and family, push and foreign experience, which included 25 components. Table 5.8 shows the contextually validated motivational factors construct that is used for the purpose of this study to test the motivational factors hypothesised earlier.

Following the contextual validation of the motivational measure, the five motivational scales presented in Table 5.8 were subjected to a reliability test. The term reliability refers to the internal consistency of a measurement in giving the same results when used in different attempts at measuring the same entity (Zikmund; Babin; Carr and Griffin, 2012). Cronbach's coefficient alpha remains the most applied estimate of a multiple-item scale's reliability and is used widely as a business research method (Peterson, 1994; Zikmund *et al.*, 2012). The scores of the motivational factors in this study range from α 0.707 to 0.918 (see Appendices H,I,J,K and L), which indicates acceptable reliability coefficient levels (Nunnally; Bernstein and Berge, 1967). The results of this study show higher reliability compared to the study of Doherty *et al.* (2011), which scored internal reliability as ranging from α 0.54 to 0.84. In addition, the motivational push factor in this study has a strong reliability of α 0.86, in contrast to Doherty *et al.* (2011) which indicated a weak reliability score of α 0.28. Having achieved acceptable reliability coefficient levels, the five motivational scales in Table 5.8 will be employed for the purpose of the analytical procedure to test the research hypotheses related to host location, family and relationships, career, push and foreign experience motivations among CEs and SEs.

5.4.2. Contextual Validation of the Career Orientations Inventory (COI)

Next, the principal components analysis will be conducted to investigate the reliability and validity of the career orientations inventory, which will be used to test the career orientations hypotheses. The suitability of the data for factor analysis was assessed. Inspection of the correlation matrix in Table 5.10 indicated the presence of many coefficients of .3 and above (Pallant, 2010). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value of sampling adequacy (KMO) was .81, exceeding the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser, 1970; 1974) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS) (Bartlett, 1954) revealed statistical significance (p>.001), which supports the factorability of the correlation matrix. Table 5.9 presents the results from the KMO and BTS tests.

Table 5. 9 Sampling Adequacy Tests (Career Anchors).

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.814
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	9554.715
	df	780
	Sig.	.000***

* $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, ***$p<0.001$

Table 5. 10 Correlation Matrix (Career Orientations)

No	Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
1	TF (1)	1																								
2	GM (2)	0.264	1																							
3	AI (3)	0.137	0.23	1																						
4	SS (5)	0.114	0.06	0.093	1																					
5	EC (4)	0.121	0.026	0.286	0.258	1																				
6	SD (7)	0.19	0.208	0.085	-0.061	0.167	1																			
7	PC (8)	0.389	0.286	0.082	0.129	0.175	0.342	1																		
8	LS (6)	0.156	0.114	0.151	-0.005	0.203	0.094	0.07	1																	
9	TF (9)	0.767	0.255	0.175	0.087	0.193	0.251	0.449	0.275	1																
10	GM (10)	0.264	0.998	0.232	0.062	0.025	0.207	0.29	0.11	0.255	1															
11	AI (11)	0.147	0.265	0.635	0.052	0.228	0.226	0.075	0.271	0.223	0.264	1														
12	SS (12)	0.16	-0.059	-0.023	0.284	0.072	0.107	0.127	0.107	0.165	-0.061	0.042	1													
13	EC (13)	0.062	-0.127	0.169	0.142	0.502	0.115	0.061	0.123	0.161	-0.127	0.147	0.248	1												
14	SD (14)	0.138	0.229	0.091	0.071	0.019	0.463	0.196	0.019	0.195	0.228	0.26	0.172	0.051	1											
15	PC (15)	0.348	0.144	0.04	0.149	0.088	0.214	0.436	0.17	0.414	0.147	0.101	0.221	0.121	0.182	1										
16	LS (16)	0.138	0.108	0.175	0.029	0.189	0.118	0.052	0.667	0.211	0.108	0.266	0.079	0.08	0.071	0.278	1									
17	TF (17)	0.681	0.152	0.129	0.116	0.096	0.187	0.326	0.158	0.766	0.151	0.142	0.173	0.131	0.113	0.33	0.139	1								
18	GM (21)	0.109	0.684	0.204	0.037	0.125	0.137	0.171	0.082	0.16	0.681	0.179	-0.102	-0.051	0.1	0.128	0.1	0.115	1							
19	AI (18)	0.156	0.101	0.437	0.083	0.261	0.096	-0.001	0.264	0.187	0.099	0.662	0.114	0.225	0.122	0.078	0.275	0.161	0.114	1						
20	SS (19)	0.085	0.005	0.089	0.495	0.261	0.084	0.17	0.143	0.086	0.012	0.088	0.295	0.194	0.027	0.193	0.258	0.152	0.023	0.191	1					
21	EC (20)	0.236	0.119	0.25	0.08	0.111	0.252	0.239	0.094	0.285	0.118	0.271	0.185	0.229	0.181	0.226	0.157	0.253	0.077	0.216	0.126	1				
22	SD (22)	0.162	0.108	-0.012	0.097	0.016	0.29	0.096	-0.022	0.126	0.106	0.057	0.16	0.121	0.265	0.16	0.005	0.167	0.017	0.043	-0.014	0.156	1			
23	PC (23)	0.354	0.186	0.103	0.089	0.053	0.247	0.446	0.148	0.368	0.185	0.161	0.189	0.139	0.198	0.672	0.189	0.321	0.133	0.122	0.093	0.325	0.205	1		
24	LS (24)	0.161	0.143	0.159	0.141	0.212	0.159	0.183	0.49	0.234	0.147	0.194	0.152	0.104	0.062	0.233	0.61	0.159	0.126	0.166	0.358	0.179	0.033	0.219	1	
25	TF (26)	0.274	0.072	0.044	0.142	0.12	0.04	0.114	0.164	0.307	0.073	0.018	0.231	0.166	0.006	0.2	0.133	0.405	0.131	0.05	0.087	0.076	0.157	0.156	0.09	1

Table 5.10 continue

No	Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
26	GM (30)	0.139	0.612	0.276	-0.02	0.094	0.107	0.156	0.138	0.163	0.609	0.264	-0.072	-0.039	0.068	0.05	0.132	0.028	0.678	0.244	-0.004	0.082	-0.029	0.088	0.146	0.13	1														
27	AI (31)	-0.023	0.04	0.278	-0.114	0.147	0.12	-0.008	0.107	0.08	0.033	0.377	-0.052	0.169	0.083	0.028	0.091	0.043	0.094	0.435	-0.138	0.172	0.056	0.011	-0.001	-0.015	0.171	1													
28	SS (37)	0.152	0.007	0.014	0.49	0.188	0.057	0.093	0.153	0.177	0.006	0.091	0.308	0.203	0.036	0.231	0.225	0.219	0	0.197	0.543	0.157	-0.075	0.158	0.296	0.122	0.011	-0.06	1												
29	EC (29)	0.212	0.039	0.267	0.038	0.197	0.244	0.259	0.102	0.282	0.037	0.204	0.11	0.231	0.158	0.215	0.084	0.256	0.078	0.229	0.06	0.55	0.141	0.303	0.108	0.17	0.151	0.188	0.102	1											
30	SD (28)	0.214	0.145	0.051	0.215	0.199	0.458	0.277	0.129	0.282	0.144	0.107	0.255	0.182	0.367	0.292	0.24	0.264	0.164	0.165	0.255	0.275	0.437	0.324	0.288	0.133	0.096	0.108	0.206	0.295	1										
31	PC (32)	0.336	0.221	0.139	0.051	0.111	0.29	0.486	0.196	0.402	0.225	0.142	0.114	0.099	0.207	0.47	0.219	0.298	0.229	0.141	0.204	0.257	0.102	0.605	0.256	0.138	0.274	0.058	0.196	0.323	0.339	1									
32	LS (27)	0.035	0.108	0.13	0.086	0.192	0.195	0.085	0.349	0.161	0.107	0.201	0.062	0.137	0.102	0.067	0.41	0.086	0.153	0.184	0.249	0.142	0.101	0.087	0.602	0.026	0.177	0.108	0.187	0.111	0.302	0.238	1								
33	TF (35)	0.487	0.111	0.08	0.126	0.134	0.195	0.324	0.155	0.519	0.111	0.128	0.059	0.173	0.166	0.299	0.105	0.509	0.029	0.085	0.027	0.293	0.25	0.379	0.174	0.306	0.041	0.023	0.146	0.227	0.296	0.324	0.077	1							
34	GM (36)	0.125	0.312	0.017	-0.004	0.037	0.134	0.078	0.186	0.16	0.309	0.161	0.105	0.115	0.092	0.138	0.175	0.112	0.298	0.16	-0.082	0.184	0.074	0.151	0.106	0.141	0.423	0.162	-0.043	0.139	0.165	0.16	0.143	0.059	1						
35	AI (38)	0.112	0.127	0.154	-0.026	0.214	0.146	0.055	0.227	0.174	0.127	0.248	0.044	0.242	0.08	0.04	0.169	0.084	0.136	0.284	-0.024	0.135	0.057	0.123	0.125	0.158	0.155	0.265	-0.025	0.131	0.093	0.156	0.062	0.093	0.357	1					
36	SS (25)	0.154	0.059	0.057	0.51	0.224	0.127	0.213	0.112	0.18	0.062	0.066	0.274	0.172	0.061	0.225	0.161	0.239	0.067	0.131	0.545	0.102	0.032	0.125	0.27	0.128	0.048	-0.085	0.547	0.122	0.312	0.202	0.182	0.208	0.029	-0.009	1				
37	EC (33)	0.068	0.011	0.165	0.255	0.651	0.203	0.197	0.152	0.196	0.009	0.157	0.188	0.577	0.084	0.095	0.069	0.152	0.112	0.271	0.276	0.124	0.1	0.045	0.165	0.174	0.084	0.084	0.199	0.192	0.313	0.098	0.154	0.128	0.077	0.239	0.273	1			
38	SD (34)	0.166	0.08	0.107	-0.003	0.052	0.268	0.038	0.155	0.238	0.074	0.235	0.191	0.234	0.259	0.154	0.077	0.186	0.032	0.244	-0.083	0.23	0.383	0.164	0.064	0.2	0.058	0.302	-0.029	0.273	0.206	0.049	0.06	0.238	0.236	0.407	0.018	0.202	1		
39	PC (40)	0.269	0.131	0.149	0.09	0.074	0.231	0.296	0.198	0.315	0.129	0.157	0.101	0.052	0.134	0.361	0.188	0.26	0.146	0.112	0.084	0.213	0.138	0.442	0.204	0.121	0.151	0.053	0.148	0.216	0.243	0.576	0.184	0.253	0.166	0.162	0.172	0.066	0.231	1	
40	LS (39)	0.063	-0.005	0.144	0.047	0.073	0.16	0.023	0.262	0.149	-0.007	0.194	0.09	0.137	0.022	0.069	0.277	0.135	0.013	0.174	0.184	0.189	0.011	0.101	0.337	0.135	0.159	0.161	0.205	0.239	0.179	0.157	0.453	0.115	0.124	0.05	0.177	0.052	0.17	0.162	1

Principal component analysis was also applied to the COI scale and ten factors emerged with eigenvalues exceeding 1, explaining 66%, 63%, 59.8%, 56%, 52%, 47.7%, 42.4%, 36%, 28.5% and 19.9% of the variance respectively. Appendix M shows the table of total variance explained using the extraction method and principal components analysis. An inspection of the Scree Plot presented in Appendix N, revealed a clear break after the eleventh factor. Based on the Cattell's (1966) Scree test, 10 factors were retained for further investigation. To aid in interpretation of these ten factors, Kaiser's (1958) varimax rotation method was performed with the exclusion of absolute values lower than .50. Appendix O revealed 39 components out of the original 40 items with loading scores ranging from .522 to .891. The following section will interpret the results from the varimax rotation method used to contextually validate Schein's COI scale with this Saudi Arabian sample of SEs and CEs.

Table 5. 11 Contextual Validity of (COI)

Principal Component Analysis (Career Anchors)

(Career Anchors)	Component	Loading
(F1)	**General Managerial Competence**	
1.	(MC1) I am most fulfilled in my work when I have been able to integrate and manage the efforts of others	.891
2.	(MC2) I dream of being in charge of a complex organisation and of making decisions that affect many people	.891
3.	(MC3) I will feel successful in my career only if I become a general manager in some organization	.842
4.	(MC4) Becoming a general manager is more attractive to me than becoming a senior functional manager in my current area of expertise	.802
(F2)	**Technical/Functional**	
1.	(TF1) I dream of being so good at what I do that my expert advice will be sought continually	.814
2.	(TF2) I will feel successful in my career only if I can develop my technical or functional skills to a very high level of competence	.815
3.	(TF3) Becoming a senior functional manager in my area of expertise is more attractive to me than becoming a general manager	.845
4.	(TF4) I am most fulfilled in my work when I have been able to use my special skills and talents	.644
(F3)	**Pure Challenge**	
5.	(PC1) I dream of a career in which I can solve problems or win in situations that are extremely challenging	.566
6.	(PC2) I will feel successful in my career only if I face and overcome very difficult challenges	.716
7.	(PC3) I have been most fulfilled in my career when I have solved seemingly unsolvable problems or won out over seemingly impossible odds	.798
8.	(PC4) I seek out work opportunities that strongly challenge my problem-solving and/or competitive skills	.763
9.	(PC5) Working on problems that are almost unsolvable is more important to me than achieving a high- level managerial position	.629
(F4)	**Security/Stability**	
10.	(SS1) Security and stability are more important to me than freedom and autonomy	.781
11.	(SS2) I would rather leave my organisation altogether than accept an assignment that would jeopardise my security in that organisation	.522

Table 5.11 Continue

Principal Component Analysis (Career Anchors)

(Career Anchors)	Component	Loading
	12. (SS3) I seek jobs in organisations that will give me a sense of security and stability	.742
	13. (SS4) I am most fulfilled in my work when I feel that I have complete financial and employment security	.756
	14. (SS5) I dream of having a career that will allow me to feel a sense of security and stability	.734
(F5)	**Lifestyle**	
	15. (LS1) I would rather leave my organisation than be put into a job that would compromise my ability to pursue personal and family concerns	.732
	16. (LS2) I dream of a career that will permit me to integrate my personal, family and work needs	.795
	17. (LS3) I feel successful in life only if I have been able to balance my personal, fam and career requirements	.778
	18. (LS4) Balancing the demands of my personal and professional life is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position	.708
(F6)	**Autonomy/Independence**	
	19. (AU1) I dream of having a career that will allow me the freedom to do a job my ov way and according to my own schedule	.726
	20. (AU2) I am most fulfilled in my work when I am completely free to define my own tasks, schedules, and procedures	.845
	21. (AU3) I will feel successful in my career only if I achieve complete autonomy and freedom	.767
	22. (AU4) The chance to do a job my own way, free of rules and constraints, is more important to me than security	.551
(F7)	**Service and Dedication to a Cause**	
	23. (SV1) I will feel successful in my career only if I have a feeling of having made a real contribution to the welfare of society	.675
	24. (SV2) I am most fulfilled in my career when I have been able to use my talents in the service of others	.715
	25. (SV3) Using my skills to make the world a better place in which to live and work more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position	.680
	26. (SV4) I dream of having a career that makes a real contribution to humanity and society	.622
(F8)	**Entrepreneurial**	
	27. (E1) I am always looking for ideas that would permit me to start my own enterprise	.825
	28. (E2) Building my own business is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position in someone else's organisation	.689
	29. (E3) I dream of starting up and building my own business	.839

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation, presented in Appendix O, revealed that Factor 1 in this analysis has four items: 'I am most fulfilled in my work when I have been able to integrate and manage the efforts of others', 'I dream of being in charge of a complex organisation and of making decisions that affect many people', 'I will feel successful in my career only if I become a general manager in some organisation' and 'Becoming a general manager is more attractive to me than becoming a senior functional manager in my current area of expertise'. The loading scores for these four items were .891, .891, .842 and .802 respectively. According to Schein's (1990) Career Anchors model, these four items are constructs that measure general managerial competence; however, the 'I would rather leave my organisation than accept a job that would take me away from the general managerial track' item was excluded from this analysis due to its low loading score. Thus, Cronbach's coefficient alpha was applied to the four items and revealed a strong reliability of α .904, compared to .795 in the study carried out by Danziger et al. (2008) using five items. Appendix P revealed the reliability score for these four items which will be retained as a measure for managerial competence.

Factor 2 in this analysis revealed four items including: 'I dream of being so good at what I do that my expert advice will be sought continually', 'I will feel successful in my career only if I can develop my technical or functional skills to a very high level of competence', 'Becoming a senior functional manager in my area of expertise is more attractive to me than becoming a general manager' and 'I am most fulfilled in my work when I have been able to use my special skills and talents'. The loading scores for these four items are .814, .815, .845 and .644 respectively. These four items are constructed using Schein's (1990) model as a scale for technical and functional competence, however, the 'I would rather leave my organisation than accept a rotational assignment that would take me out of my area of expertise' was excluded from this analysis due to its low loading score. Therefore, Cronbach's coefficient alpha was applied to the four items and revealed a strong reliability of α .870 compared to .601 in the study of Danziger et al. (2008), which also used four remaining items as the same item was omitted from their technical functional competence scale. Appendix Q shows the reliability test results for

technical/functional competence. Thus, the four items will be retained as a scale to measure technical/functional career orientations.

In addition, Appendix O shows that Factor 3 has five items: 'I dream of a career in which I can solve problems or win in situations that are extremely challenging', 'I will feel successful in my career only if I face and overcome very difficult challenges', 'I have been most fulfilled in my career when I have solved seemingly unsolvable problems or won out over seemingly impossible odds', 'I seek out work opportunities that strongly challenge my problem-solving and/or competitive skills' and 'Working on problems that are almost unsolvable is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position'. As indicated in Appendix O, the loading scores for the five items are .566, .716, .798, 763 and .629 respectively. According to Schein's (1990) career anchor model, these five items provide a scale for pure challenge and, therefore, all items were subjected to the reliability test. Cronbach's coefficient alpha was applied to the five items and revealed a strong reliability of α .821, compared to .779 in Danziger et al.'s (2008) study using five items. Appendix R shows the reliability test results. Thus, for the purpose of this study, the five items above will be retained to measure the pure challenge career orientations.

Furthermore, Appendix O revealed that Factor 4 in this analysis has five items, namely: 'Security and stability are more important to me than freedom and autonomy', 'I would rather leave my organisation altogether than accept an assignment that would jeopardise my security in that organisation', 'I seek jobs in organisations that will give me a sense of security and stability', 'I am most fulfilled in my work when I feel that I have complete financial and employment security' and 'I dream of having a career that will allow me to feel a sense of security and stability'. The loading scores for these five items are .781, .522, .742, .756 and .734 respectively. These five items collectively comprise the measure for the security and stability scale based on the original career anchors set out by Schein (1990), therefore, all items were subjected to the reliability test. Cronbach's coefficient alpha was applied to the five items and revealed a strong reliability of α .787; however, the reliability attained by Danziger et al. (2008) was α .821 and thus higher relative to this analysis. Appendix S revealed the reliability score for the five items related to security

and stability and, therefore, the five items will retained to measure security and stability career orientations.

In addition, Factor number 5 has four items: 'I would rather leave my organisation than be put into a job that would compromise my ability to pursue personal and family concerns', 'I dream of a career that will permit me to integrate my personal, family and work needs', 'I feel successful in life only if I have been able to balance my personal, family and career requirements' and 'Balancing the demands of my personal and professional life is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position'. The loading scores for these five items are .732, .795, .778 and .708 respectively. These four items are the measure for lifestyle based on the original career anchors developed by Schein (1990). However, item number 5 in the original study, 'I have always sought our work opportunities that minimise interference with my personal or family concerns,' ranked at factor number ten in this analysis. Factor ten will be investigated later in this chapter. As a result, Cronbach's coefficient alpha was applied to the four items and revealed a strong reliability of α .814, which is slightly higher than the reliability attained by Danziger et al. (2008) of α .811 for the five items. Appendix T shows the reliability scores for the four items related to lifestyle and, based on these figures, these four items will be retained to measure lifestyle career orientations.

Appendix O shows that Factor 6 has 4 items: 'I dream of having a career that will allow me the freedom to do a job my own way and according to my own schedule', 'I am most fulfilled in my work when I am completely free to define my own tasks, schedules, and procedures', 'I will feel successful in my career only if I achieve complete autonomy and freedom' and 'The chance to do a job my own way, free of rules and constraints, is more important to me than security'. The loading scores for these four items are .726, .845, .767 and .551 respectively. These four items are the measure for the Autonomy/Independence career anchor based on the original career anchors of Schein (1990). However, item number 5 in the original study, 'I would rather leave my organisation than accept a job that would reduce my autonomy and freedom' is loaded at factor number 9 in this analysis. Factor 9 will be investigated later in this chapter. Cronbach's coefficient alpha was applied to the four items and revealed a strong reliability of α .780, which is slightly higher than the reliability

attained by Danziger et al. (2008) of α .723 for the five items. Appendix U presents the reliability scores for the four items related to autonomy/independence and, based on these scores, these four items will be retained to measure the autonomy and independence career orientations among CEs and SEs.

Factor number 7 has four items: 'I will feel successful in my career only if I have a feeling of having made a real contribution to the welfare of society', 'I am most fulfilled in my career when I have been able to use my talents in the service of others', 'Using my skills to make the world a better place in which to live and work is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position' and 'I dream of having a career that makes a real contribution to humanity and society'. The loading scores for these four items are .675, .715, .680 and .622 respectively. These four items comprise the measure for the service/dedication to a cause factor based on the original career anchors of Schein (1990). The fifth item in the original scale ranked as the ninth factor of this analysis and this factor will be investigated later in this chapter. Cronbach's coefficient alpha was applied to the four items and revealed an accepted reliability of α .708; however, this is a lower score compared to that attained by Danziger et al. (2008), which indicated a reliability of α .786 for the five items. Appendix V shows the reliability scores for the service/dedication to a cause factor, which will be used as scale for the purpose of this study.

Factor 8 revealed 3 items: 'I am always looking for ideas that would permit me to start my own enterprise', 'Building my own business is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position in someone else's organisation' and 'I dream of starting up and building my own business'. The loading scores for these three items are .825, .689 and .839 respectively. These three items were constructed by Schein (1990) along with five other items to measure the Entrepreneurial and Creativity career anchor; however, in this analysis these three items clustered together for the Entrepreneurial career anchor alone. Therefore, Cronbach's coefficient alpha was applied to the three items and revealed a strong reliability of α .802, however, this is lower than the score of α .887 attained by Danziger et al. (2008). Appendix W shows the reliability test results for the Entrepreneurial career orientations. Based on these, the three items will be retained as a scale to measure 'Entrepreneurial career orientations'.

Factor 9, as per Appendix O, revealed three items, namely: 'I would rather leave my organisation than accept a job that would take me away from the general managerial path', 'I would rather leave my organisation than accept a job that would reduce my autonomy and freedom' and 'I would rather leave my organisation than accept an assignment that would undermine my ability to be of service to others'. The three items are proposed in Schein's (1990) model to measure three different career orientations including 'General Managerial Competence', 'Autonomy/Independence' and 'Service/Dedication to a Cause', however, they were extracted by this analysis and were loaded in Factor 9. Thus, Factor 9 in this analysis was eliminated because it does not represent a clear measure for any specific career anchor. Similarly, Danziger *et al.* (2008) found that items that starts with "I would rather leave …." revealed weak loadings in their study and they relate this problem to the wording of these items.

Finally, Factor 10 has three items namely: 'I am most fulfilled in my career when I have been able to build something that is entirely the result of my own ideas and efforts', 'I will feel successful in my career only if I have succeeded in creating or building something that is entirely my own product or idea' and 'I have always sought our work opportunities that minimise interference with my personal or family concerns'. The first two were among three other items on the Entrepreneurial scale to measure Creativity and Entrepreneurial in Schein's (1990) model. However, the third item belongs to the Lifestyle career anchor. The study of Danziger et al. (2008) revealed that Creativity and Entrepreneurial could be split into two career anchors, as shown in Table 4.2, as they tend to measure two distinct career orientations (Creativity or Entrepreneurial). Given that only two items appeared to measure the Creativity career anchor, these items were discarded because having less than three items is considered to render a measure weak and unreliable (Costello and Osborne, 2005; Lazarova *et al.*, 2014). Table 5.11 presents the contextually validated career orientations.

5.5 Inter-Group Analysis and Hypotheses Testing

Having contextually validated the two scales with the Saudi Arabian data, we now turn our attention to the second substantive aspect of the analysis, namely the inter-group analysis. We commence with the normality checks on the data set and then present the results of the logistic regression comparing the split samples.

5.5.1. Normality Checks

Assessing normality is an essential part of the data analysis in order for researchers to decide on the appropriate statistical test and to avoid any adverse consequences arising from the violation of the normality assumption (Jarque and Bera, 1987). Numerical statistical tests such as those of Shapiro and Wilk (1965), Kolmogorov (1933) and Smirnov (1948) should provide reliable results for assessing normality. The Shapiro and Wilk (1965) test is more appropriate for samples of less than 50 participants, though it can also be applied to large samples (Shapiro and Francia, 1972). The Kolmogorov-Smirnov score will be used for the purpose of this study as the sample size exceeds 50 participants. A non-significant result of greater than .05 indicates normality and hence allows the use of parametric tests including the T-Test, however, the non-parametric alternative, the Mann-Whitney U Test, should be used when the result indicates a significance value of less than .05 (Pallant, 2010). Normality testing was applied to the motivational factors as well as to the career anchor measures outlined above and these results are presented in Tables 5.12 and 5.13 below.

Table 5. 12 Normality Testing (Motivational Factors)

Scale of the motivational factor	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Normality assumed
	Statistic	df	Sig.	
Host Location	.034	418	.200	Yes
Family and Personal Relationships	.067	418	.000	No
Career	.058	418	.002	No
Push	.035	418	.200	Yes
Foreign Experience	.052	418	.009	No

Table 5. 13 Normality Testing (Career Anchors)

Scale of the career orientations	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Normality assumed
	Statistic	df	Sig.	
Managerial Competence	.141	418	.000	No
Technical/Functional Competence	.146	418	.000	No
Pure Challenge	.078	418	.000	No
Security and Stability	.078	418	.000	No
Lifestyle	.082	418	.000	No
Autonomy/Independence	.092	418	.000	No
Service/Dedication to a Cause	.042	418	.079	Yes
Entrepreneurial	.031	418	.200	Yes

5.5.2. Analytical Procedure

The hypotheses were tested by means of logistic regression analysis using a forward stepwise procedure and the Wald coefficient to determine the significance level. Firstly, dichotomous coding (Dummy Coding) was used label the expatriates' cohort types (CEs=0; SEs=1). Secondly, the control variables age, gender, marital status, position level, level of education, cultural background and previous work-related international experience were entered in block 1. Finally, the motivational factors/career orientations were entered in block 2, to test Hypotheses 1 through 6 on inter-group differences on motivations. This model building procedure of entering the controls in step 1 and the career orientations in block 2 was repeated to conduct the inter-group analysis and test Hypotheses 7 through 14 dealing with the dominant career orientations. A forward stepwise method was used for the purpose of this inter-cohort analysis because it is a useful and effective data analysis tool for adding variables simultaneously based on the importance of these added variables to the model of the study (Hosmer Jr; Lemeshow and Sturdivant, 2013). Prior to conducting the regression analysis, Table 5.14 presents the intercorrelations of all ordinal variables in this study using Spearman's rank (rho) correlation coefficient in order to explore the collinearity among the independent variables. According to Menard (2002), collinearity (also called multicollinearity, see for example, Alin, 2010) is a common problem in logistic regression which occurs when independent variables are highly correlated to one another. However, Table 5.14 indicates that collinearity is not an issue for this study because all correlations coefficients between predictor variables are below 0.7 (Dormann; Elith; Bacher; Buchmann; Carl; Carré; Marquéz; Gruber; Lafourcade and Leitão, 2013).

Table 5. 14 Correlations for All Ordinal Variables (n=418)

	Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1	Age of participant	1																
2	Previous work-related international experience	.233**	1															
3	Level of position	.184**	.185**	1														
4	Level of Education	.076	.255**	.269**	1													
5	Location - Host Pull Factors	.015	-.168**	-.098*	-.117*	1												
6	Family and Personal Relationships Pull Factors	-.065	.043	.036	-.026	.100*	1											
7	Career Pull Factors	-.128**	.038	.053	-.024	-.019	.014	1										
8	Push Factors	-.115*	-.243**	-.209**	-.104*	.103*	.036	-.011	1									
9	Foreign Experience Pull Factors	.017	.029	.080	.065	.035	.041	.010	.054	1								
10	Managerial Competence Career Orientations	-.047	.132**	.082	.137**	-.015	-.016	.189**	-.043	.032	1							
11	Technical-Functional Competence Career Orientations	-.130**	-.060	-.185**	-.127**	.098*	-.016	.151**	-.174**	-.041	.040	1						
12	Pure Challenge Career Orientations	.068	.134**	-.007	.044	.008	-.033	.123*	-.019	.026	-.022	.041	1					
13	Security and Stability Career Orientations	-.058	-.053	-.109*	-.063	.189**	.190**	.013	.274**	-.029	.028	-.012	.024	1				
14	Lifestyle Career Orientations	-.117*	-.011	-.066	-.044	-.042	.044	.050	-.013	.031	.010	.075	.020	.005	1			
15	Autonomy-Independence Career Orientations	.069	-.042	.041	.037	.021	.090	.053	-.013	.122*	-.067	.035	-.033	-.039	-.087	1		
16	Service-Dedication to a Cause Career Orientations	.022	-.018	-.050	-.041	.082	-.029	.089	-.060	.143**	-.045	.091	.051	.015	.031	.094	1	
17	Entrepreneurial Career Orientations	-.096	-.108*	-.089	-.002	-.035	.159**	.148**	.122*	-.035	.115*	-.030	-.037	-.001	-.018	.044	.030	1

**.Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*.Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

5.5.3. CEs' and SEs' motivational factors for working and living in Saudi Arabia

The logistic regression has seven control variables in the first block. The five motivational factors produced by the PCA and set out in Table 5.8 in page 118, namely, host location, push, family and personal relationships, career and foreign experience were entered in the second block. The Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients ($\chi^2 = 67.173$, $p<001$) indicates that the model performs well after adding one motivational factor using the forward stepwise (Wald) method. The Hosmer-Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test indicates that the model yielded a good fit ($\chi^2 = 5.679$, p=0.683). In addition, the model as a whole explained between 15% (Cox and Snell's R-square) and 25% (Nagelkerke R-square) of the variance with respect to expatriate type, namely wether CE or SE. It correctly classified 85% of cases, which indicates strong prediction value. Table 5.15 below presents these results.

Table 5. 15 Motivational Factors Model Test Results

Test	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients	67.173	11	.000
Hosmer and Lemeshow	5.679	8	.683

The logistic regression results presented in Table 5.16 indicate that four of the independent variables made a unique statistically significant contribution to the model. The logistic regression findings in Table 5.16 reveal that age (p=0.027), marital status (B=0.863, p=0.019) and position level (B=-2.582, p<0.001) made significant contributions to the model. On the other hand, none of the remaining control variables made any unique contribution. Moreover, among the five motivational factors, the push variable (B=0.492, *p*=0.002) emerged as the strongest predictor of the expatriate cohort type (CEs vs. SEs) after controlling for age, gender, marital status, position level, level of education, cultural background and previous work-related international experience. The positive results of B=0.492 and Odds Ratio (OR) of 1.64 at the 95% confidence interval (1.19, 2.24) reveals that push factors are more dominant motivational factors among SEs than CEs and therefore, hypothesis 1 in this study is supported.

Therefore, Table 5.17 reveals that none of the pull motivational factors, namely, host location, family and personal relationships, career and foreign experience, made any significant contribution to the model and, were not able to predict expatriate cohort type successfully. Therefore, the pull-related motivational factors explicated in hypotheses 2, 4, 5, and 6 were not supported. Table 5.18 presents a summary of the hypotheses testing results for motivational factors among CEs and SEs.

Table 5. 16 Logistic Regression predicting Motivational Factors among CEs and SEs with Control Variables

							95% C.I.for EXP(B)	
	B	**S.E.**	**Wald**	**df**	**Sig.**	**Exp(B)**	**Lower**	**Upper**
Age			**7.220**	**2**	**.027**			
Age (1)	.072	.452	.025	1	.874	1.074	.443	2.604
Age (2)	1.084	.560	3.740	1	.053	2.955	.986	8.862
Gender(1)	.766	.594	1.661	1	.197	2.150	.671	6.890
Marital Status(1)	**.863**	**.368**	**5.507**	**1**	**.019***	**2.371**	**1.153**	**4.877**
Cultural Background(1)	.181	.356	.259	1	.611	1.198	.597	2.405
Education			.932	2	.628			
Education (1)	.411	.583	.499	1	.480	1.509	.482	4.726
Education (2)	.153	.597	.066	1	.798	1.165	.362	3.751
Level of position			23.990	2	.000			
Level of position(1)	-1.155	.522	4.902	1	.027	.315	.113	.876
Level of position(2)	**-2.582**	**.579**	**19.893**	**1**	**.000*****	**.076**	**.024**	**.235**
Int. Work Exp.	.010	.026	.134	1	.714	1.010	.959	1.062
Push	**.492**	**.161**	**9.298**	**1**	**.002****	**1.636**	**1.192**	**2.244**
Constant	1.449	.735	3.888	1	.049	4.257		

* $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, ***$p<0.001$

Table 5. 17 Logistic Regression (Pull Motivational Factors not in the Model)

		Score	**df**	**Sig.**
Variables	Host Location	2.426	1	.119
	Family and personal relationships	.030	1	.864
	Career	2.739	1	.098
	Foreign experience	.224	1	.636
Overall Statistics		5.674	4	.225

Table 5. 18-Summary of hypotheses testing and results for the Motivational Factors among CEs and SEs

Hypotheses	*p* value	Results
H1: Push factors are more dominant motivational factors among SEs than CEs.	.002**	Supported; however, the findings from the logistic regression and the controlled variables shown in Table 5.16 reveal that participants' age (p=0.027), marital status (p=0.019) and position level ($p<0.001$) also made significant contributions to the model.
H2: SEs will be more highly motivated by the host location attractions available in Saudi Arabia than CEs.	.119	Not supported
H3: SEs will be more highly motivated by host-home relations than CEs.	(This hypothesis related to the host-home relations as a pull factor were omitted from the PCA during the contextual validation of the motivational measure due to the weak loading scores)	
H4: CEs will be more highly motivated by their careers than their SE counterparts.	.098	Not supported
H5: SEs will be more highly motivated by family and personal relationship benefits than their CE counterparts.	.864	Not supported
H6: SEs will be more highly motivated by the foreign experience than CEs.	.636	Not supported

* $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$

5.5.4. Career orientations among CEs and SEs

Similar to the motivational factors analysis above, logistic regression and a forward stepwise approach were used to test the hypotheses concerning the perceived career orientations among the CEs and SEs in our sample. The logistic regression analysis has seven controlled variables in the first block. Next, the eight career orientations produced by the PCA set out in Table 5.11 on pages 126 and 127, namely, general managerial competence, technical/functional competence, pure challenge, security/stability, lifestyle, autonomy/independence, service and dedication to a cause and entrepreneurialism, were entered in the second block. The Omnibus Test of Model Coefficients (χ^2 = 88.102, p<001) indicates that the model performs well after adding two career orientations in the second step using the forward stepwise (Wald) method. The third step analysis revealed the additional carer orientation of lifestyle; however, due to the model's lack of fit in the third step, these results were discarded. The Hosmer-Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test indicates that the model yielded a good fit (χ^2 = 8.531, p=0.383) in the second step analysis. In addition, the model as a whole explained between 19% (Cox and Snell's R-square) and 31% (Nagelkerke R-square) of the variance in terms of expatriate cohort type and correctly classified 86% of cases.

Table 5. 19 Career Orientations Model Test Results

Test	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients	88.102	12	.000
Hosmer and Lemeshow	8.531	8	.383

The logistic regression test findings in Table 5.20 indicate that only three of the independent variables made a unique statistically significant contribution to the model in the second step analysis. The logistic regression findings presented in Table 5.20 reveal that among the control variables, only position level (B=-2.693, p<0.001) made a significant contribution to the model, with none of the remaining controlled variables making any significant contribution. Moreover, of the eight career orientations, pure challenge (B=0.657, p<.001) and security and stability (B=0.414,

p=.005) are the strongest significant predictors of expatriate cohort type (CEs vs. SEs), after controlling for age, gender, marital status, position level, level of education, cultural background and previous work-related international experience. The positive results of the pure challenge (B=0.657) and Odds Ratio (OR) of 1.93 95% CI (1.5, 2.6) as well as security and stability (B=414) and Odds Ratio (OR) of 1.5 at the 95% confidence interval level reveal that these career orientations are more likely to be dominant among SEs than CEs. Therefore, these findings indicate support for hypothesis 13 and partial support for hypothesis 9 in this study. In addition, Table 5.21 reveals that none of the remaining career orientations namely, managerial competence (*p*=0.593), technical/functional competence (*p*=0.829), lifestyle (*p*=0.36), autonomy and independence (*p*=0.690), service and dedication to a cause (*p*=0.799) and entrepreneurialism (*p*=0.949), made any significant contribution to the model.

As results, the career orientations presented in Table 5.21 were not able to predict expatriate cohort type successfully. Therefore, the findings from the logistic regression analysis in this inter-cohort analysis reveal that hypotheses 7, 8, 10, 11 and 14 are not supported. In addition, the logistic regression results indicate that there was no significant difference between CEs and SEs in relation to the service and dedication to a cause career orientation; however, a further analysis was conducted to address hypothesis 12, which predicts that service and dedication to a cause will be a rare career orientation for both CEs and SEs. Median scores were used to rank all career orientations in order to reveal the importance of this career orientation relative to others. The findings shown in Tables 5.22 and 5.23 indicate that service and dedication to a cause is ranked fourth for CEs and seventh for SEs. These findings reveal that this is not a typical career orientations for the two cohorts and hence, Hypothesis 12 is therefore supported. Table 5.24 presents a summary of the hypotheses testing results produced by the logistic regression analysis.

Table 5. 20 Logistic Regression Predicting Career Orientations among CEs and SEs with Control Variables

							95% C.I.for EXP(B)	
		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	Lower	Upper
Step 1[a]	Age			5.553	2	.062			
	Age (1)	.065	.455	.021	1	.886	1.067	.438	2.604
	Age (2)	.965	.564	2.926	1	.087	2.624	.869	7.923
	Gender (1)	.691	.593	1.358	1	.244	1.996	.624	6.381
	Marital Status (1)	.776	.367	4.486	1	.034	2.174	1.060	4.459
	Cultural Background (1)	.127	.366	.120	1	.729	1.135	.554	2.325
	Education			1.781	2	.411			
	Education (1)	.640	.588	1.187	1	.276	1.897	.600	6.000
	Education (2)	.307	.600	.261	1	.609	1.359	.419	4.403
	Level of position			24.605	2	.000			
	Level of position (1)	-1.301	.525	6.133	1	.013	.272	.097	.762
	Level of position (2)	-2.693	.582	21.411	1	.000	.068	.022	.212
	Int. Work Exp.	-.031	.026	1.364	1	.243	.970	.921	1.021
	Pure Challenge	.658	.144	20.995	1	.000	1.932	1.458	2.560
	Constant	1.715	.742	5.346	1	.021	5.556		
Step 2[b]	Age			6.002	2	.050			
	Age (1)	-.023	.475	.002	1	.962	.978	.386	2.478
	Age (2)	.948	.589	2.593	1	.107	2.581	.814	8.183
	Gender (1)	.632	.598	1.114	1	.291	1.880	.582	6.077
	Marital Status (1)	.712	.375	3.604	1	.058	2.037	.977	4.248
	Cultural Background(1)	.256	.369	.482	1	.487	1.292	.627	2.665
	Education			1.673	2	.433			
	Education (1)	.676	.602	1.260	1	.262	1.966	.604	6.401
	Education (2)	.375	.614	.373	1	.541	1.455	.437	4.846
	Level of position			23.368	2	.000			
	Level of position (1)	-1.314	.540	5.932	1	.015	.269	.093	.774
	Level of position (2)	**-2.713**	**.602**	**20.340**	**1**	**.000*** **	**.066**	**.020**	**.216**
	Int. Work Exp.	-.022	.027	.711	1	.399	.978	.928	1.030
	Pure Challenge	**.657**	**.144**	**20.917**	**1**	**.000*** **	**1.929**	**1.456**	**2.557**
	Security and Stability	**.414**	**.147**	**7.877**	**1**	**.005** **	**1.512**	**1.133**	**2.018**
	Constant	1.725	.766	5.065	1	.024	5.611		

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Pure Challenge.

b. Variable(s) entered on step 2: Security and Stability.

* $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, ***$p<0.001$

Table 5. 21 Logistic Regression (Career Orientations not in the Model)

			Score	df	Sig.
Step 1	Variables	Managerial Competence	.574	1	.449
		Technical/Functional Competence	.240	1	.624
		Security and Stability	8.112	1	.004
		Lifestyle	4.764	1	.029
		Autonomy and Independence	.258	1	.611
		Service and Dedication To a Cause	.004	1	.947
		Entrepreneurial	.001	1	.971
	Overall Statistics		13.425	7	.062
Step 2	Variables	Managerial Competence	.286	1	.593
		Technical/Functional Competence	.046	1	.829
		Autonomy and Independence	.159	1	.690
		Service and Dedication To a Cause	.065	1	.799
		Entrepreneurial	.004	1	.949
	Overall Statistics		5.056	6	.537
Step 3		Lifestyle*	4 .553	1	.033

*Lifestyle was added by the regression analysis in the third step; however, the Hosmer-Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test was weak for the model (χ^2=21.388, p=0.006) and therefore, the step two results were found to be more reliable with two career orientations only.

Table 5. 22 Ranking of the Career Orientations among CEs using Median Scores

Career anchor	*Median*	Rank
Technical/Functional Competence	0.767	*1*
Autonomy and Independence	0.226	*2*
Managerial Competence	0.187	*3*
Service and Dedication to a Cause	0.136	*4*
Entrepreneurial	0.129	*5*
Lifestyle	-0.109	*6*
Security and Stability	-0.219	*7*
Pure Challenge	-0.52	*8*

Table 5. 23 Ranking of the Career Orientations among SEs using Median Scores

Career anchor	*Median*	Rank
Security and Stability	0.24	*1*
Technical/Functional Competence	0.172	*2*
Lifestyle	0.16	*3*
Pure Challenge	0.147	*4*
Autonomy and Independence	0.127	*5*
Managerial Competence	0.113	*6*
Service and Dedication to a Cause	0.028	*7*
Entrepreneurial	-0.015	*8*

Table 5. 24 Summary of Hypotheses Testing and Results for Career Orientations

Hypotheses	*P* value	Results
H7: The managerial competence career anchor is more likely to be dominant among CEs than SEs	.593	Not supported
H8: The technical/functional competence career anchor is more likely to be dominant among SEs than CEs	.829	Not supported
H9: The security and stability career anchor is likely to be rare among both SEs and CEs	.005**	Partly supported, as security and stability was found to be important career orientation among SEs; however, the findings from the logistic regression and controlled variables shown in Table 5.20 reveal that position level (p<0.001) also made significant contribution to the model.
H10: Entrepreneurial is likely to be a more dominant career orientation among SEs than CEs	.949	Not supported
H11: The autonomy and independence career orientation is more likely to be dominant among SEs than CEs	.690	Not supported.
H12: The service and dedication to a cause career orientation is likely to be rare among SEs and CEs	.799	Supported, based on the findings from the regression analysis and the median scores ranking presented in Tables 5.22 and 5.23.
H13: The pure challenge anchor is more likely to be a dominant career orientation among SEs than CEs	.001***	Supported, however, the findings from the logistic regression and the control variables shown in Table 6.20 reveal that position level (p<0.001) also made significant contribution to the model.
H14: Lifestyle is likely to be a dominant career orientation among both CEs and SEs	.033	Not supported, Lifestyle career orientations results were discarded due to model fit issues in the third step analysis

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, ***p<0.001

5.6 Conclusion

The first section of this chapter delivered a detailed analysis of the demographic information and international mobility patterns for CEs and SEs based on their work and non-work related mobility, early age international exposure and country of origin, as well as their patterns of mobility relating to intercompany/industry movements in the host country. This chapter builds on research into the patterns of international mobility among CEs and SEs through going beyond work-related mobility to include non-work related international mobility as a significant mobility aspect for those following an individual mobility orientation such as SEs. This chapter also explored CEs and SEs and their international mobility experience in relation to the underrepresented context of Saudi, despite its popularity as one of the top destinations in the world for mobile workers (Okruhlik and Conge, 1997). The findings show that CEs exhibit higher work-related mobility compared to SEs. The data also show that the majority of SEs (56%) travel internationally without prior international work-related experience, while 58% of CEs demonstrated international work-related mobility prior to their work in Saudi. These findings are different to those of Jokinen, Brewster and Suutari (2008) which revealed that a higher proportion of CEs in their study had had no previous international work-related experience compared to SEs 37%, (n=41) and 25.9%, (n=29) respectively. On the other hand, findings from Cerdin and Pargneux (2010) reveal no significant difference between the two cohorts in terms of the total average number of years of previous international experience. However, it should be noted that although the findings from this study reveal a difference between CEs and SEs in relation to length of previous international work-related experience, this difference is not statistically significant.

The findings reveal that SEs demonstrate greater non-work related mobility compared to CEs. These findings illustrate the importance of non-work related mobility to SEs and their unique international journey. The results indicate that non-work related international mobility is a very important factor, especially for those following individually managed career paths to the extent that they can use and manage this experience to create knowledge and human capital and to build their competencies. In addition, the absence of the organisational link, affiliation and support for SEs could

compel them to invest in, and benefit from, their non-work mobility in order to substitute for what they lack and so compete with expatriates who are following different international mobility patterns such as CEs.

The results also indicate that SEs tend to develop a high receptivity to international mobility during their childhood and young adulthood to a greater extent than CEs, who use the organisational channel for expatriation. These findings are similar to those of Tharenou (2003), which indicate that SEs tend to develop higher receptivity to working abroad while they are studying and prior to their departure. Furthermore, the number of intercompany/industry movements made is higher for SEs than CEs. The findings also reveal that SEs tend to move more between companies and across industries than CEs and, in some cases, the number of these movements can be as high as twenty in total. These results indicate that SEs tend to change their employers more frequently than CEs and to have greater opportunities to access wider and more varied labour markets freely without having to deal with the organisational restrictions that CEs tend to be bound by. These findings reveal that SEs have a greater circulation within the host country than CEs and show that SEs are a more complex cohort to manage and retain. Table 5.1 presents the outcomes of the analyses and the differences between CEs and SEs according to their personal information, work and non-work characteristics. The second part in the current chapter will analyse the measures that will be employed in this study to test its validity and reliability.

The second part of this chapter used the Saudi Arabian sample and provided contextual validation of the pull and push motivational factors adapted from the study of Doherty and her colleagues (2011). The final validated construct comprised five motivational factors, namely host location, career, personal relationships and family, push factors and foreign experience, which included 25 components out of the 34 proposed by Doherty *et al.* (2011). Moreover, the PCA revealed contextual support for Schein's (1990) career anchor model through the validation of the COI and also supported the applicability and reliability of the measure for a nine-anchor construct model as opposed to the original eight-anchor model. The findings from the PCA reveal that the Creativity and Entrepreneurial anchors split into two distinctive career anchors and indicate support for the use of the nine-anchor construct model proposed by Danziger *et al.* (2008) .

The third part of this chapter presented the inter-group analysis relating to the results of the motivation and career anchors hypothesis testing. The analytical procedure based on logistic regression analysis was also presented. Overall, three control variables, age, marital status and position level, made significant contributions to the motivational factors model. In addition, of the five motivational factors, only the push motivational factor was able to predict cohort type, CE or SE, and this was regardless of the effect of the control variables in the model. These results indicate that the negative motivational factor pushing expatriates to go abroad was the most effective distinguishing motivational element between CEs and SEs in this study. On the other hand, none of the four validated pull motivational factors, namely host location, career, family and relationships and foreign experience, were useful in this study to distinguish between the two cohorts.

These findings suggest that the pull motivational factors for working and living in Saudi Arabia may be different for CEs and SEs or may need to be re-examined in order to be used as measures of pull motivational factors among expatriates travelling to non-Western countries, such as the context of this study. Regarding the results for career orientations, position level is the only control variable that made a significant contribution to the career anchor model. Furthermore, of the eight career orientations, only pure challenge and security/stability were able to predict expatriate cohort type in this study, thus indicating partial support for the current literature presented in Chapter 2. For example, the literature suggests that the pure challenge career orientation is more typical among SEs than among their CE counterparts (Suutari and Taka, 2004; Cerdin and Pargneux, 2010) and this matches the results from this study.

On the other hand, the literature suggests that security and stability in not a typical career orientation among either CEs or SEs (Suutari and Taka, 2004; Cerdin and Pargneux, 2010; Lazarova *et al.*, 2014); however, the results from this analysis revealed that SEs are more anchored by security and stability than CEs. This could also be related to the context of this study having particular implications for the perceived career orientations of SEs, as CEs arguably access more organisational and sponsorship support. Another insight from the results is that the technical and functional competence orientation was found to be dominant among both CEs and

SEs, while the literature suggests that the technical competence is not typical in either cohort (Suutari and Taka, 2004; Cerdin and Pargneux, 2010; Lazarova *et al.*, 2014). The contrasting results in this study may be attributed to its focus on the banking sector and its particular location context, both of which attract expatriates based on their technical abilities, skills and specialities. This is evident from the hiring requirements circulated by SAMA, included in Appendices X and Y, which regulate the process of appointing directors and decision makers in the banking sector in Saudi Arabia.

Chapter 6: Discussion and Conclusion

The aim of this research was to explore the topic of self-initiated expatriates (SEs) and how this cohort can be distinguished from conventional expatriates (CEs) in terms of their motivational factors for working and living in Saudi Arabia, as well as the perceived career orientations of the two cohorts. This study thus has three main objectives. Firstly, to investigate the motivational factors of SEs and CEs in travelling to and living in Saudi Arabia. Secondly, it sought to identify the perceived career orientations of these two cohorts. The third objective was to unearth any host location factors that could influence expatriates' motives and/or their perceived career orientations in working and living in Saudi Arabia. To achieve these aims, 14 hypotheses were formulated, based on the expatriation literature presented in Chapter 2, in order to examine the particular motives and career orientations of the study's participants. An empirical field study was then conducted of 418 expatriates who are working in the banking sector in Saudi Arabia. This involved use of the questionnaire presented in Appendix B to collect data in relation to participants' demographic information, previous and current international experiences, motivational factors and perceived career orientations.

For the purpose of clarity, this chapter is sub-divided into five sections to present a discussion of the research analysis and the findings set out in Chapter 5 in the context of the enfolding literature presented earlier literature review. This will include a commentary on the extent to which these findings can be related to the relevant existing knowledge about CEs and SEs found in the expatriation literature presented in Chapter 2. Some practical and theoretical implications of this research will then be explored, followed by a delineation of the limitations of this study and suggestions for future research. Finally, the conclusions that may be drawn from this study will be presented.

6.1. CEs' and SEs' motivational factors for working And living in Saudi Arabia

This study first reviewed the literature relating to expatriates' motivational factors for going abroad using the lens of the dominant 'push/pull' factors, as proposed by Doherty *et al.* (2011), to formulate six hypotheses. First step analysis involved using PCA to contextually validate the eight motivational factors proposed by Doherty *et al.* (2011), and five factors were emerged by this analysis, namely; push, host location, career, family and relationships, and the foreign experience. Secondly, a logistic regression analysis was then applied to the five motivational factors while controlling for age, gender, marital status, position level, level of education, cultural background and previous work-related international experience. The results revealed that three control variables made significant contribution to the model namely; age, marital status and position level. In addition, the push factor was the strongest motivational factor among the five factors that were able to predict the expatriate cohort type to be either CE or SE. This chapter now drawing upon these findings related to the five motivational factors to explore the degree to which the findings from this research is compatible with existing knowledge as set out in Chapter 2.

6.1.1. Push Factors

The first hypothesis in this study, as set out in Chapter 2, predicted that SEs are more likely to be impelled by negative motives to go abroad, due to personal circumstances, professional barriers or disadvantages in their home country (Tharenou, 2010b; Myers, 2011; Cerdin, 2013). The findings from the control variables shown in Table 5.16 reveal that participant age, marital status and position level made significant contributions to the model. This study is the first to control for the effect of personal and professional variables on the push factors, despite indications from the expatriation literature presented in Chapter 2 of the role played by these variables as significant push factors for individuals moving abroad. Turning to the motivational factors, the findings from this inter-cohort study indicate support for this hypothesis, revealing that SEs are more likely to be pushed to work abroad by negative motives in comparison with their CE counterparts. Thus, given that the empirical findings from

the literature presented in Chapter 2 indicate that push factors such as the desire to escape personal, social or economic disadvantages in the home country are more prevalent among SEs than CEs (see for example, Cerdin, 2013), the findings from this study indicate support for the literature.

6.1.2. The pull motivational Factors

The second hypothesis relates to the host location attractions available in Saudi Arabia. It predicted that SEs would be more likely to be impelled by this pull motivational factor than CEs. The empirical findings from the literature in Chapter 2 suggested that SEs often target those particular host locations that appeal most to their own specific personal and professional circumstances, whereas CEs tend to have more limited options in relation to the assignment location (Osland, 1995; Scullion and Brewster, 2001; Stahl *et al.*, 2002; Thorn, 2009; Dickmann, 2012; Pinto *et al.*, 2012). The findings from this inter-cohort analysis suggest that the second hypothesis is not supported. These results indicate that the host location of this study does not appeal to either CEs or SEs as a significant motivational factor. Three items related to host location motivations were omitted during the contextual validation, namely, 'possibility of gaining permanent residency in Saudi', 'reputation of Saudi/company in your area of work' and 'superior career opportunities in Saudi'.

These motivational factors are found in the current literature to be popular pull motivational factors in attracting expatriates travelling to certain other host locations such as Europe as demonstrated by Dickmann (2012) and Doherty *et al.* (2011). These results indicate that the context of this study arguably has different host attractions that cannot be captured by these three pull motivational factors proposed earlier by Doherty *et al.* (2011) . In addition, items related to 'better opportunities for your family (in terms of living, work, etc…)' were extracted from the family factor in the original measure and loaded negatively (-.593) in the host location factor in this analysis. These findings indicate that items proposed to measure the host location attractions in the current literature are not performing well in the context of this particular study. A possible explanation for this could be that the host location motivational factors in Saudi Arabia are different and may appeal to individuals regardless of their expatriate cohort type. For example, the findings from the control

variables in Table 5.16 indicate that participants' age, marital status and position level were found to be significant predictors that contributed to the motivational factors model. These results suggest that the context of this study is more attractive to individuals who are young, married and working in senior positions. It seems, therefore, that these motivational factors, in the context of Saudi Arabia as the host location, tend to appeal to individuals differently according to their age, marital status and working position level regardless of their expatriate cohort type.

The third hypothesis predicted that CEs would be more likely to be motivated by career than their SE counterparts. The findings from the logistic regression in this study indicate that this hypothesis in not supported. Previous studies, including Brett and Stroh (1995), Stahl and Cerdin (2004), Doherty et al. (2011), Dickmann et al. (2008) and Thorn (2009) reveal that CEs are more influenced by career than SEs as a motivational factor for working abroad. However, the findings from this analysis revealed that Saudi Arabia is not attractive among expatriates from the career perspective. Alonso-Garbayo and Maben (2009) found that the majority of their participants moved from Saudi Arabia to work in the UK in order to seek greater professional skills development. This reflects the findings of Dickmann (2012) which suggest that London is the global centre for expatriate career development but it is not considered a motivational factor in Saudi Arabia. Similarly, Feldman and Thomas (1991) found that Saudi Arabia is career-limiting for American expatriates, particularly if they remain on their assignment there for too long and in the absence of integrated long-term career paths. Overall, career is not a pull motivational factor for CEs and SEs in this study.

Turning to the fourth hypothesis, the findings indicate no significant difference between CEs and SEs in relation to family and personal relationships as a motivational pull factor for working and living in Saudi Arabia. As a result, hypothesis 4 in this study is not supported. These findings are similar to those of Doherty *et al.* (2011) which point to the role of the family and personal relationships as motivational factors for expatriates going abroad. Based on the literature review presented in Chapter 2, expatriates' families play a vital role in relation to expatriates' career and life decisions. Previous research also indicates that the willingness of

spouses to move abroad and the support they provide during and after an international assignment can contribute to expatriates' career success, cross-cultural adjustment and overall wellbeing (Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985; Black and Stephens, 1989; Caligiuri *et al.*, 1998; Shaffer *et al.*, 2001; Ward *et al.*, 2001; Copeland and Norell, 2002; Haslberger and Brewster, 2008; Lazarova *et al.*, 2010). Overall, the findings from this analysis suggest that the family and personal relationship factor is not a dominant motivational factor for either CEs or SEs to work and live in Saudi Arabia.

Previous empirical results show that the location context of this study is believed to be challenging for expatriates and their families. Lauring and Selmer (2010) investigated female spouses' involvement in the career decisions of Danish assigned expatriates working in Saudi Arabia. Their findings reveal that the role of expatriates' spouses is highly important in terms of providing continuous motivation and support to their husbands, despite having very limited resources and options available to them in Saudi Arabia. Some findings suggest that expatriates' spouses in Saudi Arabia are confronted by many cultural and religious challenges, including restrictions on the freedom to practise their typical lifestyle and barriers to working and to networking with the surrounding local communities (Glasze, 2006; Lauring and Selmer, 2010). Therefore, the role of the family as a motivational factor is highly significant for expatriates, regardless of type, and especially within novel and culturally distant contexts such as Saudi Arabia.

The fifth hypothesis predicted that foreign experience would be more likely to be a dominant motivational factor among SEs than among CEs. In the literature surveyed in Chapter 2, foreign experience was found to be a significant pull factor for expatriation as it offered expatriates many and varied opportunities, such as adventure, career development, exploration, building of self-confidence and skills acquisition (Inkson and Myers, 2003; Mayrhofer *et al.*, 2008; Doherty *et al.*, 2011). The findings from this study reveal no statistical difference between CEs and SEs in terms of being motivated by the international experience factor to go abroad. These match the findings of Doherty *et al.* (2011) and indicate the equal importance of this factor for both cohorts.

Our inter-cohort analysis reveals interesting findings in relation to the various motivational factors among CEs and SEs for working and living in Saudi Arabia. Of note, none of the pull motivational factors in this study can be used to predict expatriate type successfully, when controlling for other biographical characteristics. The push motivational factors variable is the strongest predictor in this study between CEs and SEs and this holds with the controls entered in the model. These results provide some insights into the motivational factors among CEs and SEs. First, this study shows the importance of controlling for some of the personal and professional variables, especially when investigating the motivational factors among different expatriate cohort types. This kind of analysis allows for further examinations that go beyond the expatriate cohort type to include various personal and professional aspects. Secondly, this study also indicates that the pull motivational factors in the Saudi Arabian context are somewhat different from those suggested in the literature, according to the findings from the contextual validation and the subsequent logistic regression analysis.

Previous research suggests that CEs and SEs can be distinguished based on a number of different pull motivational factors such as career (see for example, Stahl and Cerdin, 2004; Dickmann *et al.*, 2008; Thorn, 2009; Doherty *et al.*, 2011), family and personal relationships (see for example, Richardson and McKenna, 2003; Vance and McNulty, 2014), host location (see, for example,Inkson and Myers, 2003), foreign experience (see for example, Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Froese, 2011). However, our inter-cohort analysis reveals that none of these motivational factors produce significant results in predicting either cohort. Three reasons may be suggested for these findings. First, this study reduces the ambiguity associated with the definition of SEs in the literature and hence the confusion between this cohort and other professional global migrants that has appeared in the literature in the past. Table 2.1 of the literature review in Chapter 2 illustrated some of the confusion related to the samples used by different empirical studies in this field, particularly regarding the use of mixed samples of expatriates and professional migrants. This study draws on samples of CEs and SEs who travel for employment purposes, having obtained work visas and job offers prior to their expatriation and all of whom work in the same industry, the combination of which helps to minimise the non-work related

motivational factors occurring in the two cohorts. Secondly, the control variables in this study also offer insights into the differences between participants in relation to their motivations regardless of expatriate cohort type. The findings from the logistic regression analysis reveal that age, marital status and position level made significant contributions to the motivational factors model in that young and married participants and those who are working in senior positions are more influenced by the motivational factors included in the model. Thirdly, the context of this study presents unique characteristics such as employment-based opportunities and economic attractions that could be perceived as pull motivational factors among individuals, regardless of their expatriate cohort type. Some empirical findings reveal that the majority of expatriates travelling to the Gulf Cooperation Council region, which includes Saudi Arabia, are attracted primarily by the job opportunities, free-tax environment and high salaries Scurry et al. (Scurry *et al.*, 2013b; Amblard *et al.*, 2015).

6.2. CE and SE Career Orientations

The second part of this discussion focuses on the career orientations among CEs and SEs based on the career anchors model presented in the literature review in Chapter 2 and the eight hypotheses tested for these two cohorts in this career domain area. It does so in the context of the enfolding literature that was used in developing the hypotheses in Chapter 2.

6.2.1. Managerial Competence

Hypothesis 7 predicts that the managerial competence career orientation is more likely to be dominant among CEs than SEs. Managerial competence often involves problem-solving behaviour, dealing with high uncertainty, making decisions in the context of incomplete information and empowering individuals to manage people and organisations (Schein, 1990). Based on the literature presented in Chapter 2, which reviews both the systematic and *ad hoc* international transfer processes (Mendenhall *et al.*, 1987; Harris and Brewster, 1999; Anderson, 2005), this career orientation is often found to be more compatible with assigned expatriates than SEs (Hays, 1971;

Boyacigiller, 1990; Harzing, 2001; Thomas, 2002). The findings from this study indicate no significant difference between CEs and SEs in relation to the managerial competence career orientation. On the other hand, the findings also reveal that the managerial competence orientation is ranked in third place for CEs and sixth for SEs. These results suggest that CEs (n= 74, MR=220) have greater oriented managerial competence than SEs (n = 344, MR=207); however, there is no significant difference between the two cohorts. The findings of Cerdin and Pargneux (2010) indicate that the coefficient for managerial competence ($\beta = 0.264$, $p<.10$) in their study was significant; however, in this study CEs and SEs are found to be similar in relation to the managerial competence career orientation.

These results on this front could be attributed to various factors. First, banks in Saudi Arabia have often attracted expatriates from around the world to work in technical jobs (Mellahi, 2007) rather than to do jobs that require decision-making or competences relating to the management of people or the management of the organisation. According to the Banking Control Law issued by SAMA, highlighted in Chapter 4, banks in Saudi Arabia must comply with very strict regulations in selecting and hiring managers and executives or to fill other roles that involve decision-making in the banks' head offices, overseas branches or subsidiaries. Some of these regulations require the banks to notify SAMA in writing and to complete extensive paperwork prior to hiring such employees. For illustration purposes, Appendices X and Y present some of the hiring regulations implemented by SAMA. In addition, the majority of the participants in this study were working in technical and highly specialised occupations, as set out in the analysis presented in Figure 5.2 page (108) in Chapter 5. This is not to say that an individual's position or job emphatically demonstrates his or her career orientation. Nevertheless, according to Schein (1990), a career orientation entails finding a fit between a person's career anchors and his/her job; therefore, a person's job is a very important element of his/her career orientation.

6.2.2. Technical/Functional Competence

Hypothesis 8 in this study predicted that SEs would be more likely to be anchored by the technical competence career orientation than CEs, according to the nature of their

international roles and job responsibilities as presented in Chapter 2. The findings reveal no difference between the two cohorts; however, the results from the median score ranking of the career anchors presented in Tables 5.22 and 5.23 in page 144 indicated that the technical and functional competence orientation is ranked first for CEs and in second place for SEs. Contrary to these results and to the findings of the literature presented in Chapter 2, which suggest that this career anchor is unpopular among expatriates, both CEs and SEs in this study are somewhat anchored by the technical competence career orientation but these results are not statistically significant.

One explanation for technical competence being a popular career orientation among expatriates in this study is the focus on the single profession of the banking sector, while most studies that have examined career orientations among expatriates have used participants from different professions and different sectors, including Suutari and Taka (2004), Cerdin and Pargneux (2010) and Lazarova *et al.* (2014). On the other hand, studies that target specific professions have found that technical and functional competence is one of the major career orientations among participants working in technical fields including management information systems (MIS) (Igbaria et al. (1991) and engineering Wong (2004). Overall, the findings from this study indicate that there is no statistically significant difference between CEs and SEs in relation to the technical competence career orientation. However, the findings from the median score ranking reveal that this career orientation is ranked among the top career orientations for the two cohorts.

6.2.3. Security and Stability

Turning to hypothesis 9, this study predictsed that security and stability would be a rare career orientation among CEs and SEs based on the findings from previous research which points to the relative unimportance of this career anchor among expatriates (Marshall and Bonner, 2003; Suutari and Taka, 2004; Cerdin and Pargneux, 2010). In addition, the findings of Lazarova *et al.* (2014) reveal that security and stability is the only career anchor that indicates a significant (negative) correlation with the openness to mobility factor. However, the findings from this

study are somewhat surprising in showing SEs to be more anchored by security and stability than CEs and, furthermore, that this factor ranks first for SEs. In addition, the control variables analysis in this study indicates that position level is the only control variable that has an effect on the model in that CEs in senior positions were found to be more anchored by the security and stability career orientation than their SE counterparts working at similar job levels.

The context of this study may explain security and stability being a major career orientation among SEs travelling to, and living, in Saudi Arabia. Chapter 3 indicated that expatriates working in Saudi Arabia are typically limited to short working visas and this could put pressure on SEs to have a regular employment arrangement similar to CEs (Bhuian *et al.*, 2001). In addition, there are other issues to consider related to the Saudi context, for example the unenforceability of labour law (Al-Meer, 1989). Although the relevant legislation was amended in 2006, it is still at an early stage of development and suffers from issues such as the trading of working visas on the black market, the absence of a health insurance scheme for expatriates as well as a lack of working and occupational health and safety regulation. The Ministry of Labour in Saudi Arabia revealed in 2011 that many dispute cases involving expatriates and their employers are still pending, due to the high numbers of foreign workers in the country (Gazette, 2011). It is evident from the expatriation literature that SEs are more exposed to local restrictions and host country disadvantages than CEs (Vance, 2005). This is because SEs lack the external organisational support enjoyed by CEs as they are travelling on their own and therefore tend to seek more security and stability than CEs (Vance, 2005; Cerdin and Pargneux, 2010).

6.2.4. Entrepreneurialism

Our tenth hypothesis in this study predicted that SEs would be more likely to be anchored by the entrepreneurialism career orientation than their CE counterparts. The literature review presented in Chapter 2 suggests that SEs exhibit a greater propensity to identify entrepreneurial opportunities, to take initiative and to be independent (Low and MacMillan, 1988; Brandstätter, 1997). However, the findings from this study show no difference between CEs and SEs in relation to exhibiting entrepreneurial

career orientation. These findings are consistent with the results of Cerdin and Pargneux (2010), which indicate that CEs and SEs are found to be similar in relation to the entrepreneurial and creativity career orientations. However, the creativity career orientation was omitted based on the low reliability score achieved in the PCA. Moreover, the results from this study match the results of Danziger and Valency (2006), which indicate that the entrepreneurialism career anchor is not common among salaried employees. Thus, the entrepreneurial career orientation is not dominant among either of the CEs or SEs cohorts in our study.

6.2.5. Autonomy and Independence

The eleventh hypothesis suggested that SEs will be more likely to be anchored by autonomy and independence than CEs. This is based on the argument that SEs have more independence and greater control over their career choices (Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Lee, 2005) than company backed assigned expatriates. Yet the findings in Chapter 5 reveal no significant difference between CEs and SEs in relation to this anchor. Moreover, contrary to the hypothesis, these findings suggest that CEs are more oriented by autonomy and independence than SEs. Similar results were found by Cerdin and Pargneux (2010) and the findings of Suutari and Taka (2004) also suggest that autonomy and independence is not a common anchor among CEs. Therefore, the autonomy and independence career anchor is not common among either CEs or SEs.

6.2.6. Service and Dedication to a Cause

Hypothesis 12 predicted that service and dedication to a cause will not be a common career orientation among expatriates, based on the literature review presented in Chapter 2. The results presented in Chapter 5 reveal that ‘service and dedication to a cause’ is not typical among CEs and SEs, which is in line with the proposed hypothesis. These findings are also in agreement with previous empirical results of Suutari and Taka (2004) and Cerdin and Pargneux (2010). In this domain area, it has been argued by Fee et al. (2013) that the expatriation experience is fundamentally a

selfish one based on the pursuit of tangible personal benefits in placements and, in this respect, it stands in stark contrast to those voluntary international assignments that involve humanitarian and volunteering initiatives.

6.2.7. Pure Challenge

In line with the expectations underlying hypothesis 13, the findings reveal that pure challenge is a more dominant career orientation among SEs than CEs. Similarly, the findings of Cerdin and Pargneux (2010) reveal that SEs are more anchored by the pure challenge career orientation than CEs; however, the difference between the two cohorts was not significant in their study. The ranking in this study also indicates that pure challenge is the least typical career anchor for CEs. Moreover, the results of Suutari and Taka (2004) indicated that pure challenge is ranked second for managers with global careers. These results suggest that pure challenge is a more typical career orientation among SEs than CEs. Thus unlike CEs, SEs are more likely to search for work opportunities that require daily competitions, working on an impossible obstacles and winning out over tough rivals (Schein, 1990). This reflects the extent to which the international assignment is a challenging experience for SEs and, particularly in the absence of any corporate sponsorship similar to CEs, they need to be equipped to be self-reliant to compete against international rivals and overcome considerable obstacles in the process of expatriation.

6.2.8. Lifestyle

The fourteenth and final hypothesis predicted that the lifestyle career orientation is likely to be typical among both CEs and SEs, which accords with many empirical studies in this field including Cerdin and Pargneux (2008; 2010), Marshall and Bonner (2003) and Suutari and Taka (2004). The findings from the third step in the logistic regression indicate a significant statistical difference between the two cohorts and reveal partial support for lifestyle being a dominant career orientation among SEs. However, the goodness-of-fit test was weak for the model in the third attempt. This could be related to the effect of the control variables in the model, especially due to

the significant contribution of position level to the model in accounting for differences between the cohorts. Therefore, lifestyle is ranked third among SEs and sixth among CEs as a career orientation. Notably, in the study conducted by Cerdin and Pargneux (2010), lifestyle was the most represented career orientation among both CEs and SEs; the current study differs in terms of the low ranking of this career orientation among the two cohorts.

According to Schein (1990), people who are anchored by a lifestyle orientation often try to find a way to integrate their personal, family and career needs. However, as shown in Chapter 3, expatriates' life experiences in Saudi Arabia differ from those in most of the host contexts presented in Chapter 2 whereby expatriates have been seen to pursue a variety of lifestyles (Marshall and Bonner, 2003; Suutari and Taka, 2004; Cerdin and Pargneux, 2008; 2010). For example, Glasze's (2006) study showed that expatriates in Saudi Arabia have limited lifestyle options due to certain cultural and religious restrictions and that most Western workers tend to live inside closed compounds in order to practise their typical lifestyles to a degree. Therefore, arguably lifestyle is not a typical career orientation among CEs and SEs as a result of the limited lifestyle offerings in this particular context.

The experience of living in a compound in Saudi Arabia often forces expatriate families to restructure their roles and lifestyles in order to survive this new way of living. For example, Lauring and Selmer (2010) found that, despite spouses having very limited options for working and networking, the compound living experience provides them with opportunities to support their partners, enjoy a more relaxed lifestyle and be close to their children. Nevertheless, some spouses were uncomfortable about being restricted and unemployed and ultimately felt unproductive (Lauring and Selmer, 2010).

6.3. Conceptual and Empirical Contributions

This thesis makes a significant conceptual and empirical contribution to the literature on expatriates' motivations and career orientations. Firstly, it draws on the literature review presented in Chapter 2 and illustrated in Table 2.1 to suggest a clear definition

for SEs based on the decision tree model proposed by (Andresen *et al.*, 2014) and the four criteria set out by Cerdin and Selmer (2014). This definition helps to bring the focus onto self-initiated expatriates who are hired in the host country prior to their expatriation thus eliminating independent travellers and adventurists as well as other migrants who are attracted by non-work related motivational factors as cohorts that may be compared in inter-group studies. Data from meaningfully comparable cohorts is critical. This research focuses on SEs who are attracted for work purposes and hired prior to their arrival in the host country and, therefore, their motivational factors are better explained by various personal and professional variables as opposed to their mere status as CE or SE. This study also reveals the importance of conducting inter-cohort analyses that go beyond expatriates' cohort types to include the host location of the assignment as well as expatriates' personal and professional characteristics.

Secondly, the context of this study offers some insights in relation to the motivational factors and the perceived career orientations among CEs and SEs. For example, none of the pull motivational factors, including host location, career, family and personal relationships and foreign experience, could be used to predict expatriate type in this study. These findings indicate that the context of this study possibly has different characteristics and attractions that appeal differently to expatriates. For example, despite cultural and religious restrictions, recent data show that the number of expatriates in Saudi Arabia is increasing in response to certain economic and employment-based attractions (De Bel-Air, 2014; Peck, 2014; Amblard *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, the motivational factors that drive expatriates' mobility towards certain contexts around the world may be limited to employment opportunities or may best be explained by individuals' personal or professional characteristics rather than whether they are a CE or SE.

Thirdly, it provides support, validity and application for Schein's (1990) career anchors model, using nine career anchors rather than eight by inserting a clear distinction between the creativity and entrepreneurial career orientations. The findings from this research support the results of Danziger *et al.* (2008) which validate the nine-career-anchors construct model and confirm creativity and entrepreneurial to be separate career anchors. In addition, security and stability are found to be a more

significant career orientation among SEs than CEs, despite the indications in the current career anchor literature that security and stability are not a typical career orientations among expatriates. Security and stability career anchor emerges as a more dominant career orientation among SEs specifically because of the socio-cultural design for living that characterises Saudi Arabia. There may be various reasons for this, including the context-based challenges in the host country as well as the lack of external organisational support for SEs. Moreover, most past research on expatriates' career anchors has tended to consider expatriates without having regard to their professions or industries (see for example, Suutari and Taka, 2004; Cerdin and Pargneux, 2010; Lazarova *et al.*, 2014); however, this study examines a single profession and industry, namely, banking. This focus facilitates a more targeted analysis to gain a deeper understanding of the perceived career orientations among expatriates in the banking industry and again enhance the comparability of the cohorts when the sample are split into CEs and SEs.

Finally, this study makes an important methodological contribution to the field by drawing on data from different cultural backgrounds to investigate an under-researched context, which allows for an inter-cohort investigation to be conducted to address the influence of participants' different cultural backgrounds on the outcomes pertaining to their motives and career orientations. This contrasts with past research, which has often relied on a single nationality to explore the motivational factors and career orientations of self-initiated expatriates (see for example, Inkson *et al.*, 1997; Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Tharenou, 2003; Jokinen *et al.*, 2008; Thorn, 2009; Biemann and Andresen, 2010; Cerdin and Pargneux, 2010; Tharenou, 2010b; Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010; Doherty *et al.*, 2011; Cerdin, 2013; Doherty *et al.*, 2013). Another methodological contribution made by this study is its validation of the pull and push motivational factor measure proposed by Doherty and her colleagues (2011) in order to test its application in a new socio-cultural context. In addition, the context of this study allowed for a focus on professional expatriates who are hired mainly through the work visa system prior to their arrival. This excludes those coming for migration purposes other than work and those seeking permanent residence, which would lead to spurious results because of the confusion between SEs and migrants as shown in Table 2.1 and because their incompatibility.

6.4. Limitations

Similar to any piece of research, despite the contributions of this thesis, some limitations to this study need to be acknowledged. First, it relies on a single survey to gather data and despite its facilitation of cross-sectional inter-cohort investigation and a deeper understanding of CEs and SEs, the question remains whether the outcomes of this research would have been richer with an additional qualitative approach. Secondly, this study draws its findings from data on expatriates in the banking sector specifically, which could limit generalisation of its results to other sectors. Due to a range of barriers specific to the sector and the context, the size of the sample in this inter-cohort study remains small, particularly in the case of the sample of CEs. It would be useful to target more than one sector to increase the sample population of CEs; however, this would limit our opportunity to investigate CEs and SEs working in a single sector. The reliance placed on Human Resource directors to distribute the study's questionnaire is another limitation that requires acknowledgement in this research but this was the only means available of reaching expatriates in the banking sector in Saudi Arabia.

6.5. Practical Contribution

The practical contribution of this thesis lies in its understanding of the dominant motivational factors among CEs and SEs and their different career orientations which have consequences for the engagement of these cohorts as part of the talent pool. For example, findings revealed that SEs are more likely to be anchored by the security and stability career orientations more than their CE counterparts. As result, organisations need to invest in developing HR policies and procedures that promote security and stability among SEs through adapting more socio-cultural management design and implementation. This also recommended for CEs who are working in senior positions because the findings revealed that they are also anchored by the security and stability in this analysis. This would have positive impact on the work and the lives of those individuals. In addition, the context of this study places great

pressure on managers dealing with CEs and SEs. For example, the findings from this research reveal that the pull dominant motivational factors among CEs and SEs in the current literature somewhat do not apply to expatriates living and working in the Saudi Arabian context. Therefore, HR managers have great responsibility to explore the context-specific motivational factors rather than to relay on the empirical findings derived from other assignment locations. Managers also should understand the difference in managing these two cohorts and the need to have human resource policies and management tools that are able to distinguish between various expatriate cohort types and to cater for their personal and professional needs accordingly.

6.6. Conclusions and Suggestions for Future Research

In conclusion, this thesis has presented the results and analysis of a comparative investigation of the motivational factors and perceived career orientations of conventional and self-initiated expatriates working in the banking sector in Saudi Arabia and discussed the main findings of this inter-group analysis in the literature examined in Chapter 2. The main findings indicate that career orientations are found to be the most distinguishing aspects between CEs and SEs rather than their reasons for seeking international assignments. For instance, SEs in this study are found to be more anchored by the 'pure challenge' and 'security and stability' career orientations than CEs, with none of the controlled variables having an effect on these results. On the other hand, differences between the two cohorts related to their motivational factors for going abroad are best explained by their personal and professional variables rather than their status as CE or SE. The findings from this research illustrate the importance of conducting inter-cohort analyses that go beyond comparing and contrasting CEs and SEs to investigate the subgroups within these two cohorts. For instance, some scholars, including Suutari and Brewster (2000), encourage researchers in this field to conduct subgroup analyses of SEs, rather than merely compare and contrast this highly heterogonous cohort with conventional expatriates. Previous empirical findings on SEs' motivational factors suggest differences between CEs and SEs; however, the findings of this study indicate that these differences are mainly due to different personal and professional variables. For example, Cerdin (2013) has suggested that SEs tend to feel impelled to go abroad, to a

greater extent than their CE counterparts, when they are confronted by social or economic disadvantages or by personal problems at home.

However, the control variables in this study reveal that these pull motives are best explained by participants' age, marital status and position level variables rather than by whether they fall within the CE or SE category. In addition, of the nine career anchors, 'pure challenge' and 'security and stability' are more dominant career orientations among SEs than CEs in this study. Although past empirical studies have suggested that the security and stability career orientation is not typical among CEs or SEs (Marshall and Bonner, 2003; Suutari and Taka, 2004; Cerdin and Pargneux, 2008; 2010) the results from this study reveal that SEs are more anchored by security and stability than CEs.

Overall, the measures used to assess the motivational factors for SEs travelling from different cultural backgrounds to countries such as Saudi Arabia need to be re-designed and re-defined to reflect unique contextual issues as well as the subgroups within this cohort, rather than merely considering those travelling from Western cultural backgrounds alone. For example, the measure used in this study for the pull factors has items that were developed primarily from a European perspective and some of the items fail in this study to predict expatriate cohort types. Consequently, the motivational pull factors should also be contextualised to reflect the specific characteristics and attractions of a particular country. For example, as discussed in Chapter 3 in this study's context, Saudi Arabia is labelled as being strictly Islamic and, hence, whether religion is a motivational factor for some SEs to travel to and work in Saudi Arabia is a relevant question that merits further exploration in future research. In addition, future research on SEs' motives should include research instruments that include and assess the role of the family during the early expatriation phase and particularly in relation to dual-career couples. Furthermore, given that the findings of this thesis are based on a quantitative approach, future research should consider using longitudinal studies to monitor the motivational factors of SEs and how these motives develop beyond the contexts of a single international assignment or host location. Finally, future research should focus more on the career aspects of CEs and SEs, as the findings from this thesis indicate that career represents a more

distinguishing and defining feature between CEs and SEs than other motives for going abroad.

Aspects of Personal Learning

The PhD journey has been a deep learning experience that started with a simple idea but gradually evolved to challenge my own thinking, my skills and my overall judgment. As a Human Resources practitioner for almost eight years, I learned to execute business transactions and deliver business outcomes, attaining goals within well-defined timeframes; however, this was not the case with my PhD progression. The development of a PhD is not always straightforward. As a PhD researcher, I learned to work on a much broader and seemingly limitless project which involved acquiring the ability to question sources and assess and evaluate ideas and outcomes using critical and dialectical thinking. Most importantly, the conceptual, methodological and skills developments I made during this journey are now among my most valuable resources. Some of these are presented in the following sections.

Conceptual Learning

The first year involved developing a literature review which started by exploring the available research from the wider expatriation domain; for the purpose of clarity, I used systematic analysis in order to define the prevailing themes related to various expatriate cohort types. Within the literature, the field of expatriation was sub-divided into different streams and various research themes. This process was helpful in formulating the research objectives based on the literature's research gaps. This technique was employed to minimise the complexity of SEs in terms of their theoretical development within the literature.

Methodological Learning

The process of planning and executing the collection of primary data from the banking sector in Saudi Arabia was another learning experience that challenged my skills in relation to the empirical approach of my research. This included deciding on

the methodological approach, target sample and proposed research instruments for gathering the data. In addition, this stage helped me to develop a systematic approach to questionnaire design and testing and to overcome some of the difficulties around constructing satisfactory measures to empirically test the most common and accepted research methods in the expatriation field. I learned also that fieldwork related to data gathering in the Saudi Arabian context is not an easy task due to a range of research barriers. For instance, confidentiality is a significant issue for the banking sector and, despite providing non-disclosure statements to potential participating banks in order to ensure high levels of privacy and confidentiality, some of these banks declined to participate in this study. Access to information despite assurance of a due diligence process proved to be difficult and challenging in respect of the banking sector.

During the empirical research stage, I employed several analytical techniques to test the research hypotheses. For example, in the early stages, I used the T-test and the Mann-Whitney U Test to do this. This was followed by the application of Univariate/ANOVA analysis tests for all the controlled variables. Although this approach was useful in generating analyses that could be used to interpret the different relationships between the control variables and the tested hypotheses, the technique was found to be weak in providing support for the research as theory-driven. For example, the Univariate technique is based on using autonomous and sequential analyses that test the hypotheses and the control variables independently and, therefore, it is not able to capture the relationships between a set of hypotheses (such as the motivational factors) and the control variables in a single model/test. As a result, logistic regression analysis was found to be the most appropriate test for this research as it enabled the testing of relationships between the hypotheses and the control variables simultaneously using a single model. This technique allowed for more robust findings to be made that could link the theoretical and methodological approaches of this study.

Overall, therefore, the empirical aspect of this research was primarily focused on minimising the risk of any potential bias that could arise during the different stages of the process, including data gathering, sampling management procedures and analysis of data.

Skills Developments

Some of the personal skills gained by me during this journey are time management, development of my interpersonal skills and balancing my needs with those of others. I also continue to build networks and contacts with other scholars in this field during international conferences, workshops and professional networks in order to use this asset for future research and intellectual cooperation.

Training

- Non-parametric and Semi-parametric Methods (including Bootstrap): University of Essex Summer School, two-week course/ 35 hours (4 - 15 August, 2014).
- Research methodology course: Kemmy Business School, University of Limerick, three months (January to March, 2012).
- Statistics for Research Consultations and Training: 2013-2014.
- Participated in the doctoral consortium of the International Federation of Scholarly Associations of Management: University of Limerick (June 26-29, 2012).

Journal and Conferences Publications

Alshahrani, S. and Morley M. (2015) 'Accounting for Variations in the Patterns of Mobility among Conventional and Self-initiated Expatriates', *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, (In Press).

- Alshahrani, S. and Morley, M. (2014, June) 'Accounting For Variations In The Patterns Of Mobility Among Conventional And Self-Initiated Expatriates' Krakow, Poland, 13th IHRM Conference, Uncertainty in a flattening world: CHALLENGES FOR IHRM, 24 - 27th June, 2014.
- Alshahrani, S. and Morley, M. (2012, October) 'Different Route Trajectories: A Comparative Analysis of Self-Initiated and Conventional Expatriates in Saudi Arabia', Brunel University, London, UK: Saudi Scientific International Conference 2012.

- Alshahrani, S. and Morley, M. (2012, June) 'Expatriates in Saudi Arabia: Motives and Experiences. A Comparative Study between Self-Initiated and Conventional Expatriates', Limerick, Ireland: IFSAM2012, 36.

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Appendices:

Appendix A. Ethics Approval

From: Michelle.Cunningham
Sent: 19 April 2013 12:24
To: Saeed.Alshahrani
Cc: Michael.Morley
Subject: KBSREC - April 2013 - PhD - Saeed Alshahrani

Dear Saeed,

Many thanks for your research ethics application which was reviewed by the KBS Research Ethics Committee on the16th April. I am pleased to inform you, that your application has been given research ethics approval.

Kind regards.

Michelle

Michelle Cunningham
KBS Research Office
Kemmy Business School
University of Limerick
Limerick
Ph: 353 61 202627 - Room KB3-12
Email: michelle.cunningham@ul.ie

Appendix B. Questionnaire

Dear participant,

The aims of this survey are to explore the motivational factors contributing to your decision to join the international workforce and to assess your international career orientation/s. This survey has three main sections; firstly, it requests some background information about you and your international work and non-work experiences. The second section seeks to explore your primary motivations in joining the international workforce. The final part aims to assess your career orientation/s.

Thank you for your participation and cooperation and please feel free to contact the researcher if you have any queries related to this survey.

You have the right to refuse to participate in this questionnaire or to withdraw at any time.

The researcher will make sure that any information related to participants and/or their organisations will be kept completely anonymous and will be handled with confidentiality.

Your help is greatly appreciated,

PhD researcher/ Teaching assistant
University of Limerick, Ireland
Saeed Turki Alshahrani
Email. Saeed.alshahrani@UL.IE

Section One

1. **Gender:** M □ F □

2. **Age:**

□ Younger than 23 □ 23-29 □ 30-36 □ 37-42 □ 43-49 □ 50-59 □ 60+

3. **Nationality: ( )**

4. **Are you currently married, widowed, divorced, separated or never married?**

   □ Married
   □ Widowed
   □ Divorced
   □ Separated
   □ Never married

5. **If married, is your spouse with you in Saudi? □ Yes □ No**

6. **If yes, is your spouse working in Saudi? □ Yes □ No**

7. **Do you have children? □ Yes □No**

8. **What is your highest level of educational attainment?**

   □ Less than high school degree
   □ High school degree or equivalent (e.g., GED)
   □ Some college but no degree
   □ Associate degree
   □ Bachelor degree
   □ Masters degree
   □ Doctoral Degree

9. **Which of the following best describes your current occupation?**

   □ Management Occupation
   □ Consultancy Occupation
   □ Business and Financial Operations Occupation
   □ Funds and Assets Management Occupation
   □ Computer and Mathematical Occupation
   □ Engineering Occupation
   □ Investment Occupation
   □ Technical Occupation

- Sales, Marketing or related Occupation
- Other, please specify----------

10. Level of Position

- Board member
- Executive/Senior management
- Middle management
- Lower management
- Non-supervisory/Management trainee
- Professional/Technical/Specialist
- Other, please specify ----------

11. How did you get your first job in Saudi?

- I was sent by my employer overseas to work in Saudi Arabia
- I was sent by my employer but I quit and I am on my own
- I was seeking employment internationally of my own volition
- Other (please specify) ----------

12. How long have you been working in Saudi? ( ) Year/s ( ) Month/s

13. Have you worked for the same company since you arrived in Saudi?

Yes (If yes, please go to question 15) No

14. If No, please answer the following:

I have worked for ( ) (Number/s of company/ies (Organisation/s))

I have worked in The same industry Different industries

15. Before coming to Saudi did you have previous work-related international experience/s?

Yes No (If no, please go to question 17)

16. If yes, please complete the following questions:

For how many years? ( ) In how many companies? ( )

In how many countries? ( )

Other than your home country, please list the location/s of your previous international assignment experience/s:

---

17. Before your first international assignment did you have any previous general international travel experience/s not related to work?

□ Yes □ No (if no, please go to question 21)

18. If yes, what age were you when you had your first international experiences?

□ Younger than 10 years □ 10-20 □ 20-30 □ 30 +

19. Please complete the following in relation to previous international travel experiences not related to work:

How many travel trips? ( ) How many countries? ( )

The total length of this/these international experience/s ( ) year/s ( ) Month/s

20. The purpose of this/these non-work-related international travel experience/s was/were for:

□ Vacation/recreation abroad Years ( ) Months ( )
□ Study/education abroad Years ( ) Months ( )
□ Both
□ Other (please specify) ----------

Other than your home country, please list the location/s of your previous international travel experience/s unrelated to work:

---

21. Upon completing your work assignment in Saudi Arabia, do you have a guaranteed job/assignment somewhere else?

□ **Yes** □ **No**

22. If yes, do you know the future role/responsibility of this job/assignment?

□ **Yes** □ **No**

Section Two

- **How much influence did each of the following factors have on your decision to work abroad?**

Factor	**No Influence**	**Little influence**	**Mild influence**	**Moderate Influence**	**Considerable Influence**	**Great Influence**	**Very great Influence**
Impact on career	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Potential for skills development	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Professional challenge of working abroad	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
To see the world	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Confidence in your ability to work/live abroad	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
The job you were offered (‘This is the only option I had’)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Having the relevant job skills	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Desire for adventure	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Desire to live in Saudi	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Personal financial impact	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Your ability to adapt to the Saudi context/culture	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Standard of living in Saudi	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Desire to live in host city/location	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
The opportunity to improve your language skills	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Balance between work and social life	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Expected length of stay	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Saudi culture	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Successful previous experience in a foreign environment	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Willingness of family/partner to move abroad	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Maintaining personal networks	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Maintaining work networks with the home country	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Superior career opportunities in Saudi	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Reputation of Saudi being open to foreigners	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Prestige of working in Saudi	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Opportunities to network in Saudi	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Pre-departure preparation	o	o	o	o	o	o	o

- **How much influence did the following factors have on your decision to work abroad?**

Factor	**No Influence**	**Little influence**	**Mild influence**	**Moderate Influence**	**Considerable Influence**	**Great Influence**	**Very great Influence**
Close ties to your country of origin with Saudi	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Reputation of Saudi/company in your area of work	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Better opportunities for your family (in terms of living, work, etc…)	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Poor employment situation at home	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Ability to support your family better abroad	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
To be with/near loved person/s	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
To distance yourself from a problem	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Possibility of gaining permanent residency in Saudi	o	o	o	o	o	o	o

Section Three

- **How important are the following statements to your career?**

Career	**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neither agree or disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
I dream of being so good at what I do that my expert advice will be sought continually.	o	o	o	o	o
I am most fulfilled in my work when I have been able to integrate and manage the efforts of others.	o	o	o	o	o
I dream of having a career that will allow me the freedom to do a job my own way and according to my own schedule.	o	o	o	o	o
Security and stability are more important to me than freedom and autonomy.	o	o	o	o	o
I am always looking for ideas that would permit me to start my own enterprise.	o	o	o	o	o
I will feel successful in my career only if I have a feeling of having made a real contribution to the welfare of society.	o	o	o	o	o
I dream of a career in which I can solve problems or win in situations that are extremely challenging.	o	o	o	o	o

Career	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
I would rather leave my organisation than be put into a job that would compromise my ability to pursue personal and family concerns.	o	o	o	o	o
I will feel successful in my career only if I can develop my technical or functional skills to a very high level of competence.	o	o	o	o	o
I dream of being in charge of a complex organisation and of making decisions that affect many people.	o	o	o	o	o
I am most fulfilled in my work when I am completely free to define my own tasks, schedules, and procedures.	o	o	o	o	o
I would rather leave my organisation altogether than accept an assignment that would jeopardise my security in that organisation.	o	o	o	o	o
Building my own business is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position in someone else's organisation.	o	o	o	o	o
I am most fulfilled in my career when I have been able to use my talents in the service of others.	o	o	o	o	o
I will feel successful in my career only if I face and overcome very difficult challenges.	o	o	o	o	o
I dream of a career that will permit me to integrate my personal, family and work needs.	o	o	o	o	o
Becoming a senior functional manager in my area of expertise is more attractive to me than becoming a general manager.	o	o	o	o	o
I will feel successful in my career only if I become a general manager in some organisation.	o	o	o	o	o
I will feel successful in my career only if I achieve complete autonomy and freedom.	o	o	o	o	o
I seek jobs in organisations that will give me a sense of security and stability.	o	o	o	o	o
I am most fulfilled in my career when I have been able to build something that is entirely the result of my own ideas and efforts.	o	o	o	o	o
Using my skills to make the world a better place in which to live and work is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position.	o	o	o	o	o
I have been most fulfilled in my career when I have solved seemingly unsolvable problems or won out over seemingly impossible odds.	o	o	o	o	o
I feel successful in life only if I have been able to balance my personal, family and career	o	o	o	o	o

requirements.					
Career	**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neither agree or disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
I would rather leave my organisation than accept a rotational assignment that would take me out of my area of expertise.	o	o	o	o	o
Becoming a general manager is more attractive to me than becoming a senior functional manager in my current area of expertise.	o	o	o	o	o
The chance to do a job my own way, free of rules and constraints, is more important to me than security.	o	o	o	o	o
I am most fulfilled in my work when I feel that I have complete financial and employment security.	o	o	o	o	o
I will feel successful in my career only if I have succeeded in creating or building something that is entirely my own product or idea.	o	o	o	o	o
I dream of having a career that makes a real contribution to humanity and society.	o	o	o	o	o
I seek out work opportunities that strongly challenge my problem-solving and/or competitive skills.	o	o	o	o	o
Balancing the demands of my personal and professional life is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position.	o	o	o	o	o
I am most fulfilled in my work when I have been able to use my special skills and talents.	o	o	o	o	o
I would rather leave my organisation than accept a job that would take me away from the general managerial path.	o	o	o	o	o
I would rather leave my organisation than accept a job that would reduce my autonomy and freedom.	o	o	o	o	o
I dream of having a career that will allow me to feel a sense of security and stability.	o	o	o	o	o
I dream of starting up and building my own business.	o	o	o	o	o
I would rather leave my organisation than accept an assignment that would undermine my ability to be of service to others.	o	o	o	o	o
Working on problems that are almost unsolvable is more important to me than achieving a high- level managerial position.	o	o	o	o	o
I have always sought our work opportunities that minimise interference with my personal or family concerns.	o	o	o	o	o

Appendix C. Official Letter Used To Gather The Data From The Banking Sector In Saudi Arabia

الغرفة التجارية الصناعية
الرياض - المملكة العربية السعودية

الرقم :
التاريخ : ١٤٣٤/٥/٢٢هـ

السادة / مشتركي الغرفة سلمهم الله

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته،،

أود الإفادة بانه تقدم للغرفة الاستاذ/ سعيد بن تركي الشهراني يفيد أنه مبتعث من قسم إدارة الأعمال في جامعة الإمام محمد بن سعود الإسلامية لدراسة درجة الدكتوراه بجامعة ليمريك - جمهورية ايرلندا ، و أنه في مرحلة جمع المعلومات والتي تتعلق بالموظفين الدوليين الغير سعوديين والعاملين في المملكة العربية السعودية ويرغب في توزيع استبيان للعاملين الغير سعوديين في وظائف إدارية أو أعلى والذين يعملون في القطاع الخاص في مدينة الرياض. مؤكداً على ان جميع المعلومات والأسئلة تتركز على الجانب المهني فقط وسوف تعامل بسرية تامة ولن يتم الإفصاح عنها إلا بموافقة خطية وهذا يخضع بدوره إلى المعايير البحثية الأخلاقية في جامعة ليمريك في دولة إيرلندا، ومنوهاً إلى ان الدراسة تتعلق بنوعين من الموظفين الدوليين هما:

- الموظفون الدوليون العاملون في جميع البنوك في المملكة والذين تم إرسالهم من قبل شركاتهم الأم خارج المملكة وذلك للعمل لفترة محددة ومن ثم العودة بعد انتهاء مهمة عملهم.
- الموظفون الدوليون العاملون في جميع البنوك في المملكة والذين قدموا للعمل من تلقاء انفسهم ولا يوجد لديهم ارتباط عمل بجهات عمل خارجية في دولتهم أو مدة عمل محددة.

نأمل منكم التعاون معه لتسهيل مهمة جمع المعلومات ليكون لها الأثر الإيجابي في إنجاز هذا البحث وتحقيق النتائج المرجوة من الدراسة.

وتقبلوا وافر التحية والتقدير،،

مساعد الأمين العام للقطاع الاقتصادي
عبدالله بن محمد التميمي

مكتب سالم للترجمة
ترخيص رقم ١٢٨
SALEM FOR TRANSLATION ARABIC ENGLISH

Appendix D. Completion Letter from the Fieldwork Advisor (Saudi)

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

KINGDOM OF SAUDI ARABIA
MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION
AL-IMAM MOHAMMAD IBN SAUD
ISLAMIC UNIVERSITY
Deanery of Student Affairs

المملكة العربية السعودية
وزارة التعليم العالي
جامعة الامام محمد بن سعود الاسلامية
عمادة شؤون الطلاب

التاريخ 05 رمضان 1434هـ

سعادة الدكتور محمد ضياء سلمه الله

المشرف الدراسي – الملحقية الثقافية في دبلن

اسم الطالب : سعيد تركي سعيد الشهراني
رقم الطالب في الملحقية: IRIU1101

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته،

تفيد جامعة الإمام محمد بن سعود الإسلامية أن الطالب المدون اسمه أعلاه قام بدارسة ميدانية في مقر الجامعة في مدينة الرياض ، وتتعلق بمجال بحثه في مجال إدارة الأعمال الدولية لمرحلة الدكتوراه في جامعة ليمريك دولة ايرلندا.

و قد بدأت الدراسة في 15-04-2013م و انتهت في 14-07-2013م .

هذا و قد تم إصدار هذا الخطاب بناء على طلب منه، و ذلك لتقديمه إلى الملحقية الثقافية السعودية دبلن.

وتقبلوا فائق التحية والتقدير ،،،

المشرف على الرحلة العلمية

د عبدالرحمن بن عبدالله الصغير

عميد شؤون الطلاب

بجامعة الإمام محمد بن سعود الإسلامية

الرقم : ..... التاريخ : ..... المشفوعات : .....

العنوان: جامعة الإمام محمد بن سعود الإسلامية -عمادة شؤون الطلاب (المدينة الجامعية) ص. ب : ٥٧٠١ - الرمز البريدي: ١١٤٣٢ هاتف:٢٥٨٤٥١٦-٢٥٨٤٣٧٦ فاكس:٢٥٩٠٤٣٦
affairs@imamu.edu.sa

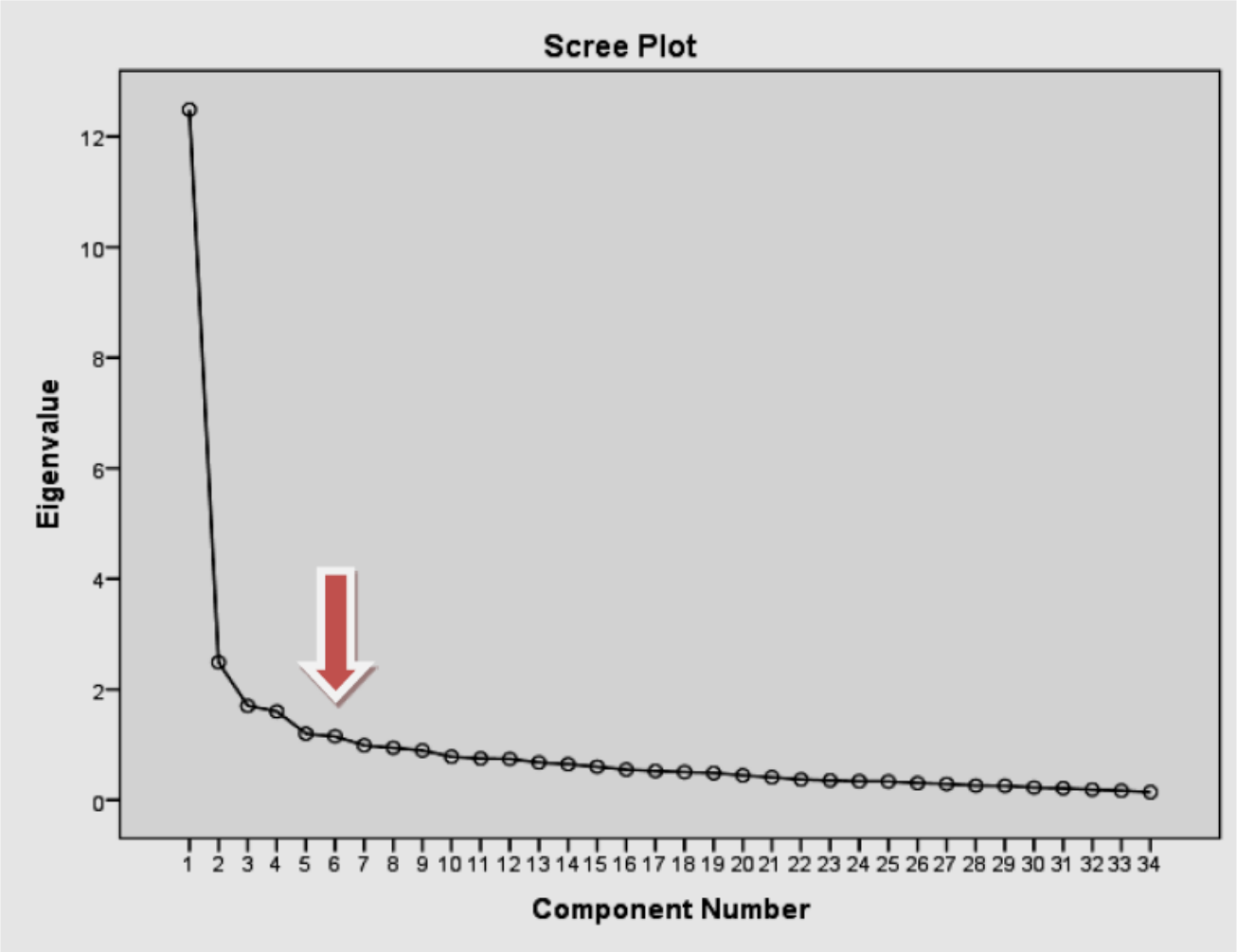
Appendix E. Extraction Method Table (Motivational Factors)

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	12.449	36.616	36.616	12.449	36.616	36.616	6.722	19.771	19.771
2	2.521	7.414	44.030	2.521	7.414	44.030	3.890	11.440	31.211
3	1.703	5.009	49.039	1.703	5.009	49.039	2.815	8.280	39.491
4	1.617	4.757	53.796	1.617	4.757	53.796	2.725	8.014	47.505
5	1.218	3.584	57.379	1.218	3.584	57.379	2.637	7.757	55.262
6	1.144	3.364	60.743	1.144	3.364	60.743	1.864	5.481	60.743
7	.994	2.925	63.668						
8	.960	2.823	66.491						
9	.879	2.586	69.077						
10	.774	2.277	71.354						
11	.752	2.213	73.567						
12	.726	2.134	75.701						
13	.687	2.022	77.723						
14	.649	1.909	79.632						
15	.591	1.738	81.370						
16	.542	1.595	82.964						
17	.517	1.519	84.483						
18	.494	1.453	85.936						
19	.486	1.428	87.364						
20	.454	1.334	88.699						
21	.401	1.179	89.878						
22	.373	1.096	90.974						
23	.363	1.066	92.040						
24	.337	.992	93.032						
25	.331	.974	94.006						
26	.307	.902	94.908						
27	.291	.855	95.763						
28	.256	.753	96.516						
29	.255	.751	97.267						
30	.226	.664	97.931						
31	.210	.617	98.548						
32	.187	.549	99.097						
33	.168	.493	99.590						
34	.140	.410	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix F. Scree Plot (Motivational Factors)



Appendix G. Rotation Method: Varimax With Kaiser Normalisation Table (Motivational Factors)

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Impact on career			.781			
Potential for skills development			.812			
Professional challenge of working abroad			.619			
To see the world					.726	
Confidence in your ability to work/live abroad					.551	
The job you were offered				.516		
Having the relevant job skills						.647
Desire for adventure					.688	
Desire to live in Saudi	.629					
Personal financial impact						.703
Your ability to adapt to the Saudi context/culture	.691					
Standard of living in Saudi	.797					
Desire to live in host city/location	.598					
The opportunity to improve your language skills						
Balance between work and social life	.614					
Expected length of stay	.551					
Saudi culture	.755					
Successful previous experience in a foreign environment		.586				
Willingness of family/partner to move abroad		.683				
Maintaining personal networks		.698				
Maintaining work networks with the home country		.684				
Superior career opportunities in Saudi						
Reputation of Saudi being open to foreigners	.575					
Prestige of working in Saudi	.683					
Opportunities to network in Saudi	.559					
Pre-departure preparation		.580				
Close ties to your country of origin with Saudi	.513					
Reputation of Saudi/company in your area of work						
Better opportunities for your family (in terms of living, work etc)	-.569					
Poor employment situation at home				.844		
Ability to support your family better abroad						
To be with/near loved person/s						
To distance yourself from a problem				.843		
Possibility of gaining permanent residency in Saudi						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 8 iterations.

Appendix H. Reliability of the Location Motivational Factor Scale

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	418	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	418	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.918	11

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Desire to live in Saudi	35.99	180.827	.613	.915
Saudi culture	36.45	178.867	.750	.907
Your ability to adapt to the Saudi context/culture	35.67	184.012	.645	.912
Standard of living in Saudi	36.01	180.527	.764	.907
Desire to live in host city/location	36.37	181.590	.667	.911
Balance between work and social life	36.33	182.808	.643	.913
Expected length of stay	36.22	183.013	.659	.912
Reputation of Saudi being open to foreigners	36.50	178.740	.709	.909
Prestige of working in Saudi	36.30	178.492	.720	.909
Opportunities to network in Saudi	36.45	180.991	.707	.909
Close ties to your country of origin with Saudi	36.36	180.082	.617	.914

Appendix I. Reliability of the Personal Relationships and Family Motivational Factor Scale

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	418	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	418	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.828	5

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Successful previous experience in a foreign environment	13.75	37.546	.454	.845
Willingness of family/partner to move abroad	13.76	35.145	.579	.808
Maintaining personal networks	14.12	34.034	.737	.762
Pre-departure preparation	14.48	36.015	.693	.777
Maintaining work networks with the home country	14.06	34.426	.698	.772

Appendix J. Reliability of the Career Motivational Factor Scale

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	418	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	418	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.817	3

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Impact on career	10.20	7.263	.694	.723
Potential for skills development	10.17	7.750	.712	.706
Professional challenge of working abroad	10.04	8.286	.606	.810

Appendix K. Reliability of the Push Motivational Factor Scale

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	418	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	418	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.737	3

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
The job you were offered	6.45	13.183	.366	.862
Poor employment situation at home	6.63	9.942	.720	.459
To distance yourself from a problem	7.16	9.844	.631	.562

Appendix L. Reliability of the Foreign Experience Motivational Factor Scale

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	418	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	418	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.707	.706	3

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Desire for adventure	9.92	7.133	.539	.308	.600
Confidence in your ability to work/live abroad	9.00	9.254	.456	.214	.697
To see the world	9.72	6.994	.592	.352	.526

Appendix M. Extraction Method Table (Career Anchors)

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.970	19.926	19.926	7.970	19.926	19.926	3.435	8.588	8.588
2	3.441	8.603	28.529	3.441	8.603	28.529	3.204	8.010	16.598
3	3.000	7.499	36.028	3.000	7.499	36.028	3.103	7.759	24.356
4	2.570	6.426	42.454	2.570	6.426	42.454	2.981	7.452	31.809
5	2.085	5.213	47.667	2.085	5.213	47.667	2.874	7.185	38.994
6	1.825	4.562	52.228	1.825	4.562	52.228	2.645	6.614	45.607
7	1.591	3.978	56.207	1.591	3.978	56.207	2.376	5.939	51.546
8	1.425	3.563	59.770	1.425	3.563	59.770	2.285	5.714	57.260
9	1.305	3.263	63.033	1.305	3.263	63.033	1.847	4.618	61.878
10	1.195	2.987	66.020	1.195	2.987	66.020	1.657	4.142	66.020
11	.936	2.339	68.359						
12	.908	2.270	70.629						
13	.805	2.012	72.641						
14	.785	1.962	74.603						
15	.718	1.796	76.399						
16	.690	1.726	78.125						
17	.656	1.639	79.764						
18	.616	1.540	81.304						
19	.589	1.471	82.775						
20	.566	1.415	84.191						
21	.550	1.374	85.565						
22	.514	1.286	86.851						
23	.484	1.209	88.060						
24	.459	1.148	89.208						
25	.438	1.096	90.304						
26	.410	1.025	91.329						
27	.396	.991	92.320						
28	.346	.864	93.184						
29	.331	.827	94.011						
30	.323	.806	94.817						
31	.289	.723	95.541						
32	.279	.697	96.238						
33	.273	.684	96.921						
34	.252	.631	97.552						
35	.236	.590	98.142						
36	.219	.546	98.689						
37	.199	.496	99.185						
38	.184	.459	99.644						
39	.140	.351	99.995						
40	.002	.005	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix N. Scree Plot (Career Anchors)

Appendix O. Rotation Method: Varimax With Kaiser Normalisation Table

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
I dream of being so good at what I do that my expert advice will be sought continually		.814								
I am most fulfilled in my work when I have been able to integrate and manage the efforts of others	.891									
I dream of having a career that will allow me the freedom to do a job my own way and according to my own schedule						.726				
Security and stability are more important to me than freedom and autonomy				.781						
I am always looking for ideas that would permit me to start my own enterprise								.825		
I will feel successful in my career only if I have a feeling of having made a real contribution to the welfare of society							.675			
I dream of a career in which I can solve problems or win in situations that are extremely challenging			.566							
I would rather leave my organisation than be put into a job that would compromise my ability to pursue personal and family concerns					.732					
I will feel successful in my career only if I can develop my technical or functional skills to a very high level of competence		.815								
I dream of being in charge of a complex organisation and of making decisions that affect many people	.891									
I am most fulfilled in my work when I am completely free to define my own tasks, schedules, and procedures						.845				
I would rather leave my organisation altogether than accept an assignment that would jeopardise my security in that organisation				.522						
Building my own business is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position in someone else's organisation								.689		
I am most fulfilled in my career when I have been able to use my talents in the service of others							.715			
I will feel successful in my career only if I face and overcome very difficult challenges			.716							
I dream of a career that will permit me to integrate my personal, family and work needs					.795					
Becoming a senior functional manager in my area of expertise is more attractive to me than becoming a general manager		.845								
I will feel successful in my career only if I become a general manager in some organisation	.842									
I will feel successful in my career only if I achieve complete autonomy and freedom						.767				
I seek jobs in organisations that will give me a sense of security and stability				.742						
I am most fulfilled in my career when I have been able to build something that is entirely the result of my own ideas and efforts										.569
Using my skills to make the world a better place in which to live and work is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position							.680			
I have been most fulfilled in my career when I have solved seemingly unsolvable problems or won out over seemingly impossible odds			.798							
I feel successful in life only if I have been able to balance my personal, family and career requirements					.778					
I would rather leave my organisation than accept a rotational assignment that would take me out of my area of expertise										
Becoming a general manager is more attractive to me than becoming a senior functional manager in my current area of expertise	.803									
The chance to do a job my own way, free of rules and constraints, is more important to me than security						.551				
I am most fulfilled in my work when I feel that I have complete financial and employment security				.756						
I will feel successful in my career only if I have succeeded in creating or building something that is entirely my own product or idea										.675
I dream of having a career that makes a real contribution to humanity and society							.622			
I seek out work opportunities that strongly challenge my problem-solving and/or competitive skills			.763							
Balancing the demands of my personal and professional life is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position					.708					
I am most fulfilled in my work when I have been able to use my special skills and talents		.644								
I would rather leave my organisation than accept a job that would take me away from the general managerial path									.597	
I would rather leave my organisation than accept a job that would reduce my autonomy and freedom									.593	
I dream of having a career that will allow me to feel a sense of security and stability				.734						
I dream of starting up and building my own business								.839		
I would rather leave my organisation than accept an assignment that would undermine my ability to be of service to others									.608	
Working on problems that are almost unsolvable is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position			.629							
I have always sought our work opportunities that minimise interference with my personal or family concerns										.596

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 8 iterations.

Appendix P. Reliability Test for the General Managerial Competence Scale

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	418	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	418	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.904	4

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I am most fulfilled in my work when I have been able to integrate and manage the efforts of others	10.71	4.375	.861	.850
I dream of being in charge of a complex organisation and of making decisions that affect many people	10.71	4.379	.858	.851
I will feel successful in my career only if I become a general manager in some organisation	10.97	4.390	.752	.888
Becoming a general manager is more attractive to me than becoming a senior functional manager in my current area of expertise	11.11	4.476	.687	.914

Appendix Q. Reliability Test for The Technical/Functional Competence Scale

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	418	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	418	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.870	4

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I dream of being so good at what I do that my expert advice will be sought continually	11.83	4.418	.760	.818
I will feel successful in my career only if I can develop my technical or functional skills to a very high level of competence	11.81	3.946	.817	.793
Becoming a senior functional manager in my area of expertise is more attractive to me than becoming a general manager	12.05	4.443	.770	.815
I am most fulfilled in my work when I have been able to use my special skills and talents	11.76	5.173	.556	.894

Appendix R. Reliability Test for the Pure Challenge Scale

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	418	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	418	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.821	5

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I dream of a career in which I can solve problems or win in situations that are extremely challenging	15.19	6.958	.520	.812
I will feel successful in my career only if I face and overcome very difficult challenges	15.50	6.380	.624	.783
I have been most fulfilled in my career when I have solved seemingly unsolvable problems or won out over seemingly impossible odds	15.41	6.276	.715	.755
Working on problems that are almost unsolvable is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position	15.75	7.057	.521	.811
I seek out work opportunities that strongly challenge my problem-solving and/or competitive skills	15.34	6.471	.697	.762

Appendix S. Reliability Test for the Security and Stability Scale

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	418	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	418	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.787	5

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Security and stability are more important to me than freedom and autonomy	14.75	7.587	.590	.739
I would rather leave my organisation altogether than accept an assignment that would jeopardise my security in that organisation	14.89	8.623	.363	.813
I seek jobs in organisations that will give me a sense of security and stability	14.57	7.684	.630	.726
I am most fulfilled in my work when I feel that I have complete financial and employment security	14.58	7.516	.633	.724
I dream of having a career that will allow me to feel a sense of security and stability	14.54	7.731	.629	.727

Appendix T. Reliability Test for the Lifestyle Scale

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	418	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	418	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.814	4

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I would rather leave my organisation than be put into a job that would compromise my ability to pursue personal and family concerns	11.72	4.955	.607	.780
I dream of a career that will permit me to integrate my personal, family and work needs	11.64	4.779	.702	.733
I feel successful in life only if I have been able to balance my personal, family and career requirements	11.56	4.832	.699	.734
Balancing the demands of my personal and professional life is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position	11.70	5.560	.530	.811

Appendix U. Reliability Test for the Autonomy/Independence Scale

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	418	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	418	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.780	4

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I dream of having a career that will allow me the freedom to do a job my own way and according to my own schedule	10.06	4.889	.554	.743
I am most fulfilled in my work when I am completely free to define my own tasks, schedules, and procedures	10.14	4.464	.728	.649
I will feel successful in my career only if I achieve complete autonomy and freedom	10.39	4.757	.648	.694
The chance to do a job my own way, free of rules and constraints, is more important to me than security	10.84	5.451	.427	.804

Appendix V. Reliability Test for the Service/Dedication to a Cause Scale

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	418	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	418	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.708	4

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I will feel successful in my career only if I have a feeling of having made a real contribution to the welfare of society	11.62	3.779	.526	.625
I am most fulfilled in my career when I have been able to use my talents in the service of others	11.50	4.385	.471	.663
Using my skills to make the world a better place in which to live and work is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position	11.77	3.982	.426	.689
I dream of having a career that makes a real contribution to humanity and society	11.58	3.534	.567	.597

Appendix W. Reliability Test for the Entrepreneurialism Scale

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	418	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	418	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.802	3

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I am always looking for ideas that would permit me to start my own enterprise	6.31	3.870	.652	.731
Building my own business is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position in someone else's organisation	6.99	3.712	.596	.783
I dream of starting up and building my own business	6.47	3.146	.707	.666

Appendix X. Requirements for Appointing Decision Makers in Banks Operating in Saudi Arabia (Page 1)

SAUDI ARABIAN MONETARY AGENCY
مؤسسة النقد العربي السعودي

Updated 14/03/2006

Subject: "Qualification Requirements for Appointment to Senior Positions in Banks Operating in Saudi Arabia".

In pursuance of SAMA's powers to supervise banks operating in Saudi Arabia in accordance with its Charter issued by Royal Decree No. 23 dated 23/5/1377 and the Banking Control Law promulgated by Royal Decree No. M/5 dated 22/2/1386 H;

And with reference to Article 3 of the Banking Control Law stipulating the licensing requirements to be met by a national bank, including that the founders and members of the Board of Directors shall have a sound reputation, and Article 12 of the Law specifying the conditions by which a person is prohibited to be appointed as a Director of the Board or a Manager in any bank, and Article 22 of the Law concerning the suspension or removal of any director or officer of the bank;

And with reference to paragraph 2 of the Rules for enforcing the provisions of the Banking Control Law issued by the Minister of Finance's Decision No. 3/2149 dated 14/10/1406 concerning the enforcement of the provisions of Article 12 of the Banking Control Law, and paragraph 5 of the said Rules related to the application of Article 22 of the Law;

SAMA has added other requirements for appointment to senior positions in banks operating in the Kingdom as follows:

1. **Directors**

a. A bank must provide required information on each member of its Board of Directors, including the Chairman, as per the attached Forms Nos. (1) and (2). Also, a brief curriculum vitae of each Director should be attached.

b. A bank must provide required information on each person to the membership of the Board of Directors for next session as per the attached Forms Nos. (1) and (2). A brief Curriculum vitae of each Director should also be attached. These forms should be submitted to SAMA 15 days prior to the date of the General Assembly.

c. After nominating Directors of the Board, they shall select the Chairman of the Board and the Chairman of the Audit Committee. SAMA shall be notified in writing within 15 days after the date of this selection.

d. A bank should notify SAMA in writing within 15 days after the selection / appointment of a person as a new Director of a bank or of any of its subsidiaries. The information as per the attached Forms Nos. (1) and (2) should be submitted to SAMA, in addition to a brief curriculum vitae of the new Director.

e. SAMA should be notified in writing within 15 days of the dates of any resignations, discharge or removal of any Director. All relevant information, along with the reasons thereof must be provided.

2. **General Managers and Managing Directors.**

A General Manager or a Managing Director means a person who under the authority of the Board of Directors of the bank is granted the power to exercise responsibilities of the Chief Executive Officer. The banks shall be subject to the following requirements:

a. A bank must provide required information on its Managing Director / or General Manager as per the Forms Nos. (1) and (2) attached to this Circular. Also, a brief curriculum vitae of him should be submitted. A bank should also in the future obtain SAMA's prior approval for the appointment of a General Manager or Managing Director, and it should provide SAMA with information on appointees as per Forms Nos. (1) and (2) attached herein,

Appendix Y. Requirements for Appointing Decision Makers in Banks Operating in Saudi Arabia (Page 2)

in addition to a curriculum vitae of each of them. This information should be provided 15 days before such appointment.

b. SAMA should be notified in writing within 15 days of the date of any resignation, termination, removal, for any reason, of a General Manager or a Managing Director along with all information and reasons for such action.

3. **Major Department Heads and Senior Managers**

This category includes top tier managers who head key functions and departments of a bank such as the Treasurer, the Chief Credit Officer, the Chief Operations Officer, Head of Corporate, Retail, Private and Investment Banking, the Chief Financial Officer, the Chief Internal Auditor, as well as senior officials such as the Legal Counsel and the Compliance Officer.

For appointment to any of the indicated positions, a bank should notify SAMA in writing 15 days prior to the date of such appointment, submitting the information on the appointees as per the Forms Nos. (1) and (3) attached to this circular along with their brief curriculum vitae. This should be submitted in writing 15 days before the date of such appointments.

4. **Overseas Branches, Subsidiaries and Representative Offices**

Saudi Banks are required to provide the information described above for Directors, General Managers and Senior Managers of their overseas branches, subsidiaries and representative offices as per the Form Nos. (1) and (3) attached to this circular along with a brief curriculum vitae of the appointees to these positions.

5. **Annual Information on Senior Positions in Banks Operating in the Kingdom.**

A bank should provide SAMA, within 60 days after the end of its financial year, with the following information:

a. List of all Members of the Board of Directors, including names, dates of appointment, positions held on any bank committees, and other important information on their work at the bank – to be filled in the attached Form (4).

b. List of all General Managers and Managing Directors, and Senior Managers of the bank, including names, current positions, dates of appointment to current positions, number of years of employment with the bank and other important information on their work at the bank, to be filled in the attached Form (4).

c. List of all Directors, General Managers, Managing Directors, and Senior Managers of its key departments and for overseas Branches, Subsidiaries and Representative Offices, including names, current positions, dates of appointment, number of years of employment with the bank, and other important information on their work at the bank, to be submitted on the attached Form (5).

6. Foreign Banks' Branches Operating in the Kingdom.

These branches are required to provide information on their Regional Managers and Senior Officers, to be filled in the attached Forms (1) and (3), along with brief curriculum vitae for each of them. A foreign bank should also seek SAMA's prior approval for the appointment of General Managers and Senior Officers of its branches operating in the Kingdom, and it should provide SAMA with information on them as per the Forms Nos. (1) and (3) attached herein along with brief curriculum vitae for each of them, 15 days prior to such appointments.

When making appointments to the above positions, a bank should indicate in its employment agreements that such appointments are subject to SAMA's prior approval.

The information required under item #5 above is to be provided to SAMA – Banking Supervision Department - for the year ending 31st December 2005 by 31st January 2006 and thereafter annually. The effective date of this Circular is 1st April 2005 (22/2/1426 H).

You are kindly requested to comply with the provisions of this Circular and advise all your branches and representative offices to act accordingly.