The Relationship between Demographic Features, Career Satisfaction, and Organisational Commitment: Evidence from the Kuwaiti Banking Sector

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The thesis is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy of the University of Portsmouth

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Abstract

This study investigates issues related to career satisfaction and organisational commitment. The research was conducted within the Kuwaiti banking sector with the important feature of Kuwaitisation forming a key aspect. Grounded in social cognitive career theory, career theory, and cross-cultural comparison theories, this study specifically examines the relationship between demographic features, career satisfaction, and organisational commitment within the Kuwaiti banking sector. A systematic review of the empirical literature was undertaken which revealed that these issues are under-researched. The majority of previous studies in these fields have been conducted in different cultural contexts, and research in Kuwait has been lacking to date.

The research approach is a quantitative one. During July 2015, a self-report questionnaire was distributed to employees working in all business departments at a large conventional bank (Alpha Bank) in Kuwait. Mean scores rank ordered, independent t-test, one-way ANOVA test, and structural equation modeling were employed to analyse the data. The findings suggest that age and promotion are related to career satisfaction while gender and tenure are not. In addition, the findings suggest that career satisfaction is positively related to affective, normative, and continuance commitment.

Within the Kuwaiti geographical and cultural context, this study contributes to the existing literature on career satisfaction and organisational commitment as follows. First, it provides empirical data regarding the relationship between demographic features, career satisfaction, and organisational commitment within the Kuwaiti banking sector. Second, prior studies have assumed career satisfaction to be a unitary construct and limited attention has been given to its comprising aspects. Consequently, this research has examined these aspects in relation to age, gender, tenure, and promotion to provide a deeper understanding of the aspects of greatest meaning in the Kuwaiti context. Third, it extends support to the relevance and applicability of traditional approaches to explaining career phenomena. Fourth, it contributes new knowledge about normative and continuance commitment as components of organisational commitment, in relation to career satisfaction.
Dedication

With genuine gratitude, I dedicate this thesis to my beloved wife who has been a constant source of support and encouragement during this long journey. Although we went through some distressing times, I could not have completed this thesis without your ongoing motivation and encouragement. You are my angel, thank you for everything.
Acknowledgements

All praise be to Allah, the All-Compassionate and the All-Merciful, for all His blessings and bountiful provisions. This has been a remarkable and enriching journey, one which would not have been successfully completed without the support and guidance of a number of individuals.

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My research would not have been possible without the support from my research participants and therefore I wish to express my gratitude and appreciation to the senior management at Alpha Bank for their full support and cooperation during my data collection.

Finally, thank you to my parents, brothers, sister, and friends for your support during this journey. Thank you all for everything.
Declaration

The Relationship between Demographic Features, Career Satisfaction, and Organisational Commitment: Evidence from the Kuwaiti Banking Sector

The thesis is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy of the University of Portsmouth.

Whilst registered as a candidate for the above degree, I have not been registered for any other research award. The results and conclusions embodied in this thesis are the work of the named candidate and have not been submitted for any other academic award.

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## Abbreviations

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<td>AVE</td>
<td>Average Variance Extracted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CBoK</td>
<td>Central Bank of Kuwait</td>
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<tr>
<td>CB-SEM</td>
<td>Co-variance Based SEM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFA</td>
<td>Confirmatory Factor Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>Comparative Fit Index</td>
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<tr>
<td>CR</td>
<td>Construct Reliability</td>
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<tr>
<td>EFA</td>
<td>Exploratory Factor Analysis</td>
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<tr>
<td>GCC</td>
<td>Gulf Cooperation Council</td>
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<tr>
<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRM</td>
<td>Human Resources Management</td>
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<tr>
<td>IBS</td>
<td>Institute of Banking Studies</td>
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<tr>
<td>IMF</td>
<td>International Monetary Fund</td>
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<tr>
<td>IT</td>
<td>Information Technology</td>
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<tr>
<td>KD</td>
<td>Kuwaiti Dinar</td>
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<tr>
<td>MGRP</td>
<td>Manpower and Government Restructuring Program</td>
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<tr>
<td>MBA</td>
<td>Master of Business Administration</td>
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<tr>
<td>ML</td>
<td>Maximum Likelihood</td>
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<td>PLS-SEM</td>
<td>Partial Least Square SEM</td>
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<tr>
<td>PACI</td>
<td>Public Authority for Civil Information</td>
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<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>Root Mean Square Error of Approximation</td>
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<tr>
<td>SCCT</td>
<td>Social Cognitive Career Theory</td>
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<td>SEM</td>
<td>Structural Equation Modelling</td>
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<td>Abbreviation</td>
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<tr>
<td>SL</td>
<td>Standardised Loadings</td>
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<td>SRMR</td>
<td>Standardised Root Mean Square Residual</td>
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<tr>
<td>U.A.E.</td>
<td>United Arab Emirates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
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<tr>
<td>USD</td>
<td>United States Dollar</td>
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<tr>
<td>VIF</td>
<td>Variance Inflation Factor</td>
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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This study brings together the topics of career satisfaction and organisational commitment, and adds to the scant published knowledge about the relationship between them and demographic features within Kuwait. The Kuwaiti banking sector, which forms the setting of this study, is outlined in this chapter, along with Kuwaitisation – an important feature within the research. The major theoretical contribution of this research is the provision of new insights into the relationship between demographic features, career satisfaction, and organisational commitment in Kuwait, a country which has largely been ignored in the research literature to date. The theoretical basis for this study is Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994; Lent & Brown, 2006), career theory (Baruch, 2006, 2015; Baruch & Bozionelos, 2010; Baruch, Szűcs, & Gunz, 2015; C. I. Lee, Felps, & Baruch, 2014; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009), and cross-cultural comparison theories (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004; Inglehart, 2004; Trompenaars, 1993). The research is grounded in positivism, utilising a quantitative approach through a self-report questionnaire designed to capture respondents’ perceptions about career satisfaction and organisational commitment at a single point in time. Empirical data were gathered at a single-site, referred to in this study as Alpha Bank.

This chapter begins by examining the background to – and rationale for – this study, including the concept of career and approaches to it. It then explores the research location at both a country and sector level, including the relevant policies in operation. Next, the concepts of career satisfaction and organisational commitment are considered before HRM in the Middle East, along with the specific research site, are examined further. In the final part of the chapter, the research aim, research questions, and contributions are outlined before concluding with an explanation of the structure of this thesis, including the arguments explored in each chapter.
1.2 Background and Rationale for this Study

The term career is of Latin origin and means ‘wheeled vehicle’ (Donald, Baruch, & Ashleigh, 2017). Career is a complex phenomenon (Chudzikowski, 2012) and consequently has several implications for both research and practice. Scholars undertaking research in this field aim to understand how career is enacted and perceived by employees. At a practical level, because employees aim to have a successful career that they are satisfied with, practitioners seek to understand the career phenomenon so they can help employees successfully manage their careers and thereby enable more productive use of labour resources. However, based on the fragmented nature of the career field and its related studies, the research literature suggests that career is not a well-defined concept (Baruch et al., 2015; C. I. Lee et al., 2014; Schein, 2007); to the extent that it suffers from "surplus meaning" (Hall, 1976, p. 1). One explanation for such divergent views is the prevalence of different research traditions and methodologies (Guest & Sturges, 2007; Gunz & Mayrhofer, 2011).

Most studies related to career have been undertaken in a Western context. As a result, the issues as they relate to cultural contexts such as Kuwait (the location for this research) have received less research attention. However, career is likely to be affected by socio-cultural values and specific labour market conditions. As part of this study, the specific issues of career satisfaction and organisational commitment are examined in the specific context of the Kuwaiti banking sector, a new and under-researched context. In the following two sub-sections, the two main approaches, the 'traditional' and the 'contemporary' (Donald et al., 2017) are discussed before the specific features of career satisfaction and organisational commitment are introduced.

1.2.1 The Traditional Approach to Career

The traditional career approach has long dominated research literature (Afiouni, 2014; Baruch & Bozionelos, 2010; Clarke, 2013; Park, 2010) and represents a "one size fits all" career perspective (Donald et al., 2017, p. 133). This approach to career reflects an organisation's hierarchical and structured nature, where positions are organised in accordance to a strict division of labour (Chudzikowski, 2012). As a result, one feature of this approach is that hierarchical titles and positions act as career motivating factors for
employees (Baruch & Bozionelos, 2010; Bravo, Seibert, Kraimer, Wayne, & Liden, 2017; Kovalenko & Mortelmans, 2014). Another feature of this approach is the provision of stable careers over time (Clarke, 2013; Dai & Song, 2016; Donald et al., 2017). Thus, from this perspective, career is understood to unfold over time within a stable organisational structure that provides clear hierarchical progression (Bravo et al., 2017; Donald et al., 2017; Kovalenko & Mortelmans, 2014; Lyons, Schweitzer, & Ng, 2015).

In addition, the traditional career approach assumes that employees move in a predictable and predefined sequence of jobs within an organisation (and within only one or just a few organisations rather than many) to attain higher ranking titles, greater responsibility and authority, and larger salaries (Bravo et al., 2017; Kovalenko & Mortelmans, 2014; Lyons et al., 2015). Moreover, this approach places an emphasis on long-term loyalty and commitment as well as job security in the employee-organisation relationship (Baruch, 2015; Clarke, 2013; Dai & Song, 2016; Donald et al., 2017; Kovalenko & Mortelmans, 2014; Lyons et al., 2015; Park, 2010). Consequently, employees’ loyalty and commitment to their organisation may be rewarded with promotion and upward mobility in terms of higher salaries and hierarchical status (Chudzikowski, 2012).

1.2.2 The Contemporary Approach to Career

The second – and more recent – conceptualisation of career adopts a non-linear approach and is sometimes referred to as the contemporary approach (Afiouni, 2014; Donald et al., 2017). From this perspective, rather than unfolding over time, career is constructed. Contrary to the traditional career approach, this approach came about as a result of changes in the business environment; where organisations have become flatter and there are consequently fewer opportunities for hierarchical progression (Baruch & Bozionelos, 2011; Bravo et al., 2017; Lyons et al., 2015).

The contemporary approach to understanding career focuses on flexible career paths and greater mobility across organisations (Baruch & Forstenlechner, 2017; Chudzikowski, 2012; Kovalenko & Mortelmans, 2014; Lyons et al., 2015). Another feature of this approach is a shift in focus away from stable, hierarchical career progression (in addition to loyalty and commitment to the organisation) within a single organisation, to a more of an individualistic career focus motivated by the employee’s career goals (Baruch
& Bozionelos, 2010; Clarke, 2013; Lyons et al., 2015). As a result, and in contrast to the traditional career approach, it assumes that responsibility for career management moves away from the organisation and onto its employees (Akkermans, Brenninkmeijer, Huibers, & Blonk, 2013; Baruch & Forstenlechner, 2017; Clarke, 2013; Joo, Park, & Oh, 2013; Jung & Takeuchi, 2018; Lyons et al., 2015; Moon & Choi, 2017; Orser & Leck, 2010).

Focussing upon the employees themselves, this career approach emphasises employability and assumes that they are proactive, tolerant of ambiguity, take risks, and have more autonomy (Ballout, 2009; Clarke, 2013; C. I. Lee et al., 2014). Within the literature, this approach to career has been labelled using terms such as the 'Protean' career (Hall, 1976) and the 'Boundaryless' career (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994). While several other terms have been proposed, the Protean and Boundaryless career models have received the most attention (Afiouni, 2014; Gubler, Arnold, & Coombs, 2014; C. I. Lee et al., 2014; Verbruggen, 2012). These approaches are discussed within Chapter 3.

The argument advanced in this study is that in the context of the Kuwaiti banking sector (as discussed in Chapter 2), career progression and decisions take place in more structured organisations. Within this sector, legitimacy is derived from organisational structure along with the procedures, norms, and established competencies and responsibilities for each job within the hierarchy. One of the key characteristics is that career advancement, leading to prestige and social status sponsored by the organisation, is the norm. Given this context, it is considered that perceptions of career satisfaction will be associated with characteristics derived from a 'traditional' approach to career. Therefore, the research is grounded in such an approach and adopts Wilensky’s (1960, p. 554) definition of career as “a succession of related jobs, arranged in a hierarchy of prestige, through which persons move in an ordered, predictable sequence”.

1.3 Career Satisfaction

The basic tenet in career research is that employees fundamentally care about their career (P. Lee, 2003) and aim to be satisfied with it (Akkermans et al., 2013). This is because it provides them with meaning in their life (Steger, Dik, & Duffy, 2012) and shapes their professional career identity (Aytekin, Erdogmus, Erdil, & Akgün, 2016; Skorikov & Vondracek, 2011). Accordingly, career satisfaction may influence how

Career itself may be assessed in relation to different concepts such as career success (Heslin, 2005) and career satisfaction (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990). As will be discussed in Chapter 3, different definitions for career success have been put forward but there is no consensus among researchers (Heslin, 2005). Nonetheless, career success has generally been viewed in the literature as a positive outcome of employees’ career experiences (Heslin, 2005; Judge, Cable, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1995; Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005).

The literature, however, indicates that career success is problematic to both operationalise and measure. To illustrate this, prior literature has used several approaches to operationalise career success; these include objective versus subjective, self-referent versus other-referent (Heslin, 2005), as well as a multi-dimensional approach (Dries, Pepermans, & Carlier, 2008). In another example, prior literature has operationalised subjective career success by using multiple concepts such as career satisfaction, marketability, career commitment, and job satisfaction (Abele, Spurk, & Volmer, 2011; Converse, Pathak, DePaul-Haddock, Gotlib, & Merbedone, 2012; Eby, Butts, & Lockwood, 2003; Greenhaus et al., 1990; Heslin, 2005; Judge & Bretz, 1994; Seibert & Kramer, 2001).

Within the established research literature, the concept of career satisfaction is better established in comparison to career success. It represents employees’ subjective perceptions and evaluations of their career progression and outcomes. In addition, it reflects the balance between employees’ career expectations and the achievement of their overall career goals as well as the gratification employees derive from fulfilling their career aspirations, expectations, or needs (C. I. Lee et al., 2017; Martínez-León, Olmedo-Cifuentes, & Ramón-Llorens, 2018). Following the work of Greenhaus et al. (1990), career satisfaction is defined as the satisfaction employees derive from both the intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of their career, and is measured in relation to income, advancement, career goals progress, new skills development, and career success as a whole.

Career satisfaction is viewed as an important and complex psychological concept because it is linked to employees' current and future motivation. It is considered to be a
concept which is equally as important for organisations as it is for employees (Jung & Takeuchi, 2018; C. I. Lee et al., 2017; Martínez-León et al., 2018); with implications for behaviours connected with absenteeism (Nachbagauer & Riedl, 2002), well-being and life satisfaction (Arogundade & Aremu, 2017), organisational commitment (Aryee & Chayt, 1994; Grimland, Vigoda-Gadot, & Baruch, 2012; Igbaria, 1991; Jaiswal, Pathardikar, & Sahu, 2016; Joo & Park, 2010; Kuchinke, Kang, & Oh, 2008; Lingard & Lin, 2004; Yap, Cukier, & Holmes, 2010), turnover intention (Armstrong-Stassen & Ursel, 2009; Nauta, Vianen, Heijden, Dam, & Willemsen, 2009), and productivity as well as engagement (Abele et al., 2011; Yap et al., 2010).

As will be discussed in Chapter 4 (Systematic Review of the Empirical Literature), most research studies into career satisfaction focus on countries other than Kuwait. For example, evidence presented in the chapter shows that attention has been given to the North American context (10 studies in the United States (U.S.) and two studies in Canada). The Asian cultural context is represented by 10 studies, conducted in Singapore, Israel, China, India, Korea, Malaysia, and Sri-Lanka. The European cultural context is represented by studies conducted in Germany, Austria, and Norway. The African cultural context is represented by only one study, conducted in Cameroon; while the Australian context is also represented in only one study. Although these countries represent different areas of the world, the Kuwaiti context has not been considered.

1.4 Factors Affecting Career Satisfaction

Current career literature assumes that career is a stable phenomenon and that all employees experience it similarly. However, SCCT, which forms the grounding for this research (see Chapter 3), suggests that employees' careers and career satisfaction are both influenced by contextual factors, which in the case of this study, include factors such as societal culture, Islamic values, Kuwaitisation, and career approach; and by demographic features. For example, the traditional career approach occurs within the context of the Kuwaiti cultural characteristics of collectivism and high uncertainty-avoidance as well as high power-distance. Such characteristics may influence how employees define their career needs which, in turn, may impact upon their perception of career satisfaction. Consequently, Martínez-León et al. (2018) have recommended that
future research should investigate the influence of personal and cultural factors on career satisfaction in different countries. Therefore, as will be explained in Chapter 3, this research examines career satisfaction in relation to age, gender, tenure, and promotion; demographic features that play an influential role in employees' attitudes, motivation, and performance (Emiroğlu, Akova, & Tanriverdi, 2015; Huei, Mansor, & Tat, 2014).

1.5 Career Satisfaction in the Kuwaiti Context

A careful search of the research literature suggests that career satisfaction remains under-researched within the context of Kuwait. However, as the construct of career satisfaction may not have the same meaning in different cultures (Tu, Forret, & Sullivan, 2006), research into this issue in Kuwait is timely and relevant. To illustrate this, existing career satisfaction studies have been conducted within different cultural contexts such as Cameroon (Karatepe, 2012), China (Guan et al., 2014), Germany (Hirschi, Herrmann, Nagy, & Spurk, 2016), India (Jaiswal et al., 2016), Korea (Kuchinke et al., 2008), Norway (Richardsen, Mikkelsen, & Burke, 1997), Singapore (Aryee & Chayt, 1994), Sri Lanka (Wickramasinghe & Jayaweera, 2010), and the U.S. (Greenhaus et al., 1990). However, as societal culture exerts influence on how employees evaluate their employment experience, further investigation into career satisfaction in other cultural contexts – such as that of Kuwait – is necessary (Kats, Hetty Van Emmerik, Blenkinsopp, & Khapova, 2010). Hence, the findings of this study have the potential to provide a new insight into career satisfaction in the Kuwaiti banking sector, a new and under-researched context.

1.6 Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment is considered an influential factor that underpins organisational and employee performance (Nazari & Emami, 2012; Yang & Pandey, 2009), as well as employees' attitudes and behaviours in the workplace (Osman-Gani, Hashim, & Ismail, 2010). As a result, it has been suggested that committed employees are more likely to work harder to achieve their organisation's goals (Meyer et al., 2012; Perryer, Jordan, Firns, & Travaglione, 2010). In addition, organisational commitment has been linked with positive employee attitudes and behaviours in relation to lower employee
turnover and absenteeism, as well as higher productivity and motivation (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Having said that, researchers have yet to agree how to define and measure organisational commitment as a result of its complex nature (Casper, Harris, Taylor-Bianco, & Wayne, 2011; Ehrhardt, Miller, Freeman, & Hom, 2011; Kaur & Sandhu, 2010; H. Klein, Molloy & Cooper, 2009a; Meyer & Maltin, 2010). However, in one of the main meta-analyses in this field, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) stated that a common theme in the literature is that organisational commitment may be considered as a 'bond' of employees to their organisations. Therefore, this research draws on the understanding of organisational commitment proposed by Meyer and Allen (1997), which comprises three components: affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment; and is assessed using their scales, as will be discussed in Chapter 3.

1.7 Organisational Commitment in the Kuwaiti Context

As with career satisfaction, research into organisational commitment is dominated by Western perspectives and studies. However, organisational commitment may be experienced differently in other cultural contexts such as Kuwait. This issue is recognised by scholars (e.g., Bergman, 2006; Fischer & Mansell, 2009; Wasti & Onder, 2009) and acknowledged by Meyer and Allen (1997) and Meyer et al. (2012). As will be discussed in Chapter 3, a number of studies have suggested that normative commitment – an obligation to commit to an organisation – may be culturally influenced (K. Lee, Allen, Meyer, & Rhee, 2001; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010). Specifically, Kuwait is considered to be a collectivist culture (Hofstede et al., 2010) in which loyalty is fundamental, and harmonious relationships are sought and protected. Likewise, employees maintain group harmony and a sense of belonging, relationship prevails over task, shame feelings are avoided, and the relationship between organisation and employee is morally based (Erdogan & Liden, 2006; Gausel, Leach, Vignoles, & Brown, 2012; Hofstede et al., 2010; Wasti & Onder, 2009).

It is considered that continuance commitment – whereby employees might feel that they ought to commit to the organisation – may also be culturally influenced (Aladwan, Bhanugopan, & Fish, 2013; Clugston, Howell, & Dorfman, 2000). Kuwait has a high preference for uncertainty avoidance, new situations are less tolerated, and security is a
fundamental factor for employees’ motivation (Hofstede et al., 2010). Consequently, employees avoid uncertainty and risk taking (Kats et al., 2010; Loi & Ngo, 2010; Moon & Choi, 2017). Therefore, compared to the Western cultural context, employees in high uncertainty avoidance cultures might exhibit higher continuance commitment. This stems, for example, from a desire to avoid the potential risk of failure in new employment opportunities as well as the loss of security and attained financial benefits in their current organisation (Aladwan et al., 2013; Clugston et al., 2000). These issues are further discussed in Chapter 3.

Considering the above, it is anticipated that organisational commitment is experienced differently in the Kuwaiti cultural context, particularly in relation to normative and continuance commitment. However, these issues have not yet been subject to research. This study therefore provides a timely opportunity to examine affective, normative, and continuance commitment in a new context – the Kuwaiti cultural context – by following Meyer and Allen's (1997) conceptualisation and utilising their scales.

1.8 Organisational Commitment in the Kuwaiti Banking Sector

Organisational commitment is of essential importance to both organisations and employees in all sectors, including the Kuwaiti banking sector. In relation to organisations, existing literature indicates that commitment greatly influences an organisation’s performance (Oztekin, Isçi, & Karadag, 2015) as well as its profitability and market competitiveness (Ramay, 2012). When considering employees, other scholars (e.g., Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002) suggest that organisational commitment also affects employee performance. Therefore, it is suggested that it is critical for organisations to enhance the commitment of their employees (Zaitouni, Sawalha, & Sharif, 2011). It could be argued, consequently, that this is of particular importance for the banking sector since it is performance and profit driven, and needs to have a stable operation and workforce in order to be successful.

The Kuwaiti banking sector faces both external and internal challenges that impact upon employees' commitment to their banks. Externally, there is stiff competition between local banks for high performing employees. Contributing further to this
competition, foreign banks are now allowed to operate within Kuwait and consequently, more employment opportunities have been created and competition for high performing employees has increased further. This is because foreign banks sought to recruit experienced and qualified employees working in local banks by offering greater financial and non-financial benefits. The government mandate for Kuwaitisation (see Chapter 2) is another external challenge where all banks are currently required to employ a minimum of 70% of Kuwaitis within their workforces. Non-compliance with this requirement results in legal consequences and as a result, banks head-hunt qualified Kuwaiti employees from each other to satisfy this requirement.

With regards to internal challenges, a number of studies have suggested that employees who are unhappy with their work and/or their organisation may exhibit lower organisational commitment (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Hashmi & Naqvi, 2012; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002). In this respect, bank employees suffer from large workloads, long working hours, and exposure to high operational risks (Shrivastava & Gupta, 2015). Therefore, attention to levels of organisational commitment is required.

In addition to research into organisational commitment, other associated constructs have also been considered relevant by researchers operating in Western contexts. For example, current Western literature assesses the employee-organisation relationship in terms of trust, engagement, or a psychological contract within countries that are developed and advanced in their socio-economic infrastructures. However, in a more 'traditional' cultural context such as Kuwait, organisational commitment can be considered as a more appropriate measure to assess the employee-organisation relationship.

Kuwait – along with other Arab countries – lags behind many developed economies with regards to globalisation and external connectivity (Zahra, 2011), as well as in relation to developments in Human Resources Management (HRM), people management, and career development (Afiouni, Karam, & El-Hajj, 2013). In such a context, rigidity and inflexibility characterise the structures and practices in many Arab organisations (Afiouni et al., 2013). Within these organisations, employees tend to favour following written rules that instruct them how to fulfill their tasks (Al-Qataweh, 2014). As a result of this traditional, hierarchical, and bureaucratic context, concepts such as organisational
commitment are a more appropriate focus of interest than emergent concepts developed in the context of flexibility and potential volatility in features of the employment relationship.

1.9 Organisational Commitment and Career Approach

This section brings together the discussions about career and organisational commitment and career satisfaction. The key argument being that the concept of organisational commitment within the Kuwaiti context aligns more with the traditional than the contemporary career approach.

As indicated in Sub-section 1.2.1, the traditional career approach focuses on the objective-organisational level of career (Clarke, 2013), built on a mutual long-term employee-organisation relationship. Within this approach, the career paths of employees are planned, and desired performance, commitment, and loyalty to their organisation may be rewarded with job security, hierarchical advancement, salary growth, power, and status. Within this context, career focused employees who perceive that their organisation supports them to satisfy their career needs and expectations would, consequently, exhibit higher organisational commitment. Typical examples of such a career approach are large financial institutions, such as Kuwaiti banks, where career patterns are still primarily characterised by long-term employment and linear career progression, and where features of organisational commitment are likely to be more important.

In contrast, the contemporary career approach focuses on the individual-subjective level of career (Clarke, 2013). This approach is grounded on short-term employee-organisation employment and loyalty (Rodrigues, Guest, Oliveira, & Alfes, 2015), and promotes employability rather than employment security (Clarke, 2013). Accordingly, it relies heavily on employees' individualism, agency, independence, and self-reliance. Therefore, this career approach assumes that employees commit to themselves rather than their organisation and careers are no longer enacted within a single organisation. The consequence of this is considered to be diminishing organisational commitment.
1.10 HRM in the Middle East

As career is a feature of the study of HRM, this section discusses HRM in the Middle East in order to provide further contextual background. It begins with a definition of the geographical area covered before considering the body of research into HRM in the region. It then explores the specific socio-cultural and political realities and challenges facing HRM within this region. Finally, it concludes with a summary of the factors shaping the development of HRM, and the specific challenges facing the Middle East. A more detailed assessment of the Kuwaiti context is provided in Chapter 2.

The Middle East region represents a cultural area which lacks agreement in the literature about its defined border, resulting in different terms being used to denote it (Budhwar, Pereira, Mellahi, & Singh, 2018; Siddique, Khan, & Zia, 2016). Accordingly, within this study, the Middle East is defined in terms of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) and Middle East and North Africa Arab countries. Topically, HRM is a field within which developments are well documented. However, historically, most research has taken place within developed countries (e.g., Afiouni et al., 2013), and there has been no clear picture in relation to the Middle East.

Within the last six years however, research targeting HRM issues in the Middle East – and the GCC countries in particular – has started to emerge (Afiouni, Ruël, & Schuler, 2014; Iles, Almhedie, & Baruch, 2012; Namazie & Venegas, 2015). This growth recognises the context-specific nature of this region that sets it apart from the rest of the world (Afiouni et al., 2014; Budhwar & Mellahi, 2007); and its unique socio-cultural, economic, political, and legal factors have consequences for HRM theory and practice. In addition, the increasing trend towards government intervention in HRM through the implementation of localisation policies (in the case of GCC countries) is a phenomenon requiring further research and examination (Budhwar et al., 2018; Waxin, Lindsay, Belkhodja, & Zhao, 2018). Finally, and with relevance for this study, Iles et al. (2012) maintain that HRM – and specifically career – in the Middle East is linked to national politics; legal, socio-cultural, and economic dynamics; and gender and ethnicity.

In addition, there now exists a sufficient body of research to enable a systematic review, one which has been recently conducted by Budhwar et al. (2018). Their review suggests that within existing HRM studies in the Middle East, the geographical focus of
research has been on Egypt, Jordan, and Saudi Arabia. Moreover, from a subject matter perspective, the review highlights that HRM literature generated in the Middle East mainly focuses on general HRM topics such personnel management. Looking further into the details, when considering the specific issues addressed by these studies, gender and HRM have received the greatest level of attention along with talent management and expatriation. Of particular interest in relation to this study is the fact that while some studies have been undertaken within the Kuwaiti context, it has not been a geographical focus. Further, as part of those studies little research consideration has been given to localisation policies; something which this study sets out to explore further.

Although HRM in the Middle East is experiencing development, challenges remain. These challenges include increasing unemployment rates, particularly among younger individuals; and socio-cultural traditions including gender inequality and was ta (Budhwar et al., 2018). In this respect, was ta is defined as the process of utilising support from influential people or connections to obtain sought promotion and advancement (Whiteoak, Crawford, & Mapstone, 2006); instead of being solely dependent on employees’ abilities and qualifications (Metcalfe, 2006). These challenges are outlined next.

The rapidly growing youth population in the Middle East, coupled with a historic reliance on foreign nationals (Waxin et al., 2018), has put pressure on its countries to adapt to socio-economic changes as a result of high unemployment (Namazie & Venegas, 2015; Ryan, 2016). Facing such a reality, measures have been implemented to counteract this situation, for example, by investing heavily in developing their own citizens as a major strategic priority. This aim of this is to reduce dependence on the oil sector (particularly in GCC countries) by developing other sectors such as banking, manufacturing, and services (Ryan, 2016).

In parallel, localisation policies (particularly in GCC countries) have been implemented which involve the enforcement of hiring quotas and the allocation of specific positions to be occupied solely by local nationals; in order to reduce reliance on expatriates and generate employment opportunities for local citizens. Accordingly, organisations have been required to localise their HRM practices of recruitment, training and development, career management, compensation, and talent management to serve
As a result of these changes in national focus and priorities, emerging evidence in the current literature suggests that most countries in the Middle East are now paying more attention to HRM, and localisation policies in particular (Waxin et al., 2018). The implications of these issues in the specific context of Kuwait, and its Kuwaitisation policies, are discussed in Chapter 3.

Cultural values and traditions represent possibly the greatest HRM challenge. The findings of different cultural frameworks (e.g., Hofstede et al., 2010; House et al., 2004; Schwartz & Bardi, 2001) have characterised Middle Eastern countries – Arab cultures – as being traditional and conservative, exhibiting high power-distance, uncertainty-avoidance, and collectivism; high regard for religion, high respect and obedience for authority; and an appreciation of traditional family structures. As outlined next, within this context, wasta and gender inequality – specifically in relation to the role of women – offer substantial challenges for, and impact upon, HRM in the Middle East.

The use of wasta represents a significant challenge for HRM within the Middle East with Iles et al. (2012) noting that its use is high in both social and business affairs. An increase in use of wasta has resulted from bureaucratic obstacles, lack of transparency and accountability, and competition for scarce jobs and related benefits (Budhwar et al., 2018). This has potentially negative implications for HRM in this region in terms of not recruiting competent employees based on qualifications, along with reduced equality and fairness. This results in unfair practices in the workplace with consequent impacts on the quality of staff progressing within organisations (Budhwar et al. 2018; Iles et al., 2012).

Looking at the role of women, Metcalfe (2006) suggested that a lack of concern for equal opportunities, combined with patriarchal and religious gender codes, is a hindering HRM factor. More recently, Iles et al. (2012) have suggested that strongly gendered career development and persistent inequalities, coupled with a frequent lack of support for women’s career achievement, are also pervasive themes. Such features have an impact on HRM in this region in that within this context, an individual’s social identity and loyalty is to family and social relationships rather than to organisations (Iles et al., 2012; Namazie & Venegas, 2015). This often results in inequitable criteria being applied for recruitment, promotion, and compensation; in addition to the under-utilisation of female professional capabilities – both at work and in society in general. As a result, female
labour participation rates within the Middle East are the lowest in the world (Afiouni et al., 2013).

In summary, the development of HRM is shaped by the unique set of socio-cultural, economic, political, and legal factors that operate within a country or region. Such development is well-researched within Western cultures but under-researched in areas such as the Middle East (particularly Kuwait). However, research in this area is increasing and is highlighting significant challenges for Middle Eastern countries, both from a socio-cultural and a political perspective.

1.11 Research Site

This section introduces the research site, Alpha Bank, which is further discussed in Chapter 2. It highlights the nature of its operations and its financial results before briefly presenting the demographics of its employees, with an emphasis on Kuwaitisation.

The research for this study was conducted in a single organisation in Kuwait, referred to here as Alpha Bank. It is a well-established bank in the Kuwaiti banking sector and provides banking services that satisfy the needs of its retail and corporate customers. Corporate and retail banking and financing services are the main functions which generate most of its income and profit, it has a large network of branches across Kuwait, and is listed on Kuwait’s stock exchange. A recent financial report¹ highlighted its stable business operations and favourable business results. Compared to 2016, in 2017 Alpha Bank reported positive financial indicators, such as (figures rounded) growth in net profit by 10%, net interest income by 10%, fee income by 8%, balance sheet by 7%, shareholders’ equity by 8%, total assets by 7%, and operating income by 8%. In addition, capital adequacy stood at 19% which exceeds the 14% minimum requirement imposed by Central Bank of Kuwait (CBoK). In relation to its workforce, it numbered 920 at the time of the research with female employees representing 55% of the workforce, compared to 45% for their male counterparts, and more than half of employees were at clerical hierarchical level. In addition, 70% of its workforce were Kuwaitis which is compliant with the government’s imposed Kuwaitisation quota.

¹ Reference not provided to maintain anonymity.
1.12 Research Aim and Questions

The research undertaken as part of this study aims to expand current knowledge and to contribute new insights into the relationship between demographic features, career satisfaction, and organisational commitment within the Kuwaiti banking sector. Within the context of this sector and country, it examines career satisfaction in relation to age, gender, tenure, and promotion as well as affective, normative, and continuance commitment. To achieve this aim, it seeks to answer the following research questions (referred to as RQ):

*RQ1: What difference do demographic features make to career satisfaction within the Kuwaiti banking sector?*

*RQ2: What is the relationship between career satisfaction and the different features of organisational commitment within the Kuwaiti banking sector?*

The research propositions arising from the literature review are set-out at the end of Chapter 3 and the research hypotheses that form the basis for the analysis are set-out at end of Chapter 4.

1.13 Research Contribution

The research reported in this thesis contributes to the scant research base into career satisfaction and organisational commitment in Kuwait. Being grounded in SCCT (Lent et al., 1994; Lent & Brown, 2006), career theory (Baruch, 2006, 2015; Baruch & Bozionelos, 2010; Baruch et al., 2015; C. I. Lee et al., 2014; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009), and cross-cultural comparison theories (Hofstede et al., 2010; House et al., 2004; Inglehart, 2004; Trompenaars, 1993). It is the first – both in general and within the Kuwaiti banking sector – to examine the comprising aspects of career satisfaction in relation to age, gender, tenure, and promotion. Prior studies have assumed career satisfaction to be a unitary construct and limited attention has been given to its component parts. Thus, the findings of this study contribute towards advancements in this area of knowledge.
In addition, this study contributes to current understanding related to career and organisational commitment within HRM. Further, this study provides new contributions to the debate regarding traditional career theory by supporting its relevance and applicability in Kuwait. It also contributes to the literature base by extending support for the conceptualisations and scales of organisational commitment (using Meyer & Allen, 1997) and contributes to the literature base by examining career satisfaction as conceptualised by Greenhaus et al. (1990) for employees working within the Kuwaiti banking sector. Moreover, this study is of interest to both scholars and practitioners in this field. It is the first to provide scholars with insights into the relationship between career satisfaction in relation to age, gender, tenure, and promotion; in addition to affective, normative, and continuance commitment in the new and under-researched context of Kuwait’s banking sector. These new insights will enhance current understanding and extend cross-cultural comparisons with respect to career satisfaction and organisational commitment.

In relation to practitioners, this study makes a significant contribution by helping them better understand how career satisfaction and organisational commitment are understood and perceived in the cultural context of Kuwait. It is considered that the research outcomes could be used by practitioners to review their career and organisational commitment practices, by considering different cultural factors – such as socio-cultural and Islamic values in addition to Kuwaitisation and career approach – and their implications on these constructs. In addition, this study is seen as a self-learning process for the researcher to develop a deeper understanding about career satisfaction and organisational commitment to contribute towards better professional practices within the business domain. Further, this study contributes to the understanding of the constructs of career satisfaction and organisational commitment by providing new insights from the Kuwaiti banking sector, a new and under-researched context.

In summary, the findings emerging from this study are of interest to scholars in the career satisfaction, organisational commitment, and HRM fields. At a practitioner level, they also have relevance to practices in the Kuwaiti banking sector, and specifically, to Alpha Bank. The contributions to academic knowledge and practice are detailed in Chapter 9 (Conclusion). Having discussed the research background, rationale, research questions, and contribution, the structure of this thesis is outlined next.
1.14 Structure of this Thesis

This thesis comprises nine chapters: Introduction, Research Context, Literature Review, Systematic Review of the Empirical Literature, Research Methodology, Data Examination and Preparation, Data Analysis and Findings, Discussion, and Conclusion. The structure of each of the following chapters will now be outlined below.

**Chapter 2: Research Context.** The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the context of this research with an emphasis on Kuwaitisation. To begin, a background to Kuwait is provided in terms of its geographical location in the Middle East and its population characteristics. Then, the political and legal environment is discussed and compared to other countries in the region. Similarly, the social and cultural perspectives that shape living in Kuwait are presented before moving onto the economic conditions. The next part describes the banking sector, an important sector within the Kuwaiti economy, which provides the occupational context of the study, before concluding with consideration of the state of HRM in Kuwait with an emphasis on Kuwaitisation.

**Chapter 3: Literature Review.** This chapter critically evaluates the literature related to career and organisational commitment, and establishes the theoretical grounding of the research in SCCT. Key contributions to the theory and understanding of career issues, career satisfaction and organisational commitment are discussed. In particular, the work of Baruch and colleagues (Baruch, 2006, 2015; Baruch & Bozionelos, 2010; Baruch et al., 2015; C. I. Lee et al., 2014; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009), with regard to career theory; Greenhaus et al. (1990) in relation to career satisfaction, and Meyer and Allen (1997) in relation to organisational commitment are discussed. In alignment with the contextual location of the research, an analysis of the literature that considers issues associated with Kuwaitisation of employment in the Kuwait context is undertaken. Specifically, the influence that societal culture, Islamic values, and Kuwaitisation may have on the understanding of career satisfaction and organisational commitment issues in the cultural context of Kuwait is discussed. Lastly, it presents the research propositions arising from the literature review.

**Chapter 4: Systematic Review of the Empirical Literature.** This chapter builds on the assessment of the literature presented in Chapter 3 and presents a systematic review of the published empirical literature into both career satisfaction and organisational
commitment. The purpose of the systematic literature review is first to establish what is known empirically about the relationship of career satisfaction and demographic features; second, to identify the gaps in the literature; and third, to provide the basis for the operationalisation of concepts and the development of the research hypotheses.

Chapter 5: Research Methodology. According to Crotty (1998, p. 3), research methodology is "the strategy, plan of action, process or design lying behind the choice and use of particular methods and linking the choice and use of methods to the desired outcomes". Accordingly, this chapter outlines the research methodology adopted for this research. It begins by considering the research philosophy – the beliefs about the way the data within this study were to be gathered, analysed, and interpreted. Next the research design is discussed in terms of the time frame, research population and sampling strategy, respondents, instruments, and pilot study. Once the philosophy and research design are established, this chapter then outlines the information regarding the data collection methods. Section 5.5 presents a brief discussion of the ethics approval and the chapter concludes with a summary of the research design within this study.

Chapter 6: Data Examination and Preparation. The empirical data were gathered from Alpha Bank in Kuwait. This chapter describes the analytical procedures to assess the sample distribution, missing data, outliers, statistical assumptions and common method bias (CMB).

Chapter 7: Data Analysis and Findings. This chapter outlines the analysis processes undertaken to address formulated hypotheses (referred to as H1–H5) set out in Chapter 4. First, the relationship between career satisfaction and age was undertaken to address H1. Second, H2 was addressed by assessing the relationship between career satisfaction and gender. Third, the relationship between career satisfaction and tenure was examined to address H3. Fourth, an assessment of the relationship between career satisfaction and promotion was performed to address H4. Fifth, the relationship between career satisfaction and all of affective, normative, and continuance commitment was examined to address H5a, b, and c.

Chapter 8: Discussion. Drawing on conceptualisations of career satisfaction (Greenhaus et al., 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997) and grounded in SCCT (which explains career outcomes in relation to personal and contextual factors), this study aimed to
examine the relationship between demographic features, career satisfaction, and organisational commitment within the Kuwaiti banking sector. This chapter discusses and interprets the results and findings. First, it discusses career satisfaction in relation to demographic features. Next, it discusses the results related to career satisfaction in relation to affective, normative, and continuance commitment. Consistent with SCCT, this chapter considers these issues in the specific context of the Kuwaiti banking sector, arguing that the relationship between career satisfaction and demographic features and levels of affective, normative, and continuance commitment are explained by personal (demographic features) as well as contextual factors.

**Chapter 9: Conclusion.** This chapter brings together the arguments established throughout this thesis and discusses the research contributions regarding career satisfaction and organisational commitment. This chapter, in addition, provides suggestions for future research to further develop the knowledge base. Particularly, more research is needed into career satisfaction and organisational commitment to build on the findings of this study and extend the range of contexts to provide a basis for a comparison of career satisfaction and organisational commitment across different sectors and cultural contexts. Further research is also needed to evaluate the unitary conceptualisation of career satisfaction.
Chapter 2: Research Context

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the context of this research, with an emphasis on localisation initiatives. To begin, a background to Kuwait is provided in terms of its geographical location and population characteristics. Then, the political and legal environments are discussed and compared to other countries in the region. Similarly, the social and cultural perspectives that shape Kuwaiti life are presented before considering the economic conditions. Next the banking sector is discussed, an important sector for Kuwait, and one which provides the occupational context of this study. The chapter then considers the state of HRM in Kuwait with an emphasis on Kuwaitisation, before concluding with a summary of this study’s research context.

2.2 Geography of Kuwait

As shown in Figure 2.1, Kuwait is located in the eastern part of the Middle East on the north-western side of the Arabian Gulf, sharing borders with Iraq and Saudi Arabia. It is a member of the GCC, a regional political and economic union established in 1981, which comprises six countries: Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates (U.A.E.). The total area of Kuwait is 17,818 square kilometres and administratively, it comprises six governorates with Kuwait City as its capital.

Figure 2.1 Geographical location of Kuwait (BBC, 2018)
2.3 The Population of Kuwait

This section discusses the population of Kuwait, focusing on its composition in terms of Kuwaiti nationals and expatriates, gender distribution, and age-related statistics. Kuwait is a small country in terms of its population, with the Public Authority for Civil Information (PACI) reporting a population of 4.5 million in 2018. Of note is that Kuwaitis represent a minority (30%) when compared to expatriates (70%); this is something which will be discussed further within this chapter in relation to how it impacts upon, and has been impacted by, the economy and Kuwaitisation. In addition, in terms of gender distribution, Kuwait’s overall population is male dominated; although the percentage for Kuwaiti males and females are broadly similar, the percentage of expatriate males outnumbers females by over 2:1. Figure 2.2 provides comparative details between Kuwaitis and expatriates in relation to both the general population and gender distribution.

Figure 2.2 Population and gender distribution in Kuwait (PACI, 2018) (figures in millions)

![Population and gender distribution in Kuwait](image)

When considering age distribution within the population, data obtained from PACI (2018) shows that approximately 19% of Kuwaitis are below 30 years of age, while for expatriates it is 25%. In comparison, approximately 11% of Kuwaitis are 30 years of age and older, while for expatriates, the figure is just under 45%. Taking a closer look at those under 30 years of age, and considering the age brackets of 20–29 to be working age (see
Table 2.1), Kuwaitis represent approximately 5% while for expatriates the figure is approximately 14%. This statistic reflects the imbalance between Kuwaitis and expatriates in the general population. Looking ahead, of those under 20 years of age, and who will become the future working population, approximately 14% are Kuwaitis whereas only 11% are expatriates. The situation for the future is therefore that, if the current trend persists, the population of Kuwait will move towards a position where the majority of those of working age will be Kuwaitis. It must be noted, however, that Table 2.1 considers the whole population rather than just the working population, and not all those of working age will be working.

Table 2.1 Age and gender distribution for Kuwaitis and Expatriates (adapted from PACI, 2018)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age range</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Kuwaiti (%)</th>
<th>Expatriates (%)</th>
<th>Total (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>29 years old and below</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0–19</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>7.00%</td>
<td>5.56%</td>
<td>12.55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>6.75%</td>
<td>5.26%</td>
<td>12.02%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>13.75%</td>
<td>10.82%</td>
<td>24.57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20–29</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2.71%</td>
<td>10.26%</td>
<td>12.98%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2.67%</td>
<td>3.92%</td>
<td>6.60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5.39%</td>
<td>14.19%</td>
<td>19.57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of total population</td>
<td></td>
<td>19.14%</td>
<td>25.00%</td>
<td>44.14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 years old and above</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30–59</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>4.39%</td>
<td>30.74%</td>
<td>35.13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>4.98%</td>
<td>11.58%</td>
<td>16.57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9.38%</td>
<td>42.32%</td>
<td>51.70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60+</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>0.81%</td>
<td>1.61%</td>
<td>2.42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1.13%</td>
<td>0.63%</td>
<td>1.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1.93%</td>
<td>2.24%</td>
<td>4.17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of total population</td>
<td></td>
<td>11.31%</td>
<td>44.56%</td>
<td>55.86%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand total</td>
<td></td>
<td>30.44%</td>
<td>69.56%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.4 The Political and Legal Environment in Kuwait

This section discusses the political environment in Kuwait and compares it to other countries in the region. It suggests that compared to its neighbouring countries, Kuwait has a liberal, participatory, and dynamic political system while also retaining a traditional
element where tribes and merchant families exert high levels of influence. In addition, this section outlines the legal environment in Kuwait with an emphasis on expatriate employment.

Politically, Kuwait represents a constitutional monarchy which is similar to some of the other countries in the GCC region, such as Qatar. However, it differs from Saudi Arabia which is an absolute monarchy, and the U.A.E which is a federal monarchy. Kuwait is ruled by the 'Amir' (an Arabic word meaning a Prince) from the Al-Sabah family, and since 2006 has been ruled by the Amir Sabah Al-Ahmad Al-Jabir Al-Sabah. Kuwait, which means ‘a fort for storing goods and ammunitions’, became independent in 1961 and before this was a British colony.

Kuwait's political environment has its own dynamics which provide Kuwaitis with an open and participatory political system that distinguishes it from other neighbouring countries in the region. This is because the constitution of Kuwait recognises that people are the source of all power. In this respect, Zaccara (2013) conducted a comparative study in relation to the electro-political realities in the U.A.E., Oman, and Kuwait, while more recently, Quamar (2016) has undertaken a study in Saudi Arabia. These studies have revealed some unique political differences between these countries. For example, the U.A.E. and Oman have consultative councils while Kuwait has a parliament known as the National Assembly, an institution which promotes political and democratic representation. Compared to other GCC countries, the National Assembly provides Kuwaitis with the means to exercise their rights to participate in the political decision-making process. The Kuwaiti National Assembly was established in 1963, is considered to be the oldest in the region, and its legislative powers have led authors such as Zaccara (2013, p. 83) to describe it as one of the "most vibrant parliaments" in the region, as will be explained next.

As with Oman, within Kuwait both males and females are eligible to both vote and contest electoral political representation. In contrast, within the U.A.E. only males are allowed to contest election and they must be approved by the Amirs. A further difference is seen in the nature of political participation where Kuwaitis and Omanis both vote to select all members of the National Assembly and the consultative council. Again, in contrast, within the U.A.E. voters only select half of the council members and the Amirs
appoint the other half. Similarly, within Saudi Arabia, the government nominates half of the municipal council. Further, and in contrast to the Kuwaiti National Assembly, which exercises relatively extensive control over the government and has the power to amend and pass legislative laws and regulations, the councils of Oman, the U.A.E., and Saudi Arabia have no legislative and decision-making powers, and their role is limited to being consultative in nature.

Despite the above-mentioned differences, Zaccara (2013) has highlighted that Oman, Kuwait, and the U.A.E. do share political similarities such as not formally recognising political parties. Another similarity is the influence of tribes on the political system in all of the three countries, possibly as a result of what are called 'primary-elections'. The primary-election – despite being prohibited and outlawed – is conducted to select the agreed upon candidates from each tribe to support them in the formal election. Within Kuwait specifically, tribes are considered to be a key factor in influencing local politics through their considerable presence in the National Assembly. This influence is characterised by the conservative and traditional nature of their representatives who often challenge and oppose – on religious grounds – proposed government reform initiatives such as those allowing females to participate in local political affairs. Despite this, Kuwait took a leading role among other GCC countries in providing women (in 2006 via an Amiri Decree) with increased political rights.

In addition to its tribes, Kuwait’s merchant families also exert considerable influence on local politics. Historically, these families represented a small stratum of society that exercised major economic power through the control of local trades, something which resulted in them gaining strong leverage on the country’s politics (Nosova, 2017). This influence has retained momentum in the current economy by de-facto monopolisation of economic and business opportunities through specialising in particular business sectors (e.g., food); while others diversify their business presence in multiple sectors (e.g., transportation and media) (Nosova, 2017). These families govern their economic interests by unwritten ‘gentlemen’s agreements’ such that they do not interfere in each other’s sectors (Nosova, 2017).

The above economic interests were served by members of these families participating in the National Assembly, in addition to assuming influential positions in the
cabinet and crucial government bodies such as the Kuwait Investment Authority (Nosova, 2017). In addition, they formed the Kuwait Chamber of Commerce and Industry that has served as a lobbying body to influence government’s economic policy making and legislation, as well as using their media – TV and newspaper – ownership to influence public opinions (Nosova, 2017). For example, the Kuwait Chamber of Commerce and Industry supported government’s intentions to establish the Capital Market Authority (Law No. 7) in 2010 after the crash of the stock market and the failure of several big investment companies during the 2008 financial crisis.

Political stability in Kuwait has continuously suffered from contentions between members of the National Assembly and Cabinet Ministers. This has contributed to slowing the pace of economic reform policies as a result of the National Assembly’s protective attitude towards public benefits (Nosova, 2017); for example, opposing the increased economic pressure to apply unpopular measures such as a rise in petrol prices. In addition to the impacts this protective attitude has had on the economy, the contentions have led to the suspension of the National Assembly several times in recent years (Zaccara, 2013), something which further slows economic progress.

The legal system in Kuwait is an amalgam of English common law, French civil law, Islamic law, and Egyptian law (UNDESA, 2004), and its judicial system has four types of courts. The first tackles cases related to crimes and commercial disputes; the second tackles civil disputes; the third has a religious basis, tackling issues related to family matters, such as marriage and divorce; and the fourth deals with constitutional issues.

In relation to the legal context with regards to employment, Kuwait has three types of labour law that regulate employment relationships separately within the government, private, and oil sectors. When looking specifically at expatriates in Kuwait, their employment situation is subject to tight regulations. For example, they are prohibited from gaining Kuwaiti citizenship regardless of the length of time they have been resident, and expatriate employment is based on a work and residency permit that is subject to strict regulations (Baruch & Forstenlechner, 2017). Notably, expatriates in Kuwait must have a Kuwaiti sponsor, a 'Kafeel' (Forstenlechner & Rutledge, 2010) who signs all government related documents including the regular work permit renewals. The role of
the Kafeel is a significant one as they retain 51% minimum ownership in all business entities in Kuwait, as mandated by Kuwaiti law (Nosova, 2017).

In summary, the political and legal systems in Kuwait are an interesting mix of progression and traditional stability. From a progressive point of view, Kuwait differs from some of the other countries in the region because it recognises that people are the source of all power, has an established and vibrant National Assembly, men and women vote and contest, and voters select all members of the National Assembly. On the other hand, there is significant ‘tribal’ influence, factors which have contributed to slowing the pace of economic restructuring policies and which have implications for those working in Kuwait; alongside social and cultural factors which will be discussed next.

2.5 The Social and Cultural Environment in Kuwait

This section highlights the role that cultural context plays in employees’ experiences within the workplace (Banihani & Syed, 2016). In this regard, Arab values constitute a unique cultural context (Tlaiss & Mendelson, 2014). This section argues that notwithstanding its political stance, which contrasts with that of some neighbouring countries, as an Arab culture Kuwait is conservative and traditional in nature and this has implications for both the social and employment environment.

Culture is a complex concept and a single and agreed upon definition of the term has proved to be elusive; as early as 1952, more than 150 definitions had been identified (Kroeber & Kluckhohn, 1952). Hofstede (2011, p. 3) has defined culture as “the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from others”. It is considered to be a dominant definition although it has been subject to critique (e.g., Caprar, Devinney, Kirkman, & Caligiuri, 2015; Gelfand, Aycan, Erez, & Leung, 2017). Dominant models for the assessment of societal cultures are those of GLOBE (House et al., 2004), Hofstede et al. (2010), Inglehart (2004), Schwartz (1994), and Trompenaars (1993), which provide the basis for discussion in this section. The dimensions of culture that have been described for Kuwait was based on the work of Hofstede et al. (2010), are briefly outlined in Table 2.2.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Collectivism/Individualism</td>
<td>The degree of interdependence a society maintains among its members.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender egalitarianism (masculinity/femininity)</td>
<td>The extent to which gender-based role differences are a norm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertainty avoidance</td>
<td>The extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by ambiguous or unknown situations and try to avoid them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power-distance</td>
<td>The extent to which the less powerful members expect and accept that power is distributed unequally.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long-term orientation</td>
<td>The extent to which society maintains some links with its own past while dealing with the challenges of the present and future.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indulgence/Restraint</td>
<td>The extent to which people try to control their desires and impulses.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As an Arab culture, Kuwait is considered to be conservative when compared to Western cultures since it favours a traditional way of life with high regard for religion (Harrison & Michailova, 2012; Inglehart, 2004). Within this context, dominant cultural frameworks characterise Kuwait as high on power-distance whereby Kuwaitis operate within a system that does not promote significant upward mobility of its people, and accepts power and wealth inequalities (A. Klein, France Waxin, & Radnell, 2009; Sabri, 2012). In addition, Kuwaitis respect authority figures and stress the value of hierarchy (Hofstede et al., 2010; House et al., 2004; Schwartz, 1994; Smith, Dugan, & Trompenaars, 1996). As an ascription culture, status prevails over achievement (Harrison & Michailova, 2012; H. Klein et al., 2009; Trompenaars, 1993). Moreover, Kuwaitis exhibit moderate self-expression which may be attributed to respect for, and obedience to, authority figures (Harrison & Michailova, 2012; Inglehart, 2004). Consequently, they are reluctant to express themselves openly as a sign of their respect for authority and a desire to not compromise social relationships.

In addition, Kuwaiti culture values the avoidance of uncertainty. Accordingly, security, conformity, and tradition are important (Harrison & Michailova, 2012; Hofstede et
al., 2010; House et al., 2004; Kabasakal & Bodur, 2002; McCrae, Terracciano, Realo, & Allik, 2008; Schwartz, 1994). Kuwaitis also value rules and regulations, and seek detail and clarity to reduce the level of uncertainty (A. Klein et al., 2009; Sabri, 2012) and prevent undesired situations. Consequently, this promotes bureaucratic structures and supports the prevalence of a traditional approach to career, something that was discussed in Sub-section 1.2.1 and will be discussed in Sub-section 3.2.1.

Third, Kuwaiti culture is collectivist. Within such a culture, relationships with others prevail over task, the employer-employee relationship is treated as a family, and consequently, commitment to employers is secondary to commitment to the family (Sabri, 2012). In this regard, family and close relationships are treated as more important than individual preferences (Harrison & Michailova, 2012; House et al., 2004; Kabasakal & Bodur, 2002; McCrae et al., 2008). A consequence of this culture is that conservatism and particularism are valued to maintain harmonious relationships (H. Klein et al., 2009; Schwartz, 1994). As an ascription culture, in Kuwait, respect depends on the family background (Harrison & Michailova, 2012; A. Klein et al., 2009; Trompenaars, 1993). As an affective culture, emotions also influence social relationships (Trompenaars, 1993) features which are consequential for organisational loyalty and organisational commitment.

Fourth, Kuwaiti culture is characterised by low levels of gender egalitarianism (Harrison & Michailova, 2012; Hofstede et al., 2010; House et al., 2004; Kabasakal & Bodur, 2002). It is considered patriarchal and less supportive of equal rights and opportunities for women, and therefore tends to have a limited view on women's capabilities and role in society (Harrison & Michailova, 2012; Inglehart, 2004; Rizzo, Abdel-Latif, & Meyer, 2007). As a result, few women are able to assume leadership roles in business and public positions when compared to their male counterparts. Further, some Kuwaitis resent any situation where they are being formally managed by women.

Fifth, whilst this aspect was tested in Saudi Arabia rather than Kuwait itself, Kuwaiti culture is similar in that it is normative in relation to long-term orientation (Hofstede et al., 2010). As such, members of society prefer to maintain traditions and norms, viewing societal change with suspicion, with a focus on achieving quick results. Lastly, in relation
to indulge, Kuwaiti culture exhibits moderate control on how individuals try to control their desires and impulses based on the way they were raised (Hofstede et al., 2010).

In summary, the cultural context of Kuwaiti is traditionalist and conservative when compared to Western counterparts. With regards to employment, this results in high levels of both respect and obedience towards authority figures. In addition, Kuwaitis seek well defined rules and regulations, as well as detail and clarity in their work in order to reduce uncertainty level and undesired consequences that may include ‘loss of face’. Finally, as a male dominated culture, Kuwaitis are less supportive of women’s equal rights and opportunities and tend to have a limited view on women’s capabilities and role in society.

2.6 The Kuwaiti Economy

This section considers the economic situation within Kuwait. It begins by establishing the size of the economy before moving on to look at how it operates in terms of the economic sectors in operation. It then looks at how this economic position has impacted upon Gross Domestic Product (GDP), introduces the measures government has taken to address the issues it faces through the six-pillar reform strategy, and presents statistics relating to Kuwaiti workforce numbers and the sectors they work within. It concludes with a summary of the economy in Kuwait and potential implications for the banking sector which is where this research is based.

Despite being a relatively small country, Kuwait operates a high income, open economy which grew by approximately 2.5% in 2016 (International Monetary Fund (IMF), 2017) and has one of the highest per capita GDP in the world. The local currency (the Kuwaiti Dinar (KD)) is pegged to a basket of international currencies of which the United States dollar (USD) is dominant. In term of its credit rating Kuwait is rated highly by international rating organisations, reflecting Kuwait’s solid and stable financial and credit position.

Kuwait is essentially a 'mono-crop economy' depending mainly on oil (Al-Enezi, 2002, p. 886) and as one of the major oil-producing countries it has approximate reserves of 102 billion barrels – more than 6% of world reserves (CIA, 2017). As a result, oil
represents the main source of Kuwait's national income with 2.7 million barrels being produced per day, of which 1.8 million barrels are exported. This focus on oil production has led to a potentially precarious situation where it accounts for over half of the GDP, 92% of export revenues, and 90% of government income. However, such a reliance on one product has led to a position where declining oil prices have resulted in financial constraints on Kuwait's national budget, leading the government to consider how this could be addressed – something which is covered later within this section.

The total workforce in Kuwait is 3.6 million (PACI, 2018) with the private sector accounting for a greater proportion of employees than the public sector. In relation to employment sectors, Figure 2.3 shows that working Kuwaitis are concentrated in the government sector (72%) for reasons related to prestige, higher salary and benefits, and job security. In contrast, expatriates are concentrated in the private sector (96%), something which is noted in prior literature (Al-Waqfi & Forstenlechner, 2012; Hertog, 2013; Iles et al., 2012). Of interest is the fact that Kuwaitis have a higher unemployment rate when compared to expatriates (3% and 1% respectively) and expatriates contribute more to the local economy than Kuwaitis (84% and 46% respectively) (PACI, 2018).

Noting the previously highlighted public-private sector imbalance and the decline in oil prices and revenues, in 2016 the Kuwaiti government announced economic reforms through a six-pillar reform strategy (IMF, 2017). The first pillar relates to rationalising public expenditure and increasing non-oil revenue through the implementation of a new taxation system, streamlining public sector employment benefits, and increasing the prices of government subsidised services such as petrol. In this respect, Kuwait has one of the highest public sector wage bills and expenditure in the world, which rose from under 10% of GDP in 2011 to over 18% of GDP in 2016 (IMF, 2018). One reason for this is the fact that the Kuwaiti government provides its nationals with free health and education as well as support for housing, and employment in the private sector (IMF, 2018). In addition, the sharp increase in the population has resulted in substantial pressure and demand for government services and infrastructure, leading to higher government spending (IMF, 2018). Moreover, the high growth in the population (particularly young Kuwaitis) has raised the number of new entrants to labour market. As a result, since Kuwaitis primarily seek employment in the public sector, the government wage bill has risen accordingly.
The second pillar relates to incentivising the private sector to operate in production sectors to create other sources of national income. The third pillar relates to promoting private sector development through privatisation of public enterprises; private-public sector joint projects; and financing small and medium enterprises. These measures aim to strengthen the local economy by increasing its efficiency. The fourth pillar relates to encouraging Kuwaitis’ participation in the local economy by motivating them to be involved in private-public sector joint projects and privatisation initiatives, in order to generate more employment opportunities and reduce dependence on the public sector. In this respect, private sector representatives stress the importance of improving the alignment of education curricula with the needs of the private sector as a result of the current mis-match between them. As a result, the Kuwaiti government is currently working with the World Bank to reform its educational system to improve its effectiveness (IMF, 2018).

The fifth pillar relates to increasing the efficiency of the labour market and civil service through salary reforms, upgrading the competency of public sector employees through training programs, and implementing performance evaluation mechanisms to encourage better performance. The sixth pillar relates to institutional and legislative reforms through enhancing the competence of government's financial management, creating a business environment that attracts foreign investors, tax administration
development, and elevating the rating of the Kuwait Stock Exchange to place it among the main emerging market indices.

In summary while Kuwait has one of the highest GDP per capita in the world, this has historically come from its reliance on the oil sector – a sector whose revenues are declining. Consequently, the government is applying measures to develop other sectors which have potential implications for the Kuwaiti workforce. Such implications include the impact of privatisation on Kuwaiti employees in particular since they traditionally seek work within the public sector for its numerous benefits.

2.7 The Kuwaiti Banking Sector

This section focuses on the banking sector, the research context of this study. It begins by establishing the importance of the sector before moving on to look at the number and types of banks within the country. Then, it explores the different ways they operate and the way they have changed to keep pace with the modern economy. It concludes with a summary of the current position of the banking sector within Kuwait.

The Kuwaiti banking sector is considered to be a typical employment avenue for both males and females as a result of having high social status (Forstenlechner & Rutledge, 2010). It is dominant within the economy and is considered to be second in importance only to the oil sector. It provides financial support to all business sectors, and its performance is consequently considered to be an indicator of the economic strength of the country (Ganesan, Brinda, & Kumar, 2015). There are currently 23 banks within Kuwait, which account for approximately 84% of the local financial sector and operate with total assets of 77 Billion KD (1 KD = 0.304 USD) (Central Bank of Kuwait (CBoK), 2017). Figure 2.4 outlines the sector's structure.

As presented in Figure 2.4, this sector comprises CBoK, five conventional banks, five Islamic banks, one specialised bank, and 12 foreign bank branches. While oil remains the dominant sector, it is interesting to note that the banking sector is growing (Alhemoud, 2010) whereas oil has been in decline in terms of generated revenues (as indicated previously). In this respect, the consolidated assists of local banks have increased by approximately 2% and income has grown by 6% (CBoK, 2017).
Looking at the types of banks within Kuwait, local conventional banks dominate with 61% of the sector when compared to local Islamic banks (CBoK, 2017). However, while the growth of net income for local conventional banks was modest at 3%, local Islamic banks reported an 11% growth (CBoK, 2017); something which may reflect the continuing importance of religion within the country.

Taken as a whole, however, the sector remains stable and resilient with robust capital adequacy levels and the capital adequacy ratio improving to reach 19%, thus exceeding the 14% required by CBoK (CBoK, 2017). Not surprisingly, given that net income is growing, the number of operating branches has increased to a total of 421 branches, with 235 branches being conventional banks and 174 branches being Islamic banks; while foreign banks operate only 12 branches (CBoK, 2017).

Banks in Kuwait are classified as large organisations in terms of business size and number of employees, employing approximately 10,750 people (at the time of this study) on a full-time basis only. They have well defined and standardised business policies and
procedures which rely on formal communication mechanisms; are influenced by Western practices in relation to HRM and business operations; and compared to other sectors in Kuwait, are highly structured. Although it has been subject to little research, the researcher’s working experience in this (and other) sectors supports this statement and the sector is characterised as traditional and conservative in nature as well as exhibiting bureaucratic hierarchical structures and authority centralisation. In terms of these structures, banks have approximately nine hierarchical levels: clerical, supervisor, officer, assistant manager, manager, senior manager, executive manager, assistant general manager, and general manager. Consequently, more career advancement opportunities may be available to employees as a result of higher vacancy opportunities, particularly below managerial level.

As noted at the beginning of this section, the Kuwaiti banking sector is of great economic importance, reporting net profits of 764 million KD (1 KD = 0.304 USD) in 2016 (CBoK, 2017). These profits have implications for the workforce and make it possible for banks to provide employees with greater benefits – financial and non-financial, as well as general and specific. In general, all employees receive relatively higher salaries compared to other sectors along with health insurance, an annual bonus, and increments. In addition, specific benefits are provided to employees at managerial level and above who also receive a house, paid school fees, a car, and air ticket allowances. In their 2013 study, Yap, Holmes, Hannan, and Cukier suggested that large corporations have the necessary financial resources to establish the required HRM infrastructure. The fact that banks in Kuwait have both substantial financial resources and well-developed, well-defined HRM policies and procedures that are regularly audited by CBoK, supports this suggestion.

Governance of banks is undertaken by CBoK, which was established in 1968 and is responsible for creating and implementing monetary policies as well as regulating and supervising all banking activities and operations. Additional responsibilities include issuing the national currency, maintaining a stable KD in the local market, and the conversion of funds into foreign currencies. Furthermore, it directs and monitors credit policy, supervises the banking system, and serves as the government's financial adviser. As mentioned previously, CBoK audits all bank activities on regular basis by dispatching auditors to conduct thorough scrutiny assessments for regulatory compliance. These supervisory powers extend to all investment companies and funds, finance companies,
and exchange companies, and CBoK has recently established a customer (corporate and individuals) complaints unit. This unit is responsible for investigating all complaints put forward by individual and corporate customers against any of the organisations CBoK oversees, and was established to ensure the provision of reliable financial services.

Looking more closely at the nature of the financial services provided, although conventional and Islamic banks complement each other in terms of providing different services there are fundamental differences between them. For example, Islamic banks strictly comply with Islamic laws and are governed by the concepts of justice and fairness for both individual and societal interests (Kamarudin, Nordin, Muhammad, & Hamid, 2014) whereas conventional banks are not bound by any religious aspects. In addition, Islamic banks consider a business transaction as permissible only when it has no uncertainty or risk (Beck, Demirgüç-Kunt, & Merrouche, 2013; Kamarudin et al., 2014), and instead of charging interest they buy all products needed by their beneficiaries and resell it to them to in return for an agreed-upon profit. Finally, Islamic banks are very strict about who they will work with and do not invest in any companies that deal with non-halal business activities, such as (but not limited to) alcohol, gambling, or tobacco.

Local banks, as a result of the stiff competition among them, have recognised the importance of employing technology to develop a customer-focused banking experience as compared to traditional banking. Historically, traditional banking considers branches as its backbone where customers perform all their banking needs in person, with additional support being provided through other means such as call centres. However, the current technological evolution has allowed Kuwaiti banks to be more creative in satisfying their customer's banking needs. Benchmarking the operations of Kuwaiti banks against the critical areas of growth, as proposed by Deloitte (2018), Kuwaiti banks demonstrate development in a number of areas. For example, Kuwaiti banks have adopted customer-centric banking approach. In this approach, the focus is placed on mobile banking rather than branches as the core of operations. As a result, customers can now do most of their banking through mobile applications on their smart phones. For example, they can open accounts, pay their utility bills and loans instalments, and transfer funds both abroad and locally; something previously offered only in branches. In addition, they can deposit funds and cheques and obtain account details and statements from a wide network of cash-point machines, mobile applications, and online services.
In relation to regulatory recalibration, Kuwaiti banks are compliant with Basel III requirements in relation to credit risk and control. In addition, they have adopted the recent IFRS updated framework for their accounting systems to ensure transparency and adequacy. With regards to mitigating risks, Kuwaiti banks have treated this as a priority and have applied measures which are monitored by specialised staff. Examples include:

- Upgrading and aligning their IT infrastructure to international banking standards and requirements.
- Mobile banking now utilises fingerprint technology to access the system via smart phones.
- Customers receive a phone call from their bank’s call centre to verify unusual online banking activities or transactions.
- All credit cards are chip enabled and require a Personal Identification Number to access funds in addition to activation for use abroad.
- Establishing dedicated units to monitor anti-money laundering and taking counter measures to eliminate it.

In relation to employees, since current banking operations are automated and technology driven, Kuwaiti banks have reconsidered the impact on employees’ jobs. For example, cash-point machines have provided banks with the opportunity to redefine the role of in-branch tellers to focus on customer relation and act as point of sales and as an advisor, rather than solely performing transactional activities. Such developments have required the introduction of additional training to ensure employees are technologically literate and comfortable working within a computer-led environment, as compared to the old approach of manual work. The changes have not only required employees to develop their technological skills, but also their personal skills so they can align themselves with customer expectations to deliver a high level of banking services. This requires employees to possess people-oriented skills, business understanding, and to function in a proactive manner.

In summary, the banking sector is of great importance to the Kuwaiti economy, not only because it is second only to oil in its income, but perhaps more importantly, it is a growing sector which is keeping pace with technological advances while oil is in
decline. These growing profits have implications for the workforce and make it possible for banks to provide employees with greater benefits. Such advances also have other implications and there has been a move towards developing the skills of employees within the sector. However, it is important to note that the sector does not operate only in one way but rather is split into conventional and Islamic banks, thereby reflecting the ongoing importance of socio-cultural factors – especially religion. The next section will consider how, amongst other factors, such changes have impacted on HRM practices within Kuwait.

2.8 HRM in Kuwait

This section focuses on HRM practices within Kuwait and begins with considering how Kuwaiti society has developed before moving on to look at how this has shaped the development of HRM. It explores the role of government – particularly the implementation of Kuwaitisation – as well as the impact of socio-cultural factors, before focusing specifically on HRM within the banking sector as the research setting. It concludes with a summary of the current position in relation to HRM in Kuwait.

HRM in Kuwait has developed significantly as a result of the dramatic change in Kuwaiti society which, historically, was mainly comprised of Bedouin who depended solely on fishing and pearling for living. In more recent times, after the increase in oil revenues in the 1970s the government initiated various economic development projects, established a number of government agencies (e.g., energy, financial, and utilities), and increased its assistance to private organisations to enhance and strengthen the economy. However, Kuwaiti employees with the necessary skills were not readily available and the majority of those who had such skills served primarily in the police and security forces, in addition to working in small establishments where affairs were conducted informally (Ali & Al-Kazemi, 2006). As a result, there was a large influx of expatriates with the required skills and knowledge.

The above-mentioned rapid economic growth and expansion of government agencies, accompanied by an active private sector, represented a turning point for HRM in Kuwait. HRM is now associated with more than record keeping of clerical activities and advertising job vacancies, to further developed functions that include recruitment,
compensation, training, and career development. This evolution has occurred in the context of a sharp increase in employee numbers, the use of foreign consulting services, and the presence of a large number of multinational corporations (Ali & Al-Kazemi, 2006) that were all needed to support Kuwait’s development plans.

These developments have had implications for HRM practices in Kuwait, for example, salary scales were developed and impacted upon by the nature of the required expertise. As one example, Western nationals are paid a higher salary in comparison to other nationals (Naithani & Jha, 2010) since they are perceived and trusted as experts in their field. Interestingly however, in order to ensure the right number of skilled workers, these salary scales and training opportunities treat males and females equally, something which traditional Kuwaiti culture does not. In addition, recruitment and selection procedures became more focused to ensure that those employed had appropriate qualifications and expertise to support economic development.

2.8.1 The Kuwaiti Government, HRM and Kuwaitisation Policy

The Kuwaiti government has played a pivotal role in shaping and developing HRM in Kuwait as a result of the rapid economic growth, as noted above. This led expatriates to come to Kuwait seeking prosperous employment opportunities and they have, in turn, contributed toward Kuwait’s prosperity (Ali & Al-Kazemi, 2006; Baruch & Forstenlechner, 2017), primarily within the private sector where the growth occurred. In contrast, and as previously stated, public sector employment is the preferred option for Kuwaitis. This is based on the belief that it is their right to have a job within the public sector because they see it as a distribution of wealth (Salih, 2010). Evidence also suggests that Kuwaitis prefer the public sector because of shorter working hours, longer public holidays and leave periods, lucrative compensations and benefits, and high job security (Ali & Al-Kazemi, 2006; P. McDonald, Brown, & Bradley, 2005).

In addition, compensation and benefits in the public sector are determined by the Civil Service Commission and are based on job types and seniority rather than on qualifications and merit. In contrast, while private sector organisations pay their employees less they base this pay on qualifications and merit; something which is considered less attractive to Kuwaitis when compared to those provided in the public
sector (Ali & Al-Kazemi, 2006). As well as the preference of the employees themselves, the private sector as a whole is more reluctant to employ Kuwaitis as a result of such expectations (Gulseven, 2015; Iles et al., 2012). This situation has contributed towards higher unemployment rates among Kuwaitis since they essentially 'prefer' to seek employment in the public sector and utilise wasta expressly for this purpose.

As a result, Kuwaitisation has been perceived as a possible solution to this concern of unemployment for local nationals. Related to this, the Kuwaiti government have identified that an over-reliance on expatriates working in strategically important economic sectors – such as banking – may be a potential threat to political domestic stability and economic sustainability, and that localising such strategically important sectors is considered a priority (Randeree, 2012; Swailes, Al Said, & Al Fahdi, 2012). Kuwaitising the private sector can therefore be seen as a tool to both ease pressure on the already overstuffed public sector, and to reduce the reliance on expatriates to achieve a reduction in the unemployment rate for Kuwaiti nationals (Al-Adwani, 2014; Al-Waqfi & Forstenlechner, 2012; Davidson, 2014).

In response to the above, private sector Kuwaitisation was actively enacted by establishing the Manpower and Government Restructuring Program (MGRP) in 1997 (Randeree, 2012; Salih, 2010). MGRP was mandated to oversee the implementation of sector-based Kuwaitisation quotas on a gradual basis and to provide Kuwaitis with training opportunities in collaboration with private sector organisations. This was followed by the enactment of National Assembly Law number 19 in 2000 which stipulates the payment of additional allowances to all Kuwaitis working in private sector organisations (see Table 2.3) to bridge the salary gap between the public and private sectors. In addition, the government refunds all expenses incurred by the private sector – including banks – for training and developing Kuwaitis to upgrade their work-related skills and competences. Progress has therefore been made towards alleviating the public-private sector imbalance (Randeree, 2012). More recently, PACI (2018) reported that the unemployment rate for Kuwaitis had significantly reduced to 3%, as compared to 8.5% in 2000.
Table 2.3 Social allowances paid to Kuwaitis working in the private sector (Salih, 2010)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational qualifications</th>
<th>Allowance paid</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Single (KD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University degree and above</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma or high school + two-year training certificate</td>
<td>169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school + one-year training certificate or secondary school + three-year training certificate</td>
<td>161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school or secondary school + one-year training certificate</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below secondary school</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Married (KD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University degree and above</td>
<td>278</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma or high school + two-year training certificate</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school + one-year training certificate or secondary school + three-year training certificate</td>
<td>242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school or secondary school + one-year training certificate</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school</td>
<td>216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below secondary school</td>
<td>211</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: 1 KD = 0.304 USD

Periodically there is a review of Kuwaitisation quotas and they are currently at 70% for banks. In addition, the Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour has enforced laws which aim to further reduce reliance on expatriates, for example, by imposing financial conditions on expatriates bringing their family to live with them in Kuwait (Hasan, 2015) as well as introducing strict controls on work permits (Mellahi, 2007; Rees, Mamman, & Bin Braik, 2007) for organisations who do not meet their Kuwaitisation quota. However, despite these actions, Kuwaitisation has not yet achieved its intended results. It therefore remains a challenging policy to implement for several reasons, as explained next.

The first challenge relates to the fact that, despite being required to meet Kuwaitisation quotas, many private sector organisations still struggle to recruit qualified Kuwaitis. This stems from the belief within the private sector that locals are not qualified in term of skills, expertise, and productivity to perform at the same work level when compared to expatriates (Williams & Bhanugopan, 2016). This has led organisations to satisfy Kuwaitisation quotas by adopting 'window dressing practices' (Forstenlechner, Lettice, & Özbilgin, 2012, p. 304) through what is referred to as 'phantom-employment' (Salih, 2010) and ‘ghost-employees’ (Aljanahi, 2017). As part of these practices, monthly salaries are paid to Kuwaitis who are asked to stay at home so that government penalties can be avoided. Further, this is something which the MGRP Secretary General has admitted the existence of and is therefore not a completely hidden practice (Salih, 2010).
The second challenge relates to the nature of a sector and its type of work (Salih, 2010), which in Kuwaiti culture shapes employees' social status (Aljanahi, 2017; Mellahi, 2007). In this respect, the type of work delivered by some areas of the private sector (e.g., retail and food) is something Kuwaitis shy away from for cultural reasons (Al-Enezi, 2002; Mellahi, 2007). For example, the majority of Kuwaitis do not accept work as cashiers or waiters in stores and restaurants because this type of work reflects negatively upon them from a social aspect. An extension of this challenge relates to the influence of parents, whose own work may influence young employees’ career choices and decisions (Saleem, Hanan, Saleem, & Shamshad, 2014). For example, Madzikanda and Njoku (2008) reported that young employees who see their parents working for the public sector are likely to follow in their footsteps. This is something which could potentially be positive for the private sector if it can establish a sufficient Kuwaiti workforce.

The third challenge relates to the salary gap between the public and private sectors. When compared to the public sector, the salaries and benefits provided within the private sector are lower and less competitive (Al-Waqfi & Forstenlechner, 2012; Hasan, 2015), despite equivalent educational and occupational levels (Al-Enezi, 2002). Accordingly, this salary gap between the public and private sectors motivates Kuwaitis to select the public sector for employment opportunities.

The fourth challenge relates to the achievement of organisational commitment amongst Kuwaitis who work in private sector organisations (Randeree, 2012). One reason behind this challenge is that Kuwaitis have other employment options – such as the public sector – when compared to expatriates whose primary opportunities for work are in the private sector. In addition, the nature of the private sector environment contributes toward lower commitment levels for Kuwaitis. This is because, in contrast to the public sector, working in the private sector (particularly banks) includes longer working hours and performance-based advancement (Al-Ali, 2008). Therefore, it is reasonable to suggest that Kuwaitis prefer the public sector because they may lack the skills needed in the private sector (e.g., English language and computer skills) and public sector employment has lower expectations in terms of performance and qualifications.
2.8.2 Socio-cultural Factors and HRM in Kuwait

Religion, as a key aspect of societal culture in Kuwait, represents both opportunities and challenges for HRM practices. Compared to Western parts of the world, HRM practices in Kuwait are influenced by Islamic teachings and cultural values. Positive work engagement is considered a cornerstone of Islamic teaching in attaining personal and societal goals (Ali & Al-Kazemi, 2006; Namazie & Venegas, 2015). Islamic values and principles strongly recognise, and call for, the fair treatment of employees with rewards being based on merit and qualification rather than wasata and self-interest. According to Namazie and Venegas (2015), and Siddique et al. (2016), Islamic teachings influence workplace behaviour with respect to age and seniority, loyalty, obedience towards leaders, seeking direction from senior people. The authors further added that these Islamic teachings are in line with Hofstede’s (1980) findings of high power-distance and collectivism, with an emphasis on relationships and cooperation, avoiding uncertainty through following rules, and consulting others as a means of avoiding mistakes.

However, while Kuwaitis theoretically act within religious teachings and values, in practice they violate them. For example, social prestige and status remain important aims for people in Kuwait as a result of the traditional and tribal norms and values (Branine & Pollard, 2010; Namazie & Venegas, 2015). Metle (2001) has gone so far as to suggest that Kuwaiti work attitudes and behaviour have never been satisfactory, and that Kuwaiti culture and tradition negatively influences individuals’ feelings towards work since it does not motivate hard work and productive work involvement. Further, although Islamic teachings and values emphasise the fair and ethical treatment of all people in all situations, in reality recruitment, selection, and promotion in Kuwait – particularly in public sectors – is substantially influenced by wasata (Ali & Al-Kazemi 2006). This can be explained by the Kuwaiti cultural orientation of high collectivism, where loyalty to family and personal relationships precedes organisational interests.

In addition to religion, some scholars (e.g., Al-Enzi, 2002) argue that HRM in Kuwait faces other socio-cultural challenges. Traditional and tribal relationships encourage individuals to be dependent and clannish rather than independent (Ali & Al-Kazemi 2006). In this regard, it is often challenging to get things done without the use of wasata (Ali & Al-Kazemi 2006) because of Kuwait’s high collectivist culture where individuals look after the
interest of their groups. As a result, wasta is often used both to gain employment and, once in that employment, to attain a pay rise and promotion (Ali & Al-Kazemi 2006). Thus, in combination, the above-mentioned factors have contributed towards limiting the role and functions of HRM – specifically within the public sector.

2.8.3 HRM in the Kuwaiti Banking Sector

The banking sector has been considered one of the most active in the area of developing HRM practices (Afiouni et al., 2013). Banks in Kuwait have continuously aimed to enhance their performance through cost reductions as well as improved service quality in terms of speed and quality in order to survive the severe competition they face in the market. Since it has been recognised that HRM practices can influence organisational success and competitiveness (Al-Adwani, 2014; Al-Hawary & Alajmi, 2017), Kuwaiti banks have also placed greater importance on their HRM practices in terms of recruiting qualified employees, developing and training them to satisfy the bank’s needs, and increasing their operational resilience. Using the findings of Al-Adwani (2014), these practices are outlined next.

First, performance-based rewards are utilised to retain and motivate employees to satisfy their career needs and aspirations. Second, annual and bi-annual performance appraisals are used to assess employee performance and subsequently aid the management decision-making process for awarding promotions and salary increases. Performance appraisal is also used to define employee training needs by identifying employees’ required areas of development. Third, in line with the spirit of Kuwaitisation, internal career advancement and progression focuses on developing Kuwaiti employees’ qualifications, performance, and skills, thus potentially influencing employee loyalty and commitment through satisfying their career needs.

Fourth, as well as being used to enhance employee capabilities, training and development is also used to ensure the best results for the organisation. In this regard, Kuwaiti banks both have their own training departments and utilise the services of reputable training providers to train their employees and upgrade their professional skills. All employees – particularly Kuwaitis, in line with Kuwaitisation – are enrolled on intensive in-house training programmes to equip them with the needed skills, as well as
upgrading their existing skills, to perform their jobs successfully. In relation to remuneration, the adopted salary and benefits scale provides Kuwaitis with preferential treatment over expatriates. This contributes towards reducing the salary gap with the public sector and motivates them to stay in the private sector. To support the recruitment of well-educated staff all Kuwaitis are granted an unpaid study leave to finish their higher education, and all qualified Kuwaiti graduates are hired and assigned intensive on-the-job training and paid a salary until training is completed and recruitment is confirmed.

In addition, CBoK supports the development of employees, specifically Kuwaiti employees, working in the Kuwaiti banking sector. Operating under the auspices of CBoK, the Institute of Banking Studies (IBS) was established in 1970 as a not-for-profit semi-governmental organisation by an Amiri Decree (IBS, 2017). It aims to provide education, training, and English language programmes – in addition to research and consultation services – to serve the developmental needs of employees working in the Kuwaiti banking sector. Guided by CBoK, IBS for example, provides Kuwaitis with opportunities to study for a Masters degree in reputable universities worldwide and paid for by their banks.

Considering this context within Alpha Bank – the site of this research – it plays a vital role in supporting the Kuwaitisation initiative through tuning its HRM practices and policies toward serving Kuwaitisation. For example, the Human Resources Manager’s position is Kuwaitised, the majority of branch managers and operational staff are Kuwaitis, and budgets are allocated to develop potential Kuwaitis for future leadership positions at both junior and senior level. Banks engage in HRM practices that make their employees feel competent and provide their employees with the needed support in terms of the resources and opportunities to improve and develop their operational skills; something which consequently promotes their career development (Zaitouni et al., 2011). Also, the adopted salary and benefits scale provides Kuwaitis with preferential treatment over expatriates.

2.9 Summary

This chapter has established the research context for this study, noting that whilst being relatively small in terms of area, Kuwait is a robust country in terms of its economy and – in the context of the Middle East – a progressive country in terms of its politics.
However, the focus on the decline of the oil industry has had both economic and political implications; leading to changes being implemented which have impacted upon the way the economy works and have influenced the development of HRM practices. In addition, socio-cultural factors impact significantly on the way Kuwaitis operate within their daily lives and these factors can not only be at odds with each other, but also with political and legal factors. A key example being the liberal political position in relation to women, which is consistent with Islamic teachings of all people being equal, but which is at odds with Kuwaiti cultural values which place women as ‘lower’ than men.

In relation to cultural frameworks, an extensive body of research has developed over the past 38 years since the work of Hofstede (1980) and while these frameworks do differ, they agree that Kuwaitis as Arabs are traditionalist and conservative; respect authority figures; strive to attain higher status at work and socially; seek well defined rules and regulations, and detail and clarity in their work in order to reduce uncertainty level and undesired consequences; and value the status quo – something which makes change management a challenge for them. The banking sector therefore provides a relevant context for this research because of its significance as a growing sector and its vital role in supporting the Kuwaitisation initiative through tuning its HRM practices and policies toward serving Kuwaitisation. In addition, the Kuwaiti context makes issues of organisational commitment and career important, and the context of Kuwaitisation and its effect on the banking sector makes assessment of career satisfaction very timely.
Chapter 3: Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

This chapter critically evaluates the literature related to career and organisational commitment, and establishes the theoretical grounding of the research in SCCT. Within the chapter, key contributions to the theory and understanding of career issues, career satisfaction, and organisational commitment are discussed. This discussion focuses particularly on the work of Baruch and colleagues (Baruch, 2006, 2015; Baruch & Bozionelos, 2010; Baruch et al., 2015; C. I. Lee et al., 2014; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009), with regard to career theory, Greenhaus et al. (1990) in relation to career satisfaction, and Meyer and Allen (1997) in relation to organisational commitment. In alignment with the contextual location of this study (introduced in Chapter 2), an analysis of the literature which considers issues associated with Kuwaitisation of employment is also undertaken. Specifically, this analysis explores the influence that societal culture, Islamic values, and Kuwaitisation may have on the understanding of career satisfaction and organisational commitment issues in the cultural context of Kuwait. Following this, the research propositions are outlined.

3.2 Theories of Career

This section discusses the concept of career, explores the different approaches taken in the research literature – by highlighting what have been termed as 'traditional' and 'contemporary' approaches to career – and makes the case for the use of the traditional approach to career as a basis for this research, in the context of the Kuwaiti banking sector.

As indicated in Chapter 1, career is an important phenomenon for all working individuals. However, the research literature suggests that career is not a well-defined concept (Ituma, Simpson, Ovadje, Cornelius, & Mordi, 2011; Kirkbesoglu & Ozder, 2015; Schein, 2007; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). This is something which may be attributed to the two different approaches that have been taken to career, the traditional approach and the contemporary approach (Donald et al., 2017). The fundamental difference between
the two approaches is that the traditional career approach focuses on the organisation and considers career as a structured path, while the contemporary career approach focuses on the employee by viewing career from a subjective perspective (Afiouni, 2014). These approaches are outlined next.

3.2.1 The Traditional Career Approach

The traditional approach to the concept of career has long dominated the literature and focuses upon the experiences of employees working in organisations which are characterised by hierarchy and structure (Chudzikowski, 2012; Park, 2010). In this approach, career is conceptualised as a vehicle to satisfy economic goals, social status, and worth (Adamson, Doherty, & Viney, 1998). In addition, employees are understood to move between jobs in a predictable sequence to achieve hierarchical advancement within one or few organisations (Bravo et al., 2017; Clarke, 2013; Ituma et al., 2011; Kovalenko & Mortelmans, 2014; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). From this perspective career is considered to be predictable and secure in nature (Clarke, 2013; Lyons et al., 2015) and experienced in a stable organisation’s internal and external environment (Bravo et al., 2017; Dai & Song, 2016; Donald et al., 2017; Enache, Sallán, Simo, & Fernandez, 2013; Kovalenko & Mortelmans, 2014; Lyons et al., 2015; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). The traditional approach emphasises employees’ commitment to their organisation and to their own job security (Clarke, 2013; Baruch, 2015; Dai & Song, 2016; Donald et al., 2017; Ituma et al. 2011; Kovalenko & Mortelmans, 2014; Lyons et al., 2015). In this understanding of career, employees’ career paths are planned and their commitment to their organisation may be rewarded with promotion (Chudzikowski, 2012; Dai & Song, 2016; Jung & Takeuchi, 2016; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009).

The traditional career approach is grounded in several assumptions. First, it assumes that career embraces hierarchical progression and a long-term employee-organisation relationship. Hom et al. (2010) have noted that, according to Super’s career-stage theory (1957), career unfolds as employees progress through their lives within stable market and organisational conditions. As part of this, it assumes that employees at different career stages encounter different needs, develop changed or adapted attitudes, and re-order their priorities.
Second, career is organisationally owned, defined, and managed (DeFillipi & Arthur, 1994) with the organisation orchestrating employee careers to satisfy its current and future needs (Herriot, 1992). This is achieved through the creation of rigid career structures which are formal, bureaucratic, and predictable in nature. Third, this career approach acts on the assumption that career opportunities are aligned with employees' abilities, age, and/or tenure (Lawrence, 1990). In this respect, it assumes that hierarchical advancement is seen as a function of time and is aligned to organisational needs. Fourth, careers are structured and organisationally focused and driven (Wilensky, 1960) and employees define their career success objectively in terms of extrinsic outcomes such as the number of promotions, upward mobility, and salary increases (Heslin, 2005; Park, 2010; Wilensky, 1960). Fifth, career is seen as a function of a secure and stable environment (Baruch, 2006), where low employee turnover is associated with high organisational commitment (Park, 2010; Valcour & Ladge, 2008; Yap et al. 2013; Zaleska & de Menezes, 2007).

The relevance of the traditional career approach in contemporary organisations has been, and continues to be, an issue of debate. For example, Hall (1996) initially claimed that the traditional approach to career may be of less relevance in the business environment at that time. However, subsequently, Hall and Las Heras (2009) suggested that it is still applicable in organisations. In the same year, Sullivan and Baruch (2009, p. 1561) argued that the traditional career approach is “more prevalent in some organisations, industries, and countries than in others”, an argument supported by a number of other scholars, some of whom have published their research findings within the last three to nine years (e.g., Baruch, 2014; Baruch & Bozionelos, 2010; Clarke, 2013; Dries, Van Acker, & Verbruggen, 2012; Inkson, Gunz, Ganesh, & Roper, 2012; Ituma & Simpson, 2009; Lyons et al., 2015; Tlaiss, 2014; Vinkenburg & Weber, 2012). For example, as part of their findings, published in 2012, Dries et al. reported that the traditional approach to career was still applicable and that it predicts employees’ career satisfaction. Moreover, Clarke (2013) posited that there is very little evidence to support the shift from organisational to individual career management.

To summarise, the traditional concept of career provides a static perspective about career (Hirschi, 2011). It assumes that employees’ career paths are defined in relation to the needs of their organisations and that employees’ commitment to their organisation is
rewarded with upward mobility, higher financial rewards, power, and status. Such an approach assumes careers are taking place in a structured and stable organisational environment; emphasising employee job security, performance, and tenure within one or few employing organisations. However, as organisational environments have become less stable and less predictable, alternative concepts of career have been proposed and these are discussed next.

3.2.2 The Contemporary Career Approach

The second conceptualisation of career, the contemporary approach, adopts a non-linear approach (Afiouni, 2014; Arnold & Cohen, 2008; Donald et al., 2017). This approach emphasises the dynamic nature of labour markets as a result of changes in business and organisational environments (Baruch, 2006). It also assumes that responsibility for career management shifts from the organisation onto employees (Afiouni, 2014; Akkermans et al., 2013; Baruch & Forstenlechner, 2017; Joo et al., 2013; Jung & Takeuchi, 2016; Lyons et al., 2015; Moon & Choi, 2017), and that employees are tolerant of ambiguity, take risks, and have more autonomy (Ballout, 2009). Career, from this perspective, does not unfold but rather is constructed. One feature of the contemporary concept is the shift from a focus on upward career progression within a single organisation, towards more of an individualistic career focus motivated by the employee’s career goals across different organisations (Baruch & Bozionelos, 2010; Lyons et al., 2015). This is all undertaken within a context where organisational structures are flatter, as will be discussed further below (Baruch & Bozionelos, 2011; Bravo et al., 2017; Lyons et al., 2015).

This career approach emphasises the importance of lateral development, higher self-motivation, lower organisational commitment, and unpredictable career natures (Zaleska & de Menezes, 2007). As introduced above, the main theme of the contemporary concept of career is the shift from a focus on upward career progression within a single (or few) organisation to multi-directional employment, as a result of organisations becoming flatter and there being fewer opportunities for advancement. In addition, the contemporary career approach is built on the premise that careers are no longer seen as being either for life or within a single (or few) organisation.
The contemporary career approach is grounded in the following assumptions. First, it assumes that career is owned by employees rather than the organisation, being more mobile and flexible and able to move across roles both within an organisation and across the boundaries of several organisations (DeFillipi & Arthur, 1994). In doing so, it relies heavily on individualism and employees’ agency, independence, and self-reliance (Richardson, Simmering, & Sturman, 2009). In addition, it assumes that the responsibility for career management shifts from the organisation to the employee as a result of being self-directed (Orser & Leck, 2010; Zaleska & de Menezes, 2007). Second, it assumes that career is less secure and stable, and emphasises mobility (Chudzikowski, 2012; Inkson et al., 2012) rather than organisational commitment (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996).

In this career approach, long-term career, loyalty, and mutual commitment are replaced by short-term relationships with flexible arrangements (Zaleska & de Menezes, 2007). In addition, rather than focusing on hierarchical progression, there is a focus on the external labour market (Joo & Ready, 2012). Moreover, it suggests that employees are tolerant of ambiguity, have the potential to take risks, and have high self-efficacy and autonomy (Ballout, 2009). Consequently, employees develop a higher level of transferable knowledge and skills rather than organisation-specific ones. That is to say, organisational career is replaced by developmental opportunities, and the promise of future rewards for loyalty is replaced by the promise of short-term relationships in return for performance against agreed objectives.

As introduced above, this career approach emphasises that employee development stems from the accumulation of skills and social networks through different work and non-work experiences (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994) rather than emphasis on job titles and increasing seniority (Adamson et al., 1998). In addition, career success is more likely to be defined subjectively according to self-defined success criteria (Arthur, Khapova, & Wilderom, 2005; Gunz & Heslin, 2005; Hall, 1996; Heslin, 2005; Ng et al., 2005).

Within the literature, the contemporary approach to career has been labelled with a variety of terms including the ‘Protean’ career (Hall, 1976) and the ‘Boundaryless’ career (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994). The Protean approach to career focuses on employees’ careers with an emphasis on their intrinsic career motivations (Baruch & Forstenlechner, 2017; Bravo et al., 2017; Joo et al., 2013). Career, in this approach, is assumed to be
employee driven rather than organisationally managed and progression is guided by employees' career values and needs rather than by those of the organisation (Briscoe, Hall, & DeMuth, 2006; Hall, 2002). In addition, employees embracing the Protean career engage in continuous learning and professional networking (Clarke, 2013; Kovalenko & Mortelmans, 2014), and their identity and adaptability form a central theme in this career model (Inkson, 2007).

The expression Boundaryless career (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994, p. 307) reflects an understanding of career as "a sequence of job opportunities that goes beyond the boundaries of any single employment setting". Advocates of this approach suggest that career is characterised by mobility across different organisations, where employees seek to satisfy their career needs and are guided by their own pre-defined career goals (Afiouni et al., 2013; Baruch & Forstenlechner, 2017; Bravo et al., 2017; Lyons et al., 2015). Similar to the Protean career approach, employees adopting a Boundaryless career engage in ongoing learning and development as well as developing professional networks (Clarke, 2013; Kovalenko & Mortelmans, 2014).

However, both the Protean and Boundaryless approaches to career have been subject to critique (Inkson et al., 2012) as a result of problems with the operationalisation of their concepts (Arnold & Cohen, 2008; Gubler et al., 2014). Consequently, the empirical basis of such approaches remains a matter of debate (Dries & Verbruggen, 2012; Inkson et al., 2012; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). These approaches have been criticised for overemphasising individualism and for having a primary focus on selective employee types and categories such as middle class, white, male, and managerial or professional level participants (Arnold & Cohen, 2008; Clarke, 2013; Ituma & Simpson, 2007; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). A further critique, and one which is of particular relevance to this research, is that both Protean and Boundaryless careers may be perceived and enacted differently in non-Western cultures in general, and in Kuwait in particular, as a result of cultural differences (Afiouni, 2014; Arnold & Cohen, 2008; De Vos & Soens, 2008; Joo et al., 2013). Such accounts may underestimate the influence of culture by "neglecting the role of social institutions in employees’ understanding and enactment of career, resulting in view of career which is at once under-socialised and depoliticised" (Arnold & Cohen, 2008, p. 20). Table 3.1 provides an overall comparative summary for the main features of the traditional and contemporary career approaches.
Table 3.1 Overall comparative summary for the main features of traditional and contemporary career approaches (Gander, 2018, p. 20)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribute</th>
<th>Traditional Career</th>
<th>Boundaryless Career</th>
<th>Protean Career</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>Employer dependent</td>
<td>Employer Independent</td>
<td>Employer Independent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment relationship</td>
<td>Performance for job security</td>
<td>Performance for marketability</td>
<td>Performance for satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility for career</td>
<td>Organisation</td>
<td>Employee</td>
<td>Employee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key attitudes</td>
<td>Organisational commitment</td>
<td>Skill utilisation, relationships within and between organisations, flexibility, work-life balance</td>
<td>Work satisfaction, work-life balance, value match, developmental progression, learning opportunities, professional commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Core values</td>
<td>Hierarchical advancement</td>
<td>Meaningful work, organisational position</td>
<td>Meaningful work, freedom, growth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degrees of mobility</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Success criteria</td>
<td>Status, salary</td>
<td>Psychologically meaningful work</td>
<td>Psychologically meaningful work</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Across the breadth of career literature, the focus has been placed upon Western contexts (Baruch & Forstenlechner, 2017; Inkson et al., 2012; Ituma et al., 2011; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009; Tlaiss, 2015), while fewer studies examine employees’ career within other contexts. As a result, since career is influenced by the social context in which it unfolds, career researchers have increasingly called for more country/culture-specific career research (Afiouni, 2014; Ituma et al., 2011; Tlaiss, 2015).

The argument advanced in this chapter is that, in the context of the Kuwaiti banking sector, career progression and decisions take place in a structured context where legitimacy is derived from procedures, norms, organisational structure, and established competencies and responsibilities for each job within the hierarchy. In the Kuwaiti
banking context, career advancement is associated with prestige and social status sponsored by the organisation. Although career satisfaction is something that people will experience regardless of whether career is conceptualised as traditional or contemporary, the context for this study is aligned with the 'traditional' approach to understanding career. Therefore, the research undertaken as part of this study was grounded in such an approach and adopted Wilensky’s (1960, p. 554) definition of career as “a succession of related jobs, arranged in a hierarchy of prestige, through which persons move in an ordered, predictable sequence”.

3.3 Career Success

This section discusses the construct of career success, particularly the description of its objective and subjective features (which have relevance to the concept of career satisfaction), and outlines the factors that may influence how employees define their career success. It then highlights the problematic nature of the operationalisation of the construct of career success, and the shortfalls related to measuring its objective and subjective features.

Career success, a construct that has links to career satisfaction, has attracted more research attention in recent years (Afiouni & Karam, 2014; Hennekam, 2016). It is defined as the accumulated positive work and psychological outcomes resulting from one’s work experiences (Heslin, 2005; Ng et al., 2005). While several operationalisations have been proposed, no consensus exists yet among scholars (Afiouni & Karam, 2014). For example, the literature suggests that career success is operationalised in terms of objective-subjective, self-other referent (Heslin, 2005), and multidimensional (Dries, Pepermans, & Carlier, 2008; Zhou, Sun, Guan, Li, & Pan, 2013). As a result, Gunz and Heslin (2005) highlighted the need to better understand and conceptualise career success. However, despite a lack of consensus, career success has often been operationalised by its objective and subjective features (Arnold & Cohen, 2008; Heslin, 2005; Judge et al., 1995; Ng et al., 2005). Both features are conceptually different and distinct in nature but have been found to be positively related – albeit weakly – however, there is still a debate about the direction of this relationship (Gu & Su, 2016; Hennekam, 2016; Ng & Feldman, 2010;
Poon, Briscoe, Abdul-Ghani, & Jones, 2015). In addition, as noted above, it is also considered that they predict career satisfaction (Judge et al., 1995).

According to Heslin (2005), four prevalent implicit assumptions have been identified in the career success literature. First, objective outcomes (i.e., salary and promotions) may be used as adequate proxies for success. Second, job and career satisfaction may adequately represent how employees react to the success of their careers. Third, employees seek to attain both objective and subjective career success. Fourth, employees conceptualise and evaluate their career success only relative to self-referent criteria. In the following sub-sections, both objective and subjective features will be outlined.

3.3.1 Objective Career Success

Objective career success has traditionally been considered to be the hallmark of career success across different societies (Gu & Su, 2016). Researchers in the career field have traditionally viewed career success from an objective-external perspective, and have focused on measurable and socially recognised factors when measuring career success. Within this, widely used indicators of objective career success are status, salary growth, and the number of promotions (Jung & Takeuchi, 2018; Karavardar, 2014; Martínez-León et al., 2018). Objective career success is consistent with the traditional career approach, is based on the employer-organisation relationship, and rests on the assumption that employees’ growth unfolds within the organisational career system (Valcour & Ladge, 2008). Such success is linear in nature as a result of the hierarchical structure of organisations, is defined in terms of full-time employment, and emphasises hierarchical advancement and extrinsic reward through the exchange of employees’ loyalty for their organisation in return for long-term employment (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009; Valcour & Ladge, 2008). Therefore, as part of the traditional career approach, employees’ career success is commonly defined in terms of salary, status, and promotions; which are often considered to be the main proxies to assess objective career success (Dries, Pepermans, & Carlier, 2008; Heslin, 2005; Ng et al., 2005; Ng & Feldman, 2010; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009).

However, Heslin (2005) contends that objective criteria to assess career success are contaminated and inflicted with some deficiencies. In this regard, Heslin argues that objective criteria to career success may be irrelevant to professions that have no
advancement and promotion, such as taxi drivers. Consequently, he concludes that the use of objective career success criteria may be reduced by future research that conceptualises and assesses career success in a manner guided by the career concerns and status hierarchies which characterise particular career contexts. A more commonly adopted method of dealing with the deficiency of objective criteria is to measure subjective career success, in conjunction with objective attainments. In support, recent scholars (e.g., Hennekam, 2016; Poon, et al., 2015) have argued that to better understand career success, both the objective and subjective features of career success need to be considered. The reasoning behind the argument is that they consider that objective career success does not account for subjective outcomes, such as the development of new skills and a sense of achievement.

3.3.2 Subjective Career Success

Despite objective career success dominating the research, subjective career success has gained more attention recently (Afifouni & Karam, 2014; Heslin, 2005; Jung & Takeuchi, 2018). This has come about as a result of the focus placed by career researchers on employees' subjective and self-defined criteria of career achievement, rather than on external and objective facets such as salary and promotion (Dai & Song, 2016; Jung & Takeuchi, 2016). Heslin (2005, p. 121) indicated that subjective career success "encompasses reactions to both the objective (e.g., pay) and subjective (e.g., fulfilment) facets of one's career" at any point in the unfolding of a career. Prior research has suggested that achieving objective career success may not necessarily imply that employees are satisfied with their career and achievements (Judge et al., 1995). In contrast, subjective career success refers to aspects related to employees' career satisfaction (Barnett & Bradley, 2007; Greenhaus et al. 1990), derived from the intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of their career (Kong, Cheung, & Song, 2012), and assessed against employees' self-determined criteria (Heslin, 2005; Yap et al., 2013). Indeed, some researchers have used career satisfaction as a proxy for subjective career success (Hofmans, Dries, & Pepermans, 2008).

The literature further suggests that subjective career success has been operationalised by different constructs such as career satisfaction (Abele & Spurk, 2009),
job satisfaction (Bowling & Hammond, 2008), career commitment (Bowling & Hammond, 2008), and perceived employability (De Vos & Soens, 2008). Such inconsistency has resulted in the limited applicability of subjective career success in empirical studies (Gunz & Heslin, 2005). However, there is some agreement in the literature with regards to using career satisfaction as a proxy for subjective career success (Abele & Spurk, 2009; Judge et al., 1995; Jung & Takeuchi, 2018; Loi & Ngo 2010; Ng et al., 2005; Park, 2010).

Assessing career attainments and outcomes depend on the standards used to evaluate success, such as personal defined criteria (self-referent criteria) or by comparing one’s own achievement to others (other-referent success criteria). Self-referent criteria have often been assessed using Greenhaus et al.’s (1990) widely used career satisfaction scale (e.g., C. I. Lee et al., 2017; Gu & Su, 2016). Conversely, in other-referent criteria, employees often evaluate their career success relative to the outcomes (i.e., salary and promotions) of others; as suggested by social comparison theory (Heslin, 2005).

In summary, researchers have traditionally operationalised career success in terms of objective and subjective success. While objective career success has traditionally dominated the career research literature as being consistent with traditional career approach, it has been criticised for not being applicable to all types of work. Subsequently, subjective career success has therefore gained more attention. Career success has been operationalised by measures of career satisfaction and this concept is discussed in the next section.

3.4 Career Satisfaction

This section discusses the construct of career satisfaction, arguing that it is under-researched in terms of the Kuwaiti cultural context. It also argues that, as with job satisfaction, it may be appropriate to consider career satisfaction as a multidimensional concept and that utilising Greenhaus et al.’s (1990) scale is more suited to examining career issues in the organisational context of the Kuwaiti banking sector.

Interest in career satisfaction has grown since the 1990s because researchers have recognised the importance of subjective perceptions about career in relation to their effect on behaviour in the workplace (Heslin, 2005; Jung & Takeuchi, 2018; Ng & Feldman,
In addition, the importance of career satisfaction stems from a link to employees' current and future motivations (Joo & Ready, 2012; Kang, Gatling, & Kim, 2015), and is considered to be a measure of subjective career success. The career satisfaction scale developed by Greenhaus et al. (1990) is most often taken as a description of the phenomenon. In this regard, career satisfaction is defined as the extent to which employees perceive that their career progress is consistent with their goals, values, and preferences (Barnett & Bradley, 2007; Lounsbury, Moffitt, Gibson, Drost, & Stevens, 2007; Seibert & Kraimer, 2001); and the satisfaction employees derive from intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of their career (Greenhaus et al., 1990).

Greenhaus et al.'s (1990) scale, which is most often used as a unitary measure, comprises five separate items, however, they are assumed to aggregate. This scale assesses employees' career satisfaction in terms of career success as a whole, in addition to advancement, income, career goals progress, and new skills development. Within the extant research literature, this scale is considered to be robust and has received support from a number of researchers. For example, it is considered “the best measure available in the literature” (Judge et al., 1995, p. 497), the “most widely used measure in the career literature” (Ballout, 2009, p. 661), the “most prominent scale to measure career satisfaction” (Spurk, Abele, & Volmer, 2014, p. 2), as “one of the most widely used and psychometrically sound measures” (Park, 2010, p. 7), a "highly reliable" scale that can be used with employees in various jobs and organisations (McKenna, Zacher, Ardabili, & Mohebbi, 2016, p. 85), and “the best measurement available in the literature and has been widely used by researchers in different fields” (Kong, Sun, & Yan, 2016, p. 2557).

Psychometrically, its use has led to acceptable levels of internal consistency being reported in a range of studies (Abele & Spurk, 2009; Heslin, 2005), and high construct validity has been supported by alpha reliability values across different occupational groups (e.g., physicians (0.92), economists (0.92), engineers (0.89), and teachers (0.88)), as well as in cross-sectional contexts (Spurk et al., 2014). Therefore, this approach to career satisfaction appears to be appropriate for research into a variety of occupational fields that incorporate different demographic features such as gender and age (Hofmans et al., 2008; Spurk et al., 2014).
A further reason behind the utilisation of Greenhaus et al.'s (1990) conceptualisation and scale of career satisfaction is its dominance in the research literature. To illustrate this dominance, Hofmans et al. (2008) reported that it has been used in more than 240 studies in this field and examples include Grimland et al. (2012); Guan et al., (2014); Han (2010); Hirschi et al. (2016); Jawahar and Stone (2015); Joo and Park, (2010); Karatepe (2012); Loi and Ngo (2010); Neureiter and Traut-Mattausch (2016); Ren, Bolino, Shaffer, and Kraimer (2013); Wickramasinghe and Jayaweera, (2010); and Yap et al. (2010).

Nonetheless, rather than using career satisfaction, the literature highlights that some scholars have used job satisfaction as a measure of subjective career success (Heslin, 2005; Joo & Lee, 2017; Seibert & Kraimer, 2001). This is despite the fact that some scholars (e.g., Tlaiss, 2013; Tlaiss & Mendelson, 2014) have highlighted that job satisfaction has countless definitions which have resulted from the largely fragmented job satisfaction literature that has offered conflicting models. While the concept of career satisfaction describes employees' overall satisfaction toward their career, job satisfaction on the other hand, reflects employees' satisfaction with features of their job. In this respect, descriptions such as a "pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (Locke, 1976, p. 1304) have been provided. Therefore, it is reasonable to argue that job satisfaction and career satisfaction are two different constructs (Martínez-León et al., 2018), and Dai & Song (2016, p. 239) have suggested that a "job satisfaction scale is a defective way for measuring subjective career success". As a result, Heslin (2005) has argued that although job satisfaction relates to the subjective feature of career success, future research should avoid adopting it as a proxy for subjective career success.

Although distinct from the construct of career satisfaction, job satisfaction has been considered by some researchers to be a multidimensional, rather than unitary, construct. Many multidimensional conceptualisations and measures of job satisfaction are proposed in the studies that have assessed the employees' emotional responses to their jobs – as indicated by van Saane, Sluiter, Verbeek, and Frings-Dresen’s (2003) systematic review. Accordingly, if job satisfaction may be considered to be a multidimensional construct then career satisfaction, which is a related construct, may also be experienced in a multidimensional way.
In summary, career satisfaction represents employees' subjective perceptions about their career experiences in the workplace, and the career satisfaction scale developed by Greenhaus et al. (1990) is most often taken as a description of the phenomenon. In addition, the argument advanced here is that there are similarities between the constructs of job satisfaction and career satisfaction. However, both phenomena may be considered to be distinct and complex. Finally, researchers have accepted that job satisfaction is a multidimensional construct and it may also be appropriate to also consider career satisfaction to be a multidimensional construct. This argument is further developed in the next section.

3.5 Dimensionality of Career Satisfaction

This section examines the dimensionality of career satisfaction, arguing that the conceptualisation of career satisfaction on which the Greenhaus et al.’s (1990) scale is based could represent a multidimensional rather than a unitary construct. In addition, it argues that the five factors included in Greenhaus et al.’s (1990) scale are distinct factors and that employees may experience different levels of satisfaction in relation to these conceptually distinct career satisfaction-related factors and outcomes.

The concept of career satisfaction is concerned with how employees feel about their career (Dinham & Scott, 1998). In addition, it reflects the extent to which employees are satisfied with the career goals they have set with the aim of serving their identified career related needs (Abele & Spurk, 2009; Dinham & Scott, 1998). These needs are reinforced by family, cultural, organisational, and religious values that motivate individuals to establish specific career goals (Lent et al., 1994). Examples of these needs include income and advancement (objectively focused), and overall career satisfaction and success, as well as new skills development and career goals progress (subjectively focused). The concept of career satisfaction therefore assumes that employees assess their level of career satisfaction in relation to an establish range of criteria that reflect their values (Abele & Spurk, 2009; Dries, Pepermans, & Carlier, 2008; Dries, Pepermans, & De Kerpel, 2008; Gunz & Mayrhofer, 2011; Spurk et al., 2014).

As introduced previously, traditionally, many research studies have treated career satisfaction as a unidimensional construct (e.g., Greenhaus et al., 1990), however, others
(e.g., Doty, 2017; Mahbub, 2014) have suggested that it is a multidimensional construct. Further, within the research literature, career satisfaction is often assessed using the scale developed by Greenhaus et al. (1990), in which five factors are aggregated to form and represent the construct of career satisfaction. These factors include objective satisfaction in relation to income and advancement, subjective satisfaction in relation to new skills development, career goals progress, and overall career success (Spurk et al., 2014). Although Greenhaus et al. (1990) proposed a unidimensional scale, the argument here is that contextual differences may lead employees to differ in their level of satisfaction in relation to these career related factors and outcomes (Dinham & Scott, 1998; Mahbub, 2014; Spurk et al., 2014). As a result, career satisfaction may be conceptualised as a multidimensional construct that may comprise employees' satisfaction level with their career in relation to these five distinct intrinsic and extrinsic factors (Oliveira, Melo-Silva, Taveira, & Grace, 2016).

A multidimensional concept would provide a more holistic representation of the complex phenomena involved in career satisfaction by including distinct but related factors related to a single theoretical construct (Edwards, 2001; Polites, Roberts, & Thatcher, 2012). Therefore, it is possible for Greenhaus et al.'s (1990) scale to include five factors to assess career satisfaction that are conceptually distinct; with each factor representing one clearly defined aspect of the multidimensional construct. These factors are employees' overall career success, new skills development, career goals progress, income, and advancement. In this regard, both meta-analytic research (e.g., Ng et al., 2005) and empirical research studies (e.g., Judge at al., 1995; Ng & Feldman, 2010) have reported that career satisfaction, career success, salary, and promotion can be considered to be distinct constructs with different predictors.

To summarise, the argument presented here is that the conceptualisation of career satisfaction on which Greenhaus et al.’s (1990) scale is based could represent a multidimensional rather than a unitary concept, and is something that this research provides the opportunity to examine. In addition, it is argued that the five factors included in Greenhaus et al.’s (1990) scale may be considered to be distinct, and employees may experience different levels of satisfaction in relation to these distinct factors.
3.6 SCCT and Career Outcomes

SCCT (Lent et al., 1994; Lent & Brown, 2006) forms the theoretical grounding for the consideration of the socio-cultural, organisational, and demographic features that may influence career satisfaction within the Kuwaiti banking sector. Within this context, career has been a topic of research interest for both the disciplines of vocational psychology and organisational psychology, to understand how situational perceptions and individual differences influence career outcomes (Conklin, Dahling, & Garcia, 2013; Lent & Brown, 2006).

Joining both disciplines together, SCCT, a dominant theoretical perspective in this field (Lent et al., 1994; Lent & Brown, 2006), provides a platform that links these two perspectives in relation to career outcomes (Conklin et al., 2013; Lent & Brown, 2006). According to Lent et al. (1994) and Lent and Brown (2006), SCCT brings together conceptually related constructs (i.e., self-concept and self-efficacy) by proposing the four components of interest, choice, performance, and satisfaction; and accounts for the relationship between different constructs (e.g., self-efficacy, interests, abilities, and needs) to explain career outcomes. In addition, it suggests that affective states and experiences are considered important individual input factors which can directly shape self-efficacy as well as indirectly shape career expectations (Conklin et al., 2013). Moreover, self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and goal choice and progress are considered as the core of these four components (Sheu & Bordon, 2017).

Therefore, SCCT provides a useful theoretical lens to understand the relationship between demographic features, contextual factors, and career satisfaction (Lent & Brown, 2006). Thus, in this study, SCCT was utilised to understand the relationship (in the specific context of the Kuwaiti banking sector) between employees' age, gender, tenure, and promotion; and employees' career satisfaction levels within the Kuwaiti banking sector.

The core assumption behind SCCT is that personal expectations and outcomes influence affective variables, alongside contextual factors, to influence decision making related to the pursuit of satisfaction in career development (Sheu & Bordon, 2017). In addition, the interaction between personality, affective, environmental, and cognitive...
variables that affect vocational behaviours is also assumed (Sheu & Bordon, 2017). Prior research has suggested that social cognitive factors predict career choices, persistence, and achievement across a range of populations including women and ethnic minorities (Bakken, Byars-Winston, & Wang, 2006; Lent, Lopez, & Bieschke, 1991) and career domains (Rasdi, Ismail, Uli, & Noah, 2009).

Within SCCT, outcome expectations represent employees' beliefs about the consequences of their behaviour (Bandura, 1986) and are influenced by individual values, interests, and contexts. In this respect, Dawis and Lofquist (1984, p. 19) indicate that interests "derive from experiences with specific combinations of values and abilities". Therefore, in relation to career, individuals seek to satisfy the needs for status and money (extrinsic outcomes) as well as satisfaction (intrinsic outcomes); needs which are reinforced by family, cultural, and religious values (Lent et al. 1994).

3.6.1 SCCT Empirical Studies

This sub-section reviews the empirical studies undertaken on SCCT's four components; those of interest, choice, performance, and satisfaction, with a particular focus on satisfaction. Further, it outlines the cultural contexts for these studies and describes and compares the main features of research in this area. To date, limited research has been carried out in the geographical context of Kuwait. In addition, limited attention has been given to the demographic features of age, gender, tenure, and promotion, and the influence of organisational factors (i.e., the traditional career approach) on employees' career satisfaction.

Utilising samples from the U.S., existing research has largely offered empirical support for SCCT's four components (Sheu & Bordon, 2017). The research base has now grown to the extent that researchers have been able to perform meta-analyses in the field of SCCT (Brown, Lent, Telander, & Tramayne, 2011; Sheu et al., 2010). However, it was not until recently that Sheu & Bordon (2017) offered a systematic review of research conducted outside the U.S., with empirical evidence regarding the four components of SCCT across different regions of the world, as will now be explored further.
Within the Asian context (mostly East Asian countries), most of the empirical evidence comes from China and Taiwan (four studies each). In addition, two studies have been conducted in Singapore and one study has been conducted in each of Japan, Korea, India, and Malaysia. Within these studies, satisfaction and interest were the dependent variables in four studies while each of choice and performance were the dependent variables in three studies. Moving on to consider the European context (mainly southern and Western Europe), four studies have focused on each of Germany and Portugal, three studies have been conducted in Italy, and one study has been conducted within each of Austria, Belgium, and Spain. Within these European studies, satisfaction and choice were the dependent variables in six of the studies while performance and satisfaction were the dependent variables in one study each, and interest was the dependent variable in two studies. Other countries have also been represented including Australia, Canada, Israel, and Turkey – each with two studies, while Angola, Lebanon, Mozambique and the U.A.E. were each represented by one study. In these studies, choice was the dependent variable in six studies, satisfaction was the dependent variable in three studies, interest was the dependent variable in two studies, and performance was the dependent variable in one study.

All the studies outlined above utilised samples from different student populations. Particularly in relation to the satisfaction component, studies have examined the relationship between personality traits, and self-construal and academic satisfaction. However, they did not include employees' career satisfaction within a non-academic context (i.e., within an organisation); something which constitutes a gap that this study aims to fill.

In summary, most of the SCCT literature outside the U.S. has focused on Asian, European, and other regional contexts. In addition, these studies focused on the academic context by sampling students at different educational levels. However, these studies did not consider different organisational (e.g., banks) and cultural (e.g., Kuwait) contexts, specifically in relation to employees' age, gender, tenure, and promotion. In this respect, Sheu & Bordon (2017, p. 67) have highlighted that "limited attention has been given to person input variables or to cultural and more distal contextual factors". Consequently (and as previously noted), being grounded in SCCT, this study examines the
relationship between demographic features, career satisfaction, and organisational commitment within the Kuwaiti banking sector.

3.7 Organisational Commitment Conceptualisations

This section discusses the construct of organisational commitment in terms of definitions, conceptualisations, and measurements. In addition, it outlines the critiques posed against them as highlighted by the literature. Building on Chapter 2, the argument advanced here is that employees in different cultural contexts commit to their organisations for different reasons, something that may not be possible to assess using unidimensional conceptualisations of organisational commitment.

Organisational commitment is a 'mature' construct developed following an established body of research that has included meta-analytical studies (e.g., Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). However, whilst it is a well-established construct, organisational commitment remains a subject of debate in relation to its definition and measurement (A. Cohen, 2007a, 2007b; Ghosh & Swamy, 2014; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Velando Rodriguez, Crespo Franco, & Santos, 2006). In this regard, Swailes (2002, p. 161) highlighted that "no single definition of commitment has been universally adopted". In parallel, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001, p. 299) pointed out that "despite the increase in attention given to the study of workplace commitment, there still appears to be considerable confusion and disagreement about what commitment is, where it is directed, how it develops, and how it affects behaviour".

Early organisational commitment conceptualisation was based on Becker's (1960) side-bet theory (A. Cohen, 2007a) where organisational commitment was conceptualised as a unidimensional construct from a behavioural perspective (Ghosh & Swamy, 2014; Ko, Price, & Mueller, 1997; Swailes, 2002). According to Becker (1960), side-bets refer to the accumulated financial, social, and learning investments which are valued by employees, and which would be lost if they left their organisation. Consequently, faced with the threat of losing these investments, employees would commit to their organisation (A. Cohen, 2007a; Swailes, 2002).
Further research in this field has conceptualised organisational commitment as a unidimensional construct from the perspective of an attitudinal psychological attachment (A. Cohen, 2007a). In this conceptualisation, organisational commitment has been viewed as a psychological attachment rather than from the investment-based side-bets perspective. The leading approach in this area was the work of Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982). This approach terms organisational commitment as affective commitment, and defines it as the relative strength of employees’ identification with, and involvement in, a particular organisation. As part of this approach, organisational commitment is characterised in terms of a strong belief in, and acceptance of, an organisation’s goals and values, willingness to exert a considerable effort on behalf of the organisation, and strong intent or desire to remain with the organisation.

Another unidimensional attitudinal approach was based on the work of Wiener (1982), arguing that employees commit to their organisation because they feel obligated to do so. Wiener (1982, p. 421) termed this normative commitment and defined it as “the totality of internalised normative pressures to act in a way that meets organisational goals and interests”. In addition, Wiener argued that employees commit to their organisation because it is the right thing to do and further indicates that normative commitment may develop as a result of cultural, family, and organisational socialisation.

A further unidimensional attitudinal approach was proposed by Rhoades, Eisenberger, and Armeli (2001). In this approach, organisational commitment is viewed in terms of affective commitment and defined as “employees having a sense of belonging and identification that increases their involvement in the organisational activities, their willingness to pursue the organisation’s goals, and their desire to remain with the organisation” (Rhoades et al., 2001, p. 825).

Noting the previously mentioned unidimensional conceptualisations, the literature highlights that they have been subject to critique. For example, Mowday et al.’s (1982) approach has been criticised for being too broad and including behavioural intentions that do not relate to their conceptualisation of commitment (e.g., Balfour & Wechsler, 1996; Ghosh & Swamy, 2014; Ko et al., 1997). Considering their measurement scale, Yousef’s (2001 p. 1074) study within an Arab context revealed that it is a multidimensional rather than a unidimensional one; and consequently, cautioned that
“those managers who intend to use the recommendations of research works based on the fifteen-item OCQ in a non-Western culture should be cautious since such recommendations might be misleading”. As for Wiener’s (1982) conceptualisation, the proposed scale to measure normative commitment was criticised for having low internal consistency as well as including the loyalty item, which referred to the affective domain (Jaros, Jermier, Koehler, & Sincich, 1993).

Although these unidimensional constructs have been developed, more recent research has suggested that employees in different cultural contexts commit to their organisations for different reasons; often referred to as affective, normative, and continuance reasons (Bergman, 2006; Fischer & Mansell, 2009; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 2012; Wasti & Onder, 2009). Given the context of the Kuwaiti banking sector (see Chapter 2), this study provides an opportunity to examine the extent to which a multidimensional conceptualisation of organisational commitment may be appropriate in relation to career satisfaction issues. Several multidimensional models for organisational commitment have been proposed (e.g., Balfour & Wechsler, 1996; Jaros et al, 1993; Meyer & Allen, 1997) but that proposed by Meyer and Allen (1997) is considered to be the most enduring in this field (Mercurio, 2015; A. Cohen, 2007a; Ghosh & Swamy, 2014; WeiBo, Kaur, & Jun, 2010), and forms the basis for the design of this study.

To summarise, organisational commitment remains a challenging construct to define, conceptualise, and measure. In addition, employees in different cultural contexts commit for different reasons; something which may not be possible to assess using unidimensional conceptualisations. Moreover, although different multidimensional models have been proposed, Meyer and Allen's (1997) conceptualisation (and their scales) remain the preferred basis for research in this field, particularly within different cultural contexts. The following section discusses this conceptualisation and makes the case for its utilisation to assess organisational commitment within the Kuwaiti banking sector.

### 3.8 Organisational Commitment as a Multidimensional Construct

This section discusses Meyer and Allen’s (1997) conceptualisation of organisational commitment as well as debates highlighted in the literature regarding its components.
The key outcome is that a case is made for utilising Meyer and Allen's conceptualisation to assess organisational commitment within the Kuwaiti banking sector.

Building on the earlier conceptualisations of Becker (1960) and Mowday et al. (1982), Meyer and Allen proposed a multidimensional conceptualisation of organisational commitment. Initially, they conceptualised organisational commitment to comprise two constructs, termed affective commitment (emotional) and continuance commitment (economic). Building on Wiener's (1982) conceptualisation, subsequent work by these scholars added a third construct termed normative commitment, to reflect the sense of obligation that employees may feel in relation to their organisations (Allen & Meyer, 1990). In their later work, Meyer and Allen's (1997) conceptualisation of organisational commitment defines it as a 'bond' between employees and their organisation that makes it less likely for them to voluntarily leave. This bond has been represented by affective, normative, and continuance commitment as outlined in Table 3.2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1  Affective commitment</td>
<td>Describes employees who identify with, involve in, and emotionally attach voluntarily to their organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2  Normative commitment</td>
<td>Describes employees who commit to their organisation as a result of feeling an obligation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3  Continuance commitment</td>
<td>Describes employees who commit to their organisation due to recognising the costs associated with leaving it.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Meyer and colleagues (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010) have argued that affective, normative, and continuance commitment are components (rather than types) of commitment that are theoretically distinct and have different consequences on employees' behaviours. According to Meyer and Allen (1997), these three components represent different psychological states that employees may experience and which have different consequences on their behaviour. In addition, compared to other organisational commitment models, prior research suggests that employees in Western and non-Western cultures commit for different reasons (i.e., affective, normative, and continuance commitment) (Bergman, 2006; Fischer & Mansell, 2009; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 2012; Wasti & Onder, 2009). This is a situation in
which Meyer and Allen's (1997) model would provide the basis to enable the assessment of organisational commitment within different cultural contexts.

Considering examples, U.S. employees were shown to have a tendency to commit to their organisation affectively while Japanese employees tend to commit normatively, in addition to social pressures and ties (Meyer et al., 2012). Further, Rego, Leite, Carvalho, Freire, and Vieira (2004, p. 203) highlighted that those employees "whose family stresses corporate loyalty or whose culture encourages lifetime employment are more likely to develop a stronger normative commitment than others who were not exposed to such experiences". Consequently, Meyer and Allen’s definition, conceptualisation, and scales were used in the context of Kuwait (e.g., Zaitouni et al., 2011).

On the whole, Meyer and Allen’s (1997) conceptualisation of organisational commitment has received support from other scholars. For example, this conceptualisation has been considered to be the dominant model in organisational commitment literature (Bentein, Vandenberghe, Vandenbergh, & Stinglhamber, 2005; A. Cohen, 2003; Greenberg & Baron, 2003; Solinger, Van Olffen, & Roe, 2008) and its scales are the accepted ones for organisational commitment (Culpepper, 2011; H. Klein et al., 2009). However, Bergman (2006) has argued that it continues to promote debate among researchers about the differentiation between its components. Other scholars (e.g., Ko et al., 1997; Solinger et al., 2008) have challenged Meyer and Allen’s conceptualisation on the grounds that it is not empirically and conceptually distinguishable. To illustrate this, Ko et al. (1997) argued that Meyer and Allen did not provide a precise definition for each of affective, normative, and continuance commitment. Instead, they suggested that these components represented a psychological state, but did not explain it further.

At component level, normative commitment has been, and continues to be, subject to much debate and critique (e.g., Jaros, 2017). For example, Bergman (2006) and Ko et al. (1997) argued that normative commitment is indistinguishable from affective commitment as a result of the high correlation between them. To explore this further, previous studies (e.g., Allen & Meyer, 1990; Dunham, Grube, & Castaneda, 1994; Ko et al., 1997; Meyer et al., 1993; Meyer et al., 2002) have shown that while affective and normative commitment items load on different factors, correlation between them remains high. This has led some researchers (e.g., Bergman, 2006; González & Guillén,
2008) to suggest a need to reconceptualise normative commitment. With this in mind, normative commitment has received less research attention (Johnson & Yang, 2010).

In reply, Meyer and Parfyonova (2010) have argued that the raised criticism of redundancy results from researchers’ misunderstanding of affective and normative commitment. In this respect, some scholars (e.g., Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010; Wasti & Onder, 2009) suggest that compared to normative commitment, affective commitment emphasises employees’ desire to voluntarily commit to their organisation. In support of this, Johnson and Yang (2010) have argued that although affective and normative commitment exhibit a high correlation, and may be viewed as redundant, they are different in several ways. First, normative commitment is less related to an organisation when compared to affective commitment, while normative commitment tends to be more susceptible to cultural socialisation than employees’ actual experiences within their organisation (Johnson & Yang, 2010; Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Conversely, first, affective commitment may be influenced by the support that employees receive at work (Meyer et al., 2002). Second, normative commitment often exists before joining an organisation whereas affective commitment develops after entry (A. Cohen, 2007a). Third, affective and normative commitments have different underlying motivations. Employees exhibiting high affective commitment tend to be more motivated by identification and internalisation while employees exhibiting high normative commitment tend to be motivated by obligations to reduce feelings of guilt (Meyer & Allen, 1997). To further support the evidence that affective and normative commitment are different constructs, it has been argued that:

*Although correlations between both dimensions are quite high, and the pattern of correlations with other variables is similar, confirmatory factor analyses demonstrate that the fit indices are higher when the factorial model defines separate factors rather than a single factor. Furthermore, taking both factors into account helps to make a clearer characterization of the individuals’ commitment profiles (Rego et al., 2004, p. 214).*

In addition, the dimensionality of continuance commitment has been found to be controversial as a result of mixed findings in past studies (Jaros & Culpepper, 2014). Some
studies (e.g., Allen & Meyer, 1990; Johnson & Yang, 2010; Meyer & Allen, 1984; Meyer et al., 1993; Rego et al., 2004) have considered continuance commitment to be unidimensional. Conversely, other researchers (e.g., Culpepper, 2011; Dunham et al., 1994; Hackett, Bycio, & Hausdorf, 1994; Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999; Ko et al., 1997; McGee & Ford, 1987) have suggested that continuance commitment is a construct that includes two factors; a perceived lack of alternatives and high sacrifices. In this regard, McGee and Ford argued that the high sacrifice reflects Becker’s (1960) side-bets theory while the lack of alternatives does not. More recently, Jaros and Culpepper (2014) conducted an in-depth assessment of the dimensionality of continuance commitment and concluded by supporting the contention of McGee and Ford that the lack of alternatives does not represent continuance commitment.

In light of the critiques of normative and continuance commitment, Meyer et al., (1993) have applied several revisions to their original scale. For example, they reduced the initial eight-item scale to include only six items for each of the three components of commitment (A. Cohen, 2007a; Ghosh & Swamy, 2014; Ko et al., 1997). These revisions included the elimination of two items from the affective commitment scale (as a result of low factor loadings), the removal of three items and addition of one new item in the continuance commitment scale, and the rewriting of the six-item scale for normative commitment. However, the issue of high correlation between affective and normative commitment remains unresolved. To illustrate this, Ko et al. (1997) examined organisational commitment utilising the revised measure of Meyer et al. (1993), reporting a high correlation between affective and normative commitment. However, despite all posited critiques and applied revisions, Meyer and Allen’s conceptualisation is still considered the leading model, and the preferred basis for future research in the field of organisational commitment (A. Cohen, 2007a; Ghosh & Swamy, 2014).

In summary, whilst debates continue about the features of Meyer and Allen's multidimensional model of organisational commitment, it remains the most used set of measures assess organisational commitment in different cultural contexts and sectors. Further, although the debate continues about its psychometric property and dimensionality, it has received widespread support within the literature in this field and forms the basis for the research in this study.
3.9 Career Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment, and Demographic Features

SCCT suggests that personal (demographic features) and contextual factors affect career outcomes, and research literature has supported this view (e.g., Forstenlechner, Selim, Baruch, & Madi, 2014). The demographic features considered as part of this study are age, gender, tenure, and promotion. This section examines these factors in relation to career satisfaction and organisational commitment, with specific consideration of the influence of Kuwaiti societal culture, Islamic values, and Kuwaitisation (introduced in Chapter 2) which have to date been subject to little research attention in non-Western cultural contexts (Ituma et al., 2011; Tlaiss, 2014).

3.9.1 Age

In relation to the working environment, several differences have been observed in the literature between older and younger employees, differences which are likely to impact upon career satisfaction and organisational commitment. A greater sense of loyalty may result in older employees finding it more difficult to leave their organisation (Butler, 2009) and therefore being seen to be more committed. Moreover, older employees are generally more conservative and may attach greater importance to material values than their younger counterparts (Wils, Saba, Waxin, & Labelle, 2011; Yousef, 2001), and therefore may remain committed to one organisation in order to fulfil these values. In contrast to their older colleagues, there is some evidence supporting the view that younger employees have greater career ambition, and are therefore more likely to seek new opportunities by attaching great importance to hierarchical advancement (Brown, Arendt, & Bosselman, 2014). In this respect, prior studies suggest that ambition and career goals relate to career attainment and satisfaction (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012; Mello, 2008; Sadowski & Schrager, 2016).

Super’s (1990) career-stage theory also suggests that employees’ priorities change as their careers progress. Referring to this, Daleure and Al Shareef (2015) have suggested that as employees get older their satisfaction shifts from focusing on personal growth and advancement potential to having job security. That is to say, older employees emphasise
career stability as well as security (Jung & Takeuchi, 2018) and seek to fulfil their emotional – rather than material – needs through work (Ng & Feldman, 2010). In this respect, some scholars (e.g., Jung & Takeuchi, 2018; Kooij, Bal, & Kanfer, 2014) maintain that, when compared to their younger counterparts, older employees perceive that they have limited future options and therefore seek stability and take fewer risks. As a result, they are more likely to commit to one organisation rather than seek to move. Conversely, younger employees are attracted to organisations that provide opportunities for long-term career progression (Terjesen, Vinnicombe, & Freeman, 2007) and seek higher salaries (Chen & Choi, 2008; Smola & Sutton, 2002).

In Kuwaiti culture, older people are respected by those younger than them and are looked upon for guidance and support. It is likely that this has a religious basis as Islam symbolises certain values including a respect for elders in all aspects of life (Siddique et al., 2016). These values are held in such high regard that ignoring them is deemed to be serious misconduct (Elsaman & Arafa, 2012). This stems from the teachings of Islam within which the process of getting older brings credibility, authority, and leadership qualities (Branine & Pollard, 2010). In this regard, the father and older brother represent the source of authority and power in families (Al-Krenawi & Graham, 2000), younger individuals look after older ones as part of intergenerational solidarity, and young adults financially and emotionally support their older parents (Khan, Hussein, & Deane 2017).

In spite of these cultural and religious values, politically, Kuwait has made changes with the introduction of Kuwaitisation. A key feature of Kuwaitisation is the aim to accommodate the employment aspirations of young Kuwaitis experiencing high levels of unemployment within the private sector (Forstenlechner et al., 2014; Ryan, 2016). In relation to this, there is evidence to suggest that there have been positive impacts of Kuwaitisation for younger people. For example, Salih (2010) reported some improvement in perceptions about job insecurity in the private sector, perhaps as a consequence of student internship programmes and classroom-based assignments (Al-Waqfi & Forstenlechner, 2012). More recently, researchers such as Jung and Takeuchi (2018) have suggested that the changes introduced as part of Kuwaitisation have meant that younger Kuwaitis are more educated and show greater interest in continuing their post-secondary education than their older counterparts. As a result, younger Kuwaitis are more likely to aim to acquire new knowledge and skills and to seek new career opportunities.
The situation in relation to age, therefore, is that cultural and religious beliefs remain as they were with the older generation being respected and looked up to for guidance. However, specifically in relation to careers, there have been political changes and Kuwaitisation focuses upon the younger generation. Nonetheless, while the body of research within Kuwait is not large, and is something this study sets out to address, there are some interesting results from studies within other neighbouring GCC countries which can be explored further within the context of Kuwait. For example, Daleure and Al Shareef’s (2015) study within the U.A.E. has shown that young respondents emphasise their commitment to career growth and advancement, while in a study conducted in Oman, Abdullah and Islam (2012) found that junior employees at non-managerial level seek opportunities to grow by having higher responsibilities. It could therefore be suggested that in seeking career satisfaction, younger employees are likely to demonstrate organisational commitment in order to develop their own careers.

When considering such differences between generations, the literature highlights that younger and older employees represent different generational cohorts which share distinctive values and attitudes (Parry & Urwin, 2011; Yi, Ribbens, Fu, & Cheng, 2015). As a result of these generational distinctions, younger and older employees are motivated by different factors and seek to satisfy different career expectations (Cogin, 2012; Kong et al. 2016) to support their independence. In addition, they place greater importance on status and recognition in line with the Kuwaiti high power-distance cultural characteristic (Foley & Lytle, 2015; Parry & Urwin, 2011). Therefore, it may be proposed that younger employees have different career expectations which may influence both career satisfaction and organisational commitment in the Kuwaiti context.

3.9.2 Gender

The literature suggests that male and female employees tend to define career satisfaction in different ways (Hofmans et al., 2008; Spurk, Able, & Volmer, 2011) as a result of having different career needs and expectations (Jung & Takeuchi, 2016; Wang, Weng, Mcelroy, Ashkanasy, & Lievens, 2014). For example, a study conducted by Hofmans et al. (2008) with a managerial sample in Belgium, reported that while males and females hold similar importance for some aspects of career satisfaction, they differ in
career goals progress aspects. They demonstrated that, in relation to career goals progress, satisfaction with meeting overall career goals was more important for men than women. In a study with German professionals, Spurk et al. (2011) reported that males and females hold similar importance for most aspects of career satisfaction but differ in terms of the importance of income. It is noted that these studies are from Western countries but, as previously stated, the body of research within Kuwait is not large and therefore a wider geographical context needs to be considered. Given the cultural context, and the opportunities for women’s employment presented by Kuwaitisation, this study provides the opportunity to examine whether gender influences career satisfaction and organisation commitment in a similar way to that which has been found by studies conducted in Europe.

Kuwait is characterised as a male dominated and patriarchal culture with defined gender roles (Hofstede et al., 2010). These cultural values create stereotypical social expectations for men and women (Tlaiss, 2014; Tlaiss, & Mendelson 2014). For example, men are expected to work and provide for their families while women are expected to look after their families (Schneid, Isidor, Li, & Kabst, 2015), and are expected to accept inequality (Tlaiss, 2013). In line with these cultural values, women in Kuwait usually work in protected environments such as schools, health and social services, and government agencies, as well as among socially acceptable people (Afiouni, 2014; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011). Consequently, women have lower career expectations as compared to their male counterparts and are likely to have feel more satisfied if these lower expectations have been met (Grimland et al., 2012; Ngo, Foley, Ji, & Loi, 2014).

In another study conducted in Kuwait, Metle (2005) suggested that female employees have their own career ambitions and expect to receive more opportunities for promotion and advancement, and to increase their salaries. In addition, Patton, Bartrum, and Creed’s (2004) study found that females with a positive career outlook tend to establish career goals and subsequently pursue them with optimism. It is possible that the reason for this change in female career expectation stems from being more educated. Particularly, recent studies within the GCC region (e.g., Daleure & Al Shareef, 2015; Shortland, 2015) have reported that female participants are more represented within the private sector while male participants are more represented within the public sector. This
may be attributed to the fact that in Kuwait, females represent the majority of nationals enrolled at tertiary education and are consequently more likely to possess higher tertiary qualifications and the skills sought by the private sector (Rutledge & Shamsi, 2016).

In this context, Kuwaitisation has implications for women and research has suggested that despite cultural expectations traditionally limiting the careers of women, opportunities for them at work in Kuwait have improved – especially within the private sector (Daleure & Al Shareef, 2015; Randeree, 2012). Within this context, Kuwait has applied progressive initiatives in relation to the gender equality of its labour policies (Rutledge & Shamsi, 2016), and revisions to Kuwait’s labour law in 2010 have provided further opportunities for women’s employment, particularly in the private sector. For example, the revised version of the labour law stipulates that both men and women are entitled to receive similar remuneration and end of service benefits for performing the same work (Al-Kuwait Al-Yawm, 2010; Rutledge & Shamsi, 2016). This is in direct contrast to cultural tradition and is an aspect which demonstrates the potential for conflict between cultural tradition and economic progression.

In addition, Al-Kuwait Al-Yawm (2010) observed four changes in legal provisions which may have led to an increase in female employment within the private sector. First, pregnant women are granted paid leave up to 70 days as well up to four months of unpaid leave after the birth of their child/children. Second, the law prohibits organisations from terminating a woman’s employment contract during these periods or if they are unwell due to pregnancy. Third, women returning to work from maternity leave are granted a daily two-hour break from the normal working hours to nurse and breastfeed their babies. Fourth, in organisations that have a minimum of 50 women, it is also a requirement to set up an onsite day-care centre for children below four years of age. It could therefore be argued that the introduction of Kuwaitisation and the legal changes made both reduce women’s family related stress and enable them to focus on their career.

The situation in relation to gender therefore differs from that of age, with cultural beliefs putting men at a higher status than women. In relation to employment, Kuwaitisation (along with legal changes) provides greater opportunities for females within the workplace. In this context, it is reasonable to propose that in the Kuwaiti context,
female employees will exhibit higher career satisfaction and higher organisational commitment.

3.9.3 Tenure

Tenure is an important consideration when looking at how employees' career needs and organisational commitment concerns are shaped and developed (Usmani, Kumari, & Siddiqui, 2016). As a result, it is expected that employees' career needs and concerns will change as tenure increases. For example, employees with shorter tenure emphasise personal growth and aim to develop their careers in their organisations. Conversely, employees with longer tenure tend to seek security and stability, and focus more on meeting their social and family-related needs (Huang, Shi, Zhang, & Cheung, 2006). In addition, the length of tenure may be a factor in employees' potential hierarchical progression. For example, both Greenhaus et al. (1990) and Igbaria (1991) highlighted that where an employee has a long tenure in one position, there is an increased likelihood that they will have limited potential for upward mobility and career advancement. Subsequent studies have considered the relationship between career satisfaction and tenure, and many suggest that this relationship is a negative one. These studies include Armstrong-Stassen and Cameron (2005); Hochwarter, Kiewitz, Gundlach, and Stoner (2004); Judge et al. (1995); and Yap et al. (2010).

Kuwait is characterised as a culture of high collectivism and uncertainty-avoidance (Hofstede et al., 2010), and such cultural values influence employees' tenure in their organisation. For example, loyalty, in collectivist culture, is a key quality, harmonious relationships are sought and protected, and the relationship between an organisation and its employees has a moral basis rather than a transactional one (Gausel et al., 2012; Hofstede et al., 2010). In addition, employees in a collectivist culture are more emotionally dependent on their organisation, place an emphasis on security and social affiliation (Hofstede et al., 2010), and are subsequently reluctant to change their jobs and/or organisation (Kats et al., 2010). Within such a culture, employees within their work context conduct themselves according to their cultural values and religious beliefs by emphasising harmonious group membership and high uncertainty-avoidance (Tayeb, 1996). There is a lower tolerance for new situations, as a result of the high uncertainty-
avoidance cultural characteristic, than may be acceptable in Western countries and security is a fundamental factor for employees’ motivation (Hofstede et al., 2010; Hofstede, 2011). Here, employees try to avoid uncertainty by seeking greater career security and being more oriented towards risk avoidance (Ismail, 2016; Moon & Choi, 2017). Within this context, employees are more reluctant to seek new employment opportunities to avoid the potential risk of failure within a new organisation, as well as the loss of the security and stability they have in their current employment (Aladwan et al., 2013); something that has implications for organisational commitment.

From a religious perspective, the employee-organisation relationship goes beyond written contracts and expectations (Branine & Pollard, 2010). That is, Islamic values stress the importance of commitment and cooperation as values which dictate goodness and generosity in the relationship between an employee and their organisation (de Waal & Frijns, 2016). In addition, Yahchouchi (2009) noted that in Islamic teachings, both the employee and the organisation have a moral obligation to develop a relationship that leads to organisational solidarity and harmony. In this regard, Ali (2010) explained that Islam sets clear and mutual employee-organisation obligations for their employment relationship. On one side of the relationship, organisations should treat employees with dignity, provide adequate work-based instructions, and provide fair and just compensation. Meanwhile, on the other side, employees are obliged to exhibit commitment and loyalty as well as being obedient. Consequently, it is reasonable to propose that in the Kuwaiti context, employees developing high tenure in their organisations will exhibit higher organisational commitment and lower career satisfaction.

3.9.4 Promotion

The traditional career approach assumes employees move between jobs in a relatively predictable sequence to achieve hierarchical advancement (Enache et al., 2011; Ituma et al. 2011; Tlaiss, 2014). This may provide the basis from which employees’ perceptions of their likely career progression may result in career satisfaction outcomes (Joo & Ready, 2012; O'Shea, Monaghan, & Ritchie, 2014). Looking specifically at promotion, it is understood as a feature of perceived career success since employees
receiving more promotions feel their expectations for growth and advancement are met, resulting in higher career satisfaction (Grimland et al., 2012; Yap et al., 2013). In support of this, recent literature highlights a positive relationship between career satisfaction and number of promotions (e.g., Neureiter & Traut-Mattausch, 2016).

Kuwait is characterised as high power-distance culture. In this culture, status consciousness acts as an important cultural issue where managers value high power and authority (Gregg, 2005). Subsequent research supports this, with a number of researchers (e.g., Guan et al., 2014; Kats et al., 2010) stating that hierarchical status, authority, and power is respected and aspired to in such a culture. As a result, Sabri (2013) noted that employees have a high tendency to seek prestigious positions and to be very title-oriented, whilst also being obedient and loyal to people in higher positions.

From a religious perspective, Islamic values align with cultural values and therefore emphasise the importance of hierarchy within the employee-organisation relationship, where respect for, and obedience to, authority is emphasised (Aycan, Al-Hamadi, Davis, & Budhwar, 2007). Such values may well form the basis for the centralised nature of power in organisations where Islamic values are prevalent, as well as the tendency for autocratic management styles and hierarchical authority (de Waal & Frijns, 2016).

In addition, Kuwaitisation focuses on Kuwaitis' career growth and progression within the private sector. In this regard, recent literature (e.g., Ng & Feldman, 2013) has revealed that promotion opportunities and job security are strongly correlated with career satisfaction. Therefore, promotion may lead to higher career satisfaction, but not necessarily organisational commitment as they may move between organisations in order to achieve promotion. Specifically, in the private sector the influence of Western HRM practices (Daleure & Al Shareef, 2015) provide the basis for an emphasis on high performance as a basis for more opportunities for growth and promotion (Daleure & Al Shareef, 2015); rather than being dependent on other considerations such as patronage. It could therefore be argued that Kuwaitisation has actively ‘skewed’ HRM practices towards Kuwaitis working in the private sector with an emphasis on recruitment and performance and merit-based promotions. Alpha Bank, for example, has a policy to recruit and promote qualified Kuwaitis in order to fill all positions and satisfy the Kuwaitisation quota. In such a context, it is reasonable to propose that Kuwaiti employees
receiving more promotions in their organisations will exhibit higher career satisfaction and higher organisational commitment.

In summary, the sections within this chapter so far have discussed the demographic features of age, gender, tenure, and promotion; along with the influence of social, cultural, religious, and local labour market factors that result from Kuwaitisation in relation to career satisfaction and organisational commitment. It has discussed how employee-organisation relationships are influenced by cultural and Islamic values, values that emphasise commitment, loyalty, and obedience. However, in addition, it has suggested that demographic features might affect perceptions of career satisfaction and organisational commitment. Specifically, the potential in this context for tension between different contextual and personal factors has been highlighted in relation to gender and age; indicating a gap in knowledge in relation to demographic features, career satisfaction and organisational commitment in the Kuwaiti context.

3.10 Propositions Development

This chapter has identified a number of contextual issues that may be relevant to explaining career satisfaction and organisational commitment within the Kuwaiti banking sector. These form the basis for the research propositions outlined below and summarised in Table 3.3 at the end of the chapter. In the next chapter, these propositions will guide the systematic review of the empirical literature concerning career satisfaction, organisational commitment and demographic features. In addition, the discussion chapter (Chapter 8) will further consider the issues that feature in these propositions.

First, career satisfaction (see Sections 3.4 and 3.5) is most often assessed using the scale developed by Greenhaus et al. (1990), in relation to employees' progress toward satisfying career related goals, including income, advancement, new skills development, progress in relation to set career goals, and overall career success. Whist Greenhaus et al.'s scale assumes career satisfaction to be a unitary construct, these five factors may be considered to be distinct, and employees may experience different levels of satisfaction in relation to these distinct factors; which are both extrinsic (i.e., income and promotion) and intrinsic (e.g., success). Moreover, some similarities between the constructs of job satisfaction and career satisfaction have been noted. As research has suggested that job
satisfaction is a multidimensional construct, it may also be appropriate to consider career satisfaction as a multidimensional construct. As a result, the first proposition advanced is that career satisfaction may be conceptualised as a multidimensional construct.

**Research proposition 1: Career satisfaction is a multidimensional rather than a unidimensional construct.**

Second, SCCT (see Section 3.6) theorises that contextual and demographic features influence career outcomes. For example, the traditional career approach – a contextual factor – occurs within the context of the Kuwaiti cultural characteristics of collectivism and high power-distance. Such characteristics may influence how employees define their career needs which, in turn, may impact upon their perception of career satisfaction. Accordingly, it is proposed that career satisfaction may be experienced differently in a Kuwaiti context.

**Research proposition 2: Career satisfaction is affected by cultural and local contextual factors.**

Several unidimensional models (see Sections 3.7) have been proposed to conceptualise organisational commitment. However, existing literature in this field has suggested that employees in different cultural contexts commit to their organisations for different reasons, and in different ways (Bergman, 2006; Fischer & Mansell, 2009; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 2012; Wasti & Onder, 2009). As Kuwait has a unique cultural and labour market context, a unidimensional conceptualisation of organisational commitment is considered inappropriate. Therefore, the third research proposition is:

**Research proposition 3: Organisational commitment is a multidimensional rather than a unidimensional concept.**

The argument of this chapter, advanced in Sub-section 3.2.1 and Section 3.8, is that a traditional approach to career may be consequential for organisational commitment and career satisfaction outcomes (Ariani, 2012; Clarke, 2013; Meyer et al., 1993; Miao, Newman, Sun, & Xu, 2013; Tjahjono, Palupi, & Dirgahayu, 2015) as it is grounded in a longer-term employee-organisation relationship (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Rodrigues et al., 2015). The argument is also advanced that the Kuwaiti context aligns with the
traditional approach to career rather than to contemporary explanations of career. Therefore, the fourth research proposition is:

**Research proposition 4:** The experience of organisational commitment within the Kuwaiti banking sector will align more with the assumptions of the traditional career approach.

In Sub-section 3.9.1 it was argued that younger and older employees represent different generational cohorts, each sharing distinctive values and attitudes; with implications for career satisfaction and organisational commitment (Joshi, Dencker, & Franz, 2011; Parry & Urwin, 2011; Yi et al., 2015). For example, younger employees are likely to be more career oriented, ambitious, and attach high importance to career advancement and development (Kong, Wang, & Fu, 2015; Kong et al., 2016). Conversely, older employees may be less ambitious as a result of there being fewer advancement opportunities at their hierarchical level. In addition, they are more likely to seek a balance between work and non-work interests. The context of Kuwait also emphasises values of power-distance where rank and authority are highly valued and sought, but at the same time, Kuwaitisation policies have increased career expectations for younger workers. As a result, the fifth research proposition is:

**Research proposition 5:** Younger employees within the Kuwaiti banking sector may experience career satisfaction differently than their older counterparts.

Sub-section 3.9.2 highlights how women's careers have traditionally been bound by cultural expectations in spite of gender egalitarianism being a feature of Islamic values. Although the cultural context of Kuwait accords men a higher status than women, Kuwaitisation and legal changes provide greater opportunities for females within the labour market. Within this labour market, there are now enhanced opportunities for women to pursue their career goals and to satisfy their career expectations. Hence, the sixth research proposition is:

**Research proposition 6:** Gender differences within the Kuwaiti banking sector may affect career satisfaction experiences.
In relation to organisational commitment, the argument in Section 3.8 is that normative and continuance commitment are valid features of this construct, and that all dimensions of organisational commitment may be experienced differently in cultural contexts such as Kuwait (Bergman, 2006; Fischer & Mansell, 2009; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 2012; Wasti & Onder, 2009). In relation to normative commitment, Kuwait is considered to be a collectivist culture in which the employee-organisation relationship is morally based (Erdogan & Liden, 2006; Gausel et al., 2012; Hofstede et al., 2010; Wasti & Onder, 2009). Considering continuance commitment, Kuwait has a high preference for uncertainty-avoidance, new situations are less tolerated, and security is a fundamental factor for employees’ motivation. Therefore, the seventh research proposition is:

**Research proposition 7:** Normative and continuance commitment may be important features within the Kuwaiti banking sector.

With regard to the effect of promotions at work, Sub-section 3.9.4 argues that the high power-distance culture of Kuwait forms the basis for respect for hierarchical status (Kats et al., 2010). This means that employees are likely to seek higher hierarchical positions and to be very title-oriented (Sabri, 2013). In addition, in Sub-sections 3.3.1 and 3.3.2 it is argued that promotions may also be considered a measure of career success, something that is also consequential for career satisfaction outcomes. Therefore, the eighth research proposition is:

**Research proposition 8:** Number of promotions may affect career satisfaction in the Kuwaiti banking sector

Tenure is discussed in Sub-section 3.9.3 as something that, in a Kuwaiti context, is likely to influence employees' career attitudes, needs, and satisfaction (Usmani et al., 2016). However, the literature indicates that tenure may serve to limit potential for upward mobility and career advancement. In the Kuwaiti context, which values organisational loyalty, position tenure is likely to be longer than in other Western cultures. Accordingly, the ninth research proposition is:

**Research proposition 9:** Tenure may affect career satisfaction in the Kuwaiti banking sector
### Table 3.3 Developed research propositions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Propositions</th>
<th>Section/Sub-section</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Career satisfaction is a multidimensional rather than a unidimensional construct</td>
<td>3.4, 3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Career satisfaction is affected by cultural and local contextual factors</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Organisational commitment is a multidimensional rather than a unidimensional concept</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The experience of organisational commitment within the Kuwaiti banking sector will align more with the assumptions of the traditional career approach</td>
<td>3.2.1, 3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Younger employees within the Kuwaiti banking sector may experience career satisfaction differently than older counterparts</td>
<td>3.9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Gender differences within the Kuwaiti banking sector may affect career satisfaction experiences</td>
<td>3.9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Normative and continuance commitment may be important features within the Kuwaiti banking sector</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Number of promotions may affect career satisfaction</td>
<td>3.3.1, 3.3.2, 3.9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Tenure may affect career satisfaction</td>
<td>3.9.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.11 Summary

This chapter has discussed the important contributions to the theory and understanding of career issues, career satisfaction, and organisational commitment. As part of this, it has focused specifically on the work of Baruch and colleagues (Baruch, 2006, 2015; Baruch & Bozionelos, 2010; Baruch et al., 2015; C. I. Lee et al., 2014; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009), with regards to career theory, Greenhaus et al. (1990) in relation to career satisfaction, and Meyer and Allen (1997) in relation to organisational commitment. In addition, the argument developed in this chapter is that, in the context of the Kuwaiti banking sector, career progression takes place in more structured organisations, and as a result, career satisfaction is more aligned with the traditional approach to understanding career. In terms of measuring career satisfaction, Greenhaus et al.'s scale has been identified as the dominant instrument used for this purpose.

This chapter has also considered the relationship between career satisfaction, organisational commitment, Kuwaitisation, religion (Islam), as well as cultural values, with
demographic features. With regards to age, it is suggested that older and younger employees differ in their employment and organisational experiences with consequences for career satisfaction and organisational commitment. When considering gender, it has argued that culture and religion influence women's career outcomes and expectations alongside organisational commitment. The relationship between employees' tenure and promotional attainment may also be affected by the context in which they work with implications for career satisfaction and organisational commitment. In the final part of this chapter, the literature review led to the development of nine research propositions. The research propositions form the basis for the systematic review of empirical literature into career satisfaction and organisational commitment presented in the next chapter, and for the discussion presented in Chapter 8.
This chapter builds on the assessment of the literature presented in Chapter 3, and presents a systematic review of published empirical literature into both career satisfaction and organisational commitment. The purpose of the systematic literature review is threefold. First, to establish what is known empirically about the relationship between career satisfaction and demographic features. Second, to identify the gaps in the literature; and third, to provide the basis for the operationalisation of the concepts and development of the research hypotheses.

4.2 Establishing the Focus: The Systematic Literature Review

Since this research seeks to explore constructs considered to be mature, but within a new research context (Kuwait), a systematic literature review was performed for career satisfaction, organisational commitment, as well as the GCC, Arab, and Kuwaiti cultural context. A systematic review process identifies and appraises existing empirical literature in relation to particular themes that satisfy predefined eligibility criteria (Nolan & Garavan, 2016; Ressing, Blettner, & Klug, 2009). In line with recent literature (e.g., Alhejji, Garavan, Carbery, O’Brien, & McGuire, 2016; Nolan & Garavan, 2016), the systematic review process was performed as outlined below, and is depicted in Figure 4.1.

First, conceptual boundaries were defined and established. In this respect, career satisfaction was conceptualised using the work of Greenhaus et al. (1990) and the most commonly used conceptualisations of organisational commitment were included. In addition, the GCC region, Arabs, and Kuwait represented the cultural context, while Kuwaitisation and the banking sector represented the organisational contexts. Following this, the inclusion criteria were established. First, the search boundaries were peer reviewed journals and electronic databases, including Emerald, JSTOR, IEEE Explore, ProQuest, ScienceDirect, Web of Science, and Wiley; in addition to Google Scholar. Second, the search terms included organisational commitment, career satisfaction, Arab, GCC, Kuwait, and banks.
Figure 4.1 Systematic literature review process

Defining conceptual boundaries
Constructs under investigation
Career Satisfaction using Greenhaus et al. (1990)
Commonly used conceptualisations of organisational commitment

Cultural context
GCC, Arab, and Kuwait

Organisational context
Kuwaitisation
Banking sector

Setting inclusion criteria

Search boundaries
Peer reviewed journals
Electronic databases

Search terms
Organisational commitment
Career satisfaction
Arab, GCC, and Kuwait
Banks

The terms were searched by using Boolean search operators (such as AND, OR, and NOT) as well as truncation symbols (such as * and *) were used to broaden and narrow the scope of the search.

database classification terms
(such as title, abstract, and key words)

Applying the inclusion criteria
Published in English
Within the cover range of 1990 to 2017
Using Greenhaus et al. (1990) conceptualisation
Commonly used conceptualisations of organisational commitment

Cover period
1990 to 2017
Defined terms were searched in both singular and plural forms (i.e., Arab/Arabs), different spellings (i.e., organisation/organization), broader and narrower terms (i.e., GCC, Arab, and Kuwait), and by different database classification terms (i.e., title, abstract, and key words). In addition, the search included the subjects of HRM, organisational behaviour, industrial psychology, and vocational behaviour. Further, this search utilised Boolean search operators (i.e., AND, OR, and NOT) to broaden and narrow the scope of the search. In terms of a timescale, period was defined as 1990–2017, based on the date of Greenhaus et al.’s (1990) seminal publication (the start date) and the year during which this study was compiled (2017).

The identification of relevant research studies was therefore guided by the following inclusion criteria. First, they are published in English. Second, they cover the time period 1990 to 2017. Third, they include the commonly used conceptualisations of organisational commitment. Fourth, they use Greenhaus et al.’s (1990) conceptualisation of career satisfaction. Preliminary search results identified 178 potential research studies. These were initially screened by reading the abstracts to identify their relevance and, if the abstract signalled potential eligibility for inclusion, the full text was read and evaluated. Consequently, if the full text satisfied the inclusion criteria, it was subsequently marked to be used as part of the literature review. As a result of this screening process, 29 studies published between 1991 and 2016 were identified as relevant studies for inclusion (see Table 4.4 at the end of the chapter).

4.3 Career Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

As discussed in Chapter 3, in relation to career satisfaction (Sections 3.4 and 3.5) and organisational commitment (Sections 3.7 and 3.8), the purpose of the systematic review process in this chapter is to examine empirical evidence regarding the relationship between them. Although career satisfaction has been consistently measured by using Greenhaus et al.’s (1990) scale, by contrast, organisational commitment has been measured with a variety of scales, as shown in Table 4.1. These include Allen and Meyer (1990); Balfour and Wechsler (1996); Felfe and Franke (2012); Meyer et al. (1993); Meyer and Allen (1997); Mowday et al. (1982); Porter, Crampon and Smith (1976); Porter and Smith (1970); Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974); and Rhoades et al., (2001).
However, Meyer and Allen’s (1997) conceptualisation, or its forerunners, have been used on most occasions.

### Table 4.1 Career satisfaction and organisational commitment literature review

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Locational context</th>
<th>CSAT</th>
<th>OC</th>
<th>CSAT – OC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jaiswal et al. (2016)</td>
<td>India (Insurance)</td>
<td>Greenhaus et al. (1990)</td>
<td>AC (Meyer &amp; Allen, 1997)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grimland et al. (2012)</td>
<td>Israel (Public &amp; private sectors)</td>
<td>Greenhaus et al. (1990)</td>
<td>AC (Porter et al., 1974)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kuchinke et al. (2008)</td>
<td>Korea (Various industries)</td>
<td>Greenhaus et al. (1990)</td>
<td>AC (Balfour &amp; Wechsler, 1996)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: CSAT–OC = the relationship between career satisfaction and organisational commitment, where CSAT denotes career satisfaction, OC denotes organisational commitment, AC denotes affective commitment, and CC denotes continuance commitment – abbreviated terms used in table only.
In relation to cultural context, Table 4.1 shows that North America was represented by three studies from the U.S. and one from Canada. In addition, four studies focused on the Asian context; within Korea, Israel, Singapore, and India. Further, Australia and Austria were each represented by one study. However, there are limited studies which address the association between career satisfaction and organisational commitment within the cultural contexts of Kuwait. Consequently, it was necessary to extend the understanding of the relationship between these two constructs, in this new and under-researched context. Therefore, and as discussed in Chapter 3 and propositions 5, 6, 8 and 9, the aim of this research is to examine the relationship between demographic features, career satisfaction, and organisational commitment within the Kuwaiti banking sector.

### 4.4 Hypotheses Development

The empirical research in the context of the research proposition development, outlined in Chapter 3, was reviewed to identify the most appropriate ways to operationalise constructs as a basis for developing the research hypotheses. In this regard Table 4.4 (at the end of the chapter) illustrates that there is a relatively large body of studies exploring career satisfaction in relation to age, gender, tenure, and promotion; in addition to organisational commitment. This research comprised 29 studies, most of which (27 studies) adopted cross-sectional designs. In other studies, for example, Schneer and Reitman (1994), a longitudinal study was conducted while Ng et al. (2005) reported the findings of a meta-analysis.

In terms of the cultural context, Table 4.2 shows that 12 studies were conducted within North America (10 studies in the U.S. and two studies in Canada). The Asian cultural context follows with 10 studies in seven countries: Aryee and Chayt (1994), and P. Lee (2003) in Singapore; Grimland et al. (2012) in Israel; Guan et al. (2014), and Loi and Ngo (2010) in China; Jaiswal et al. (2016) in India; Kuchinke et al. (2008), and Tak and Lim (2008) in Korea; Poon (2004) in Malaysia; and Wickramasinghe and Jayaweera (2010) in Sri Lanka. The European cultural context was reflected in Hirschi et al.'s (2016) German study; Neureiter and Traut-Mattausch’s (2016) Austrian study; and Richardsen et al's (1997) Norwegian study. The African cultural context was represented in Karatepe's
Cameroonian study, and the Australian context was reflected in the study conducted by Lingard and Lin (2004).

Table 4.2 Cultural and organisational contexts and demographic features

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultural Context</th>
<th>Cultural Feature</th>
<th>Organisational Context</th>
<th>Organisational Feature</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>n</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>North America</td>
<td></td>
<td>U.S.</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td></td>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>Public &amp; Private</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>Public, Private, &amp; Non-profit</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>Master of Business Administration (MBA) alumni</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td></td>
<td>China</td>
<td>Graduate students</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>Information Technology (IT) &amp; Finance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>IT &amp; Management Information Studies</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>Hospitality</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>Insurance</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>India</td>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td></td>
<td>Cameroon</td>
<td>Foreign investment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td></td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Fortune 500 companies</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meta-analysis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Multinational companies</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Various sectors &amp; Organisations</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In relation to organisational context, representation was from various industries and sectors, as presented in Table 4.2. These organisational contexts include the public sector (one study), private sector (one study), public & private sectors (two studies), public, private, and non-profit sector (one study), MBA alumni (three studies), graduate students (one study), IT and finance (one study), IT and Management Information Studies (two studies), hospitality (one study), insurance (one study), construction (one study), engineering (one study), foreign investment (one study), fortune 500 companies (two studies), multinational companies (one study), and various sectors and organisations (seven studies). Within this body of literature, emphasis has been placed on the effect of age, gender, tenure, and promotion.
4.4.1 Career Satisfaction and Age

Examination of prior empirical studies, and the context of the research, informed the decision in this study to operationalise ‘age’ into two categories. The chosen categories align with potential generational differences: young participants were defined as those aged below 30 years and older counterparts aged 30 years old and above. In this respect, it is considered that younger employees are likely to be more career oriented and ambitious, compared to older counterparts who are more likely to seek a balance between work and non-work interests, as presented in Sub-section 3.9.1.

In terms of the association between age and career satisfaction, Ng et al.'s (2005) meta-analysis indicated no association. As shown in Table 4.4 (at the end of the chapter), 12 studies support this finding. However, Judge et al.'s (1995) study within various industries in the U.S., and Yap et al.'s (2010) study in the Canadian IT and finance sector, both reported that older employees experience significantly lower levels of career satisfaction than their younger counterparts. Similarly, P. Lee (2003) found an association between career satisfaction and age in Singapore. More recently, Grimland et al. (2012) in Israel; Guan et al. (2014) in China; Han (2010), and Jawahar and Stone (2015) in the U.S.; and Jaiswal et al. (2016) in India, found an association between career satisfaction and age. Conversely, Richardsen et al.’s (1997) study within the public sector in Norway reported that older women expressed higher career satisfaction compared to their younger counterparts.

Considering the above, it could be argued that there is mixed evidence about the association between career satisfaction and age from studies across various organisational contexts and different countries. More importantly, there is no prior evidence within the context of Kuwait. In the context of this research, and taking into account the discussion in Chapters 2 and 3 associated with research proposition 5 which argues that younger employees within the Kuwaiti banking sector may experience career satisfaction differently than older counterparts; the first research hypothesis (referred to as H1) is therefore:

**H1: Employees aged under 30 years report higher levels of career satisfaction than those aged over 30 years.**
4.4.2 Career Satisfaction and Gender

Gender, in this research, was operationalised using two categories: males and females. As presented in Sub-section 3.9.2, women's careers have traditionally been bound by cultural expectations. However, Kuwaitisation and legal changes provide females within the labour market with enhanced opportunities to pursue their career goals and to satisfy their career expectations.

In terms of the association between gender and career satisfaction, Ng et al.'s (2005) meta-analysis has suggested that there is no association between them. As shown in Table 4.4 (at the end of the chapter), 11 studies are in line with this finding. However, it also shows that Greenhaus et al.'s (1990) seminal study in the U.S., Seibert and Kraimer's (2001) study in (also in the U.S.), the study by Tak and Lim (2008) in Korea, and Hirschi et al.'s (2016) study in Germany all found an association between gender and career satisfaction. Furthermore, Schneer and Reitman's (1994) longitudinal study reported that men had significantly higher levels of career satisfaction compared to their female counterparts. In contrast, Karatepe's (2012) study within the hospitality sector in Cameroon and Yap et al.'s (2010) study within the IT and finance sector in Canada, both found that females experienced higher career satisfaction compared to their male counterparts.

Considering the above, it could be argued that there is mixed evidence about the association between career satisfaction and gender from studies across various organisational contexts and within different countries. More importantly, there is no prior evidence within the context of Kuwait. In the context of this study, and taking into account the discussion in Chapters 2 and 3 associated with different career expectations that informed research proposition 6 – which argues that gender differences within the Kuwaiti banking sector may affect career satisfaction experiences; the second research hypothesis (H2) is therefore:

**H2: Men report higher levels of career satisfaction than women.**
Tenure may influence employees' career attitudes and satisfaction (Usmani et al., 2016) such that the length of position tenure may be an indicator of the possibility of upward mobility and career advancement. In addition, tenure may be influenced by cultural and religious values, as introduced in Sub-section 3.9.3. Previous empirical studies highlight a lack of consensus among scholars on how to operationalise tenure. For example, tenure was operationalised in terms of 'organisation' (e.g., Armstrong-Stassen & Cameron, 2005; Aryee & Chayt, 1994; Han, 2010; Hirschi et al., 2016; Karatepe, 2012; Kuchinke et al., 2008; Loi & Ngo, 2010; Ng et al., 2005; Ren et al., 2012; Yap et al., 2010); in terms of 'job' (Joo & Park, 2010; P. Lee, 2003; Ng et al., 2005), in terms of 'position' (Hochwarter et al., 2004; Richardsen et al., 1997), and in terms of 'occupation' (Judge et al., 1995). Tenure, in this research, was operationalised in terms of position, something that is discussed more fully in the next chapter.

Based on Ng et al.'s (2005) meta-analytic finding, tenure is not associated with career satisfaction and, as shown in Table 4.4 (at the end of this chapter), four studies support this finding. However, it should be noted that an additional six studies did find an association. For example, Armstrong-Stassen and Cameron's (2005) findings were that professional women with long tenure report less career satisfaction than those with short tenure. In addition, the research of Hochwarter et al. (2004) and Judge et al. (1995) within the U.S. as well as Yap et al. (2010) in Canada, reported a negative relationship between tenure and career satisfaction. In contrast, P. Lee (2003) in Singapore; and Loi and Ngo (2010) in China revealed a positive relationship between tenure and career satisfaction.

In support of the studies reporting a negative relationship, some scholars (e.g., Greenhaus et al., 1990; Igbaria, 1991) posited that longer position tenure may indicate limited potential for career advancement and upward mobility. Therefore, with no prior evidence within the context of Kuwait, and taking into account the discussion in Chapters 2 and 3, leading to proposition 9 which argues that tenure may affect career satisfaction; the third research hypothesis (H3) is:

**H3: Employees with higher position tenure report lower levels of career satisfaction.**
4.4.4 Career Satisfaction and Promotion

As introduced in Sub-section 3.9.4, promotion represents an extrinsic outcome for career satisfaction. In addition, the importance of attaining promotion may be culturally shaped and influenced within the high power-distance culture of Kuwait, where hierarchical status is respected and valued.

Contrary to the findings in relation to age, gender, and tenure, Ng et al.'s (2005) meta-analysis revealed an association between promotion and career satisfaction. As shown in Table 4.4 (at the end of this chapter), six studies that examined the association between promotion and career satisfaction were in line with this finding, in particular, the five studies which were conducted within the North American context. These include Judge et al. (1995), Martins, Eddleston, and Veiga (2002), and Seibert and Kraimer (2001) in the U.S.; as well as Armstrong-Stassen and Cameron (2005), and Yap et al. (2010) in Canada. Outside of North America, one study was conducted by Neureiter and Traut-Mattausch (2016) in Austria. Of note is that all the studies reported a positive association between career satisfaction and promotion.

Considering the specific findings of these studies, Seibert and Kramer's (2001) study in the U.S. with undergraduate students and MBA alumni reported that the number of promotions positively relates to career satisfaction. In line with this, and with a focus upon professional women, Armstrong-Stassen and Cameron's (2005) study within various industries in Canada found that those who received more advancement opportunities expressed greater career satisfaction compared to those who received limited advancement opportunities. Similarly, but without a gender focus, in a study conducted within the IT and finance sector in Canada, Yap et al. (2010) found that respondents who received at least one promotion exhibited higher career satisfaction than those who did not receive any. Likewise, but conducted across a broader range of organisations, Martins et al.'s (2002) study within various industries in the U.S. has shown that the greater the number of promotional offers employees receive, the higher their career satisfaction is.

Considering the above, current literature from studies across various organisational contexts (and within different countries) suggests a positive relationship between career satisfaction and promotion. However, there is no prior evidence within the context of Kuwait. In the context of this study, therefore, and taking into account the discussion in
Chapters 2 and 3 associated with the cultural context of Kuwait, and research proposition 8 which argues that number of promotions may affect career satisfaction; the fourth research hypothesis (H4) is:

**H4: Employees with a higher number of promotions report higher levels of career satisfaction.**

### 4.4.5 The Relationship between Career Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

A closer examination of Table 4.1 reveals that the extant findings about career satisfaction and age, gender, tenure and promotion, stem from 10 studies exploring the relationship between career satisfaction and organisational commitment. Extending this line of research, and taking into account the discussion in Chapter 3 associated with research propositions 1, 2, 3, 4, and 7, the second aim of this study will be to examine whether career satisfaction predicts organisational commitment within the Kuwaiti banking sector. According to Meyer et al. (1993), employees reciprocate with positive reactions if their needs and expectations are satisfied by their organisation. The literature suggest that those employees who perceive that their organisation helps them to achieve their desired career goals are reluctant to move to a new organisation that may be less supportive (Chan, Mai, Kuok, & Kong, 2016; Igbaria, 1991; Weng, Mcelroy, Morrow, & Liu, 2010). Accordingly, employees who are satisfied with their career direction and advancement prospects retain their organisational commitment (Igbaria, 1991; Lingard & Lin, 2004).

As discussed in the literature under review, affective commitment was the primary focus when studying the relationship between career satisfaction and organisational commitment. As such, eight out of these 10 studies found a relationship between career satisfaction and affective commitment. However, one study (Kang et al., 2015) reported no relationship. In another study, Neureiter and Traut-Mattausch (2016) examined the different components of organisational commitment, reporting that career satisfaction is related to affective commitment but not to continuance commitment. Nonetheless, both continuance commitment and normative commitment have received less research attention in relation to career satisfaction and therefore it has, to date, been difficult to
make comparisons. Further, there is no prior evidence within the Kuwaiti context, the geographical focus of this study.

As a result, this study sets out to add to knowledge where there is currently a gap about the relationship between career satisfaction and all of affective, normative, and continuance commitment within the Kuwaiti banking sector. Taking into account the discussion in Chapter 3 associated with research propositions 1, 2, 3, 4, and 7, which argue the following:

1. Career satisfaction is a multidimensional rather than a unidimensional construct.
2. Career satisfaction is differently experienced within the Kuwaiti banking sector compared to Western contexts.
3. Organisational commitment is a multidimensional rather than unidimensional concept.
4. The experience of organisational commitment within the Kuwaiti banking sector will align more with the assumptions of the traditional career approach.
5. Normative and continuance commitment may be important features within the Kuwaiti banking sector.

Therefore, the following research hypotheses are put forward:

**H5a:** Career satisfaction is positively related to affective commitment.

**H5b:** Career satisfaction is positively related to normative commitment.

**H5c:** Career satisfaction is positively related to continuance commitment.

To test these hypotheses, empirical research utilising employees working within the Kuwaiti banking sector was conducted. Table 4.3 summarises all formulated hypotheses.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research hypotheses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Employees aged under 30 years report higher levels of career satisfaction than those aged over 30 years.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Men report higher levels of career satisfaction than women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Employees with higher position tenure report lower levels of career satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Employees with higher number of promotions report higher levels of career satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5a Career satisfaction is positively related to affective commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5b Career satisfaction is positively related to normative commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5c Career satisfaction is positively related to continuance commitment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.5 Summary

This chapter has outlined the systematic literature review process of the published empirical studies into both career satisfaction and organisational commitment. In addition, it has provided the basis for formulating the research hypotheses, as guided by both the research propositions and the outcomes of the performed systematic literature review. Further, this chapter has identified that there is gap in knowledge in the areas of the relationship between career satisfaction and all of affective, normative, and continuance commitment. In addition, it has identified opportunities where empirically derived knowledge can be further developed in the Kuwait context, and specifically within the Kuwaiti banking sector. The next chapter will therefore discuss the methodological basis for this research.
Table 4.4 Literature review – career satisfaction in relation to demographic features and organisational commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Features</th>
<th>Study</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>U.S. Undergraduate students and MBA alumni</td>
<td>Meta-analysis</td>
<td>Norway Public sector</td>
<td>U.S. MBA Alumni (longitudinal)</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>Various industries</td>
<td>U.S. Various industries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Association</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>Older women expressed more career satisfaction</td>
<td>Older executives reported lower career satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Association</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Women had lower career satisfaction than men</td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>Males had a higher CSAT mean score compared to females</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td>Association</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>Professional women with longer tenure reported less CSAT compared to professional women with less tenure</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>Employees with high occupational tenure experienced lower CSAT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comparison</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>Number of promotions positively relates to CSAT</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>Professional women with more advancement opportunities expressed greater CSAT than those who received limited opportunities</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>Note</td>
<td>N = 496, 64% males, mean age = 35.7, number of promotions = CSAT.</td>
<td>Sample = all women, N = 191, mean age = 43.</td>
<td>Did not use Greenhaus et al.’s measure, N= 176, two thirds between 36 and 45, mix employment types (full, part, not employed).</td>
<td>Only women, N=185, mean age = 54.6, managerial and professional posts.</td>
<td>Only executives</td>
<td>Managers, N = 828, mean age = 38.7, JT=3.4, OT = 15.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CSAT examined in relation to</td>
<td>Personality</td>
<td>Meta-analysis</td>
<td>Work experience</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Demographics, human capital, &amp; org variable</td>
<td>Race</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: CSAT = career satisfaction, OC = organisational commitment, JT = job tenure, OT = organisational tenure, AC = affective commitment, CC = continuance commitment
Table 4.4 (cont.) Literature review – career satisfaction in relation to demographic features and organisational commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Features</th>
<th>Study</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>12</th>
<th>13</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>U.S.</td>
<td>MBA Alumni</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>IT &amp; Finance</td>
<td>U.S.</td>
<td>Fortune 500 companies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Hochwarter et al. (2004)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Yap et al. (2010)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td>Joo &amp; Park (2010)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>Karatepe (2012)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Note</td>
<td>Loi &amp; Ngo (2010)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wichramasinghe &amp; Jayaweera (2010)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Age**

- Association: No
- Comparison: Older respondents experience lower CSAT

**Gender**

- Association: No
- Comparison: Females experience higher CSAT compared to men

**Tenure**

- Association: Negative those with low tenure were more satisfied with their careers
- Comparison: Negative employees with shorter tenure were more satisfied with their careers

**Promotion**

- Association: Positive
- Comparison: Respondents who received at least one promotion had higher career satisfaction over those who did not.

**Note**

- Did not use Greenhaus et al.'s measure, N = 222, majority males, mean age = 41.44, mean JT = 9
- Used four items from Greenhaus et al.; OC - (Meyer & Allen, 1997); AC = CSAT, different participants' ethnicity and culture, mean age = 40.42
- CSAT = Greenhaus et al., OC - AC = Meyer and Allen (1997), OC = CSAT

**CSAT examined in relation to**

- Vocational and social efficacy
- Race
- Goal orientation, organizational orientation, and feedback
- Org support and job performance
- Risk aversion
- Career plateau and supervisor support
Table 4.4 (cont.) Literature review – career satisfaction in relation to demographic features and organisational commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Features</th>
<th>Study</th>
<th>14</th>
<th>15</th>
<th>16</th>
<th>17</th>
<th>18</th>
<th>19</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>U.S.</td>
<td>Various industries</td>
<td>India</td>
<td>Insurance</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Public and private sector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Association</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Association</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td>Association</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comparison</td>
<td>The more promotion offers, the higher CSAT will be.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Note</td>
<td>CSAT examined in relation to</td>
<td>Work-family conflict</td>
<td>Organisational ethics</td>
<td>Career types</td>
<td>Mentoring</td>
<td>Family and work environment</td>
<td>Work values</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: CSAT = Career satisfaction; OC = Organisational commitment.
Table 4.4 (cont.) Literature review – career satisfaction in relation to demographic features and organisational commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Features</th>
<th>Study</th>
<th>20</th>
<th>21</th>
<th>22</th>
<th>23</th>
<th>24</th>
<th>25</th>
<th>26</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>China</td>
<td>Various orgs</td>
<td>U.S.</td>
<td>A multinational fortune 500 company</td>
<td>U.S.</td>
<td>Private, public, and non-profit orgs</td>
<td>Singapore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Association</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Association</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td>Association</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>Association</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Greenhaus et al. – sample all managers, Greenhaus et al., Greenhaus et al. sample mainly males, Greenhaus et al., Greenhaus et al., Greenhaus et al.

CSAT examined in relation to Salary and job level, Trust and LMX, Justice and citizenship, Professional plateau, Career commitment and emotion perception, Employee status and job type, Non-work orientation
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Features</th>
<th>Study</th>
<th>27</th>
<th>28</th>
<th>29</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>Working professionals</td>
<td>U.S.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Association</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td>Association</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>Association</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Note</th>
<th>CSAT – Greenhaus et al., AC and CC - Allen and Meyer (1990), CSAT ≠ CC, CSAT = AC</th>
<th>Greenhaus et al.</th>
<th>Greenhaus et al. and by Porter et al. (1976) CSAT = AC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CSAT examined in relation to</td>
<td>Career self-management</td>
<td>Job demand and resources</td>
<td>Job performance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Chapter 5: Research Methodology

5.1 Introduction

According to Crotty (1998, p. 3), research methodology is "the strategy, plan of action, process or design lying behind the choice and use of particular methods and linking the choice and use of methods to the desired outcomes". Accordingly, this chapter outlines the research methodology adopted for this research. It begins by considering the research philosophy – the beliefs about the way the data within this study were to be gathered, analysed, and interpreted. Next the research design is discussed in terms of the time frame, research population and sampling strategy, respondents, instruments, and pilot study. Once the philosophy and research design are established, this chapter then outlines the information regarding the data collection methods. Section 5.5 presents a brief discussion of the ethics approval and the chapter concludes with a summary of the research design within this study.

5.2 Research Philosophy

A researcher’s stance in relation to the world and knowledge of the world is reflected in their philosophical paradigm. According to Guba and Lincoln (1994), a philosophical paradigm represents a worldview that defines the nature of the world in addition to the possible relationships to that world and its parts. They further explain that a philosophical paradigm can be characterised through: ontology (the way the researcher defines reality), epistemology (the process by which the investigator comes to know reality), and methodology (the method used in conducting research). Within this context, positivism – a philosophical paradigm – is considered one of the most commonly employed paradigms in social science research.

A positivist paradigm underpins this study and is grounded in the assumption that, notwithstanding different contextual factors, a single reality can be independently examined as a basis for valid and reliable prediction. Within this paradigm, positivists
consider research as the scientific explanation of social relationships and behaviours. According to recent scholars (e.g., Antwi & Hamza, 2015; Creswell, 2013; Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2016), positivists make the following assumptions. First, they assume that the social world exists externally, and its attributes may be assessed and measured objectively. In doing so, they assume that empirical facts exist independently from the researchers' interactions and that data can be collected and analysed in a value-free manner. Second, the analysis of social reality is informed by an assumption that empirical facts are governed by the laws of cause and effect. Third, there is a preference for a structured methodology, allowing for replication by other researchers. This can be achieved through a quantitative approach which identifies patterns and relationships between variables. Finally, there is an assumption that social reality is stable and, therefore, research can be conducted using well-developed hypotheses which are derived from existing empirical studies and/or theories; hypotheses which may subsequently be tested through statistical analysis to establish the extent to which the phenomena may be generalisable.

In this study, the maturity of both the constructs of, and the empirical research base for, career satisfaction and organisational commitment lends support to the positivist approach as the basis for the chosen research design, for two reasons. First, it allows a comparison of the findings with previous research findings from other country locations within different cultural contexts. Second, it provides the opportunity for researchers in other GCC countries to replicate this study and compare findings.

Within the social sciences, there are two common research approaches – deductive and inductive. According to Saunders et al. (2016), the deductive approach aims to test existing theories by reviewing current literature, generating propositions on the basis of this knowledge, and formulating research hypotheses for empirical testing. Conversely, the inductive approach is concerned with the generation of new interpretations emerging from the gathered data, to enhance understanding of new or existing phenomena (Saunders et al., 2016). A deductive approach was adopted in this research because career satisfaction and organisational commitment are mature, established, and well-theorised constructs that have been developed and refined through a large body of
This research aims to add new knowledge about these issues by examining them in the new and under-researched context of the Kuwaiti banking sector.

This research is quantitatively based for the following reasons. First, it aims to test several formulated hypotheses for which a quantitative method is best suited (Antwi & Hamza, 2015; Creswell, 2013). As indicated in the systematic literature review chapter (Chapter 4, Table 4.4), the majority of the existing body of research into career satisfaction and organisational commitment adopts a quantitative research and the approach taken is therefore consistent with this. Second, as indicated in the literature review chapter (Chapter 3), career satisfaction and organisational commitment have received considerable attention. Thus, they are considered to be mature areas of knowledge (Edmondson & McManus, 2007) consisting of well-developed constructs and models. However, this study sets out to examine the relationship between demographic features, career satisfaction, and organisational commitment in a new and under-researched context; that of the Kuwaiti banking sector. Therefore, this study aims to explain social and behavioural phenomena from the basis of an objectivist understanding of the nature of the social and organisational world.

To summarise, the research undertaken as part of this study is grounded in a positivist paradigm, making use of a deductive approach to theory and a quantitative method to examine the relationship between the focal constructs. Other features of the research design, such as the time horizon, research population and sampling strategy, data gathering procedures, and sample size will be discussed in the following sections.

5.3 Research Design

Research design involves a process of defining the research time horizon, research population, sampling design, data gathering procedures, and the appropriate statistical analysis needed to test formulated hypotheses (Sekaran, 2003); in order to address the principal research questions. Accordingly, this section explains the rationale behind utilising a cross-sectional design, defines the research population, and explains the sampling strategy. It concludes by outlining the data gathering procedures.
5.3.1 Research Time Horizon

Table 4.4 (Chapter 4) illustrates that much of the research in the field of career satisfaction utilises a cross-sectional research design, and this study continues that tradition. Although an individual’s career unfolds over time, their perception of career satisfaction occurs at a single moment in time. Therefore, although longitudinal research is valuable in this field, examining the relationship between demographic features, career satisfaction, and organisational commitment can however be done using a single point in time approach. This approach, utilising a survey instrument, was utilised to capture respondents’ perceptions about career satisfaction and organisational commitment in this study.

5.3.2 Research Population

For the purpose of this research, Alpha Bank, one of the largest conventional banks in Kuwait, was selected. Organisational access for field work can be challenging in a Middle East context (Albdour & Altarawneh, 2014; Tlaiss & Mendelson, 2014; Whiteoak et al., 2006), but access permissions meant that this site provided the basis from which an inclusive, although purposive, sampling strategy could be undertaken that would appropriately reflect the employment context in the banking sector in Kuwait. This bank represents a typical banking organisation in Kuwait and offered access to knowledge about career satisfaction and organisational commitment that had not previously been accessible to the research community (Yin, 2014).

As outlined in the previous chapter, studies into career satisfaction (e.g., Armstrong-Stassen & Cameron, 2005; Joo & Park, 2010; Judge et al., 1995; Lingard & Lin, 2004; Seibert & Kraimer, 2001) analysed data drawn from a restricted sample. These include women, professionals, managers, executives, MBA alumni, technical, administrative, and older or younger employees, within various cultural and sectoral settings. In contrast, although a single-site is limited, it provided the basis from which an inclusive range of employee experiences could be gathered. Therefore, a banking organisation such as Alpha Bank provides the advantage of a wider perspective by
including participants from a range of different business functions, with different seniority and tenure levels, as well as representation from across employee age ranges and gender.

Alpha Bank is a conventional bank located in Kuwait with a hierarchical and bureaucratic structure, and authority centralisation. In addition, it has well-defined and standardised HRM and business policies and procedures, centralised decision making and supervision, vertical hierarchies of authority and control, and relies on formal communication mechanisms. To illustrate its structure, Figures 5.1 and 5.2 outline the relative gender distributions and hierarchical position distributions within Alpha Bank. In this respect, the workforce includes a considerable female representation and the majority of employees are at clerical level as compared to other job ranks. To summarise, therefore, Alpha Bank employees are both predominantly female and work at junior hierarchical levels.

Figure 5.1 Relative gender distribution in Alpha Bank (Alpha Bank, 2015²)

² Reference withheld to maintain anonymity of Alpha bank.
5.3.3 Research Sampling Strategy

Sampling strategy can be probabilistic or non-probabilistic. Probability sampling provides an equal selection opportunity to all members of the population, while non-probability sampling is employed where there is difficulty in sampling the entire population. Selecting the appropriate sampling strategy also depends on the extent to which the data are accessible and, according to Sekaran and Bougie (2016), a non-probability sampling strategy may be used where there are data access difficulties. Within this context, Whiteoak et al. (2006) argue that obtaining access to a random sample is very difficult in the Middle East. Accordingly, and as a result of access restrictions imposed by the bank concerned, a purposive and convenience approach was adopted to maximize the range of participants in terms of business function, seniority, tenure, age range and gender.

Existing studies conducted within this cultural context – particularly within the banking sector – have shown that utilising a non-probability sampling approach is common practice. For example, Tlaiss and Mendelson (2014) recently observed that conducting research in Arab countries is often hindered by the absence of official
information, respondent's reluctance to participate, and the lack of organisations willing to allow researchers to survey their employees. As a result of these findings, they concluded that obtaining a representative sample through probability sampling may not be possible and non-probability sampling may therefore be required instead. Similarly, Albdour and Altarawneh (2014) justified using non-probability sampling within the banking sector by highlighting confidentiality policies which prevented the researcher from accessing employee related data. Accordingly, utilising non-probability sampling in the banking sector tends to be a common practice within the cultural context of this research. Using examples from within Arab countries, Alawneh and Younis (2014) utilised purposive sampling within the banking sector in Jordan, and Dirani (2009) utilised convenience sampling within the banking sector in Lebanon.

5.3.4 Data Gathering Procedures and Sample Size

Data gathering for this study occurred during July 2015 (see Appendix A). 700 paper-based questionnaires (see Appendix B) were distributed via all heads of business departments, accompanied by information about the completion and collection procedures. One nominated member of staff was responsible for distributing the questionnaire to all staff in each department and follow-up contact was undertaken by the researcher on a weekly basis during July 2015. Completed questionnaires were returned in a sealed envelope by respondents via the internal mail system for collection by the researcher from a pre-defined collection point. Following this process, 320 questionnaires were received, of which 42 were completed by 'non-Arab' employees and the remainder from 'Arab' respondents. The focus of the analysis presented in this thesis relates to the returns by 'Arab' respondents (n = 278).

According to Israel (1992), a common strategy in business research to determine sample size is to utilise published tables. Of these, Krejcie and Morgan (1970) have proposed a rigorous sample size table that can be used to determine the appropriate sample size. According to their table (see Appendix C), a population of 900 requires a sample of 269 cases while a population of 950 requires a sample of 274 cases. Since the population of this research is 920 (all employees working within all business departments
in Alpha Bank) and the obtained sample is 278, it therefore satisfies the required sample size suggested by Krejcie and Morgan. This sample size is considered sufficient for 95% confidence (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970) and to detect moderate and large associations that are statistically significant (J. Cohen, 1992). Moreover, since structural equation modelling (SEM) was utilised as a feature of data analysis, the sample size of 278 satisfied the minimum sample size of 200, in addition to the ratio of 10 cases per parameter that is required for utilising SEM (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2014; Kline, 2015).

The obtained 'Arab' sample resulted from a response rate of 39.7% (278/700). In this respect, Baruch (1999) indicated that there is no consensus in the literature about what constitutes an acceptable response rate. However, Sekaran and Bougie (2016) suggest that a 30% response rate is acceptable in survey studies, and this response rate compares favourably to prior banking studies. For example, Zaitouni et al.'s (2011) study in Kuwait reported a response rate of 39.8%. Similarly, a response rate of 38.7% was reported in the study of Jantan and Honeycutt (2013) in Malaysia, while in Lebanon, Dirani's (2009) study reported a response rate of 32%.

5.4 Questionnaire Design and Development

This section outlines the scales included in this research. The questionnaire design drew upon previously validated measurement instruments for the assessment of career satisfaction and organisational commitment.

5.4.1 Career Satisfaction

The five-item career satisfaction scale developed by Greenhaus et al. (1990) incorporates items that address perceptions of career success, career goals progress, income, advancement, and new skills development (see Appendix B). The choice of these items was determined by the theoretical framework of this study and the prevalence of the scale’s use in other career satisfaction studies (as indicated in Table 4.1). Responses were scored on a five-point Likert scale, where 1 represents strongly disagree and 5 represents strongly agree.
5.4.2 Organisational Commitment

Meyer and Allen’s (1997) conceptualisation, or its forerunners, have been used in the majority of studies into organisational commitment, as illustrated in Table 4.1. This conceptualisation and its scales were adopted for this research for the following four reasons. First, this scale version is the most recently published and extant. Second, it contains a shorter 18 items (six items for each scale) which came about as a result of revising the earlier scale versions that included 24 items (eight items for each scale). Third, this version reflects good psychometric properties in terms of acceptable reliability estimates, as well as construct, discriminant, and content validity (A. Cohen, 2007a; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Fourth, this conceptualisation and its scales have, to date, been considered to be the dominant model in organisational commitment literature (Bentein et al., 2005; Bergman, 2006; A. Cohen, 2003; Greenberg & Baron, 2003; Solinger et al., 2008); as well as being considered the leading model and the preferred basis for future research in the field of organisational commitment (A. Cohen, 2007a; Ghosh & Swamy, 2014; Culpepper, 2011; H. Klein et al., 2009).

Meyer and Allen’s (1997) scale comprises three sub-dimensions; affective, normative, and continuance commitment. Responses were scored on a seven-point Likert measure, where 1 represents strongly disagree and 7 represents strongly agree. In this scale, four items were negatively worded; three in the affective commitment scale and one in the normative commitment scale (see Table 5.1). Subsequently, negatively worded items were reverse-coded (e.g., Ibrahim & Perez, 2014; Merritt, 2012; Nicol, Rounding, & MacIntyre, 2011; Yavas, Karatepe, & Babakus, 2013), as explained next.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affective commitment</td>
<td>AC2</td>
<td>I do not feel like &quot;part of the family&quot; at my organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AC5</td>
<td>I do not feel &quot;emotionally attached&quot; to this organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AC6</td>
<td>I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normative commitment</td>
<td>NC6</td>
<td>I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: AC is used to denote affective commitment and NC is used to denote normative commitment within the table but not the main text.
Reverse-coding was performed to make item scores equivalent. Further, Bayazit, Hammer, and Wazeter (2004), and later Merritt (2012), suggest that reverse-coding negatively worded items produces a model with a more satisfactory data fit and structure. After reverse-coding was performed, satisfactorily alpha values were obtained (Roszkowski & Soven, 2010) for affective commitment (0.83) and normative commitment (0.76) (Hair et al., 2014).

As the language used in the items for this questionnaire was English, and it was appreciated that some respondents may not be proficient in the English language, a translation process was undertaken. First, questionnaire items were translated into Arabic by a specialist professional translator. Second, the Arabic version was back-translated (Brislin, 1986) by a different specialist professional translator. This back translation confirmed that no amendments were required at this stage.

5.5 Ethical Issues and Access to Data

This section describes the process of ethical scrutiny and data access. A favourable opinion was obtained from the relevant University of Portsmouth faculty ethics committee (see Appendix D). Key features of the ethical consideration for this study were respondents’ anonymity and confidentiality with Alpha Bank requesting organisational 'anonymity'. The process of achieving organisational level consent was as follows. Initially, permission was received from the Head of Human Resources Development following an explanation in writing (see Appendix E) regarding the purpose of the research, the proposed data gathering method, and the provision of a copy of the research questionnaire. This process of questionnaire scrutiny led to only one change where the 'name' of Alpha Bank was removed from the questionnaire and replaced with the term 'organisation', and approval for questionnaire distribution was subsequently given. All informed consent processes for individual responses were achieved via the 'first' part of the questionnaire where information was provided about the study and issues of anonymity were addressed. Respondents were provided with a self-addressed, envelope into which the completed questionnaire was inserted and the envelope sealed, for collection by the researcher from a pre-defined collection point.
5.6 Pilot Study

Prior to the main study in July, a pilot study was conducted in February 2015 (see Appendix F). As part of this, the research questionnaire was completed by a small sample of participants to assess its effectiveness (Krosnick & Presser, 2010). A total of 76 questionnaires were distributed to employees working in non-business departments and these were not subsequently included in the sample of the main study. This pilot study was conducted for a number of reasons. First, it intended to assess the efficacy of the translated questionnaire in terms of whether the meaning remained the same. Second, it provided the researcher with the opportunity to elicit participant's feedback about possible issues such as confusion over what was required from them, any ambiguities within the questionnaire, and any difficulty in understanding what was being asked when completing the questionnaire. Third, it enabled a completion time to be established and thus helped determine feasibility in relation to the available timescale. Fourth, it allowed the researcher to assess the reliability and validity of the instruments to be used in the main questionnaire.

After receiving the completed questionnaires, the attained results showed no translation or meaning related issues of concern and this was confirmed by participants who completed them. In addition, a preliminary reliability analysis was performed by conducting Cronbach's alpha. Obtained results satisfied the minimum threshold range of 0.60 to 0.70 suggested by Hair et al. (2014) as follows: affective commitment (0.81), normative commitment (0.78), continuance commitment (0.66), and career satisfaction (0.88). However, since the pilot study utilised a sample size of only 76, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was not performed as it requires a sample size of at least 100 (Hair et al., 2014). Another reason for not undertaking EFA was that the career satisfaction and organisational commitment scales utilised in this study are already well established and validated in the existing empirical literature.
5.7 **Significance Level**

This research utilised 0.05 as the significance level for all performed statistical analysis. While different significance levels are available, Hair et al. (2014) suggest that 0.05 is widely used – something which is in line with past studies (e.g., Jiang & Klein, 1999; Mikawoz, Ingram, & Bruning, 2009; Ng et al., 2005). The significance level represents the probability of accepting that the estimated coefficient is different from zero when it actually is not (Hair et al., 2014). In addition, a 0.05 significance level means that a researcher can be 95% confident that the results represent a non-chance finding (Aron, Coups, & Aron, 2006). Consequently, this research considers results with a p-value less than, or equal to, 0.05 as statistically significant.

5.8 **Reliability Assessment**

In addition to affective, normative and continuance commitment, reliability and internal consistency were assessed for career satisfaction by performing the widely used Cronbach’s alpha test (Hair et al., 2014). This test assesses the extent to which each construct’s items measure the same construct (Nunnally, 1978; Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Cronbach’s alpha test ranges from 0 to 1 and values in the range of 0.60 to 0.70 are considered as the minimum acceptable threshold (Hair et al., 2014).

5.9 **Analytical Strategy**

In order to address the research hypotheses, different assessments and analytical procedures were employed for the main study, as outlined within the following subsections. Data were entered and coded in SPSS v22 by the researcher and frequency analysis in SPSS v22 was performed to identify any erroneous data entry and coding. The entire data set was then examined for missing values using a missing value analysis in SPSS v22. Any identified missing values were marked for adequate treatment. In addition, normality assumptions were assessed.
5.9.1 Analytical Procedures

Several types of statistical analysis were utilised in this research by using both of SPSS v22 and Amos v22. First, descriptive statistics were generated to examine frequencies, means, standard deviations, and correlations. Next, the mean scores for the aspects of career satisfaction were calculated and rank ordered to assess the importance of each aspect of career satisfaction to employees in relation to each demographic feature. Independent t-test (between two groups) and one-way ANOVA test (between more than two groups) were utilised to identify statistically significant differences in mean scores between career satisfaction and demographic features. Finally, SEM was employed to examine the relationship of career satisfaction and affective, normative, and continuance commitment. Table 5.2 summarises the employed analytical procedures.

Table 5.2 Analytical procedures employed in the data analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data Analysis and Research Hypotheses</th>
<th>Analytical procedures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Employees aged under 30 years report higher levels of career satisfaction than those aged over 30 years</td>
<td>Mean scores ranked order and independent t-test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Men report higher levels of career satisfaction than women</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Employees with higher position tenure report lower levels of career satisfaction</td>
<td>Mean scores ranked order and one-way ANOVA test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Employees with higher number of promotions report higher levels of career satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5a Career satisfaction is positively related to affective commitment</td>
<td>SEM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5b Career satisfaction is positively related to normative commitment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5c Career satisfaction is positively related to continuance commitment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.9.2 Independent T-Test & One-Way ANOVA Test

Prior to performing an independent t-test and one-way ANOVA test, normality assumptions were assessed. Skewness and kurtosis analyses were performed to assess for normality deviation (Hair et al., 2014). The rationale behind using skewness and kurtosis
rather than the traditional tests of Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk is that with a large sample size (200 and above), Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests tend to produce significant p-values (to indicate non-normality) as a result of small deviations from normality (Field, 2014; Öztuna, Elhan, & Tüccar, 2006). In addition, while the data is said to be normal when it has a skewness and kurtosis equal to zero (Field, 2014), a sample size equal to or exceeding 200 decreases the negative effect of non-normality and the researcher can therefore be less concerned about it (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012; Hair et al., 2014). Assessing for skewness and kurtosis, Kline (2015) suggests a skewness absolute value greater than three, and a kurtosis absolute value greater than 10 is problematic.

In line with prior studies (e.g., Jiang & Klein, 1999; P. McDonald et al., 2005; Ngo et al., 2014; Ravindran & Baral, 2014; Seema & Sujatha, 2016; Tlaiss, 2013), assessment of the relationships between career satisfaction and demographic features, employed both an independent t-test and a one-way ANOVA test. An independent t-test was performed to assess for significant mean difference of career satisfaction in relation to age, gender, nationality, and education. A particular reason for performing an independent t-test was the fact that these were two-category variables (Field, 2014).

In the research undertaken as part of this study, age was split into two groups; young participants aged below 30 were coded as (1), while older counterparts aged 30 years and above were coded as (2). Initially, the questionnaire assessed age with more than two categories. However, an examination of prior empirical studies and response frequencies, as discussed further in Chapter 6, influenced and informed the decision in this research to operationalise ‘age’ into two categories. This operationalisation reflects different generational cohorts which each have distinctive values and attitudes (Joshi et al., 2011; Parry & Urwin, 2011; Yi et al., 2015), as explained next.

First, Kuwait held The National Youth Project in 2012, where young Kuwaitis were asked to submit policy recommendations concerning youth. In this project, young Kuwaitis were defined as those below the age of 30. Second, while the literature has no agreement on the age cut-off point between young and old individuals (Ng & Feldman, 2010), several scholars have defined young individuals as those below the age of 30 and
older counterparts those aged 30 and above (e.g., Akkermans & Tims, 2017; De Lange et al., 2010; Finegold, Mohrman, & Spreitzer, 2002; Jung & Takeuchi, 2018; Kirkbesoglu & Ozder, 2015; Martínez-León et al., 2018; Pogson, Cober, Doverspike, & Rogers, 2003; Poon et al., 2015; Tlaiss, 2013; Whiteoak et al., 2006).

Other scholars (e.g., Abdullah & Islam, 2012; Finegold et al., 2002) argue that age is a factor that may shape what employees seek from their employment and consequently leads to differences between employees in terms of what they want from their career. In terms of recent studies, as part of their 2018 study, Martínez-León et al. also defined 'old' employees as those aged 30 years and above. In doing so, the authors argued that this is a vital period in the development of a professional career because, in this phase, employees have matured and have reached a professional level with its associated remuneration. Similarly, scholars such as Akkermans and Tims (2017), and O’Shea et al. (2014), have defined 'young' employees as those aged less than 30 years old. In doing so, these authors have argued that young employees experience high pressure to establish the nature of their career path and to pave the way for future advancement on the career ladder.

In relation to gender, it was operationalised as male (coded as (1)) and female (coded as (2)) as these gender-based identities are traditionally understood in Kuwait. In relation to wider identities (both gender and sexual orientation), although homosexuality is not specifically outlawed, those who identify as lesbian, bi-sexual, gay, or transgender can be prosecuted under the ‘debauchery’ law and therefore this study took an approach which was within the remit of the law. Moving on to consider nationality, it was operationalised as Arabs (coded as (1)) and non-Arabs (coded as (2)) because the focus of this study is to examine the issues of career satisfaction and organisational commitment in the specific context of the Kuwait banking sector and the recent history of Kuwaitisation. With regards to education, it was operationalised as secondary education (coded as (1)) and higher education level (coded as (2)). It is worth noting that education was assessed, initially, with five categories. However, obtained cell-sizes – as explained further in Chapter 6 – informed the decision to split ‘education’ into only two categories.
As noted previously, independent t-test results with p-values less than or equal to 0.05 are considered to be significant (Field, 2014). However, the assumption of homogeneity (equality of variances) should be satisfied to account for obtained significant independent t-test results. Therefore, a Levene test was performed to assess for homogeneity (equality of variances) with a p-value greater than 0.05 indicating that variance is equal and the assumption is tenable (Field, 2014).

As introduced earlier, in addition to the independent t-test, a one-way ANOVA test was performed to assess for significant mean differences in career satisfaction in relation to tenure, promotion, and job role. One-way ANOVA test was used because tenure, promotion, and job role were represented by more than two categories. Nonetheless, obtained response frequencies (discussed further in Chapter 6) influenced the decision to split tenure, promotion, and job role as follows. First, tenure was represented by less than one year to represent new employment (coded as (1)), one to five years to represent short tenure (coded as (2)), five to 10 years to represent medium tenure (as coded (3)), and more than 10 years to represent long tenure (coded as (4)). Second, promotion, was represented by no promotions received (coded as (1)), one promotion received (coded as (2)), and two or more promotions received (coded as (3)). Third, job role was represented by low clerical level (coded as (1), middle supervisory and officer level (coded as (2)), and higher managerial level (coded as (3)).

A one-way ANOVA test with a p-value less than or equal to 0.05 indicates significant results (Field, 2014). As with an independent t-test, the assumption of homogeneity (equality of variances) should be satisfied and therefore a Levene test was performed to assess for homogeneity (equality of variances). Again, a Levene test with a p-value greater than 0.05 indicates that variances are equal and the assumption is tenable (Field, 2014). Within one-way ANOVA test, a post-hoc examination was performed to identify which pair of categories significantly differed when compared to different combinations of the assessed categories (Field, 2014). In relation to errors, Bonferroni’s post-hoc test was used (Domenico & Jones, 2007) to control type I errors (Field, 2014). Bonferroni’s post-hoc test results of less than or equal to 0.05 indicates a significant difference between assessed categories (Field, 2014).
In addition to independent t-test and one-way ANOVA test, the mean scores for the aspects of career satisfaction were calculated and rank ordered to assess the importance of each of these aspects to employees in relation to each of age, gender, tenure, promotion, education, nationality, and job role. In doing so, a mean score ranked as 1 means high importance while a mean score ranked as 5 means least important.

5.9.3 Structural Equation Modelling

SEM was employed to examine the relationship between career satisfaction and all of affective, normative, and continuance commitment. It was preferred to other methods (such as regression) because SEM includes both factor analysis (measurement models) and regression models (structural models) (Narayanan, 2012). In addition, it accounts for measurement error and mis-specifications while predicting relationships between constructs simultaneously (Alavifar, Karimimalayer, & Anuar, 2012; Kline, 2015; Narayanan, 2012; Nusair & Hua, 2010). Specifically, rather than testing individual variables sequentially, SEM tests a total model with multiple dependent variables simultaneously, as is the case in this research (Alavifar et al., 2012; Nusair & Hua, 2010).

In this study, co-variance-based SEM (CB-SEM) was used rather than partial least square SEM (PLS-SEM) for the following four reasons. First, CB-SEM is appropriate for larger sample sizes, as is the case in this research (Hair et al., 2014). Second, CB-SEM is used for theory testing as is also the case in this research, while PLS-SEM is used for theory development (Hair et al., 2014). Third, as the data had no normality issues, it was considered appropriate to use CB-SEM (Lowry & Gaskin, 2014). Fourth, in contrast to PLS-SEM, CB-SEM provides for model fit indices which enables assessment of the quality of the estimated model (Hair et al., 2014).

In this study, the relationship between career satisfaction and all of affective, normative, and continuance commitment was assessed by utilising Amos v22. Compared to other SEM software (e.g., LISREL), Amos is considered to be more sophisticated in nature (Byrne, 2001). In addition, it has a user-friendly interface, provides organised and quickly accessible outputs, is compatible with the SPSS package, and does not require
syntax, programming language, or Greek notations in order to work (Albright, 2006; Bacon & Bacon, 1997; Byrne, 2001; Gallagher, Ting, & Palmer, 2008; Narayanan, 2012). Other advantages of using Amos are that it provides a comprehensive number of recognised fit indices used in the current SEM literature, and that it is capable of both detecting a range of fit related problems and providing suggested remedies for them (Bacon & Bacon, 1997). Despite these advantages, it does have a few drawbacks when compared with other SEM software. For example, Amos cannot accurately estimate models with categorical data (Albright, 2006; Byrne, 2001), requires no missing values in the analysed data-set, and needs to satisfy normality assumptions (Gallagher et al., 2008).

Employing SEM requires the assumptions related to multivariate normality, sample size, and missing data to all be satisfied. Thus, multivariate outliers were assessed by Mahalanobis distance (Field, 2014; Hair et al., 2014) and calculated using linear regression, followed by Chi-square values calculation in SPSS v22. A potential multivariate outlier would be identified if a given data case is less than 0.001 (Hair et al., 2014). Multicollinearity, on the other hand, was assessed by variance inflation factor (VIF) through regression collinearity diagnostics in SPSS v22 (e.g., Rasdi, Ismail, & Garavan, 2011) and correlation. A VIF value less than 10 is considered a widely accepted threshold to indicate that multicollinearity does not constitute a concern in the research (Field, 2014; Hair et al., 2014), while a correlation value equal to or exceeding 0.90 may suggest multicollinearity (Field, 2014; Hair et al., 2014). To assess for multivariate normality, Hair et al. (2014, p. 69) suggest that in most cases “assessing and achieving univariate normality for all variables is sufficient”. With respect to sample size, a minimum sample size of 200 is recommended for estimating models with maximum likelihood (ML) in SEM (Hair et al., 2014). Lastly, the data set should have no missing values (Hair et al., 2014).

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was employed to assess the proposed measurement model in terms of the extent to which it fitted the data. CFA was employed using ML, the default method in Amos v22. ML provides a precise model estimate with the smallest variance (Ullman, 2006) along with valid and stable results (Hair et al., 2014), as well as maximising parameter estimates (Kline, 2015). In addition, ML provides a sound basis for estimation with a sample size of 200 (Hair et al., 2014). An estimated CFA model
was assessed by examining standardised factor loadings and modification indices. Hair et al. (2014) recommend removing items with standardised loadings less than 0.5, along with cross-loaded items and instances where high covariance between items’ error terms is highlighted by modification indices. In this study, estimated model fit was assessed using Chi-square.

However, Chi-square is sensitive to sample size and results are often significant with large sample sizes (Hair et al., 2014; Kline, 2015). Consequently, various other model fit indices were utilised to assess estimated model fit. For example, Hair et al. (2014) recommend, in addition to using Chi-square, an absolute fit index (such as standardised root mean square residual (SRMR)), an incremental fit index (such as the comparative fit index (CFI)), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) goodness-of-fit indicator. In light of this, Chi-square, CFI, SRMR, and RMSEA were all utilised to assess estimated model fit in CFA, as recommended by Hair et al. (2014).

After obtaining satisfactorily model fit, convergent and discriminant validity was assessed. Within this, convergent validity assesses the extent to which two measures of the same concept are correlated, while discriminant validity assesses the extent to which two conceptually similar concepts are distinct (Hair et al., 2014). In this regard, Hair et al. (p. 619) suggest standardised loading equal to or greater than 0.5, average variance extracted (AVE) equal or greater than 0.5, and both construct reliability (CR) and Cronbach’s alpha values between 0.6 and 0.7 to provide support for convergent validity. In addition, square roots of AVE greater than inter-construct correlations provides support to establish discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2014).

5.10 Summary
This chapter has discussed issues associated with the positivist research paradigm, and the research design and procedures more generally. Specifically, the chapter outlined the research design which aimed to examine social and behavioural phenomena from the basis of an objectivist understanding of the nature of the social and organisational world. From this, it described the quantitative nature of the research and the deductive
approach that formed the basis for this study before moving on to describe the sampling approaches and the measures used to address the research hypotheses. The importance and nature of the piloting process has been described and the ethical safeguards discussed. To conclude, the analytical strategy was explained and, in the next two chapters, the results of the analysis are presented.
Chapter 6: Data Examination and Preparation

6.1 Introduction

The empirical data collected as part of this study were gathered from Alpha Bank in Kuwait. This chapter describes the analytical procedures to assess the sample distribution, missing data, outliers, statistical assumptions and CMB. This chapter therefore explains the process of preparing the research data for analysis, and the drawing of findings, as will be discussed in the following chapter.

6.2 Demographic Profile

Table 6.1 summarises the demographic profile of the participants in this study, and comparison with the distribution of the research population (see Figures 5.1 and 5.2 in Chapter 5) indicates that the sample reflects the age and gender profile of Alpha Bank. However, some differences are apparent in relation to job role distribution (see Figure 5.2 and Table 6.1), with an under-representation of clerical grades being apparent in the sample (57%/42%). In addition, Table 6.1 shows that the survey responses do not generate sufficient cell sizes for all the demographic features (Hair et al., 2014). Consequently, and in line with prior studies (i.e., Domenico & Jones, 2007), it was necessary to group these factors to achieve sufficient cell size.

As a result of such concerns over cell size, and as illustrated in Table 6.1, the sample was grouped into two more equally represented sub-samples for age; those under 30 (n = 145) and those 30 years old and above (n = 129), to capture generational differences (as previously discussed in Sub-section 4.4.1). This grouping is consistent with the arguments established, where generational differences that may affect career satisfaction and organisational commitment are discussed.
Table 6.1 Participants’ demographic profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>Total n</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>Under 21</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>21–29</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>30–39</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>40–49</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>50–59</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job role</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>Clerical</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Supervisor</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Officer</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Assistant manager</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Senior manager</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>General manager</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>275</td>
<td>High school</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>Under one year</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>One year–less than 2</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Two years–less than 5</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>20</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Five years–less than 7</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>10</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Seven years–less than 10</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>More than 10 years</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>265</td>
<td>No promotion received</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>One promotion received</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Two promotions received</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Three promotions received</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>More than three promotions received</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With regards to tenure, the grouping categorises new employment (less than one year) (n = 46), short (one to five years) (n = 98), medium (five to 10 years) (n = 81), and long tenure (more than 10 years) (n = 46). Descriptive data also indicated that job role was represented by small number of participants at assistant manager (n = 9), as well as executive (n = 5) and general manager’s (n = 3) level. As a result, it was decided to group...
this into three categories: those at low clerical level \((n = 103)\), those at middle supervisory and officer level \((n = 92)\), and those at higher managerial level \((n = 48)\). Concerning education, Masters level, among the four categories, was represented by small number of participants \((n = 14)\). Accordingly, responses relating to education were grouped to two sub-samples: those having up to a secondary education \((n = 41)\) and those at higher education level \((n = 234)\). Lastly, since 26 participants received three promotions and nine participants received more than three promotions, it was decided to group the data to three sub-samples: those who had received no promotion \((n = 95)\), those who had received one promotion \((n = 82)\), and those who had received more than two promotions \((n = 88)\). The resulting groupings for demographic features are summarised in Table 6.2.

### Table 6.2 Grouped demographic features

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Coding</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td>274</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Under 30 years old</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30 years old and above</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tenure</strong></td>
<td>271</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Less than one year</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>One to five years</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Five to 10 years</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>More than 10 years</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Promotion</strong></td>
<td>265</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>No promotion</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>One promotion</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Two or more promotions</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job Role</strong></td>
<td>243</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Low clerical level</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Middle supervisory and officer level</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Higher managerial level</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education</strong></td>
<td>275</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Secondary education</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Higher education</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 6.3 Data Screening

This section explains the steps taken to identify missing values and normality assumption (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012), in addition to reverse-code negatively worded items. Specifically, Sub-section 6.3.1 considers the analysis of missing values; 6.3.2 covers item reverse-coding, applied using SPSS v22; 6.3.3 and 6.3.4 explore univariate and
multivariate normality respectively; and 6.3.5 investigates the extent to which CMB may be a factor which influenced the outcome of the analysis.

6.3.1 Missing Values

Initial data screening, missing value analysis, and outliers assessment was performed in line with prior studies (i.e., Joo, Yoon, & Jeung, 2012; Kong et al., 2015; Pratt, 2010). Initial data screening indicated that all data were entered correctly. Next, missing value analysis was performed using SPSS v22 to investigate missing values in the data set, as noted in previous research (i.e., Li, 2013; Morrison, 2008). The results of this step are reported in Table 6.3. Cole (2008) noted that missing data often result in the loss of statistical power and potential bias in the final results.

To check for such missing data, Hair et al. (2014) suggested calculating the percentage of missing values for each variable, of which less than 10% maybe considered acceptable. Table 6.3 shows that all missing values for career satisfaction – in addition to affective, normative, and continuance commitment – ranged between 0% and 1.8%, which is less than the 10% threshold proposed by Hair et al. (2014). To impute the missing data in this case, any type of imputation can be used, as suggested by Hair et al. (2014). Accordingly, median nearby-points method (Nartgun & Kursad, 2016) was used to impute all missing values through SPSS v22. This method produces values that are compatible with the Likert-Measure response format (without decimals). In addition, missing values in demographic features were replaced by 99 without imputation.

6.3.2 Item Reverse-coding

Affective commitment (items 2, 5, 6) and normative commitment (item 6) were worded negatively. Table 6.4 outlines the reverse-coding process which was applied by SPSS v22.
Table 6.3 Missing data analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Missing data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Count</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Career satisfaction (CSAT)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSAT1</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSAT2</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSAT3</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSAT4</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSAT5</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Affective commitment (AC)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AC1</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AC2</td>
<td>275</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AC3</td>
<td>275</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AC4</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AC5</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AC6</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Normative commitment (NC)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC1</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC2</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC3</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC4</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC5</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC6</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Continuance commitment (CC)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CC1</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CC2</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CC3</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CC4</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CC5</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CC6</td>
<td>275</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Demographic features</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job role</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationality</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>275</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>265</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.4 Reverse-coding process

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original scale</th>
<th>Reverse coded scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Strongly disagree</td>
<td>7 Strongly disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Disagree</td>
<td>6 Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Mildly disagree</td>
<td>5 Mildly disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Neutral</td>
<td>4 Neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Mildly agree</td>
<td>3 Mildly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Agree</td>
<td>2 Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Strongly agree</td>
<td>1 Strongly agree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.3.3 Univariate Normality

Since this research employed a covariance-based SEM, normality deviation in terms of skewness would not constitute a great concern (Byrne 2001). However, a deviation in terms of kurtosis may have a strong effect on either the variances or covariances of the data (DeCarlo, 1997). Table 6.5 shows that the skewness absolute value ranged between 0.26 and 1.05 and the kurtosis absolute value ranged between 0.43 and 1.22. This suggests that the data exhibited no normality issues.

Table 6.5 Univariate normality assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Career Satisfaction (n = 278)</td>
<td>CSAT1_1</td>
<td>-0.83</td>
<td>-0.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CSAT2_1</td>
<td>-0.57</td>
<td>-0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CSAT3_1</td>
<td>-0.26</td>
<td>-1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CSAT4_1</td>
<td>-1.05</td>
<td>0.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CSAT5_1</td>
<td>-0.80</td>
<td>-0.43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.3.4 Multivariate Normality

Since this research employed SEM, a multivariate approach was used to assess for outliers (Byrne 2001; Kline 2015). Mahalanobis distance is one of the common approaches to assess for multivariate outliers (Field, 2014; Hair et al., 2014). This is calculated by using linear regression, followed by a Chi-square values calculation in SPSS v22. A potential multivariate outlier is identified if a given case is less than 0.001 (Hair et al., 2014). Consequently, 14 cases were eliminated to reduce the sample to 264. This sample size exceeds the previously introduced (Sub-section 5.9.3) recommended minimum of 200 required to use SEM (Hair et al., 2014). Next, a VIF test was employed by utilising regression collinearity diagnostics in SPSS v22. A VIF value less than 10 is considered a widely acceptable threshold to indicate that multicollinearity does not represent a concern in the assessed data (Field, 2014; Hair et al., 2014). In Table 6.6, all VIF values ranged between 1.43 and 3.86, thus satisfying the suggested threshold.
Table 6.6 Multivariate normality assessment (n = 264)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Career Satisfaction (CSAT)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSAT1</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSAT2</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSAT3</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSAT4</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSAT5</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective Commitment (AC)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AC1</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AC2</td>
<td>2.19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AC3</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AC4</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AC5</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AC6</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normative Commitment (NC)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC1</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC2</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC3</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC4</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC5</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuance Commitment (CC)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CC1</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CC2</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CC3</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CC4</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CC5</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CC6</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition, Table 6.7 shows the mean, standard deviations, Pearson's inter-correlations, and reliability alpha for all the variables in this research. All correlation values were less than 0.90 suggesting no multicollinearity concern is present (Field, 2014; Hair et al., 2014). Thus, these variables can be considered to be independent. Table 6.7 also shows that age exhibited a weak negative correlation with career satisfaction at a significant level (-0.17), while there was a weak positive, but significant, correlation with continuance commitment (0.13). Tenure and gender were not related to any of the four constructs. In relation to promotion, it was positively correlated with career satisfaction (0.19) at significant level. Therefore, age and promotion will be included as controlling variables, as a result of the significant correlations with career satisfaction.

Table 6.7 Mean, standard deviations, Pearson's inter-correlations, and reliability alpha

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Career satisfaction</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>(0.87)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Affective commitment</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>0.40**</td>
<td>(0.83)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Normative commitment</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>0.45**</td>
<td>0.75**</td>
<td>(0.76)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Continuance commitment</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.37**</td>
<td>(0.73)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Age</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>-0.17**</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.13**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Gender</td>
<td>263</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Tenure</td>
<td>257</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>-0.12</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Promotion</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>0.19**</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed); **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); Alpha value is on table diagonal; n = difference due to missing values; M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation.
6.3.5 Common Method Bias

Since all data were collected through a single questionnaire and over the same period of time, it was necessary to assess the extent to which CMB may be a factor which influenced the outcome of the analysis. CMB indicates the extent to which a method's effect inflates correlations (Nimon & Astakhova, 2015). The literature suggests that there is no agreement about either the effect of CMB or how to control for it (Richardson et al., 2009). While the literature suggests that CMB may be a potential concern in empirical research, some scholars (e.g., Mackenzie & Podsakoff, 2012; Nimon & Astakhova, 2015) argue that it would be unrealistic, and indeed impossible, to aim to conduct research that is completely CMB free; rather, the goal should be reducing its likelihood. Moreover, Mackenzie and Podsakoff (2012) further indicate that the literature does not provide clear guidance about how to effectively control for it. However, some suggestions have been put forward, such as ensuring respondents’ anonymity and confidentiality; suggestions which were followed as part of the questionnaire design process.

In line with recent studies (e.g., A. Cohen & Liu, 2011; Joo & Lee, 2017; Martínez-León et al., 2018; Moon & Choi, 2017; Ngo, Foley, Ji, & Loi, 2013; O’Shea et al., 2014; Wickramasinghe & Jayaweera, 2010; Xu, Benbasat, & Cenfetelli, 2014), a Harman one-factor test was performed to assess for CMB in this research. Unrotated EFA with principal component analysis was conducted to determine whether a single component explained more than 50% of the variance, something which could suggest a concern for CMB (Eichhorn, 2014; Xu et al., 2014). Obtained results have shown that six components were extracted with Eigen values greater than one and the highest variance explained by a single component was 29.79% (see Table 6.8). This suggests that CMB may not be a concern as the variance explained is less than the suggested threshold of 50%.
Table 6.8 Total variance explained using principal component analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Initial Eigen values</th>
<th>Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>% of Variance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.85</td>
<td>29.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>12.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>9.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>5.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>4.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>4.44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.4 Summary

This chapter has outlined the data examination and preparation procedures. It started by exploring participants' demographic profiles before outlining the grouping process for these profiles. Then, it explained the data screening process which comprised the following steps. First, missing data was assessed and imputed. Second, item reverse-coding was performed. Third, univariate and multivariate normality were examined. Following this, mean, standard deviations, Pearson's inter-correlations, and reliability alpha were assessed for the variables. Lastly, CMB was examined. At the end of this process, the data was ready for analysis and thus, in the next chapter, the data analysis and findings are presented.
Chapter 7: Data Analysis and Findings

7.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the analysis processes undertaken to address formulated hypotheses (referred to as H1–H5) set out in Chapter 4. First, the relationship between career satisfaction and age was undertaken to address H1. Second, H2 was addressed by assessing the relationship between career satisfaction and gender. Third, the relationship between career satisfaction and tenure was examined to address H3. Fourth, an assessment of the relationship between career satisfaction and promotion was performed to address H4. Fifth, the relationship between career satisfaction and all of affective, normative, and continuance commitment was examined to address hypotheses H5a, b, and c.

7.2 Career Satisfaction and Demographic Features

In this section, the analytical procedures to address H1 to H4 are outlined and the results are considered. To assess the relationship between career satisfaction and demographic features, first, mean scores for the aspects of career satisfaction were calculated and ranked ordered. Next, a series of independent t-tests and one-way ANOVA tests were performed. Mean score ranked order was utilised to explore the importance assigned to the aspects of career satisfaction by participants in relation to age, gender, tenure, promotion, nationality, education, and job role. In doing so, a mean score ranked as 1 indicates highest importance, while a mean score ranked as 5 indicates least importance. It should be noted here that the Likert-scale used for career satisfaction in the questionnaire (see Appendix B) clearly states that 1 represents strongly disagree. Tables 7.1 to 7.10 present these results. As an example of the analytical approach Table 7.1 – which relates to age – shows that, for respondents aged below 30 years of age, 3.99 represents rank 1 and 3.44 represents rank 5.

For the assessment of age, gender, nationality, and education where data were grouped into two categories for analysis, an independent t-test was utilised to assess for
significant mean difference. In contrast, a one-way ANOVA test was employed to assess for significant mean difference of the aspects of career satisfaction in relation to tenure, promotion, and job role as these involved more than two respondent groupings. For this analytical procedure, a Cronbach alpha test was performed for career satisfaction and the obtained result of 0.87 exceeded Hair et al's. (2014, p. 88) suggested minimum threshold of 0.6 to 0.7. The results of these analytical processes are presented in the subsequent sections.

7.3 Career Satisfaction and Age

This section addresses **H1: Employees aged under 30 years report higher levels of career satisfaction than those aged over 30 years.** Table 7.1 presents the analytical results and shows the rank order of aspects related to career satisfaction, based on the mean scores for younger and older employees.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspects of CSAT</th>
<th>Younger below 30 years old (n=145)</th>
<th>Older 30 year and above (n=129)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New skills development</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career success*</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advancement</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>1.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career goals progress</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>1.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income*</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *t-test significant at p < 0.05; Career satisfaction was measured on a five-point Likert scale; M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; n < 278 due to missing values; CSAT = career satisfaction.

The rank order revealed a similar pattern for both younger and older employees in relation to the importance of all aspects of career satisfaction. For example, both ranked new skills development, career success, and advancement as being most important, while ranking career goals progress and income as least important. Further, both younger and older employees ranked new skills development as most important for them and ranked
income as least important for them. However, when considering all aspects together, younger employees had higher mean scores when compared to their older counterparts.

Independent t-test was performed to further investigate the mean difference between these two groups and results showed a significant mean difference associated with the aspect of 'income' between younger employees ($M = 3.44, SD = 1.33$) and older employees ($M = 2.88, SD = 1.40$) ([t (272) = 3.38, $p = 0.001 < 0.05$]) with insignificant results from the Levene's test for equality of variances [$F = 1.80, P = 0.18 > 0.05$]. This suggests that younger employees experience higher career satisfaction in relation to 'income' when compared to their older counterparts. In addition, the results highlighted a significant mean difference between younger ($M = 3.88, SD = 1.20$) and older employees ($M = 3.57, SD = 1.40$) in relation to the aspect of 'career success' ($t (272) = 1.97, p = 0.05$), suggesting that younger employees tend to experience higher career satisfaction in relation to the aspect of career success when compared to their older counterparts. However, the Levene's test for equality of variances was significant [$F = 6.65, P = 0.01 < 0.05$] and consequently, differences between the means cannot be supported statistically with confidence. In light of the analysis, the results suggest that there is a significant relationship between age and the aspect of 'income', but no significant relationship with the other four aspects of career satisfaction in the Kuwaiti banking sector.

### 7.4 Career Satisfaction and Gender

This section addresses the following research H2: **Men report higher levels of career satisfaction than women.** Table 7.2 shows the rank order of aspects related to career satisfaction, based on the mean scores for males and females.
Table 7.2 Rank order of aspects related to career satisfaction based on the mean scores for males and females.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspects of CSAT</th>
<th>Maces (n=116)</th>
<th>Females (n=161)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New skills development</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career success</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>1.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advancement</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>1.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career goals progress</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>1.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>1.36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Career satisfaction was measured on a five-point Likert scale; M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; n < 278 due to missing values; CSAT = career satisfaction.

The rank order revealed that males and females reported similar importance patterns in relation to the aspects of career satisfaction, except for the aspect of career success and advancement. The results indicate that male employees ranked new skills development, career success, and advancement as most important for them, while ranking career goals progress and income as least importance (as shown by their lower mean scores). A similar pattern, but with some minor variation, is evident in the rank order for female employees, revealing that they ranked new skills development, advancement, and career success as most important; while ranking career goals progress and income as least important. Of note is that the data for female employees show higher mean scores when compared to their male counterparts in all aspects of career satisfaction; although both male and female employees ranked new skills development as most important for them and ranked income as least important for them.

An independent t-test was performed to investigate difference between males and females in relation to the aspects of career satisfaction. The results revealed no significant mean difference between them in relation to all aspects of career satisfaction at 0.05 level as exhibited in Table 7.3. Therefore, it appears that gender has no significant relationship with any aspect of career satisfaction in the Kuwaiti banking sector.
### Table 7.3 Independent t-test results for career satisfaction and gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspects of CSAT</th>
<th>Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advancement</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career goals progress</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>0.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New skills development</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career success</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: F = F statistic; Sig. = significance (2-tailed); t = t statistic; df = degrees of freedom; CSAT = career satisfaction.

### 7.5 Career Satisfaction and Tenure

This section provides the analysis to address **H3: Employees with higher position tenure report lower levels of career satisfaction**. Table 7.4 presents the ranked order of aspects related to career satisfaction based on the mean scores for different tenure groups.

**Table 7.4 Rank order of aspects related to career satisfaction based on the mean scores for tenure**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspects of CSAT</th>
<th>Less than one year (n = 46)</th>
<th>One to five years (n = 98)</th>
<th>Five to 10 years (n = 81)</th>
<th>More than 10 years (n = 46)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New skills development</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career success</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income*</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advancement</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career goals progress</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *One-way ANOVA significant at p < 0.05; career satisfaction was measured on a five-point Likert scale; M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; n < 278 due to missing values; CSAT = career satisfaction.
Ranked order results for employees with less than one year’s tenure indicate that new skills development, career success, and income were most important, while advancement and career goals progress were least important. Employees with one to five years’ tenure ranked new skills development, advancement, and career success as most important to them, while ranking career goals progress and income as least important. Employees with five to 10 years’ tenure ranked new skills development, career success, and advancement as most important to them (as was the case for those with one to five years’ tenure) and also ranked career goals progress and income as least important. Employees with more than 10 years’ tenure ranked new skills development, career success, and career goals progress as most important, and advancement and income as least important.

When considering all aspects of career satisfaction together, employees with less than one year’s tenure reported higher mean scores, followed by rankings reported by the group with 10 years or more tenure. Across all four tenure groups, respondents ranked new skills development as most important to them. Of note is that as employees' position tenure increases, income becomes less important compared to other aspects of career satisfaction.

A one-way ANOVA test was conducted to investigate significant mean differences of the five aspects of career satisfaction and tenure, and results indicate a significant mean difference between tenure and the career satisfaction aspect of 'income' \(\left[ F(3, 267) = 7.47, \ p = 0.000 \ < .05 \right] \). Bonferroni’s post-hoc test further revealed a significant mean difference in relation to the 'income' aspect of career satisfaction between employees with a tenure of less than one year \( (M = 3.91, \ SD = 1.09) \), one to five years \( (M = 3.28, \ SD = 1.35) \), and more than 10 years \( (M = 2.80, \ SD = 1.45) \) at 0.05 level. This suggests that employees with 'shorter' tenure may experience higher career satisfaction in relation to 'income'. However, the Levene's test for equality of variances result was significant \( F(4.75), \ p = 0.003 \ < 0.05 \) for mean difference between tenure and the career satisfaction aspect of income, rendering this finding statistically unsupported. In light of the above analysis, the results suggest that tenure has no significant relationship on any aspect of career satisfaction in the Kuwaiti banking sector.
7.6 Career Satisfaction and Promotion

This section addresses **H4: Employees with a higher number of promotions report higher levels of career satisfaction.** Table 7.5 presents the rank order of aspects of career satisfaction based on the mean scores for the number of promotions received.

The results indicate that employees who received no promotion ranked new skills development, career success, and income aspects of career satisfaction as most important for them, while ranking advancement and career goals progress as least important. Employees who received one promotion ranked the aspects of new skills development, career success, and advancement as most important to them, and career goals progress and income as least important. However, employees who received two promotions or more ranked advancement, new skills development, and career success aspects as most important, while income and career goals progress were ranked as least important.

**Table 7.5 Rank order of aspects related to career satisfaction based on the mean scores for number of promotions received**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspects of CSAT</th>
<th>No promotion received (n=95)</th>
<th>One promotion received (n=82)</th>
<th>Two or more promotions received (n=88)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Rank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New skills development</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career success *</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advancement *</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career goals progress *</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *One-way ANOVA significant at p < 0.05; career satisfaction was measured on a five-point Likert scale; M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; n < 278 due to missing values; CSAT = career satisfaction.
Considering all aspects together, employees who received two promotions or more reported higher mean scores in comparison to the other two groups. Notably, employees who had not yet been promoted, along with those who had received one promotion, ranked new skills development as most important while employees who had received two promotions or more ranked advancement as most important. However, employees who had not yet been promoted ranked career goals progress as least important, while both those employees who had received one promotion, and those who had received two promotions and more, ranked income as least important to them.

A one-way ANOVA test was performed to assess for significant mean difference between the aspects of career satisfaction and promotion. The results revealed a significant mean difference between promotion and the career satisfaction aspects of 'advancement' \( F(2, 262) = 10.28, p = 0.00 < 0.05 \), 'career goals progress' \( F(2, 262) = 7.02, p = 0.001 < 0.05 \), and 'career success' \( F(2, 262) = 6.78, p = 0.001 < 0.05 \). However, the Levene's tests for equality of variances for the aspects of career success and advancement were significant at \( F(9.91), p = 0.000 < 0.05 \) and \( F(6.27), p = 0.002 < 0.05 \) respectively, but insignificant for career goals progress \( F(2.82), p = 0.062 > 0.05 \).

Upon further examination, Bonferroni’s post-hoc test highlighted a significant mean difference between the aspect of 'career goals progress' in relation to both; no promotion received \((M = 3.19, SD = 1.36)\) and two or more promotions received \((M = 3.89, SD = 1.19)\) at 0.05 level. This suggests that employees experience higher career satisfaction in relation to the aspect of 'career goals progress' when they receive more promotions. In light of the above analysis, the results suggest that, in the Kuwaiti banking sector, promotion has a significant relationship with the aspect of 'career goals progress' but not with the other four aspects of career satisfaction.

### 7.7 Career Satisfaction and Education

As indicated in Chapter 2, Sub-section 2.8.1, a feature of the Kuwaitisation context is the increased focus on education and qualifications, which may impact on career satisfaction. Therefore, analysis of rank ordered scores was undertaken in relation to the level of education and Table 7.6 shows the rank order.
Table 7.6 Rank order of aspects related to career satisfaction based on the mean scores for education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspects of CSAT</th>
<th>Secondary education (n = 41)</th>
<th>Higher education (n = 234)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New skills development</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career success</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>1.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advancement</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>1.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career goals progress</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>1.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>1.38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Career satisfaction was measured on a five-point Likert scale; M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; n < 278 due to missing values; CSAT = career satisfaction.

The ranked order in Table 7.6 reveals that there is no difference in the ranking between those with a higher education or up to a secondary education. Both groups ranked new skills development, career success, and advancement as most important for them, while ranking career goals progress and income as least important. Considering both groups together, employees with a secondary education reported higher mean scores, as compared to employees with a higher education. An independent t-test was performed to assess for significant mean difference between the aspects of career satisfaction and education. The results revealed no significant mean difference between education and all aspects of career satisfaction at 0.05 level, as shown in Table 7.7.

In light of the above analysis, the results, therefore suggest that, in the Kuwaiti banking sector, level of education has no significant relationship with the aspects of career satisfaction.

Table 7.7 Independent t-test results for career satisfaction and education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspects of CSAT</th>
<th>Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advancement</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>0.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career goals progress</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New skills development</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career success</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: F = F statistic; Sig. = significance (2-tailed); t = t statistic; df = degrees of freedom; CSAT = career satisfaction.
7.8 Career Satisfaction and Job Role

As noted in Chapter 2, Section 2.5, Kuwaiti culture is characterised as being high power-distance, where authority and power are highly valued and sought after. One manifestation of this is that employees strive to have higher ranking positions, something which may influence their level of career satisfaction. Therefore, analysis of rank ordered scores was undertaken in relation to job role. Table 7.8 shows the rank order of aspects related to career satisfaction, based on the mean scores for job role groups.

Table 7.8 Rank order of aspects related to career satisfaction based on the mean scores for job role

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspect</th>
<th>Lower clerical level (n=103)</th>
<th>Middle supervisory and officer level (n = 92)</th>
<th>Higher managerial level (n = 48)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Rank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New skills development</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career success*</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advancement*</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career goal progress*</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income*</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *One-way ANOVA significant at p < 0.05; Career satisfaction was measured on a 5-point Likert scale; M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; n < 278 due to missing values; CSAT = career satisfaction.

The results reveal that those employees on lower clerical level have ranked new skills development, career success, and advancement as most important, while ranking career goals progress and income as least important. Similarly, those at the middle supervisory and officer level have ranked new skills development, advancement, and career success as most important – only differing to those at clerical level in terms of the rank order of advancement and career success being swapped – and ranked career goals and income as least important. In contrast, those at higher managerial level ranked career success, advancement, and career goals progress as most important while ranking new skills development and income as least important. Considering all groups together, those at managerial level reported higher mean scores when compared to the other two groups. Notably, all groups ranked income as least important to them.
A one-way ANOVA test was performed to further investigate the mean difference between career satisfaction and job role. The results revealed a significant mean difference between job role and the career satisfaction aspects of 'advancement' \[ F(2, 240) = 3.24, p = 0.041 < 0.05 \], 'career goals progress' \[ F(2, 240) = 6.11, p = 0.003 < 0.05 \], 'income' \[ F(2, 240) = 3.13, p = 0.046 < 0.05 \], and 'career success' \[ F(2, 240) = 3.83, p = 0.023 < 0.05 \]. However, the Levene's test for equality of variances for both advancement and income was insignificant at \[ F(2.55), p = 0.081 > 0.05 \] and \[ F(2.35), p = 0.097 > 0.05 \] respectively; while being significant for career goals progress and career success at \[ F(6.25), p = 0.002 < 0.05 \] and \[ F(5.64), p = 0.004 < 0.05 \] respectively.

Upon further examination, Bonferroni's post-hoc test highlighted a significant mean difference between the aspect of 'advancement' in relation to those at lower clerical level \((M = 3.54, SD = 1.38)\) and those at higher managerial level \((M = 4.13, SD = 1.18)\) at 0.05 level. This suggests that employees experience higher career satisfaction in relation to the aspect of 'advancement' when they are at higher managerial level. Considering 'income', while one-way ANOVA test revealed a significant mean difference between job role and the aspect of income, Bonferroni’s post-hoc test did not however reveal any significant mean difference at pairs level. This may result from statistical error and, in this regard, statistical error is minimised when testing at ANOVA's global level. However, when conducting Bonferroni test at pair level, statistical error is increased because group sample sizes are accounted for. Thus, statistical error increases and subsequently, critical value deflates and impacts the \(p\)-value.

In light of the above analysis, the results suggest that, in the context of the Kuwaiti banking sector, job role has a significant relationship with the aspect of advancement, but not with the other four aspects of career satisfaction.

7.9 The Effect of Nationality (Arabs and non-Arabs)

As indicated in Sub-section 5.3.4, the respondents' profiles for this study included a small number \((n = 42)\) of non-Arab respondents. In line with the research aim and hypotheses, the majority of the analysis presented is based on the responses of the 'Arab'
group within the sample (n = 278). However, in this section a comparison is made between the mean scores for Arab and non-Arab respondents to identify the extent of any similarity or differences between them in relation to the aspects of career satisfaction. Accordingly, Table 7.9 shows the rank order of aspects related to career satisfaction based on the mean scores for Arabs and non-Arabs.

**Table 7.9 Rank order of aspects related to career satisfaction based on the mean scores for Arabs and non-Arabs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspects of CSAT</th>
<th>Arabs (n = 278)</th>
<th>Non-Arabs (n = 42)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New skills development</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career success</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>1.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advancement</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>1.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career goals progress</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>1.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>1.39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Career satisfaction was measured on a five-point Likert scale; M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; CSAT = career satisfaction.

The results revealed that career goals progress and income are ranked as least important for both groups but Arab employees ranked new skills development, career success, and advancement as most important for them and non-Arab respondents reported rankings of a slightly different order. An independent t-test was performed to assess for significant mean difference between the aspects of career satisfaction and Arab and non-Arabs and the results indicate no significant mean difference between both groups in relation to all aspects of career satisfaction at 0.05 level as shown in Table 7.10. This suggests a similar pattern of career satisfaction responses from both groups.

In light of the above analysis, the results, therefore, indicate no difference between the Arab and non-Arab groups in the Kuwaiti banking sector with regards to the aspects of career satisfaction.
As noted above, non-Arabs are represented by a small number (n = 42) of respondents in this study. As a result, different demographic groupings represent small sample groups and cell sizes that are inappropriate for a more detailed analysis. For example, out of the 42 non-Arab participants, only seven were under 30 years old, only four reported their highest qualification to be at secondary education level, only seven participants had tenure of less than one year, and only nine had received two promotions or more.

7.10 Career Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

This section addresses the following three research hypotheses:

**H5a:** Career satisfaction is positively related to affective commitment

**H5b:** Career satisfaction is positively related to normative commitment

**H5c:** Career satisfaction is positively related to continuance commitment

To address the research hypotheses pertaining to the relationship between career satisfaction and all of affective, normative, and continuance commitment, SEM was applied in two stages (Hair et al., 2014; Kline, 2015). First, the measurement model was estimated and assessed by using goodness of fit indices in CFA. Second, after obtaining a satisfactorily CFA model, the structural model was estimated for career satisfaction (independent variable) and affective, normative, and continuance commitment.
(dependent variables) simultaneously. In addition, age and promotion were included as controlling variables as a result of their significant correlation with career satisfaction.

### 7.10.1 Measurement Model

Several CFA iterations were estimated to assess the proposed measurement model and the extent to which it fitted the data. In this regard, in the initial estimated model, career satisfaction was represented by five items and organisational commitment was represented by 18 items. In particular, organisational commitment was represented by affective, normative, and continuance commitment, of which each was represented by six items (see Figure 7.1).

**Figure 7.1 Initial estimated model**
The resulting model fit indices of ($\chi^2 = 829.541$, df = 224, $p = 0.000$, CFI= 0.770, SRMR = 0.110, RMSEA = 0.100) highlighted that the estimated model did not fit the data satisfactorily. Steps were subsequently taken to improve the estimated model fit. First, standardised loadings of less than 0.5 were removed (Hair et al., 2014), consequently, three items were sequentially removed from the estimated model (McKenna et al., 2016). These items were continuance commitment item 6 (CC6) (0.31) and item 3 (CC3) (0.44), and normative commitment item 3 (NC3) (0.45). Figure 7.2 depicts standardised item loading after removing these three items. The resulting model fit indices of ($\chi^2 = 593.618$, df = 164, $p = 0.000$, CFI= 0.818, SRMR = 0.087, RMSEA = 0.100) highlighted that further improvement was needed.

Figure 7.2 Standardised item loading after removing CC3, CC6, and NC3

Note: AC2_1, AC5_1, AC6_1 and NC6_1 represent reverse-coded items.
Figure 7.2 also highlights a very strong correlation (0.99) between affective and normative commitment. Consequently, modification indices were examined to identify possible cross-loadings and covariance between error terms (Hair et al., 2014). On examination, the modification indices revealed that several items were cross-loading with high values: AC6_1 - NC6_1 (51.077), AC3_1 - NC4_1 (35.705), AC1 - NC1 (33.505), AC4_1 - NC (25.059) and AC (22.919), AC5_1 - NC4_1 (14.437), and NC2_1 - CC1 (10.189). Consequently, items NC6_1, AC3_1, AC1, AC4_1, NC4_1, and CC1 were sequentially removed from subsequently estimated models. As a result of these applied improvement steps, the reduced model yielded better model fit indices ($\chi^2 = 159.685$, $df = 71$, $p = 0.000$, CFI = 0.939, SRMR = 0.058, RMSEA = 0.069) which satisfy the threshold suggested by Hair et al. (2014) for the estimated model with more than 12, and less than 30 observed variables, with a sample size of more than 250 cases, as outlined in Table 7.11. In addition, the best fit model is depicted in Figure 7.3; and fit indices for the initial and best fit models are summarised in Table 7.12.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Criterion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>&gt; 0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRMR</td>
<td>≤ 0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>&lt; 0.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Estimated model</th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>$df$</th>
<th>$p$ value</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>SRMR</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Initial</td>
<td>829.541</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.770</td>
<td>0.110</td>
<td>0.100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CC6, CC3, NC3 removed</td>
<td>593.618</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.818</td>
<td>0.087</td>
<td>0.100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Best fit</td>
<td>159.685</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.939</td>
<td>0.058</td>
<td>0.069</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As a satisfactorily measurement model was obtained, convergent and discriminant validity were then assessed. The statistical tools package (Gaskin & Lim, 2016) was utilised to calculate the measures related to convergent and discriminant validity. Following Hair’s guidelines, Table 7.13, shows that all standardised loadings (SL) exceeded the 0.5 threshold. In relation to construct reliability the results show: affective commitment (0.829), normative commitment (0.706), career satisfaction (0.877), and continuance
commitment (0.667). In addition, Cronbach's alpha outcomes are affective commitment (0.828), career satisfaction (0.873), normative commitment (0.691), and continuance commitment (0.666). In this respect, Hair et al. (2014, p. 619) point out that a CR and alpha values between "0.6 and 0.7" are considered an acceptable minimum.

Figure 7.3 Best fit model
In addition, the average variance extracted (AVE) for affective commitment (0.617) and career satisfaction (0.592) exceeded the 0.5 threshold. The AVE values for normative commitment (0.447) and continuance commitment (0.401) fall short of the recommended 0.5 threshold (Hair et al., 2014). However, this need not be considered an area of concern: in addition to the adequate reliability and standardised factor loadings (Gefen & Straub, 2005), the discriminant validity, where the square root of the AVE for each factor was higher than 0.5 and greater than all inter-factor correlations is indicated.

### 7.10.2 Structural Model

After obtaining a satisfactorily CFA model, a structural model was estimated by using Maximum Likelihood (ML) to examine the relationship between career satisfaction (independent variable) and all of affective, normative, and continuance commitment (dependent variables). In addition, age and promotion were controlled for as a result of a significant correlation with career satisfaction. The fit indices for the initially estimated structural model ($\chi^2 = 239.939$, $df = 94$, $p = 0.000$, CFI = 0.899, SRMR = 0.090, RMSEA =...
0.077) suggested the need for improvement. Inspection of the modification indices indicates that the error terms for normative and affective commitment had a high value (32.33). Consequently, they were covaried as suggested by Kenny (2011) to account for their correlation and to reduce the chi-square. In this regard, previous literature has found that normative and affective commitment were highly correlated (e.g., Ko et al., 1997). As a result of this, fit indices ($\chi^2 = 193.747$, $df = 93$, $p = 0.000$, $CFI = 0.930$, $SRMR = 0.063$, $RMSEA = 0.064$) were substantially improved; and satisfy Hair’s suggested thresholds (Hair et al., 2014). Table 7.14 presents a summary of the structural model fit indices and Figure 7.4 presents the structural model.

Table 7.14 Structural model fit indices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Estimated model</th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>$df$</th>
<th>$p$ value</th>
<th>$CFI$</th>
<th>$SRMR$</th>
<th>$RMSEA$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Initial</td>
<td>239.939</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.899</td>
<td>0.090</td>
<td>0.077</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Best fit</td>
<td>193.747</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.930</td>
<td>0.063</td>
<td>0.064</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 7.4 Best fit structural model

In addition, Table 7.15 reports the SEM results of the estimated relationships in the structural model.
Table 7.15 SEM results for the estimated relationships in the structural model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relationship</th>
<th>Standardised loadings</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>C.R.</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AC-R &lt;--- CSAT</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>5.19</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AC-R &lt;--- Age</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AC-R &lt;--- Promotion</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>-1.00</td>
<td>0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC-R &lt;--- CSAT</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>6.35</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC-R &lt;--- Age</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>-0.84</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC-R &lt;--- Promotion</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>-0.24</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CC-R &lt;--- CSAT</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CC-R &lt;--- Age</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>-0.59</td>
<td>0.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CC-R &lt;--- Promotion</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>-1.00</td>
<td>0.32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: R = Reduced, AC = Affective commitment, NC = Normative commitment, CC = Continuance commitment, CSAT = career satisfaction, *** p < 0.001

Addressing **H5a:** Career satisfaction is positively related to affective commitment, the results suggest a significant positive relationship ($\beta = .38$, $p < 0.001$). In relation to **H5b:** Career satisfaction is positively related to normative commitment, they also suggest a significant positive relationship ($\beta = .53$, $p < 0.001$). As for **H5c:** Career satisfaction is positively related to continuance commitment, the results again suggest a significant positive relationship ($\beta = .23$, $p = 0.004$). The results also indicate that the control variables (age and promotion) were not significant at the 0.05 level in each case.

### 7.11 Summary

The findings show that in Kuwait, gender and tenure are not significantly related to any aspect of career satisfaction. Conversely, age is significantly related to income but not the other four aspects. Further, number of promotions is significantly related to career goals progress but not the other four aspects of career satisfaction. In relation to organisational commitment, the results suggest a positive relationship between career satisfaction and affective, normative, and continuance commitment. Interestingly, career satisfaction is most strongly related with normative commitment. These findings are discussed in the following chapter.
Chapter 8: Discussion

8.1 Introduction

Drawing on conceptualisations of career satisfaction (Greenhaus et al., 1990), organisational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997), and cross-cultural comparison theories (Hofstede et al., 2010; House et al., 2004; Inglehart, 2004; Trompenaars, 1993), and grounded in SCCT (Lent et al., 1994; Lent & Brown, 2006) which explains career outcomes in relation to personal (demographic features) and contextual factors, this research aimed to examining the relationship between demographic features, career satisfaction, and organisational commitment within the Kuwaiti banking sector.

This chapter discusses and interprets the results and findings and how they contribute to answering the research hypotheses addressed in this study, which were as follows:

H1: Employees aged under 30 years report higher levels of career satisfaction than those aged over 30 years.

H2: Men report higher levels of career satisfaction than women.

H3: Employees with higher position tenure report lower levels of career satisfaction.

H4: Employees with a higher number of promotions report higher levels of career satisfaction.

H5a: Career satisfaction is positively related to affective commitment.

H5b: Career satisfaction is positively related to normative commitment.

H5c: Career satisfaction is positively related to continuance commitment.
Prior studies have examined the construct of career satisfaction in different cultural contexts. However, to date, the geographical context of Kuwait has received limited attention. In addition, studies of career satisfaction have tended to examine the construct of career satisfaction as a whole rather than in relation to its different dimensions. Guided by SCCT, this study therefore contributes by examining the extent to which career satisfaction is related to demographic features of people in work situations, specifically age, gender, tenure, and promotion.

Further, although some studies have examined career satisfaction in relation to different constructs, including organisational commitment, most research focuses on affective commitment, while normative and continuance commitment have received less attention. This study therefore contributes by examining the relationship between career satisfaction and all of normative, continuance, and affective commitment, in the context of the Kuwait banking sector.

The results of this study suggest that, whilst age and promotion are related to career satisfaction in the context of the Kuwaiti banking sector, gender and tenure are not. In addition, career satisfaction has a positive relationship not only with affective, but also with normative, and continuance commitment. Consistent with SCCT, these results suggest that the relationship between career satisfaction and demographic features as well as the relationship with affective, normative, and continuance commitment, is explained by differences in social expectations and culturally contextual perceptions. Each of these issues are further discussed in the following sections.

First, this chapter discusses career satisfaction in relation to the demographic features of age, gender, tenure, and promotion. Next, it discusses the results related to career satisfaction in relation to affective, normative, and continuance commitment. Consistent with SCCT, this chapter considers these issues in the specific context of the Kuwaiti banking sector, and argues that the relationship between career satisfaction and demographic features, and levels of affective, normative, and continuance commitment are explained by personal (demographic features) as well as contextual factors.
8.1 Career Satisfaction and Demographic Features

This research has examined the relationship of career satisfaction and all of age, gender, tenure, and promotion. SCCT proposes that personal factors interact with contextual factors to influence career outcome expectations. In addition, SCCT suggests that personal (demographic features) and contextual factors affect career outcomes, and recent research literature has supported this view (Forstenlechner et al., 2014). As mentioned previously, there is no published research that has examined these relationships in the Kuwaiti cultural context and specifically with the Kuwaiti banking sector. Although the discussion in Chapter 3 suggests that gender may affect career satisfaction outcomes, the results from this study suggest that this is not the case. In addition, tenure is shown not to have a significant relationship with career satisfaction. However, age and promotion are shown to have an effect on career satisfaction. The following sub-sections will discuss these findings in more depth.

8.1.1 Career Satisfaction and Age

The findings of this research indicate that age has a significant effect on career satisfaction within the Kuwaiti banking sector. This finding can be compared with previous research (e.g., Grimland et al., 2012; Guan et al., 2014; Han, 2010; Jawahar & Stone, 2015; Jaiswal et al., 2016; Judge et al., 1995; P. Lee, 2003; Richardsen et al., 1997; Yap et al., 2010). Specifically, the data from this study suggest that younger employees experience higher career satisfaction in relation to the aspect of income when compared to their older counterparts. Taken as a whole, the existing research literature is inconclusive about the relationship between career satisfaction and age, and this study contributes a new dimension to the knowledge about this relationship. Further, most prior studies have utilised samples with predominantly older or younger participants, as compared to this research, and this study contributes findings that draw on a more inclusive sample where 53% of respondents are aged under 30 and 47% are aged over 30 years.
The finding that younger employees experience higher career satisfaction in relation to the aspect of income may be interpreted as reflecting a generational characteristic where income expectations can be easily satisfied in a new career context. In addition, younger employees appreciate having their own income which acts as a sign of independence, rather than relying on their families. Having their own income may provide them with sense of security and allow them to accommodate their own needs (K. McDonald & Hite, 2008). However, this finding may also be attributed to the cultural values and attitudes held by members of different age groups (Cogin, 2012; Wils et al., 2011; Yi et al., 2015) in the specific context of the Kuwaiti banking sector, where Kuwaitisation has led to employment and income opportunities that would not have been available to older generations.

A further explanation for younger employees experiencing higher career satisfaction may lie in changing attitudes, particularly in the Kuwaiti context. Although the concept of generation is disputed, younger and older employees can be understood to represent different generational cohorts that each share distinctive values and attitudes (Joshi et al., 2011; Parry & Urwin, 2011; Yi et al., 2015). As a result, it is possible that younger and older employees are motivated by different factors and seek to satisfy different career expectations. This interpretation aligns with research indicating different expectations, values, and motivational differences between different age related cohorts (Cogin, 2012; Kong et al. 2016). For example, younger employees are described as being 'future' oriented (Dries, Pepermans, & De Kerpel, 2008). In this regard, younger employees tend to seek higher salaries and economic returns (Chen & Choi, 2008; Smola & Sutton, 2002); place higher importance on status (Parry & Urwin, 2011); seek recognition (Foley & Lytle, 2015); and place a greater emphasis on a successful career (Broadbridge, Maxwell, & Ogden, 2007). Conversely, older employees are described as 'present' oriented (Dries, Pepermans, & De Kerpel, 2008). The literature suggests that they may aim for a balance between work and non-work interests. In addition, they may place more emphasis on finding meaning in their work (Foley & Lytle, 2015).

SCCT also suggests that societal culture may contribute to explanation of the nature of the relationship between career satisfaction and age (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 2000).
As indicated in Chapter 2, Kuwait can be described as high uncertainty-avoidance and power-distance culture (Hofstede et al., 2010) where salary is considered to be a mean of security although this must be acknowledged as something that can apply equally to older and younger workers (Abdulla, Djebarni, & Mellahi, 2011). However, in this regard Colakoglu and Caliguiri (2012) found that young MBA students in high power-distance cultures attach more importance to satisfying their career goals of attaining a higher hierarchical level as a result of being more concerned with money and prestige.

In the specific context of Kuwaitisation, a further explanation might be related to younger employees starting to exhibit new and divergent cultural values in comparison to the prevailing societal principles (Iles et al., 2012; Sabri, 2013). In this respect, Joshi et al. (2011) suggest that older generations tend to preserve tradition, while younger counterparts tend to challenge the status quo. As indicated in Chapter 2, Kuwait, is experiencing a change in employment practices as a result of modernisation, Westernisation and Kuwaitisation (Wils et al., 2011). This may result in a more individualistic orientation. In support of this, a study conducted by Whiteoak et al. (2006) reported that younger Arabs (under 30 years old) exhibited higher individualistic values than older Arabs (30 years old or over).

While several explanations were advanced above, the factors of societal culture and Kuwaitisation and are the most feasible explanation of the findings of this study. On one hand, within this culture, Kuwaitis seek to attain authority and power positions to reflect an image of social prestige. In addition, attaining such authority and power allows them to feel successful in their career and subsequently experience higher career satisfaction. On the other hand, Kuwaitisation aims to create employment opportunities for Kuwaitis and develop them to assume more senior positions in their organisation. Achieving this aim would make Kuwaitis feel secure about their career while being successful and satisfied about it.

To summarise, this sub-section discusses the higher career satisfaction levels of younger workers following on from their distinctive career values, and argues that younger and older employees have different career values and attitudes, and seek to satisfy different career expectations. SCCT suggests that societal culture plays an
important role but the discussion here also highlights how changes in their cultural values and a tendency towards more individualistic values arising from the specific context of Kuwaitisation may also explain this phenomenon.

8.1.2 Career Satisfaction and Gender

Although SCCT suggests that career satisfaction outcomes may be influenced by gender, the findings of this study indicate that gender has no significant effect on career satisfaction within the Kuwaiti banking sector. This finding is consistent with other published studies (e.g., Aryee & Chayt, 1994; Grimland et al., 2012; Hochwarter et al., 2004; Jawahar & Stone, 2015; Joo & Park, 2010; Kuchinke et al., 2008; Loi & Ngo, 2010; Martins et al., 2002; Ng et al., 2005; Poon, 2004; Ren et al., 2013; Wickramasinghe & Jayaweera, 2010). Although, in the cultural context of Kuwait, this finding was unexpected, it adds a new insight into the relationship between career satisfaction and gender in this context. Published studies (e.g., Greenhaus et al., 1990; Hirschi et al., 2016; Karatepe, 2012; Seibert & Kraimer, 2001; Yap et al., 2010) have drawn on data from predominantly male or female samples and this study included a more balanced distribution of respondents.

Although previous studies have indicated that career satisfaction is unlikely to be affected by gender, there is evidence that male and female employees tend to interpret career satisfaction differently (Hofmans et al., 2008; Spurk et al., 2011). For example, a study conducted by Hofmans et al. (2008) with a managerial sample in Belgium, reported that while males and females held similar importance for some aspects of career satisfaction, they differed in career goals progress aspects, for example, satisfaction with meeting overall career goals was more important for men than women. In their study, men had generally higher ratings for all aspects of career satisfaction compared to women. In another related study with German professionals, Spurk et al. (2011) reported that males and females held similar importance for most aspects of career satisfaction but differed in terms of the importance of income. However, the findings of the research for this study are different and the data suggest that gender makes no difference to Alpha Bank employees in relation to the aspects of career satisfaction.
In explaining these findings, it is possible that traditional gender stereotyping might result in women having a greater acceptance of gender inequality which may be consequential for their reported career satisfaction. In Kuwaiti culture, women are expected to have a greater level of acceptance of gender inequality. In line with these cultural norms, many women in Kuwait work in a protected environment, such as schools, government agencies, and among socially acceptable people (Afiouni, 2014; Metle, 2001).

The data from this study may be seen as indicative of findings that reflect an alternative employment context. In the banking sector of Kuwait employment is open to women, something that is also occurring in some other Arab countries. Given that females constitute a higher proportion of the Alpha Bank workforce, it is likely that the Kuwaiti banking sector provides opportunities for women to satisfy their career expectations, although cultural expectations relating to family responsibilities may moderate women’s career expectations and satisfaction levels in this context. Zopiatis, Theocharous, Constanti, Okumus, and Okumus' (2016) study also asserts that sectoral characteristics influence perceptions and expectations of financial rewards, career advancement opportunities, and job security, as well as their level of career satisfaction and future intention to remain working within a particular sector. In the banking sector, specifically, Mikawoz et al. (2009) suggests that females tend to be satisfied with their bank’s policies and procedures and this may explain the finding in this study, although not statistically significant, that female respondents reported slightly higher satisfaction with advancement and income than males (see Table 7.2). Although not statistically significant, the data may therefore suggest that female employees may experience career satisfaction in relation to advancement and income when compared to their male counterparts.

Social comparison theory (Ng et al., 2005) offers a further potential explanation of the lack of difference in career satisfaction in relation to gender (Cox & Nkomo, 1991; Mikawoz et al., 2009). This suggests that both male and female employees may assess their level of career expectations and satisfaction in relation to others of similar gender within the same organisation, or in general (Kirchmeyer, 1998; Ngo et al., 2014). Therefore female employees may have lower career expectations as a gender grouping.
and, consequently, may report satisfaction in spite of limited prospects with the career progression that they achieve in relation to factors such as income and advancement (Abele & Spurk, 2009; Grimland et al., 2012; Judge et al., 1995; Ng et al., 2005; Ngo et al., 2014; Schneer & Reitman, 1994). In supporting this argument, Tlaiss (2013) and Tlaiss and Kauser (2011) suggest that women’s overall satisfaction resulted from comparing their status to other women, rather than men.

To summarise, considering the suggested explanations, it seems that the characteristics of the banking sector are an important factor in explaining the findings of this study. Within the Kuwaiti banking sector, employees are recruited based on qualifications rather than gender and, as a policy, provides promotions and salary increases based on performance and merit, and includes men and women in managerial levels, career development, and succession planning. However, men and women may interpret career satisfaction differently as a result of distinct career needs and expectations. In a cultural context that encourages gender stereotyping, men and women may assess their career expectations and satisfaction differently. If women tend to have lower career expectations, their reported career satisfaction is likely to be affected by this in sectors where female employment is possible.

### 8.1.3 Career Satisfaction and Tenure

The findings of this study indicate that tenure does not make a significant difference to career satisfaction within the Kuwaiti banking sector; something which aligns with the some of the findings of prior studies (e.g., Joo & Park, 2010; Kuchinke et al. 2008; Lingard & Lin 2004; Ng et al., 2005; Richardsen et al., 1997). Taken as a whole, the existing research literature is inconclusive the relationship between tenure and career satisfaction and this study contributes new knowledge about this relationship. Most prior studies have utilised samples with predominantly longer or shorter tenures, and this study contributes findings that draw on a more inclusive sample where 17% of respondents had less than one year’s tenure, 36% had tenure between one and five years, 30% had tenure between five and 10 years, and 17% had more than 10 years’ tenure. In addition, It is noteworthy that many of these prior studies were conducted in Western cultural contexts.
where there are different cultural values, something that may be relevant to the finding of this research (Hofstede et al., 2010).

As indicated, Kuwait is a collectivist culture and favours uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede et al., 2010). Therefore, considering tenure, it is possible that employees’ perceptions of loyalty to their organisation as well as their need for security, may influence their reported levels of career satisfaction more than their success in achieving promotions. This argument has some credence in current literature. For example, Ineson and Berechet (2011) suggest that security of job tenure would act as a key feature of employee loyalty. In the study reported in this thesis, 67% of participants’ tenure ranged between two and more than 10 years which might suggest that employees have established their sense of loyalty to Alpha Bank, and this may influence their reported levels of career satisfaction.

The traditional career approach adopted by Alpha Bank may also have relevance for the findings of the study regarding career satisfaction and tenure, since employees’ careers occur in a stable environment with some predictable career growth (Arnold & Cohen, 2008; Enache, Sallan, Simo, & Fernandez, 2011; Hendry & Jenkins, 1997; Ituma et al. 2011; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009; Tlaiss, 2014; Valcour & Ladge, 2008). Levels of career satisfaction may, therefore, be explained by the relational psychological contract (Rousseau, 2004) whereby organisations provide opportunities for career security in exchange for employees’ loyalty (Ballout, 2007).

To summarise, this sub-section has argued that the lack of a significant relationship between tenure and career satisfaction may be explained by cultural values that emphasise loyalty to the organisation, and which value a long-term employment relationship. The traditional career approach adopted by Alpha Bank serves to encourage this career stability and security, thus providing the basis for an explanation of the results of this study.
8.1.4 Career Satisfaction and Promotion

The findings of this research indicate that promotion has a significant relationship with career satisfaction within the Kuwaiti banking sector. This finding aligns with previously published studies (e.g., Armstrong-Stassen & Cameron, 2005; Judge et al., 1995; Martins et al., 2002; Neureiter & Traut-Mattausch, 2016; Ng et al., 2005; Seibert & Kraimer, 2001; Yap et al., 2010).

Studies undertaken in Canada, (e.g., Yap et al., 2010; Armstrong-Stassen & Cameron, 2005) in a variety of sectors found that respondents who received at least one promotion exhibited higher career satisfaction than those who received no promotions. In addition, Martins et al.’s (2002) study within various industries in the U.S. has shown that the greater the number of promotion offers that employees receive, the higher their career satisfaction will be. In this study, the results revealed a significant mean difference between numbers of promotions received and career satisfaction aspects of advancement, career success, and career goals progress (although statistical significance was not achieved in the results related to career success and advancement). Post-hoc analysis, in addition, has shown that employees experience higher career satisfaction in relation to the aspect of career goals progress when they receive more promotions, something that aligns with the relationship between career goals and the achievement of promotion in the workplace.

As discussed previously, Alpha Bank adopts a traditional approach to career management and employees move between jobs in a relatively predictable sequence to achieve hierarchical advancement (Arnold & Cohen, 2008; Enache et al., 2011; Ituma et al. 2011; Park, 2010; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009; Tlaiss, 2014). This context may explain an expectation related to career satisfaction that promotions signal likely career progression (O’Shea et al., 2014). Therefore, in line with other literature in this area, the findings may be explained as following from the relationship between career satisfaction and expectations of career goals achievement (Joo & Ready, 2012).

Societal culture adds a further dimension to this explanation. As a high power-distance culture, Arab employees respect and aim for hierarchical status (Kats et al., 2010; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006), and promotions are related to power and status.
differentiation (Guan et al., 2014). Alpha Bank – which is bureaucratic and centralised in nature – provides the basis where this can occur. As a result, it is unsurprising that promotional achievement is valued by Arab employees, something which is reflected in their level of career satisfaction.

To summarise, this sub-section has argued that employees – in the context of this research – define their career satisfaction in term of promotions; both actual and anticipated. The traditional career approach that is a feature of Alpha Bank’s policies contributes toward employees’ career satisfaction in a context of a high power-distance culture where promotions are valued as a means to achieve higher status and power.

8.1.5 Summary of Career Satisfaction and Demographic Features

The findings of this study, undertaken in the Kuwaiti context, suggest that age and promotion impact upon employees’ career satisfaction, while gender and tenure do not. Notably, most previous career satisfaction research has taken place in a context where socio-cultural values and organisational realities are different from those of Kuwait; and these studies do not reflect the unique socio-cultural and organisational factors that may impact upon career satisfaction in Kuwait. In particular, this study indicates the complexity of the career dynamics in Kuwait which are experienced differently to those in Western regions of the world.

The findings from this study suggest that younger employees experience higher career satisfaction in relation to income, something that reflects differences in career expectations between younger and older employees. That is to say, the findings reflect the context of employees working in an uncertainty-avoidance and high power-distance culture where hierarchical rank and salary are highly valued as a means of security. In addition, the findings may suggest that younger employees may be exhibiting new and divergent cultural values in comparison to the prevailing societal ones, such that higher career goals and greater ambition are reflected in career satisfaction outcomes. In relation to gender, it is argued that the banking sector context for the research may
illuminating changes of career expectation between men and women that challenge prevailing cultural stereotyping and expectations in Kuwait.

Considering tenure, this sub-section has argued that perceptions of loyalty to the organisation and the need for security influence career satisfaction outcomes. In the context of the traditional career approach adopted by Alpha Bank, career stability and security based on relational psychological contract is valued on a general basis and this explains the lack of a significant differential relationship between tenure and career satisfaction. Lastly, in relation to promotion, it argued that positive career outcomes lead to higher career satisfaction, particularly in the context of a traditional career approach where hierarchical structures present ample opportunities to anticipate further progression. Therefore, attaining promotion both enhances career satisfaction and the likelihood of anticipating more promotions to satisfy higher established career goals. Further, it argued that this relationship is further reinforced in a high power-distance culture since promotions and hierarchical status are highly respected and valued.

8.2 Cultural Context and Career Satisfaction

A guiding assumption for this study, explained in Chapter 3, is that the cultural context in which this study’s research has been undertaken will affect issues such as career satisfaction. As indicated in Chapter 5, most respondents to the survey (which formed the basis for the research) identified themselves as having an 'Arab' nationality. However, a small number of responses were from non-Arabs and this presented the opportunity to examine this assumption. The results presented in Chapter 7 are interesting as they suggest there is no significant mean difference between Arab and non-Arabs in relation to the aspects of career satisfaction. Although this was unexpected, there are however some explanations that may shed light on the interpretation of this finding.

One explanation for this finding is related to organisational context influences which are also important in shaping employees' attitude and behaviour. As mentioned previously, Alpha Bank is a conservative bank, highly centralised, and driven by
established policies and procedures. In addition, all employees – Arabs and non-Arabs without exception – are governed by these policies and procedures and are expected to comply with them without deviation. Within this context, it may be the case that the attitudes and behaviours of the Arab and non-Arab employees converge as a result of them being experienced within the same organisational context.

A second possible explanation is related to non-Arabs aligning themselves to fit within the norms of Kuwaiti societal culture. Examining the frequencies of the non-Arabs indicated that 60% (n = 42) have more than five years tenure. This may suggest that they have operated within this culture for a considerable period of time, during which familiarity and potential integration with the assumptions of culture may have occurred.

However, although these explanations are reasonable, these findings indicate a need for further research into the effect of societal culture and expatriation on issues such as career satisfaction. This is further discussed in the following chapter.

8.3 The Concept of Career Satisfaction

As discussed in Chapter 3, Section 3.4, the dominance of Greenhaus et al.’s (1990) conceptualisation of career satisfaction has led to assumptions that this is a unitary construct. The discussion presented in Chapter 3 (Section 3.5) questions this assumption. Specifically, it is possible that, in common with the concept of job satisfaction, career satisfaction may be more appropriately understood as a multidimensional construct (e.g., Doty, 2017; Mahbub, 2014). This study has examined this issue, considering career satisfaction in relation to distinct intrinsic and extrinsic factors (Oliveira et al., 2016). As explained in the methodology chapter (Chapter 5), and taking into account the contextual factors such as societal culture and the traditional career approach, it is reasonable to examine whether employees differ in their experience of satisfaction in relation to these different career related factors (Dinham & Scott, 1998; Mahbub, 2014; Spurk et al., 2014).

As presented in Chapter 3, Sections 3.4 and 3.5, the results of the analysis indicate that the proposition that the five factors in Greenhaus et al.’s (1990) scale may be considered to be distinct is not fully supported. However, in this respect, the results
suggest that extrinsic features of career satisfaction (income) may be distinct from intrinsic features (career goals progress). For example, with regard to age, income emerged as an important factor. With regard to number of promotions, by contrast, intrinsic satisfaction (career goals progress) emerged as an important feature. Therefore, it is possible to suggest that career satisfaction should be considered as a two-dimensional construct based on extrinsic and intrinsic dimensions. This suggestion aligns with SCCT explanations of career outcomes and the effect of personal (demographic features) and contextual factors.

With regard to the assessment of multidimensionality, Polites et al. (2012) note that a multidimensional construct needs to exhibit the following characteristics. First, it should be theoretically based and defined. Second, the construct should be described in terms of latent, rather than directly observable, characteristics. Third, the relationship between the construct and its factors should be specified. These issues provide the basis for further research in this field, prompted by the results of this study.

8.4 Career Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

As indicated in Chapter 4, several studies have examined the relationship between career satisfaction and affective commitment. However, the relationship between career satisfaction and both normative and continuance commitment has received less research attention. The research reported in this thesis has highlighted the importance of normative and continuance commitment as features of the relationship between career satisfaction and organisational commitment – something that other studies have not identified. In addition, the findings have shown that career satisfaction is positively related to affective, normative, and continuance commitment. Further, the findings support the proposition that Kuwait culture influences normative and continuance commitment as components of the relationship with career satisfaction. Thus, consistent with SCCT, this section will argue that societal culture and the context of a traditional career approach have an important impact on the relationship between career satisfaction and all of affective, normative, and continuance commitment.
8.4.1 Career Satisfaction and Affective Commitment

Affective commitment describes employees who are emotionally attached to their organisation, accept and internalise its goals and values, and are willing to exert extra effort on its behalf. This study examines the extent to which individuals report attachment to the organisation, as well as satisfaction with anticipated or achieved career outcomes. Chin and Rasdi (2014) maintain that employees would exhibit affective commitment when they expect positive outcomes (e.g., career satisfaction). Also, employees who are satisfied with their career direction and advancement prospects would retain their organisational commitment (Igbaria, 1991; Lingard & Lin, 2004). Recent empirical studies (e.g., Conklin et al., 2013) demonstrated that affective commitment is positively related to anticipated career satisfaction and performance.

The results reported in this study confirm that affective commitment is positively related to career satisfaction within the Kuwaiti banking sector and that the control variables of age and promotion do not influence this relationship. Such findings are in line with prior studies (e.g., Aryee & Chayt, 1994; Grimland et al., 2012; Igbaria, 1991; Jaiswal et al., 2016; Joo & Park, 2010; Kuchinke et al., 2008; Lingard & Lin, 2004; Neureiter & Traut-Mattausch, 2016; Yap, et al., 2010). However, it contradicts the findings reported by Kang et al. (2015) which further highlighted the effect of time on accrued career satisfaction, with implications for levels of affective commitment. Meyer et al. (1993) assert that employees reciprocate with positive emotional reactions if their needs and expectations are satisfied by their organisation, something further supported by later studies (e.g., Ariani, 2012; Tjahjono et al., 2015).

Organisations adopting a traditional approach to career progression emphasise the importance of employees’ favourable performance, job security, and career advancement through promotions and salary increases (Tremblay, Dahan, & Gianecchini, 2014). This suggests that, where assumptions in the organisation are aligned to the traditional approach to career progression, higher levels of affective commitment would be associated with perceived support of career development and advancement (Bambacas, 2010; Miao et al., 2013; Moscoso Riveros & Shir-Tau Tsai, 2011; Grimland et al., 2012;
Hom et al., 2009; Igbaria, 1991; Lingard & Lin, 2004; Neureiter & Traut-Mattausch, 2016; Tremblay et al., 2014; Tsui, Pearce, Porter, & Tripoli, 1997; Weng et al., 2010).

In summary, the findings of this study support the conclusions of prior research of a positive relationship between career satisfaction and affective commitment, something that is further reinforced in the specific context of traditional approaches to career at an organisational level.

8.4.2 Career Satisfaction and Normative Commitment

Although the relationship found in this study between career satisfaction and affective commitment was anticipated, much less research attention has been paid to the relationship between career satisfaction and other forms of organisational commitment. A key contribution of this study arises from the results that indicate the important relationship between career satisfaction and normative commitment within the Kuwaiti banking sector and that the control variables of age and promotion do not influence this relationship. The results have shown that career satisfaction is positively related to normative commitment. However, since normative commitment has received little research attention (Bambacas, 2010), no prior research was available for comparison. Importantly, this study shows that, in the Kuwaiti banking sector, normative commitment is more strongly related with career satisfaction that affective and continuance commitment.

Normative commitment describes employees who commit to their organisation as a result of feeling an obligation and indebtedness. SCCT postulates that the development of positive career goals is influenced by an individual’s experiences, which result from the interaction between personal and contextual factors (such as societal culture) (Lent et al., 1994). Therefore, the argument advanced here is that these results can be explained, in part at least, by employees’ sense of loyalty, moral obligation, and indebtedness for the benefits received from their organisation that is associated with the cultural context of Kuwait. Cultural features of collectivism, as well as high power-distance and high uncertainty-avoidance (Bergman, 2006; Clugston et al., 2000; Felfe, Yan, & Six, 2008;
Hofstede et al., 2010; Meyer et al., 2012; Wasti & Onder, 2009) further explain this finding. Consequently, it is reasonable to conclude that normative commitment may be experienced differently in non-Western cultures (Fischer & Mansell, 2009; Meyer et al., 2012), where factors such as obligation exert less influence on employees’ attitudes and behaviours (Gausel et al., 2012; Wasti & Onder, 2009).

In summary, normative commitment arises from a sense of moral obligation and indebtedness; something influenced by the cultural features of collectivism. In addition, this section has argued that loyalty is fundamental and harmonious relationships are sought and protected. Further it argued that employees in a collectivist culture tend to be emotionally dependent on their organisation and place an emphasis on security and social affiliation. Therefore, the argument here is that Kuwaiti cultural context explains the relationship of normative commitment with career satisfaction.

8.4.3 Career Satisfaction and Continuance Commitment

Continuance commitment describes employees who commit to their organisation due to costs that would be incurred as a result of leaving it. Accordingly, those employees who perceive that their organisation helps them to achieve their desired career goals may be reluctant to leave as a result of high costs incurred in moving to a new organisation that may be less supportive (Chan et al., 2016; Igbaria, 1991; Weng et al., 2010).

This study has revealed the importance of continuance commitment as a feature of the relationship between career satisfaction and organisational commitment – something that has received less research attention thus far. In this study, continuance commitment was positively related to career satisfaction within the Kuwaiti banking sector and that the control variables of age and promotion do not influence this relationship. This finding contradicts the finding of no relationship reported by Neureiter and Traut-Mattausch (2016); something which may be explained by a possible perceived lack of alternative employment opportunities; as suggested by Vergauwe, Wille, Feys, De Fruyt, and Anseel (2015).
SCCT theorises that outcome expectations reflect an individual’s beliefs in relation to the consequences associated with engaging with certain actions (Lent et al., 1994). However, these consequences can be positive or negative in nature. In addition, SCCT assumes that people are likely to implement actions that provide them with desired outcomes and avoid actions that would yield undesired consequences. In this regard, it is feasible to argue that employees experiencing higher career satisfaction would exhibit higher continuance commitment as a result of a desire to avoid the potential risk of failure in new employment opportunities, as well as sacrificing the experienced security and attained career benefits in their current organisation. This is in line with Heller, Watson, and Hies' (2004) view that changes in people’s environment (i.e., their organisation) can positively or negatively affect their satisfaction.

The specific cultural context of Kuwait of uncertainty-avoidance provides a further explanation of these findings. In this culture, new situations are less tolerated and security is a fundamental factor for employees’ motivation (Hofstede et al., 2010; Hofstede, 2011). Employees within this culture try to avoid uncertainty by seeking higher career security and being more oriented toward risk avoidance (Andreassi, Lawter, Brockerhoff, & Rutigliano 2014; Hofstede et al., 2010; Ismail, 2016; Kats et al., 2010; Loi & Ngo, 2010; Moon & Choi, 2017). Therefore, employees in high uncertainty-avoidance cultures are more likely to exhibit higher continuous commitment to avoid the potential risk of failure in new employment opportunities and the loss of security and career satisfaction in their current organisation (Clarke, 2013). Within this context, Clugston et al.’s (2000) study has found that uncertainty avoidance was significantly related to continuance commitment.

In summary, the argument advanced here is that the finding of a relationship between employees’ career satisfaction and continuance commitment is explained by a cultural concern for career security, the avoidance of the potential risk of failure in new employment opportunities, and a disinclination to sacrifice experienced security and attained career benefits in the current organisation.
8.4.4 Summary of Career Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

This section has argued that societal culture and the traditional approach to career management have a key impact on the relationship between career satisfaction and all of affective, normative, and continuance commitment. This study confirms prior research findings that suggest a relationship between career satisfaction and affective commitment. Importantly, however, the findings of this research suggest that the traditional approach to career, as adopted by Alpha Bank and other similar organisations in the Kuwaiti context, reinforces expectations of career satisfaction and organisational commitment. Further, it demonstrates for the first time, a positive relationship between career satisfaction and normative commitment. The argument presented here, grounded in SCCT, is that this is explained by cultural attitudes concerning moral obligation, loyalty, and indebtedness for employment and career benefits received from the employing organisation. In addition, this section has discussed the finding of a positive relationship between career satisfaction and continuance commitment that is explained as an outcome of cultural preferences for career security and risk avoidance. These arguments are further discussed in the following concluding chapter.
Chapter 9: Conclusion

9.1 Introduction

This chapter brings together the arguments made throughout this thesis and discusses its research contributions regarding career satisfaction and organisational commitment. In addition, it provides suggestions for future research to further develop the knowledge base. Particularly, more research is needed into career satisfaction and organisational commitment, to build on the findings of this study and extend the range of contexts to provide a basis for comparison of career satisfaction and organisational commitment across different sectors and cultural contexts. Further research is also needed to evaluate the unitary conceptualisation of career satisfaction.

9.2 Research Rationale

The research undertaken as part of this study is grounded in SSCT (Lent et al., 1994; Lent & Brown, 2006), career theory (Baruch, 2006, 2015; Baruch & Bozionelos, 2010; Baruch et al., 2015; C. I. Lee et al., 2014; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009) and cross-cultural comparison theories (Hofstede et al., 2010; House et al., 2004; Trompenaars, 1993). It aims to contribute new insights and knowledge into the relationship between demographic features, career satisfaction, and organisational commitment within the Kuwaiti banking sector. The specific research questions (referred to as RQ) are:

**RQ1:** What difference do demographic features make to career satisfaction within the Kuwaiti banking sector?

**RQ2:** What is the relationship between career satisfaction and the different features of organisational commitment within the Kuwaiti banking sector?
Many studies of career satisfaction and organisational commitment have been undertaken as a feature of HRM research, however, most of these studies have been undertaken in a Western context. Therefore, this study extends the current knowledge base by addressing these issues in the specific sector context of the banking sector, and in the specific cultural context of Kuwait. Kuwait, as a research context, provides enriching insights into this topic since work experiences here are influenced by factors such as socio-cultural and Islamic values and the specific labour market conditions arising from Kuwaitisation; factors which are distinctively different to those in Western countries. Therefore, this study provides a new research avenue for cross-cultural comparisons.

Arising from the specific research context of this study, its findings offer further value in relation to the study of organisational commitment and career satisfaction. First, current literature has focused upon affective commitment in relation to career satisfaction, while less attention has been given to normative and continuance commitment. This study addresses this gap. Second, existing literature has examined career satisfaction in relation to different variables, of which age and gender have received most attention, while tenure and promotion have received less attention. Thus, a further gap addressed is by this study. Third, there is no prior empirical research which has considered career satisfaction in relation to these factors within the Kuwaiti banking sector – a new and under-researched context.

9.3 Summary of the Main Findings

First, with regard to the influences on career satisfaction, the results of this study indicate that age and promotion have an effect on some aspects of career satisfaction (income and career goals progress respectively), while gender and tenure do not. Kuwaiti culture is described as a male dominant, patriarchal culture with defined gender roles, characterised by collectivism, and high power-distance and uncertainty-avoidance. In this context, the findings in relation to the lack of effect of gender and tenure on career satisfaction are interesting and somewhat unexpected. As discussed in Chapter 3, it is possible that cultural expectations toward women’s careers are changing, and that both men and women are pursuing similar career goals and assigning the same importance to
them. However, more than half of sampled participants (58%) in this study were females working in the banking sector and it is therefore possible that this finding has limited generalisability, even in Kuwait, as it may be a particular feature of the Kuwaiti banking sector. Consequently, further research in other sectors is needed to examine this issue more closely. However, notwithstanding these caveats, this study can claim to contribute new knowledge in a field where there is a lack of consensus about the relationship between career satisfaction and the demographic features of age, gender, tenure, and promotion.

Second, with regard to the relationship between career satisfaction and organisational commitment, the results indicate that there is a positive relationship between career satisfaction and affective, normative and continuance commitment; although the relationship that appears to be the strongest is between career satisfaction and normative commitment. Consequently, this research contributes new insights about the relationship between career satisfaction and organisational commitment, specifically in relation to normative and continuous commitment; areas which have received less research attention thus far. Of interest are the findings which stem from the positive relationship between career satisfaction and both normative and continuance commitment, and normative commitment in particular.

These findings may also be explained by the cultural context of Kuwait where loyalty is fundamental and harmonious relationships are sought and protected to avoid shame feelings. The normative commitment findings of this study may therefore result from culturally encouraged moral obligations to an organisation that interact with perceptions of indebtedness for the benefits received in terms of career opportunities. Additionally, the cultural characteristic of uncertainty-avoidance may explain the relationship between career satisfaction and continuous commitment through a reluctance by employees to sacrifice career opportunities and face the risk of employment in a new organisation (Chan et al., 2016; Igbaria, 1991; Weng et al., 2010). Therefore, further research in other GCC countries would be valuable to further investigate these cultural issues in relation to career satisfaction and the different forms of organisational commitment.
9.4 Limitations of the Research and Future Research Agenda

Although this study makes a number of contributions to career theory, and to the career satisfaction and organisational commitment literature, some limitations are acknowledged. First, this study’s research relied on a purposive and convenience non-probability sampling strategy to gather the empirical data. As discussed in Chapter 5, data access restriction is one of the challenges for conducting research in the banking sector. Consequently, it was not feasible to utilise a probability sampling strategy. Nevertheless, a large sample size (n = 278) was achieved which represented a range of population characteristics (e.g., gender and job role). A further limitation is acknowledged in the sample characteristics, where the perspectives of both younger females and clerical graded workers were over-represented.

Another limitation relates to the generalisability of the findings. Most of the research participants were 'Arab' employees and this therefore limits generalisability to non-Arab cultural settings. Since the literature suggests that cultural values influence employees’ attitude and behaviours, future studies could benefit from drawing samples from non-Arab expatriate employees working in Kuwait; to examine and compare the responses of a broader base of respondents and to provide the opportunity for cross-cultural comparisons within one country.

The single-site location of the research is another limitation. This provided the opportunity for, and the advantage of, a wider perspective by including participants from a range of different business functions, with different seniority, job roles, and tenure levels, as well as representation from across employee age ranges and gender. However, it serves to limit the generalisability of the research findings. Future research should therefore utilise a wider sample of banking sector employees in order to confirm the generalisability of the findings in the banking sector. The literature suggests that organisational cultural values are likely to influence employee’s attitudes and behaviours (MacIntosh & Doherty, 2010), something that is also discussed in Section 7.9 (findings in relation to Arabs and Non-Arabs). Therefore, further research is needed in the Islamic banking sector as well as other areas of the financial services sector. As previously
established, this study drew its research sample from the Kuwaiti banking sector. Thus, the findings may not be generalisable to other sectors in Kuwait. Future research might also consider organisations in other sectors (e.g., the public sector) in order to assess the generalisability of the findings. Similarly, future research should consider replicating this study in non-profit organisations; providing the opportunity to compare the findings in different sectors to achieve a greater understanding of career satisfaction and organisational commitment in different settings.

A further limitation relates to utilising a single point in time research design which impedes the drawing of causal conclusions. Since careers unfold over time, it would be interesting to replicate the findings of this research using a longitudinal design to determine if the findings are supported and sustained. Similarly, qualitative research may be used to obtain a deeper understanding about the factors that may affect employees’ career satisfaction and organisational commitment. Examples of qualitative research which could contribute towards this include focus groups and in-depth interviews.

Making use of self-report questionnaires to gather the empirical data is another limitation. Although most research within management and behavioural studies is generated from single-source research, self-report questionnaires may be affected by CMB. Consequently, relevant steps were taken, as discussed in Chapter 6, to minimise possible bias in the research design and statistical analysis approach. In this regard, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff (2003) suggest that to minimise CMB, protecting respondents’ anonymity and confidentiality is essential. This suggestion was followed in the questionnaire design.

Finally, as a guiding assumption of this research is that societal culture is important for career approach, career satisfaction and organisational commitment, future research should consider broadening current understanding of the relationship between career satisfaction and all of age, gender, tenure, and promotion; in addition to affective, normative, and continuance commitment, by including cultural values as moderating variables (Fitzsimmons & Stamper, 2014; Kang et al., 2015). Further, as career satisfaction was not affected by gender and tenure, this warrants further investigation in other GCC countries with similar cultural values to further explore these relationships.
9.5 Research Contributions

This section outlines the findings’ connection to the wider area in which this study is grounded, and provides the contribution to identified gaps in current knowledge in the fields of this study. Moreover, it explains the new contributions to constructs, understanding, and issues within this research field.

This study is the first – in general and within the Kuwaiti banking sector – to examine the effect of age, gender, tenure, and promotion on the comprising aspects of career satisfaction. Prior studies have assumed career satisfaction to be a unitary construct and limited attention has been given to its component parts. This study has examined the relationship between the comprising aspects of career satisfaction in relation to age, gender, tenure, and promotion as well as career satisfaction and all of affective, normative, and continuance commitment simultaneously; something which has received less attention. Furthermore, compared to prior studies which analysed career satisfaction and organisational commitment by using restricted sample characteristics, the data access achieved for this study enabled a sample that was inclusive in relation to age, gender, tenure, job roles, and promotion. Moreover, while career satisfaction and organisational commitment studies have been conducted in various cultural, sectoral, and organisational contexts, this study is the first to utilise the Kuwaiti banking sector, a new and under-researched context. Thus, the findings of this study extend the research on career satisfaction and organisational commitment to Kuwait.

Vocational and organisational psychologists have long been interested in understanding how situational perceptions and individual differences influence career outcomes. Therefore, this study makes several contributions to the fields of SCCT, career satisfaction, and organisational commitment. The research undertaken as part of this study takes forward the empirical examination of career satisfaction (grounded in SCCT) to add new knowledge in relation to age, gender, tenure, and promotion. It also examines the role of these demographic features, in addition to affective, normative, and continuance commitment in relation to career satisfaction with Arab employees working within the Kuwaiti banking sector. To the author’s knowledge, this is the first study
grounded in SCCT within this context. Thus, the findings of this study contribute towards the advancement of this area of knowledge.

This research also contributes to the current understanding of career and organisational attitudes and behaviours within HRM in relation to the effects of age, gender, tenure, and promotion on career satisfaction; as well as the relationship between career satisfaction and all of affective, normative, and continuance commitment within the Kuwaiti banking sector.

Moreover, there is ongoing debate in the literature about the claimed demise of traditional career approaches. Career is influenced and shaped by cultural values (Di Cesare & Sadri, 2003; Ituma & Simpson, 2007; Ituma et al. 2011) but less is known about such influence in Kuwait. In line with prior literature (e.g., Dries et al., 2012; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009), findings from this study extend support to the relevance and applicability of a traditional career approach as a basis for understanding these issues within the Kuwaiti banking sector. Thus, this study provides new contributions to this debate by supporting the relevance and applicability of a traditional career approach in the Kuwaiti banking sector.

Lastly, the career satisfaction and organisational commitment conceptualisation and scales utilised in this research were developed and validated mainly within Western cultural contexts. Specifically, Meyer (1997, p. 218) suggested that organisational commitment models “have been developed and tested in Western countries. There is a need for more systematic research to determine whether these models apply elsewhere”. Therefore, this study provides a contribution by extending support for the conceptualisations and scales of organisational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997) and contributes to the literature base by examining career satisfaction as conceptualized by Greenhaus et al. (1990) for Arab employees working within the Kuwaiti banking sector.

The findings of this study fill several identified gaps in the literature on career satisfaction and organisational commitment. Existing literature was generated from research conducted in various cultural, sectoral, and organisational contexts. However, little is known about Kuwait, and specifically the Kuwaiti banking sector. As discussed above, employees’ careers are influenced and shaped by societal culture and Meyer et al.
(2012) have reported that there is support for a cultural effect on organisational commitment. This study contributes towards advancing knowledge in this field by examining these issues in the new and under-researched context of the Kuwaiti banking sector. As previously stated, to date, the majority of research has focused upon the relationship between career satisfaction and affective commitment, with less attention being given to normative and continuance commitment. This study addresses this gap and advances knowledge in this area by examining career satisfaction with affective, normative, and continuance commitment simultaneously. In addition, past studies have examined career satisfaction mostly in relation to age and gender while tenure and promotion have received less attention. Consequently, this study fills this gap by examining the effect of age, gender, tenure, and promotion on career satisfaction, in the new and under-researched cultural context of Kuwait.

Current career satisfaction literature has mostly examined career satisfaction as a whole rather than in relation to its comprising aspects. Examining career satisfaction in terms of its comprising aspects provides a deeper understanding of the factors that comprise employees’ career satisfaction. As demonstrated in this study, employees in Alpha Bank define their career satisfaction in terms of both extrinsic career rewards, such as income and as intrinsic career rewards such as career goals progress. Therefore, further research should consider developing a multi-dimensional scale for career satisfaction.

In addition, the emerging findings have shown that career satisfaction is positively related to affective, normative, and continuance commitment. These findings lend support to the influence of Kuwaiti cultural values on the perception and judgement of employees’ career satisfaction and organisational commitment. However, compared to affective and continuance commitment, the relationship between career satisfaction and normative commitment was the strongest, an aspect which has not previously been identified.

The findings which emerged from this study may be generalised to Alpha Bank. Although a purposive and convenience sampling approach was used, the sample provided a reasonable representation of Alpha Bank’s overall population in terms of gender and
job role. The work context in Kuwait is characterised by high levels of acceptance of organisational hierarchy and centralisation, where rank and status are important differentiators. Within this context, career improvement is understood to be a progressive achievement of promotion as the basis for power and status (Guan et al., 2014; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006); something that is achieved at the discretion of management (Kats et al., 2010; Kemp & Zhao, 2016).

As a collectivist culture, issues of face are likely to prevail over task and so career progression may be influenced by social connections (Forstenlechner & Baruch, 2013; Tlaiss, 2013). In addition, being an uncertainty-avoidance culture, it emphasises the importance of clarity, structure, and strict adherence to written rules which therefore present challenges for change readiness. In this context, job and career security is an important feature of work experience (Kemp & Zhao, 2016; Loi & Ngo, 2010) that may influence the relationship between career satisfaction and organisational commitment. Therefore, the findings of this study may be transferable to other conventional banks in Kuwait as a result of sharing similar work contexts and cultural values.

9.6 Conceptual Conclusions

This study makes five conceptual conclusions. First, it contributes to the conceptual understanding of career satisfaction. According to Greenhaus et al. (1990), it is conceptualised as arising from intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of their career, including income, advancement, career goals progress, new skills development, and career success. Within this context, the results of this study suggest that the extrinsic career element of income and the intrinsic career element of career goals progress, in relation to the number of promotions, are considered as more important aspects of career satisfaction by Arab employees in Alpha Bank. This can be understood in relation to Kuwait’s cultural values of high power-distance and uncertainty-avoidance, and the bureaucratic nature of the banking sector which adopts a traditional career approach.

Second, Greenhaus et al.’s (1990) conceptualisation of career satisfaction has often been considered as a unitary construct, and assessed using five distinct factors to
represent employees' satisfaction with both the intrinsic and extrinsic factors of career. This study provided the opportunity to evaluate whether career satisfaction might more appropriately be considered as a multi-dimensional construct. However, the findings of this study did not support this proposal. In this respect, the results suggest that extrinsic features of career satisfaction may be distinct from intrinsic features. Therefore, it is reasonable to propose that career satisfaction should be considered as a two-dimensional construct based on extrinsic and intrinsic dimensions. This suggestion aligns with the SCCT explanation of career outcomes and the effect of personal (demographic features) and contextual factors such as societal culture and traditional career approach.

Third, the research contributes to the conceptual understanding of organisational commitment. Although the literature acknowledges the importance of organisational commitment, its conceptualisation remains an issue of debate about whether it is most appropriately described as multidimensional, or whether it is more appropriately understood and measured as a unidimensional psychological/emotional construct (Ko et al., 1997; Meyer & Maltin, 2010; Meyer et al., 2012). The results of this study support an understanding of organisational commitment as a multidimensional construct, in line with the description of Meyer and Allen (1997). This is because the results have shown that employees working within the Kuwaiti banking sector exhibit all of affective, normative, and continuance commitment. In particular, the results suggest the influence of Kuwaiti cultural values of loyalty and risk avoidance in shaping employees' normative and continuance commitment, when considered in relation to career satisfaction.

Fourth, the research contributes to theories of societal culture. Assumptions about the stable nature of cultural values (Caprar et al., 2015) can be critiqued for failing to take account of change, but the results of this research offer an indication that, in spite of its collectivist features, younger workers may exhibit more individualistic values as a result of modernisation and Westernisation; a suggestion which has some support in extant literature (e.g., Wils et al., 2011).

Fifth, in relation to the ongoing debate about the demise of the traditional approach to career, the findings of this research lend support to the view that the traditional approach to career is still relevant and applicable. As such, it offers a more
effective explanation of the phenomenon within the Kuwaiti employment context when compared to the Western employment context where the contemporary approach to career is more applicable and relevant. This is because career, in cultural contexts such as that of Kuwait, are influenced by cultural values that are distinct from the prevalent values within the Western cultural context.

9.7 Implications

This section explains the theoretical and practical implications of the findings of this study. It begins by explaining the theoretical implication and follows with the practical implications. The findings of this study provide several theoretical implications. First, grounded in SCCT, the findings highlight the influential role of cultural context, in addition to demographic features, on career satisfaction. SCCT supplements current knowledge of career satisfaction and organisational commitment with a theoretical platform to better understand the influence of cultural and religious values, in addition to career management approaches and Kuwaitisation, on career satisfaction and organisational commitment.

The majority of previous studies have considered career satisfaction as an outcome (dependent) variable (Jawahar & Stone, 2015; Loi & Ngo, 2010). In addition, less research has examined career satisfaction as an antecedent of affective, normative, and continuance commitment simultaneously. Therefore, this study makes a significant theoretical contribution by examining all of these within the Kuwaiti banking sector. Although prior studies have reported that career satisfaction and affective commitment are related, it is an interesting theoretical finding that career satisfaction relates to normative and continuance commitment; while confirming the relationship with affective commitment. This study, in addition, has found that age and promotion affect career satisfaction, while gender and tenure do not. This provides new theoretical insights about career satisfaction in Kuwait, in relation to its cultural context. Lastly, this study provides useful research information about the Kuwaiti banking sector to researchers who are interested in conducting similar research in different cultural contexts.
In relation to HRM policies, and particularly HRM in Kuwait and other Middle East countries, the first practical implication stemming from this study is to acknowledge that although there is a cultural preference for standardised and bureaucratic procedures, employees are 'not' homogeneous in their career expectations. This study suggests that, in Kuwait, younger employees are more ambitious and career driven. Consequently, HRM policies in contexts such as Kuwait should acknowledge this difference in all their initiatives to enhance employees’ career satisfaction and organisational commitment. In addition, they need to support younger employees’ career needs and aspirations to maintain their career satisfaction levels as these are linked with organisational commitment. Therefore, organisations would benefit from establishing HRM policies for career planning and development (Guan et al., 2014; Karatepe, 2012), something which would require sufficient financial budgets.

In addition, HRM policies should provide the infrastructure for leadership development programmes to prepare younger employees for future advancement, and this might include encouraging line managers to provide ongoing feedback and a constructive performance appraisal approach for such employees (Kang et al., 2015). Additionally, HRM policies should motivate line managers to provide their younger employees with coaching, mentoring, tasks delegation, job rotation, on the job training, and continuous learning initiatives. These initiatives help employees to obtain new skills and/or upgrade their current skills to be up-to-date in their job/profession to achieve desired work outcomes (P. Lee, 2003).

In relation to older employees, the findings of this study suggest that they have different expectations compared to their younger counterparts. This may be because, as employees grow older, they place a greater emphasis on balancing their work and family requirements by attaching higher priority to their families (Martins et al., 2002). In this regard, prior studies (e.g., Martins et al., 2002; Richardsen et al., 1997) have reported that work-family conflict is negatively related to career satisfaction, particularly for older employees. Therefore, HRM policies might recognise this and (in the Kuwaiti context) provide older employees with supporting benefits such as flexible working hours, to
enable them to undertake their family responsibilities while continuing to satisfy their work requirements.

In addition, considering their accumulated experience and expertise, older employees are more likely to view their work as unchallenging and routine in nature. In doing so, they could think that their organisation has forsaken their careers (P. Lee, 2003). To mitigate this, it is essential that HRM policies recognise the need to provide older employees with challenging and non-routine tasks and assignments to enhance their career satisfaction (Armstrong-Stassen & Cameron, 2005; Armstrong-Stassen & Ursel, 2009; Richardsen et al., 1997). In this regard, HRM policies might provide older employees with job rotation opportunities (P. Lee, 2003) which will expose older employees to new challenges and provide them with new opportunities to utilise their expertise. It also provides them with sense of meaning and the confirmation that they are still valued by their organisation. HRM policies can also benefit from expanding the scope of authority of older employees. This will make them feel more important and appreciated by their organisation, particularly in a high power-distance culture such as Kuwait.

Further, as employees grow older, health issues may be of concern to them. Based on the researcher's working experience within the banking sector, working in this sector is stressful as a result of high workloads, customer interactions, and meeting regulatory requirements. These stress factors could negatively impact upon older employees' health. In this regard, prior studies have reported that health status is positively related to career satisfaction (Armstrong-Stassen & Cameron 2005). Consequently, HRM policies could provide scope for redesign of older employees' roles to be more flexible and provide opportunities for an improved work-life balance (Armstrong-Stassen & Cameron, 2005).

Another practical implication arises from the recognition of normative and continuance commitment within the Kuwaiti banking sector. Therefore, HRM policies should encourage this positive reciprocation by providing employees with career growth opportunities. This can be achieved by offering employees career counselling and guidance, in addition to establishing clear advancement policies and processes to make employees aware about their growth potentials. Further, employees would potentially exhibit higher continuance as a result of seeking secure and stable careers within their
organisations. Therefore, relevant HRM policies in contexts such as Kuwait, should be enacted to ensure that employees feel secure and pursue stable and predictable career growth. This may be achieved by providing them with clear salary structure and promotion criteria. HRM policies should also provide employees with a minimum number of training courses per year which could make them feel more secure about their performance as a result of being up-to-date with their skills status.

The results indicated a possible cultural attitude change towards women in the banking sector in Kuwait. In response to this, HRM policies should guide organisations to provide both men and women with equal opportunities to satisfy their career goals and expectations, and enhance their organisational commitment and career satisfaction levels. One way to support this intention is to have equal training and development opportunities, along with equal rewards (Aladwan et al., 2013). In parallel to this, HRM policies in cultures such as Kuwait, should guide line managers to assess both men and women’s performance based on merit solely (Tlaiss & Mendelson, 2014) rather than being influenced by cultural stereotyping and expectations. HRM policies could also provide equal gender training for both men and women to further strengthen an equal work environment.

Finally, organisations would benefit from using the questionnaire employed in the research undertaken as part of this study on a regular basis to assess how their employees’ perceptions may be changing in relation to career satisfaction, affective, normative, and continuance commitment. This information could then be used to inform career and organisation related policies in contexts such as the Kuwaiti banking sector.

9.8 Final Thoughts

The relationship between career satisfaction and organisational commitment is an important research area, to which this study has offered rich discussion and contributions to advance existing literature and knowledge in this field. However, more empirical research is necessary to continue advancing knowledge within this field. This study indicates the importance for banks in particular – and organisations in general – to take
greater account of their employees’ career satisfaction and organisational commitment; and particularly the implications of demographic features on career satisfaction. This study was conducted in one of the leading conventional banks in Kuwait – Alpha Bank. It is hoped that it contributes to the literature in this field as well as to enhancing professional and HR managers’ understanding about employees’ career satisfaction and organisational commitment within the Kuwaiti banking sector. Finally, it would also be considered a success if it motivates further research into career satisfaction and organisational commitment within various sectors.
References


193


226


Appendix A: Alpha Bank Questionnaire Distribution Email

Dear All,

Sub: Mr. Nizar Baidoun — PhD Student
   Study about employees’ career

Reference to subject matter, (Mr. Nizar Baidoun) is currently doing his PhD and his research study is about employees career.
And in supporting his research, Senior Management has approved his request to collect the required research data from staff by completing the attached questionnaire.

To help Nizar in his research, your support is requested by distributing the attached questionnaire to your staff, noting the following guidelines:

1. Attached questionnaire is in both languages: Arabic and English.
2. This questionnaire is confidential and will not require mentioning of staff name or any other personal information.
3. The questionnaire to be completed by all of your staff in your department, units, and branches (clerical, supervisors, officers, assistant managers, managers, senior managers, executive managers, AGM).
4. Expected time of completion is 10 minutes.
5. Ensure that all staff answer all questions.
6. Advise each staff to put the completed questionnaire in an envelope and seal it by themselves.
7. Send all envelopes through internal mail without mentioning from who.
8. Appreciate receiving all completed questionnaires by July 30, 2019.

The following are Mr. Nizar’s contact details, in case required.

Mobile – 99715710
Email – nizarbaidoun@gmail.com

Thank you and regards
Human Resources Department
## Appendix B: Main Study Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Questionnaire</th>
<th>استبيان بحث</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Study about employee’s career</td>
<td>دراسة حول المسار الوظيفي للموظف</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nizar Baidoun</td>
<td>نزار بيدون</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD Student</td>
<td>طالب دكتوراه</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Portsmouth (UK)</td>
<td>جامعة بورتسموث (المملكة المتحدة)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
First, allow me to thank you for your time to read this questionnaire. I am a PhD student and I wish to invite you to participate in a research study that I am working on through this questionnaire. I would like to point out that although your participation is voluntary your answers will certainly enrich this research. Throughout my PhD, I will study the relationship of demographic features on career satisfaction and organisational commitment, and you were chosen to be part of this study as you are an employee of your organisation. The goal of this questionnaire revolves around gathering participants’ answers in order to reach a deeper understanding of the issues related to their career. It is important to mention that this questionnaire is confidential and will not require you mentioning your name or any other personal information. In case you agree to participate, kindly fill the attached questionnaire, then put it in an envelope, without mentioning your name on it and send it directly to me through the internal mail. All the gathered questionnaires will be put in a locked cabinet until I am done with working on my study. After that, the questionnaires will be completely destroyed. So, agreeing to participate in this questionnaire will result in no harm at all on your side. You are free to withdraw at any time from participating, before the data analysis stage. It is worth mentioning that filling this questionnaire takes around 10 minutes. For more information about the research or to discuss your concerns, don't hesitate to send me or the supervisor an e-mail on the e-mail addresses mentioned below.

أطمغنا في بداية أن نشكركم على وقفة أُدْعَمُونَكُم في فتح هذا الاستبيان. أما طالب دكتوراه أو زعيم في دعوكم للمشاركة في دراسة بحثية أُدْعَمُونَكُم من خلال مساعدة هذا الاستبيان. أود أن أشير إلى أنه بالرغم من أن مشاركتكم إختيارية إلا أن إجاباتكم ستُهْمَل من أن تستلزم هذه الدراسة من خلال أطر فني، ساهمت بدراسة أثر العوامل النموذجية على الثقة المؤسسية والنجاح في المشاريع العملي. وقد تم اختياركم لتكونوا جزءًا من هذه الدراسة، لأنكم مصطفى في مؤسستكم. نتذكر أن إجاباتكم من هذا الاستبيان سوف تكون ملموسة في كليهما المعني بالكتابة المهنية. هذا الاستبيان سري ونستلزم منكم أن تذكروا أسماءكم أو أي تفاصيل شخصية عنكم. في حال وافقتم على المشاركة، أرجو منكم مساعدة الاستبيان المرفق، ووضعوه في محفظتكم وإرسالته من دون ذكر اسمك إلى مسرح التحكم. سوف تكون الاستبيانات التي سيتم جمعها في خزانة مغلقة حتى أن تأتي من العمل على الاستبيان. وحينها، سيصادر إلى الفاصل التلقائي. في حال وافقتم على مساعدتي في مله هذا الاستبيان، فليس هناك من داع للفتق مطلقاً. لن يثبي في أطراف مع صفة مله الاستمارة، كما أن مساعدة الاستمارة في الإسحاب خلال رحلة مرحلة من مرحلة تجهيز مله الاستمارة، التي تسبق مرحلة جمع البيانات. نحن الإشارة إلى أن استكمال هذا الاستبيان يستغرق عشر دقائق. لمسيرة النزول حول نتائج البحث أو منافسة مخافة، يمكنكم أن ترسلوا لي أو للدكتوراة المشتركة على البحث رسالة كترونية على العنوان المذكور أدناه.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Researcher</th>
<th>Supervisor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nizar Baldoun</td>
<td>Dr Valerie Anderson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD student</td>
<td>Reader in Human Resource Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Portsmouth (UK)</td>
<td>University of Portsmouth (UK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><a href="mailto:up669589@myport.ac.uk">up669589@myport.ac.uk</a></td>
<td><a href="mailto:valerie.anderson@port.ac.uk">valerie.anderson@port.ac.uk</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mobile # 99715210

Note: By returning the completed questionnaire, you are agreeing to participate in this study.

This study aims at studying the relationship of demographic features on career satisfaction and organisational commitment. I would be grateful if you answer all the questions mentioned in the attached questionnaire as determined in each section.

تهذب هذه الدراسة إلى دراسة أثر العوامل الذاتية على الانزلاق المؤسسيي والأداء في الابراز الوظيفي. سيكون ممننا لكم لو تفضلتم بالإجابة على كافة الأسئلة الواردة في الاستبيان المرفق، يخص ما هو محدد في كل فصل.
### Section 1 - Demographic questions

Please tick the appropriate boxes.

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<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
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<th>40 - less than 50</th>
<th>50 - less than 60</th>
<th>60 - less than 70</th>
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<tr>
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<th>Officer</th>
<th>Assistant Manager</th>
<th>Manager</th>
<th>Senior Manager</th>
<th>Executive Manager</th>
<th>Assistant General Manager</th>
<th>General Manager</th>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenure (in years) for current job</th>
<th>Less than 1</th>
<th>1 - less than 2</th>
<th>2 - less than 5</th>
<th>5 - less than 7</th>
<th>7 - less than 10</th>
<th>More than 10</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>PERFORMANCE (بالسنوات)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>لتوظيف الحالية</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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How many promotion’s related pay raises have you had in the last three years?

<table>
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<th>How many promotion’s related pay raises have you had in the last three years?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>أكثر من 3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

عدد الترقيات المرتبطة بزيادة في الراتب التي تلقىها خلال السنوات الثلاث افتئة؟

242
Section 2 - Level of agreement questions

In this section, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the statements that follow on an individual basis. There are no correct or wrong answers, so we appreciate you answering honestly.

في هذا القسم الراجح أن تشيروا إلى أي مدى توافقون أو لا توافقون على كل من الإجابات التي تلقى على أساس شخصي من إجابات صحيحة وإجابات غير صحيحة. إذا، نذكر لكم الإجابة بكل صدق.

Concerning the organization in which you currently work, and for all the following statements, kindly refer to what extent you agree on the expression by putting a circle around the number that represents your agreement level. Number 1 is strongly disagree and 7 is strongly agree.

في ما يتعلق بالمؤسسة التي تعملون فيها حالياً، وفقاً من البيانات التالية، الراجح تحديد إلى أي مدى توافقون على الإجابة من خلال وضع دائرة حول الرقم الذي يمثل مستوى موافتفكم. الرقم 1 هو عدم موافتككم بشدة والرقم 7 هو موافتككم بشدة.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Mildly disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Mildly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>لا يوافق بشدة</td>
<td>لا يوافق</td>
<td>لا يوافق بشدة جزئي</td>
<td>محايد</td>
<td>موافق بشدة جزئي</td>
<td>موافق</td>
<td>موافق بشدة جزئي</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- My organization deserves my loyalty.
  تستحق المنظمة التي أعمل بها ولاني.
  1  2  3  4  5  6  7

- My organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
  المنظمة التي أعمل بها أهمية كبيرة لي على المستوى الشخصي.
  1  2  3  4  5  6  7

- I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.
  لن أترك المنظمة التي أعمل بها في الوقت الحاضر لشعوري بالالتزام بالعاملين فيها.
  1  2  3  4  5  6  7
Concerning the organization in which you currently work, and for all the following statements, kindly refer to the extent or degree you agree on the expression by putting a circle around the number that represents your agreement level. Number 1 is strongly disagree and 7 is strongly agree.

في ما يتعلق بالمؤسسة التي تعملون فيها حالياً، ولكن من البيانات التالية، الرجاء تحديد إلى أي مدى توافقون على الإجابة من خلال وضع دائرة حول الرقم الذي يمثل مستوى موافقتك. الرقم 1 هو عدم موافقتك، بينما الرقم 7 هو موافقتك بشدة.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Mildly disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Mildly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>لا أوافق بشدة</td>
<td>لا أوافق</td>
<td>لا أوافق بشكل جزئي</td>
<td>محايد</td>
<td>أوافق بشكل جزئي</td>
<td>أوافق</td>
<td>أوافق بشدة</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
   من الصعب جدا علي أن أترك المنظمة التي أعمل بها الآن، حتى ولو أردت ذلك.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. One of the major reasons I continue to work for my organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice; another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.
   من أهم الأسباب التي تدفعني للاستمرار في المنظمة التي أعمل بها هي أن تركها سيستلزم مني القيام بضحيه شخصية كبيرة
   حيث لا تقدم لي مؤسسة أخرى المزايا التي أحظى بها هنا.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. One of the few negative consequences of leaving my organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
   من النتائج السلبية القليلة التي قد تنتج عن ترك المنظمة التي أعمل بها هو فقرة الخيارات المتاحة المتاحة.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
   في الوقت الحالي، بقائي في المنظمة التي أعمل بها يعتبر ضروريا فيما هي رغبة في القيام بذلك.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Concerning the organization in which you currently work, and for all the following statements, kindly refer to the extend you agree on the expression by putting a circle around the number that represents your agreement level. Number 1 is strongly disagree and 7 is strongly agree.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Mildly disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Mildly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization right now.
2. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.
3. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.
4. I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving my organization.
5. I owe a great deal to my organization.
6. I really feel as if my organization’s problems are my own.
7. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in my organization.
Concerning the organization in which you currently work, and for all the following statements, kindly refer to the extend you agree on the expression by putting a circle around the number that represents your agreement level. Number 1 is strongly disagree and 7 is strongly agree.

في ما يتعلق بالمؤسسة التي تработ فيها، وكبُل من البيانات التالية، الرجاء تحديد إلى أي مدى توافقون على الإجابة من خلال وضع دائرة حول الرقم الذي يمثل مستوى موافقتك الرقم 1 هو عدم موافقتك بشدة والرقم 7 هو موافقتك بشدة.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Mildly disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Mildly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>لا موافق</td>
<td>موافق جزئي</td>
<td>موافق</td>
<td>موافق جزئي</td>
<td>موافق</td>
<td>موافق بشدة</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.

I do not feel "emotionally attached" to my organization.

I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.

I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.

In the remaining questions, the agreements measure is different. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the statements that follow on an individual basis. There are no correct or wrong answers, so we appreciate you answering honestly.

في القسم المتبقي من أسئلة الاستبيان، تختلف درجة الموافقة. الرجاء أن تشيروا إلى أي مدى توافقون أو لا توافقون على كل من الإجابات التي تأتي على أساس شخصي من إجابات صحيحة وإجابات غير صحيحة. لذا، نقترح لكم الإجابة بكل صدق.
Concerning the organization in which you currently work, and for all the following statements, kindly refer to the extent you agree on the expression by putting a circle around the number that represents your agreement level. Number 1 is strongly disagree and 5 is strongly agree.

في ما يتعلق بالمؤسسة التي تعملون فيها حالياً، وكلما كانت النتائج التالية، الرجاء تحديد إلى أي مدى توافقون على الإجابة من خلال وضع دائرة حول الرقم الذي يمثل مستوى موافقتكم. الرقم 1 هو لعدم موافقتكم بشدة، والرقم 5 هو لموادفقتكم بشدة.

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<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
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<td>لا أوافق بعض الشيء</td>
<td>لست وأنا لا أوافق بعض الشيء</td>
<td>أوافق بعض الشيء</td>
<td>أوافق بشدة</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement
   أنا راضٍ عن التقدم الذي حصلته في تحقيق أهدافي للترقى الوظيفي.
   1  2  3  4  5

2. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals
   أنا راضٍ عن التقدم الذي حصلته في تحقيق أهدافي في مسارى الوظيفي.
   1  2  3  4  5

3. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for income
   أنا راضٍ عن التقدم الذي حصلته في تحقيق أهدافي المرتبة بدني المادي.
   1  2  3  4  5

4. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for developing new skills
   أنا راضٍ عن التقدم الذي حصلته في تطوير أهدافي المهني.
   1  2  3  4  5

5. I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career
   أنا راضٍ عن النجاح الذي حصلته في مسارى الوظيفي المهني.
   1  2  3  4  5

Thank you for your contribution in completing this questionnaire

شكرًا لمساهمتكم في ملء هذا الاستبيان.
Appendix C: Sample Size Table

<table>
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<td>40000</td>
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<td>950</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>50000</td>
<td>381</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>75000</td>
<td>382</td>
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<tr>
<td>210</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>1100</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>100000</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note—N is population size.
S is sample size.

https://doi.org/10.1177/001316447003000308
Appendix D: Ethical Review Approval

Ethics Review application ref. E278 [Nizar Baidoun]

Sharman Rogers <sharman.rogers@port.ac.uk> 03/04/2014

to nizar.baidoun, Valerie

Dear Nizar

I have received the following comments from Ethics Committee:

Providing that translated surveys are handled with the same attention to confidentiality and anonymity as the originals, and you are careful to ensure no reputational risks to the organisation, the application is approved.

Best wishes

Sharman Rogers

Business Services & Research Office
Portsmouth Business School
Richmond Building, Portland Street
Portsmouth, Hampshire PO1 3DE UK
T: +44 (0)23 9284 4202
Appendix E: Alpha Bank Approval Letter

To: Alpha Bank
Attention: Head of HRD

Subject: PhD Questionnaire

To start with, I would like to sincerely thank you for your support and encouragement that you have extended to me in our meeting yesterday. As you know, I am pursuing my PhD, and I have reached the stage where I need to collect my research data. My research is quantitative in nature; and aim to examine the relationship of demographic features on career satisfaction and organisational commitment.

The intended questionnaire is academic in nature, as you have seen yesterday; and all used questions are taken from published research solely. Pls note that it is voluntarily to participate, and I do not need participant's name or any other details about them. All reasonable steps will be taken to ensure participant's confidentiality and anonymity. Staff wishing to participate are requested to complete the questionnaire, insert it in an envelope, and seal it anonymously. The said questionnaire is expected to take around ten minutes to complete.

Thus, I seek your support to collect the needed data from staff.

Thank you in advance.

Nizar Baidoun
99715210
## Appendix F: Pilot Study Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Questionnaire</th>
<th>استبيان بحث</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Study about employee’s career</td>
<td>دراسة حول المسار الوظيفي للموظف</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nizar Baidoun</td>
<td>نزار بيدون</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD Student</td>
<td>طالب دكتوراه</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Portsmouth (UK)</td>
<td>جامعة بورتسموث (الملكة المتحدة)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
First, allow me to thank you for your time to read this questionnaire. I am a PhD student and I wish to invite you to participate in a research study that I am working on through this questionnaire. I would like to point out that although your participation is voluntary, but your answers will certainly enrich this research. Throughout my PhD, I will study the relationship of demographic features on career satisfaction and organisational commitment, and you were chosen to be part of this study as you are an employee of your organization. The goal of this questionnaire revolves around gathering participants’ answers in order to reach a deeper understanding of the issues related to their career. It is important to mention that this questionnaire is confidential and will not require you mentioning your names or any other personal information. In case you agree to participate, kindly fill the attached questionnaire, then put it in an envelope, without mentioning your name on it and send it directly to me through the interior mail. All the gathered questionnaires will be put in a locked closet until I am done with working on my study. After that, the questionnaires will be completely destroyed. So, agreeing to participate in this questionnaire will result in no harm at all on your side. You are free to withdraw at any time from participating, before data analysis stage. It is worth mentioning that filling this questionnaire takes between 15 and 20 minutes. For more information about the research results or to discuss your concerns, don’t hesitate to send me or the supervisor an e-mail on the e-mail addresses mentioned below.

يُذكِّرُكُمُ أنَّ الْبَحْثَ إِلَى اسْتِثْنَاءٍ مَّرْفِقٍ بالذِّكْرِ بِهَا هذا الابْتِسَامِ. أَنَّ طَفْلَ دُكْتُورَةَ وَأَضْعَفَ شُرِّكِي الْمَنْسَقْهُ فِي دَرَاسَةِ بَحْثِهَا قَبْلَهُ مِنْ خَلَالُ هذَا الابْتِسَامِ. أَوْ أَنَّ أَنْ يَسْتَدِلَّ إِلَى اسْتِثْنَاءٍ مَّرْفِقٍ لِكنَّا نَحْذِرُكُمُ. نَحْذِرُكُمُ إِلَى اسْتِثْنَاءٍ مَّرْفِقٍ مَّرْفِقٍ بالذِّكْرِ بِهَا هذا الابْتِسَامِ. أَوْ أَنَّ أَنْ يَسْتَدِلَّ إِلَى اسْتِثْنَاءٍ مَّرْفِقٍ لِكنَّا نَحْذِرُكُمُ. نَحْذِرُكُمُ إِلَى اسْتِثْنَاءٍ مَّرْفِقٍ مَّرْفِقٍ بالذِّكْرِ بِهَا هذا الابْتِسَامِ. أَوْ أَنَّ أَنْ يَسْتَدِلَّ إِلَى اسْتِثْنَاءٍ مَّرْفِقٍ لِكنَّا نَحْذِرُكُمُ. نَحْذِرُكُمُ إِلَى اسْتِثْنَاءٍ مَّرْفِقٍ مَّرْفِقٍ بالذِّكْرِ بِهَا هذا الابْتِسَامِ. أَوْ أَنَّ أَنْ يَسْتَدِلَّ إِلَى اسْتِثْنَاءٍ مَّرْفِقٍ لِكنَّا نَحْذِرُكُمُ. نَحْذِرُكُمُ إِلَى اسْتِثْنَاءٍ مَّرْفِقٍ مَّرْفِقٍ بالذِّكْرِ بِهَا هذا الابْتِسَامِ. أَوْ أَنَّ أَنْ يَسْتَدِلَّ إِلَى اسْتِثْنَاءٍ مَّرْفِقٍ L

السَّمَّاءُ لِبَلَدُنَا لُكْ.مَّرْفِقٍ مَّرْفِقٍ بالذِّكْرِ بِهَا هذا الابْتِسَامِ. أَوْ أَنَّ أَنْ يَسْتَدِلَّ إِلَى اسْتِثْنَاءٍ مَّرْفِقٍ لِكنَّا نَحْذِرُكُمُ. نَحْذِرُكُمُ إِلَى اسْتِثْنَاءٍ مَّرْفِقٍ مَّرْفِقٍ بالذِّكْرِ بِهَا هذا الابْتِسَامِ. أَوْ أَنَّ أَنْ يَسْتَدِلَّ إِلَى اسْتِثْنَاءٍ مَّرْفِقٍ L

السَّمَّاءُ لِبَلَدُنَا L

252
Note: By returning the completed questionnaire, you are agreeing to participate in this study.

Instruction: This study aims at studying the relationship of demographic features on career satisfaction and organisational commitment. I would be grateful if you answer all the questions mentioned in the attached questionnaire as determined in each section.

Note: إن إيادكم للإسثبات بعد مئة نقل على موافقكم على المشاركة في هذه الدراسة.

تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى دراسة أثر العوامل المذكورة في الالتزام المؤسساتي و النجاح في المسار الوظيفي. سلوك مماثل كتم الاضافات بالإجابة على كافة الأسئلة البارزة في الاستبيان المرفق، بحسب ما هو محدد في كل قسم.
# Section 1 - Demographic questions

Please tick the appropriate boxes.

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<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>Non-Arab</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<th>21 - less than 30</th>
<th>30 - less than 40</th>
<th>40 - less than 50</th>
<th>50 - less than 60</th>
<th>60 - less than 70</th>
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<td>Bachelor</td>
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<td>PhD</td>
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<th>Manager</th>
<th>Senior Manager</th>
<th>Executive Manager</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>Manager</td>
<td>Senior Manager</td>
<td>Executive Manager</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenure (In years for current job)</th>
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<th>1 - less than 2</th>
<th>2 - less than 5</th>
<th>5 - less than 7</th>
<th>7 - less than 10</th>
<th>More than 10</th>
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</thead>
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<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>More than 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

How many promotion-related pay raise have you had in the last three years?

عدد الترقيات المرتبطة بزيادة في الراتب التي تلقاها خلال السنوات الثلاث الماضية؟

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Section 2 - Level of agreement questions

في هذا الفصل، يطلب منكم إجابة أسباب الإشرافة إلى مستوى الموافقًا أو عدم الموافقًا على كل من الجوانب التالية. لذا، ننظر إجابات صحيحة وإجابات خاطئة، لذا، فكروك الإجابة بكل صدق.

In the section, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the statements that follow on an individual basis. There are no correct or wrong answers, so we appreciate you answering honestly.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Mildly disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Mildly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>لا موافق</td>
<td>موافق بشكل جزئي</td>
<td>موافق</td>
<td>موافق بشكل جزئي</td>
<td>موافق</td>
<td>موافق بشدة</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

My organization deserves my loyalty.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

My organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
Concerning the organization in which you currently work in, and for all the following statements, kindly refer to which degree you agree on the expression by putting a circle around the number that represents your agreement level. Number 1 is strongly disagree and 7 as strongly agree.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Mildly disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Mildly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>لا أوافق</td>
<td>لا أوافق بشكل جزئي</td>
<td>محدد</td>
<td>أوافق بشكل جزئي</td>
<td>أوافق</td>
<td>أوافق بشدة</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
من الصعب جداً علي أن أترك المنظمة التي أعمل بها الآن، حتى ولو أردت ذلك.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

One of the major reasons I continue to work for my organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice; another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.
من أهم الأسباب التي تدفعني للاستمرار في المنظمة التي أعمل بها هي أن تركها سيستلزم مني القيام بضيّحة شخصية كبيرة، حيث لا تكون من مؤسسة أخرى المزايا التي أحظى بها هنا.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

One of the few negative consequences of leaving my organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
من النتائج السلبية القليلة التي قد تنتج عن ترك المنظمة التي أعمل بها هو قلة الخيارات الوظيفية المتاحة.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
في الوقت الحالي، بقائي في المنظمة التي أعمل بها يعتبر ضرورة يقتضيها واجب وميزة في القيم بذاك.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
Concerning the organization in which you currently work in, and for all the following statements, kindly refer to which degree you agree on the expression by putting a circle around the number that represents your agreement level. Number 1 is strongly disagree and 7 as strongly agree.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Mildly disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Mildly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization right now.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving my organization.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I owe a great deal to my organization.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I really feel as if my organization's problems are my own.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in my organization.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Concerning the organization in which you currently work in, and for all the following statements, kindly refer to which degree you agree on the expression by putting a circle around the number that represents your agreement level. Number 1 is strongly disagree and 7 strongly agree.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Mildly disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Mildly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>لا أوافق بشدة</td>
<td>لا أوافق</td>
<td>لا أوافق بشان جنمي</td>
<td>محاد</td>
<td>أوافق بشان جنمي</td>
<td>أوافق</td>
<td>أوافق بشدة</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.

سأشعر بالذنب إن تركت عمل بالمنظمة التي أعمل بها

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I do not feel "emotionally attached" to my organization.

لا أشعر بأنني "مرتبط عاطفيا" بالمنظمة التي أعمل بها

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.

ليس لدي شعور قوي بالانتماء للمنظمة التي أعمل بها

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.

لا أشعر بأنه يجب علي البقاء في المنظمة التي أعمل بها.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

In the remaining questions you are asked to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the statements that follow on an individual basis. There are no correct or wrong answers, so we appreciate you answering honestly.
Concerning the organization in which you currently work in, and for all the following statements, kindly refer to which degree you agree on the expression by putting a circle around the number that represents your agreement level. Number 1 is strongly disagree and 7 strongly agree.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<td>لا أوافق بشدة</td>
<td>لا أوافق</td>
<td>أوافق بشدة</td>
<td>أوافق بشدة</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement.

أنا راض عن التقدم الذي أحرزته في تحقيق أهدافي للترقى الوظيفي.

1 2 3 4 5

I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals.

أنا راض عن التقدم الذي أحرزته في تحقيق جمع أهدافي في مسارى الوظيفي.

1 2 3 4 5

I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for income.

أنا راض عن التقدم الذي أحرزته في تحقيق أهدافي المرتبطة بدخلي المادي.

1 2 3 4 5

I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for developing new skills.

أنا راض عن التقدم الذي أحرزته في تحقيق أهدافي المرتبطة بتطوير مهارات جديدة.

1 2 3 4 5

I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career.

أنا راض عن النجاح الذي أحرزته في مسارى الوظيفي المهني.

1 2 3 4 5

Thank you for your contribution in completing this questionnaire.

أشكر مساعديكم في ملء هذا الإستبيان.
# Appendix G: Research ethical review checklist (UPR16)

## FORM UPR16

**Research Ethics Review Checklist**

*Please include this completed form as an appendix to your thesis (see the Postgraduate Research Student Handbook for more information)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Postgraduate Research Student (PGRS) Information</th>
<th>Student ID: 669589</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>PGRS Name:</strong></td>
<td><strong>Nizar Baidoun</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Department:</strong></td>
<td>Organisational studies and human resource management group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>First Supervisor:</strong></td>
<td>Dr Valerie Anderson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Start Date:</strong></td>
<td>2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Study Mode and Route:</strong></td>
<td>Part-time ☒, MPhil ☐, MD ☐, PhD ☐, Full-time ☐, Professional Doctorate ☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Title of Thesis:</strong></td>
<td>The Relationship between Demographic Features, Career Satisfaction, and Organisational Commitment: Evidence from the Kuwaiti Banking Sector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Thesis Word Count:</strong></td>
<td>58,848</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If you are unsure about any of the following, please contact the local representative on your Faculty Ethics Committee for advice. Please note that it is your responsibility to follow the University's Ethics Policy and any relevant University, academic or professional guidelines in the conduct of your study. Although the Ethics Committee may have given your study a favourable opinion, the final responsibility for the ethical conduct of this work lies with the researcher(s).

## UKRIO Finished Research Checklist:

*If you would like to know more about the checklist, please see your Faculty or Departmental Ethics Committee rep or see the online version of the full checklist at: [http://www.ukrio.org/what-we-do/code-of-practice-for-research/](http://www.ukrio.org/what-we-do/code-of-practice-for-research/)*

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>a)</strong> Have all of your research and findings been reported accurately, honestly and within a reasonable time frame?</td>
<td>YES ☒</td>
<td>NO ☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>b)</strong> Have all contributions to knowledge been acknowledged?</td>
<td>YES ☒</td>
<td>NO ☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>c)</strong> Have you complied with all agreements relating to intellectual property, publication and authorship?</td>
<td>YES ☒</td>
<td>NO ☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Has your research data been retained in a secure and accessible form and will it remain so for the required duration?</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Does your research comply with all legal, ethical, and contractual requirements?</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Candidate Statement:**

I have considered the ethical dimensions of the above-named research project, and have successfully obtained the necessary ethical approval(s)

**Ethical review number(s) from Faculty Ethics Committee (or from NRES/SCREC):**

E278

If you have not submitted your work for ethical review, and/or you have answered ‘No’ to one or more of questions a) to e), please explain below why this is so:

Signed (PGRS):

Date: October 25th, 2018