The Preferences and Job Satisfaction Among Saudi Employees: A Guide for Human Resources Managers

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Abstract: - Purpose –Employees’ willingness to continue working for their firm may be related to their length of service. This is of particular concern in Saudi Arabia where Vision 2030’s objectives include the Saudization (hiring of Saudi Nationals on a quota basis) of the private sector and where women are just beginning to enter the labor market in great numbers despite traditionally having a particularly low labor market participation rate. The research question of this study is: “Who is more satisfied and what are the preferences for long and short-term employees in Saudi Arabia?”.

Key-Words: - Job Satisfaction- Employee Retention, Employ Training, Women Employment, Saudi Arabia

1 Introduction
In 2019, a high proportion of employees in Saudi Arabia’s national workforce, 76%, were non-Saudi citizens. Of the 24% who were Saudi citizens, solely 8% were women (4.6% in the private sector according to the General Authority for Statistics, [1]. Saudization of the workforce, the hiring of Saudi Nationals on a quota basis (also known as Nitaqat), has long been an aim of the Saudi government, and over the decades, significant resources have been deployed in attracting Saudi citizens, mainly women, into private employment, [2]. Vision 2030, a strategic framework for economic and social reform which will open Saudi Arabia up to the world implemented regulatory reforms which were successful in lifting the economic participation rate for Saudi women to 23%. Of the unemployed Saudi women, 66% held bachelor’s degrees, and 23% had finished high school, [1]. Whilst there were significant barriers to employers of Saudi Arabian women due in part to the need to provide for strict gender segregation and substantial skilled pay differences between nationalities, Nitaqat quotas, and restraints on the employment of foreign workers have resulted in minor successes in the dual labor market comprised of both foreigners and citizens, [2]. There is a considerable body of research on Saudi women’s recruitment and retention in the private sector, but more needs to be understood about the demographics and preferences involved to fully engage female employees with their firms’ values. Therefore, this study aims to determine the job satisfaction of employees in Saudi Arabia in general and particularly in relation to the female employees of the country. (there is no hint of preferences for a job in the introduction and the abstract findings do not say about females).

2 Literature Review

2.1 Workplaces
This section begins by considering Saudi Arabia’s arguably unique segmentation of its workforce, and its strategies in diversifying its economy away from hydrocarbons and towards more employee-oriented industries such as tourism and leisure. There are also significant economic costs in outflows of expatriates’ remuneration, which in many cases are destined for South Asian countries. Labor force structures explain the duality of purpose in employing staff, the conditions and profile of employment, and the type of terminations under the Labor law, [3].

2.2 Labor Force Structure
In Saudi Arabia, as elsewhere, the Labor Law structures the workforce. The Law stipulates employers must be licensed to employ both Saudi nationals and non-Saudi workers, and the foreign private sector employees are subject to work and residency permits, collectively termed iqama,
valid for one year and renewable if all conditions are met, [4]. The non-Saudi workers, as of 2019, include 3.2 million domestic household staff whose vulnerable employment conditions and safeguards were recently strengthened through additional regulations, [5]. This paper’s employment focus is therefore Saudization, that is, recruiting and retaining nationals in the private sector.

Whilst reputable global employers value all staff and seek to attract and retain ‘talent’, Saudi’s labor law policies pre-2011 were very conservative and Saudization was directed solely towards male graduates, rather than tackling the gulf between the genders that exist in workforce participation and unemployment rates. Saudi women found little benefit in Saudization or the rigors of the private sector and relied on their family connections (wasta) to gain work in their preferred public domain, [6]. This was supported by the General Authority for Statistics, 2020 which found that 58% of unemployed women were only registered with the Ministry for Social Service; just 1% responded to job advertisements, [1].

In economies with aging populations, a growing lifespan dictates longer retirement, and thus the pension age is rising; people are working longer, [7]. However, in youth-oriented Saudi Arabia, the opposite is true, and age is a major factor for early retirement with 84.7% of working men between the ages of 20 and 49 years and 80.3% of employed women between the ages of 25 and 49 years. There is a technical retirement age in the Labor Law of 55 years for women and 60 years for men, although superannuation (social insurance) is available at any age after 25 years of contributions. There is also a location factor, as 78% of employed Saudis are in the urban provinces of Riyadh and Makkah (including Jeddah), and the Eastern Province with its sprawling ports and oilfields. Madinah, near Qassim, and the southern province of Asir account for another 11.7% of employed nationals (3rd quarter of 2019, [1]. An average Saudi employee is therefore likely to be a male in a large city who has an economic contribution of 20 – 30 years. In comparison, the average economic contribution in Europe is 36.2 years (men 38.6 years, women 33.7 years) and trending towards an increase, [1], [8].

The General Authority for Statistics reported Saudi nationals leaving the insurance system (superannuation)\(^1\) in the September quarter of 2019 (189,349 suspended participants) and the associated reasons for doing so. Of these, 137 notably switched to the civil service superannuation system (16% of women) and 47,581 resigned (37% of women). A further 52,521 were left involuntarily (end of the contract, the firm was liquidated, or the employee was fired or passed away; again 37% were women). Others (5,956) were transferred within their organization, presumably out of the country, and 35% of these were Saudi women (possibly following family members). The remainder left for a variety of reasons excluding retirement in the September quarter. Annualizing these percentages, 25% of Saudis who left their private sector employers did so voluntarily. On the other hand, 56,056 Saudis joined the social insurance system for that quarter; a surprising 55% were women, [1].

2.4 Saudi Women and Employment

There is a significant amount of literature on Saudi Arabian women’s negative workplace experiences with recurring themes including insufficient pay (2019 mean for women: SUS1476 per month private sector, SUS2983 pm public sector), workload (41.3 hours per week for women, 43.4 for men, both sectors), career prospects, gender stereotypes and discrimination, commuting distance (4.6% of the unemployed women in the 2019 statistics gave this reason for leaving the last employer), work and family balance (no unemployed women in the statistics gave this as a reason for leaving the last employer) and pregnancy constraints, [1], [9], [10].

Researchers interested in Saudi women’s commute associated commute cost to the willingness of women to work in Riyadh as there was little to no public transport available, [11]. Following Qui’s early suggestion to implement car-pooling to alleviate this issue, Riyadh’s new metro rail station and bus system is due to open fully by the end of 2022, [12], [13].

Similarly, [14], analyzed the experiences of Saudi working women, finding a hierarchy of intersecting social norms that impacted women’s behavior: family honor, female modesty, and obedience towards men; gender segregation and harassment in the workplace; the social standing of the family and the individual’s place within it.

2.3 Terminating Employment
that contributed to *wasta* (influence) status and entitlement (or not).

Of the ‘identity’ researchers, some papers focused on discrimination without mentioning reforms and/or used dated statistics for support; none of these writers sought other perspectives, [15], [16]. One study acknowledged changes to women’s employment only as ‘incremental and uneven’. Another study, [17], referred to the United Nations Convention on Women without citing religious reservations documented by Saudi Arabia; however, they noted that rising standards of living contributed to women’s desire to work, [18]. Yet another study sought to import foreign values by using the policies of a British multinational firm operating in Saudi Arabia: while formal institutions such as legal requirements and localization policies support gender equality, informal forces that are rooted in cultural norms and traditions are formidable in hindering such efforts and reinforcing the status quo, [19].

The plight of female Saudi entrepreneurs in information technology was the subject of, [20], work, which published seven iterative titles in three years. Others took a longitudinal (history) approach, [21], [22]. There were also findings of a high ‘excuse’ factor among potential entrepreneurs with barriers such as lack of social, family, or government support, [23], [24].

Nevertheless, some Saudi women business owners circumvent social norms, interviewed women in business in shops (cosmetics, confectionery, dressmaker, gift), the arts (ceramics), and services (interior design, photography, hospitality), finding that, as small business owners, they were hampered by inadequate work skills such as marketing (pricing, sourcing customers, customer relations) and administration (accounting, business regulations, expansion), [25]. However, the authors did not mention the small business generator Monsha’at, which was active in Jeddah, nor the local business associations although the sample was sourced from there.

In summary, there is adequate government support for women’s employment in training, mentoring, and funding; however, it must be accessed by potential employees or entrepreneurs. Saudi Arabia has always been a predominantly service-based economy, whether public or private, and has had a large youth cohort for the last two generations. Evidence from statistics and literature shows that the impetus is not yet there to change the social mindset toward business involvement. Thus, for half the Saudi population, a reluctance to engage in economic participation impacts the ‘intention to quit’ an employer.

### 2.5 Organizational and Employment Research

During the 20th century, researchers in management, education, psychology, and social psychology were involved in organizational science and their theories tended to duplicate and interweave tracked organizational research interest over decades, in particular relating leadership to organizational culture, [26], [27]. Culture, according to the theorist, concerned the objectives, rules, norms, and performances of businesses that could be configured as anything from traditional bureaucracies to complex related entities within an interdependent supply chain (the luxury corporation of Moët Hennessy Louis Vuitton, LVMH, is an example of the latter). [27], explained that entrepreneurial leadership first established objectives, policies, and practices that defined the culture or norms of the organization, whether public or private. These elements evolve over time as the entity grows and changes in response to internal and external environments. In his model, the firm’s culture (and size) subsequently influences the ‘style’ of its executives, whose responsibility ultimately is to recognize internal and external threats and modify rules and norms to accelerate cultural change. Leadership in a public bureaucracy is thus fundamentally different from that of a private global entity such as LVMH.

### 2.6 Organizational Psychology

Within the organizational research domain, psychologists have had a large influence on the studies of employees. *Employee commitment* studies date back to the mid-20th century and conducted psychological testing on production line workers in the United States, finding the *Hawthorne* or halo effect. This occurs when the research attention creates its impetus for employee productivity without further workplace change, [28]. Similarly, Maslow and McGregor modeled psychological factors that facilitated commitment to the task, the team, and the organization, which encouraged productivity, [29], [30]. Over time, the perspectives that emerged from mid-century American workplaces extended globally and fractured into a diffusion of variables such as *job satisfaction, job commitment, intention to leave*,
personality traits, and high-performance workplaces. Each of these could be selected as a dependent or independent variable for research, [31], [32]. By the turn of the century, influential theorists in employee behavior were devising an integrated framework to measure employee commitment and motivation. This framework is based on goal attainment, as the employee is either intrinsically or extrinsically aligned to the organization’s goals and this alignment is subject to conditions of either task challenge, remuneration/recognition, or both, [33].

Theories on job satisfaction, an organizational dimension, also became fragmented over time. These theories supported employee surveys such as the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire; however, this and other scales remained validated and reliable only for employment conditions in the United States 20th-century jurisdiction, [34], [35], surveyed the literature on the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance, which varied from the job commitment/performance theorists Maslow, McGregor, [29], [30]. Analyzing over 312 separate studies, they found no correlation between job satisfaction and job performance, noting that research attention to this approach had waned, [35].

However, researchers were not deterred from pursuing these domains. A highly complex example was later created by, [36], who explained the history of modeling job satisfaction (factors generalized or unspecified; a research approach they agreed with, [35]) organizational commitment (affective, continuance, normative; this research approach they found acceptable); organizational culture (shared norms and values categorized as a clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market orientation). They determined that employees from clan- and adhocracy-dominated organizations were more likely to exhibit job satisfaction (not associated with intention to leave) and organizational commitment (associated with intention to leave). They further surveyed the intention to leave for banking staff including both non-Saudi and Saudi citizens using Cameron and Quinn’s concept. They found mixed results from the firms, depending on their model classification, and results were mediated by both job and organizational satisfaction, [37]. To account for the different Saudi social norms relative to that of Cameron and Quinn, participants, [38], then applied Hofstede’s Insights social norm modeling, although there were no definitive findings from the various analyses they conducted.

As job satisfaction does not correlate with workplace outcomes, then what is it?, [39], in 1969 summarized the United States’ debate mid-20th century as ‘the concepts of satisfaction, dissatisfaction, value, emotion, and appraisal’. By this century, job dissatisfaction had largely fallen from favor, except for researchers who returned to the original models where it was associated with burnout and intention to leave, [40]. Values in job satisfaction were established as work values and rewards by, [41], in 1977 who tested job satisfaction to each of these values: intrinsic (internal enjoyment of the task and growth through learning), convenience (external enjoyment of the workplace and working conditions), co-workers (pleasant, friendly company), resource adequacy (includes mentoring and physical resources) and career opportunities. [42], revisited these values four decades later finding that ‘changes over historical time periods are most consistently responsible for differences in work values in the United States. Now predominantly employed in service industries including multinational corporations, Americans focus on job security, high income, and advancement, as these factors become more elusive. Life stages are also important in attaining future independence; raising families and preparing for retirement, although people are deferring retirement as they live longer and their aims for financial security are further fractured by economic uncertainties.

These topics are constantly revisited. A researcher’s ‘emotion’ relationship with job satisfaction, [39], dormant for decades, was resurrected in, [43], study on incivility, which they claimed was common throughout workplaces. They found that incivility from supervisors and team members produced negative emotions, affecting job satisfaction but is mediated by the employee’s affective control, [43]. [39], final variable, (productivity) appraisal, was originally associated with job satisfaction through its relationships with the other values. However, a large German study supported, this [38]. American statistical (quantitative) research which study? In studying job satisfaction, Kampkötter, in 2017 found that appraisals linked to monetary outcomes had a significantly positive effect on job satisfaction, whilst other forms of reward (or not) from appraisals were detrimental to self-determined employees whose expectations
were undermined by inadequate financial reward, [44].

In healthcare, associating job satisfaction with stress, [45], determined a ‘good’ (or perhaps marginal) relationship between job satisfaction and burnout (correlation $r = 0.478$), and a correlation of $r = 0.42 - 0.43$ for job satisfaction and self-esteem, anxiety, and depression.

2.7 Intention to Leave

Research interest in the intention to leave the employer (or profession) was accelerated by a global slump in nursing careers late last century, [46]. Probing the mindset of employees regarding their intention to leave is an accepted research plan and method frequently chosen by researchers; however, few if any of these snapshot studies followed up on whether people left their employers, or if so, why they left. For example, [47], studied nurses who wanted to leave their profession, finding affirmative factors including lack of support, unsympathetic supervisors, and lack of work time flexibility. Interestingly, this was a longitudinal study; however, they were unable to confirm individual outcomes from the study.

There are many variables relating to quitting: job resources and burnout/intention to leave, [48]. Another contemporary study of family physicians tracked individuals (<50 years of age) over five years, confirming that 16.5% left direct patient care with their intention to leave significantly correlated with leaving, although job satisfaction only mediated the effect and was not a direct contributor, [49].

Of the few cohort studies, participants in a Turin hospital were surveyed on factors related to intention to leave. Healthcare staff with more than 20 years’ seniority with fractional emergency team relationships intended to leave their work unit. Those with over 11 years’ seniority, highly educated, and in private employment were likely to leave the hospital (employer); whilst those aged over forty years stated that working conditions (remuneration) were influential in leaving the healthcare profession, [50]. Reporting on a 2010 – 2011 Brazilian nurse survey, [51], found that being young and male were poor indicators for remaining in the profession.

A United States federal services database survey by, [52], although dated, showed a strong turnover relationship with variables of age and length of service. A comparison of two statistical bases revealed annual attrition rates for new starts as 25% in the first year, 16.5% by the next year, then 12.4% in the third year, declining to around 5% for the second and third decades and rising again to approximately 10% annually for the 30th year (or over 53 years of age), and 18% for the 35th year (15% annually over age 60 years).

The second part of the federal services database analysis was the intention to leave. [52], found an inverse relationship between intention to leave and leaving at the beginning of a staff member’s career as well as at the end, illustrating the outflow of staff noted in the above analysis in the first few years of employment. They attributed the early turnover results to sample bias: those who intended to leave did not fill out the survey. Then, at the end of a career, the intention to leave was well over double the rate of turnover. Using age as the basis, a correlation between intention and turnover was good ($r = .7$) between the ages of 35 and 55 years. As the Saudi public service has jobs for life (i.e., the possibility of a long career), this may hold also although there are no accessible databases to test this assumption, and attainment of superannuation eligibility usually intervenes.

2.8 Research Approaches May Influence Outcomes

The frame of reference for social researchers probing aspects of employment is often a variation of a constructivist design, [52]. The study was a positivist quantitative design. Constructivist designs are based on qualitative research plans where the researcher and the interviewee mutually ‘construct’ and analyze data to probe the reasons behind a research problem, the ‘why’. However, the qualitative data may be varied by being quantitatively validated (mixed methods design), [53], [54].

Although, [37], use of long-standing constructivist models and their research processes of independent, dependent, and mediating variables were academically valid, the research approach was not effective in answering their research questions: why do employees want to leave, and will they subsequently quit? In, [52], the data were accessed from publicly available government records. In this study, the data published by the Saudi General Authority for Statistics, 2020 was also quite effective: for the September 2019 quarter, unemployed Saudi nationals who had a job and left it without yet gaining another position were asked why: 50.7% said they had completed their contract or were laid off; 38.6% resigned over working conditions, and the remaining 11.7% left for various reasons
including health and retirement (2.7%). Those who chose to leave rather than move jobs did so because they considered that the remuneration for the allocated tasks was not worth their time. The 2.7% who retired yet were still in the workforce arguably preferred working or had insufficient superannuation and needed extra income, [1].

2.9 Work Satisfaction and Aging
The focus of this study is to test whether longer-term or older employees may be more ‘satisfied’ than their medium-term (mid-age) or new (young) coworkers. Consistent with job satisfaction and other affective employee variables, the answer is not straightforward, [55], found no age relationship among Australian health workers when deciding to stay or leave their employment. On the other hand, Ertas, in 2015, found that American millennials were more likely to quit civil service than their older coworkers, [56]. However, among American youth under 25 years, unpalatable wage levels ruled intention to leave, [57].

Of issue, there is no commonality in the literature on whether employee age cohorts can be taken to be synonymous with individuals’ length of service. Very few workers remain with one employer throughout their careers; in fact, career progression in the private sector often means changing employers, [58]. Thus, most studies use public sector data. One example from Australia concerned the relationship between ‘innovation climate’ (where staff ideas are officially supported and resourced) and intention to leave, [59], subdivided the concept of ‘intention to leave’ as moving to another agency, to the private sector, or to retire, thus giving some cohort dimension to their data analysis. Those who intended to retire and their length of service were found to be influenced by the innovation climate, as described.

Another aspect of job satisfaction and aging is ‘sustainable labor participation’, that is, the extent to which older people want to stay at work. In the Dutch public service, [60], made several observations relating to employee age cohorts. They found that older employees considered that their skills and knowledge were undervalued in the labor market as a whole and that they were therefore not employable elsewhere. Yet within their workplace, they felt excluded and unable to contribute adequately, and advancement opportunities that their younger coworkers could access were not available to them. Nevertheless, they felt unable or unwilling to work at the same intensity as the younger cohorts. In these aging patterns, the Dutch researchers agreed with, [52], findings that if young American employees found employment onerous then they left quickly; mid-age employees were more circumspect in their intentions to quit their employer; whilst older employees thought about leaving but did not follow up, [61], found that employee commitment (motivation) followed the same pattern, high for young and older cohorts, and lower for the mid-age cohort.

2.10 Duration of Leave of the Job
A Prior study (By the author) hypothesized and found that long-term employees are more likely than their shorter-term counterparts to leave their employer. However, this finding contradicts existing literature, including the United States federal services database survey by, [52], which found the opposite; newer employees were more likely to leave their employer than those who had been with the company for longer. To address this contradiction, this paper asked a double-sided question: do older employees value their work more, or do they intend to leave at a greater rate than their younger coworkers, and how does this intention to leave differ between the Saudi labor market and the global labor market?

To answer this question, first, a literature review was conducted to understand the existing hypotheses and findings in the field on a global basis. Then, for information on Saudi Arabia specifically, as there is a lack of existing studies, data was collected from the Saudi General Authority for Statistics 2020, [1]. Finally, a simple survey was conducted, collecting 227 responses from the 25% of Saudis who left their private sector employers voluntarily to offer empirical insight into the problem.

The affective variables first established by psychologists for mid-century American manufacturers endured far longer (at least in one instance) than their originators imagined. [42], stated that the changing nature of employment as depicted by, [62], in 2017, had now put the values of ongoing employment, advancement, and income, higher on the values scale for employee cohorts raising families and those working towards retirement. According to the Office of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), 2018, part-time (atypical work) of ‘less than 30 hours’ per week is the norm for over 35% of Dutch, and around 25% of Japanese, Indonesians, Australians, and Swiss, well up from low part-time rates for past generations, [63]. The ‘less
than 35 hours’ rate for the United States was 22.6% in 2020 and is similar for several OECD states, [64].

The age/longevity response was mixed and was found to be based on income. Young (millennial) workers were not staying with an employer without good reason, typically money and experience, [65]. Mid-age workers raising families needed promotions and higher income and were, therefore, less committed to organizations that did not deliver, [52], [61]. Older workers finally left or retired, but were in no hurry to do so, building up their funds and superannuation for retirement – or not, [42].

The Saudi labor market does not follow the same patterns as employment in other countries, as economic self-support in the Kingdom is based on different values. Women are very slowly entering the workforce, the first generation to do so in any number. Their economic contribution last century was confined to education and nursing in gender-segregated professions, although they may have worked in family firms (waste) in the private sector. Saudi employees’ careers are influenced by their social security entitlements at 25 years payment and their numbers fall away significantly in their forties, [1]. This supports their retreat from work commitments; they may be just biding time to gain full social security for a long retirement. Whilst there is provision for atypical or part-time work in the Saudi Labor Law there are no statistics regarding this for Saudi nationals and atypical work remains subject to future research.

3 Methodology of Research
A survey related to experience and work values or preferences was conducted to complete the task. A survey of 227 employees was taken with a structured questionnaire. The participants’ responses were categorized as novice or short-term employees having under 3 years of experience, mid-term employees having 3-9 years of experience, and experts or long-term employees having over 10 years of experience. Of the 227 respondents, 151 were experts (66.5%), 47 were mid-term employees (20.7%), and the remaining 29 were novices (12.8%).

The survey aimed to know: Are long-term or short-term employees in Saudi Arabia more likely to leave a job. The survey aimed to answer this question by asking respondents “Who is more likely to search for a new job? A) A person who served 3 years or less or B) A person who served 10 years or more.” In this analysis, full validation of responses of respondents was estimated in the result and the one was excluded that have the lack of experience to understand the preferences and values of longer-term employees, as well as they were unable to provide proper information that fulfilled the study objectives. A descriptive analysis was used for the same and the result was interpreted accordingly in the analysis section.

4 Analysis of Study
From Table 1 it can be seen that the majority 58.6% agreed that long-term employees are more likely to leave the job than short-term employees 41.4% of the respondents. In addition, the result also found that mid-term experience holders respondents agreed that long-term employees are more likely to leave their employer 56.3% than short-term employees 43.8%, (Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Overall Experience</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Long-Term</td>
<td>58.6%</td>
<td>58.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short-term</td>
<td>41.4%</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid-Term</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long-term</td>
<td>56.3%</td>
<td>56.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short-term</td>
<td>43.8%</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
However, despite knowing that long-term employees are more likely to leave their employer, the question of ‘why’ remains. As the workforce ages, employers should be aware of the incentives targeted at different age cohorts which attract productivity as well as the intention to stay. As well, understanding the differences and similarities between Saudi Arabian employees and foreign employees will aid human resources departments in welcoming and supporting expatriates. As such, the second focus of the survey was to ask, “What are the factors influencing the decision to leave? Choices: Experience, Mentoring, Salary, Appraisal and Promotion, Culture,” to aid hiring managers in understanding which factors are the most important in retaining employees.

As expected, salary was found to be the most important factor, but with inflation and a declining economy, salary increases are not always an option in hiring or retaining employees. Rather, the HR team can instead focus on the 2nd most important factor, culture, than the 3rd, etc. The full ranking of Saudi Arabia employees’ preferences as found by the survey may be seen in Figure 1. The survey also attempted to understand the general preferences of Saudi employees and analyze how these preferences, besides income, vary based on length of service. The survey aimed to answer this question by asking “What is more important? A) Income and Training/Experience or B) Income and Job Title/Higher Responsibilities.” As may be seen in Table 2, long-term employees slightly prefer experience over title (50.6% compared to 49.4%), mid-term employees moderately prefer title over experience (51.7% compared to 48.3%), and short-term employees prefer experience or training 7 times as much as their title (87.5% compared to 12.5%).

![Saudi Arabia Employee's Preferences](image)

**Table 2. How do the preferences of long-term and short-term employees vary?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preference</th>
<th>Overall Experience</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Long-term</td>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>50.6%</td>
<td>50.6</td>
<td>50.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Title &amp; Responsibility</td>
<td>49.4%</td>
<td>49.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short-term</td>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>87.5%</td>
<td>87.5</td>
<td>87.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Title &amp; Responsibility</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid-term</td>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>48.3%</td>
<td>48.3</td>
<td>48.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Title &amp; Responsibility</td>
<td>51.7%</td>
<td>51.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
These results may aid HR in retaining employees and decreasing turnover rates by catering to the preferences of their employees: providing opportunities for experience and training to their short- and mid-term employees, while offering long-term employees more responsibility and higher titles.

5 Conclusion
While there exists a limited amount of literature comparing and exploring employee satisfaction and the intention to leave Saudi Arabia, this paper helps fill the knowledge gap. This review has found that Saudi employees leave when their social security entitlements are attained. A very similar effect occurs globally, however, employees in other countries take much longer to gain the same level of financial independence which permits them to leave without financial risk.

This result is beneficial to understand both within Saudi Arabia and globally. First, by understanding the values and preferences which factor into an employee’s decision to either remain or leave their employer are known, companies can work to address these preferences, increasing employee satisfaction and reducing their turnover rate. As was found in this study, one of these main values is financial stability. However, in the case of inflation and a declining economy, where salary increases are not always an option, hiring managers can turn to secondary preferences, such as culture, as found in this study.

Second, within the Saudi population, 37% are non-Saudi citizens, thus, understanding the similarities and differences between citizens and expatriates may benefit employers, and particularly their HR department, by fostering a workplace environment that caters to the values and preferences of both Saudi citizens and foreign employees, [66]. Much the same is true for global companies employing Saudi citizens and other foreign employees.

In the future, it would be beneficial to further verify the results of this literature using various user research methods which directly study employees’ values and preferences. This will both provide additional validity to these findings and further expand the knowledge base by allowing greater insight into employees’ values and preferences.

Additionally, it would be recommended that future studies focus on the differences between female and male employees, especially in Saudi Arabia where female employees are only just beginning to enter the workforce in great numbers, as well as study the differences between Saudi Arabia and the global market to further understand the differences between citizens and expatriates.

In addition, it is to be noted that the employer needs to motivate the employees not to leave the job, they should be provided some incentive to stop further such kind of employees’ attitude. And short-term employers also take care of achieving the long-term goals of organizations as more turnover will lead to a loss of image and not having good employees for a longer period will badly affect the employee culture which will be a potential barrier to the success of the organization.

Another limitation of this study is that it focused solely on private-sector employment in Saudi Arabia. In the future, studies that, in addition to the private sector, investigate the public sector would have the potential to add significant contributions to the field.

References:


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