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THE CHALLENGES AND BARRIERS TO EMPLOYMENT FOR FEMALE IN
RIYADH AND TABUK

by

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
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ABSTRACT

Women labor force participation plays an important role in economic. The developing in economy in Saudi Arabia depends on men rather than women, more than 50 years the Saudi women participation in the labor force extremely is low, this dissertation seeks to identify the challenges and barriers to employment for women in Riyadh and Tabuk. This study examines three research questions. The first question explored the difference between the rate of women unemployment in Tabuk and the rate of women unemployment in Riyadh. The second question investigated ways in which a logistic regression using demographics data could be used to predict the women unemployment rates in two cities. The third question investigated the challenges faced by unemployed women in two cites. An online survey was administrated to both groups. The survey included demographic information and Women Labor Force Participation Instrument. A Chi-Square test was developed from the data to test the differences of the unemployed women in two cites. In order to analyze the second question, the researcher utilized two statistical analysis tests. A logistic regression equation was developed from the data to predict unemployment rates in two cites. Additionally, Partial least squares structural equation modeling were used to analyze the exploratory research question. Content analysis was also used to analyze the challenges faced by unemployed women.

To my mother, Aljazi
Your prayer for me was what sustained me thus far

To my wife, Dr. Adibah
For encouraging me throughout this experience. I love you!

To my children, Nora, Sara, Haya, and Tamim
For being such good kids and always cheering me on

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Most importantly, I would like to thank Allah for the strength and wisdom he has given me to complete this work. Alhamdulillah!

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

DW	Durbin-Watson
FLFP	Women labor force participation
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IRB	Institutional Review Board
MGA	Multi-Group Analyses
PLS-SEM	Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

CHAPTER ONE: GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Introduction

The Global Gender Gap Index provides context for understanding the scope of gender-related differences in countries around the world while tracking their change over time. The index considers four themes when measuring the differences between countries – economic participation and opportunity, educational attainment, health and survival, and political empowerment. The index rated Saudi Arabia number 138 out of 144 for the highest gender gap (Schwab et al., 2017). This information indicates that Saudi Arabia lags drastically behind their counterparts, with economic participation and opportunity providing the biggest difference. Despite change and improvements over time, Saudi Arabia continues to rule under the thumb of its historical governmental policies as it thrusts forward in a modernizing society.

Much of the regarding the unemployment of women in Saudi Arabia targets the overall lag of Saudi Arabia's progress in closing the gender gap. For instance, the gender gap index discussed how, over time, Saudi Arabia has slowly closed the gap for primary education between men and women but that the wages distributed for similar work amongst men and women vary widely. The Global Gender Gap also reported that in 2017, the unemployment rate amongst men in Saudi Arabia was only 2.4% compared to 21.4% for women. This disparity in the employment of men and women is staggering and though it has improved over time, it is an ever-present area of concern in Saudi Arabia. The rights of women in Saudi Arabia, historically, have been at the hands of those in power. Rarely have women been regarded for their independence and autonomy in society (Schwab et al., 2017).

Though there has been an increase in the involvement of women in higher education, this has not particularly reflected in their societal participation in the job market as a whole. There has been women representation in leadership at the university level, but this has not been overwhelmingly reflected in other, more pertinent fields for Saudi Arabian labor.

Based on given trends and understanding of women's societal role over time, it is important to recognize and address the issue of unemployment among women who are, overall, exceptionally educated. Therefore, this study will address concerns surrounding the issue of women unemployment specifically in Riyadh and Tabuk. Additionally, this study will explore the challenges and barriers Saudi women face when trying to enter the workforce. Issues range from institutional challenges to cultural setbacks.

Significance of the Study

There is a body of research which contributes to the literature regarding the unemployment of women in Saudi Arabia (Al-Bakr, Bruce, Davidson, Schlaffer, & Kropiunigg, 2017; Al-Dehailan, 2007; Alfarran, 2016; Alfarran, Pyke, & Stanton, 2018; Fatima & Sultana, 2009). However, the literature has not focused specifically on women's unemployment in the capital city of Riyadh and the city of Tabuk, particularly comparing the women's experiences. Riyadh was chosen as a target city because of its above average composition regarding women unemployment and Tabuk was chosen because of its below average composition. Riyadh is considered to be the most populated city in Saudi Arabia, while Tabuk's population staggers behind it. Riyadh is considered most notably for being the center for politics, business, and commercial activities. Tabuk, on the other hand, is better known for its agricultural and military associations and

encompasses a mixture of different cultures due to immigration. This study will explore and determine differing conditions and considerations which may affect the unemployment of women in Saudi Arabia and identify areas and strategies that may help alleviate the problems.

Given that the research has not yet focused on the specific comparison between Riyadh and Tabuk, it is important to concentrate on these cities given their differences. Understanding the reasons and differences between the unemployment of women in these cities can lend clarity overall which can offer insight to multiple Saudi cities to address the women unemployment rate. For instance, exploring and examining the barriers associated with women's unemployment in Riyadh and how these obstructions are addressed can lend change to neighboring and other Saudi cities who have even stronger struggles with women unemployment. Women face issues such as caring for their family, which translates into a burdensome additive to their lives as they try to be top notch care takers but also participate in the labor force.

Therefore, the current study aims to explore the differences between the rate of women unemployment in Tabuk, with below average women composition, and Riyadh, with above average women composition. Additionally, this study explore the experiences Saudi women face concerning barriers and roadblocks to employment. This study further account for the effect of age, martial status, educational status, and household size on women unemployment rates in Saudi Arabia.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study is to explore and understand the unemployment of women in Saudi Arabia. This study considers the comparison of different factors including major of study, age, marital status, and household size by region. Further, this study explores the challenges and barriers faced by unemployed women in both Tabuk and Riyadh. Data collected for this study using both a survey and semi-structured interview. This data collected from unemployed and employed women randomly selected from the Ministry of Labor, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia list. Using both a survey and interview to gather data allow for a deep, rich understanding of the women's experiences which, ultimately, will help fill a gap in the literature.

Research Questions

- What is the difference between the rate of women unemployment in Tabuk compared to the rate of women unemployment in Riyadh?
- What is the effect of age, marital status, major of study, and household size on the women unemployment rates in Tabuk and Riyadh?
- What are the challenges faced by unemployed women in Tabuk and Riyadh?

Summary

The women unemployment rate in Saudi Arabia is staggeringly high, compared to their male counterparts. It is important to consider the reason for this disparity so the problem may be addressed and, eventually, alleviated. The exploration of this phenomenon, as well as, the challenges associated plays important role in providing recommendations for ways to lower the unemployment rate of women. By understanding the differences in women unemployment rate between Tabuk and Riyadh, the overall success and employment of women in Saudi Arabia will hopefully increase.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter provides a review of literature regarding the unemployment of women in both Riyadh and Tabuk, Saudi Arabia. First, this study explores the cultural and other related challenges affecting women's participation in the labor and employment markets. Further, this study specifically concentrates on the relationship between women employment considering age, marital status, and household size between the two regions. This study concentrates on women in Riyadh and Tabuk given the cities' employment compositions in the country. The study focused on Riyadh because it is the largest city, by population, with an above average women employment composition. The study focused on Tabuk because it is a smaller, more rural city with a below average women employment composition. Overall, the current study explored the experiences of women from both cities and consider the factors which hinder their participation in the labor market.

This chapter begins by painting a picture of Saudi Arabia today, considering the political and segregated structure of the country and how these factors influences the women of the Saudi Arabia. Next, this chapter will include the culture of women's employment in Saudi Arabia. Additionally, this review of literature elaborates on the barriers and challenges women encounter, preventing their workforce participation. Further, this chapter discuss the unemployment rates and educational attainment efforts of women, both in Tabuk and Riyadh. Lastly, the Feminism-focused theoretical framework of this study also be discussed to give the context of which will later be used to help analyze the findings.

Saudi Arabia Structure and Influence on Women

Saudi Arabia is a traditional and absolute monarchy with a rich history of both political turmoil and stability and strength. Despite being a monarchy, Saudi Arabia has, over time, moved toward broadening their political participation, increasing opportunities for its citizens, removing personal and professional stipulations on Saudi women, and enhancing educational access (Baki, 2004; Bowen, 2014). Despite the efforts of Saudi Arabia to progress forward, lingering questions regarding the function and prosperity of the country remain. Major inquiries consider the relationship between Islam and modernization, the nature of economic and political ties to the West, and the role of women in society (Baki, 2004; Bowen, 2014).

Saudi Arabia today is a nation whose traditional core values and culture struggle to navigate in an ever-changing, modern world. With its eighteenth century political and religious system in place, its absolute monarchy encounters challenges of globalization, while functioning under the formal power of a king (Bowen, 2014). With a very conservative religious infrastructure, the king makes decisions based on a restrictive governance. Though located in the birthplace of Arab people and the Islamic faith, Saudi Arabia encompasses a high rate of activist activity (Al-Bakr et al., 2017). With an incredibly learned portion of the population who are often well-traveled, worldly, and well-informed, they urge for the ruling monarchy to align itself with the rapid changes of the modern world. Thus, given its rich and traditional global significance with oil production and reserves, Saudi Arabia fights in its attempt to adjust to a world moving in fast forward, while maintaining its unique brand of Islamic fundamentalism (Al-Bakr et al., 2017; Bowen, 2014).

Economically, Saudi Arabia's prosperity is based mainly on petroleum, which is the resource most responsible for developing the country's economy valued at over \$700 billion (Bowen, 2014). Despite efforts to diversify, petroleum and its byproducts, remains the highest commodity of the country. Saudi Arabia, to maintain the integrity of its wealth and production, desires to maintain price stability. The country understands that if prices sink too low, the Saudi government has to run deficits and halt their production. Whereas, if prices are too high, buyers like the United States, Japan, China, and the states of the European Union begin to look for serious alternatives to petroleum (Bowen, 2014). Thus, Saudi Arabia works to be as efficient as possible in their pursuits of successful business, etc. This, ultimately, affects the gender divide in their labor market, given they feel men are more efficient in their work (Alfarran, 2016; Bowen, 2014; Naseem & Dhruva, 2017)

The kingdom of Saudi Arabia possesses 18% of the world's proven petroleum reserves which ranks them as the largest exporter of petroleum (Naseem & Dhruva, 2017). Saudi Arabia relies very heavily on men in the labor force rather than women and considers men a top asset and priority for expanding the developing economy (Alfarran, 2016; Bowen, 2014; Naseem & Dhruva, 2017). Despite this being the reality, Saudi women represent a cadre of individuals whose potential is not tapped fruitfully enough. Many of them, despite being highly educated and motivated, have not joined the labor force (Alfarran, 2016). Of the 13.5 million women in the country, 9.1 million of them are of working age, but the percentage of women who are in the labor force pales in comparison to the overall number. Only 20.2% of women participated in the workforce in 2015, compared to the 77.8% of men (MLSD, 2016).

Much of the lack of women's participation in differing markets is due to governmental and cultural structures of Saudi Arabia. This is particularly evident regarding the rules, customs and employment practices of Saudi tradition. Explicit gender restrictions on women's rights are justified by the beliefs regarding women's "nature" and societal responsibilities. Women are believed to lead "natural" courses of work which are extensions of their roles as mothers and caregivers (Alfarran et al., 2018). Thus, Saudi women are often pigeon-holed into certain tracks of employment, if they are employed at all. "The idea that women 'naturally' make different choices is one that is not confined to the Saudi or MENA context and, internationally, is a common explanation for labour market segregation by gender" (Alfarran et al., 2018).

Women's Employment in Saudi Arabia

Segregation and Politics

Gender segregation in Saudi Arabia was a phenomenon introduced as a means of protecting both women and family honor (Salwa Abdul Hameed Al-Khateeb, 1987). Thus, once gendered roles were assigned, women made consistent efforts to stay indoors and undertake stereotypical women roles to fulfill the expectations built by society. Living up to these expectations became a way of life for the women of Saudi Arabia.

"Gender segregation has been one of the defining features of Saudi Arabia. Saudi law enforces the separation of men and women in the public sphere, with the result that women have their own exclusive public spaces in schools, universities, charitable organizations, hospitals, restaurants, and government offices." (Meijer, 2010).

The male dominated culture of Saudi Arabian society creates barriers for women's engagement in everyday life and in the workforce, especially. Women are disallowed basic freedoms, such as creating societal space to have choice and decision-making authority (Alfarran et al., 2018; Valdivia, 1995). It is important to understand that economic development hinges heavily not just on money made but also on the well-being of individuals and their quality of life (Valdivia, 1995). It can be difficult to consider Saudi Arabia as innovative and developed when the holistic social and emotional health of all citizens is not always all-encompassing. Educated women, especially, can make great contributions to society, especially in the labor market (Baki, 2004). They can contribute positive, healthy, and progressive change in all areas. With the increased access to education in Saudi Arabia, women are gaining status, independence, and thus, a higher likelihood for success in the professional realm of society, when allowed in.

In addition to contributing to the economic growth of the country, by being in positions of power, women can help shape the entire employment debate. Having a seat at the table lends women the opportunity to be represented and make the case for their more pronounced participation in policy influence (Saqib, Aggarwal, & Rashid, 2016) "Research shows that visibility is a key dimension of empowerment" (Saqib et al., 2016). Representation in power-yielding positions in Saudi Arabia can encourage young women pursuing their careers to be both steadfast and persistent. Increasing the role of women in the labor market spans further and sends an impactful message for the progeny of those coming behind.

In Saudi Arabia's heavily male-dominated society, women's primary role is to care for their family and home and they are not allowed to interact with men who are not close relatives of theirs. Women are limited in how they can move about in public, given that many places are restricted to certain gender use. Despite the majority of families in Saudi Arabia being middle or upper class, this is often of no consequence to women because they still experience restrictions and shortcomings because of their gender. Saudi Arabia's basic laws do not refer to women or gender equality. Therefore, discrimination against women is common both inside and outside of the workplace (Press, 2010).

Governmental Efforts

In 2011, the Saudi Arabian government put forth a major program called Nitaqat which was to address the labor market concerns. Its goal was to increase Saudi workforce participation, particularly women (Salwa Abdul Hameed Al-Khateeb, 1987; Alfarran, 2016). Despite the effort, many women found that the program often offered unsuitable jobs which were low in status. Also, the positions available did not match women's level of skill, as many of the women were highly educated and overqualified for the work. Further, women were offered work in mixed gendered workplaces for low wages. Overall, though efforts were made to enhance women's participation in the workplace, the efforts for admittance into the private sector proved less successful than anticipated (Salwa Abdul Hameed Al-Khateeb, 1987; Alfarran, 2016).

Following, women expressed a preference for public sector employment given its relatively beneficial working conditions (Salwa Abdul Hameed Al-Khateeb, 1987). Unfortunately, the demand for public sector jobs were often exceeded by the subsequent demand for work, among

other obstacles. Moreover, the Nitaqat program provided a foundation for change in women's employment, but it was limited in its achievement due to its misalignment with cultural perspectives and governmental politics.

Employment in Saudi Arabia

The following section will offer insight into the gender differences experienced in the Saudi Arabian workforce. This will be followed by an overview of percentages and rates supporting the vast difference between men and women workforce participation.

Differences Between Men and Women

Saudi Arabia has the largest gender imbalance in their labor force participation among the G-20 countries. The men and women of Saudi Arabia have very different experiences in the labor market, including vastly different wages and levels of labor force participation and employment. Men and women often encompass differing levels of authority in the labor force, with women very rarely holding high-level positions. Further, women tend to be concentrated in different industries and occupations than the men.

Despite improvements in the labor market disparities over time, women labor force participation in Saudi Arabia remains extremely low. Organizations such as The Ministry of Labor and Social Development, whose mission is to work hand in hand with individuals and authorities to empower the society, aims to open doors for women to participate in the workforce at a much higher rate than they do now, while lowering their unemployment rate. The ministry's

concentration considers the well-being of both women and children to help ensure they have a seat at the table as economic expansion continues.

Considering the Ministry's mission of empowerment, it is important to understand the positive impact which can be had on a country when there is less gender discrimination and segregation. Dollar and Gatti admitted that societies that discriminate by gender tend to experience slower economic development (Dollar & Gatti, 1999). Societies who uphold these oppressive policies also tend to have higher rates of poverty than societies who treat males and women more equally, given that social gender gaps often result in economic insufficiency.

Women Labor Force Participation

Women labor force participation (FLFP) considers a woman's decision to be a part of the economically active population. This is rather than being a part of the inactive population who does not work and is not seeking work . FLFP is important because it helps the enhancement and socio-economic advancement of a country given its promotion of efficiency and equity. The empowerment of women in the labor market can help catapult the positive direction of the economy and overall social position of the country. Promoting this level of equity can help maximize human potential and help build a higher capacity for economic growth and the reduction of poverty (Fatima & Sultana, 2009; Mujahid, 2014).

There is much evidence available indicating the incredible economic gains to be made if women feel empowered in their work and can develop their full labor market potential (Saqib et al., 2016). The general consensus in the Saudi culture places women in a very specific societal position. Women are believed to have the general role of maintaining the basic structure of family

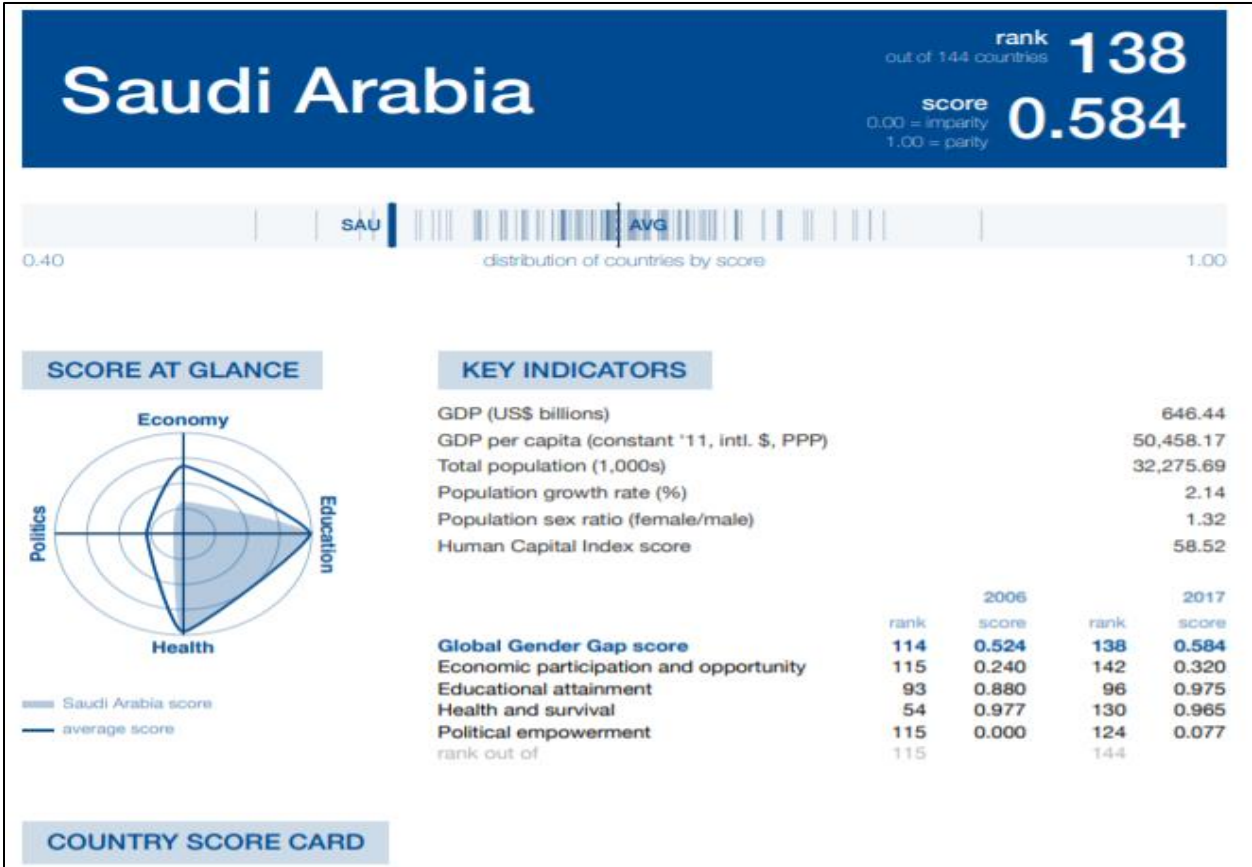
and overseeing the household. Moreover, there is a deeply embedded and complex nature of gender inequality in the society and should be taken into account (Saqib et al., 2016)

As economies age, women labor force participation grows increasingly important because it can enhance the growth of the economy by reducing the impact of a shrinking workforce (Saqib et al., 2016). Higher women work force participation will likely result in a more skilled labor force, given the increasing higher education levels of women. In other words, the more educated women become, and the more they participate in the labor force, the more positive effects are likely to be yielded (Saqib et al., 2016).

Ways in which women's empowerment can contribute to the economic empowerment of Saudi Arabia is that women in the workforce helps to boost household income. Additionally, studies demonstrate that women are more likely than men to use their resources to promote their children's health and education (Saqib et al., 2016).

Gender Gap

Low women professional and labor force participation has been a major characteristic of the Saudi labor market over the last fifty years (Al-Dehailan, 2007; Alomair, 2015). The Global Gender Gap Index is a framework for understanding the extent of gender-based disparities in different countries and tracking their change over time (Schwab et al., 2017). The index measures four different thematic dimensions for each country – economic participation and opportunity, educational attainment, health and survival, and political empowerment. It is important to understand the significance of the Saudi Arabian ranking for this index to provide context within which the gender gaps can be fully comprehended.



(Schwab et al., 2017)

Figure 1: Saudi Arabian score card

According to the gender gap by country profile for 2017, Saudi Arabia fell well below the Global Weighted Average for the gender gaps left to be closed. As demonstrated in (Schwab et al., 2017)

Figure 1 above, Saudi Arabia ranked 138 out of 144 for the highest gender gap, and they specifically ranked 142 out of 144 for economic participation and opportunity (Schwab et al., 2017). Though, over time, Saudi Arabia slowly closed the gap for primary education between men and women, they experienced a decline in gender wages for similar work, as well as, women’s earned income. Thus, while educational attainment differences are menial, income differences

between men and women differ by the following averages: women - \$17,857 and men - \$82,164 (Schwab et al., 2017). Therefore, despite the similarities in educational attainment, women's professional achievement has still lagged in monetary earnings.

Unemployment Rate and Educational Attainment

Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is as segregated as the labor market. The education system is governed by religious influence which restricts women's access to education and limits their participation in particular professions. According to Cordesman (2003) women have not been able to enter male dominated fields like engineering, journalism, pharmacy, or architecture because they were viewed as male activities (Cordesman, 2003; Szilagyi, 2015). Women often pursue education in the fields of health care, education, and public administration (Szilagyi, 2015). These restrictions and specific educational tracks often play a role in women's choice of employment, given that the demand for this type of work in Saudi Arabia is minimal.

The *ulama* is a unit of Muslim scholars who are granted decision making power primarily in the area of religion and have a heavy influence on the structure and content of education in Saudi Arabia (Szilagyi, 2015). Having such a heavy influence on religion grants the *ulama* primary control over culture, educational curriculum, and the structure of the educational system. This particularly affects women and their role in both education and society. Although these authorities are not in favor of the increased presence of women in the employment market, more and more women are pursuing graduate studies (Szilagyi, 2015). More than 63% of students in Saudi Arabian universities are women. Thus, women in Saudi Arabia are highly educated and highly skilled, though their workforce decisions are often not theirs to make. This high number of women

receiving an education indicates the government's strong effort to invest in women's higher education pursuits despite cultural and religious restrictions. Many institutions in the country are built to accommodate women pursuing their education. These universities are equipped with separate education facilities for women, and though women have high access to education, their programs of study are still restricted and different from that of men. Most women are enrolled in course paths for the fields of education, humanities, or social sciences and live in areas which are more exposed to globalization and international education (Szilagyi, 2015). Overall, women are treated differently due to the roles women and men assume in the Saudi Arabian society, with boys learning the intricacies of traditional male activities, and girls learning their roles as mothers and housewives (Szilagyi, 2015). The education of women in Saudi Arabia has direct influence on their participation in the labor market, or lack thereof.

The overall unemployment rate for women in Saudi Arabia is staggering compared to the men. The women unemployment rate is 21.4% compared to 2.4% for men (Schwab et al., 2017). The profile of women with the highest rate of unemployment include women between the ages of 25 to 29 who have never been married and who have bachelor's degrees. This is followed by the highest to lowest unemployment rate for women by age which includes ranges 25 to 29, then 30-34, 35 to 39, 55 to 59, 40 to 44, and 50 to 54. This makes the youngest age group the least likely to be employed. Additionally, the highest to lowest unemployment rate for women by marital state includes never married, then married, divorced, and widowed (General authority for statistics, 2018). Demonstrating the scope of this profile shows the overall sub-population of who suffers most from the women unemployment reality of Saudi Arabia.

Administrative Area	الاجمالي Total			غير السعوديين Non Saudi			السعوديون Saudi			المنطقة الإدارية
	جملة Total	اناث Female	ذكور Male	جملة Total	اناث Female	ذكور Male	جملة Total	اناث Female	ذكور Male	
Riyadh	5.9	19.0	3.2	1.4	4.0	1.1	13.4	30.6	7.4	الرياض
Makkah	4.2	15.5	2.3	0.2	0.0	0.2	10.6	25.8	6.2	مكة المكرمة
Madinah	8.7	27.1	5.0	1.5	8.2	0.8	17.4	36.1	11.2	المدينة المنورة
Qassim	9.4	24.6	5.5	0.5	1.6	0.3	19.3	37.1	12.5	القصيم
.Easte. Prov	3.1	14.4	1.5	0.7	3.5	0.3	6.6	25.1	3.3	المنطقة الشرقية
Asir	8.2	23.4	4.6	0.3	0.8	0.2	14.2	31.7	8.6	عسير
Tabuk	8.4	27.9	4.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	14.5	40.4	8.0	تبوك
Hail	8.1	22.7	4.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	16.2	39.5	9.7	حائل
.North.Bord	13.1	30.7	7.9	0.5	0.4	0.5	22.9	47.4	14.2	الحدود الشمالية
Jazan	11.5	32.4	7.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	18.0	37.2	11.8	جازان
Najran	3.0	10.5	1.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	5.8	18.5	3.5	نجران
AL - Baha	7.1	17.3	4.2	0.1	0.0	0.2	12.7	26.1	7.8	الباحة
AL - Jouf	14.8	34.7	9.0	1.3	5.6	0.6	28.8	47.3	20.0	الجوف
Total	6.0	20.0	3.3	0.7	2.5	0.5	12.9	31.1	7.6	Total الاجمالي

(GASTAT, 2018)

Figure 2: Total unemployment rate by sex, nationality, and administrative region

Figure 2 above demonstrates the employment rates by gender, nationality, and administrative region. It is evident that, in every region, the unemployment rate for women is significantly lower than that of men, especially for Saudi women. According to the figure, the overall unemployment rate for Saudi Arabian women overall is over 20% higher than that of Saudi Arabian men. This number demonstrates the vast disparity amongst men's and women's employment in this gender-segregated country (GASTAT, 2018).

In addition to unemployment rate disparities, there are also strong differences between the college majors of the men and women, with men pursuing majors that cater more to the pertinence of the country needs. According to the Global Gender Gap report (2017), the most common degree major for women is Arts and Humanities with 31.7%, while men was 18%. Continual differences include men pursuing degrees in business administration and law at 25.9% while women were 15%. Further, men dominate engineering, manufacturing, and construction degrees with 15.9%, while women inhabit .7%. Lastly, with a smaller gap but still a difference, men major in Information and Communication Technologies at 8.4%, which women major at 5.8%. Overall, contributing to one of the reasons why women's unemployment is so high is because of their major choice and the lack of applicability of their majors to the Saudi Arabian occupational market (Schwab et al., 2017).

Educ. level	الاجمالي Total			غير السعوديين Non Saudi			السعوديون Saudi			المستوى التعليمي
	جملة Total	اناث Female	ذكور Male	جملة Total	اناث Female	ذكور Male	جملة Total	اناث Female	ذكور Male	
Illiterate	9,517	5,216	4,301	0	0	0	9,517	5,216	4,301	امّي
Reads and writes	12,910	3,469	9,441	42	3	39	12,868	3,466	9,402	يقراً و يكتب
Primary	44,271	5,580	38,691	9	0	9	44,262	5,580	38,682	ابتدائية
Post-primary diploma	1,841	46	1,795	1	0	1	1,840	46	1,794	دبلوم بعد الابتدائية
Intermediate	46,330	4,171	42,159	9	0	9	46,321	4,171	42,150	متوسطة
Post-intermediate diploma	84,008	39,196	44,812	2,896	2,448	448	81,112	36,748	44,364	دبلوم بعد المتوسطة
Secondary	126,904	19,070	107,834	21	1	20	126,883	19,069	107,814	ثانوية
Post-secondary diploma	165,176	87,721	77,455	4,394	4,043	351	160,782	83,678	77,104	دبلوم بعد الثانوية
Bachelor Degree	614,421	301,655	312,766	19,424	10,738	8,686	594,997	290,917	304,080	جامعية
Postgraduate Diploma	37,660	7,456	30,204	1,351	289	1,062	36,309	7,167	29,142	دبلوم بعد الجامعة
Higher Diploma / Master Degree	50,187	17,489	32,698	8,104	2,196	5,908	42,083	15,293	26,790	ماجستير
Diploma after Master	229	32	197	76	20	56	153	12	141	دبلوم بعد الماجستير
Doctorate	28,946	8,722	20,224	12,824	3,407	9,417	16,122	5,315	10,807	دكتوراه
Not specified	6,970	2,462	4,508	1,017	342	675	5,953	2,120	3,833	لم يحدد
	1,229,370	502,285	727,085	50,168	23,487	26,681	1,179,202	478,798	700,404	Total الاجمالي

(GASTAT, 2018)

Figure 3: Employees on the job subject to the rules and regulations of the Civil Service by sex, nationality and educational level

Figure 3 displays the break down of educational attainment for Saudi Arabian men and women by level. For post-secondary diplomas and Bachelor's degrees, women either exceed or are in very close measure to that of men. This data demonstrates that, in several educational sectors, men and women are very near in achievement. Thus, many of the Saudi women in Saudi Arabia are educated.

Barriers to Saudi Arabian Women Regarding the Workplace

Cultural factors play a large role in the disparity between men and women's participation in the labor market. Cultural norms and legal restrictions impose high costs in society for employing women. Given these restrictions, males and emigrant workers tend to be more cost-effective alternatives and more densely saturate the labor market. The effective cost of hiring women exceeds their wage rate, which lowers employment opportunities for women and causes fewer women to be employed (Salwa Abdel Hameed Al-Khateeb, 1998).

An additional cultural barrier faced by women attempting to enter the workforce is the guardianship of women. Given the continued restrictions concerning women driving in Saudi Arabia, this makes it difficult for them and their employment. Transportation to and from work has remained a continued challenge and large reason contributing to women's unemployment rate (Al-Asfour, Tlaiss, Khan, & Rajasekar, 2017; Al-Dehailan, 2007; Naseem & Dhruva, 2017). Further, many companies, especially in the private sector, are not designed to accommodate women. Companies would have to commit to building separate facilities for women to work, many of whom cannot afford to make the accommodation. Thus, given the obstacles, many women feel discouraged to apply. Other challenges include a lack of suitable jobs for women, lack of work experience, language barriers, difficulty working long hours, and balancing work and family responsibilities (Al-Asfour et al., 2017; Al-Dehailan, 2007; Naseem & Dhruva, 2017).

Further, in addition to issues specifically related to the workplace, Saudi Arabian women are oppressed by general societal factors, including balancing work and family and the conflicts of those roles. Other factors include the conflicts related to living within patriarchal systems. The

nature of these systems place women at an incredible disadvantage because of their specific place in society and the restrictions accompanied, therein. The cultural and gender codes of the Saudi Arabian society, limited career advancement opportunities, and the lack of acceptance for women in managerial roles all prove to be strenuous factors for working women (Al-Asfour et al., 2017). Systematically, women are not considered to have high decision-making roles in the workforce, so their exclusion from potentially advancing opportunities is a regular practice. This includes informal networking opportunities. Lastly, women face issues concerning a lack of family support.

Without the social capital of high societal status and beneficial family connections to assist in the advancement of their professional careers, many women find it difficult to move forward in their efforts to progress (Al-Asfour et al., 2017). Despite growing efforts over the years in different countries to address the gender gap in professional workforce settings, Arab countries still need more assistance. Gender-segregated workplaces are a legal requirement of the country of Saudi Arabia, which requires employers to offer women their own workplace or build high segregation walls. A Saudi woman cannot accept a particular job offer before explicit permission from her male guardian (Alfarran et al., 2018).

A further constraint is the gender-segregated educational system. In 2008, most women university graduate degrees were in education, human sciences, and Islamic and Arabic studies, rather than in professional or vocational sectors. As a result, 78% of unemployed women were university graduates because of an oversupply of job applicants for the positions women were eligible for (Alfarran et al., 2018). This led to a gap between the job requirements and work-readiness of Saudi women jobseekers. Thus, women sought educational majors which misaligned

with the occupational needs of the country, thus leaving them unemployed. This obstacle is paired with the private sector employers' preferences to hire men (Alfarran et al., 2018).

In addition to cultural barriers preventing women from working, women also face challenges in the workplace, itself. Many of these obstacles consider the workplace culture and biases of employers. Additionally, in the workplace, women face discrimination, stereotyping, limited training and professional development opportunities, discriminatory policies and practices, negative perceptions of women's professional capabilities and commitment, difficulties establishing interpersonal relationships at work, and a lack of mentoring and coaching support and family-friendly programs (Al-Asfour et al., 2017).

Comparing the Women Employment Rates of Riyadh and Tabuk

The population of Saudi Arabia lives in approximately 4,655,127 household, consisting of both Saudi and non-Saudi individuals. Average household sizes range from 5 to 7.3 people, with Saudi households leading that number, likely due to the residential status of many Saudi families (Salam, Elsegaey, Khraif, & Al-Mutairi, 2014).

According to the General Authority for statistics (2018), there are staunch differences in the number of women in the labor force between the cities of Riyadh and Tabuk. In this section, employment statistics, especially women employment, will be discussed. According to Figure 4 below, the total number of persons employed in Riyadh is 1,205,451, of whom only 423,463 are women. Thus, less than half of the population, 35%, are employed women. Riyadh is the capital city of Saudi Arabia with an overall larger population than Tabuk. The total number of employed persons in Tabuk is 54,890, of whom only 21,116 are women.

Administrative Area	الأجمالي Total			غير السعوديين Non Saudi			السعوديون Saudi			المنطقة الإدارية
	جملة	اناث	ذكور	جملة	اناث	ذكور	جملة	اناث	ذكور	
	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	
Riyadh	4,002,699	535,487	3,467,212	2,797,248	112,024	2,685,224	1,205,451	423,463	781,988	الرياض
Makkah	2,324,857	276,793	2,048,064	1,703,034	47,051	1,655,983	621,823	229,742	392,081	مكة المكرمة
Madinah	418,212	56,349	361,863	283,521	8,339	275,182	134,691	48,010	86,681	المدينة المنورة
Qassim	444,882	51,654	393,228	332,823	9,521	323,302	112,059	42,133	69,926	القصيم
Easte. Prov.	2,083,914	180,517	1,903,397	1,508,910	36,777	1,472,133	575,004	143,740	431,264	المنطقة الشرقية
Asir	422,511	69,778	352,733	272,981	11,116	261,865	149,530	58,662	90,868	عسير
Tabuk	141,603	23,132	118,471	86,713	2,016	84,697	54,890	21,116	33,774	تبوك
Hail	161,442	24,511	136,931	111,047	3,047	108,000	50,395	21,464	28,931	حائل
North Bord.	65,848	10,269	55,579	41,060	1,398	39,662	24,788	8,871	15,917	الحدود الشمالية
Jazan	189,766	35,484	154,282	113,811	3,110	110,701	75,955	32,374	43,581	جازان
Najran	166,705	19,142	147,563	119,553	2,906	116,647	47,152	16,236	30,916	نجران
AL - Baha	75,038	14,565	60,473	41,986	1,569	40,417	33,052	12,996	20,056	الباحة
AL - Jouf	96,403	13,729	82,674	58,859	1,465	57,394	37,544	12,264	25,280	الجوف
undefined	3083	1091	1992	74	8	66	3009	1083	1,926	غير محدد
Total	10,596,963	1,312,501	9,284,462	7,471,620	240,347	7,231,273	3,125,343	1,072,154	2,053,189	الجملة
* Domestic worker	2,421,103	724,514	1,696,589	2,421,103	724,514	1,696,589	0	0	0	العمالة المنزلية*
Total	13,018,066	2,037,015	10,981,051	9,892,723	964,861	8,927,862	3,125,343	1,072,154	2,053,189	الأجمالي

(GASTAT, 2018)

Figure 4: Total employed persons by sex, nationality, and administrative region

When considering the entire population of Riyadh, 30% of all working people are Saudi, the remainder are non-Saudi. Of the working Saudi people, only 10% of those individuals are women. The margin of Saudi working women in Riyadh, though higher than other cities, is still dismal compared to their male counterparts. When considering the entire population of Tabuk, 38% of all working people are Saudi, the remainder are non-Saudi. Of the working Saudi people, only 14% are women. In Riyadh, the total unemployment rate for Saudi women over the age of 15 is 30.6%, compared to the 40.4% unemployment rate in Tabuk.

Overall, there are staunch differences between the employment rate of women in Riyadh and women in Tabuk. Though the population of Tabuk is not completely comparable to that of Riyadh, there is much to be learned from understanding the opportunities for women in Riyadh, which can be adjusted and applied to the city of Tabuk to enrich and lessen the gap.

Theoretical Framework: Feminism

This study will be guided by Feminism theory which will be used to explore the experiences unemployed women in the regions of Riyadh and Tabuk, Saudi Arabia. The components of this theory will be used to analyze the rate of women employment in Tabuk and Riyadh. Also, this theory will be used to analyze the relationship between the rate of women employment, considering major of study, age, marital status, and household size be region. Lastly, the components of this theory will be used to explore the challenges and barrier Saudi women face which hinders them from successfully entering and navigating the labor market. Using Feminism as an analysis tool will lend a theoretical standpoint to consider the exploratory components of this study.

Feminism is “the theoretical study of women’s oppression and the strategical and political ways that all of us, building on that theoretical and historical knowledge, can work to end that oppression” (Valdivia, 1995). Feminism is a distinctive movement, promoting equality for men and women in political, economic, and social spheres. Feminists consider that women are oppressed and treated unfairly because of their gender by a patriarchal led society (Valdivia, 1995). A patriarchal society places males in a higher level of societal ranking and authority, considering women as lesser appreciated and recognized individuals. This directly conflicts with the principles of feminism. The preface of feminism is the declaration that men encompass greater power in major arenas of society including both public and private spheres (Valdivia, 1995). Feminists believe that societal practices should be revamped, and women should be considered and appreciated for what they contribute to the culture and society. Feminists believe that, for males to maintain their elevated level of power in society, they create boundaries and obstacles for women to advance.

When considering the challenges of women in Saudi Arabia overall, it is conceivable to understand the struggles of unemployed women in Saudi Arabia. Unemployed Saudi women live in a society where they are not afforded the same opportunities as men, especially in the labor market. Unemployed women often juggle responsibilities while hoping for change. Feminism theory will be used as the theoretical framework for this study to demonstrate the dominate role patriarchy plays in the society of Saudi Arabia and how it impacts women’s employment in Riyadh and Tabuk.

Conclusion

Overall, to explore the general literature regarding the unemployment of Saudi women in Riyadh and Tabuk, this chapter highlighted the political and cultural rule of Saudi Arabia today and its specific influence on women. Next, this chapter outlined some barriers faced by unemployed women which contribute to their non-employment. These included cultural and institutional challenges, among others. Further, this chapter discussed how the unemployment rate and the educational attainment of women in Saudi Arabia connect. Following this declaration was information which highlighted the unemployment rates and profiles of women in both Riyadh and Tabuk. Finally, this chapter expounded on the associated theoretical framework for the study which will be used to analyze the findings. With an ultimate focus on the contributing factors of women's rate of unemployment and barriers to employment, this chapter provided a foundation for understanding the experiences of unemployed women in Saudi Arabia.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter presents the research methodology which was used for this study. It includes the following aspects: research design, variables used in the study, sample procedures, data collection methods, and statistical analyses. All of these components were utilized to identify the findings from the research questions. Furthermore, this section will first present the methods used to collect data and will conclude by describing the methods used to analyze the data and test the hypotheses.

Theoretical Framework and Hypothesis Development

The theoretical framework of Feminism for this study was drawn from the literature review. Its theory and relationship between the variables were postulated. To understand the barriers and challenges of unemployed women in Saudi Arabia, a mixed methods paradigm was adapted and an exploratory two-stage approach was utilized. This approach used both quantitative and qualitative components. (Clark & Creswell, 2008).

Research Hypotheses

Based on the theoretical framework for the current study, three main hypotheses were formulated to reflect the study's inquiries depicted in the framework. This study claimed that various enablers may affect the unemployment of women in Saudi Arabia. Further, this study aimed to identify areas and strategies which may affect the high unemployment rates of women in this country. Approximately 68 percent of Saudi women with a college degree were unemployed in 2015 and excluded from fruitful activities (IMF, 2016). Although women's involvement in higher education increased, this did not translate into increases in academe, employment, and social participation. Research attests that, despite the obstacles for admittance into the field, there have been a few women deans and presidents at Arab universities. According to the International Monetary Fund (IMF), 34% of women are unemployed in Saudi Arabia (IMF, 2016). Below is an explanation of each hypothesis related to the inquiries of this study.

The first hypothesis considered the differences between the rate of women unemployment in Tabuk, with a below average women employment composition, compared to women unemployment in Riyadh, with an above average women employment composition.

H1.1a: There is no significant difference between the rate of women unemployment in Tabuk (women below average composition) compared to women unemployment in Riyadh (women above average composition).

H1.1b: There is a significant difference between the rate of women unemployment in Tabuk compared to the rate of women unemployment in Riyadh.

The second hypothesis considered the effect of age, marital status, educational status, and household size on women's unemployment rate.

H2.1a: There is a relationship between the rate of women unemployment, major of study, age, marital status, and household size by size of the region.

H2.1b: There is no relationship between the rate of women unemployment, major of study, age, marital status, and household size by size of the region.

RQ3: What are the challenges faced by unemployed women in Tabuk and Riyadh?

Population and Sampling

One goal of scientific research is to describe the nature of a population, classified as a group or class of subjects, variables, concepts, or phenomena. In most situations, however, it is not possible to examine an entire population due to time and resource constraints. To overcome this constraint, the standard procedure is to study a population sample, which is a smaller group of people who are representative of the overall population. Grouping is a technique used to select a smaller, relevant group from the overall population. By choosing some of the subjects in a population and researching this limited group, we may apply the findings of the study to the overall population. According to Slavin (1990), a sample is a group of subjects chosen from a large group or population to which findings are assumed to apply (Slavin, 1990). For the present study, the researcher focused on Riyadh and Tabuk, which are the regions in Saudi Arabia with an above average composition and below average composition rate of women unemployment.

The population of women in Saudi Arabia is approximately 13.5 million, with 9.1 million (67.41%) of the women population being of working age. However, only 20.2% of women participate in the workforce, compared to 77.8% of men (Naseem & Dhruva, 2017). According to the International Monetary Fund (IMF), 34% of women are unemployed in Saudi Arabia (IMF, 2016), and the following table illustrates a disparity amongst women unemployment rates in different cities.

Table 1: The disparity among women unemployment rates in different cities

City	Total			Out of the Labour Force		
	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male
Riyadh	5,128,352	1,989,001	3,139,351	2,145,741	1,521,180	624,561
Mecca	5,193,083	2,161,062	3,032,021	2,475,240	1,791,601	683,639
Medina	1,261,089	544,181	716,908	634,084	443,982	190,102
Qassim	902,066	366,292	535,774	434,897	288,744	146,153
Easte.Pro	3,123,060	1,207,247	1,915,813	1,389,141	964,277	424,864
Asir	1,378,281	614,301	763,980	708,839	495,968	212,871
Tabuk	534,674	228,516	306,158	274,087	192,493	81,594
Hail	444,935	195,168	249,767	211,526	155,086	56,440
North.	223,084	99,259	123,825	112,379	75,722	36,657
Jazan	961,373	435,370	526,003	521,941	360,971	160,970
Najran	350,877	152,465	198,412	174,650	124,540	50,110
Al-Baha	304,344	140,575	163,769	146,460	112,037	34,423
Al-Jouf	314,350	129,200	185,150	138,941	93,462	45,479
Total	20,119,568	8,262,637	11,856,931	9,367,926	6,620,063	2,747,863

The two cities of Riyadh and Tabuk were the target sample group for this study. To reach these participants, questionnaires were distributed to employed and unemployed women who were randomly selected from the Ministry of Labor, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia list. One thousand questionnaires were distributed amongst the women population and the questionnaire was used to determine their employment status and eligibility for the study. As a sample group has a direct impact on the appropriateness and the statistical reliability for future analysis, it is important that the study sample group is representative and of acceptable size (Joseph Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). The acceptable sample size depends on the number of study variables and method of statistical analysis which, for reliability, is typically factor analysis. Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, and Tatham (2006, p. 112) stated, “As a general rule, the minimum is to have at least five times as many observations as the number of variables to be analyzed, and the more acceptable sample size would have a 10:1 ratio. Some researchers even proposed a minimum of 20 cases for each variable.” Based on this claim, a sample size of 200 or more was a satisfactory number size for the present study. Riyadh is considered to be the most populated area of Saudi Arabia with approximately seven million residents. Due to Riyadh having many ministries and political offices, it is considered the center of politics, business, and commercial activities. Tabuk, located in the Northwestern region of the country, is the capital city of the Tabuk Region. It is known to be both an agricultural and military city. Tabuk is an epicenter of the different cultures within the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia due to the immigration of many tribes and families for military purposes.

Measures

Women Unemployment

The questionnaire, used both for employed and unemployed women, contained general demographic information, familial information, and it requested that a distinction be made regarding if a participant was employed or not. An example of a question on the questionnaire concerning unemployment included: “How long have you been looking for work?” Participants’ responses were elicited using multiple choice questions. The measures for this study were adapted from the data collection method.

Prior to the start of participant recruitment and data collection, the researcher obtained approval from the university’s Institutional Review Board (IRB). The IRB application packet included the following: (a) the human research protocol, (b) the informed consent, (c) a demographic questionnaire, and (d) all assessment instruments. Before the survey was properly administered, a pilot study was conducted with 20 unemployed women using face to face interviews for data collection. The purpose of the pilot study was to refine and validate the contents of the questionnaire items in terms of clarity, wording, ambiguity, sequencing, timing, and relevance to the institutions.

The survey was conducted using a researcher-distributed questionnaire to those qualified respondents from the two cities. The survey population was employed and unemployed women in Tabuk and Riyadh. The questionnaire forms were sent by registered mail to ensure they were received. Additionally, a consent letter was attached with the questionnaires.

A Semi-Structured Interview

A semi-structured interview protocol was developed for use by the researcher to understand the participants' challenges in the workforce. The protocol included three questions, related to participants' opinions, to identify the existing barriers which prevent women from participating in paid employment. Additionally, the questions were formulated in an attempt to elicit information regarding factors, resources, and information directly related to the increase of women participation in the labor markets within their cities. The interview provided an opportunity for participants to share their experiences in a way that gleaned information not acquired from the questionnaire data results. This information complemented the data collected from the questionnaires (Rabiee, 2004).

Statistical Analysis

Descriptive Statistics

Data analysis was conducted utilizing Dillman, Smyth, and Christian (2014) as a foundational tool of understanding and implementation. After receipt of the survey information from participants, the data was uploaded into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Software Program (SPSS) version 24. After the data was uploaded, an analysis of the data was conducted (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2014). The purpose of this study was to identify demographic variables which might influence unemployment rate. For the purposes of fully addressing the research question, the researcher used structural equation modeling (SEM), a second-generation multivariate data analysis method. The SEM method is an “umbrella term” (Salkind, 2010) for a group of methods, including regression and path analysis, designed to test or

confirm a proposed model (Martella, Nelson, Morgan, & Marchand-Martella, 2013). Specifically, SEM tests specified models (i.e., measurement models) to identify how groups of indicators (i.e., manifest variables) define a variable (i.e., latent variable) and the direction and strength of relationships among variables. In this investigation, the researcher used partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) to test the research hypothesis.

Reliability Analysis

Internal consistency ensures the individual items of a scale measure the same concept and are highly correlated (Joseph Hair et al., 2010). In this study, reliability analysis was executed to determine the internal consistency of a scale used in the study. This occurred by extending it to a variable or set of variables, which was consistent with what it intended to measure. In other words, reliability indicated the stability and consistency by which the survey questionnaire measured the construct and helped assess the goodness of the measure (J. F. Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006; Sekaran & Bougie, 2003). For the purpose of this study, Cronbach's Alpha was used as a reliability coefficient to indicate how well the items in the set were positively correlated to one another. The closer Cronbach's Alpha is to 1.0, the higher the internal consistency and reliability of the items measured. Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was used in this study for testing the reliability of the questionnaire measures. The cut off point for the reliability coefficient adopted in this study was 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978), but Ary, Jacobs, Razaveigh, and Sorensen (2006) indicated an alternative coefficient of 0.50 and above as acceptable for exploratory research (Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh, & Sorensen, 2006). Hair et al. (2010) argued that, preferably, a coefficient should be 0.70 or higher, but Sekaran (2000) offered yet another value by suggesting that 0.60 is the lowest acceptable reliability coefficient (Sekaran, 2000). Therefore, a coefficient of 0.7 or higher was accepted for this study.

Correlation Analysis

In this study, bivariate correlation was used and the Pearson correlation method was performed to explain the relationship between variables regarding both strength and direction. A Pearson correlation matrix provides a correlation coefficient (r) and indicates the coefficient's estimate of linear association based on the sampling data (Sekaran & Bougie, 2003). Correlation coefficient (r) may show a positive (+) or a negative (-) sign. This indicates that the direction of the relationship and its value can vary from +1 to -1, with +1 representing a perfect positive relationship, 0 representing no relationship, and -1 indicating a perfect negative (J. F. Hair et al., 2006). However, the value of the coefficient does not indicate that one variable would affect another. For example, a correlation of 0.30 shows a weak positive correlation and 0.80 shows a strong positive correlation between two variables (Aczel, 2000). Cooper and Schinder (2001) added that a correlation, at an 0.80 or greater, is considered high level and suggests multicollinearity. In this study, a correlation of 0.30 was considered a low correlation, while 0.80 was considered a high correlation (Cooper & Schindler, 2001).

Logistic Regression Analysis and Multi-group Analyses

One of the main focuses of this study was to determine the proportion of variance explained in the dependent variable by the independent variables. These independent variables included major of study, household size, marital status, and age. Using a multiple logistic regression analysis, the relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variable can be considered in terms of strength of relationship. The researcher used multi-group analyses (MGA) in WarpPLS 6.0. MGA as a type of moderator analysis between two categorical variables (e.g.,

city). The MGA moderator analysis relies on bootstrapping and permutation procedures (Hair Jr, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Gudergan, 2017). Accordingly, PLS-SEM is a multistage procedure which requires the following steps: (a) specify the structural model, (b) specify the measurement models, (c) collect and examine data, (e) estimate the path model, (f) assess results of the measurement models, (g) assess results of structural models, (h) utilize advanced PLS-SEM analyses, and (h) interpret results to develop conclusions (Joe Hair, Hollingsworth, Randolph, & Chong, 2017).

Interview Data Analysis

To answer the third research question and to understand the challenges and perceptions of the participants, who are the unemployed women in Riyadh and Tabuk, the interview data was collected and analyzed. The data was then prepared for content analysis. Congruent with thematic data analyses frameworks described by Krueger (2014), the data was transcribed verbatim, analyzed, and categorized (Creswell, 2014). To ensure trustworthiness of the data, an audit trail (Hycner, 1985) included: (a) the original audio recordings of their voices; (b) transcribed; and (c) copies of documents, researcher interpretation of each statement, and identified meanings of the statements.

Ratio of Cases to Independent Variable

The general rule for sample size is five observations for each independent variable or for each studied variable. However, Hair et al. (2010) indicated that the desired level is at least 10 observations (Joseph Hair et al., 2010). For example, for a study with five variables, usable data from 500 respondents are more than sufficient to meet this criterion (Field, 2000; J. F. Hair et al., 2006).

Outliers

Outliers are observations that are flawed representations of the sample population and should be removed from the analysis, as they may have considerable impact on the regression solution. Statistical methods such as case wise diagnostics, Mahalanobis, and COVRATIO can detect the outliers during the regression analysis process (Joseph Hair et al., 2010). However, in this study, case wise diagnostics and COVRATIO ($1+3p/n$) were used because they provided clearer results than the other methods. Case wise diagnostics marks observations that have been misclassified and are not representative of the group members, thus improving predictive accuracy. Meanwhile, COVRATIO improves the efficiency of the estimation process by considering all coefficients collectively rather than individually (Joseph Hair et al., 2010).

Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity occurs when high correlations between independent variables are included in the same regression model, which can cause problems for regression analysis by reducing a single independent variable's predictive power. With intercorrelations of greater than 0.90, multicollinearity is said to occur when the tolerance value is <0.10 or $Vif > 10$ (Joseph Hair et al., 2010).

Autocorrelation

Autocorrelation analyses for correlation between errors at t period and $t-1$ in a linear regression model is typically determined by the Durbin-Watson (DW) test. For instance, there is no autocorrelation if the DW test value is greater than 1.76 ($n=100$, significant level at 0.05, DW test for $k=4$, $du = 1.76$). Autocorrelation is normally used to test time series data, so this study did not consider this assumption.

Normality, Linearity, Homoscedasticity

Every variable and all linear combinations of variables should be normally distributed. The histogram of the normal probability plot is used to determine the normal distribution of the data by visually checking on the estimation of the differences between the observed and predicted dependent variable scores. When distribution is normal, the value of skewness and Kurtosis should be close to zero. The relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable is linear. Linearity is assessed by examining the scatter plots of the variables for the existence of any nonlinear pattern in the data.

A linear relationship is depicted by a straight line on the scatter plot. In this study, standardized residual plots were plotted against predicted values using an SPSS plot. The assumption of homoscedasticity is that the variance of the dependent variable is approximately the same at different levels of the explanatory variable (Joseph Hair et al., 2010). Homoscedasticity is examined by visual inspection of the scatter plot of regression residuals.

Conclusion

This chapter encompassed the methodology adapted for this research study. It explained the research design and the processes involved, such as defining the model variables, population and sampling, the procedures for collecting data, measures, and data analyses such as descriptive statistics, reliability, and multi-group analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

Introduction

This study investigated the proportion of variance explained in the dependent variable by the independent variables, which included major of study, household size, marital status, and age. Using multiple logistic regression analysis, the relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variable was considered regarding the strength of the relationship. Additionally, this study sought to use MGA in WarpPLS 6.0. MGA as a type of moderator analysis between two categorical variables (e.g., city). The MGA moderator analysis relies on bootstrapping and permutation procedures. This chapter presents the results of the data analysis for the three stated research questions.

First, descriptive statistics were reported for independent variables and the subject, which was followed by the results of Chi-Square test, the logistic regression and multigroup tests. The findings are presented in accordance with the three research questions. A Chi-Square analysis was used to answer question one, which was: “What is the difference in between the rate of women unemployment in Tabuk compared to the rate of women unemployment in Riyadh? Logistic regression was used to answer question two, which was: “To what extent, if any, does a relationship exist between the rate of women unemployment, their choice of major in higher level education, their age, their marital status, and their number of children.?”

Descriptive Statistics

Data Screening

Before proceeding with data analysis, it is important to assess the statistical assumptions that would support the authenticity of the results. The data screening process also involved identifying any missing values, a valid sample size, non-response bias and outliers.

Missing data

A typical preliminary step in data analysis is ridding the data of the responses with missing data. In this study, three respondents did not complete the survey after the demographic section. Thus, those three respondents were removed from the dataset and, consequently, were also removed from the data analysis. In other cases where the missing data was trivial, the mean replacement option was used. In total, three of the cases were removed, leaving 365 cases available for data analysis.

Non-Response bias

Non-response bias had a large influence on the sample size in this study. In total, the survey was sent to an initial population of 600. Of that population, only 368 responded. Of those 368 respondents, only 365 fully completed the survey with no missing data.

Sample size

All of the data was collected and exported from a Google document into an Excel spreadsheet. It was then imported and processed in the WarpPLS™ software as well as the SPSS software. This was useful because the WarpPLS™ software can determine the sample size using the inverse square root and gamma exponential methods (Kock, 2017). Moreover, the SPSS software was useful because it helped determine the sample size using an alternative method called G*Power. The inverse square root and gamma exponential methods demonstrated that the response rate was at (N=160). The statistical power $1 - \beta$ was found as a function of the sample size, the significance level, and the population effect size. Furthermore, the findings of the G*Power analysis estimated the response rates were approximately (N=200).\

The Quantitative Data

Table 2 displays the percentage of women who were employed and unemployed in the study. The percentage of women who were employed is 58.6%.

Table 2: Participant's employment status

	What is your employment status?			
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Employed	214	58.6	58.6	58.6
Unemployed	151	41.4	41.4	100.0
Total	365	100.0	100.0	

Demographic Variables

Demographic variables provide relevant information regarding the types of women from the two different cities in this study. These data included place of residence, marital status, number of children, their age group and the participant's age.

Table 3 displays the percentage of women living in Tabuk and Riyadh who participated in this study. The percentage of women living in Tabuk was 54.3% compared to the percentage of women living in Riyadh which was 45.7%.

Table 3: Unemployed participant's place of residence

	In which city do you reside?			
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Tabuk	82	54.3	54.3	54.3
Riyadh	69	45.7	45.7	100.0
Total	151	100.0	100.0	

The marital status of the women participants is displayed in Table 4. The majority of the women in the sample, 73%, were married. This reflected the Saudi social and cultural system which has a tendency towards early marriages, while 21.6% of the women were single, and only 5.5% were divorced or widowed.

Table 4: Participant's marital status

What is your marital status?				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Married	266	72.9	72.9	72.9
Single	79	21.6	21.6	94.5
Divorced	17	4.7	4.7	99.2
Widowed	3	0.8	0.8	100.0
Total	365	100.0	100.0	

Table 5 displays the percentage of women in the study who had no children, one child, two children, or three or more children. The percentage of women with no children was 27.4% compared to women with one child or more, which was 73.6%.

Table 5: Participant's number of children

How many children do you have, if any?				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
No children	100	27.4	27.4	27.4
One child	33	9.0	9.0	36.4
Two children	55	15.1	15.1	51.5
Three or more	177	48.5	48.5	100.0
Total	365	100.0	100.0	

Table 6 exhibits the percentage of women who have children under school age. Women with child under the age of five constitute 43.3% of the study sample. The percentage of women with no children under the age of five was 56.5% compared to the percentage of women with one child under the age of five, which was 29.5%. Moreover, the percentage of women with two

children under the age of five was 11.6% compared to the percentage of women with three or more children under the age of school in this study, which was 2.5%.

Table 6: Participant’s number of children under the age of five

		How many children do you have under the age of five, if any?			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No children	205	56.2	56.5	56.5
	One child	107	29.3	29.5	86.0
	Two children	42	11.5	11.6	97.5
	Three or more	9	2.5	2.5	100.0
	Total	363	99.5	100.0	
Missing	99	2	0.5		
	Total	365	100.0		

Table 7 displays the percentage of women who belonged to differing age groups, ranging from younger than or 25 years old to 56 years and older in this study. The percentage of women who were 25 years old or younger in this study was 11.5%. The women between ages 26 and 35 years old was 41.6%. Women between 36 to 45 years old was 35.6%. Further women between 46 to 55 years old was 10.4%. Lastly, the women who were 56 years or older was 0.5%. The majority of participants belonged to the age group ranging from 26 to 45 years old, which constituted 77.2% of the participants in this study.

Table 7: Participant's age

		To what age group do you belong?			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Younger than 25 years old	42	11.5	11.5	11.5
	26-35 years old	152	41.6	41.8	53.3
	36-45 years old	130	35.6	35.7	89.0
	46-55 years old	38	10.4	10.4	99.5
	56 years and older	2	0.5	0.5	100.0
	Total	364	99.7	100.0	
Missing	99	1	0.3		
	Total	365	100.0		

Educational Major of Participants

This section presents the educational attainment levels of the respondents according to their subjects of study. Education is an investment which requires a good system within which to function. The educational system in Saudi Arabia can be characterized as heavily biased towards the arts and literature. Al-Dehailan (2007) found that most of the respondents chose education rather than science as a college major. In Saudi Arabia, women students enroll in the field of education, likely because of the lack of other options and, most importantly, because it provides the most job opportunities which are also accepted by society (Al-Dehailan, 2007). Table 8 shows the percentage of women majoring in different disciplines. The most frequent majors among the participants were Chemistry, Islamic studies, Arabic language and Economics. Therefore, it is understood that there were no biases toward specific subject areas at the time of this study.

Table 8: Participant's major in higher level education

		What is your major?			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Chemistry	44	12.1	12.1	12.1
	Mathematics	23	6.3	6.3	18.4
	Nursing	1	0.3	0.3	18.7
	Geography	9	2.5	2.5	21.2
	Education Technology	5	1.4	1.4	22.5
	English Language	15	4.1	4.1	26.6
	Computer Science	22	6.0	6.0	32.7
	Islamic Studies	52	14.2	14.3	47.0
	Psychology	5	1.4	1.4	48.4
	Marketing	3	0.8	0.8	49.2
	Education of Kindergarten	7	1.9	1.9	51.1
	Biology	25	6.8	6.9	58.0
	Medicine	2	0.5	0.5	58.5
	Physics	15	4.1	4.1	62.6
	Agriculture	11	3.0	3.0	65.7
	Laboratory Science	3	0.8	0.8	66.5
	Pharmacy	1	0.3	0.3	66.8
	Arabic Language	35	9.6	9.6	76.4
	History	17	4.7	4.7	81.0
	Special Education	4	1.1	1.1	82.1

		What is your major?			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Law	11	3.0	3.0	85.2
	Economics	35	9.6	9.6	94.8
	Management	2	0.5	0.5	95.3
	Engineering	1	0.3	0.3	95.6
	Art	11	3.0	3.0	98.6
	Social	3	0.8	0.8	99.5
	Accounting	2	0.5	0.5	100.0
	Total	364	99.7	100.0	
Missing	99	1	0.3		
	Total	365	100		

Family Characteristics

This section analyses the family characteristics in terms of accommodation status, education of mother and father, jobs of father and mother.

Considering the respondents among the Saudi women, 52.6% owned their own property (Table 9). In the rental accommodation category, 39.5% of the respondents lived in rental accommodations. Moreover, a lesser percentage of women from the sample received accommodations from the government (7.9%).

Table 9: Participant's housing status

	What is your housing status?			
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Own	192	52.6	52.6	52.6
Rent	144	39.5	39.5	92.1
Utilize state accommodations	29	7.9	7.9	100.0
Total	365	100.0	100.0	

Education level of parents

Table 10 displays the percentage of the participants' fathers' highest level of education. These classifications include unknown (3.8%), illiterate (17.0%), elementary school (39.2%), secondary school (17.8%), high school diploma (3.3%), some post-secondary school (5.2%), Bachelor's degree (10.4%), Master's degree (1.6%), or Doctoral degree (1.6%).

Table 10: Participant’s father’s highest level of education

	What is your father’s highest level of education?			
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Unknown	14	3.8	3.8	3.8
Illiterate	62	17.0	17.0	20.8
Elementary school	143	39.2	39.2	60.0
Secondary school	65	17.8	17.8	77.8
High school diploma	12	3.3	3.3	81.1
Some post-secondary school	19	5.2	5.2	86.3
Bachelor’s degree	38	10.4	10.4	96.7
Master’s degree	6	1.6	1.6	98.4
Doctoral degree	6	1.6	1.6	100.0
Total	365	100.0	100.0	

Table 11 displays the percentage of the participants’ mothers’ highest level of education. Similar to table 10, it displays the percentage of women’s mother’s highest level of education, which include the following categories: unknown (0.5%), illiterate (43.3%), Elementary school (32.1%), Secondary school (11.0%), High school diploma (1.1%), some post-secondary school (3.3%), Bachelor’s degree (7.4%), Master’s degree (0.8%), or Doctoral degree (0.5%) in the study.

Table 11: Participant’s mother’s highest level of education

	What is your mother’s highest level of education?			
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Unknown	2	0.5	0.5	0.5
Illiterate	158	43.3	43.3	43.8
Elementary school	117	32.1	32.1	75.9
Secondary school	40	11.0	11.0	86.8
High school diploma	4	1.1	1.1	87.9
Some post-secondary school	12	3.3	3.3	91.2
Bachelor’s degree	27	7.4	7.4	98.6
Master’s degree	3	0.8	0.8	99.5
Doctoral degree	2	0.5	0.5	100.0
Total	365	100.0	100.0	

Job status of parents

Table 12 displays the percentage of the participants’ fathers who work in the public sector (i.e. Education, Healthcare, Law Enforcement, etc.), private sector, are self-employed, are retired, or are unemployed. As is clear from Table 12, the majority of the fathers of the women respondents were retired. The percentage of fathers with jobs is 32.6% for the respective groups, while 6.3% of the fathers of the participants, despite the women being employed or unemployed, re unemployed. However, Table 13 demonstrates that the majority of the mothers of the women respondents were unemployed (82.7%).

Table 12: Participant's father's form of employment

	What type of employment did/does your father have?			
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Public sector	61	16.7	16.7	16.7
Private sector	19	5.2	5.2	21.9
Self-employed	39	10.7	10.7	32.6
Retired	223	61.1	61.1	93.7
Unemployed	23	6.3	6.3	100.0
Total	365	100.0	100.0	

Table 13: Participant's mother's form of employment

	What type of employment did/does your mother have?			
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Public sector	21	5.8	5.8	5.8
Private sector	4	1.1	1.1	6.8
Self-employed	4	1.1	1.1	7.9
Retired	34	9.3	9.3	17.3
Unemployed	302	82.7	82.7	100.0
Total	365	100.0	100.0	

Unemployed Characteristics

The following tables illustrate the descriptive statistics attributed to the population of unemployed participants. Question 14 of the questionnaire asked respondents to state the duration of their unemployment. Table 14 displays that approximately 38% of unemployed women spent about three years or more looking for a job. This indicates the difficulties for women to find a job.

Table 14: Unemployed participants' time spent searching for employment

	How long have you been looking for work?			
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Six months-1 year	22	14.6	14.6	14.6
1-2 years	17	11.3	11.3	25.8
2-3 years	12	7.9	7.9	33.8
3 years and more	57	37.7	37.7	71.5
Non-applicable	43	28.5	28.5	100.0
Total	151	100.0	100.0	

When unemployed women were asked about the reason they didn't have a job, the answer from the majority was that they either lacked the necessary qualifications (about 20.5%) or they relinquished all efforts to find one (21.9%). Having a lack of information was chosen by about 4.6% of the unemployed respondents regarding why they had not found a job. Nearly eight percent (7.9%) of the respondents stated that the main reason they were not employed was because of the poor monthly payments for new graduates. Finally, having responsibilities at home was stated as the main reason for unemployed by 13.9% of the participants (Table 15). These reasons can be related to an influence by social and demographic factors as well. Moreover, only 104 of 151 unemployed participants provided valid responses, with 31.1% of the unemployed participants giving invalid responses or an unmeasurable response.

Table 15: Unemployed participants' reasoning for being unemployed

		Why do you think you do not have a job?			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Inappropriate qualification	31	20.5	29.8	29.8
	Lacking information	7	4.6	6.7	36.5
	Having home responsibilities	21	13.9	20.2	56.7
	The pay is low for a new graduate	12	7.9	11.5	68.3
	You are tired of looking for a job	33	21.9	31.7	100.0
	Total	104	68.9	100.0	
Missing	99	2	1.3		
	System	45	29.8		
	Total	47	31.1		
Total		151	100.0		

Table 16: Unemployed participants' belief regarding the main factor preventing a women's employment exhibits the percentage of unemployed women who believed in different reasons regarding factors which prevented a woman's employment. Nearly 59% of the unemployed women in the study attributed women's unemployment to difficulties finding transportation from one city to another, 6.0% felt that society has a negative attitude towards women working outside of home, 33.8% discussed that available jobs embody a mixed environment with men and, lastly, 1.3% of unemployed women in the study considered their partner or family's attitude regarding employment . The majority of unemployed women believed that the main factor preventing a women's employment was the difficulty attributed to transporting from one city to another.

Table 16: Unemployed participants' belief regarding the main factor preventing a women's employment

		What do you see as the main factor preventing a women's employment?			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Women find it difficult to move from one city to another	89	58.9	58.9	58.9
	Society has a negative attitude towards women working outside of home	9	6.0	6.0	64.9
	Some available jobs are in mixed environment with men	51	33.8	33.8	98.7
	Partner or family attitude	2	1.3	1.3	100.0
	Total	151	100.0	100.0	

Table 17 displays the percentage of unemployed women who believed the factors which encouraged them to seek employment consisted of improving and updating labor legislation (21.2%), providing child-care facilities for women (23.8%), providing transportation for women (25.8%), reducing working hours and offering part-time job opportunities (24.5%), or changing societies attitude towards women in the work force (4.6%). The responses were distributed rather evenly with the exception of changing society's attitude towards women in the work force.

Table 17: Unemployed participants' belief regarding the main factor encouraging their seeking for employment

	What are the factors that encourage your seeking of employment?			
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Improving and updating labor legislation	32	21.2	21.2	21.2
Providing child-care facilities for women	36	23.8	23.8	45.0
Providing transportation for women	39	25.8	25.8	70.9
Reducing working hours and offering part-time job opportunities	37	24.5	24.5	95.4
Changing society's attitude towards women in the work force	7	4.6	4.6	100.0
Total	151	100.0	100.0	

Analyzing Quantitative Data

Chi-Square Test

RQ1: What is the difference between the rate of women unemployment in Tabuk compared to the rate of women unemployment in Riyadh?

Table 18: Participant's current employment status * participant's city of residence Crosstabulation

			Tabuk	Riyadh	Total
Participant's current employment status	Unemployed	Count	82	69	151
		Standardized Residual	-0.3	0.4	
	Employed	Count	124	90	214
		Standardized Residual	0.3	-0.3	
Total	Count	206	159	365	

The Chi-Square statistic results are displayed in Table 19. As a result of constructing the Chi-Square tests on a two by two table (i.e. participants being either unemployed or employed and participants city of residence being either Tabuk or Riyadh), the most meaningful output was the Yate's Correction for Continuity (which compensates for the overestimate of the Chi-Square value when used with a two by two table). The corrected value is 0.340, with an associated significance level of 0.56. Given the significant value is greater than the alpha value of 0.05, it can be concluded that the proportion of unemployed women was not significantly related to the city in which they resided (either Tabuk or Riyadh).

Table 19: Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	0.477 ^a	1	0.490		
Continuity Correction ^b	0.340	1	0.560		
Likelihood Ratio	0.477	1	0.490		
Fisher's Exact Test				0.521	0.280
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.476	1	0.490		
N of Valid Cases	365				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 65.78.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Logistic Regression

RQ2: To what extent, if any, does a relationship exist between the rate of women unemployment, their choice of major, their age, their marital status, and their number of children?

The tables (20-22) displayed how the researcher coded the variables, using 0s and 1s. This assignment of inclusion and exclusion, based on specific variable, allowed SPSS and the logistic regression analysis to provide relevant results attributed to this study.

Table 20: Case processing summary

Unweighted Cases ^a		N	Percent
Selected Cases	Included in Analysis	306	83.8
	Missing Cases	59	16.2
	Total	365	100.0
Unselected Cases		0	0.0
Total		365	100.0

a. If weight is in effect, see classification table for the total number of cases

Table 21: Case processing summary

Original Value	Internal Value
Employed	0
Unemployed	1

Table 22: Categorical variables codings

	Parameter coding				
	Frequency	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Age group					
Younger than 25 years old	37	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
26-35 years old	123	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000
36-45 years old	113	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000
46-55 years old	31	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000
56 and older	2	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Number of children					
No children	85	1.000	0.000	0.000	
One child	25	0.000	1.000	0.000	
Two children	42	0.000	0.000	1.000	
Three or more	154	0.000	0.000	0.000	
Marital status					
Married	220	1.000	0.000	0.000	
Single	68	0.000	1.000	0.000	
Divorced	16	0.000	0.000	1.000	
Widowed	2	0.000	0.000	0.000	
Which factor most influenced your choice of major					
The potential for high social status	62	1.000	0.000	0.000	
Meeting the needs of the job market	54	0.000	1.000	0.000	
Personal interests	138	0.000	0.000	1.000	
Pressure to choose that major	52	0.000	0.000	0.000	

	Parameter coding				
	Frequency	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Number of children under the age of five					
No children	177	1.000	0.000	0.000	
One child	91	0.000	1.000	0.000	
Two children	31	0.000	0.000	1.000	
Three or more	7	0.000	0.000	0.000	
Housing status					
Own	170	1.000	0.000		
Rent	113	0.000	1.000		
Utilize state accommodations	23	0.000	0.000		

The tables (23-25) display the analysis conducted without any of the predictor variables used in the model. This was beneficial given its utilization as a control for later analysis which conducted with the independent variables being used in the model.

Table 23: Classification table

Observed		Predicted			
		Employed	Unemployed	Percent Correct	
Step 0	Participant's	Employed	185	0	100.0
		Unemployed	121	0	0.0
Overall Percentage					60.5

- a. Constant is included in the model.
- b. The cut value is 0.500

Table 24: Variables in the equation

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 0	Constant	-0.425	0.117	13.186	1	0.000	0.654

Table 25: Variables not in the equation

	Variables	Score	df	Sig.
Step 0	Participant's major in higher level education	4.546	1	0.033
	Which one influenced your choice of major	0.715	3	0.870
	The potential for high social status	0.186	1	0.666
	Meeting the needs of the job market	0.039	1	0.843
	Personal interest	0.010	1	0.919
	Participant's marital status	18.563	3	0.000
	Married	15.209	1	0.000
	Single	15.749	1	0.000
	Divorced	0.772	1	0.380
	Participant's number of children	31.590	3	0.000
	No children	23.041	1	0.000
	One child	3.084	1	0.079
	Two or more	0.298	1	0.585
	Participant's number of children under the age of five	1.421	3	0.701
	None	0.226	1	0.634
	One child	0.582	1	0.445
	Two or more	0.010	1	0.920
	Participant's age	60.868	4	0.000
	Younger than/or 25 years old	30.378	1	0.000
	26-35 years old	8.691	1	0.003
	36-45 years old	22.738	1	0.000
	46 and older	12.870	1	0.000
	Participant's housing status	0.836	2	0.658
	Own	0.790	1	0.374
	Rent	0.422	1	0.516
	Overall Statistics	70.707	19	0.000

Block 1: Method = Enter

The type of analysis utilized was logistic regression, which allows one to test models and predict categorical outcomes with a variable number of categories. In this study, the predictor variables (also referred to as independent variables) are of both categorical and continuous. Block 0 produces the results of the analysis without taking into account the independent variables. This is useful given it can serve as a control later for comparing the model with one that considers the independent variables. The Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients, also referred to as a ‘goodness of fit’ test, is an indicator of how well the model performs without taking into account any of the independent variables (Table 26). Since the significant value is 0.000, the model is more effective than the one shown in Block 0. Moreover, the chi-square value is 78.104 with 19 degrees of freedom.

Table 26: Omnibus tests of model coefficients

		Chi-squared	df	Sig.
Step 1	Step	78.104	19	0.000
	Block	78.104	19	0.000
	Model	78.104	19	0.000

Within the Table 28, the overall percent of cases that are correctly predicted by the final model, all of which had a problem with unemployment. This percentage has increased from 60.5 for the null model (Table 23) to 71.9 for the full model.

Table 27: Model summary

Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	332.617 ^a	0.225	0.305

- a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 20 because maximum iterations has been reached. Final solution cannot be found

Table 28: Classification table ^a

		Predicted			
		Employed	Unemployed	Percent Correct	
Step 0	Participants	Employed	153	32	82.7
		Unemployed	54	67	55.4
Overall Percentage					71.9

- a. The cut value is 0.500

Table 29 provides valuable information regarding the importance of each independent variable. In this study, there were two significant variables (the participant's major in higher level education and their age). Therefore, the main factors determining whether a woman is unemployed or not is their major of study in higher level education and their age. Moreover, the 0.036 B value for the participant's major in higher level education variable indicated that women who majored in accounting and social work in higher level education were more likely to be unemployed. The negative B values for the participants' age variables further indicated that, as a women's age decreases (or a woman belongs to a younger age group), the more likely they were to be unemployed. The odds ratio values in Table 29 also provide useful information from the analysis. The odds ratio value for the participants' major predictor was 1.04, which indicated that the more women who majored in accounting and social studies (geography and history), the more likely

they were to be unemployed. For every increase in the category of major of study, the odds of the participant being unemployed increased by a factor of 1.04. The odds ratio value for the participant's age predictor was 0.

Table 29: Variables in the equation

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp B	Lower	Upper
Major in higher level education	0.036	0.018	3.919	1	0.048	1.036	1.000	1.074
Which one influenced your choice of major?			0.814	3	0.846			
The potential for high social status	0.072	0.455	0.025	1	0.875	1.074	0.441	2.620
Meeting the needs of the job market	0.387	0.465	0.694	1	0.405	1.473	0.592	3.662
Personal interest	0.167	0.394	0.179	1	0.673	1.181	0.545	2.560
Marital status			1.099	3	0.777			
Married	20.656	24532.204	0.000	1	0.999	9.347×10 ⁸	0.000	
Single	20.096	24532.204	0.000	1	0.999	5.339×10 ⁸	0.000	
Divorced	20.873	24532.204	0.000	1	0.999	1.162×10 ⁹	0.000	
Number of children			3.094	3	0.377			
No children	0.859	0.694	1.534	1	0.215	2.361	0.606	9.197
One child	0.673	0.535	1.580	1	0.209	1.959	0.686	5.592
Two or more	-0.107	0.457	0.055	1	0.815	0.898	0.367	2.201

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	Lower	Upper
Children under the age of five			1.458	3	0.692			
None	-1.008	0.886	1.297	1	0.255	0.365	0.064	2.069
One child	-1.014	0.854	1.412	1	0.235	0.363	0.068	1.932
Two or more	-0.911	0.931	0.956	1	0.328	0.402	0.065	2.496
Participant's age			21.547	4	0.000			
Younger than/or 25 years old	-19.576	28360.160	0.000	1	0.999	0.000	0.000	
26-35 years old	-20.934	28360.160	0.000	1	0.999	0.000	0.000	
36-45 years old	-22.082	28360.160	0.000	1	0.999	0.000	0.000	
46 or older	-23.027	28360.160	0.000	1	0.999	0.000	0.000	
Participant's housing status			1.037	2	0.595			
Own	0.271	0.541	0.251	1	0.616	1.312	0.454	3.791
Rent	-0.029	0.556	0.003	1	0.958	0.971	0.327	2.886
Constant	0.322	37498.270	0.000	1	1.000	1.380		

- a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Participant's choice of major, which factor influenced participant's choice of major, participant's marital status, participant's number of children, participant's number of children under the age of five, participant's age group, participant's housing status

Multi Group Analysis

The path coefficients in Figure 5 reflected a positive, weak, and nonlinear relationship between the participant's housing status and the participant's belief regarding the main factor preventing a woman's employment ($\beta = 0.03$, $p = 0.37$). This was between the participants' marital statuses and the participants' beliefs regarding the main factor preventing a woman's employment ($\beta = 0.09$, $p = 0.13$). These path coefficients were not statistically significant because their respective p-values were greater than the alpha value of 0.05. The path coefficients reflected a negative, weak, and nonlinear relationship between the participants' ages and the participants' beliefs regarding the main factor preventing a woman's employment ($\beta = -0.21$, $p < 0.01$) This was between each participant's number of children and the participant's belief regarding the main factor preventing a woman's employment ($\beta = -0.18$, $p = 0.01$). These path coefficients were statistically significant because their respective p-values were less than 0.05. Consequently, these results showed that, as the participants' ages increased, the most-likely factor preventing a women's unemployment for the participants is that women find it difficult to transport from one city to another. Moreover, as the participants' number of children increased, the most-likely factor preventing a participant's unemployment was attributed to their partner or family's attitude. Furthermore, the researcher conducted a MGA to compare pairs of path coefficients for identical models based on two cities. The MGA results indicated that there were statistically significant results between Riyadh and Tabuk, considering the participants' beliefs regarding the main factor preventing a women's employment and marital status ($\beta = 0.151$, $p < 0.05$). Moreover, there were statistically significant results between Riyadh and Tabuk considering the participants' beliefs

regarding the main factor preventing a woman's employment and their housing status ($\beta = 0.204$, $p < 0.00$).

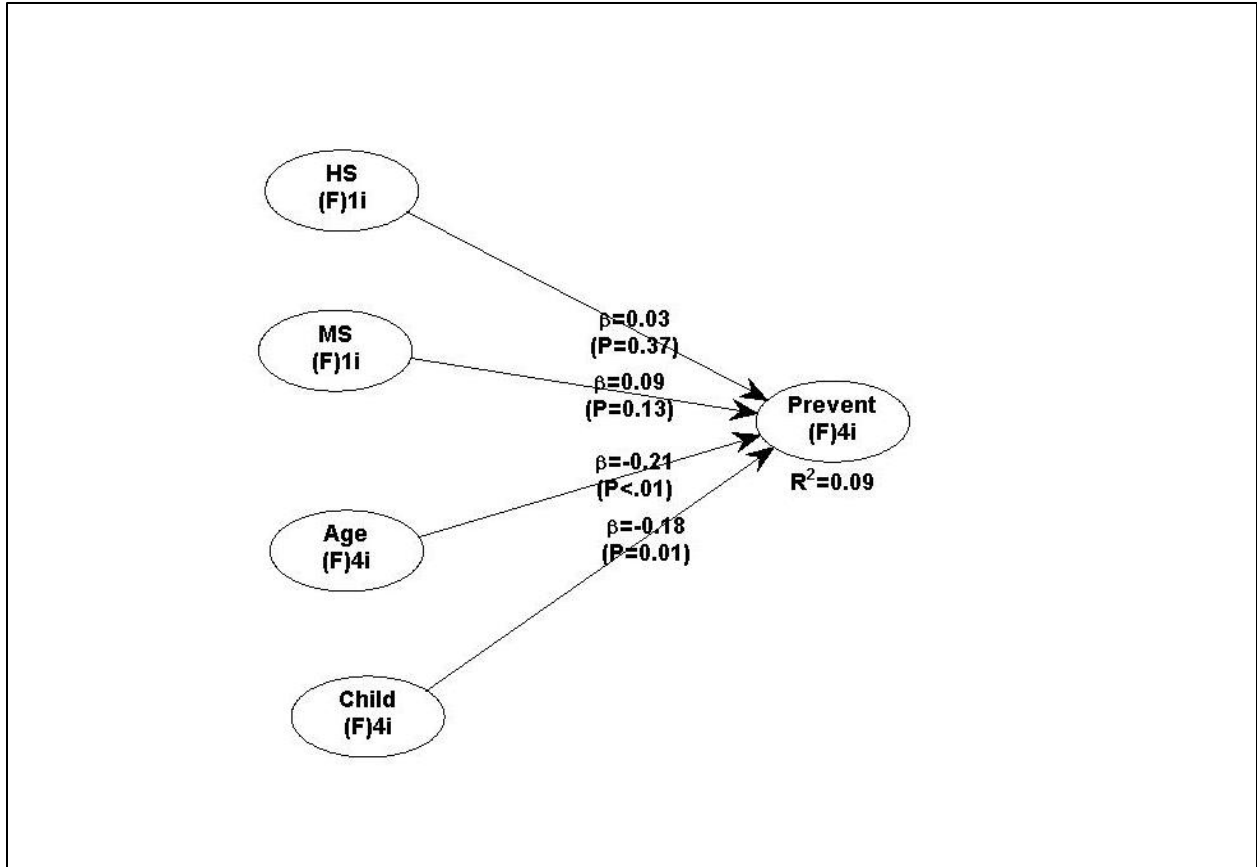


Figure 5: Model 1

The path coefficients in Figure 6 reflected a positive, weak, and nonlinear relationship between each participant's housing status and the participant's belief regarding the reason for their unemployment ($\beta = 0.05$, $p = 0.38$), between the participant's age and the participant's belief regarding the reason for their unemployment ($\beta = 0.25$, $p < 0.01$) and between the participant's reason for their major of study in higher level education and the participant's belief regarding the reason for their unemployment ($\beta = 0.14$, $p = 0.04$). The path coefficient for the first relationship was not statistically significant because its p-value was greater than 0.05. The path coefficients for the second and third relationships were statistically significant because their p-values were less than 0.05. The path coefficients reflected a negative, weak, and nonlinear relationship between the participants' marital statuses and the participants' beliefs regarding the reason for their unemployment ($\beta = -0.07$, $p = 0.19$), and between the participant's number of children and the participants' beliefs regarding the reason for their unemployment ($\beta = -0.05$, $p = 0.27$). These path coefficients were not statistically significant because their respective p-values were greater than 0.05. Consequently, these results showed that, as the participant's age increased, the most-likely reason for their unemployment, according to them, was a result of inappropriate qualifications. Moreover, the participants whose major of study was influenced by pressure to select that major were more likely to be unemployed because they were tired of searching for employment. The MGA results indicated that there were statistically significant results between Riyadh and Tabuk regarding the participants' beliefs regarding the reason for their unemployment and their age ($\beta = 0.14$, $p = 0.04$).

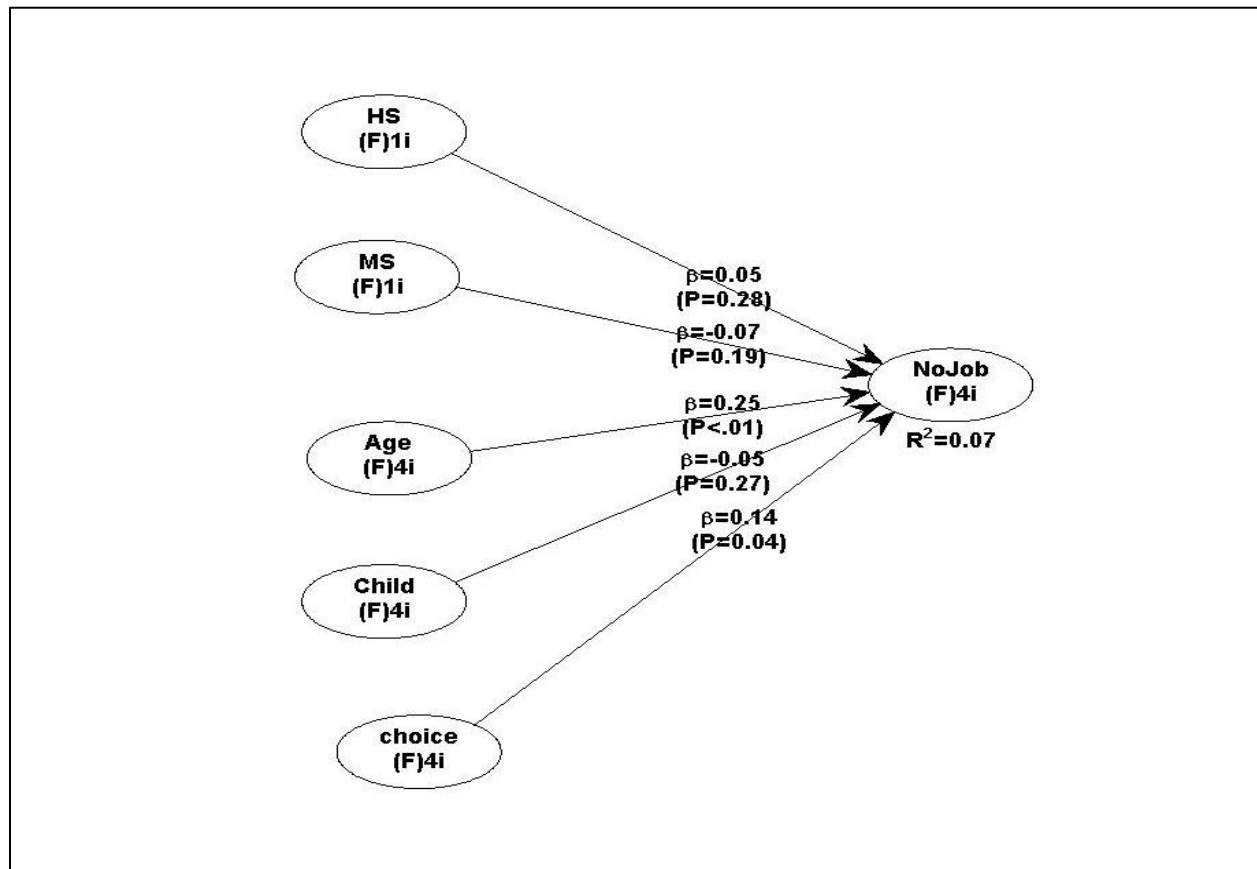


Figure 6: Model 2

Analyzing Qualitative Data

In the qualitative method of this study, a comprehensive interview was conducted with eight women who were unemployed in Saudi Arabia. They were approached using different communication channels. Some participants were personal contacts within the author's network and the other students were recommended by two other interviewees. All interviews were conducted in Arabic and were voice recorded. The interviewees were assured of anonymity and gave permission to be tape recorded during the interview. Each interview took up to 30 minutes.

Qualitative research analyses typically fall into one of two categories: content or thematic. In content analysis, the researcher evaluates the frequency of certain words or phrases in original text data to identify keywords or repeated ideas. (Dey, 1993).

Zhang and Wildemuth described eight steps for the procedures of content analysis, which was followed in this study (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009):

1. Prepare the data.
2. Define the unit of analysis.
3. Develop categories and a coding scheme.
4. Test the coding scheme on a sample of text.
5. Code all the text.
6. Assess the coding consistency.
7. Draw conclusions from the coded data.
8. Report methods and findings.

When preparing the data, the transcripts of each interview were printed for coding purposes and were not published in this paper. A summary of content analysis data was published in the research thesis report. Each transcript was analyzed separately to maintain focus on the nature of content in the individual interview. The unit of analysis was identified as each individual interview. Each interview may have consisted of a phrase, an incomplete sentence, a complete sentence, or more than one sentence. In this study, the content analysis approach was applied to six transcripts of data retrieved from the interviews. Each interview was analyzed thoroughly and independently of each other.

The ultimate aim of qualitative data analysis is to construct an authentic narration of what surfaced in the study. Creswell (2017) described this process as a ‘challenging task’ because determining the suitable approach for representing data in tables, matrices and narrative form is rather a complicated process (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). Janesick argued, “There is no one best system for analysis” (p. 63) (Janesick, 2010), therefore, it was suggested to follow the conventional strategy described in literature. Creswell (2017) described the general process for qualitative data analysis, which includes—firstly, preparing and organizing the data; secondly, reducing the data into themes through a process of coding and condensing the codes and, finally, representing the data in figures, tables, or discussion (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). One coding system, a common method used to divide texts for meaning, was employed in such process by using short acronyms or phrases emphasized in literature (Creswell & Creswell, 2017) The coding scheme used included the categories defined in the theoretical framework of this research, based on the literature review.

Each interview was considered as a separate case study. To draw conclusions from the coded data, the categorical data from each interview were presented in frequency distribution tables in the analysis of findings section. Firstly, data were examined with a focus on each interview. Secondly, data were examined in a holistic manner, as major themes became evident in the transcript of each interview, and the key words were counted in each interview. Thirdly, all related keywords from all interviews were counted in their entirety.

All data from each interview were coded, considering the three categories of barriers, increased employment rate and environment. Text samples were included in these results to indicate the various categories of barriers, opportunity and environment which were identified throughout this analysis.

The information from the quantitative data was integrated according to the research factors, and later, compared with the qualitative data to reach a comprehensive understanding on the research questions.

Findings of Qualitative Data

The interview with the postgraduate students consisted of three main questions. The interview questions were divided to three sections. Section one question inquired about barriers, section two discussed the factors which increase the employment rate and, finally, section three was designed to explore the factors which influence the employment rate in Riyadh and Tabuk.

The archived transcripts were retrieved from each of the conversations in the eight interviews. Content analysis was applied to the code patterns of the three categories based on the indicators defined in the research framework and literature. The findings for each of the eight

interviews are reported here regarding participant information as well as detailed results for each category into separate frequency distribution tables. Specific information for each category is further explained as it pertains to each interview.

For example, the barriers were indicated in the following line from a participant:

“I expect that most of problems related society such as norms and traditional which prevent gender mix, they believes that the women must settle in their homes, the second obstacle is parity, and home responsibilities , as we know that home responsibilities and kids care in Saudi Arabia considered main of task for women, that's make the women preferred to stay homes because they can't do control on job requirements.”

Table 30-32 below provide detailed information for each category of barriers, sources that increase the employment rate in Saudi Arabia, and the suggestion to increase the employment rate of the two cities.

Table 30: The barriers that prevent women from participating in jobs.

Total cases	Frequency
Traditional Society	17
Transportation	14
Daycare	9
Children	6
Home Responsivities	5
Qualification	5

Table 31: The factors increase the employment rate of women in Saudi Arabia

Total cases	Frequency
Environment	6
Private Sector	6
Economic	7

Table 32: The suggestion to increase the employment rate of women in Riyadh and Tabuk

Total cases	Frequency
Environment	6
Private Sector	6
Economic	5



Figure 7: The challenges faced by unemployed women in Tabuk and Riyadh

In this research, qualitative data analysis was conducted to confirm the quantitative results of this study, and as it was revealed, the result of the qualitative data complemented the quantitative findings.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Introduction

This chapter begins with a reiteration of the purpose, research questions, and methodology of the study. This is followed by a presentation of the findings. Finally, the results of the study are presented as a comparison to the current literature regarding the subject.

Problem Statement

The purpose of this study was to explore and understand the unemployment rate of women in Saudi Arabia. This study considered different factors such as major of study, age, marital status, and household size by region. Furthermore, this study explored the obstacles faced by unemployed women in Tabuk and Riyadh. Data was collected for this study using both a survey and semi-structured interview.

Discussion and Implications of Findings

This study was guided by the following research questions:

What is the difference between the rate of women unemployment in Tabuk compared to the rate of women unemployment in Riyadh?

What is the effect of age, marital status, major of study, and household size on the women unemployment rates in Tabuk and Riyadh?

What are the challenges faced by unemployed women in Tabuk and Riyadh?

The study results of the Chi-Square statistic showed a corrected value of 0.340, with an associated significance level of 0.56. Given the significant value was greater than the alpha value of 0.05, we concluded that the proportion of women who were unemployed was not significantly related to the city in which they reside (either Tabuk or Riyadh). Saudi Arabia implemented a 2013 amnesty program which allowed 4.7 million foreign workers to regularize their statuses while another approximately 1 million workers were left in the kingdom (De Bel-Air, 2014). The execution of this program seemed to have been a potential solution when determining the reason for a gap in employment for women between Tabuk and Riyadh. However, it is also understood that there are reliable differences between the employment rate of women in Riyadh and women in Tabuk.

Though the population of Tabuk is not completely comparable to that of Riyadh, there is much to be learned from understanding the opportunities for women in Riyadh. These results can be adjusted and applied to the city of Tabuk to enrich and lessen the gap. The government of Saudi Arabia is responsible for the policies that led to the country's labor laws. The increase in oil from 1970s to the 1980s encouraged the Saudi government to find foreign alternatives for labor to expand its excelling oil industry. The oil industry brought with it an abundance wealth and revenue, resulting in the demand for schools, hospitals and other institutions. This was because the local citizens were not skilled enough to keep these establishments alive. Saudi employers found it far less expensive and easy to seek blue-collar workers and professionals as opposed to locals who would be less profitable to train (Al-Gabbani, 2009). This transformed Saudi Arabia into "one of the world's major destinations for international migrants and ranks 5th among the world's top ten countries with the largest foreign population" (Al-Gabbani, 2009).

Saudi government policies also deterred the employment of its citizens. “Prior to 1984, Saudi graduates were forbidden to be employed in the private sector and had to work in the government sector, since they were financed and sponsored by the government” (Torofdar & Yunggar, 2012). The critical challenge associated with the unemployment spike was the existence of foreign workers in a nation that originated decades ago. Similar to other countries that had a sudden discovery of minerals and other commodities, “Saudi Arabia suffered from the Dutch disease, which is increasing dependency on the natural resources and the massive inflow of foreign assistance” (Alfawaz, Hilal, & Alghannam, 2014). The tradition of importing foreign workers extended until approximately the 2000s, which was when the government implemented policies such as Saudization – a concept with a goal to replace the multinational workforce into a dominantly Saudi national workforce. As a part of the efforts to reduce national unemployment, the government implemented a policy dedicated to deporting illegal foreign workers.

The second research question for this study was: What is the effect of age, marital status, major of study, and household size on the women unemployment rates in Tabuk and Riyadh?

The results of this study showed that there were two significant variables (the participant’s major in higher level education and their age). Therefore, the main factors which determined whether a woman would be unemployed or not was their major of study in higher level education and their age. Moreover, the 0.036 B value for the participants ‘majors in higher level education variable indicated that women who majored in accounting and social studies (geography and history) in higher level education are more likely to be unemployed. The negative B values for the participants’ age variables further indicated that as a women’s age decreases (or a woman belongs to a younger age group), they are more likely to be unemployed.

Although the unemployment gap between males and women who are has decreased over time, the percentage of unemployed women with a university education increased from 39.1 % in 1999 to 73.9% in 2012 (Nurunnabi, 2017). The lack of qualifications as a result of higher-level education created a problem for Saudi employment efforts. Saudi students' choices of major in higher level education were not attributed to critical sectors for national development. There was a great concentration in majors such as the arts, education and religious studies as opposed to more STEM orientated majors such as the sciences and technology. Ramadi (2010) explained that “a very small percentage of Saudi students that graduate possess the necessary and/or technical training skills needed to meet private-sector requirements” and as a result, this impacted “labor nationalization which has become extremely difficult to replace skilled foreign workers with Saudi nationals” (Ramady, 2010). In an attempt to resolve this issue, the government launched a large-scale scholarship program designed to assist the country's citizens with professional training.

While the kingdom is home to many privately and publicly-funded institutions, the demand still exceeds the supply in the technical and vocational training sector. Al-Omran (2010) noted, in the case of the government-owned Technical & Vocational Training Corporation, TVTC, “more than 167 thousand candidates applied for seats at TVTC, but only 58% were accepted” in 2007 (Al Omran, 2010). With regards to the women population understanding the Saudi labor market gender segmentation, AlMunajed (2010) contended that the “Saudi educational system simply is not providing girls with the skills and background they need to compete successfully in the labor market” and that the current system does not “sufficiently promote analysis, skills development, problem-solving, communication, and creativity” (Al-Munajjed, 2010).

When the government started implementing policies such as Saudization, the results demonstrated that, although the government believes that Saudization is a step in the right direction, there are potential downsides to the project as well. Given the public sector of the economy is predominantly comprised of Saudis, it forces the economy to rely on the private sector to provide employment opportunities. As a result, the government initiated a localization project which encourages the private sector to employ more of the Saudi nationals. The government supported certain education systems which would increase the viability of Saudis' eligibility and interested in the job market. However, the aims of this project were not in parallel with the required job qualifications to ensure the success of Saudization. Specifically, the majority of the students concentrated in humanitarian, education and healthcare fields— all of which were areas not in high demand within the private sector. This ultimately results in a population which was not fit to replace the expatriate workers. Furthermore, most of the qualified Saudis prefer to work in the public sector of the economy because of higher wages, which deters them from being embodied within the private sector. A majority of these skilled Saudis are average people or are retired, while the social structure limits the feasibility of women finding employment. Overall, it is nearly impossible to achieve and acknowledge the Saudization aims with these apparent obstacles. As a result, Saudization may not be the grand solution to the unemployment problem in the country.

The third research question for this study was: What are the challenges faced by unemployed women in Tabuk and Riyadh?

Interview results indicated that full-time jobs, are considered to be most suitable for women who belong to a younger age group and do not have children. For instance, participant one believed that the most important responsibility of a woman is to spend the majority of her time at home to

ensure a strong connection with the other members of her family. For that reason, she suggested that part-time jobs suit a woman's physical nature and familial commitments. Further, it was mentioned the most glaring obstacle for employed women is to establish a balance of the responsibilities required for their job and responsibilities at home. Maintaining this balance is not an easy task, and everyone has their limits. Participant two posited that relying on housemaids and the introduction and construction of nursery schools would contribute to resolving the issue of balance. Participant three discussed providing public transportation for women from their homes to their jobs because Riyadh is a big city and mobility by private driver is expensive. Additionally, they suggested to develop a strict law of combat harassment in the event the workplace encompasses a mixture between men and women. Most Saudi men do not follow a culture of mixing genders and do not associate with women as colleagues. The participant further suggested, increasing the majors offered in universities to cast a wider net of employment for women. However, participant four claimed that a work and home balance is dependent on the nature of the job along with the number of children the woman possesses. This implies that if a woman has a highly difficult job, more than one child, and no housemaid available to help, balancing her responsibilities would not be very feasible. Coupled with this is a number of employers' mindsets that women are less reliable than men in the work force. For example, some employers often automatically assume that a woman will be regularly absent from work to address familial conflicts or will frequently request maternity leaves. Even if a woman is just as qualified as her male counterpart, she would still need to battle the societal norms formed against her. Participant five declared that Saudi's scholarship for education should encourage women to improve their possibilities of being hired. Participant six suggested creating training programs for women given

the lack in variety of disciplines in Saudi's universities for women. Participant seven recommended providing a healthy work environment which suits the nature of women as well as the suitability of physical income with working hours. They also suggested providing transportation for women from home to work and creating job opportunities for remote work. Participant eight suggested creating part time jobs.

Study Limitations

The sample used in this study was limited to two cities within Saudi Arabia. Thus, the sample was not representative of diverse locations and limits the generalizability of the results across sub-populations. In addition, the sample did not distinguish between several factors that might potentially give a clearer picture of who was surveyed (e.g., husband's approval and full cooperation, housemaids). Nevertheless, the sample may be more representative of a diverse population as the participants enroll large, multi-cultural universities. An additional limitation of the study included the study design. The perception of the women's responsibilities may have been a factor in the results, which could have influenced the findings of the study. Given these limitations, further studies are required to understand the effects of their perceptions of their responsibilities.

Recommendations for Future Research

The role of an Industrial engineer is to distribute job vacancies and specify the kind of jobs available. The ultimate objective of this research was to provide recommendations for the policy makers in Saudi Arabia to aid in achieving the 2030 vision regarding an increased percentage of

women employment in both private and public sectors. Given that childcare and lack of transportation are two of the main factors which prevent Saudi women from engaging in employment, an Industrial Engineer would have several recommendations. First, the researchers should apply linear programming efforts to the study of efficient transportation routes to transfer women from their jobs to their homes and vice versa. Also, it was suggested that this programming could aid the society in building sites for childcare facilities to encourage the women to drop their kids off in safely places.

Conclusion

One major factor which impacts the unemployment rate in Saudi Arabia is the cultural traditions. As stated by AlMunajed (2010), the customs created a “major role in a nation’s economic development, creating a unique set of opportunities and challenges that both inform and constrain labor policy” (Al-Munajjed, 2010). Other social etiquettes practiced by Saudi Arabians also affect employment, such as their guardianship system. The unique methodology behind this system ensures that a woman has a legal male guardian and must obtain permission to pursue whatever jobs they seek. As a society, Saudi Arabia is segregated by gender, especially in schools, workplaces, and other institutions, with changes to this cultural commonality only occurring recently. Beginning in 2005 with the rise of the late King Abdullah, drastic changes were made which was directed for women to obtain more rights and freedom. Comparing statistics from 1992, to those from 2009, the women’s employment rate tripled, going from 5.4% of women being employed to 14.4%.

Multiple policies related to maternity leave and the provision of nurseries were also adopted by the government at the time with the common goal of advocating for a more equal labor force regarding women participation (Eldemerdash, 2014; Lippman, 2012). A royal decree proposed by the late Saudi king in 2012 appointed the rights of women to an elite council, which gives women the ability to suggest but not enforce or even pass laws. This is referred to as the Shura Council or National Consultative Assembly. For the first time in the history of the state, women began to join the Consultative Council. Following the establishment of women in the Council, many laws were introduced related to women's affairs. These laws included the Criminalize Domestic Abuse law passed in 2013, which granted a law license to the first Saudi women lawyer in January of 2014, as well as, the Council's acceptance to consider a petition in favor of women driving rights (Rajkhan, 2014).

Although these accomplishments are astonishing, many feats have yet to be reached regarding the employment of Saudi women. Saudi Arabia still falls behind the other Gulf Cooperation Council countries, even with their conventional and orthodox beliefs. According to research statistics, in 2009, the national women participation rate of Bahrain was 34 percent, Qatar's was 36 percent, Kuwait's was 43 percent, and the United Arab Emirates was 60 percent (Al-Munajjed, 2010). Al-Jarf (1999) found that "90% of women Saudi translators who graduated between 1990 and 1996 are not working as translators" and that many graduates found the available jobs for women to be "unsuitable because of working conditions, stringent qualifications, staff policies, salaries and benefits" (Al-Jarf, 1999). Al-Jarf (1999) continued to stress the fact that many graduate students are bound to their cultural and traditional values which have been instilled throughout their lives and family dynamic to the extent that their careers must conform to unspoken

requirements of culture and tradition. Some participants in the study responded that their families “forbade them to work as translators” (Al-Jarf, 1999).

The study had multiple limitations. One of these limitations was that the credibility of the results could have been influenced by some errors in the sources of information. To improve the overall quality of the research, future research which is conducted should rely on primary sources. Moreover, the research produced from this study split the economy into the major sectors of public and private to create a more accurate and representative depiction of a study subject. However, in the future, studies should be more disaggregated beyond the major sectors to explore the behavior of labor market.

As aforementioned, Saudi women are more inclined to select part-time jobs because of the great degree of family commitments they possess. According to the respondents of the study, women who are above the age of forty and have children should seek part-time jobs. This is due to the pivotal role of a mother within a family dynamic, according to their culture. Also, women are required to take maternity leaves and tend to be victims of certain health problems. Lastly, given the physical nature of women, they often become less productive as they get older.

Study Summary

A disparity exists between men and women’s participation in the labor market due to the increased costs required for employing women. Considering social factors such as custom and tradition, one of the important aspects that increase the unemployment of women, it was noted that the unemployment rate in urban areas is less than rural areas because of their customs and traditions. Further, marital status plays an important role in the women unemployment rate.

Married women tend to be jobless for several reasons (Zaheer & Qaiser, 2016). Taking into account the demographic variable of a woman's education level, we noted that the more highly educated women are, the more likely they are to be open to acquiring new skills and ideas outside of their home. There are many families that believe the women of the household is expected to take care of their school-going children, if they have them (Davey & Davidson, 2000). Today's societal norms, alongside the increasing expenses, cause the lifestyle and mindset of women to change and become one characterized by being encouraged to help their families by seeking employment.

The level of education of Saudi women is correlated to the increase or decrease of their employment rate, where the lowest level of education leads to the lowest participation in the labor force and vice versa (Zaheer & Qaiser, 2016). Moreover, the more educated women become, the more they participate in the labor force, which leads to more positive effects which are likely to be yielded (Saqib, 2016). In addition, the transportation difficulties to and from work still affect the employment rate of women because, despite the fact that Saudi's law allowing women to drive, was effective in 2018, there was still only a small percentage of women who started driving.

Marital status is also pivotal in affecting the employment status of Saudi women. The findings demonstrated that the women who have younger children tend to be unemployed more often than the women who are single (Zaheer & Qaiser, 2016).

APPENDIX A: IRB APPROVAL LETTER



UNIVERSITY OF CENTRAL FLORIDA

Institutional Review Board
FWA00000351
IRB00001138
Office of Research
12201 Research Parkway
Orlando, FL 32826-3246

EXEMPTION DETERMINATION

April 8, 2019

Dear Sultan Almutairi:

On 4/8/2019, the IRB determined the following submission to be human subjects research that is exempt from regulation:

Type of Review:	Initial Study, Category
Title:	The Challenges and Barriers to Employment for Females in Riyadh and Tabuk
Investigator:	Sultan Almutairi
IRB ID:	STUDY00000109
Funding:	None
Grant ID:	None

This determination applies only to the activities described in the IRB submission and does not apply should any changes be made. If changes are made, and there are questions about whether these changes affect the exempt status of the human research, please contact the IRB. When you have completed your research, please submit a Study Closure request so that IRB records will be accurate.

If you have any questions, please contact the UCF IRB at 407-823-2901 or irb@ucf.edu. Please include your project title and IRB number in all correspondence with this office.

Sincerely,

Racine Jacques, Ph.D.
Designated Reviewer

APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire for Employed and Unemployed Women

Regarding the inquiries below, please answer each question to the best of your knowledge.
General Demographic Information:

1. What was your major? Please indicate it below.

2. Please select all factors which influenced your choice of major.
 - a. The potential for high social status
 - b. Meeting the needs of the job market
 - c. Personal interest
 - d. Pressure to choose that major
 - e. Other: Please indicate your reason for choosing your major, below:

3. In which city do you live?
 - a. Tabuk
 - b. Riyadh
4. What is your current job status?
 - a. Unemployed.
 - b. Employed.
5. What is your marital status?
 - a. Married
 - b. Single
 - c. Divorced
 - d. Widowed
6. How many children do you have, if any?
 - a. No children
 - b. One child
 - c. Two children
 - d. Three or more children
7. How many children do you have under the age of five?
 - a. None
 - b. One
 - c. Two
 - d. Three or more

8. To what age group do you belong?
- a. Younger than 25 years old
 - b. 26-35 years old
 - c. 36-45 years old
 - d. 46-55 years old
 - e. 56 and older

Familial Information

9. *What is your housing status?*
- a. Own
 - b. Rent
 - c. Utilize state accommodations
-

10. *What is your father's highest level of education?*
- a. Unknown
 - b. Illiterate
 - c. Elementary School
 - d. Secondary School
 - e. High School Diploma
 - f. Some post-secondary School
 - g. Bachelor's Degree
 - h. Master's Degree
 - i. Doctoral Degree

11. *What is your mother's highest level of education?*
- a. Unknown
 - b. Illiterate
 - c. Elementary School
 - d. Secondary School
 - e. High School Diploma
 - f. Some post-secondary School
 - g. Bachelor's Degree
 - h. Master's Degree
 - i. Doctoral Degree

12. *What type of employment does/did your father have?*
- a. Public sector (i.e. Education, Healthcare, Law Enforcement, etc.)
 - b. Private sector
 - c. Self-employed
 - d. Retired
 - e. Unemployed

13. *What type of employment does/did your mother have?*
- a. Public sector (i.e. Education, Healthcare, Law Enforcement, etc.)
 - b. Private sector
 - c. Self-employed
 - d. Retired
 - e. Unemployed

Unemployed women

14. *How long have you been looking for work?*
- a. Six months -1 year
 - b. 1-2 years
 - c. 2-3 years
 - d. More than 3 years
 - e. Not Applicable

15. *What is the minimum monthly payment you require to accept work?*
- a. 1,000 or less SR
 - b. 1,001 – 2,000 SR
 - c. 2,001 – 3,000 SR
 - d. 3,001 – 4,000 SR
 - e. 4,001 – 5,000 SR
 - f. 5,001 or more

16. *Why do you think you don't have a job?*
- a. Inappropriate qualifications
 - b. Lack of information
 - c. Having home responsibilities
 - d. The pay is too low for a new graduate
 - e. You are tired of looking for a job
 - f. Not applicable

17. *What do you see as the main factors preventing a women's employment?*

- a. Women find it difficult to move from one city to another
- b. Society has a negative attitude towards women working outside home
- c. Some available jobs are in mixed environment with men
- d. Partner or family attitude

Other: Please indicate the main factors you feel prevent a woman's employment:

18. *What are the factors, which would encourage your seeking employment?*

- a. Improving and updating labor legislation
- b. Providing child-care facilities for women
- c. Providing transportation for women
- d. Reducing working hours and offering part-time job opportunities
- e. Changing society's attitudes towards women who are working
- f. Other: Please list any factors which would encourage your seeking employment:

Employed Women

19. *What are the factors encouraging you to seek work?*

- a. Cultural and social needs
- b. To help financially support my family
- c. Personal financial needs
- d. Support the societal economy
- e. To fill leisure time
- f. Other: Please indicate the most influential factor encouraging you to seek work, below:

- g. I am unemployed

20. *What are the influences that led to the acceptance of your current employment? Please indicate all which apply.*

- a. Good monthly payment
- b. Acceptable location
- c. Interest in the work
- d. Suitable to my background experience
- e. No choice
- f. I am unemployed

21. *Is the salary of your job important to your decision to work?*

- a. Yes, it is important.
- b. No, it is not important.
- c. I am not sure.

22. *If you are married, does your spouse support you having a job?*

- a. Strongly agree
- b. Agree
- c. Disagree
- d. I am unemployed

23. *How many hours do you work each day?*

- a. Less than 6 hours
- b. 6 hours
- c. 8 hours
- d. 12 hours
- e. More than 12 hours
- f. I am unemployed

24. *If at all, how do you think your employment affects your marriage? Please explain your answer.*

- a. It affects my marriage positively

- b. Affects marriage negatively

- c. It does not affect marriage

- d. I am not married

25. *What type of work would you prefer?*

- a. Part time
- b. Full time
- c. No preference (It does not matter).

26. *In what type of environment do you prefer to work?*

- a. In a mixed female and male environment
- b. Only with females
- c. Gender type does not matter
- d. Only with males

27. *What is your most important source of information about job opportunities?*

- a. Media (i.e. websites, social media, etc.)
 - b. Civil service bureau
 - c. Employment office
 - d. Personal relationships
 - e. Other: Please list the most important source of information for you about job opportunities.
-

28. *At what age would you like to retire from active work?*

- a. I would like to work for as long as I am capable
- b. 35 – 40
- c. 41 – 45
- d. 46 – 50
- e. 51 – 55
- f. 56 – 60
- g. 61- 65

29. *Do you think your family income is adequate to meet your needs?*

- a. Yes
- b. No

30. *Do you receive individual income from any from the following?*

- a. Father or mother
 - b. Husband
 - c. Pension
 - d. Inheritance
 - e. Others: Please indicate any other sources from which you receive individual income:
-

- f. Not Applicabl

APPENDIX C: SUPPORTING INFORMATION FOR CHAPTER FOUR

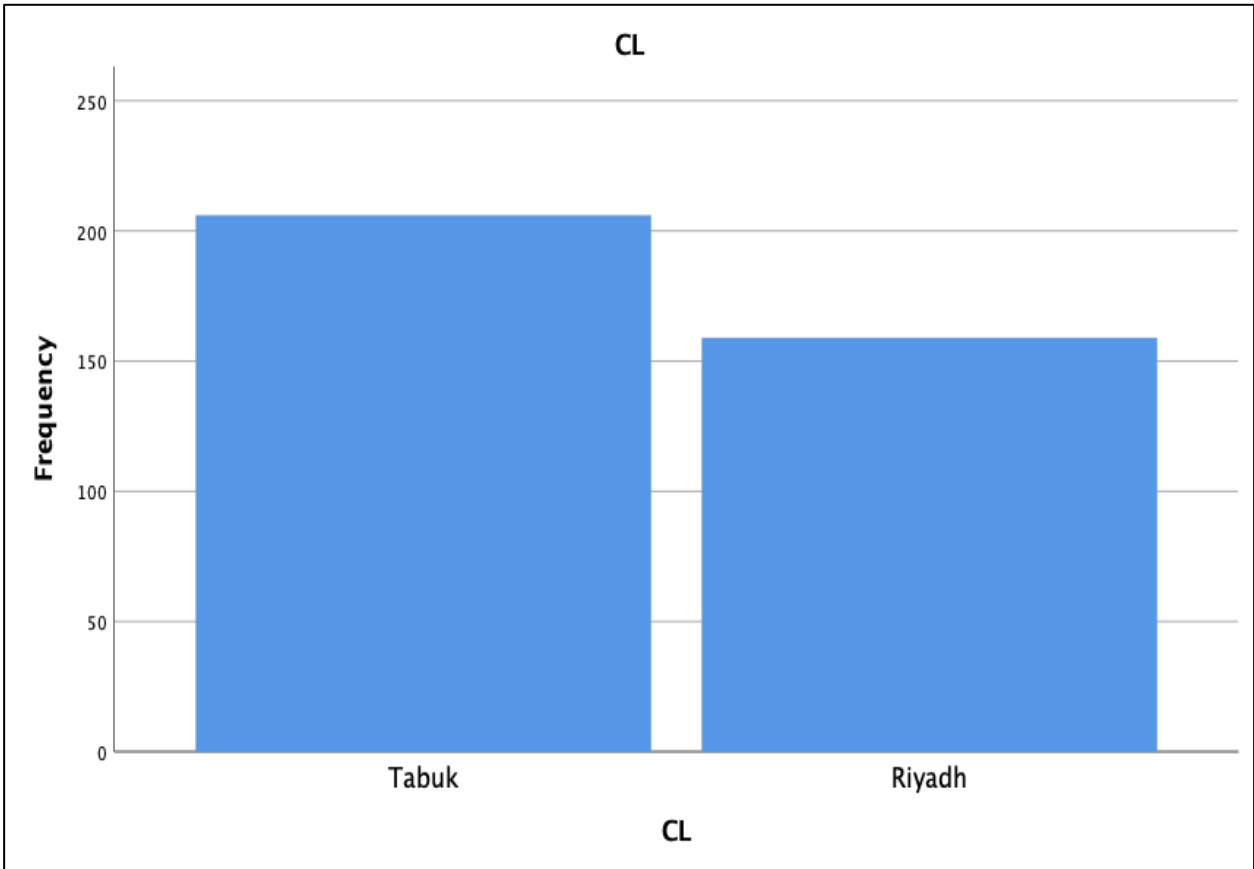


Figure 8: Participants place of residence

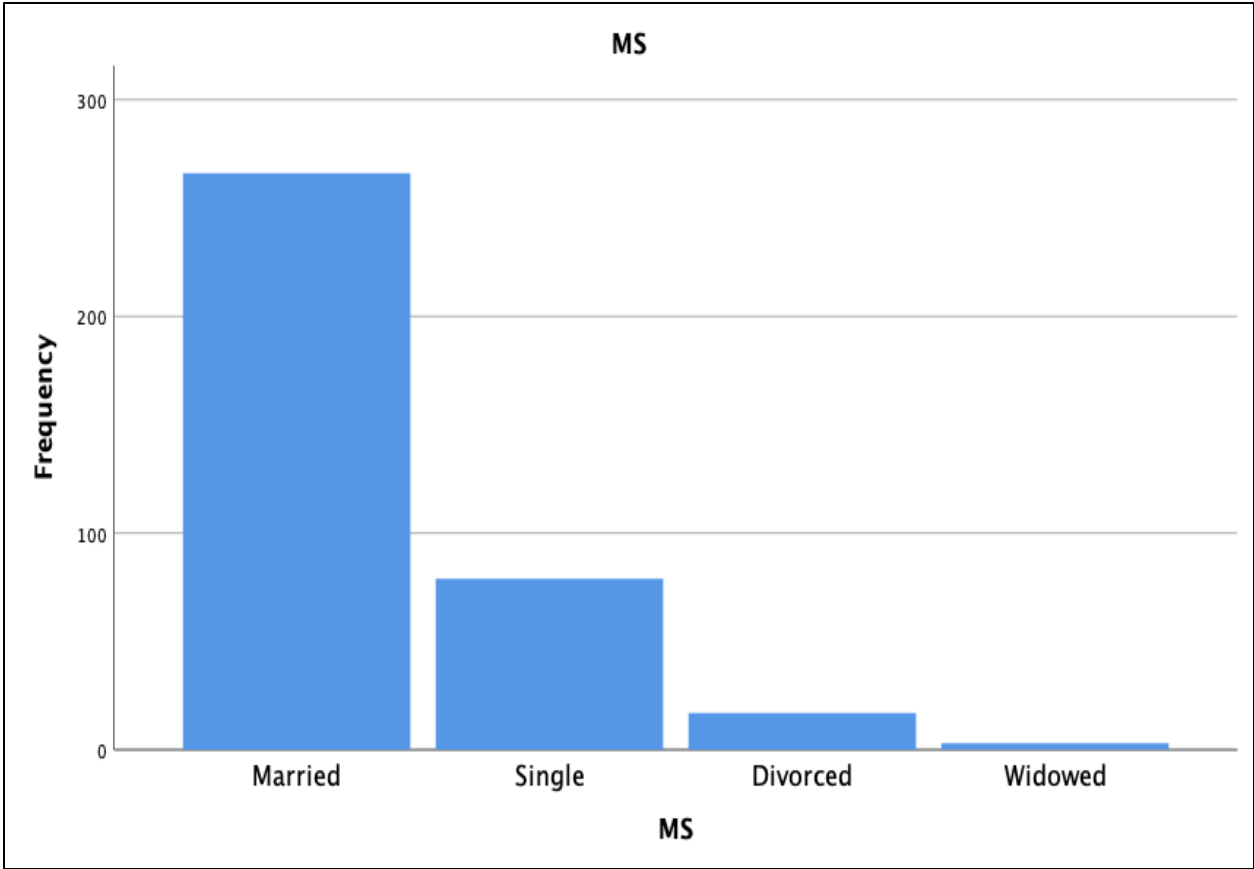


Figure 9: Participant’s marital status

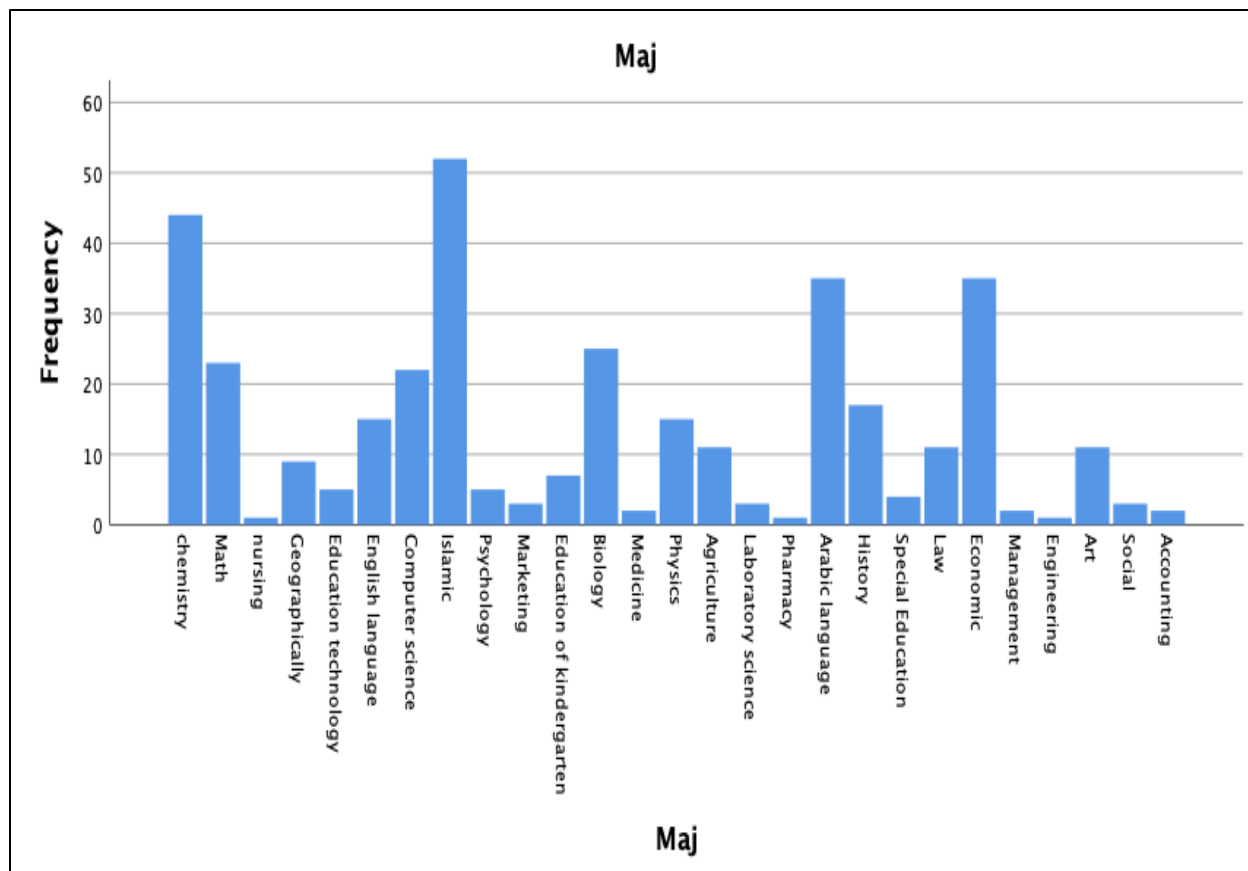


Figure 10: Participant’s choice of major in higher level education

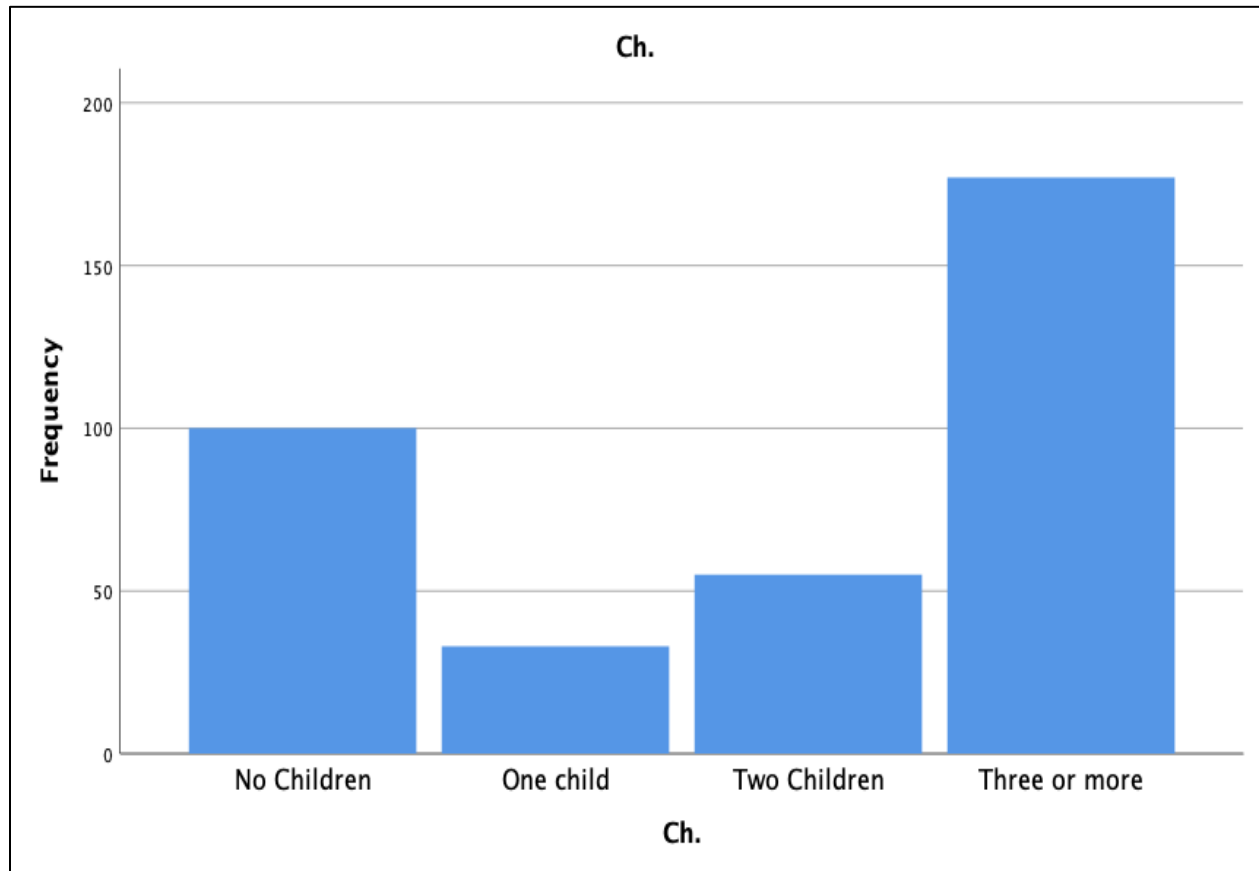


Figure 11: Participant's number of children

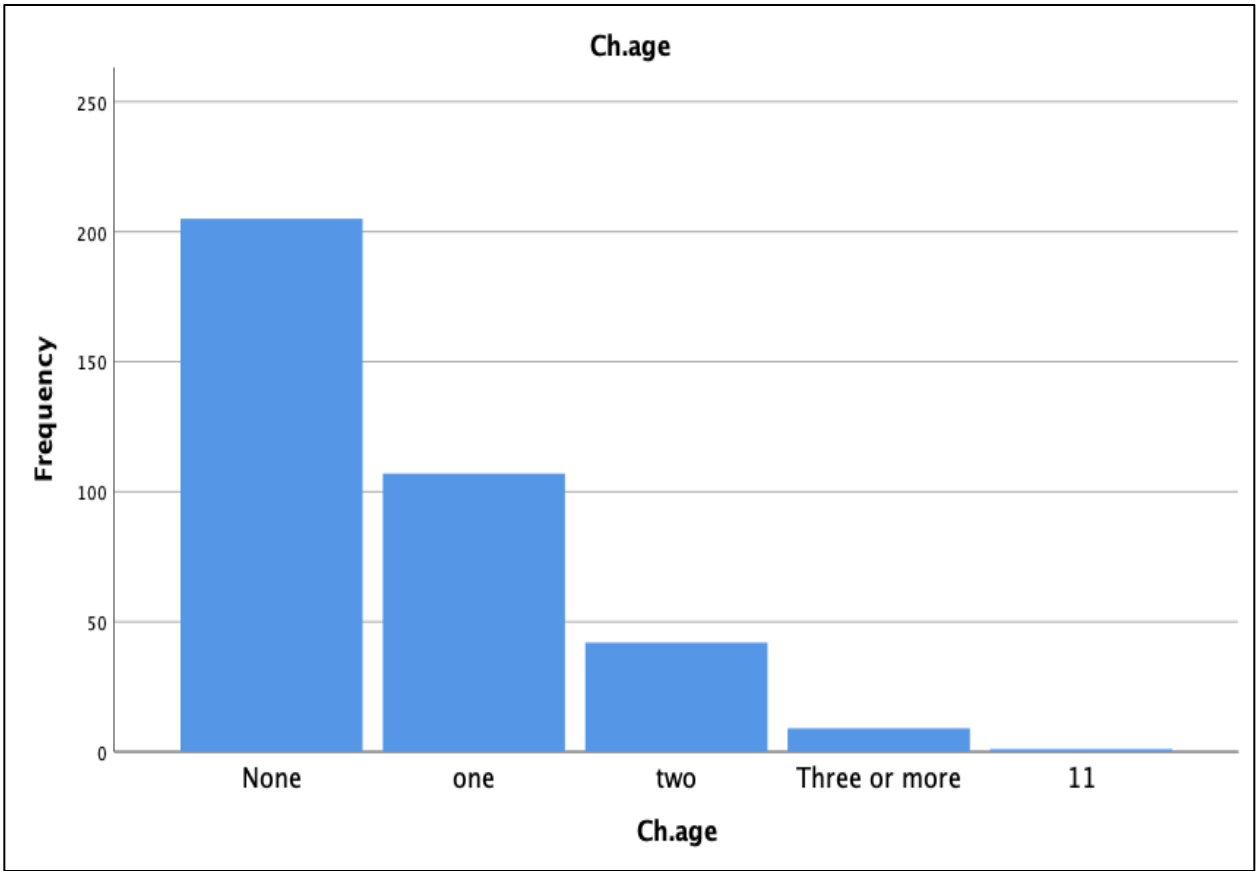


Figure 12: Participant's number of children under the age of five

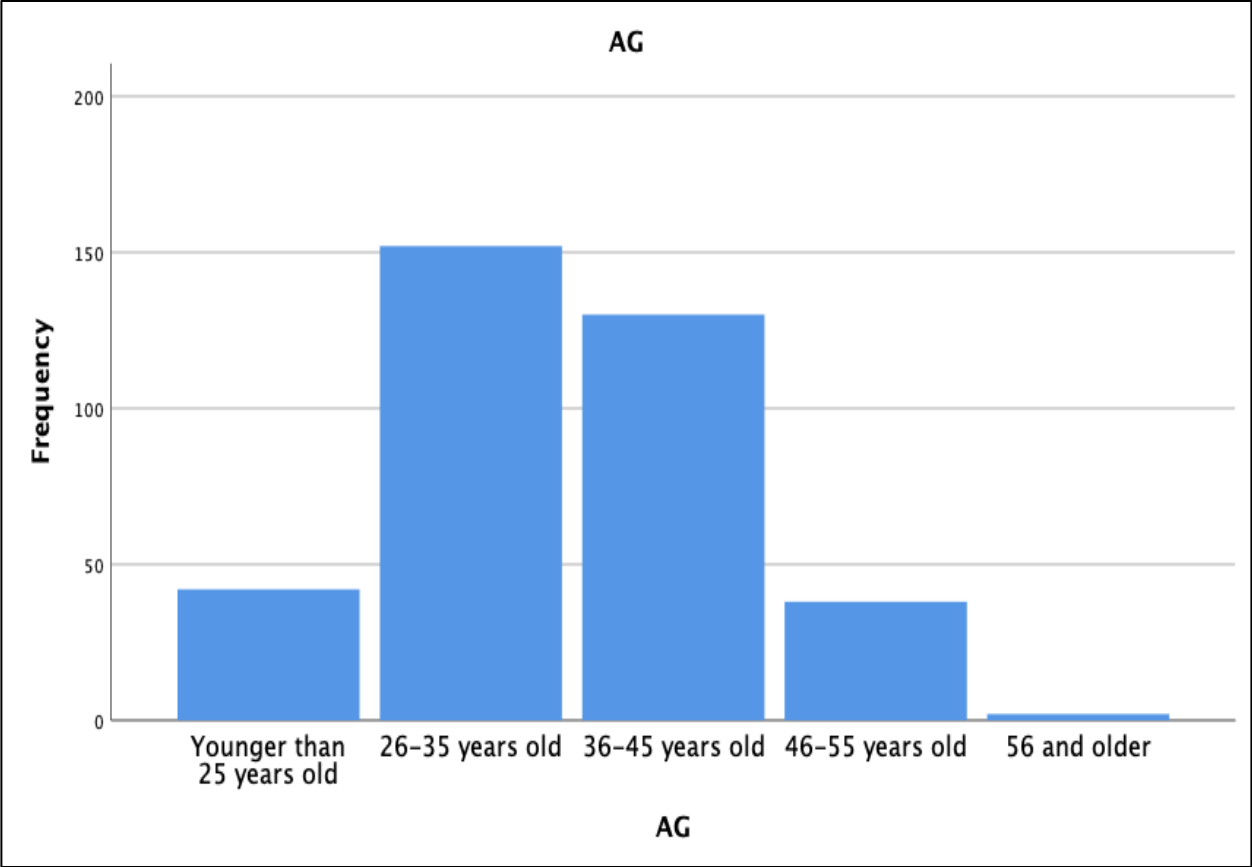


Figure 13: Participant's age

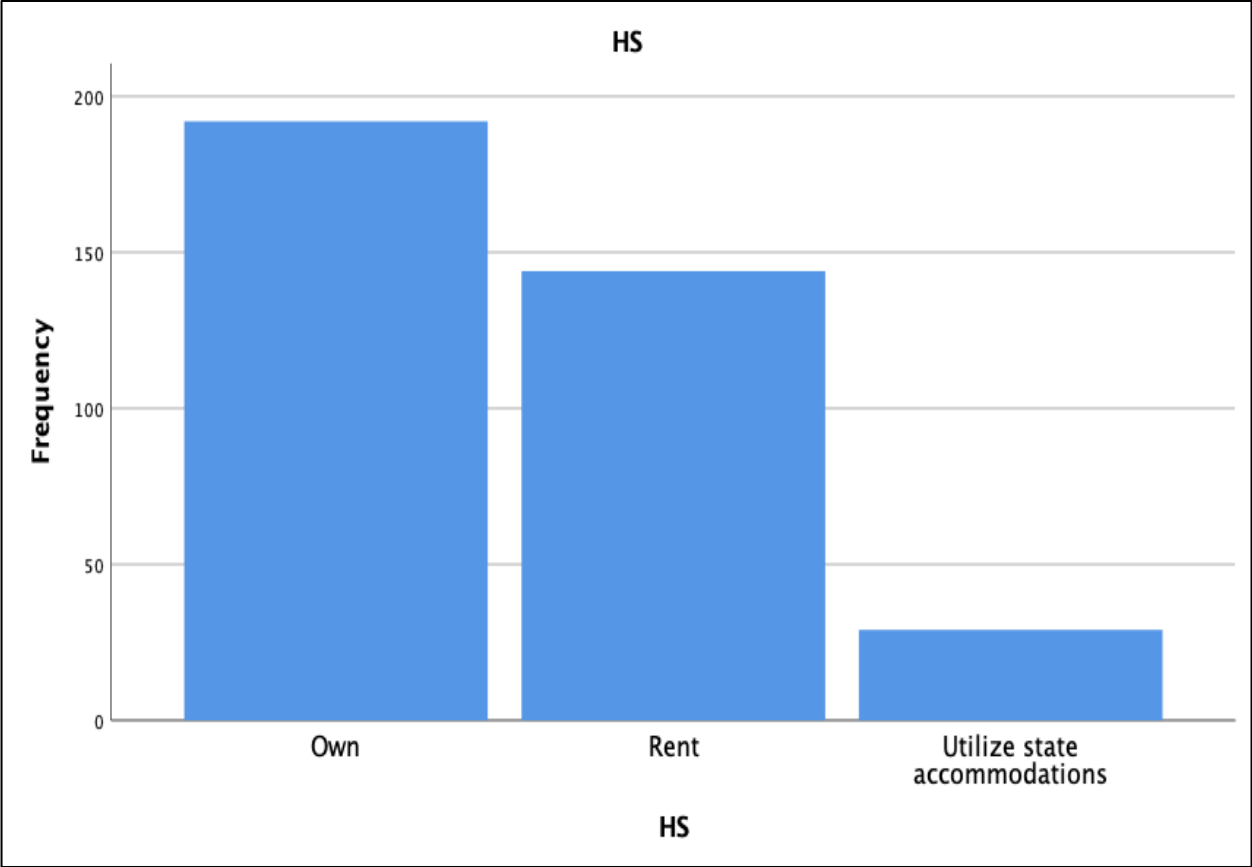


Figure 14: Participant's housing status

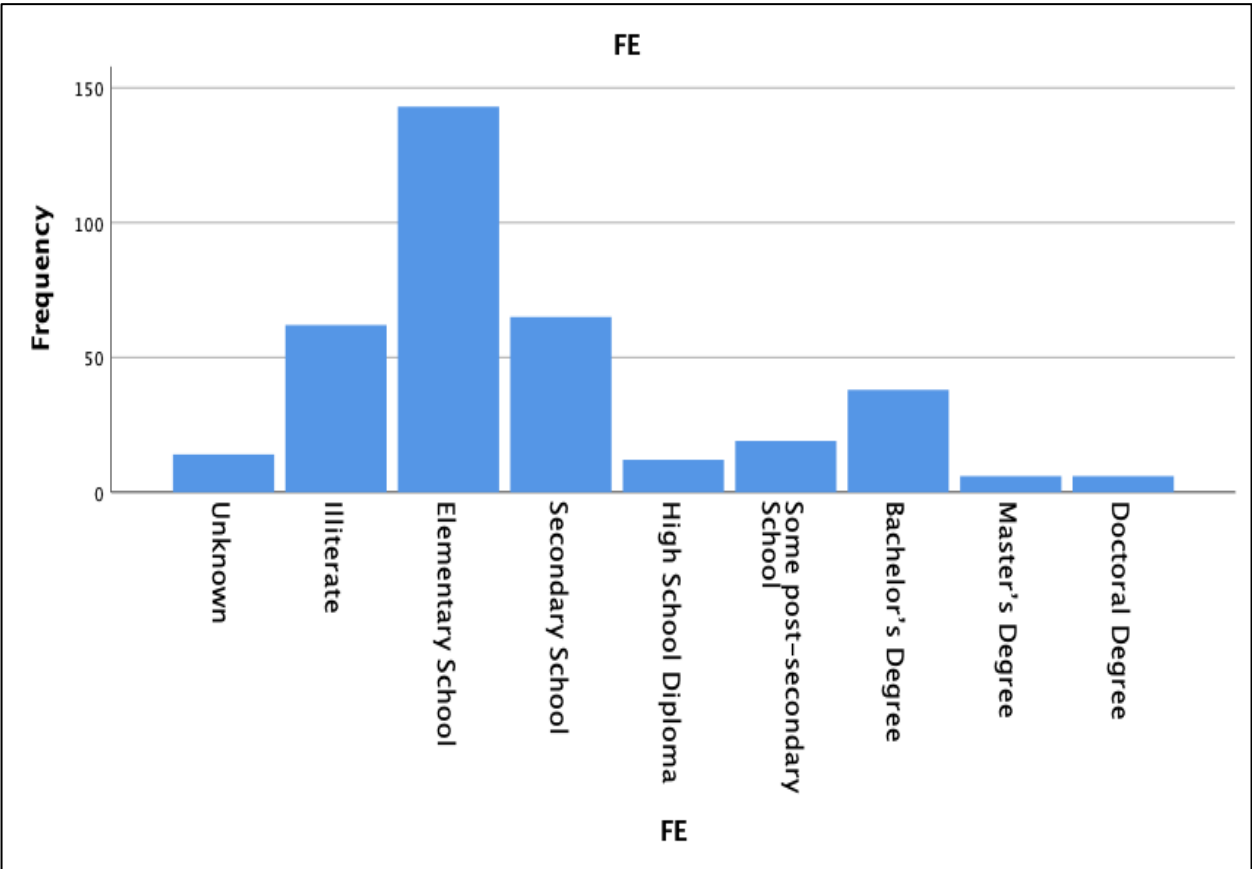


Figure 15: Participant's father's highest level of education

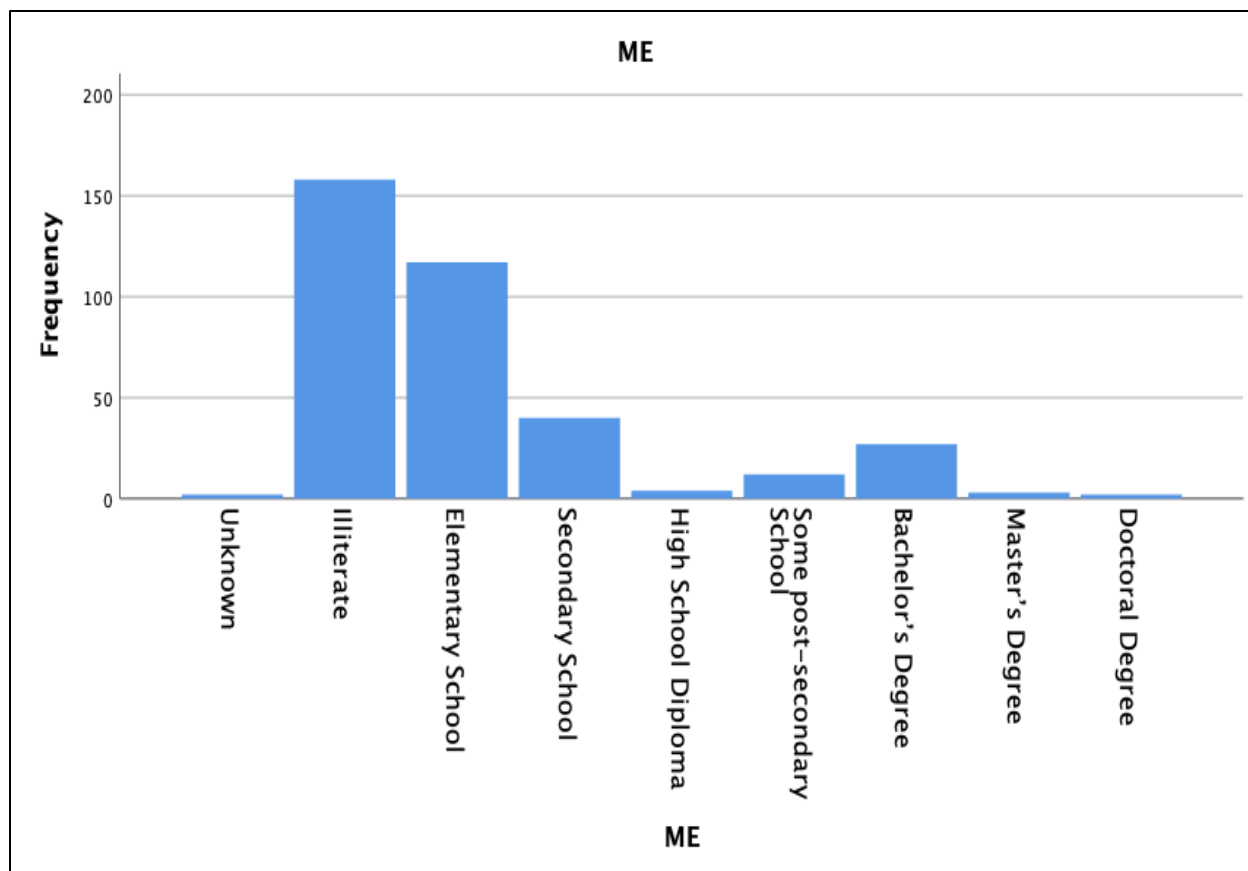


Figure 16: Participant's mother's highest level of education

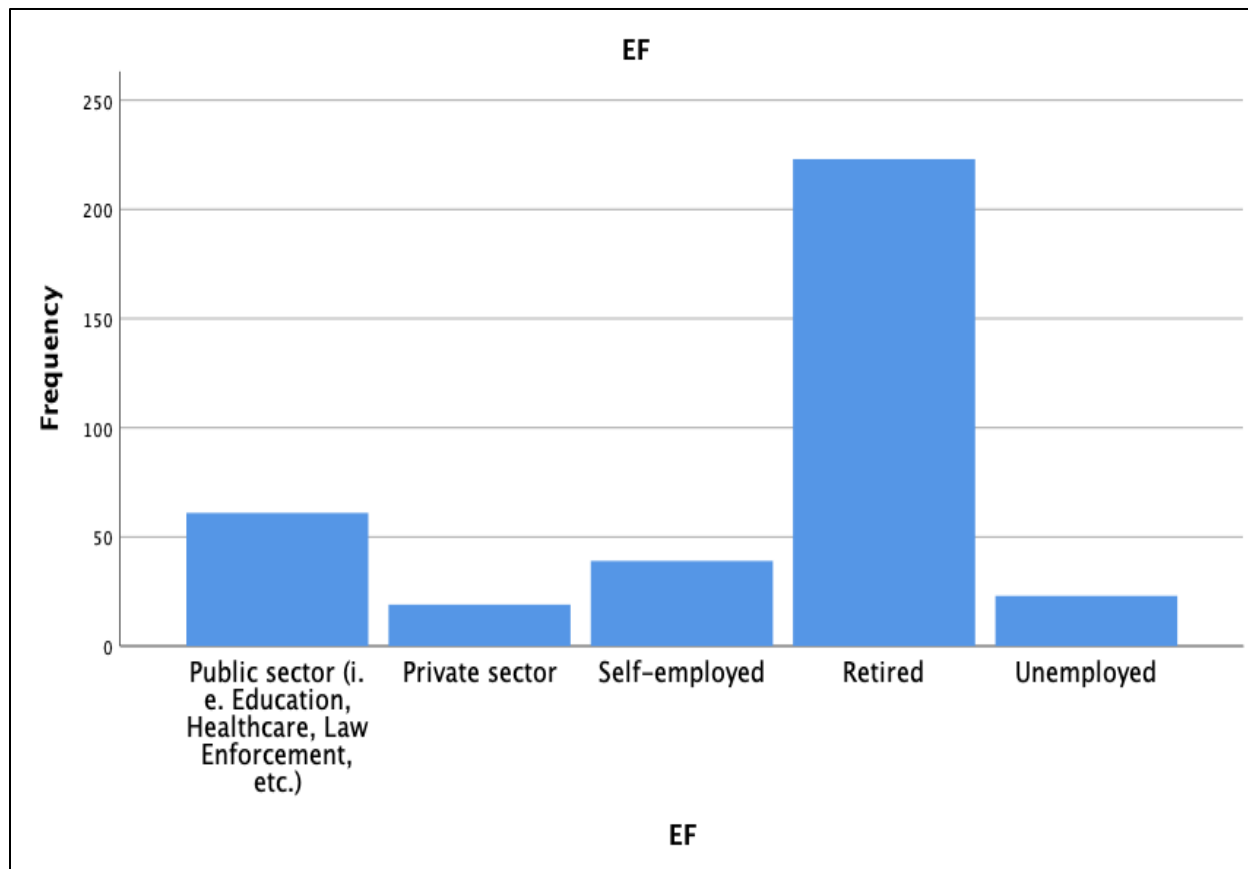


Figure 17: Participant's father's form of employment

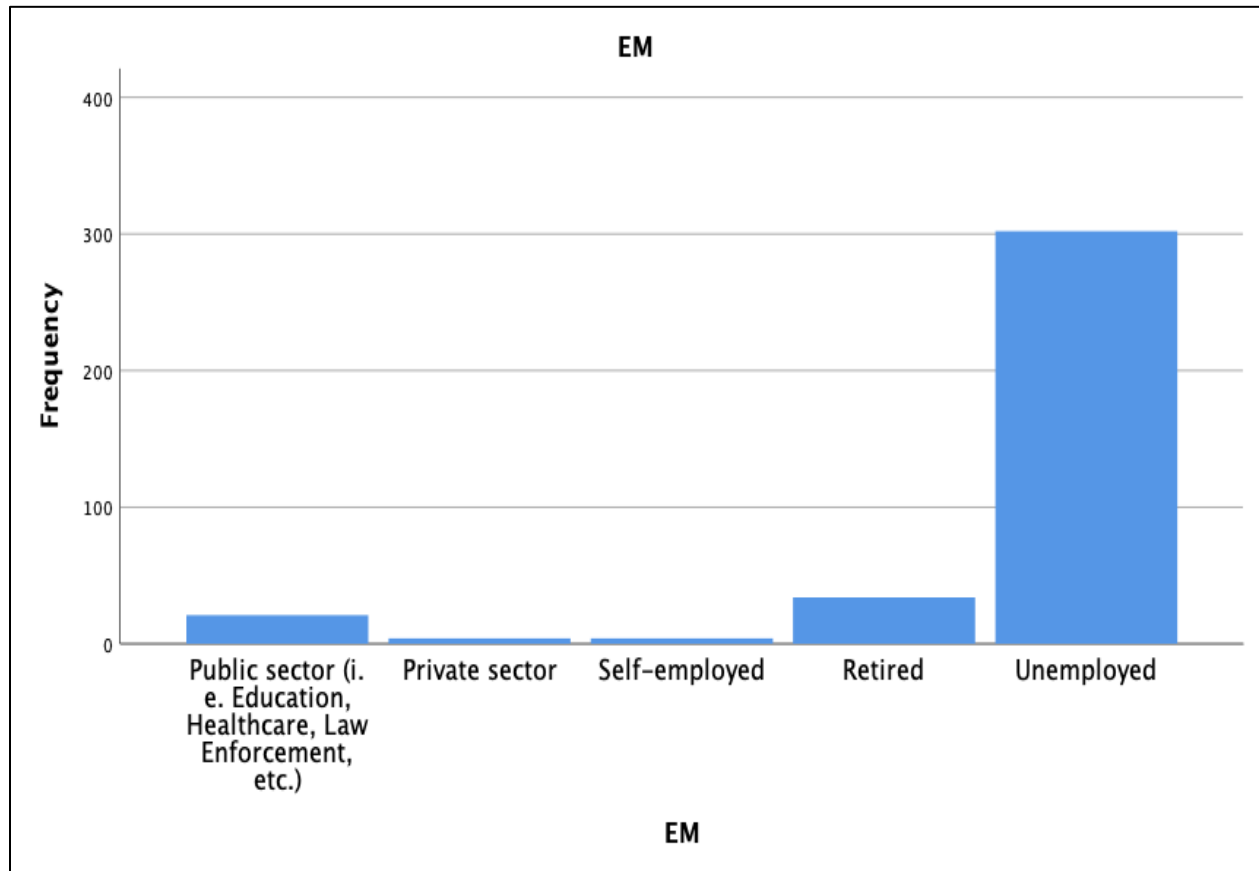


Figure 18: Participant's mother's form of employment

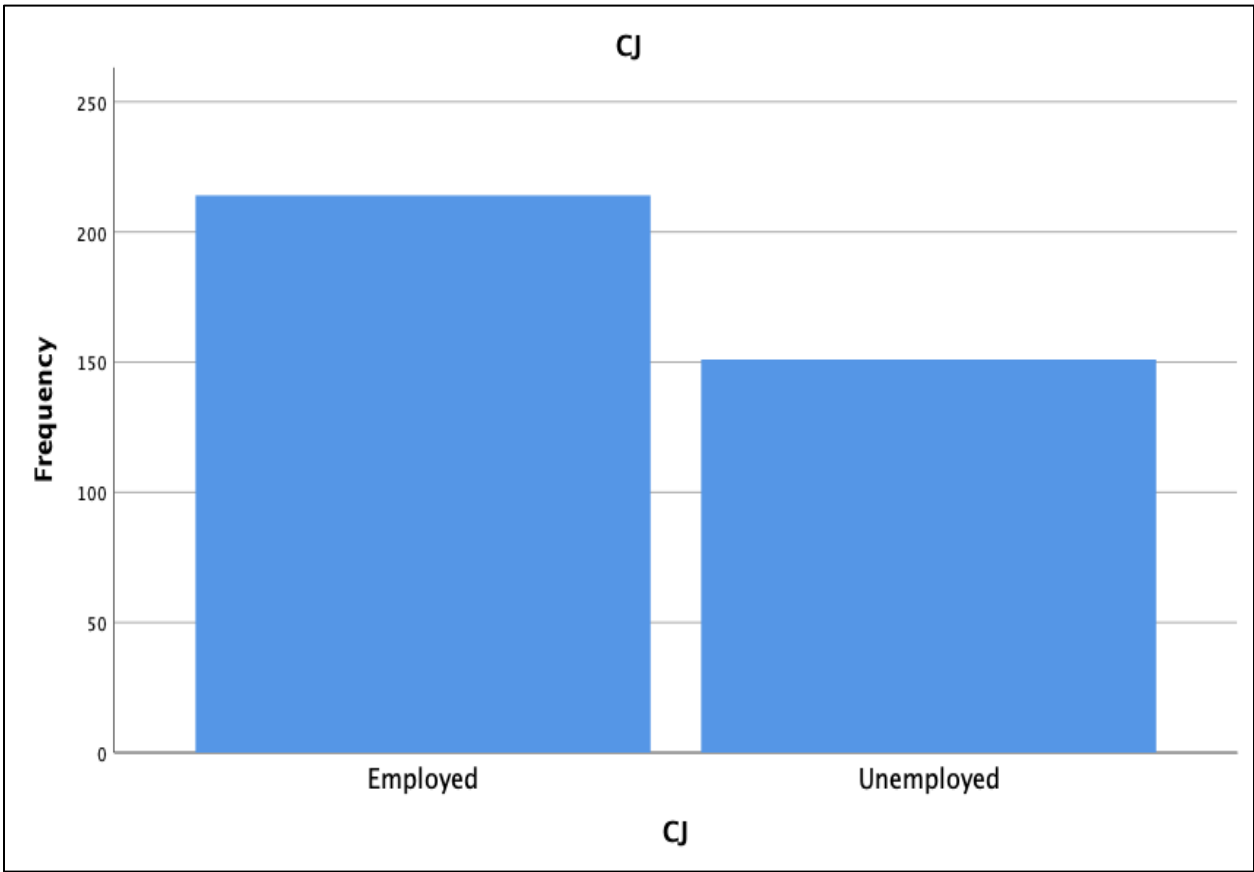


Figure 19: Participant’s employment status

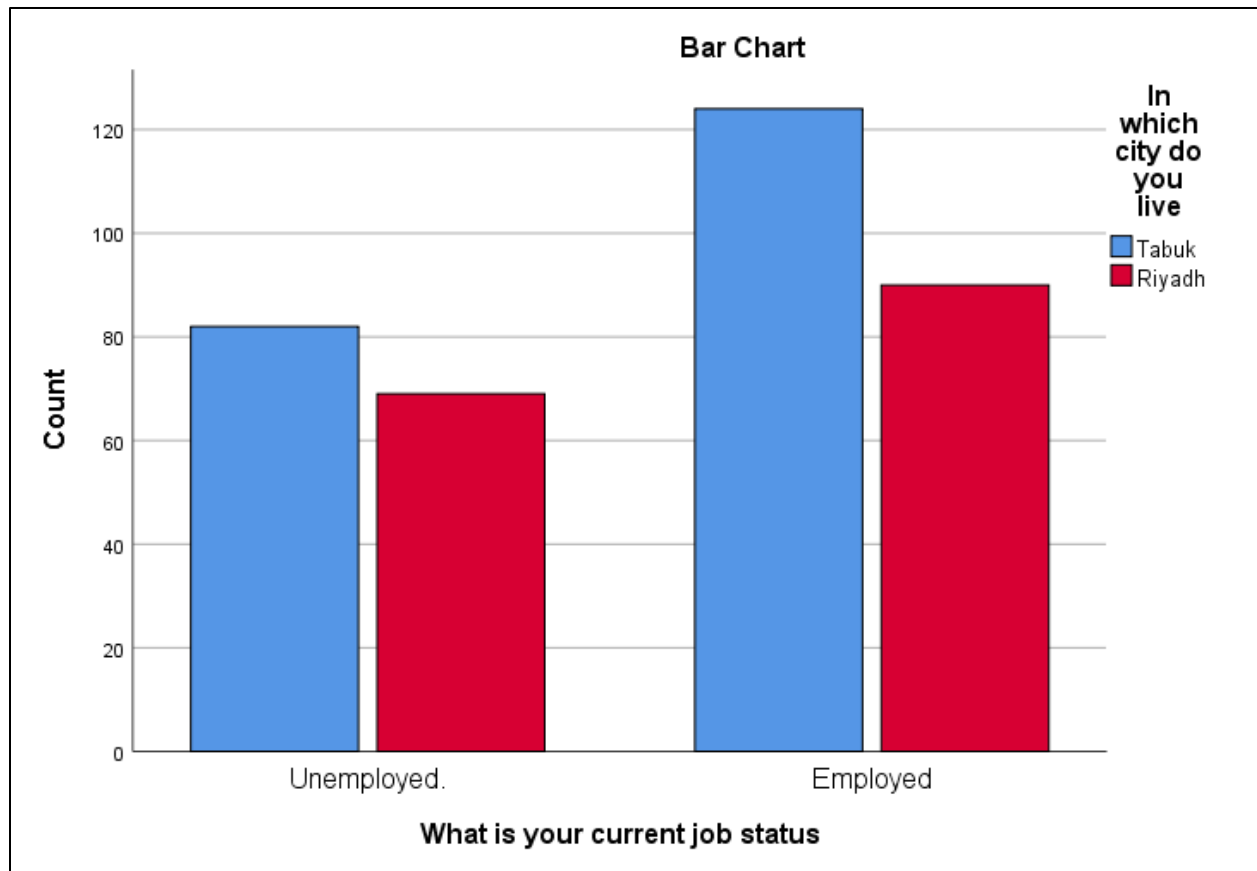


Figure 20: Participant's unemployment and employment rate in the two different cities

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