UNIVERSITY OF BAHRAIN

College of Business Administration

Department of Management and Marketing

Women Career Development in Bahrain: The Case of Gulf Air Company

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Master's Degree in Business Administration

Submitted by

Eman Mohamed Rasheed

Bachelor of Business Information Systems, University of Bahrain, Kingdom of Bahrain, 2005

Supervised by

Dr. Ebtehaj Ala'ali

Assistant Professor in Management

University of Bahrain

KINDGOM OF BAHRAIN

June/2013

UNIVERSITY OF BAHRAIN

College of Business Administration



Department of Management and Marketing

Women Career Development in Bahrain: The Case of Gulf Air Company

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Master's Degree in Business Administration

Submitted by

Eman Mohamed Rasheed

Bachelor of Business Information Systems, University of Bahrain, Kingdom of Bahrain, 2005

Supervised by

Dr. Ebtehaj Ala'ali

Assistant Professor in Management

University of Bahrain

KINDGOM OF BAHRAIN

June/2013

DECLARATION

I declare that this work is the result of my own investigation and that it has not already been accepted in substance for any degree, nor is it being currently submitted for any degree.

Singed: Eman ..... Date: January 2014

E.Rasheed (candidate)

The Thesis defense committee considers the Thesis titled:

WOMEN CAREER DEVELOPMENT IN BAHRAIN:

THE CASE OF GULF AIR COMPANY

Submitted by Eman Rasheed to the Department of Management and Marketing satisfactory and acceptable for the Master of Business Administration.

Thesis Defense Committee

.....
Dr. Ebtehaj Ala'ali — Department of Management and Marketing
Supervisor

.....
Prof. Minwir Al-Shammari — Department of Management and Marketing, University of Bahrain
Member

.....
Prof. Ahmed Maher — Department of Management and Marketing, Kuwait University
Member

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I have been blessed by people who have supported and encouraged me in my endeavors. Similar to women profiled in this study, I have benefited from the continuous support of husband, family, my advisor and mentors. There are a few special people I would like to express my most sincere appreciation and gratitude.

I am greatly thankful to my adviser and members of University of Bahrain. My sincere thanks go to Dr. Ebtehaj Al'aali for her content expertise and guidance throughout this study.

I could not have done any of this without the support of my husband and family. To my parents, you have been my foundation and constant source of encouragement. To my husband, thank you for your support and constant encouragement.

Finally, thank you to the wonderful women who participated and made this study possible. I am grateful for your time and candor.

My best to all of you!

ABSTRACT

Women Career Development in Bahrain:
The Case of Gulf Air Company

The purpose of this study is to examine women career development in order to understand why women are underrepresented in top levels. The study is carried through a case analysis of a single organization. Focused on Bahraini female managers, this study investigates the relevant factors, processes and experiences of these women.

Qualitative research is employed as the primary means of collecting and analyzing data. Snowball sampling is used to gather a sample of 16 Bahraini managers. Participants' views and experiences, captured through semi-structured interviews are analyzed using content analysis of narrative data. Information collected relates to sources of self-efficacy, career development barriers, career development enablers, support systems needed to support women, factors influencing career expectations and future career goals.

The strongest source of self-efficacy reported is performance accomplishments. In addition education, training, experience and personality types are important sources for women to realize their potential. In relation to career barriers and supporting research on women career development, women report gender stereotypes and work-family balance as major barriers to their careers. Contrary to other researches, women did not report discrimination as a barrier. Several factors have been discussed as enablers to career development, these factors are education and training opportunities, mentoring and networking. In addition, organizational and national efforts that take into consideration women role in life and at work are needed to support women's development. Women report that their career expectations is mainly influenced by the support they receive from important others such as their spouse, family, friends and colleagues. The majority of the women in this study aspire to reach higher ranks, how they see this happening depends on factors such as their self-efficacy beliefs, their expectations and the environment surrounding them.

Recommendations are given to replicate this study in other organization in the same industry and across industries. Also taking men's perspective on women on top would be insightful. It is hoped this research contributes to the limited research conducted on women's careers in Bahrain.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION ii

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS iii

ABSTRACT iv

TABLE OF CONTENTS vi

LIST OF TABLES x

LIST OF FIGURES x

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION 2

Overview 2
Background of the study 3
Problem statement 4
Research questions 5
Significance of the study 5
Definitions of terms 6
Limitations of the study 6
Outline of the chapters 7

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW 8

Introduction 8
What is career and career development? 8
Male versus Female career development 9
Career development models 10
Theory 1: Person-Environment Theory 11
Theory 2: Self-concept Theory of career development 14
Theory 3: Theory of work adjustment 15
Theory 4: Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) 17
Barriers and supports 28
Status of women in the Arab world 42
Summary 50

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY 51

Introduction 51
Research questions 51
Conceptual map 51
Research method 52
Sample 54
Information gathering 55
Profile of the participants 56
Trustworthiness of the data 57
Information Analysis 60
Summary 62

CHAPTER IV: ORGANIZATION BACKGROUND 63

Introduction 63
History of Gulf Air Company 63
Strategic posture 67
Vision 67
Objectives 67
Products and services 68
Destinations 68
Fleet 68
Frequent flyer program 69
Organization structure 69
Corporate Culture 69
Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) 69
Status of women career development 74
Summary 74

CHAPTER V: PILOT STUDY 75

Introduction 75
Research questions 75
Sample 75
Research question 1: What are the sources of women's self-efficacy? 76
Education *76*
Personality traits *77*
Performance evaluation *78*
Research question 2: Why are women underrepresented on the top of the corporate ladder? 79
Gender stereotypes *79*
Access to Networks *81*
Work-life balance *82*
Discrimination *84*
Research question 3: What are the career development enabling factors? 85
Work-family balancing strategies *86*
Education and training *86*
Access to networks *87*
Research question 4: Why are support systems needed to facilitate women career development? 88

Efforts at the organizational level ... *88*
Efforts at national level ... *90*
Research question 5: What factors influence career expectations? ... 91
Physical appearance ... *91*
Learning experience ... *92*
Social support and persuasion ... *92*
Organizational practices ... *93*
Research question 6: What are women's career goals? ... 94
Summary ... 95

CHAPTER VI: FIELD WORK ... 97

Introduction ... 97
Research question 1: What are the sources of women's self-efficacy? ... 97
Education ... *98*
Training ... *99*
Experience ... *100*
Personal achievements ... *101*
Personality types ... *102*
Research question 2: Why are women underrepresented on the top of the corporate ladder? ... 102
Gender stereotypes ... *103*
Work-family balance ... *107*
Culture ... *111*
Discrimination ... *114*
Research question 3: What are the career development enabling factors? ... 116
Education and training programs ... *116*
Mentoring ... *118*
Networking ... *119*
Research question 4: Why are support systems needed to facilitate women career development? ... 123
Efforts at organizational level ... *123*
Efforts at national level ... *126*
Research question 5: What factors influence career expectations? ... 129
Social support and persuasion ... *129*
Women's physical appearance ... *130*
Impact of networking ... *131*
Gender stereotypes ... *132*
Experience and know-how ... *132*
Research question 6: What are women's career goals? ... 133
Summary ... 135

CHAPTER VII: DISCUSSION ... 136

Introduction ... 136
Discussion of the sources of women's self-efficacy ... 136
Education ... 136
Training ... 137
Experience ... 138

Personal achievements 139
Personality types 139
Discussion of career development barriers 141
Gender stereotypes 141
Work family balance 144
Culture 147
Discrimination 150
Discussion of career development enablers 151
Education and training programs 151
Mentoring 153
Networking 154
Discussion of support systems needed to facilitate career development 157
Efforts at organizational level 157
Efforts at national level 159
Discussion of factors influencing career expectations 161
Social support and persuasion 161
Women's physical appearance 162
Impact of networking 163
Gender stereotypes 164
Experience and know-how 164
Discussion of women's career goals 165
Summary 167

CHAPTERVIII: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS 168

Introduction 168
Overview of the study 168
Sources of self-efficacy 168
Career development barriers 169
Career development enablers 172
Support systems needed to facilitate women career development 173
Factors influencing career expectations 175
Women career goals 176
Conclusion 177
Recommendations 179
Recommendations for working women 179
Recommendations for organizations 180
Recommendations for policy makers 181
Recommendations for future research 182
Summary 183

REFERENCES 184

APPENDIX A: Interview Guide Template for interview with Gulf Air participants 206

LIST OF TABLES

1. Barriers and supports 41
2. Demographics of Participants – Age 56
3. Demographics of Participants – Marital Status 56
4. Professional Demographics of Participants – Education 57
5. Professional Demographics of Participants – Working Experience 57
6. Professional Demographics of Participants – Managerial Level 57
7. Professional Demographics of Participants – Division 57
8. Quantitative vs. qualitative validity and reliability criteria..... 59
9. Gulf Air routes..... 68
10. Sources of Self-Efficacy 141
11. Career development barriers..... 151
12. Career development enablers 156
13. Support system needed to support women career development 161
14. Factors influencing career expectations 165
15. Goals 166

LIST OF FIGURES

1. Model of Person, Contextual and Experiential Factors Affecting Career Related Choice Behavior..... 26
2. Conceptual map for guiding research questions..... 52
3. Gulf Air organization structure..... 69
4. Model of career development: driving factors for women in Gulf Air..... 179

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Overview

The study of women and their working lives has gained considerable attention among researchers. However, these studies have mostly been limited to developed countries settings whereas women in different cultural contexts have been given little attention. In the last 30 years, there have been significant changes for women in Arab societies. Women are increasingly entering the work force and rising to managerial positions.

Globalization increased women's opportunities in the Middle East. Many Middle Eastern countries are pursuing strategies to diversify their economies and encourage multinational corporations and part of this development reform is to give women equal opportunities to contribute to economic growth prospects.

In Bahrain, women's increased participation in the labor force is part of Bahrain's economic reform and development. Bahrain is one of the countries that gave education, especially women's education, a high priority and worked constantly on broadening it and improving its quality. Bahrain started education for girls earlier than its neighboring countries. The first girl's school was opened in 1899 followed by a boy's school in 1902. Education is essential for people development because it provides knowledge and information in all arenas. It also plays a key role in enabling women and improving their roles in society and enhances their opportunities to compete with men in all life aspects.

The laws and legislations brought forward by the Constitution, the National Action Charter and as a member of the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) emphasize gender equity in rights, responsibilities and in holding jobs. The Civil Service Bureau further emphasized gender equity in rights, duties, salaries and allowances (Central Informatics Organization, 2006).

Women's labor force participation in Bahrain increased from 5% in 1971 to 33.5% in 2010. According to Civil Service Bureau statistics, women's rate of participation in the public sector has increased at a higher rate than men's rate of participation. Women occupied 75% of the

labor force in Education in 2010 whereas their participation in Law and Architecture remains very low at 12%. In the private sector, women's rate of participation increased by 24% in 2010 compared to 2007 (Supreme Council for women [SCW], 2013).

Despite all efforts to support women, their representation in elite positions remains low and far from achieving equality with men which require more efforts and opportunities to enable them to occupy these positions.

This chapter discusses background of the study, problem statement, research questions, significance of the study and research limitations.

Background of the study

In the last few decades, the number of women and their rate of participation in the workforce have steadily increased (Barreto et al., 2009; Wentling, 2003). The number of women qualified for management jobs continues to increase as more women are accumulating work experience and completing management and professional educational programs (Barreto et al., 2009; Killeen, López-Zafra, & Eagly, 2006). Although women have made great progress in attaining managerial jobs, their access to senior level management positions remains limited (Barreto et al., 2009; Jogulu & Wood, 2011). There is much evidence that few women are attaining executive management or board positions on a world-wide basis (Still, 2006). For example, European Union data report no change in the number of women in senior management over the period 2004-2007, remaining static at 17 percent while in the UK women represent only 22 percent of management jobs and 9.6 percent of executive directors (Clarke, 2011).

According to Van Fleet (1988) women are encountering barriers to advancement to upper levels that would allow them to define organizational strategy and policy. Glass ceiling is the invisible barrier that women confront as they approach the top of the corporate hierarchy (Igbaria & Wormley, 1992). Other major barriers to advancement reported by women executives include stereotyping, discrimination, the existence of male-dominant cultures in organizations, less access to career development opportunities and their exclusion from networking (Hasan, 2011; Omair 2010; Wentling, 2003). In the Information Technology field (IT) in United States, organization cultures represent a barrier for women advancing to upper

management positions (Lemons & Parzinger, 2001). In addition, a study on women in the US found that women have less access to training programs and are less likely to be trained compared to men (Wentling, 2003). Women are gaining the necessary education and experience and are committed to their careers but they still encounter a glass ceiling (Clarke, 2011).

Researchers propose some remedies to help break the glass ceiling that face female manager's (Omair, 2008; Rogier & Padgett, 2004; Wentling, 2003). The existence of family-friendly policies (Rogier & Padgett, 2004), top management commitment (Wentling, 2003), organization support systems (Clarke, 2011), mentoring (Herrmann, 2010, Mattis, 2001; Singh et al., 2006, Still, 2006), networking (Ezzedeen & Ritchey, 2009, Knorr, 2011), training and development programs (Jackson et al., 2006, Knorr, 2011) and organization cultures that support women (Bajdo & Dickson, 2001; Olsson & Walker, 2004) have been found to be critical for women's advancement to managerial positions. In addition, government policies play a role in ensuring the achievement of gender equity and women's advancement in the workplace (Elamin & Omair, 2010).

Problem statement

Women's role in the workplace across all organizational levels has been growing worldwide. The trend in almost all countries has been towards increasing the employment of women and their representation in managerial ranks. However, women are mostly concentrated in the lower levels of the corporate ladder and hold positions with less power and authority compared to men. This imbalance in high level managerial and board levels across the world has been well documented.

In Bahrain, women occupied 28% of executive positions in the public sector in 2010 compared to men (Supreme Council for women [SCW], 2013). Currently in Gulf Air, the context of this study, women represent 35% of the total workforce. They occupy only 14% of the total management, mostly concentrated in middle management. Only 13% occupy senior positions (Senior Manager, Director and Chief).

Research questions

The focus of this research is to determine how women careers develop and why they have or haven't achieved the jobs they ultimately aspire to. Using Social Cognitive Career Theory as a framework, six broad research questions guide the study:

Research question 1: What are the sources of women's self-efficacy?

Research question 2: Why are women underrepresented on the top of the corporate ladder?

Research question 3: What are the career development enabling factors?

Research question 4: Why are support systems needed to facilitate women career development?

Research question 5: What factors influence career expectations?

Research question 6: What are women's career goals?

Significance of the study

The need to increase female labor participation is an important aspect that reflects global business trends to promote female talent. Very few scholars attempted to investigate women career development in the Gulf region. The work of Metcalfe in Bahrain (2006), Al-Lamky in Oman (2007), Alajmi in Saudi Arabia (2001), Elamin and Omair in Saudi Arabia (2010), Mostafa in United Arab Emirates (2005) are some of these examples.

An important contribution to the international and Gulf region's business literature on career development would be to explore the experiences of female professionals working in Bahrain and assess gender impact on their career. This study contributes to understanding the dynamics of female leadership in this increasingly important world region and raises awareness among women (and men alike) regarding the unique experiences and challenges of Arab women leaders.

Monitoring women's (under)representation in senior positions on regular basis can help to raise awareness that might lead to or sustain positive change.

Definitions of terms

Glass ceiling: Is the invisible barrier that women confront when they approach the top of the corporate hierarchy (Igbaria & Wormley, 1992).

Career: "Is the sequence of major positions occupied by a person throughout his preoccupation, occupational and post occupational life" (Super, 1976, p. 20).

Career development: "Is the total constellation of psychological, sociological, educational, physical, economic and chance factors that combine to shape the career of an individual over the life span" (Sears, 1982, p. 139).

Self-efficacy: "Refers to beliefs in one's capabilities to both organize and execute the courses of action required producing given attainments" (Bandura, 1986, p. 391, cited in Lent, & Brown, 1996, p. 380)

Outcome Expectations: "Are the expected consequences of performing particular behaviors" (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 2002, p. 262).

*Go*al: "Is the determination to engage in a certain activity or to bring about a particular outcome" (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 1994, p. 85).

Gender stereotypes: Are the socially shared beliefs about the characteristics or attributes of men and women in general that influence our perceptions of individual men and women (Thanacoody et al, 2006).

Wasta: Refers to social networks of interpersonal connections based on family and kinship ties and involves exercising power and influence through social and political-business networks (Weir, 2006).

Limitations of the study

One limitation of this study is that it is limited to a single organization and therefore cannot be generalized to other organizations. Further research is needed to replicate and extend the

findings. However, the outcomes of qualitative studies are not meant to be broadly generalized. Qualitative studies are often conducted on small samples to give analytical depth rather than generalizability (Ezzedeen & Ritchey, 2009).

Another limitation is location. The study is limited to women in the company's headquarter. Women working in outstations and/or flying are inaccessible.

As a methodology, data collection relies on participants' memory recall and their perception of personal experiences. Few women were unable to accurately recall the processes and factors influencing their careers. Different people interpret events and situations differently; therefore, what is a difficulty or a challenge for one may not be for another. Data collected is limited to what the participants wish to share. Finally, career development is an extensive area of research. Therefore, investigating all aspects is not possible due to resource and time limitations.

Outline of the chapters

Following this introduction, the specific components of the study are presented in Chapters 2 through 7. Chapter 2 provides a review of the literature. Chapter 3 contains the methodology and procedures utilized in the study. Chapter 4 presents an overview of the company which is the context of this study. Chapter 5 presents the pilot study and its analysis. Chapter 6 presents the textual data, Chapter 7 includes discussion on the field study results and Chapter 8 presents overview of the study, conclusion and recommendations for future study.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to understand career development of Bahraini women utilizing case analysis of a single organization method in an attempt to explain why women are underrepresented at senior levels. A critical first step is conducting a review of literature central to the topic. Within this review, career and career development are defined, why women careers differ than whose of men is explained, four of the popular career development models are discussed, followed by career development barriers and enablers. The chapter concludes by examining the state of women in the Arab world.

What is career and career development?

The definition and meaning of career is understood differentially (Patton & McMahon, 2006). The terms vocation, career and occupation are used synonymously (McDaniels & Gysbers, 1992). Traditional definitions limit career to a professional life which include advancement while several researchers propose broadening this conceptual definition (Patton & McMahon, 2006). The Department of Education and Science (1989) defines career as "The variety of occupational roles which individuals will undertake throughout life. It includes: paid and self-employment; the different occupations which a person may have over the years and periods of unemployment and unpaid occupations such as that of student, voluntary worker or parent" (p. 2).

Super (1976) broadens the definition to include prevocational and post vocational activities and adds life roles and contexts. He defines career as "The sequence of major positions occupied by a person throughout his preoccupation, occupational and post occupational life" (Super, 1976, p. 20). Arthur, Hall and Lawrence (1989) describe career as "The evolving sequence of a person's work experiences over time" (p. 8).

The definitions of career draw attention to the concept of career development (Patton & McMahon, 2006). Brown and Brooks (1990b) describe career development as being "A lifelong process of getting ready to choose, choosing and typically continuing to make choices from among the many occupations available in our society" (p. xvii).

Sears (1982) defines career development as "The total constellation of psychological, sociological, educational, physical, economic and chance factors that combine to shape the career of an individual over the life span" (p. 139). Career development is also defined as an on-going series of stages characterized by unique concerns, themes and tasks (Greenhaus et al., 2000).

Male versus Female career development

As opposed to men, women's definition of career success often focuses on subjective rather than just objective outcomes because they generally have more non-work responsibilities than men, making it difficult to adhere to traditional career models (Valcour & Ladge, 2008; Wise & Millward, 2005). Defining success subjectively based on fulfilling personal values allows women to experience psychological success, even if they do not achieve more traditional measures of success (O'Neil & Bilimoria, 2005). Women career success outcomes are impacted by their interactions with others in the workplace as well as by their own assessments of how well they are meeting work role expectations (Valcour & Ladge, 2008). The fact that women careers differ from men has received varying levels of support in the literature (Gallos, 1989; Osipow & Fitzgerald, 1996). O'Neil and Bilimoria (2005) identify three critical factors for treating women careers as entities worthy of focused investigation as follows:

Family responsibilities

Since women generally perform primary care-giving to children and dependents while simultaneously juggling the demands of their workforce participation, their career development issues, tasks, concerns and responsibilities and work-family pressures may be different from those of men (O'Neil & Bilimoria, 2005).

Women's developmental psychology

Studies on women's development discuss the importance of relationships to women's growth and development (Gilligan, 1982) and suggest that women's experience of self is organized and developed in the context of important relationships (O'Neil & Bilimoria, 2005; Surrey, 1991). This approach requires an examination of the contexts and relationships that impact women career choices and patterns and an acknowledgement that the boundary between women's personal and professional lives is highly visible (Fletcher & Bailyn, 1996).

Research also suggests that women find a renewed sense of purpose, energy and increased vitality for job opportunities in middle of adulthood (Borysenko, 1996). Because of their general preference, they may develop different paths, patterns, concerns and responsibilities than those of men (O'Neil & Bilimoria, 2005).

Women's minority status at the top of corporations

Although women currently comprise a big stake in the workforce, they are still heavily under-represented at the highest levels of corporations (O'Neil & Bilimoria, 2005). Women continue to be subject to excessive scrutiny, labeling and stereotyping as they attempt to rise up the organizational hierarchy (Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011). These factors continue to affect women's abilities to advance and to succeed, particularly at the highest organizational levels, resulting in a general pattern of few or no women in top corporate positions (O'Neil & Bilimoria, 2005; Omair, 2008).

Career development models

In the West mainly in the United States (USA), career guidance and counseling has developed a comprehensive system of theories and intervention strategies (Leung, 2008). Vocational and career related issues are relevant across different cultures and nationalities (Hasketh & Rounds, 1995; Leung, 2008). In today's world, all individuals are affected by a range of work related concerns; which are unique to certain cultures while others are common to many cultural groups (Leung, 2008). Under the theme of career development, there are concerns, experiences and issues that could be shared, explored and discussed at a global level (Richardson, 1996).

This section discusses the major theoretical frameworks universally validated and applied; they are culture-specific and could be used to explain career development issues and phenomenon at a local level (Allison & Cossette, 2007). These theories have guided career guidance and counseling practice and research in the past few decades in the USA and internationally. These theories are: Person-Environment Theory, Self-concept Theory of Career Development, Theory of work adjustment and Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT).

Theory 1: Person-Environment Theory

Person-Environment Theory by Holland was first presented in 1959 emphasizing the search for person-environment fit (Allison & Cossette, 2007). Holland believes that people seek a career environment that allows them to use their skills and abilities, express their values and attitudes and undertake satisfying roles and problems (Spokane, 1996) i.e. people are more satisfied when their work matches their personality (Allison & Cossette, 2007). Holland suggests that it is incomplete to focus only on personal characteristics and disregard the environmental characteristics at the workplace (Holland, 1985). Every environmental type attracts its associated personality type and this fit can promote stability of vocational choice.

Holland's work organizes a huge amount of information about people and occupations in a single "typological-interactive" theory (Allison & Cossette, 2007). In Holland's theory, the term "type" refers to "broad personality-based dispositions reflecting the full range of behavior, attitudes and so on" (Spokane, Luchetta & Richwine, 2002, p. 401). Some activities are conscious while some are not; however, psychological stimuli (e.g. physiological conditions, genes, developmental processes, prior learning, psychological/sociological influences) direct behavior (Holland 1997).

Characteristics of Holland's Theory

Holland's theory of vocational personalities and work environments has three major components (Leung, 2008). First, the theory typifies people by their resemblance to six personality types: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional. The full set of types is referred to in career literature by the acronym RIASEC. When an individual closely resembles a type, s/he will show traits and behaviors associated with that type. The second main component of the theory is the environments in which people work and live also categorized by their resemblance to six model environments: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional. Third, pairing individuals and environments leads to predictable outcomes such as vocational stability, vocational choice and achievement, educational choice and achievement, personal competence, susceptibility to influence and social behavior.

Holland (1997) uses four working assumptions in his approach:

1. Most individuals can be categorized as one of six personality types:

Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, or Conventional

2. There are six model environments: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional

3. People seek environments that will allow them exercise their abilities and skills, express their values and attitudes and take on agreeable problems and roles

4. Behavior is determined by the interaction between personality and the environment

Holland (1997) also uses six background principles:

- Vocational choice is an expression of personality. A person's vocational interests stem from his/her life history and personality
- Interest inventories are personality inventories. Vocational preferences are signs of personality traits. Interest scales are related to a person's values, personal characteristics, academic achievement and adventurousness
- Vocational stereotypes have important and reliable psychological and sociological meanings. Although these judgments can be inaccurate, they can be useful. Vocational choices depend to some extent on vocational stereotypes.
- Members of a vocation share similar personalities and histories of personal development. Vocations attract and retain people with similar personalities
- Because people in a vocational group share similar personalities, they will respond to many problems and situations in similar ways and they will create characteristic interpersonal environments. Census of a group's members can be used to describe a vocation
- Vocational satisfaction, stability and achievement rely on the congruence between one's personality and the working environment. A person is comfortable and works well in a vocation that fits him psychologically

Holland organizes and interprets information on both personality and environmental types using four constructs where every construct represents a continuum of possibilities (Leung, 2008). The four constructs are: consistency, differentiation, identity and congruence as follows:

- Consistency is "The degree of relatedness between personality types or between environmental models" (Holland, 1997, p. 4). Some pairs are more closely related to each other than other types

- Differentiation refers to the degree to which a person or environment is well defined. A person or environment that closely looks like a single type is defined as highly differentiated
- Identity is the degree of stability and clarity of a person's or environment's identity. Personal identity occurs with the possession of a clear and stable picture of one's goals, interests and talents while environmental identity is when an environment or an organization has clear and integrated tasks, goals and rewards that are stable over long time intervals
- Congruence is the degree of correspondence of personality types with different environments. For example, congruent social types work well in social environments, as these environments provide the types of opportunities and rewards needed and vice versa

Holland (1997) states that the relationships within and between personality types or environments can be organized according to a hexagonal model in which distances among the types or environments are inversely proportional to the theoretical relationships between them. He emphasizes that some characteristics of person and environment such as gender, age, ethnicity, geography, physical assets or liabilities, social class, educational level attained, intelligence, influence, effort required are incorporated indirectly in the theory. These variables can reduce the range of careers an individual considers but in today's world, even if the range of careers is limited, there is still a range to consider (Leung, 2008).

Personality Typology

Holland's personality types are theoretical groupings to help understand how people vary in their personalities, behaviors and interests (Allison & Cossette, 2007). These types "originate in heredity, direct activities that yield interests and competencies and cumulate in a disposition or propensity to act in certain predictable ways (repertories)" (Spokane, 1996, p. 40).

Every individual's personality is a combination of all the Holland types, yet every individual has a unique representation. The pattern of types of every person is referred to as a subtype (Holland, 1997). A person's dominant type determines his vocational choice (Spokane, 1996).

Environmental Typology

Holland (1997) conducted wide research on the interactions of people in environments. A person's career development over a life span can be pictured as a series of person-environment interactions and their outcomes (Holland, 1997). Since human behavior depends on personality and the environment in which a person lives in, the personality types must be supplemented by environmental information (Lueng, 2008).

Theory 2: Self-concept Theory of career development

Self-concept Theory by Super in 1957 has received a lot of attention in the USA and other parts of the world (Allison & Cossette, 2007). Super (1980, 1990) suggests that career choice and development is principally a process of developing and implementing a person's self-concept. Super (1990) argues that self-concept is a result of complex interactions between a number of factors such as physical and mental growth, personal experiences and environmental characteristics and stimulation. While Super assumes that there is an organic mechanism acting behind the process of development and maturation, recent review of Super's theory by (Savickas, 2002) calls for a stronger emphasis on the effects of social context and the reciprocal influence between the person and the environment.

For example building on Super's view, Savickas (2002) takes a constructivist perspective and postulates that "the process of career construction is essentially that of developing and implementing vocational self-concepts in work roles" (p. 155). A fairly stable self-concept should arise in late adolescence to aid as a guide to career choice and adjustment (Savickas, 2002). But self-concept is not a static entity and it continues to evolve as the person encounters new experience and advances through the developmental stages (Savickas, 2002). Life and work satisfaction is a continuous process of implementing the evolving self-concept through work and other roles in life (Savickas, 2002).

Super (1990) proposes a life stage developmental framework with the following stages: growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance (or management) and disengagement. At every stage a person has to successfully manage the vocational developmental tasks that are socially expected from him/her in a given chronological age range (Super, 1990). For instance, during exploration stage (ages around 15 to 24) an adolescent has to deal with the vocational developmental tasks of crystallisation (a cognitive process related to understanding

one's interests, skills and values and to pursue career goals consistent with this understanding), specification (i.e. making specific and tentative career choices) and implementation (taking steps to actualize career choices through engaging in job positions and training). According to Super (1990) the concept of "career maturity" is used to denote to the degree that a person is able to accomplish vocational developmental tasks required at every developmental stage.

Due to the mixed results from empirical research studies on career maturity, suggestions were made to replace career maturity with the concept of adaptability (Savickas, 2002, 2005). Whereas the vocational developmental stages mentioned above are likely to progress as "maxi-cycles" in a person's life journey, Super (1990) assumes that a mini-cycle consisting of the same stages from growth to disengagement would likely occur within each of the stages, especially when a person transits from one stage to the next. Individuals go through a mini-cycle of the stages whenever they have to make expected and unexpected career transitions such as loss of employment or due to personal or socioeconomic circumstances (Savickas, 2002).

The contextual emphasis of Super's theory is most clearly understood through his postulation of life roles and life space. Life at any point is an aggregate of roles that a person assumes, such as child, student, citizen, worker, parent, and homemaker (Super, 1980, 1990). The significance of different life roles changes as one progresses through life stages, yet at every single moment, two or three roles might take a more dominant place, while others remain marginal (Super, 1990). Life space is the group of different life roles a person plays at a given time in different contexts such as home, community, school and workplace (Super, 1990). Role conflicts, role interference and role confusions would likely happen when individuals are restricted in their ability to handle the demands accompanying their multiple roles.

Theory 3: Theory of work adjustment

Dawis, England and Lofquist's theory of work adjustment (TWA) in 1950s represents a long history of research and provides links to the psychology of individual differences emphasizing measurement and quantification (Patton & McMahon, 2006). It is considered one of the well-crafted theories of career development and choice given its carefully defined constructs that

have been operationalized using a number of assessment instruments (Brown, 2003). The theory has been refined over time and it now includes 19 propositions (Dawis, 2005).

The theory provides a model that depicts the interaction between individuals and work environment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984) and is based on four basic psychological concepts: ability, reinforcement value, satisfaction and person environment correspondence (Dawis, 1994).

Person-environment correspondence is the central construct of the theory as it relates to the fit between person and the environment as well as the co-responsiveness of a person and the environment to each other (Dawis, 2005). Individuals exist in a dynamic relationship with their working environment. They seek to develop a satisfactory relationship through continuous adjustments (Patton & McMahon, 2006).

Based on this theory, a person has requirements or needs from his/her working environment and in turn the work environment has needs or requirements of a worker (Patton & McMahon, 2006). When individual and the environment needs are met, the situation is referred to as correspondence (Dawis, 2005). Any factor that satisfies needs such as achievement, security, social status is called reinforcer since it can increase or maintain behavior (Dawis, 1996). Both individuals and environment want their needs to be met so when correspondence happens both will express satisfaction (Patton & McMahon, 2006). Satisfaction relates to an individual's experience of the environment while satisfactoriness relates to the environment's experience and whether the individual is meeting expectations. Correspondence leads to stability and tenure (Dawis, 2005).

According to Dawis and Lofquist (1984) there are six key values individuals seek to satisfy:
Achievement: circumstances that encourage accomplishment and progress
Comfort: circumstances that encourage lack of stress
Status: circumstances that provide recognition and prestige
Altruism: circumstances that foster harmony and service to others
Safety: circumstances that establish predictability and stability
Autonomy: circumstances that increase personal control and initiative

The theory also takes into consideration the psychology of individual differences and argues if a person and the environment can be described in certain terms; the matching can occur (Dawis, 2005). Not only individuals have a range of skills, they also have abilities (Dawis, 1994). Dawis (1996) describes skills and needs as surface traits and abilities and values as source traits. Surface traits usually change over time in response to situations while source traits remain stable over time and provide structure of personality (Dawis, 1994). The theory acknowledges individuals capacity to change and recognizes the variable processes of career development (Patton & McMahon, 2006). Measuring abilities allows for a better match of a person and an occupation than measuring skills (Patton & McMahon, 2006). Work needs are considered reinforces. There's an interaction between the needs of a person and the needs of an environment (Dawis, 1996). The individual's behavior is reinforced when needs are met while reinforcement occurs when individual values and the work environment correspond (Dawis, 1996).

The theory not only describes characteristics of personality but also identifies and labels process variables. For example celerity is used to describe work behavior and denotes the quickness of workers initiatives interaction with the working environment. Pace refers to the level of effort in the interaction. Rhythm relates to the pattern of pace in the interaction while steady, erratic and endurance relate to the length a worker remains in the interaction (Dawis, 1996).

However, individuals and work environment needs are not stable i.e. changes in either can occur. Discorrespondence occurs when correspondence is not met (Dawis, 1996). How tolerant an individual is to this discorrespondence depends on their flexibility (Dawis, 1996). Individuals can react by trying to change their environment (a situation described as active mode) or tries to change themselves (a situation described as reactive mode reactive mode. The adjustment style depends on a person's activeness, flexibility, reactiveness and perseverance, all of which relate to personality style (Dawis, 1996).

Theory 4: Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT)

First originated by Lent, Brown and Hackett in 1994 and refined in 2002, Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) is a general framework that integrates other theoretical viewpoints and hypotheses that generated support in career literature and is relevant to both academic choice

and career development outside of academia (Allison & Corrsett, 2007). The theory is built on Bandura's self-efficacy theory (1977, 1997), which postulates a mutually influencing relationship between people and the environment (Brown & Lent, 2004; Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 2002).

The theory includes aspects of sociological, learning, psychological and decision-making theories emphasizing on the psychological constructs that play a significant role in career decision-making (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 2002).

The Source of SCCT

SCCT concepts are primarily derived from Albert Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) emphasizing the role of a person's cognitive processes and mechanisms in guiding motivation and behavior (Allison & Corrsett, 2007). Explicit behavior is a result of the interchange between a person's experience and self-system (e.g. conceptions of ability, interests, and needs) (Bandura, 1977). Experience is formed through repeated interaction with the surrounding environment where environmental information is transmitted to an individual directly, vicariously and/or symbolically. Once this information is processed a person's internal qualities are formed (Bandura, 1977).

The interaction of person, environment and behavior is termed "triadic reciprocal model of causality." In this interaction (a) personal attributes such as internal cognitive and affective states and physical attributes (b) external environmental factors and (c) overt behavior (as distinct from internal and physical qualities of the person) all operate as interlocking mechanisms to affect each other bidirectionally (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 1994). Individuals exercise personal agency (or self-direction) rather than being at the mercy of their environment.

The SCCT Models

In 1994, Lent, Brown and Hackett presented SCCT in terms of three interrelated career development models - interest, choice and performance model. The interest model is concerned with childhood and early adolescence and focuses on the development of patterns of likes, dislikes and indifference with regard to career-related activities. These patterns are formed through interactions with environmental influence and through learning experiences.

Children's cognitive mechanisms such as beliefs about their own abilities develop over these experiences as well. The choice model covers late adolescence and early adulthood. It focuses on the factors and processes involved in making vocational decisions. The third is the performance model which covers primarily the time from a person's first job to later in life. It addresses performance attainments, accomplishments and persistence in one's chosen field (Brown & Lent, 2004).

Each of the three models uses the same constructs and shows the predominant hypothetical pathways in the process of career decision-making in each stage. The models are referred to as segmental models since each model covers a specific developmental time span and interlocks with the other two (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 1994). The models seek to explain (a) the development of academic and vocational interest, (b) how individuals make educational and career choices, and (c) educational and career performance and stability (Leung, 2008).

Because the choice model includes aspects of the two other models and is the one most applicable to this research it will be examined in detailed below.

Key Constructs in the Choice Model

The three key constructs of SCCT are self-efficacy, outcome expectations and goals. According to Lent, Brown and Hackett (2002), they establish the key mechanisms for people to exercise personal agency.

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy refers to beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce specified attainments (Bandura, 1986). Human agency is a vital construct of self-efficacy, which helps an individual determine effort within an activity, goal setting, and persistence (Bandura, 2000). Self-efficacy predicts how long an individual will persist toward a chosen goal and take into consideration negative encounters related to moving toward achieving that goal (Bandura, 1977). A person who believes she/he has high effectiveness in a certain activity is likely to have a high level of self-efficacy. On the other hand, individuals with high self-efficacy expect positive outcomes (Cunningham, Doherty, & Gregg, 2007). A strong sense of self-efficacy itself does not influence an individual's decision

to continue toward what he/she expects to gain from a selected occupation. Other key variables are inextricably linked, such as outcomes and goals (Graham, 2010).

Self-efficacy is sometimes used interchangeably with confidence (Assessing Women in Engineering (AWE, 2005). Confidence denotes only the *strength* of certainty of one's beliefs and is one component of self-efficacy (AWE, 2005). The other two components of self-efficacy are *magnitude* of task difficulty mastered and *generality,* or degree of extension of mastery experiences to domains other than the one(s) in which mastery is experienced (Bandura, 1977). Researchers recently are using the term "competence" interchangeably with self-efficacy (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 2002).

According to SCCT, self-efficacy is derived from four sources of information.

- Mastery experiences: this refers to personal accomplishments and performance. When a person carries out a task, one not only learns how to do it, he/she gains a feeling of success (or failure). When the task is repeated, one increases his/her skills in it. The theory gives particular weight to these experiences. People will pursue activities in which they are successful and avoid activities in which they do poorly
- Verbal persuasion includes feedback from important others such as family members and teachers, particularly on one's interests and abilities. Verbal persuasion guides development through providing positive and/or negative reinforcement
- Vicarious experience: even if a person does not have direct experience, he/she can learn from other people's experiences through reading and/or observing their progress (role modeling)
- Physiological responses include emotional states such as composure, anxiety and exhilaration and overall affective reactions of liking or disliking something

These influences dynamically interact with context and environment to help shape an individual's career decision making. Research indicates that performance accomplishments have the biggest influence on self-efficacy beliefs (Anderson & Betz, 2001).

Information is transmitted from these sources to the individual through social interactions and contexts *during childhood.* If self-efficacy is established during childhood, before or during the formation of interests, career interventions directed to increasing self-efficacy after this

point are of no effect. But Bandura allows for the direct effect of contextual influences on a person's perception of self-efficacy at any point in development (Lent, Brown & Brenner, 2001).

There are many types of self-efficacy. Task self-efficacy is the perceived capability to perform specific behaviors required to succeed in a given domain under ordinary, optimal or unspecified performance conditions (Lent, et al., 2002). Coping efficacy is one's perceived capability to negotiate certain situational features that complicate or obstruct performance (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 2000).

Outcome Expectations

Lent, Brown, and Hackett (2002) define outcome expectations as "personal beliefs about the consequences or outcomes of performing particular behavior" (p. 262). They include beliefs about extrinsic reward associated with performing the targeted behavior, self-directed consequences and outcomes derived from task performance. Outcome expectations are formed by the same information or learning experiences shaping self-efficacy beliefs (Leung, 2008). SCCT argues that if a person has negative outcome expectations about an activity, he/she will avoid it. There are three categories of positive outcome expectations:

1. Physical rewards, such as money
2. Social rewards, such as status or approval
3. Self-evaluative rewards, such as fulfilling values or satisfaction

Lent, Brown, and Hackett (1996) incorporate values in outcome expectations category. Values are preferences for particular reinforces such as money, status or autonomy (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 1996). Lent, Brown, and Hackett argue that when outcome expectations are negative they act as a type of barrier (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 2000). Outcome expectations are divided into short-term process expectations and long-term outcome expectations. Short-term process expectations include perceived supports and barriers encountered while pursuing a particular course of action at the time of decision-making (*proximal* expectations). While Long-term outcome expectations are related to a person's ultimate goal (as *distal* outcome expectations).

Goals

Goals are referred to as "Choice Goals" in the choice model. They refer to expressed career choice intentions (Brown & Lent, 2004). Bandura defines a goal as "the determination to engage in a particular activity or to bring about a particular outcome" (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 1994, p. 85). Personal goals refer to one's intention to engage in certain activity or to produce a particular outcome (Brown & Lent, 2004). SCCT differentiates between choice content goals that relate to the choice of activities to pursue and performance goals that relate to the level of accomplishment or performance one aims to attain. By setting personal goals, individuals could persist in tasks and sustain behavior for longer time in the absence of tangible external reinforcement (Leung, 2008).

Lent, Brown and Hackett call expressed intentions, career plans, career decisions, and aspirations as goal mechanisms and are presumed to be motivating behavior. Devotion to goals can vary in specificity, clarity, intensity and commitment. Goals can have sub-goals and to set goals, a person must establish internal standards for behavior, be able to self-evaluate and have a vision of a future outcome. Goals organize and guide behavior, maintain it over long periods of time and increase the probability of attaining long-term goals (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 1994).

Other Constructs

The remaining constructs in SCCT's choice model are contextual influences (environment), person inputs, learning experiences, interest, choice actions and performance domains and attainments.

Contextual Influences (Background, Environment)

Context is the environment within which a person operates. Culture can be considered an environmental influence and a person input as well (Lent & Worthington, 2000). An individual's own perceptions and reactions to culturally constructed concepts in his/her environment can become a person input. The choice model discusses two points in time at which contextual influences and factors have an impact. First is childhood and the second is when an individual begins the process of career decision-making; i.e. convert interests into career aspirations and then act on these aspirations referred to in SCCT as "moderating influences (Brown & Lent, 2004).

Contextual influences include "contextual affordances." which are the resources provided by one's environment such as education and job availability. When a factor is negative it is referred to as a barrier. The environment also includes support system such as emotional, instrumental and financial support received from a person's family, friends and community (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 2002)

Person Inputs

Person inputs include a person's own perceptions of and reactions to culturally constructed concepts of gender, race, ethnicity, health status and/or disability. Predispositions are included as part of person input (Brown & Lent, 2004).

Learning Experiences

Learning experiences within an individual's environment play a key role in defining whether or not an individual views specific career goals as achievable (Graham, 2010). A person learns a great deal by participating in social interactions and activities while growing up. Some of these activities are relevant to future career choices. Such activities can include being exposed to various occupational tasks, developing particular mental and physical skills, and/or developing patterns of likes and dislikes (Brown & Lent, 2004).

Interests

Interests are individual's patterns of likes and dislikes. These patterns guide a person in considering occupational choices (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 2002). According to SCCT, context and person inputs contribute to learning experiences during childhood. Learning experiences contribute to self-efficacy and outcome expectations. Self-efficacy and outcome expectations shape vocational interests and are co-determinants of choice (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 2002).

Interests are influenced by outcome expectations and self-efficacy (Chronister & McWhirter, 2003). Interests influence subsequent career choice and outcome processes, but does not lead to actual career behavior. Interests promote goal development, which influences career choice (Lent et al., 1994). A person is likely to emphasize interest in a particular area if those interests are a) believed to have a positive outcome (outcome expectations); and b) able to be performed effectively (self-efficacy) (Lent et al., 1996).

If interest is not pursued with an actual behavior, it remains a cognitive variable with no direct consequence on the individual's behaviors. Vocational interests are predicted by self-efficacy and outcome expectations (Lent et al., 1994). Interest development can be influenced by goals and achievements within a specific subject. An expressed interest in a career may lead an individual to choose that career (Chronister & McWhirter, 2003). SCCT de-emphasizes the role of interests in career choice by noting that career interventions should target the underlying processes which form interests rather than interests themselves (Brown & Lent, 2004).

Choice Actions

Choice actions refer to career entry behaviors such as declaring major, taking courses in one's field of interest and/or seeking to participate in internships, apprenticeships or other hands-on activities. This participation can positively or negatively influence a person's commitment to continue in their chosen path (Brown & Lent, 2004).

Performance Domains and Attainments

Performance includes specific actions in the career journey (Lent et al., 1994). The first is attainment and the second is persistence (Lent & Brown, 1996). Performance in a chosen occupation may be influenced by variables such as self-efficacy and goals. Persistence is the ability to sustain the career choice over time and is a key component of performance in a chosen career (Graham, 2010)

Once a person chooses a career, obtains the necessary training and finds a job, SCCT looks at how the person performs in her/his chosen career and at the achievements s/he achieves. Experience in a career can lead to choosing a new career. According to the choice model, learning experience feeds directly back into self-efficacy and outcome expectations, both to determine interests (except that self-efficacy beliefs are supposedly formed only during childhood). Interests influence "choice goals" and "choice actions," which lead to performance domains and attainments (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 2002).

Relationships between the Constructs

The interplay between constructs of self-efficacy, outcome expectations and career choice goals is a dynamic and ever-changing process known as triadic reciprocity (Lent et al., 1994,

2001). Triadic reciprocity denotes to the idea that personal attributes such as environmental influence, thinking, and behavior act together to determine an individual's career decision-making (Bandura, 1986).

Self-efficacy, outcome expectations and personal goals serve as core variables in the interest, choice, and performance models of SCCT. The interest model postulates that individuals are likely to develop interest in activities that (a) they feel efficacious and (b) anticipate that there would be positive outcomes associated with the activities. The dynamic interaction among interest, self-efficacy, and outcome expectations leads to the formation of goals and intentions that serve to sustain behavior over time, leading to the formation of a stable pattern of interest in adolescence or early adulthood (Brown & Lent, 2004).

The choice model views the development of career goals and choices as a result of the interaction between self-efficacy, outcome expectations and interest over time. Career choice is an unfolding process in which the person and the environment mutually influence each other. It involves the specification of primary career choice or goal, actions aiming to achieve one's goal, and performance experience provides feedback to the individual on the suitability of goal. Also SCCT argues that compromises in personal interests might be required in the career choice process due to contexts immediate to the person (e.g., cultural beliefs, social barriers, lack of support) (Leung, 2008).

An "ability" factor, defined as one's achievement, aptitude, and past performance, is highlighted in the performance model of SCCT. Ability acts as feedback from reality to inform one's self-efficacy and outcome expectation, which eventually influences performance goals and levels (Brown & Lent, 2004).

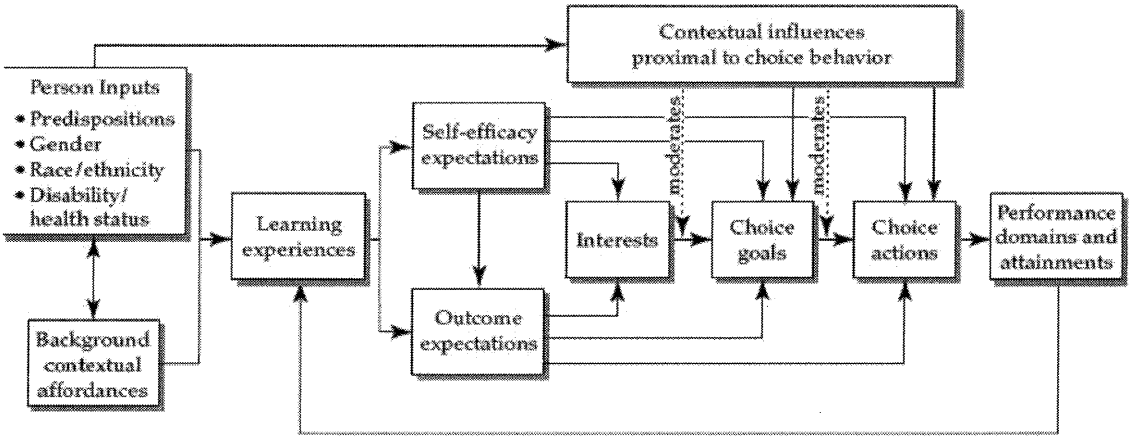


Fig.(2-1) Model of Person, Contextual and Experiential Factors Affecting Career-Related Choice Behavior by S. Brown & R. Lent, 2004, Career Development and Counseling: Putting Theory and Research to Work, John Wiley & Sons, 2, 108. Copyright 2004 by S. Brown & R. Lent

Research on Social Cognitive Career Theory

The central constructs of SCCT have attracted a good deal of research in recent years; among these constructs, self-efficacy has received the most attention (Brown & Lent, 2004). Research suggests that gender differences in self-efficacy help explain male-female differences in occupational choices (e.g., Bandura, 1997; Hackett & Lent, 1992).

Meta-analysis of SCCT's choice hypotheses has shown that career-related choices are predicted by interests (Lent et al., 1994). Self-efficacy and outcome expectations also relate directly and indirectly to career choice through their linkage to interests (Lent et al., 1994). A number of studies has examined how environmental supports and barriers relate to the choice process; these variables strengthen or weaken self-efficacy beliefs, which, in turn, promote interest and choice (e.g., Lent, Brown, Nota, & Soresi, 2003; Lent, Brown, Schmidt, et al., 2003).

Landry (2003) used Social Cognitive Career Theory to explore the relationships between self-Efficacy, motivation, outcome expectations and intention certainty on 441 undergraduate students. Her findings show that positive outcome expectations and self-efficacy beliefs make the strongest contribution to students' intentions to persist in obtaining a college degree.

Herrmann (2010) also uses Social Cognitive Career Theory to investigate how contextual factors (barrier and supports) predict career self-efficacy and outcome expectations, which in turn predict magnitude of career interests and along with interests predict career goal setting on a sample of 350 juveniles. He reports proactivity, parents' emotional support and academic achievement as predictive of career self-efficacy. He also reports proactivity, parents' instrumental support, perceptions of barriers and parents' verbal encouragement as predictive of career outcome expectations. Self-efficacy and outcome expectations are predictive of magnitude of interests and self-efficacy, outcome expectations and interests are predictive of career goal setting.

Early efforts to extend social cognitive theory to career behavior focused on how the self-efficacy impacts women career development. Hackett and Betz (1981) found that college women reported higher self-efficacy for performing in occupations that are dominated by women than by men. Other researches shows that self-efficacy beliefs help explain gender differences in scientific/technical field interests (e.g., Lapan, Boggs, & Morrill, 1989). Dickerson and Taylor (2000) reports that women with high self-efficacy for leadership tasks have greater interest in completing a leadership task rather than a follower task.

Lindley (2005) examines the relationships between self-efficacy, outcome expectations, perceived barriers and career choice. She finds support for hypothesized relationships between self-efficacy, outcome expectations and career choice; but she finds that outcome expectations for careers are positively related to perceived career/ educational barriers for women.

In a qualitative study, Graham (2010) explores the experience of persistence among female musicians using Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT). Four main themes emerge from his data analysis: social support, overcoming hardship, identity and education supporting previous literature related the Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT).

Social Cognitive Career Theory as a Framework for this study

Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) provides the framework for this qualitative study. Social Cognitive Career Theory is a general framework that integrates many other theoretical perspectives and hypotheses that have gained support in career literature (Lent, Brown &

Hackett, 2002). The theory is designed to aid understanding of the career development in academia and outside of academia, taking into account factors such as race/ ethnicity, culture, gender, socioeconomic status, age, and disability status (Brown & Lent, 2004).

The framework depicts how individuals develop interests, make choices and accomplish goals in relation to career and education activities (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994). It also considers the impact of person inputs and background contextual affordances on career self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations through career relevant learning experiences (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994). This integrative feature is considered one of the theory's strong points because it combines features of sociological, learning, psychological, and decision-making theories, with a focus on the psychological constructs that play a key role in career decision-making (Allison & Cossette, 2007).

The Social Cognitive Career Theory also offers a useful theoretical framework for increasing the understanding of the role of perceived contextual factors on career development (Graham, 2010). It considers situations where contextual factors (i.e., lack of material resources, lack of parental supports) help shape an individual's career development and might affect career goals (Graham, 2010). It provides numerous key concepts for career development and it has been empirically supported among ethnic groups (Flores & O'Brian, 2002; Tang, Fouad, & Smith, 1999).

Developing an understanding of how women choose careers entails going back to basic paradigms, extracting those approaches and constructs empirically proven to be very applicable, and viewing these from new outlooks (Allison & Cossette, 2007). Much of the SCCT research on women career development has focused on women in science and engineering (e.g., Fouad & Smith, 1996; Lent et al., 2001; Sax & Bryant, 2006). The inclusion of internal and contextual variables impact is necessary in drawing links in the extant research on women's leadership development.

Barriers and supports

The literature on women career development identifies a number of factors that have implications as barriers and/or supports. The factors discussed in this section are gender stereotypes, trade-off between family and work, discrimination, organization culture,

organization practices, leadership and decision-making, mentoring, access to networks and education and training. A summary of these factors is presented in Table 1 below.

Gender stereotypes

The literature on career development of women refers to the existence of a "glass ceiling" (Igbaria & Wormley, 1992). According to Broadbridge (2008) glass ceiling is the invisible wall separating women from advancing to the top. Existing research indicates that women worldwide continue to encounter barriers to managerial positions because people, on average, sex stereotype the characteristics of managers favoring men (Elsaid & Elsaid, 2012). Eagly and Carli (2007) describe gender stereotypes as the beliefs about social groups, such as the social group of women. These beliefs about women can be descriptive (what we think they are) and prescriptive (what we think they should be) (Eagly & Carli, 2007). Sex role stereotyping creates negative views about the capability of women to hold these positions and argue that women are not as qualified as men or do not have the necessary qualities to be successful managers (Elsaid & Elsaid, 2012). These opinions, if left unexamined will strengthen the sex role stereotypes that already exist (Elsaid & Elsaid, 2012).

The gender stereotype literature examines explanations to account for the lack of women in senior management positions and focuses on stereotypical views held about women and the managerial roles they occupy in the workplace (Elsaid & Elsaid, 2012). One way to understand stereotypes is through Role Congruity Theory (Elsaid & Elsaid, 2012). Gender Role Congruity (GRC) are the shared expectations that apply to individuals based on their socially defined sex (Eagly, 1987). Eagly and Diekman, (2005) argue that a group will be evaluated positively when its characteristics are seen to align with the requirements of the group's social role. Consequently, men and women attempt to fulfill the roles that are available to them in the society by acquiring role-related skills (Eagly et al., 2000b). In many countries, compared to men, women perform more domestic work and spend less time in paid employment (Shelton, 1992). Women are also stereotyped as inadequate at giving orders, running meetings and challenging ideas they disagree with (Kattara, 2005). Heilman et al., (2004) found that there is a disapproving perception against females as disrupting gender stereotypes.

Schein's (1975) early work demonstrates that the position of manager was sex-typed as a male occupation. Qualities such as leadership ability, competitiveness, confidence, objectivity, aggression, ambition, forcefulness and desiring responsibility were qualities often assumed to reside in men (Jogulu & Wood, 2011; Schein, 1975). Furthermore, almost 20 years after the initial research, stereotypical attitudes were still found to be prevalent toward women in managerial roles in a study where both sexes reported that a successful middle-manager was likely to have the characteristics believed to be displayed by men more frequently than by women (Jogulu & Wood, 2011; Schein, 1994). In the twenty-first century, gender stereotypes have continued to create barriers for women career development, with stereotypes about the maleness of the management role persisting (Heilman, 2001; Jogulu & Wood, 2011; Schein, 2001). Such views are based on a perception that females are more suited to a supportive, nurturing role such as motherhood, rather than the decision-making role of management (Eupen, 2010; Jogulu & Wood, 2011).

Indeed, women's stereotyping as communal beings clashes with common thoughts that executive advancement requires single mindedness and the display of agentic traits such as independence, assertiveness and confidence (Ezzedeen & Ritchey, 2009). Here, women face a double disadvantage: if they display agency, they are punished for gender non-conformity and if they display communal attributes, they are referred to as not agentic enough (Korabik, 1990). Women as a result of their unique biological reality can find themselves having to make choices that men do not experience (Ezzedeen & Ritchey, 2009).

Trade-off between family and work

Family related variables are becoming one of the most significant gender issues in the past two decades especially in the U.S (LaPierre & Zimmerman, 2012). Women's responsibility for both home and children is another potential reason for the slow career advancement of women (Stone, 2007). The role of family responsibilities and work-family conflict in predicting the under-representation of women in senior management positions is not very clear (LaPierre & Zimmerman, 2012). Women often mention that family roles have been problematic for their advancement, although this relationship appears stronger at lower levels than at higher levels (Metz & Tharenou, 2001). Other studies found no impact of family factors on advancement (Tharenou, 1999). Some women choose to be out of senior-management positions due to work-family conflict (Broadbridge, 2008).

Role conflict theory suggests that individuals possess limited amounts of time and energy and added roles create stress between competing demands and cause a sense of overload and role conflict (Fu & Shaffer, 2001). On the other hand, Ruderman et al. (2002) claim that multiple roles are very valuable and help to enrich the lives of individuals.

Women also face a unique biological reality (Ezzedeen & Ritchey, 2009). The foundational career building years generally coincide with women's fertility and women can find themselves having to make choices that men do not experience (Ezzedeen & Ritchey, 2009). Studies also suggest women have a hard time finding eligible partners to begin with because their professional ambitions are generally not appealing to men (Hewlett, 2002). Although male input in domestic work has never been higher than today, men still do not fully split domestic responsibility with women (Eupen, 2010). Therefore women are forced to take more leave, maternity breaks and work more hours (Eupen, 2010). Another disadvantage of this trade-off is that people expect women to put less effort than men, on the assumption that women will choose family as their primary concern (Eupen, 2010).

There are also social and familial factors that make it harder for married women to put forth the kind of effort and dedication that allows individuals to advance to higher levels (Ezzedeen & Ritchey, 2009). Despite record rates of female labor participation and progress in gender attitudes, modern Western family norms still hold women accountable for home, which makes it harder for them to advance (Bartley et al., 2005). Although having children does not change their professional orientation, women are more likely than men to amend their careers in response to parenting. Consequent workforce absences and fewer years of experience undercut their advancement and earnings across occupations (Ezzedeen & Ritchey, 2009).

There is considerable evidence that family related work interruptions also impact promotions and pay for women (LaPierre & Zimmerman, 2012). Moreover, compared to men, female senior managers are more likely to be single, or married and childless (Chenevert & Tremblay, 2002; Kirchmeyer, 2002). This means that women may make choices regarding family commitments based on their perception that family is a barrier to their career advancement (Tharenou, 2005). Family considerations may also curb advancement by geographically restraining some women (LaPierre & Zimmerman, 2012). Empirical research

by Bielby (1992) suggests that wives are less likely than husbands to move for improved job opportunities.

Many women select career changes prompted by a desire for a better work-life balance and a desire for a different lifestyle which could mean making lateral rather than upward career moves (Cornelius & Skinner, 2005). On the other hand, the majority of men would not trade career development for more time with their family. Thus at least for some women, it may be that the failure to achieve higher positions represents choice rather than repression (Cornelius & Skinner, 2005).

Discrimination

Eagly and Carli (2007) pose the question whether discrimination is still a barrier. They conclude that both wage differences and promotions are still subject to different forms of discrimination (Eagly & Carli, 2007). Although the numbers are improving, the gender gap in authority still exists (Eagly & Carli, 2007). Promotions for women, for instance come slower than for men assuming equivalent positions (Eupen, 2010). The lessening number of women going up the hierarchical organizational ladder is the result of the bias against women of all ranks, which has an effect for the number of women in higher positions (Eupen, 2010). Women managers are more likely to report gender discrimination in advancement than men, with some studies showing it as the common barrier identified by women (Metz & Tharenou, 2001).

Other writings emphasize the existence of structured corporate inequalities and institutional discrimination such as preference for male candidates in recruitment/promotion/assignments, pay discrepancies, limited education and training opportunities, exclusion from power networks, absence of role models, limited availability of childcare arrangements, lack of flexible working hours or other family friendly initiatives (Metz, 2003; Yoo, 2003).

Surveys by the Equal Opportunities Commission (EOC) in 2002 illustrate that the pay gap between men and women has remained static and men tend to be promoted more quickly (Neatheyet al., 2003). The depiction for women reaching the top level in organizations is somewhat mixed (Cornelius & Skinner, 2005). A survey of FTSE 100 companies suggested the presence of women on board of directors remains small at 7.2 per cent (Vinnacombe,

2002). Another report by the Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) suggests shortage of female non-executive directors (2003) and a survey by Equal Opportunities Commission EOC in 2004 states that the presence of women at the top across all sectors remains little (Cornelius & Skinner, 2005).

Organizational culture

Organizations exist within cultural contexts (Neelankavil et al., 2000) and therefore management and employee assumptions and behavioral, organizational structures and functions are impacted by national culture (Thanacoody et al., 2006). Organizational culture has been studied broadly in the European, American, and Asian literature, and studies have shown that gender inequities in the workplace are the root cause of the discriminatory treatment against women that constrains their upward progress (Davidson & Burke, 2004; Schein, 2007). Having women as managers' breaks the social norm of men's higher status and superiority (Powell, 1999). Such barriers still continues in today's modern world and is unchallenged in spite of women's higher educational attainment levels (Schein, 2001).

Organizational practices

Organizational practices include managerial selection and recruitment, promotion actions, performance assessment and training and development opportunities (Tlaiss & Kausar, 2010). While several studies have reported the attempts of leading organizations in supporting women's advancement (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1994; Singh et al., 2006), many continue to show that nothing has really changed (Eagly & Carli, 2007). Negative attitudes and sex-typed stereotypes of women in the workplace persist to be reflected in discriminatory organizational practices through discriminatory recruitment and selection processes, training and development opportunities, performance assessment procedures and promotions (Anker, 1997; Cleveland et al., 2000; Kottke & Agars, 2005; Schein, 2007; Simpson et al., 2004).

Other women managers identified numerous constraints of a structural nature, including elimination from formal and informal networks, the absence of related benefits and corporate developmental assignments that are used to train male managers for senior leadership in their companies (Al-Lamky, 2007; Jamali, Sidani & Safieddine, 2005; Tlaiss & Kauser 2011). Some women managers also note that organizations section opportunity structure and job

markets, in ways, which permit men to achieve positions of power and prestige more easily than women (Jamali et al., 2005).

Research strongly indicates that organizations need to understand, recognize and support women career and relationship priorities in order to keep hold of talented professional women (O'Neil & Bilimoria, 2005). Better organizational efforts are required to ensure that women get on-going coaching and mentoring, work for managers who encourage their development, have access to organizational resources and opportunities to develop their skills, are recognized for ability learned through life experiences and non-traditional work histories are given challenging assignments, are acknowledged for their unique talents and contributions (Cornelius & Skinner, 2005; O'Neil & Bilimoria, 2005).

It is argued that organizations' remit regarding the careers of women attempting to break through the glass ceiling needs to be broadened, mainly by those organizations wishing to enhance their CSR with regards to existing and potential employees. Remedies include changing long-hours culture, the development of a socially responsible family agenda, flexible working arrangements (Olsson & Walker, 2004) such as telecommuting (Cornelius & Skinner, 2005), broadening the information base to inform of equality initiatives, the routine review of all work and levels, in which work load assessment is as important a component as the criteria normally used for job design and person specifications, the routine use of focus groups to assess the impact of initiatives with regards to combined capabilities and functioning and more proactive inputs on career management (Cornelius & Skinner, 2005).

Numerous organizational practices have been implemented to address women's inclusion and development in organizations (Herrmann, 2010). Mattis (2001) discusses several ideas for best practices in this ground including benchmarking on gender, mentoring programs, and a supportive organizational infrastructure (Singh et al., 2006). There are organizational policies and practices related to gender advancement and diversity management, including creating accountability around diversity initiatives, flex-share programs and support networks (Al-Lamky, 2007). Some of these initiatives focus on employing understated groups into the organization and others are directed toward changing the organizational systems themselves (Al-Lamky, 2007).

A critical need for women is to better integrate their work-lives and non-work lives (Eikhof, 2012, Maxwell et al., 2007). Organizations can aid this by legitimizing various career paths and options and providing an environment of acceptance and support for the many responsibilities women have and the many choices they face (O'Neil & Bilimoria, 2005). For example, flexible work hours, work arrangements and job restructuring to help them in mediating the many different roles they play in their lives (Olsson & Walker, 2004). Women also need challenging assignments, mentoring and good management (Jamali et al., 2005). Managers must be aware that the careers of these women are part of their larger life contexts and work with each individual to identify the required resources that will allow them to do their best at work (O'Neil & Bilimoria, 2005). Organizations that create working environments that do not disadvantage women wanting to integrate work family lives will clearly have a competitive edge in retaining their most talented employees (Samardzic & Taksa, 2011).

There has also been a general tendency towards knowledge work. In knowledge work there's less dependence on the physical infrastructure of an organization and production lies with the workers themselves and actual work practices (Eikhof, 2012). These workers have more autonomy and control over how, when and where they conduct work (Darr & Warhurst, 2008; Eikhof, 2012). The use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) to take work outside the office enables workers to modify working hours to their preferences (Felstead et al., 2005; Warhurst et al., 2008).

The issue of gender inequity at higher levels within organizations has been tackled by various approaches ranging through policy initiatives designed to aid successful performance accomplishments, provide role models, and offer social persuasion and encouragement (Betz, 2007; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2010). Policy initiatives include equal opportunity legislation, gender targets and affirmative action programs (Tlaiss & Kauser, 2010; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011). Stronger legislative programs are needed to oblige compliance with the principle and realities of equal opportunities in order to exploit the full talent of women in management (Al-Lamky, 2007)

The success or failure of these efforts is dependent on how they are perceived by organizational members – both men and women (Knorr, 2011). If such policies are not

contained by organizational members, they will not solve old problems, and are likely to create new ones (Knorr, 2011). Multicultural organizations today recognize culture, diversity, equity regarding gender and racial policies and equal practices, according to worker needs (O'Neil & Bilimoria, 2005).

Leadership and decision-making

Crampton and Mishra (1999) find that women's leadership style is transformational whereas men have a transactional style. Transformational leaders motivate subordinates to go beyond their own self-interests for the good of the group or organization by setting remarkably high standards for performance and then developing subordinates to achieve them (Bass, 1998). Through this, they turn followers into leaders. In contrast, transactional leaders focus on clarifying subordinates responsibilities and then respond to how well they execute them (Powell, 2012). Transformational leaders may be transactional when it is required to achieve their goals but transactional leaders are seldom transformational (Powell, 2012).

With the increased representation of women in management, more employees are having female bosses and are becoming accustomed to working for a woman. However, employees still prefer a male manager over a female manager (Powell, 2012). All over the globe, respondents have time after time expressed a preference for a male boss (Simmons, 2001, Powell, 2012). Why do people tend to prefer a male boss? Several explanations exist. First, stereotypes suggesting that leaders are more effective if they display personal characteristics associated with men rather than women (Powell, 2012). Second, discrimination directed toward female leaders may make it difficult for women to be as effective as men and reduce their desirability as leaders (Powell, 2012). Third, women and men may differ in their leader role behavior, with males exhibiting behaviors yielding better financial results for the organization and more satisfied subordinates, contributing to the preference for male leaders (Powell, 2012).

Mentoring

Mentors are considered critical for career advancement as they contribute in the career advancement of protégé's by providing sponsorship, coaching, role modeling, and counseling (Herrmann, 2010; Kram, 1985; Singh et al., 2006; Still, 2006; Tlaiss & Kausar, 2011). Mentors are essential to the success of female managers because mentors assist in the

development of the managers' sense of identity and professional confidence (Tlaiss & Kausar, 2011), reduce discrimination (Ragins & Cotton, 1991), help them get a way to information that is available to men (Ragins, 1989), give decision-making power in organizations (Kanter, 1977) and aid their managerial advancement (Ragins, 1999). Mentoring relationships can be considered valuable for women career advancement in a male dominated environment (Al-Lamki, 1999; Herrmann, 2010; Jamali et al., 2005; Kattara, 2005).

Mentoring in organizations can be viewed as a developmental relationship where managers provide assistance and support to their subordinates (protégé's) on an individual basis (Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011). It serves career enhancement and psycho-social functions for the protégé' (Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011). Career enhancement roles in mentoring can be in the form of sponsorship, coaching, exposure, protection and stipulation of challenging assignments (Tlaiss & Kauser, 2010, Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011). The psycho-social functions include acceptance, counseling, emotional support and role modeling (Thanacoody et al., 2006).

Female mentors can act as role models (Olsson & Walker, 2004; Ragins & Scandura, 1994) and provide other women with support and information about how to shatter through the glass ceiling (Thanacoody et al., 2006). Research suggests that female and male mentors are more at ease mentoring their own sex (Kram, 1985; Ragins, 1989; Thanacoody et al., 2006). Female mentees prefer female mentors as they provide gender-related career counseling (Clark, 2000; Salzman, 1996) and emotional connection (Olsson & Walker, 2004).

However, a number of studies have also highlighted the difficulties that female managers encounter to get mentors (Burke & Karambayya, 2004; Cleveland et al., 2000; Kram, 1985; Tlaiss & Kausar, 2010) mainly because of women's token status and potential uneasiness with cross-gender mentors. Therefore, in general lack of a mentor has negatively affected women career advancement and success (Moore, 2006). Kattara (2005) reports that because men have more control in the organization; they are more likely to be mentors.

While men have tried to harvest the best of mentoring relationships at work, women continue to be at a disadvantage due to the limited number of female mentors (Thanacoody et al., 2006). Moreover, Salzman (1996) found that very few women with authority are making an

effort to mentor younger women. Reasons for this reluctance is the poor reward given to them (Salzman, 1996).

Access to networks

The lack of access to organizational networks is increasingly seen as a barrier for women to reach the top (Raginset al., 1998; Tlaiss & Kausar, 2010; Tlaiss & Kausar, 2011). According to Vinnicombe and Colwill (1995) networking is banding together like-minded people for the purposes of contact, friendship and support. These activities are women's attempts to create for themselves the support generated for men by their informal same-sex grouping (Singh et al., 2006).

However, there is little research about the nature of corporate women's networks, or the motivation of the women involved in organizing or using them (Singh et al., 2006). A key feature of women's corporate networks is that they are usually managed by and for women volunteers (Singh et al., 2006). Luthans et al. (1988) argues that a manager's ability to network is the strongest predictor of managerial success, ahead of their ability to undertake traditional management activities, routine communication and human resource management. Michael and Yukl (1993) examined the networking behavior of 247 managers and found that both internal and external networking are related to managers' rate of advancement in their organization, confirming the findings of the (Luthans et al., 1988) study.

Different types of networks have evolved (Vinnicombe & Colwill, 1995). Some are professional and occupational, such as those for women in engineering or finance (Singh et al., 2006). More recently, internal corporate networks have emerged, sometimes started as informal gatherings of women, but developing into more formal networks supported by the employer (Singh et al., 2006).

Since lack of access to organizational networks is increasingly seen as an obstacle for women to reach the top (Catalyst and Opportunity Now, 2000, Ezzedeen & Ritchey, 2009; Ragins et al., 1998) many organizations are starting to support corporate networks for women (Olsson & Walker, 2004).

Successful networking can positively influence career endings through increased job opportunities and satisfaction, job performance, income, promotions (Singh et al., 2006), provide access to information (Singh et al., 2006), gain visibility (Mostafa, 2004), provide career advice (Omair, 2008), social support (Graham, 2010), business leads, resources, collaboration, professional support and strategy making (Green, 1982).

There is little published research on formal corporate networks for women (Ezzedeen & Ritchey, 2009; Olsson & Walker, 2004; Singh et al., 2006). Women tend to use their networks for social support, whilst men use them to promote their careers (Singh et al., 2006). However, recently, women may have become more aware of the importance of networking to their careers, and single/unattached women (in the USA) appear now to engage in these behaviors to a similar extent as males (Forret & Dougherty, 2001).

Catalyst (1999) suggests that women's networks are needed to address three main problem areas: organizational environments that are more challenging for women than men, company social structures which are designed in a way that excludes and isolates women and the established career paths that sometimes exclude women who do not have the benefit of female role models. More recent studies have examined the negative consequences of the absence of organizational networks on the career advancement of managers such as the lack of professional support, career planning and information sharing (Cleveland et al., 2000; Morrison, 1992), lack of interpersonal relationships with subordinate, peers, and superiors (Davidson & Cooper, 1992) and ruling out from informal networks such as important meetings (Jackson, 2001).

Education and Training

Researchers report limited education and training opportunities as one of the barriers impeding women career development (Li & Leung, 2001; Metz, 2003; Yoo, 2003). Hammoud (1993) mentions that the role of women in management cannot be separated from their educational development.

Access to education and training and development initiatives are major factors contributing to women's advancement (Bae, 2002; Jackson et al., 2006; Knorr, 2011; Olsson & Walker, 2004; Wirth, 2001). Training programs not only train employees for their current positions but

can also provide them with the skills and competencies needed for their next position or other future positions (Jackson et al., 2006). Through these programs; weaknesses or competencies that the staff need to develop can be identified (Jackson et al., 2006). Training can consist of seminars, conferences, workshops on-line courses and coaching (Jackson et al., 2006; Olsson & Walker, 2004). Gaining access to formal management training programs, access to the appropriate and relevant training, adjusting training to the needs of women and productive training in gender equity are factors that positively influence women's development in organizations (Knorr, 2011). Training and development initiatives are central to women's development in organizations because they provide women with the skills, credentials, and knowledge needed to succeed in their jobs (Knorr, 2011).

Developmental programs provide opportunities for women to develop self-awareness, improve their self-confidence, undertake challenging assignments, develop leadership skills, learn strategies of balancing work and family and build strong support networks (O'Neil & Bilimoria, 2005; Weyer, 2007). Some researchers suggested skill-building programmers to provide women and organizations with skills to manage issues of diversity, sexism and racism (Akande, 1994; Olsson & Walker, 2004). Also simulations, encounters with the differing sex and awareness and assessment programmers have been recommended to increase women's self-confidence in their bid to compete and deal with management (Akande, 1994).

Other opportunities include career workshops and counseling. Career workshops can help workers manage their own careers. It helps them make career decisions, set career goals, create career options, and search for career planning information (Haskell, 1993; Olsson & Walker, 2004). They allow employees to assess their skills, values, and interests and practice networking, and interviewing (Olsson & Walker, 2004). They can build up career action plans by outlining the steps they will take in their own career paths (Haskell, 1993; Olsson & Walker, 2004). Career counseling also allows employees to discuss with their managers their personal and career interests and goals, their personal skills and abilities, preferences, values, life concerns, and career development objectives (Feldman, 2001; Olsson & Walker, 2004).

Status of women in the Arab world

The labor market in the Arab region has seen major changes during the last few decades, with women undertaking more responsibilities in public fields and occupying higher occupations in organizations (Omair, 2008). These changes are attributed to globalization, westernization, modernization, higher education attainment, positive employment experiences and changes in the mindsets about the traditional female role (Abdalla, 1996; Metcalfe, 2008). The literature always talks about the dominance of men over women at work but the dominance varies depending on the political, economic, social and cultural infrastructures of the Arab countries (Tlaiss & Kauser, 2010).

For example, in the United Arab Emirates, the economic participation of women has increased from 5.4 per cent in 1995 to 27.9 per cent in 2008 (Elamin & Omair, 2010). In Saudi Arabia, women constitute 8.1 percent of the Saudi workforce (2008 est.) compared to other GCC countries (Elamin & Omair, 2010). Despite the increasing partaking of women in the workforce in Middle Eastern countries, women still don't achieve the same levels of success as men (Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011). In the Arab region, women have raised to lower- and mid-level management positions but very few made it to the top levels (Tlaiss & Kauser, 2010). The Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) ranked the Arab region second to last, just above Sub-Saharan Africa (Sidani, 2005). Because women in the Arab world are no longer scared, inferior, domestic women who can hardly get out of the house (Elamin & Omair, 2010). There is a fast increasing trend for female representation in different aspects of work life (Elamin & Omair, 2010).

Barriers to Arab women

Consistent with findings from research conducted in developed countries by (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Kattara, 2005; Schein, 2007; Wood, 2008) the barriers to career development reported by Arab women are discrimination, gender stereotypes, lack of education and training opportunities, lack of access to network and no mentoring (Al-Lamky, 2007; Jamali et al., 2005; Omair, 2010; Tlaiss & Kausar, 2010; Tlaiss & Kausar, 2011).

Gender stereotypes

Stereotypical attitudes are frequently mentioned as a barrier to career advancement (Jamali, et al., 2005). The attitudes towards women in management become important in the Arab world

when women started to enter into the labor force in high numbers (Mostafa, 2005). Attitudes towards women entail expectations about women, which are often based on negative gender stereotypes and wide assumptions about the characteristics of women (Conway & Vartanian, 2000). According to Mostafa (2005), Arab societies seem to be unwilling to discard their traditional view of women as being primarily committed to their homes and children (Abdalla, 1996; Mostafa, 2005). Most Arab men hold women accountable for households and domestic activities and mainly Arab families are concerned with educating their sons rather than daughters because boys are a better economic asset. As a result women are employed in three jobs: teacher, nurse and secretary (Elamin & Omair, 2010).

In Middle Eastern countries, women are seen as lacking the skills desired for engaging in professional careers and basically perceived as second rate to men and, thus, naturally incompatible for management careers (Al-Lamki, 1999). The low representation of women in the labor force is mainly because of the lack of employment opportunities for them rather than lack of interest (Al-Mandhry, 2000). In some countries women are not part of certain professions, for example some fields of medicine, engineering and architecture (Metcalfe, 2008).

Elamin and Omair (2010) investigated Saudi male attitudes towards working women and found that male participants adopted traditional attitudes towards working women. It also showed that Saudi male participants strongly believed that men are independent, dominant, competitive and capable of leadership whereas women are dependent, submissive, caring and good for domestic tasks and child care (Elamin & Omair, 2010). These results disagree with other findings in the region (Mostafa, 2003, 2005) which find that attitudes towards women who work are changing towards a less traditional attitude.

Askar and Ahmad (2003) examined the factors influencing the attitudes towards women in supervisory positions in Kuwaiti organizations in a sample of 278 participants. The results indicate a fairly positive attitude towards women managers. Sex of the participant is important in influencing attitudes towards women managers with females being more supportive to women in supervisory positions.

The attitudes in the Arab Gulf are becoming less traditional; but there is unwillingness to abandon the traditional viewpoint of women as mainly committed to the house and children (Abdalla, 1996; Al-Lamki, 1999; Mostafa, 2003). Gender stereotyping make organizations under-utilize the available pool of talented women (Mostafa, 2005).

Culture

Organizational culture is studied broadly in the European, American, and Asian literature, and studies show that gender inequities in the workplace are the root cause of the discriminatory treatment against women that constrains their upward progress (Davidson & Burke, 2004; Schein, 2007). Mostafa (2005) argues that there is a false impression about the role of women and attitudes towards women managers in the UAE that Arab women are not made-up to publicly take part in the political and administrative processes. This argument is based on the notion that Islam, as a religion restrains and limits women's roles in public affairs. According to Jamali et al. (2005) Islamic personal status laws and patriarchy were commonly characterized in previous research as having a deep impact on the status of Arab women and their participation in Arab society (Karmi, 1996; Kazemi, 2000). Most Middle Eastern countries are governed in varying degrees by Islamic law (Jamali et al., 2005). Gender configurations rely a lot on religion, with varying degrees across Arab societies, to rule women's employment patterns and outline the parameters of their activities (Jamali et al., 2005).

In Saudi for example, there is physical separation at work, in the belief that a woman's contact with men may harm her reputation (Metcalfe, 2008). Most jobs that entail a high level of interaction with male are unsuitable for women from the socio-cultural viewpoint (Elamin & Omair, 2010). These socio-cultural aspects are considerably contributing to shaping the attitudes towards women's participation in the workforce (Elamin & Omair, 2010). Women should work only within specific conditions in line with existing customs and religious teachings and is limited to work in jobs that suit them as females (Almunajjed, 1997). Often, women are appointed in sectors that are conventionally female such as teaching and nursing (Sidani, 2005).

Not all organizations have cultures that improve gender interaction; many organizations have a strong masculine culture, which lead into structural arrangements that isolate women

(Jamali et al., 2005). Some women report rarely being exposed to high visibility projects or corporate developmental assignments that are used to prepare male managers for senior leadership in their companies (Jamali et al., 2005).

Work family balance

Balancing work and family responsibilities is discussed in research conducted in Western countries as a barrier to women career development (Broadbridge, 2008; Kelly, Moen & Tranby, 2011; Stone, 2007). Women's most important job, according to the society, is as a homemaker and a mother, while the man's responsibility is to support and protect his family (Metcalfe, 2008). There is a widespread understanding that work will reduce the quality of family life enjoyed in the home and women themselves may feel that they must compromise their family life at the expense of work (Nazzah, 2004). Women are considered a higher employment risk than men (Jamali et al., 2005). It is usually assumed that women's family and domestic commitments will take priority.

Results of research on the impact of family on Arab women show mixed results. For example, Tlaiss and Kausar (2011) interviewed a number of Lebanese managers and found that single managers foresee a positive impact of being single compared to married ones in terms of having less family-related responsibilities and more time and energy to devote to their careers. As for the married managers, none reported marriage to have a negative impact on their career as the majority stressed its positive impact (Tlaiss & Kausar, 2011). Also having children was not seen as an obstacle for the Lebanese women managers, but rather an added responsibility (Tlaiss & Kausar, 2011)

In addition, women managers in developed countries make choices regarding remaining single or childless (Granlease, 2004; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999; Powell & Graves, 2003). In the Middle East, these choices are less demanding since marriage is a social necessity (Jamali et al., 2005; Kausar, 1995). In Saudi Arabia, Elamin and Omair (2010) mention that Saudi women are allowed to work but should take care of their family first.

Many employers assume that women will leave work once they get married or have children and are reluctant to recruit them; and those who get the job receive less training, promotional opportunities and generally make less money than men in similar jobs (Al-Lamky, 2007).

Organization practices

Organizational practices include managerial selection and recruitment, promotion actions, performance assessment, and training and development (Tlaiss & Kausar, 2010). In the Arab world, a small number of studies examined the impact of organizational practices on women career development (Tlaiss & Kauser, 2010; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011). Hutchings and Weir (2006) argue that the selection process in the Arab world is highly subjective and based on personal contacts and family name. In another study, Weir (2003) report limited access by Arab female managers to on-the-job training and development opportunities and a lack of systematic performance evaluation and career development. Al-Lamki's (1999) research on Omani women found that male bosses have traditional attitudes towards working women leading to discriminatory selection and promotion acts. She also discussed the nonexistence of Human Resource policies and strategies to promote the recruitment and development of female managers at work (Al-Lamki, 1999). There are no programs to assist the advancement of women as role models, no mentoring or training programs (Al-Lamki, 1999).

In Lebanon, Tlaiss and Kauser (2010) argue that organizations lack training and development opportunities, lack performance appraisals, have lower salaries and are greatly structured against the promotion for women. Jamali et al. (2005) say alternative work arrangements such as flextime; job sharing and childcare support are non-existent. In the UAE women face more constraints stemming from gender stereotypes in hiring, promotion and in performance-evaluations decisions (Rhode & Kellerman, 2007).

On the legal side, legislation for equal opportunity and rights are "ink on paper"; the administrative acts do not stand by the legal statements because of the lack of regulatory or auditing procedures on gender discrimination (Al-Lamki, 2007).

Mentoring

The literature on mentoring comes mostly from the West (Burke & Karambayya, 2004; Kattara, 2005). Very few studies examine the existence or effect of mentoring on the career advancement of Arab female managers (Al-Lamky, 2007; Tlaiss & Kausar, 2010). In Oman, Al-Lamki (1999) mentions the absence of role models and mentoring programs as a major organizational issue preventing women's access to top managerial positions. Because there aren't enough women in senior management positions, finding a mentor can be difficult for

women in this region (Tlaiss & Kausar, 2010). Women may miss advancement opportunities because of the shortage of female role models (Tlaiss & Kausar, 2010). More research is required on whether mentoring relationships play a vital role in the career development of Arab female managers (Tlaiss & Kausar, 2010).

In a study by Tlaiss and Kausar (2010) on Lebanese women managers, women did not support the idea of the importance of having a mentor to their career development. This implies that mentoring is nonexistent in the Lebanese workplace. Consequently, most of the women did not see the absence of a mentor as a barrier to their career development and did not attribute their success to having them because they never had one (Tlaiss & Kausar, 2010).

Kattara (2005) reports that because men controlled important networks, that have access to the organization's power and precious organizational information, they are more likely to be mentors. According to Al-Lamky (2007), mentoring could be important in this region but not realized because women don't have mentors. Al-Lamki's (1999) findings in Oman argues that a small share of senior women managers relate having mentors to reaching higher positions.

Access to networks

In the Middle Eastern context organizational networks are becoming important for managerial behavior and success (Tlaiss & Kausar, 2010; Tlaiss & Kausar, 2011). Women's lack of access to organizational networks seems to continue (Jamali et al., 2005; McElwee & Al-Riyami, 2003). Many women managers mention difficulties with subordinates in interpersonal relationships (Jamali et al., 2005; Wilkinson, 1996) and report being excluded from informal networks (Jamali et al., 2005; Kattara, 2005). This lack means that Arab women managers may be underprivileged in career planning, professional support, access to key personnel and organizational information (Tlaiss & Kausar, 2011).

One aspect of networking relates to the usage of *Wasta*. *Wasta* seems to have a major effect on career advancement in the Arab world. This type of social connection permeates the business activities of Middle Eastern countries (Hutchings & Weir, 2006). According to Hutchings and Weir (2006), *Wasta* refers to social networks of interpersonal connections

based on family and kinship ties and involves exercising power and influence through social and political-business networks.

Wasta is a mix of the internal and external networks that have been addressed in the western literature (i.e. while internal networking includes subordinate peers and superiors (Kaplan, 1984), external networking relates to relationships with people outside the organization, such as key customers, clients, suppliers, government officials and members of professional trade associations (Tlaiss & Kauser, 2010).

The usage of *Wasta* means that promotions, training and development opportunities and many other features of management end up being based on relations and family networks and not on personal qualifications (Metcalfe, 2006). *Wasta* wipes out any form of equality by providing unwarranted advantages to people who may not necessarily value such advantages and deny others because they lack a network of important friends (Cunningham & Sarrayah, 1993; Hutchings & Weir, 2006; Metcalfe, 2006; Tlaiss & Kausar, 2010).

Career development enablers

Supporting findings from (Bae, 2002; Kattara, 2005; Kottke & Agars, 2005) in developed countries, contributing factors to women career development in the Arab world are family support, academic success, educational and job opportunities, inner drive for success, determination, qualities and attributes conducive to successful management, the ability to handle multitasking and self-confidence (Al-Lamki, 1999; McElwee & Al-Riyami, 2003; Omair, 2008; Wilkinson, 1996)

Studies show report the importance of education and employment opportunities for women in the Arab region (Metcalfe, 2006; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2010). Education can foster values of equity, fairness and mutual respect (Jamali et al., 2005). It also positively influences the self-image confidence and the patterns of labor force involvement (Jamali et al., 2005). Women managers in Lebanon acknowledge their degrees as the back-bone of their career progress (Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011). In Oman, the government implemented a policy of education to increase female schooling at all educational levels (Al-Lamky, 2007).

In relation to work-family family, the role of the extended family as well as domestic helpers play a major role in Middle Eastern culture is compared to the Western (Tlaiss & Kausar, 2011). The social make-up in the Arab Gulf is strongly characterized by family networks as well as the ease (and affordability) of getting domestic help to reduce the burden of house chores and child care (Al-Lamky, 2007). Getting domestic help is another enabling factor (Tlaiss & Kausar, 2011). Women in this region are able to afford help with childcare and household responsibilities. In Kuwait, Shah and Al-Qudsi (1990) report that Kuwaiti women use servants to take care of housework and help with their children.

Efforts at the organization level include ensuring gender issues/concerns are built into organizational strategies, the assessment of policies, structures and programs that may hinder women's employment and career growth (Al-Lamky, 2007) and ensuring the fulfillment of legislative reforms related to equal rights and opportunities aimed at increasing female participation in leadership positions (Al-Lamky, 2007). The Human Resource department can implement initiatives to transform work cultures through change management, team building, cross-gender communication and sensitivity training, providing formal training in areas such as confidence building, assertiveness, leadership development for women, networking and mentoring in order to develop competencies in traditionally exclusive male domains (Al-Lamky, 2007). Also important is tracking organizational performance on gender participation and holding managers accountable to meeting gender targets (Al-Lamky, 2007).

Enabling factor extend beyond organizational efforts to initiatives at national level (Al-Lamky, 2007). For example, in order to contest the problem of unemployment of national work force and reduce the dependence on expatriates, the GCC governments are enforcing "nationalization" programs to replace foreign workers with national citizens (Elamin & Omair, 2010). In UAE, "nationalization" policies have provided them an advantage in education and training, recruitment and selection, career management and wages (Elamin & Omair, 2010). In Oman, the appointment of a number of Omani women to senior public offices since 1997 to includes ministers, deputy ministers, ambassadors and parliament members and upper chamber of parliament has further facilitated that assumption and pressed the goal for women from simply breaking the glass ceiling to reaching higher (Al-Lamky, 2007). Finally promoting the establishment of non-government organizations is needed to support women's development and economic empowerment (Al-Lamky, 2007).

Summary

This chapter summarizes the literature relevant to women career choice and development. Career development is defined as an on-going series of stages characterized by unique concerns, themes and tasks (Greenhaus et al., 2000).

Compared to men, women career development issues, tasks, concerns and responsibilities and work-family pressures are different. Several theories attempt to explain career development. These theories have guided career guidance and counseling practice and research in the past few decades in the USA and internationally. These theories are: Person-Environment Theory, Self-concept Theory of Career Development, Theory of work adjustment and Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT). Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) provides the framework for this qualitative study.

The literature on women career development identifies a number of factors that have implications as barriers and/or supports. The factors include gender stereotypes, trade-off between family and work, discrimination, organization culture, organization practices, leadership and decision-making, mentoring, access to networks and education and training. These factors have implications on women in developed counties as well as women in the Arab world.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to investigate the career development of women specifically targeted to Bahraini female managers working in Gulf Air. Qualitative methods of research will be used to answer research questions. This chapter describes the research questions, conceptual model, research method, sample, data collection procedures and analysis tools used in this study.

Research questions

This research aims to investigate the career development of Bahraini female managers in Gulf Air. It is focused on Bahraini women who have completed a degree, spent a minimum of one year in the company and who are now actively employed in managerial positions. Using the Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994, 2000, 2002) as a framework, six broad research questions guide the study:

Research question 1: What are the sources of women's self-efficacy?

Research question 2: Why are women underrepresented on the top of the corporate ladder?

Research question 3: What are the career development enabling factors?

Research question 4: Why are support systems needed to facilitate women career development?

Research question 5: What factors influence career expectations?

Research question 6: What are women's career goals?

Conceptual map

Adopted from Social Cognitive Career Theory, Figure 2 provides the conceptual map developed to guide this research. The map is developed in order to better depict relationships among the variables in this study. Included in the framework are constructs believed to impact women career development. It explains the main dimensions of this study and represents the key factors and the presumed relationships among them. The use of a visual summary allows for understanding how the study of the topic adds to, extends, or replicates research already

completed (Creswell, 2003). The selected components of the theory and their relation to research questions are:

- Self-efficacy: The sources of women's self-efficacy?
- Contextual influencers: Career development barriers
- Contextual influencers: Career Development enablers including support systems.
- Outcome expectations: Factors influencing career expectations
- Choice Goals: Career goals

The definitions of these components are mentioned in chapter 1 of the research.

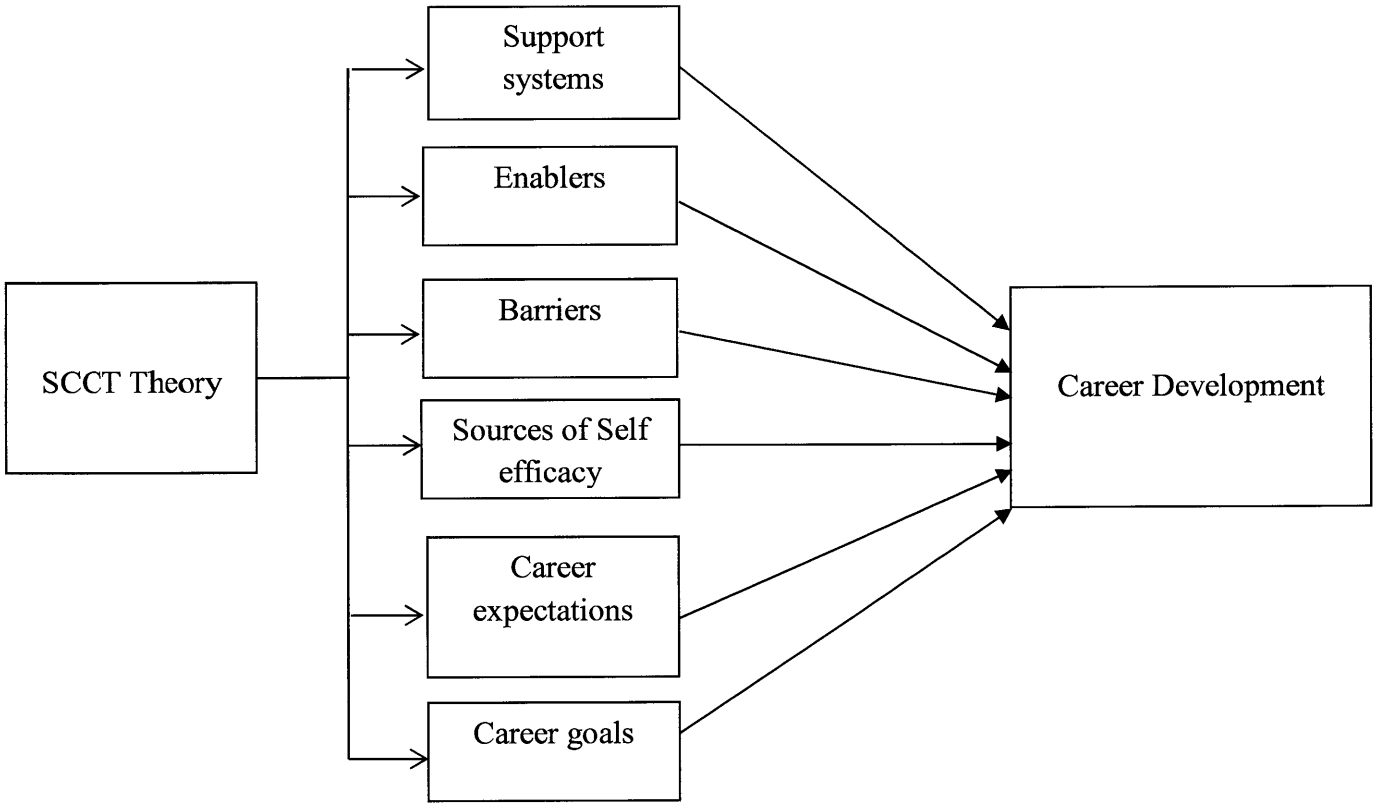


Fig.(3-2) Conceptual map for guiding research questions. Adapted from "Model of Person, Contextual, and Experiential Factors Affecting Career-Related Choice Behavior" by S. Brown & R. Lent, 2004, Career Development and Counseling: Putting Theory and Research to Work, John Wiley & Sons, 2, 108. Copyright 2004 by S. Brown & R. Lent

Research method

Qualitative method of research using case analysis is used in order to answer research questions. Denzin and Lincoln (2005) define qualitative research as a "situated activity that

locates the observer in the world" (p. 3). Qualitative research will permit deeper understanding of complex phenomena in an organizational context (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). It offers insights into individuals' experiences, what and why they do what they do and what they need to change (Rowan & Huston, 1997). The researcher plays the interpreter role to make sense of the phenomenon under study (Rowan & Huston, 1997). The objective is to understand the phenomenon being studied through the eyes of the participants (Creswell, 2003; Stake, 1995).

Qualitative research aims to capture, understand and represent the perceptions and meanings of participants using their own words (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). Malterud (2001) argues that qualitative research is used to explore the meanings of social phenomenon experienced by individuals in their natural settings. It provides a systematic method of understanding a phenomenon by collecting, analyzing and reporting findings (Creswell, 2003). The researcher will increase the understanding of why events happen and develop suggestions for future research (Creswell, 2003).

Merriam (1998) defines key characteristics of qualitative research:

- The researcher is the main instrument for data collection and analysis instead of an inanimate questionnaire, inventory, computer, or the like
- The researcher visits the participants in their natural setting to watch and collect data
- Pictures and words rather than numbers are used to express what the researcher has learned

A qualitative approach fits this study, because it will allow for the interpretation and understanding of the meanings of the participants' perceived role within their organization (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Researching experience and beliefs relating to knowledge involves the interpretation of social meanings and qualitative research can closely align with the participants' perspective through in depth detailed interviews (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). **Qualitative methods have been widely used to examine women career development (Al-Lamky, 2007; Graham, 2010; Jamali, et al., 2005; Moore, 2006; Omair, 2008; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2010). Qualitative methods are most appropriate because they allow for an in-depth understanding of these women's issues and concerns.**

This research will use case analysis of one organization. Bahraini female managers will be the unit of analysis. Information will be collected relying on in depth interviews to capture reality in great detail and collect rich data about all aspects related to female career development. It will also create an opportunity for a richer understanding of organizational issues and will be very appropriate for understanding women career development.

Sample

Snowball sampling is used to obtain data from the female managers identified. Snowballing sampling is highly dependent on the word-of-mouth of referrals (Berg, 2004; Geringer et al., 2002). The procedure will increase and diversify the sample of participants. These women serve as informants to locate others who qualify for inclusion in the sample. Upon the completion of each interview, each interviewee recommends another female colleague who fits the defined criteria so that these could be contacted and asked to participate in the study. Redundancy of ideas started to occur at the 9th interview. Participant recruitment was concluded with the 16th interviewee.

All participants in the study meet the following criteria:

- Bahraini
- Have completed a degree (i.e., Bachelors or Masters)
- Holds a managerial position in the company
- Have at least one year full-time experience working in the company

Going into the process of selection, the first criteria is being Bahraini, because the focus of this research is on developing local talent. The second criteria is completing a degree considering that education is a critical factor for women career development and has been widely discussed as a barrier and enabler of career development (Bae, 2002; Wirth, 2001), thirdly all women need to be holding managerial positions, these women are decision makers, they have people reporting to them and are more suited to answer questions related to this study. In the case of pilots and engineers, the title "Manager" is not used, they are selected based on their grade that qualifies them as a manager. Finally participants need to complete a minimum of one year in the company, this period is the minimum required to be entitled for employee benefits and become immersed into the work environment and culture.

Information gathering

This study is initiated to investigate Bahraini women career development in Gulf Air. A case analysis approach is used relying on in-depth interviews with a panel of Bahraini female managers in the company. Interview questions are derived from a detailed review of the literature and represent the core issues related to female career development.

Once company approval is received, an introductory letter of invitation is sent by e-mail to a panel of Bahraini managers who meet the sampling criteria. It explains the purpose and significance of the study, emphasizes voluntary participation, sought their permission to be interviewed and assures anonymity and confidentiality of their answers.

The interviews are in the range of 45 minutes to one hour and are steered by an interview guide to facilitate data collection in a consistent direction. The questions are derived from a comprehensive literature review of research conducted in developed countries and in the Arab world on women career development. A series of open ended questions are used to allow developing a dialogue with the participants, get greater clarity and content to answer the questions and permit maximum flow of information. Interviews are the most common form of qualitative data collection (Cooper & Schindler, 2008; Creswell, 2007; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Stake, 1995). Interviews are an important source of case information because they allow more complex questions to be asked than in other types of data collection (Yin, 2009).

The study requires the collection of extensive data in order to produce in depth understanding of careers of the women participating in the study. The information provided by participants during the interviews consists of words in the form of verbal description as well as quantitative data whenever available. This method has the advantages of better interpretation of the views of each individual participant and building rapport and trust with participants. It also provides more depth and flexibility during the inquiry process. Because of the conversational and dialogic nature of in depth interviews, important rapport with participants is established. The approach also allows for understanding the experiences, memories and stories of these participants as well as their interpretations and frustrations.

Profile of the participants

This study aims to study career development of Bahraini female managers. The study takes place in Gulf Air's headquarters in Muharraq. Bahraini female managers are the unit of analysis. Currently women represent 35% of the total workforce. They occupy 14% of the total management, mostly concentrated in middle management. Only 13% occupy senior positions (senior manager, director, chief).

16 female managers (six senior managers and ten middle managers) from Finance, Commercial, Human Resources, Engineering, Information Technology and Operations divisions are participating in this study. They are aged between 27 and 45 years. 11 are married and of that ten have children. The remaining five are single. All women participating in this study have a minimum of a bachelor's degree, five of them completed their Masters degree and four are currently doing their Masters. Moreover, four of them are holding professional degrees like Certified Engineering, Professional Human Resource Qualification, Certified Public Accountant (CPA) and Certified Internal Auditor (CIA). Tables (2, 3, 4, 5 and 6) present a summary of the personal and professional demographics of the participants

Table (2) Demographics of Participants – Age

Age	**No. of participants**
20-30	3
31-41	6
42-52	7
Total	16

Table (3) Demographics of Participants – Marital Status

Marital Status	**No. of participants**
Single	5
Married	11
Total	16

Table (4) Professional Demographics of Participants – Education

Education	No. of participants
Bachelor Degree	11
Masters Degree	5
Total	16

Table (5) Professional Demographics of Participants – Working Experience

Working Experience	No. of participants
Below five years	3
Five to ten years	7
11 to 16 years	3
Above 16 years	3
Total	16

Table (6) Professional Demographics of Participants – Managerial Level

Managerial level	No. of participants
Middle manager	10
Senior manager	6
Total	16

Table (7) Professional Demographics of Participants – Division

Division	No. of participants
Human Resources	2
Finance	5
Operations	2
Engineering	1
Information Technology	2
Commercial	4
Total	16

Trustworthiness of the data

Guba and Lincoln (1981) substitute reliability and validity with the concept of "trustworthiness" to describe qualitative rigor. They suggest four criteria for judging the soundness of qualitative research as an alternative to more traditional quantitatively-oriented

criteria: credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. The proposed criteria and the "analogous" quantitative criteria are listed in Table 2 below.

Credibility

The credibility criteria involve ensuring the results of qualitative research are credible or believable from the perspective of the participant in the research (Guba & Lincoln, 1981). To achieve credibility, interviewees own words and citations are used to describe their stories, issues and concerns from their own eyes since they are the only ones who can legitimately judge the credibility of the results. Snowball sampling is used to maximize the diversity of the sample. Data triangulation is used to aid data collection, assure rigor, reliability and validity. In addition to semi-structured interviews, secondary data from organizational websites, newspaper articles, independent reports and extensive review of the literature are used in this research.

Transferability

Transferability in qualitative research refers to the degree to which the results of qualitative research can be generalized or transferred to other contexts or settings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In a qualitative study, the objective is to provide "thick description" from a relatively small group of individuals within the context in a particular setting (Morgan, 1988). Strauss and Corbin (1998) argue than interest in qualitative research lies in "explanatory power" rather than generalizability.

To ensure transferability, a separate chapter is dedicated to describe organizational background (history, products, structure, culture, etc.) to ensure sufficient contextual information about the organization under study to enable any future researcher to make such a transfer. Also the literature review chapter provides a rich description of the phenomenon, constructs and assumptions relevant to this research.

Dependability

Reliability refers to the extent to which research findings can be replicated (Merriam, 1998). This definition does not fit in the complex and high contextual realm of qualitative research (how can one replicate human behavior?) (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest thinking about the consistency of the results. Auditability or consistency can be

ensured through the coding of the data collected in such a way that another person could understand the themes and arrive at similar conclusions (Morgan, 1988).

The organization of this research acts as an audit trail to document the stages of this research. The first chapter discusses background of the study, research problem and research questions, the second chapter contains in-depth review of the literature, the third chapter discusses the research framework, sampling, data collection and analysis, the fourth chapter contains background of the organization which is the context of the study, the fifth chapter discusses the results of the pilot study, chapters six presents the results , chapters seven and eight discuss the results and proposes implications and recommendation for future research . The processes are reported in detail, thereby enabling a future researcher to repeat the work, if not necessarily to gain the same results.

Confirmability

Confirmability refers to the degree to which the results could be confirmed or corroborated by others (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In this study, earlier studies of women career choice and development conducted in the Arab Region (Al-Lamky, 2007; Jamali et al., 2005; Omair, 2010; Tlaiss & Kausar, 2010, Tlaiss & Kausar, 2011) and in Developed countries (Bae, 2002; Graham, 2010; Jackson et al., 2006; Knorr, 2011; Olsson & Walker, 2004; Wirth, 2001) are used to guide the research.

Table (8) Quantitative vs. qualitative validity and reliability criteria

Note. From Strategies for ensuing trustworthiness in qualitative research projects. Copyright 2004 by A. Shenton

Traditional Criteria for Judging Quantitative Research	Alternative Criteria for Judging Qualitative Research
internal validity	credibility
external validity	transferability
reliability	dependability
objectivity	confirmability

Information Analysis

This research uses content analysis of the narrative data technique to analyze interviewees' answers to interview questions. Content analysis is "a research method that uses a set of procedures to make valid inferences from text" (Weber, 1990, p. 9). Powel and Runner (2003) in Program Development and Evaluation unit in University of Wisconsin describe a process composed of five steps for analyzing the narrative data. This process is used for data analysis:

Step 1: Getting to know the data

This step entails understanding the data. The responses are reviewed a couple of times in order to gain a deeper understanding and eliminate information of no value. In this step interview transcripts are typed. Because data triangulation is used, a large amount of data is collected by a variety of methods such as semi-structured interviews, secondary data from organizational websites, newspaper articles and independent reports.

The extensive review of the literature on career development provides the theoretical framework of the study and guides the initial data collected from study participants. It will also continue as part of the data analysis process.

Step 2: Focusing the analysis

In this step the main questions related to the purpose of the research are addressed. All answers provided by the participants are looked at. Answers are then organized by questions to look across all interviewees and their answers in order to identify consistencies and differences. It also helps explore relationships and connections between responses.

The qualitative information is sorted into separate categories of self-efficacy, career development barriers, enablers, support system, factors influencing career expectation and goals.

Step 3: Categorize information

In this step data is coded. It again requires reading the text several times in order to identify patterns, ideas, concepts, incidents, phrases, etc. and organize information into coherent categories that summarizes and brings meaning to the text. Abbreviated codes in terms of few letters, words or symbols are identified and assigned to the answers provided. Descriptive

labels are assigned for each category. This helps organize the data into categories. As the process progresses, other subcategories are identified. The categorizing continues until all answers are identified and labeled.

Information is categorized in two ways, the first using the categories already identified in the literature such as the barriers and key enablers to career development. These categories provide direction of what to look at in the data. Once these categories are identified, the responses are matched to these categories. The second way is to look for emergent categories by reading and working with the responses.

A combination of the two is used starting with predefined categories and adding other categories as they appeared. This is an iterative process in case categories need changing or need to be adjusted or even define new categories. Once the main categories are defined, they are broken down into subcategories. The categories are exhaustive and mutually exclusive.

Step 4: Identify connections and patterns within and between subcategories

Once categories and subcategories are defined; patterns within and between them are formed. Assessing their importance is important to the analysis. Within each category level, information pertaining to a particular pattern is summarized and similarities and difference between women's responses in that category are identified. This requires combining all the data pertaining to a particular category and then writing a summary to describe these points. Smaller subcategories are linked to make picture of the whole.

It is also important to assess the importance of each category; the number of times a particular answer comes up is assessed. It is also important to identify relationships between the answers. Some answers indicate cause and effect relationships or sequence over time. These relationships help explain why certain things occur. Several questions are asked such as how things relate, what data support this interpretation, what other factors may be contributing and what could be the alternative explanations, paradoxes, conflicting answers that can be identified and challenged.

Step 5: Interpreting the data

The answer, relationships and patterns identified in the previous steps are used to explain the findings. This is achieved by developing a list of key important findings as a result of categorizing and sorting the data. Questions asked were: What are the new things learned? What is the impact of findings? Next was to develop an outline for presenting the results in the report. Quotes and descriptive examples are used to illustrate major points and relationship to the literature is developed. Diagrams and tables are used to help put things together. Any gaps in the investigation are identified and recommended for future research.

Summary

This chapter provides a detailed description of the research methodology used to examine women career development in Gulf Air. A rationale for using a qualitative case analysis is given. This research will use content analysis to interpret responses to the interview questions. It will help gain a deeper understanding of women career development and examine any linkage, connection and relationship to the issues highlighted in the literature pertaining to this subject. This chapter discusses research questions, conceptual model, describes the qualitative research design, and lays out the procedures of sampling, data collection and analysis used to answer the research questions.

CHAPTER IV: ORGANIZATION BACKGROUND

Introduction

This chapter discusses the company's background; it starts by reviewing its history from inception until 2009 when the latest strategy was implemented. Then the strategic posture of the company in light of the new strategy is discussed.

History of Gulf Air Company

Gulf Air Company was the national airline of Bahrain, Oman, and the United Arab Emirates (UAE). It operates a fleet of 30 aircraft to 49 cities in 32 countries from Europe to Asia. The company developed a reputation for outstanding cabin service and takes pride in its history as a pioneer in the Gulf airline industry and as an example of cooperation between governments ("Gulf Air Company," n.d., para. 1).

Origins

Gulf Air traces its origins to Gulf Aviation Company, which was established in Bahrain by a young British aviator, Freddy Bosworth. Bosworth had captured the local community's interest in flying via sightseeing trips and soon set up a commuter service between Bahrain, Doha, and Dhahran with his single airplane. Bosworth registered Gulf Aviation Company on March 24, 1950. Operations started on July 5. British Overseas Airways Corp. (BOAC) acquired a 55.5 percent interest the next year. Most of the airline's business was charter work for oil companies. The company started out operating small aircraft. The scheduled network grew. Abu Dhabi, Al-Ain, Kuwait, Muscat, and Sharjah were connected in the 1950s. In the 1960s, Bandar Abbas, Bombay, Dubai, Karachi, Salalah, and Shiraz were added, while Fokker F27 turboprops replaced older model aircraft in 1968. This was an especially significant year because it marked the beginning of in-flight service for Gulf Air, an area that would become one of the pillars of the company's reputation ("Gulf Air Company," n.d., para. 2).

Foundation Treaty of 1974

In 1973, BOAC's controlling shareholding was bought by four Arab governments: Bahrain, Qatar, the Sultanate of Oman, and Abu Dhabi (on behalf of the United Arab Emirates). The airline was named the official flag carrier of each of the four countries in the Foundation Treaty of January 1, 1974. Gulf Air linked these member states with other Middle Eastern countries. It also built hotels in each of the four to accommodate business travelers ("Gulf Air Company," n.d., para. 3). Gulf Air launched service to London in April 1970 and signed technical assistance and a training agreement with British Airways. The narrowbody VC-10 aircraft were intended only as an interim means to start intercontinental service. Gulf Air began receiving deliveries of its replacement, the wide body, as well as mid-sized aircraft ("Gulf Air Company," n.d., para. 3).

The growth of international business led to a four-fold increase in the number of employees. Gulf Air had 800 employees in mid-1974 and about 3,300 at the start of 1976. Gulf Air was working towards having a 100 percent Arab staff. Gulf Air posted a record profit of $51.8 million in 1983 when it carried 2.6 million passengers. By 1986, unfortunately, Gulf Air was posting its first loss of the decade ($5.5 million) as the region's oil revenues declined while the international market remained competitive. Emirates Airlines, a new carrier in the UAE, would make it more so, though its activities were coordinated with that of Gulf Air and Kuwait Airways by the Gulf Cooperation Council ("Gulf Air Company," n.d., para. 3).

Maintenance Unit Opened in 1987

Gulf Air continued to become more independent. It opened its Gulf Aircraft Maintenance Company (GAMCO) unit in Abu Dhabi in 1987. It owned interests in hotels; Bahrain Airport Services; Gulf Helicopters; and GCC Aviation Services, a caterer. Boeing aircraft were added to the fleet in 1988, improving the company's on-time performance. Later Airbus aircraft were added in 1992 to phase out the fleet of ten Boeing aircraft ("Gulf Air Company," n.d., para. 4).

Early 1990s

Gulf Air retrenched during the downturn in business precipitated by the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait, laying off 350 employees in 1990 en route to a loss of $95 million. However, by the end of 1991 a recovery was already in evidence, and the airline rapidly rolled out expansion

plans. New routes and new planes were added. Gulf Air achieved net profits of $48 million in 1991 and 1992; it was one of the few airlines to make money in the early 1990s ("Gulf Air Company," n.d., para. 5). In 1993, Gulf Air unveiled a $10 million ad campaign pitching the carrier as The International Smile of the Gulf. Routes extended and the company was carrying nearly four million passengers a year. By the end of 1993, Gulf Air was planning an initial public offering to offset the cost of a $2.2 billion expansion, which made the airline the largest in the Middle East, flying about 40 aircraft to 50 destinations. Tentative plans for a stock offering dated back to 1984. At the time, Gulf Air had 5,000 employees, more than half of them Gulf nationals. The airline opened an aviation college in Doha that year ("Gulf Air Company," n.d., para. 5).

Significant passenger perks were introduced in 1994, including an in-flight entertainment system on long-haul planes and the new Falcon Frequent Flyer Program. After making money for four years, Gulf Air posted a $159 million loss in 1995. Contributing factors were a downturn in the regional economy and very high levels of competition. By 1997, Gulf Air was more than $1 billion in debt, leading to more route cutbacks and the sale of 17 aircraft worth $850 million. This left a fleet of 28, six of them leased ("Gulf Air Company," n.d., para. 6).

The staff had become almost entirely made up of Arabs by the mid-1990s; most of the 3,000 employees were from Bahrain. However, during the late-1990s crisis, a couple of former British Airways executives were brought in. Shareholder states Qatar and Oman were developing their own airlines, Qatar Airways and Oman Aviation, complicating decisions on how to re-capitalize Gulf Air as well as diluting its business. In addition, Emirates Airlines had been operating out of Abu Dhabi for more than a decade, though that government was aiming to infuse more capital into Gulf Air in exchange for a higher ownership stake. After considerable losses in 1995 ($159 million) and 1996, Gulf Air was again able to post an operating profit ($48 million) in 1997 ("Gulf Air Company," n.d., para. 6).

50th Anniversary in 2000

New uniforms were introduced in Gulf Air's 50th anniversary year. As part of the celebration, Gulf Air hired two vintage aircraft--an Avro Anson and a de Havilland Dove--to recreate the company's first flights. In August 2000 Gulf Air also experienced its second fatal crash ever

and the loss of an Airbus. Passenger numbers were falling worldwide, exacerbating Gulf Air's struggle with a heavy debt load. Gulf Air posted a $98.1 million loss for 2000 and a $132.3 million one for 2001. The partners invested $159.2 million in a restructuring package in May 2001. A year later, Qatar announced it was withdrawing its 25 percent stake, preferring to focus its resources on Qatar Airways. The remaining partners provided another $81 million capital injection ("Gulf Air Company," n.d., para. 7).

The airline hired an airline professional as CEO: James Hogan. While cutting costs, Hogan also sought to develop the partnership with tourism sections of the three shareholding partners. In November 2002, Gulf Air rolled out a new first class service. On flights to Europe, this featured chefs from elite European restaurants preparing food to order--the Restaurant in the Sky concept. A holiday package focusing on Oman, Abu Dhabi, and Bahrain was introduced at the same time with the aim of attracting tourists to the region despite the impending war with Iraq ("Gulf Air Company," n.d., para. 7). The next month, the three remaining partners injected 90 million dinars ($238 million) in a demonstration of their commitment to Gulf Air, which lost BD52 million in 2001. Early signs of a turnaround were in evidence; the 2002 loss of just under BD41 million ($110 million) was about BD8 million less than had been predicted ("Gulf Air Company," n.d., para. 8).

Year of 2003

A new three-year recovery plan officially began in 2003. The company was planning to expand its route network and increase its fleet. In May, Gulf Air launched its Gulf Traveller subsidiary, the region's first full service all-economy airline. Gulf Traveller, which was started with six of Gulf Air's Boeing 767s, flew short and medium haul routes around the Gulf and to the Indian subcontinent. ("Gulf Air Company," n.d., para. 9).

New livery unfurled in April 2003, underscoring Gulf Air's commitment to improvement. The company perched an 11-meter tall neon golden falcon atop the Falcon Tower in Manama, Bahrain. Gulf Air's six-year-old Web site was revamped in the same month. The airline was also planning to establish a reservations center in Muscat that would employ 300 Omani nationals. Gulf Air aimed to reduce its losses to BD20 million in 2003 and to break even by 2004. Gulf Air was planning to join a global airline alliance ("Gulf Air Company," n.d., para. 10).

2009 onwards

Following the appointment of CEO Samer AlMajali in 2009, a turnaround strategy was launched to overcome the airline's inherited problems and inefficiencies and operating as part of Bahrain Mumtalakat Holding Company portfolio. The airline today operates to 48 destinations in Asia, Africa, Europe and Middle East, employs approximately 4,200 employees and utilizes a mixed fleet of wide body and narrow body aircraft ("History,"n.d.)

Strategic posture

Vision

Gulf Air's new Vision is: From the regional pioneer to a global contender ("Media Center," 2009).

Objectives

Gulf Air's Objectives are ("Media Center," 2009):

- Refocus first on Bahrain, with an emphasis on high-quality service for the local business market
- Connect Bahrain to over 50 destinations, making Gulf Air the preferred carrier throughout the region
- Tailor the fleet to serve more points with more nonstop service and secure competitive advantage
- Lead the Gulf in the global industry trend toward frequent point-to-point services and focus on a higher-value market segment
- Re-launch Gulf Air with a focus on regional dominance, growth and innovation

Gulf Air turnaround Strategy elements are ("Media Center," 2009)

- Realignment of the route network
- Rationalization of the Fleet
- Better and consistent product
- Reduction of the cost structure

Gulf Air's Values ("Media Center," 2009)

- My word is my bond

- Everyone is an entrepreneur
- One team, One Family
- Ahlan Wa sahlan
- Better and better all the time ("Media Center," 2009)

Products and services

The core product of Gulf Air is passenger transportations. Other associated products of the national carrier are cargo, courier and charters ("Media Center," 2009).

Destinations

Gulf Air currently operates to approximately 32 destinations in the Gulf Region, Europe, Asia, Middle East, Africa. In addition, Gulf Air has codeshare agreements with other airline to carry its passenger to destinations where they don't fly to ("Gulf Air Destinations Map," n.d).

Table (9) Gulf Air routes

Region	Routes
Gulf Region	Kuwait, Doha, Riyadh, Dammam, Jeddah, Medina, Muscat, Abu Dhabi, Dubai
Middle East	Sana'a, Baghdad, Najaf, Beirut, Amman
Africa	Cairo, Khartoum, Addis Ababa
Europe	London, Paris, Frankfurt, Larnaca, Istanbul
Asia	Bangkok, Manila, Peshawar, Lahore, Bombay, Delhi, Islamabad, Cochin, Madras, Karachi

Fleet

Gulf Air fleet consists of a mix of Airbus, Boeing and Embraer aircraft ("Fleet," n.d., para. 1):

- Airbus 330-200 (333)
- Airbus 330-200 (332) Sleeper Seat service
- Airbus 330-200 (330)
- Airbus 321
- Airbus 320

Frequent flyer program

The frequent flyer program (FFP) is a loyalty program that allows enrolled passengers to accumulate frequent flyer miles (kilometers, points, segments) corresponding to the distance flown on that airline or its partners ("About FFP," n.d., para. 1).

There are three levels of membership: Blue , Silver and Gold. Progression to higher levels of membership is achieved by accumulating loyalty points which are awarded for every flight a member takes with Gulf Air on any eligible fare, the number of points depending on the route and class flown. These are credited and listed in quarterly statements. For the purposes of awarding these points, the Gulf Air network has been divided into zones ("About FFP," n.d., para. 2).

Organization structure

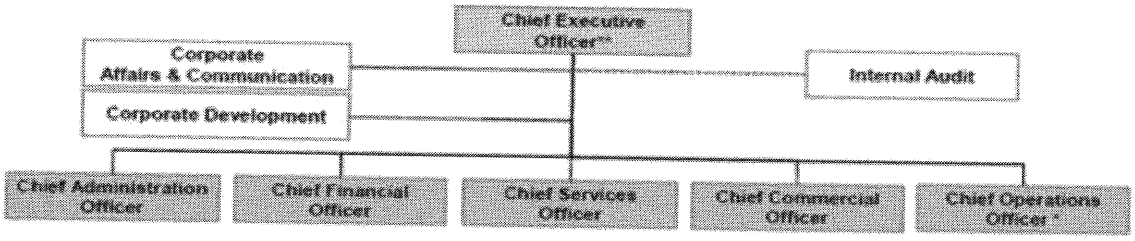


Fig. (4-3) Gulf Air organization structure ("History,"n.d.).

In the above structure, women represent 35% of the total workforce. They occupy only 14% of the total management, mostly concentrated in middle management. Only 13% occupy senior positions (senior manager, director, chief).

Corporate Culture

Discouraging culture characterized by no shared values; lack of trust, blame culture, focus on problems, people don't have fun at work, diversity is not celebrated; failures are not tolerated and people lose confidence in their leaders and systems.

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)

As an international airline and a responsible corporate entity, Gulf Air recognizes that social, economic and environmental responsibilities are integral to its business and believes in the importance of the inter-relationship with the local community and the environment in which it

operates. With footprints across four continents, Gulf Air is committed to actively engage in tackling environmental challenges individually and collectively, and thus play a positive role in protecting the environment and help build a better future for our children, the local community ("Corporate Social Responsibility," n.d., para.1). Therefore, in September 2008, Gulf Air launched a comprehensive Corporate Social Responsibility strategy focusing on three key areas: climate change and clean air, waste management, and community service. Gulf Air believes in equality and diversity that encompass its own employees, customers, suppliers and trade partners and, the community in which it operates ("Corporate Social Responsibility," n.d., para. 3).

Employees:

It is the policy of Gulf Air to recruit, promote and support the professional development of a diverse global workforce ("Corporate Social Responsibility," n.d., para. 4). The intent of this policy is to:

- Ensure that diverse pools of talents are considered in recruiting and promotion.
- Recognize that business performance is dependent on the contributions of individuals and that, given the opportunity; people will use their full potential towards achieving company objectives thus converging with their personal goals.
- Recognize that an individual is responsible for his/her self-development and that the company is responsible for providing an environment which allows such development.
- Maintain affirmative action plans, training programs, and other activities, procedures and controls necessary to ensure compliance with government requirements and corporate standards.
- Encourage frank, open and ongoing communication between management and employees concerning their individual job performance and potential for career growth.
- Emphasize promotion from within. It is the policy of Gulf Air to promote and support human rights, including equal employment opportunities
- Prohibit discrimination and/or harassment based on race, colour, gender, age, religion, national origin or disability as provided by law.
- Adopt grievance procedure to provide employees, who consider that they have a problem or complaint about their work, with a mechanism to resolve the issue fairly and speedily.

- Promote and support occupational safety and industrial hygiene and manage in a manner that seeks to eliminate occupational injuries and illnesses.
- Recognize the value of all employees, identify and assess their long term retention as key to the sustainability of the Company.
- Encourage employee involvement in decision making through various programmes such as suggestion scheme.
- Provide the avenue for employee to report any issue related to integrity and work ethics.

Customers ("Corporate Social Responsibility," n.d., para. 5):

- Make customers aware of the environmental impact caused by travelling by air and how they are part of this carbon emission.
- Encourage them actively to participate in emission reduction programmes such as Carbon Offset
- Provide full commitment to safety and assurance of operating a well-maintained fleet with reliable aircraft.
- Ensure continuous development of present products and introduce innovative products to provide full comfort to passengers.
- Provide helpful travel health information on website and in-flight publications.
- Monitor the air quality in the cabin and ensuring that it is contaminants- free.
- Provide onboard medical care by keeping well stocked medical kit and trained crew to assist in dealing with in-flight medical emergencies

Suppliers ("Corporate Social Responsibility," n.d., para. 6):

- Each Gulf Air business unit and operating facility shall consider the CSR practices of outside vendors as part of its initial vendor selection process and whenever purchasing agreements are re-negotiated. This is to enshrine Gulf Air's business and corporate responsibilities by avoiding relationships with firms, which fail to comply with any CSR legal requirements or which are perceived by the general public as uncaring to their CSR responsibilities.
- Maintain a transparency and give equal opportunity in supplier-selection process.
- Follow Bahrain Tender Board regulations and procedure in supplier selection

Community ("Corporate Social Responsibility," n.d., para. 7):

- Manage the disbursement of charitable funds at the local level in communities where the company has facilities and through appropriate and legitimate channels.
- Donate obsolete items to staff and charitable organizations through clear and transparent method.
- Participate in local, regional and international rescue operations in case of crises and natural disasters.
- Encourage employees to be active in the community in their own right and to this end, operate a flexible working policy, which permits staff to use a certain amount of their working hours each year to charitable activities. The company recognizes employees who participate in the national sports teams by offering them paid leave and tickets.
- Contribute cash or cash equivalent in terms of air tickets or other assets to qualified organizations, provided that the aggregate amount in any one year shall not exceed an established percentage of the company's average income of the preceding three years as decided by the Board of Directors

The Gulf Air CSR policy is pronounced in the following three commitments:

1. Work for the improvement of the environment and the society
2. Integration into commercial operations for sustainable development
3. Make a difference as a responsible corporate entity in the Kingdom of Bahrain

Gulf Air will conduct its business with a sincere and balanced approach with an emphasis on the need to sustain natural resources and comply with international standards and regulations related to environmental protection ("Corporate Social Responsibility," n.d., para. 8). Below is a description of its responsibilities in the air, on the ground and to climate change.

In the Air ("Corporate Social Responsibility," n.d., para. 9):

- Invest in new technology to operate cleaner and quieter fleet.
- Optimise fuel uplift and adopt a fuel efficiency programme.
- Establish rigorous route planning that reduces atmospheric emissions.
- Adopt optimal operational practices that would reduce fuel burn.
- Invest in new aircraft and engines that are fuel-efficient and eco-friendly.

- Build and use efficient infrastructure though optimization of routes and terminal areas in cooperation with air traffic controls.
- Implement positive measures and develop industry-specific action plans to reduce greenhouse gas emissions.
- Encourage vendors to follow responsible environmental practices by considering such practices in the vendor selection process.

On the Ground ("Corporate Social Responsibility," n.d., para. 10):

- Minimize the environmental impacts of existing operations through continuous assessment, review and improvement.
- Ensure that the environmental impact of new operations are fully assessed and minimized prior to their implementation.
- Reduce consumption of materials in all operations where practicable, to re-use rather than dispose of materials where possible, and promote recycling and the use of recycled materials.
- Adopt optimal operational practices that would reduce fuel burn.
- Reduce wherever practicable, the level of harmful emissions from office premises and ground transportation.
- Introduce programmes that aim to minimize wastage.
- Dispose of waste and effluents in a responsible manner.
- Provide the necessary training and support in order to ensure that staff fulfil their requirements.
- Encourage and reward staff, who practices environment-friendly practices at work.
- Work with our suppliers to minimize the impact of their operations on the environment through a quality purchasing and qualification policy.
- Support through our community programmes the promotion of environmental protection by relevant external groups and organizations.
- Monitor progress and publish an environmental performance report on an annual basis.
- Promote the ownership and control of environmental issues at business level

Carbon Footprint and Climate Change ("Corporate Social Responsibility," n.d., para. 11):

- Adopt a system to measure and monitor carbon footprint related to all company operations.
- Implement industry specific actions such as carbon off-setting programs and comply with regulations regarding carbon trading and emissions control.
- Support international organizations, in their campaign to reduce greenhouse gas emissions.
- Adopt industry approach to address the global challenges of climate change and work with industry organizations, in harmonizing Gulf Air targets with theirs in the interest to reduce greenhouse gas emission

Status of women career development

Career development in Gulf Air is not gender specific. The Training and Development department's role is to ensure that employees irrespective of gender have the appropriate knowledge, skills and behaviors that facilitate their short-term and long-term career aspirations. The department runs three initiatives: the first initiative is Competence and Talent program focused on building a motivated and capable taskforce through providing training and development programs. The second initiative is National Programs focused on accelerating the development and career progression of potential nationals of the Kingdom of Bahrain. These programs include Graduate Entry Management Programs, Cadet Pilot, Trainee Engineers and summer training. The company recently initiated Bahraini Female Cabin Crew program that aims to support the employment and development of Bahraini women. The third initiative is the Assessment Centre which aids the selection process for key roles in the company.

Summary

This chapter provides a description of the company which is the context of this study. This study takes place in Gulf Air headquarters in Muharraq. Women are the unit of analysis in this research so Bahraini women holding managerial positions participate in this study.

CHAPTER V: PILOT STUDY

Introduction

Interview questions are piloted on a small group of women who are chosen for their class standing in the organizational hierarchy; three junior-level, three middle-level and one senior-level. The purpose of the pilot study is to test the appropriateness of the methodology used to the subject being investigated i.e. understanding women career development.

Research questions

This research aims to investigate women career development in Gulf Air. The research attempts to answer the following questions:

Research question 1: What are the sources of women's self-efficacy?

Research question 2: Why are women underrepresented on the top of the corporate ladder?

Research question 3: What are the career development enabling factors?

Research question 4: Why are support systems needed to facilitate women career development?

Research question 5: What factors influence career expectations?

Research question 6: What are women's career goals?

Sample

His study takes places in Gulf Air's headquarters in Muharraq. The purpose of the pilot study is to test the appropriateness of the methodology used to the subject being investigated. Snowball sampling is used to obtain data from women in the company replying on word-of mouth. Upon the completion of each interview, each interviewee recommends another female colleague who fits the defined criteria so that these could be contacted and asked to participate in the study. Redundancy of ideas started to occur at the 5th interview. Participant recruitment was concluded with the 7^{th} interviewee.

All participants in the study meet the following criteria:

- Bahraini
- Have completed a degree (i.e., Bachelors or Masters)
- Have at least one year full-time experience working in the company

Going into the process of selection, the first criteria is being Bahraini, because the focus of this research is on developing local talent. The second criteria is completing a degree considering that education is a critical factor for women career development and has been widely discussed as a barrier and enabler of career development (Bae, 2002; Wirth, 2001). Finally participants need to complete a minimum of one year in the company, this period is the minimum required to be entitled for employee benefits and become immersed into the work environment and culture.

Three junior-level, three middle-level and one senior-level females took part in this study. Participants are from Engineering, Operations, Commercial, Information Technology and Human Resources divisions.

Research question 1: What are the sources of women's self-efficacy?

This question measures self-efficacy of the women under study. According to Social Cognitive Career Theory, self-efficacy refers to "people's judgment of their own capabilities to organize and execute courses of action needed to attain designated types of performances" (Bandura, 1986, p. 391). The sources of self-efficacy discussed during the interviews are education, personality traits and performance evaluation.

Education

The majority of interviewees agree their academic qualifications have influenced their careers choices, although differently. One interviewee says *"Education is a very important factor for our careers, but it is only needed to get access to the job in the first place, as we progress, experience becomes more important"*. Another interviewee acknowledges the importance of education but believes that higher educational attainment will have no impact on salaries and promotions. A third interviewee who had to delay her university degree due to the workload adds *"In practical terms, I don't think I've been hindered by not completing my degree yet but I feel in my own heart that I probably limit my chances to progress further and I'll probably*

resume studying sometime in the future". The fourth one comments *"Education is a central component to my job, every year we have to take refreshing tests and study to ensure we are in line with international standards, the more we progress, the greater are our chances to achieve higher ranks".* A fifth one adds *"Education influences career indirectly through the knowledge and ability to improve. Through education many people are successful in fields different than the majors they studied".* The discussions above support earlier research in Developed countries and research conducted in the Gulf region. For example in Alajmi's (2001) study of professional women in Saudi Arabia, educational opportunities are the most critical element for women's leadership development. Tlaiss and Kauser (2011) argue that in Middle Eastern countries, higher education attainment is one of the reasons for women's progress into higher managerial ranks. Same results are reported in studies conducted in Developed countries by (Bae, 2002; Knorr, 2011; Wirth, 2001). Researchers report that educational self-efficacy is a better predictor of interests and majors (Landry, 2003).

Personality traits

How each participant describes herself and how she views her personal characteristics as contributing to her profession is analyzed. Common responses include: motivation, time management, discipline, self-awareness, ambitious, being a team player, handling pressure, flexibility, hard-work, and dedication.

One participant speaks about the importance of self-awareness; she says *"Well, I think attention to details is critical. As an engineer, a huge part of my job is practical and involves judgment about what was good, what was bad. If it was bad, what was bad? How I fixed that. What are techniques I can employ to make things better?"* Another interviewee says *"I am self-motivated; I always search for new venues, seek networks within the company, and learn new tasks beyond my job requirements".* The third one adds: *"I am very outspoken. I think that's a strength in me though I am young, I raise my opinion to whomever I speak to even if they are more senior".* The fourth one says *"I am a highly determinant person; I managed to make my way into this male dominant field".* Another participant describes herself as *"I am experienced, I have good communication skills, I am extrovert and I think this is crucial for my job because I deal with people on daily basis*". These discussions are contrary to a number of studies that indicate low representation of women in management is attributed to the lack of desire to occupy a managerial position (Anker, 1997; Davidson & Burke, 2004; Powell &

Butterfield, 2003). Existing research claims that because management needs a great deal of work, commitment and sacrifices, women do not have the desire to hold senior positions (Anker, 1997; Davidson & Burke, 2004; Powell & Butterfield, 2003). Thus, they take career interruptions or reduced working hours which minimizes their chances of reaching managerial positions (Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011). According to Hackett and Betz (1981) individuals who lack expectations of personal efficacy in one or more career-related behavioral fields are less likely to initiate effective and satisfying choices and plans.

Performance evaluation

Only three women mention performance evaluation as a source of self-efficacy. Performance evaluation is conducted in the company through performance appraisal and is primarily concerned with assessing employee's performance on their current job. One interviewee mentions *"Appraisal is one of the best performance measurement tools, every year I sit with my manager and we discuss my strengths and weaknesses, he evaluates me against the established Key Performance Indicators and together we develop the following year's KPIS and decide on training and development requirements"*. Another one comments *"I think it is a very effective way to measure my performance, unfortunately this doesn't translate to any form of awards like bonuses or pay raise due to the company's financial situation, but it certainly motivates me to put more effort and set higher goals for future"*. The third one adds *"KPIs allow us to assess how far we achieved and to identify out areas of weaknesses"*.

Performance evaluation is one of the organizational practices that can facilitate women career development where managers can evaluate the professional development needs of their staff, their strengths and areas where they need improvement (Anker, 1997; Cleveland et al., 2000; Jackson et al., 2006; Kottke & Agars, 2005; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2010). However not much has been talked about it in the Arab world (Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011). According to Rhode and Kellerman (2007) performance-evaluations decisions in the UAE are one of the impeding barriers to women career development. Performance successes reinforce efficacy beliefs and repeated performance failures weaken them (Bandura, 1997).

The sources of self-efficacy discussed above demonstrate a positive relationship between education, personality traits and performance evaluation and self-efficacy. The literature supports the influence of self-efficacy beliefs on career development and growth (Bell &

Staw, 1989; Noe & Wilk, 1993). Individuals with high self-efficacy exert great control over their life events and master decision-making tasks and behaviors in career decision-making (Abdalla, 1995; Taylor & Popma, 1990).

Research question 2: Why are women underrepresented on the top of the corporate ladder?

This question addresses women career development barriers. These barriers are referred to in the Social Cognitive Career theory as Proximal Contextual Influences that prohibit career development (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 1994). Common barriers reported by women are gender stereotypes, access to networks and work-family balance.

Gender stereotypes

The main barrier to women career development is gender stereotype. Gender stereotypes are strong and persistent and generally have more negative impact on women than on men in the evaluation of performance (Kottke & Agars, 2005). Several forms of stereotypes have emerged during the interviews. When asking interviewees to describe an incident where they felt the impact of stereotyping; one interviewee mentions *"During my interview for a new post, the manager interviewing me clearly said that he doesn't prefer to hire a married woman because they often find it difficult to balance their work with their family responsibilities. He assumed those who have children might need to take longer breaks, maternity leaves, nursing hours and may refrain from staying extra hours at work if they needed to"*. This situation is referred to as active stereotyping and has historically resulted in fewer opportunities for women specially those aspiring to higher ranks (Kottke & Agars, 2005).

The second interviewee faced a similar situation but the manager who was interviewing her was a female just like her. She describes it *"I was really upset because the manager who interviewed me was a woman just like me, but she had a negative perception about women, though I am single, she made an assumption that in the future I will get married and have kids and would be unable to balance my responsibilities, of all she should've shown more support to her own gender"*. The third one mentions: *"If I had been a man, I would be a senior manager now. There is a big misunderstanding here that women are not professional in these job ranks, my response to these people, I have got that ability"*. Another one states *"I am an*

ambitious person, and have always wanted to be something big in the future; I have studied and worked hard and I'm sure I can prove anyone wrong". One interviewee comments *"It is not true that women want families and not a career. This may be applicable to some but certainly not all".* This form of stereotype is called descriptive stereotypes, it relates to expectations about what members of a group are actually like (Eagly & Karau, 2002). This form of stereotype is not only highly unfair to women who cannot have children or have decided against having them but also wrong (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

Another interviewee states *"Some managers specify gender when recruiting or request information about interviewees regarding family circumstances that can deny women employment".* There is a belief that women occupying top management positions are breaking the norm of men's higher status and superiority to a greater extent than women's presence in lower-level positions (Powel, 2012). In the current organization being studied, no female is occupying "Chief" position which is the highest ranked post after the CEO. The highest ranked position a female has reached to in the company is "Director" position.

Another interviewee adds *"Senior levels have more faith in hiring men to occupy executive roles in the company. They believe managerial jobs are considered as requiring personal attributes of men than women".* As stated earlier, Role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders describes this stereotype (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Women are communal while men are agentic; agentic characteristics are usually seen as being necessary for successful leadership (Eagly & Carli, 2007). The above discussions agree with Abdalla (1996) who believes that Arab women are willing to undertake more responsibilities in the political, occupational, educational and social fields, but Arab men are not willing to share them with them. The discussions are also compatible with international beliefs best expressed as "think manager think male". A number of theoretical explanations have been offered for the think manager—think male phenomenon (Powel, 2012). For instance, the lack of fit model claims that when individuals believe men have the characteristics required by managerial roles, they are likely to favor male managers to female managers, even if both exhibit the exact same behavior (Powel, 2012).

Studies report that even with the increased representation of women in management and employees becoming accustomed to working for a woman, employees prefer to work for a

male boss (Powel, 2012). When asking interviewees if they prefer a male of female boss, they still prefer a male boss over a female. When asking them why, some of the answers are: *"Working with men is easier"*, *"Women are less confident"* and *"Women take things personally"*. Research indicates preference for a male boss (Powel, 2012). Powel (2012) offers three possible explanations for this preference. First, stereotypes suggest that leaders are more effective if they display personal characteristics associated with men rather than women. Second, discrimination directed against female leaders make it difficult for women to be effective as men and reduce their desirability as leaders (Powel, 2012). Third, women and men may differ in their leader role behavior. It is argued that men exhibit behaviors that yield better financial results for the organization and more satisfied subordinates.

Access to Networks

According to Vinnicombe and Colwill (1995) networking is the grouping together of like-minded people for contact, friendship and support. Different types of networks exist (Vinnicombe & Colwill, 1995). Some are professional and occupational, for example women in finance and engineering (Vinnicombe & Colwill, 1995). More recently, internal corporate networks have appeared, sometimes started as informal gatherings of women and eventually developed into more formal networks supported by the employer (Vinnicombe & Colwill, 1995). Unfortunately, all interviewees agreed that there isn't any form of formal female networking in the organization, for example the operations supervisor states *"Our department has its own form of informal network but it is male dominant"*. Another one adds *"I find it very difficult to fit in with other engineers during meetings, training, social gatherings, other issues might be difficult or embarrassing to talk about"*. Another participant comments *"Some form of informal networking of women through gatherings exists but very occasionally and are usually limited to a smaller number of women and usually from the same department"*. Another one adds *"Networking is very minimal though it's very important to enhance our working relationships, increase our visibility and provide access to information"*. These discussions are compatible with (Jamali et al., 2005; McElwee & Al-Riyami, 2003) who argue that in the Middle Eastern context, organizational networks are becoming an important part of managerial behavior and success. However, as the literature points out, many women managers report complexities with interpersonal relationships with their subordinates and exclusion informal networks (Jamali et al., 2005).

Another important element in networking in the Arab region relates to the usage of *Wasta* in the organization. One interviewee mentions *"Whether we acknowledge it or not, Wasta is the most important key to get any job. Experience, education, all comes after that, what matters is who you are and who you know"*. Another interviewee states *"My female boss is hiring someone just because she's close friends with her. This is quite annoying and could jeopardize my career plans in my current role since that girl will always be the preferred option"*. *Wasta* is a form of social connection that saturates the business activities of Middle Eastern countries (Hutchings & Weir, 2006). This is explained in research conducted in other countries as well as in the Arab world (Tlaiss & Kauser, 2010; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011). *Wasta* in the Arab context can be defined as influential individuals who can be politicians, wealthy, or have influential occupational roles in private or public institutions (Cunningham & Sarayrah, 1993). Decision-makers usually choose candidates with the strongest *Wasta*, with only less consideration to the candidates' qualifications (Cunningham and Sarayrah, 1993). *Wasta* destroys any form of equality in the workplace and suggests that success of a woman's career may be a result of her family's support and connections (Tlaiss & Kauser, 2010).

Work-life balance

The majority of the interviewees specially the married ones with children believe balancing family and work is one of the greatest barriers they encounter. One interviewee discusses her concerns *"My job entails lots of travelling and sometimes trips come up in a very short notice. I also need to attend several events outside working hours or outside Bahrain, so I end up leaving my children for few days with my husband and the housemaid"*. In support with Shah and Al-Qudsi (1990) although Arab women get domestic help, housework and child -care remain their biggest responsibilities. Another interviewee working shifts mentions *"I often work shifts of 12 hours four days in a row and then I take the remaining days off. This working arrangement is really stressful and unhealthy"*. A third interviewee states that because their department is under staffed, she needs to work extra hours and sometimes work on the weekends; she says *"Thought I don't mind doing that occasionally, but if it happened more than usual I miss my family and friend's gatherings and obligations"*. Another interviewee who is working and studying at the same time expresses "*Because of the workload, I had to defer two university semesters because I can't balance the work and university"*. Thought the company provides blackberries to staff who are on call and allow its

employees to work from home, most interviewees prefer to spend quality time with their families during their days off and don't want to work once they leave the work premises.

The company provides policies to help women balance their work and family responsibility such as travel benefits and flexible working arrangement, yet the interviewees agree that the policy is not enough and is less fair compared to women working in the public sector. As one says *"Public companies are given 60 working days of maternity leave and two nursing hours, while the company allows for 45 working days and only one nursing hours"*. The remaining ones all say *"Not enough"*. As Al-Lamky (2007) argues, women attempting to balance work-life are seen as less committed to their career.

There is also considerable evidence that family related work interruptions do impact promotions and pay for women (Ezzedeen & Ritchey, 2009). For example, one interviewee talks about her experience *"Because maternity leave is not enough, I had to take a month of unpaid leave and that impacted my eligibility for employee of the year since excessive leave is one of the eliminating criteria"*. Family considerations may also curb advancement by geographically restraining some women (Ezzedeen & Ritchey, 2009). Research suggests that wives are less likely than husbands to move for improved job opportunities (LaPierre & Zimmerman, 2012). One interviewee adds, *"There are sometimes opportunities for advancement in our outstations, but then we have to make a choice where we leave our families behind, or the whole family needs to relocate, I don't think my husband will want to quit his job or my children will want to leave their friends and change school"*.

Finally, contrary to other studies in the Arab world by Omair (2010), the socio-cultural values in Bahrain do not restrain the career choice for both men and women. The majority of women are employed in health, education and social care, which is largely acceptable to society. As one interviewee says *"Nor does the society or religion ever impacted women's career choice"*. Also physical separation does not exist in the company as one comments *"Working in a service industry requires high interaction with passengers and other parties and there is no room for gender separation"*. The remaining women all agreed by saying *"No impact"*. This contradicts Omair (2010) that in the Arab world there is evidence of physical separation at work settings, in the belief that women's exposure to men could be harmful to their reputation.

Discrimination

None on the women mentions discrimination as a barrier; but since it is widely discussed in the literature as a barrier interviewees are asked about it. To investigate discrimination against women in the sample, areas of pay, recruitment, promotion, staff benefits and retirement are investigated.

When it comes to wage gap, all interviewees agree women on the same grade used to be paid less than men, not in terms of the basic salary but in terms of the social allowances. One says *"Men used to be paid higher social allowance than women"*. Another one adds *"Certain allowances are paid only for men which was really unfair to us"*. This wage discrimination has changed in the last couple of years after the company reexamined the pay scales and allowances. A third interviewee explains *"The company agreed to pay its entire staff irrespective of being male or female single or married the same allowances"*. These discussions contradict earlier research in the Arab region, for example Tlaiss and Kauser (2011) report women in Lebanon earn less than men.

In terms of recruitment and selection, the majority of interviewees believe there is no discrimination between men and women in recruitment and selection process although women represent only 35% of the company's total workforce. Women are being recruited even in male dominated jobs such as pilots and engineers though the number is quite minimal. One interviewee says *"The recruitment process does not discriminate by gender, it's based on qualifications"*. Another one adds *"The process is the same, I think the nature of the job might be challenging to some women though!"* The remaining ones all say *"No discrimination"*. These views contradict Hutchings and Weir (2006) that the selection process in the Arab world is highly subjective and based on personal contacts and family name.

Regarding promotions, interviewees believe there is no discrimination between women and men as one says *"The assessment process for promotion does not discriminate by gender"*. Another one states *"It all depends on the performance not gender"*. These views contradict Eupen (2010) who mentions that promotions for women come slower than for men, assuming equivalent positions. They also contradict earlier research in Bahrain that the general employment policy of the government sector is to block women's promotion, even if they are better qualified, trained and have more experience than men (Seikaly 1994).

In relation to staff benefits, men and women enjoy the same entitlements in terms of leave, travel benefits and insurance. One woman says *"both gender receive same entitlements"*. Another one adds *"In addition to that women are entitled to maternity leave which is 45 working days and nursing hours"*. A third one elaborates *"Medical insurance and travel benefits are provided to everyone regardless of being female, male, single or married"*. A fourth one comments *"Travel benefits do not discriminate between genders"*. These discussions do not support Tlaiss and Kauser (2010) who argue that organization practices tend to discriminate between men and women.

Concerning retirement, all interviewee state there is *"No discrimination"*. This is incompatible with Tlaiss and Kauser (2010) who argue that organization practices tend to discriminate between men and women.

The discussions stated earlier reveal that women worldwide including Bahrain are subject to stereotypes, limited access to networks and the need to balance work with family responsibilities. Although discrimination is always discussed in the literature as a barrier to women career development (Davidson and Cooper, 1992; Eagly and Carli, 2007), the pilot study shows that discrimination is very minimal. In addition, stereotyping of men and women has resulted in fewer opportunities for women (Kottke & Agars, 2005). In Middle Eastern context, organizational networks are becoming an important part of managerial behavior and success. However many women managers have reported complexities with interpersonal relationships with their subordinates (Jamali et al., 2005) and the exclusion from networks. This means that Arab women managers are underprivileged when it comes to professional support, career planning, access to important personnel, and organizational information (Jamali et al., 2005; McElwee & Al-Riyami, 2003). Finally one of the reasons for treating women careers different than men is because of the different impact of family responsibilities on men's and women careers (Eupen, 2010; O'Neil & Bilimoria, 2005).

Research question 3: What are the career development enabling factors?

This question measures career development enabling factors. These factors are referred to in the Social Cognitive Career theory as Proximal Contextual Influences that enable career development (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 1994). The enabling factors discussed during the

interviews are work family balancing strategies, education and training and access to networks.

Work-family balancing strategies

One of work-family balancing strategies is to get domestic help in the form of housemaid, spousal, children and/or parents support. One interviewee states *"Me and my husband discuss in advance our children's needs and we try to divide the chores among us, I drop the kids to school in the morning and he picks them up in the afternoon"*. Another one explains "*Me and my husband split household responsibilities"*. According to Shah and Al-Qudsi (1990), one of the ways to balance-work family responsibilities is to get domestic help. Alajmi (2001) elaborates saying that in Saudi Arabia family support is the second most critical element for women leadership development. Al-Lamky (2007) mentions that women increase their personal domain resources by relying on spousal support.

There is also emphasis on outsourcing domestic responsibilities to a housemaid which is very common in Bahrain. One interviewee explains *"No family with children can survive today without a housemaid"*. Another one adds *"I totally depend on my housemaid to do all the housework"*. The emphasis on outsourcing corresponds to the model of new motherhood where mothering and career roles are maintained but domestic responsibility is subcontracted (Ezzedeen & Ritchey, 2009). Though convenient to women for clear reasons, outsourcing as a social phenomenon is subject to criticism because it does little to change gender norms at home (Ezzedeen & Ritchey, 2009).

Education and training

Another major factor contributing to women's advancement is access to education and training and development initiatives. The interviewees identify several benefits of education and training like *"Access to labor market", "Developing skills and competencies"* and *"Building credentials and knowledge needed for job success"*. Education is also discussed in research question 1 as a positive influencer of self-efficacy. Earlier research from Saudi Arabia by Alajmi (2001) reports educational opportunities as the most critical element for women leadership development. Studies also point out the importance of educational attainment and work experience in increasing the number of women in the workplace (Hasan, 2011). Although Middle Eastern women are as well educated as their male counterparts and

increasingly entering the workforce, they continue to be underrepresented in senior managerial roles (MENA, 2007).

When it comes to formal training, one interviewee mentions *"Formal training is available to everyone in the company; every employee can register themselves and take whatever training they think is relevant to their area"*. Another one explains *"Frequently I access our corporate training website on the intranet and register myself to whatever courses I think will be useful"*. Another one elaborates *"Training exists but we could do more on leadership and development training"*. These discussions do not support Knorr's (2011) argument that education and training are part of the challenge to support women's progress in organizations. Training programs not only train employees for their current positions but can also provide them with the skills and competencies needed for future positions (Jackson et al., 2006).

Access to networks

Interviewees acknowledge the importance of networking. One interviewee states *"Though most of the networking in the company is informal, it sure can help increase our opportunities, not to withstand access to information and higher visibility"*. Another one adds *"Networking provides social and professional support"*. In particularly interviewees acknowledge the usage of *Wasta* in the organization although some acknowledged that it is unfair to rely on it. Some studies reveal that most candidates have to rely on the assistance of *Wasta* to get a job (Cunningham & Sarayah, 1993; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2010; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011). One interviewee explains *"It all revolves around relationships and knowing the right people in the right place. Bahrain is a high-context culture, which means that Bahrainis have widespread informal networks between families, friends and colleagues and close personal relationships with clients and suppliers to get information needed"*.

These views are compatible with Luthans et al. (1988) and Tlaiss and Kauser (2010) and Tlaiss and Kauser (2011) that a manager's ability to network is a strong predictor of managerial success, ahead of his/her ability to undertake traditional management activities, communication and human resource management.

The discussions above indicate that work-family balancing strategies, education and training and access to networks can assist in helping women break the glass ceiling and progress to higher managerial ranks.

Research question 4: Why are support systems needed to facilitate women career development?

This question addresses support systems needed to facilitate career development. They are part of career development enablers. The support systems discussed during the interviews are efforts at the organizational level and national level.

Efforts at the organizational level

A critical need highlighted by the interviewees is work-family balance. The discussions earlier demonstrate a supportive corporate environment for the many responsibilities women have. For example, the company has flexible working hours; days in lieu, maternity leave, nursing hours and other work arrangements to aid women balance the many different roles they play in their lives. One interviewee says *"We want to enjoy the benefit just like the public sector, 60 days of maternity leave and 2 nursing hours, the company set these policies to its benefits without consideration to women needs"*. Another one adds *"I enjoy flexibility in working hours"*. The third one elaborates *"The company provides free tickets and discounted hotels for its staff and family members which is great, I love travelling"*. Another one sates *"We need to update our policies"*. These views are compatible with other studies in the Arab Region by Omair (2010) who suggests that organizational policy is needed to provide childcare or maternity policy as women are expected to look after their children. From Oman, Al-Lamki (1999) reports that Omani women benefit from a wide range of child-care support services, family support to professional services such as affordable housemaids/nannies and child-care centers.

There is also a general tendency by Gulf Air towards telecommuting. In telecommuting, there is less dependence on the physical infrastructure of an organization and production lies with the workers themselves and actual work practices. The IT manager states *"Telecommuting is great, I can take work home or work from anywhere, no need to physically be at work"*. A second one adds *"Though it means we still get to work outside working hours, the greatest benefit is convenience"*. These views support Eikhof (2012) who argues that the use of

information and communication technology (ICT) allows workers to take work home. It also enables them to modify working hours. Staff have more autonomy and control over how, when and where they conduct work.

The Human Resource Department of Gulf Air also plays a significant role by transforming work cultures through team building, sensitivity training, change management and cross-gender communication. One interviewee says *"Giving staff the choice to registering to training programs is an effective tool"*. Second one states *"Tamkeen program run by HR helps us expand our skills and capabilities"*. These views are compatible to Al-Lamky, (2007) who argues that providing specialized training to women in areas such as assertiveness and confidence building and leadership development can aid to develop competencies in historically exclusive male domains jobs.

One area where Human Resource Department has a big impact is through performance evaluation. One interviewee explains *"Performance appraisal assesses our performance on the current job. Our managers can evaluate the professional needs"*. Another one states *"Through appraisal we know our strengths and areas of improvement"*. This support Jackson et al. (2006) who discusses the importance of performance appraisal in identifying employees' professional development needs.

The Human Resource Department established People development department in 2011 with the mission of "*Developing People – Enabling Business Results"* with direct support and encouragement from the CEO. People Development is divided into three departments: Learning and Development, Talent Management and Assessment Centre. One interviewee expounds *"The focus of this department is to upgrade the employee's knowledge, skills and abilities, as we strongly believe that successful employee development requires a balance between an individual's career needs and the organization's need to get work done"*. She also states "*This year the department will introduce an organizational culture change programme to support almost all the planned and anticipated change efforts (strategic, structural, or process). This culture change initiative will be on-going and organization-wide in an attempt to study the existing culture, highlight the gaps, and propose solutions that lead to uniform thinking and behavior of all employees, while improving employee's motivation and*

capability". Supporting (Omair, 2010, Tlaiss & Kauser, 2010; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011) organizational practices and culture are importance in supporting women career development.

The company has its Toastmasters Club in an attempt to help its members improve their communication, public speaking and leadership skills. According to one interviewee *"It offers a program of communication and leadership projects designed to help men and women learn the arts of speaking, listening, and thinking"*.

Efforts at national level

Nationalization strategies targeted to increase women's participation in the labor market and rising to higher positions in the organization is another important factor. One interviewee says *"I think nationalization programs are great way to help develop Bahrainis, the company signed an agreement with Tamkeen to train us based on our training needs, all Bahrainis are eligible, and eventually our salaries are benchmarked and adjusted to match competitors"*. The company has signed with the Labour Fund an agreement to enroll its Bahraini employees within the Career Progression Program; it is a program created to support the Human Capital development of the mid-income local workforce in the Kingdom of Bahrain. The program is designed to address underemployment or skills deficiencies that hinder career development opportunities for mid-income Bahraini workers in the private sector. This program offers the requisite training opportunities to existing Bahraini workforce to help them progress in their career. Another interviewee mentions *"The company signed an agreement with Supreme Council of Women to recruit and develop Bahraini female cabin crew as part of the nationalization efforts"*. These discussions are compatible with (Elamin & Omair 2010; Omair, 2010) who argued that for national women, nationalization of the labor market provides advantage in recruitment and selection, education and training, career development and remuneration.

To foster employee education, the company signed a partnership with City University London to offer its employees Certificates, Diplomas and Masters in Air Transport Management, Air Safety Management and Aircraft Maintenance Management. One interviewee explains *"These programs intend to serve the needs of its aviation professionals seeking to enhance their qualifications, expand their academic knowledge base in order to enhance the company's competitiveness and financial performance"*. A second interview adds *"City*

University program opens up opportunities for those who want to pursue further studies:" These views agree with Hasan (2011); Omair (2010) and Tlaiss & Kauser (2010) in supporting the need for educational programs to aid women career development.

The discussion above indicates the importance of organizational and national efforts to recognize, understand and support women careers and keep hold of talented professional women.

Research question 5: What factors influence career expectations?

This question investigates the factors that can influence career expectations. This is to understand factors affecting their outcome expectations. According to Social Cognitive Career Theory, outcome expectations are personal beliefs about the imagined consequences of implementing a specific task (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 2002). These factors are shaped by several experiences including direct past life experiences, positive or negative results of other people's experiences and listening to other individuals describe their own experiences (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994).

Factors affecting career expectations discussed during interviews are physical appearance, learning experience, social support and persuasion and organization practices.

Physical appearance

Only two discuss physical appearance as influencing the likelihood of getting a job. For example, one interviewee mentions physical appearance plays an important role in the selection on their job. She explains *"When applying for crew positions; there are certain criteria for evaluation such as weight, height and age"*. Second interviewee elaborates *"I am really insecure about the way I present to other people, about my weight and things like that, so for me to stand in front of people will no doubt put me in the spotlight"*.

One of the participants comments *"Age and appearance requirements can also arbitrarily exclude women from jobs for which they are professionally qualified for"*. Employers justify their preferences for male employees on stereotypical assumptions about women's physical and intellectual capacities and family responsibilities (Broadbridge, 2008, Hasan, 2011). According to Graham (2010), physical appearance impacts self-image of women which in

turn affects their outcome expectations. It represents an ongoing struggle to balance the need to appear in a certain way while keeping one's identity.

Learning experience

Learning experiences also affect outcome expectations (Hasan, 2011). As one interviewee states *"Each time I apply for a new job, I am confident in my ability to succeed because I know I have the skills required, I have built up experience working in the company for 7 years"*. The second interviewee adds *"I got my last promotion because I was the most experience one among the applicants"*. According to Hasan (2011) people base their outcome expectations on their perceptions of the skills they currently have (or can develop), on how well they have performed and on outcomes they have received.

Social support and persuasion

The interviewees believe their ability to deal with a situation is also influenced by what they hear from their colleagues, managers, family and friends. Those who receive strong messages that they have the skills and capabilities to handle a situation are more likely to put in greater efforts. One interviewee mentions *"My husband always believed in me, he always encouraged me to pursue further career opportunities and that helped me become the person I am today"*. A second interview adds *"My manager has always been supportive, even though he was sorry when I was offered a promotion in another department; he always told me I am hard working, committed, a team player and I can do it"*. These discussions support McElwee and Al-Riyami (2003) who argue that when making business decisions most women discuss with their families. Also in their study of women entrepreneurs in Oman, McElwee and Al-Riyami (2003) report that most women seek advice from their families when making business decisions. Ferry, Fouad and Smith (2000) find that family support increases the likelihood that women will have positive outcome expectations.

Bandura's theory of self-efficacy explains that through vicarious learning, seeing someone similar to oneself work hard to achieve a goal or overcome a difficulty contributes to our belief that we, too, can successfully do it. One interviewee mentions *"When I saw my friend succeed in her job I was convinced I can do it""*. According to Bandura (1977), the more similar the person who is being observed is, the stronger the effect of that person's successes or failures will be on the observer's beliefs.

One interviewee discusses the importance of family in influencing her expectations; she states *"My parents have always supported my career choices that is very helpful"*. Another interviewee adds *"What always comes to my mind when a new opportunities arises is my family, higher jobs mean more responsibilities, longer working hours, I feel guilty leaving my husband and children alone"*. The literature on women and leadership provides evidence that women's leadership interests and goals can be impacted by outcome expectations relating to work-family balance (Halpern & Cheung, 2008; Sullivan & Mainiero, 2006). Many researchers attribute women's low aspirations for leadership to perceived negative consequences resulting from work-life balance (Halpern & Cheung, 2008). Though the sample didn't think family reduced their aspiration, it certainly has an impact. The "mommy track" gives an example of the potential negative outcomes that occurs for women who want to balance work and family. Halpern and Cheung (2008) explain that the mommy track was created for women who want to divide their time between raising their children and paid employment. Women on this track are usually viewed as being less committed to their work.

Organizational practices

Organizational practices in selection and recruitment, promotion actions, performance assessment and training and development can also influence outcome expectations. One interview states *"I trust the assessment conducted by our human resource division"*. The second one adds *"I didn't consider applying for an internal post because I knew in advance my manager had already someone in mind"*. According to Social Cognitive Career Theory, people have positive outcome expectations for tasks they expect success at and have negative outcome expectations for tasks they expect failure at (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 2002).

The discussion of the factors above are compatible with Hasan (2011) and Graham (2010) who find support outcome expectations as predictors of interests and goals for leadership positions, yet more research is required to further understand the role of outcome expectations on women's interests and goals for leadership. It is argued that women with high self-efficacy for leadership are likely to hold more positive outcome expectations for leadership positions than those with negative expectations positions (Hasan, 2011).

Research question 6: What are women's career goals?

This question addresses career goals. These goals are referred to in the Social Cognitive Career Theory as "Choice goals" (Lent et al., 1994). They refer to the expressed career choice intentions (Lent et al., 1994). Every interviewee is asked what her future career goals are.

When it comes to career goals, the majority of the interviewees provide similar answers. One mentions *"I want to become a senior manager and I believe I will, seeing other progress give me confidence in reaching there"*. Another one explains *""I want to be a line manager; I know I have what it takes, I am qualified and I have the experience"*. A third interviewee states *"I want to become a manager, but judging from the financial situation of the company, I think this goal is on hold for now"*. The rest mention their desire to hold managerial position by expressing the goal *"Become a manager"*.

The importance of goals has been discussed in the literature, for example according to Lent et al. (1994) highly committed employees are motivated to set personal and career goals and then develop plans to attain these goals. Goals also serve as an internal motivator to individual's behaviors (Lent et al., 1994). Goals assist in defining the achievement strategies, the intensity of effort, and tenacity in seeking solutions to barriers (Covington & Omelich, 1979).

The attainment of these goals is dependent on several factors. Contextual barriers and supports are important factors that can translate an individual's career interests into career goals and goals into actions (Lent et al., 2001). These factors help or hinder an individual's effort to reach a career or educational goal (Lent et al., 2001). For example, one interviewee mentions *"Judging from the financial situation of the company, I think this goal is on hold for now"*. According to Lent et al. (1994) the environmental influences might impact people's ability or willingness to translate their interests into goals and their goals into actions.

A second interviewee explains *"I believe I will, seeing other progress give me confidence in reaching there""*. Lent et al. (1994) argues that outcome expectations play an important role within the career decision making process. When people anticipate attaining various goals in given situations, they will make judgments of the likelihood of attaining them (Landry, 2003).

Other factors impacting the likelihood of goal attainment are education and experience. One interviewee states *"I want to be a line manager; I know I have what it takes, I am qualified and I have the experience"*. Qualification and experience are discussed in research question 1 as sources of self-efficacy. This response supports earlier research by (Bandura & Cervone, 1983; Wood & Bandura, 1989) that individuals with high self-efficacy for a given task will set higher personal goals than those with lower self-efficacy. Learning experiences play an important role in determining whether or not an individual views specific career goals as attainable (Williams & Subich, 2006).

The responses above indicate that goal attainment is dependent on several factors ranging from environmental variables to personal variables. Social Cognitive Career argues that self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations are direct predictors of career goals (Lent et al., 1994, 2000). Flores and O'Brien (2002) argue that if a woman perceives fewer barriers along with a supportive environment, she is more likely to experience positive outcomes, leading to a positive effect on career goals.

Summary

The labor market in the Arab region has witnessed major changes during the last few decades, with women taking more responsibility in public fields and holding higher positions in organizations (Tlaiss, 2009). Therefore, there is a growing need to research Arab women in management (Omair, 2010).

The results of the pilot study provide an insight on the status of women careers in the company. Women build their career choices based on education, personality traits, and performance evaluation. These factors have an impact on their judgment of their own capabilities to purse higher career opportunities.

But since their definition of career success focuses on subjective rather than just objective outcomes due to their non-work responsibilities, their career outcomes is affected by their physical appearance, learning experience, social support and persuasion, family and organization practices. These factors make it difficult for these women to adhere to traditional career models.

Women's limited access to power and leadership roles is attributed to gender stereotypes, limited access to organizational networks and the difficulty balancing work family responsibilities. These barriers have received varying levels of support in the literature (Alajmi, 2001; Bae, 2002; Knorr, 2011; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011).

Work family balancing strategies, access to education and training opportunities and networking are identified as key enablers at the individual level. Moreover, several organizational efforts aimed to enhance women career development are discussed. These efforts include equal treatment in selection, recruitment, promotion actions, performance assessment, and training and development, providing an environment of acceptance and support for the many responsibilities women have and the many alternatives they face can help them integrate their work-lives and non-work lives, telecommuting and nationalization strategies designed to support the employment of nationals in preference to expatriates. These factors are also discussed by (Al-Lamki, 1999; Al-Lamky, 2007; Eikhof, 2012; Omair, 2010; Weir, 2003).

CHAPTER VI: FIELD WORK

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to understand women career development, specifically targeted to Bahraini female managers. As a qualitative study, this study follows content analysis of narrative data as the means of collecting and analyzing data. The goal of this approach is to provide detailed descriptions of women's experiences using their own words.

The focus is on Bahraini female managers who completed a degree, are now actively employed in managerial positions and have completed a minimum of one year in the company, six broad research questions guide the study:

Research question 1: What are the sources of women's self-efficacy?

Research question 2: Why are women underrepresented on the top of the corporate ladder?

Research question 3: What are the career development enabling factors?

Research question 4: Why are support systems needed to facilitate women career development?

Research question 5: What factors influence career expectations?

Research question 6: What are women's career goals?

The discussion to follow is presentation of the data.

Research question 1: What are the sources of women's self-efficacy?

This question measures self-efficacy of the women under study. According to Social Cognitive Career Theory, self-efficacy refers to "people's judgment of their own capabilities to organize and execute courses of action needed to attain designated types of performances" (Bandura, 1986, p. 391). Every interviewee is asked what sources make her realize her potential whereby increasing her self-efficacy beliefs. The sources of self-efficacy reported during the interviews are education, training, experience, personal achievements and personality types.

Education

Education is mentioned by all interviewees as an important source of self-efficacy. All women participating in this study have a minimum of a Bachelor's degree, five of them completed their Masters degree and four of them are currently doing their Masters. Moreover, four of them are holding professional degrees such Certificate of Engineering, Professional Human Resource Qualification, Certified Public Accountant (CPA) and Certified Internal Auditor (CIA).

The importance of education in improving these women's capabilities is discussed by the interviewees.

One manager says *"Educational opportunities help me develop skills that allow me to make decisions. They also influence my decisions in any aspect of my life"*

Another manager adds *"Education influences how I think, how I work and how I make decisions"*

Another manager explains *"Qualifications are very important in our field, we are working in line with international standards and we need to constantly be up to date with changes that occur and enhance our capabilities. I am keen on studying and in our field professional certificates really add value, I am holding two certificates CPA and CIA and that played a key role in selecting me for this job"*

Another manager elaborates *"Education is the tool to build experience, broaden our horizon and make it easier for us to master knowledge and skills. Education enhances women's understanding of her rights and makes her realize her potential in all life aspects"*

Another manager adds *"Some employers are even demanding high levels of education even for lower end jobs, higher level of education is linked to higher career. The more I study the greater is my desire and eagerness to hold managerial roles"*

Another manager states *"Education provides the theory to back up the experience, it provide the terminology and help link experience to what is learned"*

Another manager adds *"Education enhances our confidence levels"*

Training

Training is another important source of self-efficacy though according to these women not as important as education. At every level training is needed but the nature of the job dictates the type of training required. For women in technical departments like Information Technology, Engineering, Flight Operations and Certain divisions in Commercial, technical training is considered very important.

A manager states *"Training is ongoing! We take refreshing courses, we study and we are trained in the simulator, it's the kind of job where the more you practice the better you become"*

Another manager adds *"IT is an ever changing field, the best way to stay up to date is through regular training, I make sure I list my training courses in my CV because I know every IT employer will look for them, and I even frame my certificates and display them in my office"*

Another manager explains *"Training in my field is very important because of technical nature of my job, through training I learn more about the aircraft, how to work with it and what to do in case of any problem, more training makes me more competent"*

However, in less technical jobs like in Commercial, Finance and Human Resources divisions, technical training is not seen as a big contributor to self-efficacy. Different kind of training is influential.

One manager explains *"Training is very important at entry levels, I am lucky I did lots of training when I first joined, but it was very specialized. I now need a different type of training like problem solving, customer focus, empowerment and effective leadership to prepare me for senior roles"*

Another manager adds *"Training makes us efficient but training by itself is incomplete. Knowledge and efficiency are needed and they come with education"*

Another manager comments *"Training is not very needed in my department because we deal more with numbers and we follow policies and procedures, education is our tool"*

Another manager adds *"Training is something you can learn by practice but it doesn't supplement education, I think education is more important"*

Another manager explains *"Maybe technical training, is important but not at our level, we need different types of training, we need workshops where we a group of people get together, share experiences, thoughts, ideas and connect together"*

Last one says *"I don't think training is that important, training is more for specialized areas like pilots and IT"*

Experience

Only six interviewees mention experience in the field as a big player in enhancing their capabilities and their chances to climb up the career ladder.

The first manager says *"Experience is very important, in certain jobs, education by itself is not sufficient, especially as we go higher, it's a huge responsibility, having experience in the field definitely makes the job easier"*

Another manager explains *"For us pilots, experience is not counted in terms of numbers of years but rather in terms of the number of hours we fly, the more we fly the greater are our chances in moving to the next step in the chain of command"*

Another manager comments *"In the commercial field social experience provided me with the skills and habits necessary for participating within the society, doing many of the same tasks year over year has really built up my competence level"*

Another manager compounds *"Prospective employers will look in my CVs to see why they should employ me and not someone else. Work Experience is one factor they will look for"*
Another manager says *"People on top need to think strategically not only deal with figures. This ability comes with experience"*

Last manager adds *"Experience with similar situations help me overcome obstacle as they come across"*

Personal achievements

Personal achievements are cited by all interviewees as another key source of self-efficacy. First manager explains *"Achievements are something you always want to keep a record of; you achieve what you are through who you are. I have managed to save the company huge amounts through my negotiating skills with our service providers. I have also reengineered a division in my department because it was so inefficient"*

Another manager adds *"I am proud I supported developing the young Bahrainis in my team through coaching, training and mentoring; now my department is made up of a young talented Bahraini team that I built from scratch"*

Proudly one manager says *"I have started my department from scratch five years ago and the fact that it still exists proves how important and how required it is"*

Another manager states *"I was awarded employee of the month twice and employee of the year, I was the first Bahraini to publish a website in SharePoint, I automated many internal processes and every time my forecast matches actual results I get a great sense of accomplishment"*

Another manager proudly states *"I am very proud of my accomplishments; I am the first Bahraini certified engineer. Every step I achieve every model I finish and every license I get is an achievement. I received an award in women's day, I represented the company in Bahrain Airshow, I was part of documentary about the company and I received Standard Chartered award for women achievers"*

Another manager adds *"I was award by Her Royal Highness Princess Sabeeka bint Ibrahim Al Khalifa, in women's day. I am so proud of myself"*

Lastly, one manager says *"Achievements tell me I can do it again because I did it before"*

Personality types

Personality types affect the type of jobs an individual is pursuing; every interviewee is asked to describe herself. Some of these descriptions are:

"I am flexible, I listen, I review before I say no, I think thoroughly, I deal with people always and these qualities make me in the right place"

"I am adventurous, ethical, easy to deal with and creative, that's why I left my previous job, it was too technical, I felt I was in the wrong place, I am happy where I am now"

"I am enthusiastic, self-initiated, I pay attention to details, I have interpersonal skills and time management, these characteristics are needed in my area because I deal with users and I handle the technical side"

"I am hardworking, dedicated, and punctual, I meet deadlines, very organized even at personal level, I set priorities to balance work with family, I am not an office person, this field interested me, I think my personality fits the career I chose for myself".

"Personality is being used by managers to evaluate the suitability of job applicants for positions at any level in the organization"

"I am open to criticism, I am willing to constantly learn and adapt in order to become a better one, and I accept negative feedback from others in order to perform better in the future"

"I am dedicated, hard worker, experienced and I love my job"

Research question 2: Why are women underrepresented on the top of the corporate ladder?

In this section, career development barriers are addressed. Every interviewee states what barriers to her career she encountered. The barriers identified are gender stereotypes, work family balance and culture. During the discussions, discrimination is discussed because none

of these women reports it as a barrier yet it is widely discussed in the literature as a barrier to women career development.

Gender stereotypes

The biggest barrier to women career development reported by women in this study is gender stereotypes. Every interviewee is asked about the attitude towards women in management and if they have been affected by these stereotypes.

First manager shares her experience, she says *"I think the biggest barrier to women is underestimating her capabilities, if she reaches top level she get attacked from every angle career wise and on a personal level. In several meetings I attend, I notice the attendees don't expect much from me as a woman in power or trust my leadership skills, but when they see me in action, they get surprised, I feel like I am under constant observation. This is really stressful and unhealthy"*

One manager argues *"Although I am a woman; I think men are more qualified to hold these executive roles. Women handling multiple roles make them less competent; women are to stay at home"*

Another manager states *"There's a perception that women can't give as much as a man. When I was interviewed for a managerial job my children were very young. The manager who interviewed me asked me how dedicated I will be, I really felt insulted because he thought being a mother makes me less competent. I am capable of handling the two responsibilities without sacrificing the outcome of both duties"*

Another manager explains *"Stereotyping is the biggest barrier, I once applied for an internal job but I was excluded without proper justification although I passed the assessment process, I later found out the reason for the exclusion was because I am a young woman and therefore I'm weak and would not be a good fit for the job. This assumption was totally annoying and unfair, women are as strong as men and time will prove them wrong"*

Another manager adds *"Women's underrepresentation reflects her struggle to show her capabilities, knowledge; sometimes it's a matter of trusting women to fill up these positions,*

what can I say old mentality! When I took this position, I had one staff reporting to me, he had been in the company for 20 years; he refused to be bossed and take orders from a woman and requested to be transferred to another department"

One manager comments *"Men still don't believe in our capabilities! Although women are successful in many fields; the efforts are still not enough to grant them all their rights and the respect they need. When I was pregnant, my manager didn't think I could handle the workload or would be reliable"*

One manager shares her experience saying *"Women are not taken seriously, even if they have the capabilities they are prevented from reaching high. The nature of my job entails a lot of analysis and forecasts, when I sit in a meeting room full of men and present, they don't trust my numbers, they start questioning the way I calculated them and they even sometimes attack my numbers. If the numbers turn out to be wrong my manager wouldn't want to take responsibility for them and would blame it on me"*

Another manager affected by stereotyping says *"Men don't believe in us or trust us; they think we are weak and that being on top is a man's world. A woman has to work twice as hard as a man to prove herself, she sometimes tries to change herself but I don't think it's worth the change. I once had a coworker who always refused to take my advice on business issues, he didn't want to listen to a woman or show that he needs my help, he had surrounded himself by a group of men, I first was upset but then I said to myself why bother!"*

Another manager adds *"I think the biggest barrier to women is the perception than women are not strong, emotional, and indecisive. Based on my experience in the HR field, many companies when hiring for executive positive screen out women CVs. Men feel intimidated when they see a strong woman. I had a male manager reporting to me, he was very resistant and didn't believe in me, he actually harassed me and when I terminated him he came and said to me I respect you, I never thought a woman can be that strong"*

Working in a male dominant field, a manger explains *"The airline industry in general is male dominant and intensive, I think many women underestimate themselves and they don't seize opportunities expecting that things will come to them. When I applied for this job I was*

worried whether I will get accepted or not, I haven't heard of a female pilot by then. After I joined, many colleagues though that this isn't a field for women, and as I was progressing in my field many of my male colleagues were always jealous of my success, they talked behind my back that, questioned my competence and claimed that I was hired by Wasta but now after we worked together many of them changed that perception and we became friends"

Another manager adds "*Management prefers to hire men in the field of IT. When advertising for a post in IT, some managers specify they want male applicants. Some men explicitly tell me during meetings that if a case was handled by a man the result would have been better, these sorts of comments are annoying, I know myself so I try to ignore in order for this frustration not to impact my productivity"*

A third one says "*When I first joined, I was the first lady to work on the airport ramp, everybody was staring at me, I got harassed by words and actions, guys used to tell me what are you doing here, this is not your place and you wouldn't last here, they even used to pull the chair from under my legs on the field, I remember one captain told me this is not your place, I used to laugh and ignore them, I now tell them look where I got! Men feel threatened when a women does their job and excels in it. Some men specially the older generation, don't want to work with me, they don't want to take orders from a woman"*

Only one manager says she has never been affected by stereotypes. She comments *"I don't think I encountered any form of stereotypes; I think if a woman can prove herself and that she's qualified she will make it. There are fair opportunities in this company. I was never underestimated because I am a woman"*

Another issue related to gender stereotypes is the preference for a male or a female boss. Interviewees are asked if they prefer to work for a male or a female boss.

Six of the participants prefer a male boss, some of the reasons are:

One manager says *"I prefer a male boss; women get jealous when they see another successful woman, and you could feel the tension even with female colleagues and subordinates"*

Another manager states *"I prefer a male boss; they are more understanding, less defensive, straight forward, no jealousy, though they can be emotional as well"*

Another manager adds *"By default I prefer a male boss, women are emotional and jealous. If a women reports to another woman; she will try to control her. I believe men are more practical, focused and easier to deal with"*

Another manager comments *"I prefer a male boss, they are very dedicated, no problems of jealousy, no complaints as I usually get when working with women"*

Another one adds *"I prefer to work for a male boss because women take things personally, men are easier to deal with and work with, they are straight forward and they separate personal things from work. Women don't say things directly; they expect you to read their minds!"*

The remaining ones have no preference. One manager says *"I don't have a preference for male or female boss but I think communication with me is easier, women can get jealous of other successful women"*

Another manager adds *"No preference for male or female boss. Leadership style depends on the person; men can be more sensitive, indecisive, a male manager would not be comfortable confronting his staff but it has always been assumed that women are the weaker ones"*

One manager comments *"I don't think I have preference, as a matter of fact as I never had a female boss"*

Another manager states *"No preference for male or female boss. I believe I combine the characteristic of men and women leaders. I'm tough but I still have to prove myself and make others take me seriously in such male dominating field which I know I did it, I earned their respect, at the same time I am sociable, I make friends easily and I am easy going with younger ones"*

Another one adds *"I haven't had a female boss but generally working with women, women are jealous if they see other successful good looking women, they feel intimidated. However I had a bad experience with a male boss he wasn't a good teacher, he was very picky and preferred process over people. It all comes at the end to the personality of the person but the gender. In my case I have a very supportive male boss, he gives me feedback, he has faith in my work and he openly tells me what I need to do"*

One manager states *"It all depends on the personality I don't have a preference. Women are more holistic, they see the complete picture better than men, the human side is very important when you are managing people. Men focus on getting the job done only without taking into consideration the human side. There's no harm in having good relationship as long as the productivity is not sacrificed. Yet it all depends on person himself"*

Another manager says *"Doesn't matter. It depends on the personality; I've seen emotional men, men with anger issues who don't think straight. Being a woman and a mother adds value to the leadership style, especially in establishing relationships, men need longer time. Women also have better control"*

Lastly one manager explains *"Women's nature adds value to her; we are more to the point, we think a lot of the details involved; we take more bold decisions than men especially when people are involved in it. The emotional part makes us understand what people go through. I once had a sick staff reporting to me. The business side of me told me to terminate him, but the emotional part of me told me to give him another chance so I transferred him to another department where he fitted"*

Work-family balance

The second biggest barrier to career development in this study is work family balance. 11 of these women are married, ten have children and one is childless. The remaining five are single. Every interviewee is asked how work affected her personal life.

First manager comments *"Being single I don't not have a lot of commitments, so even if I have to work extra that doesn't bother me"*

The second compounds *"Though I am single, work has its implications on my life; men in our culture don't accept their wives to stay late, travel alone as it can harm their reputation, so this could mean that my success will be at the expense of marriage opportunities"*

Another explains *"I remember when I got accepted as a pilot; everyone was telling me are you crazy, where will you find a husband when you will be away all the time. I am now happily married and thanks to my supportive husband. Working hours are different for us, the best I can do to balance my responsibilities is to plan ahead, if I need to be in Bahrain certain period of time I inform the planning department, but sometimes they are not very flexible if an emergency happens"*

Another manager says *"For single women, putting career ahead entails making compromises at personal level like missing on marriage and motherhood. Being single allowed me to focus on my work all the time"*

One manager explains *"I once applied for an airport manager job. When I went for interview the manager interviewing me told me are sure you can handle this job. It involves working shifts, lots of travelling and staying late. When he said so I knew I wasn't going to be selected and I was right. They selected a man for the job. I know family is a huge responsibility, I feel like I'm working two shifts, but this would never impact my productivity or commitment to work. With the help of my nanny and husband I will manage"*

One manager complains *"Work is a barrier and I just had a new baby, I need to sit extra hours to finish work, I know I do it but I'd rather spend this time with my family. I rely heavily on my nanny to take care of my kids; my husband and mom help as well"*

Another manager adds *"My job entails lots of forecasts and research, and once done I need to discuss them with the concerned department. Unfortunately my boss always schedules these meetings very late so I need to stay extra hours, several times I was forced to cancel my leave, come to work on the weekends. I have missed so many obligations, and I think work is one reason why my masters is taking too long is because of the workload"*

One manager explains *"Many women are less dedicated to work because they want to give their family their full time and attention which I think is wrong, we working moms make sacrifices when it comes to balancing our duties as wives and moms. This sacrifice is at the expense of other benefit like financial benefits. I admit I am very workaholic, I really feel guilty when I travel or stay late at work. I want to be a part of my children's lives and development; do their homework, attend school meetings; but I simply cannot accommodate both so I rely on the support of my husband, housemaid and my parents"*

Another manager adds *"In our field work never stops, I am always under pressure to meet deadline. I sometimes have to do conference call at 3 am. And since I can't come to work this time, I do them at home and change my sleeping timings. We work longer than 8 hours and I miss many chances to do other courses and other family and personal obligations. I wish I can go home and stop thinking about work!"*

Another one says *"Our working hours are different, we* work shifts. *My husband has always been a great support; he's an engineer like me and works in the same company. So he knows the job dynamics, what the expectations are, and how decisions are made, we decided that I take the morning shift and he does the night shift. My nanny is my other greatest supporter specially now with the new baby coming. I love my job and I perform 100% when I'm there but I love my family too, and once I'm home I don't want to know anything about work"*

Another manager says *"Weekends are for me, unless there is something really urgent. I usually need to stay extra hours to finish work, which is quite stressful, If I don't finish my job I don't feel relieved, I even don't have time to go to the gym anymore"*

One manager adds *"I try to split my time equally between my work and family, but I usually end up spending more time at work and my family is always the victim. Especially now as I'm getting older, all I want is to spend time with my family. My job entails lots of after work functions so my husband, parents and housemaid take care of the children"*

Another manager states *"I travel all the time and I end up sacrificing time with my family, my kids. The tradeoff is painful for me personally as I have small children and my responsibilities*

may limit my participation in their lives as I would wish to. Because they are very young so I have to leave them with my mom or my mother in law"

These women are also asked how the use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) helps in balancing work with family. The answers given are:

"ICT has made my work easier, I used to carry my heavy laptop from/to work every day now everything is accomplished via smart phones, however these devices become addictive"

"I used to check my work email at home in my ipad but once I started becoming addictive I decided to stop"

"ICT is a great help for me, I travel a lot and technology is my way to stay in touch with work and family"

"ICT can make my life easier but I don't want to use it all the time outside working hours because I will end up working more. We should be given an option whether we want a blackberry or not. I don't mind working from home but only if there is something urgent"

"ICT makes me work more and I don't like this"
"The use if ICT does not help balance my two responsibilities, I think it pressures me to work more to meet my deadlines"

"It has eased up my work processes but we end eventually working more, I remember when I first got my blackberry, my son used to complain that I don't pay attention to what they say and spend long time using the phone"

"The usage of ICT has made our lives both easier and complicated, it streamlined processes and communication at the same time we are obligated all the time to respond so it doesn't make life easier"

"The use of ICT has been of a great help, it made me more efficient, people at our level are always on call, we don't stick to 8 hours, smart phones allow me to respond to my emails on

time, reply to any emergencies and whenever I go on leave I don't need to come back and see hundreds of emails awaiting my response"

Culture

Lack of supportive culture is discussed in the literature as a barrier to women career development. To investigate culture these women are asked how they perceive the organizational culture and whether Islam poses any restrictions on their careers.

When it comes to the organizational culture, seven managers say culture is not supportive. First manager comments *"Although our CEO is very supportive, the culture is not, nobody is willing to take the decision to hire women in key position, they are not ready for a female chief, this lack of support has affected my health and me mentally because no matter how much effort I put, I will get stuck at a certain level"*

Another one says *"The culture is not very supportive especially in male dominated fields; pilot's environment was very hostile"*

Two managers say *"The culture is very masculine; they trust men more in elite positions"*

Another manager comments *"Our culture impacts how we deal with people; employees will not want a male boss"*

Another manager argues *"The culture is not very supportive; it doesn't take into consideration women needs and responsibilities, I had a manager who wouldn't let me do training courses because work cannot wait"*

One manager states *"Men are trusted more to occupy senior roles, having a woman on top can be seen as breaking the norm, also men trust each out more specially in male dominated jobs like pilots and engineers where the culture could be aggressive"*

The remaining nine say the culture is supportive. Their beliefs are

"Culture and CEO are very supportive; it's a matter of finding the right caliber"

"Company culture is very supportive, The CEO selected me among a group of highly competent people including men holding PHD because he believed I am a competent person, I myself two female managers in my divisions reporting to me"

"Culture has always been supportive to me, the company has always appreciated me, I received GF award in women's day, I represented the company in Bahrain Airshow and I was part of documentary about GF as part of the airshow, I also received Standard chartered award for women achievers, sometimes words are enough to show the support. I am now pregnant, I work in the field in this heat, my senior looks me with a smile and says, how can you do it"

"The culture has changed a lot. With modernization and economic reform, It is now ready for women"

The other issue related to culture is the impact of Islamic values on women. The majority of women see no impact of Islam on their careers.

First manager says *"Bahrain is a very open and modern country; Islam was never a restriction, it's people who restrict themselves"*

One manager elaborates *"Islam had never impacted my career and I'm covered, we work in a multicultural company and those who spent time enough here know the culture and customs by now"*

Another manager comments *"Islam does not restrict women; as a matter of fact the restriction I Islam gave women justice, it took into consideration her role in life, being multinational companies certain events require mixing or there may be music or drinking involved which can hinder women sometimes".*

Another manager states *"Working in a multicultural company; Islam sometimes restrict me, there are many social gatherings and events at night that I cannot go to especially if drinks are served"*

One manager shares her experience *"Islam can sometimes restrict women, not because of the religion itself but because people misinterpret Islam as constraining to women, that women are followers and should always follow whatever their husbands tell them but I believe the new generation will wipe away these ideas. People's misinterpretation of Islam can be restrictive and that can impact our job opportunities. Many times I applied for jobs and I got rejected because I am covered, that's why whenever I get called for an* interview *I straight tell them I'm covered, some call back but some don't. We are working in a multicultural company and I deal professionally with everybody including expatriates. Work also has its implications on single women; men in our culture don't accept their wives to stay out late, travel alone as it can harm their reputation, so some single successful women can miss out on marriage opportunities"*

Another ones states *"Islam can pose restrictions on women on top, we usually need to spend time with male colleagues, stay out late, work at night, attend events and even shake hand, it can be culturally unacceptable and not all husbands will approve it"*

One manager expounds *"Islam can restrict career, I fly with men and most of my colleagues are men, I deal with men everywhere, society may not accept this, I spoke to many male colleagues who believe that a women's job is at the kitchen and taking care of her family, I don't think it's the problem in Islam, it never said women are not to become pilots, it's how people misinterpret it".*

Another manager comments *"Islam is never a restriction to women. It's people misinterpretation of Islamic values, even expatriates sometimes understand it better than us, for example when I tell them I don't shake hands, none of them ever felt insulted. I once had a Bahraini colleague who got offended because I didn't shake hands with him; of all he should've known better why I didn't and even if it wasn't an Islamic issue I consider this a personal choice"*

Last one says *"To me Islam was never a restriction, I am covered and I work in the field. However, I once had a problem with one of the expatriate pilots who refused to work with me because I am covered; he said I am unsafe for the aircraft. It was a big issue, I complained against him and the issue escalated very high in the company, my manager and everybody in*

the company supported me and was willing to do anything to help me. The case was solved in my favor and that pilot ended put apologizing to me".

Discrimination

Discrimination is discussed in the literature as one of the barriers to women career development. However, none of these women mentioned discrimination so the subject is brought up for discussion. To investigate discrimination; areas of pay, selection and recruitment, promotions, staff benefits and retirement are investigated.

In relation to the wage gap, all women agree there is no longer any form of discrimination between men and women. However, two years ago, there was a wage gap. This gape was due to social allowances that men used to receive and women did not. This issue has been resolved after the company reexamined pay scales of its employees and decided to pay all employees working on the same job and with same grade the exact same allowance. However, some of the women report the resentment of some men as to why women should be paid the same.

One manager states *"I remember men in our department were not happy why should we be paid the same, they believed than men are responsible for providing the financial support to their families and not women"*

Another manager says *"Some men were so selfish, they thought they are entitled higher allowances and we're not"*

A third manager comments *"I am happy this issue has been resolved"*

The rest of the manager only reply by saying *"No discrimination"*

In relation to selection and recruitment, no discrimination between men and women is reported.

One manager says *"The selection and assessment process evaluate the individual himself with disregard to gender"*

One manager comments *"Even in our field which is highly dominant by men, there's no discrimination in the selection process"*

Another manager comments *"Qualifications and experience decide who gets the job not gender"*

The remaining managers only reply by saying *"No discrimination"*

In relation to promotions, again no form of discrimination is reported.

One manager states *"Promotions are not based on gender"*

Another manager adds *"My manager never discriminated between me and my colleague; we both entered a fair evaluation and got promoted accordingly"*

A third one states *"Promotions are based on systematic performance evaluation with disregard to gender"*

The remaining women only reply by saying *"No discrimination"*

In relation to staff benefits all women reply by saying *"No discrimination"*

In relation to retirement age, all women perceive the retirement age though less than men not discriminatory. In line with Labor Law the retirement age of women is 45 and men is 60.

One manager says *"I think the retirement age takes into consideration women needs, at a certain age, it's time for us to leave work and be with our families"*

Another manager expounds *"I don't think the retirement age is discriminatory because of women's biological nature, but I think an option should be given to her if she wants to work beyond that age"*

A third manager adds *"Retirement age is very fair given women's other responsibilities. By the time a woman reaches her retirement ages, she has already put in much more time and energy than a man would".*

Research question 3: What are the career development enabling factors?

In this section, career development enablers are discussed; every interviewee is asked what has enabled her career development. The enablers identified are education and training programs, mentoring and networking.

Education and training programs

Education and training programs are important for women career development. Every woman is asked how education and training contributes to their careers.

First manager states *"Education is very important; Bachelor's degree has become the minimum to get access to any job nowadays but for further career development higher degrees like Masters or professional certificates is more important. Training is not that important in my job I get the experience with practice"*

One manager elaborates *"Education Is very important, it will not impact our work directly but through the knowledge it give us, the structure and focus, experience is something you learn by practice. Education enhances women's understanding of their rights and makes them realize their potential in all life aspects. Training is important as well, but at our level I think we can do better, given the company's situation, if we need formal training we have to do it on our own"*

Another manager states *"I rank education very high; experience is someone you can learn by practice by it doesn't supplement education. Training in my field is very important especially on the technical side, but we also need management training which we are not getting because of all cost reduction initiate which disadvantages employees"*

Another manager comments *"Education is very important, it impacts the way I think, knowledge acquisition, it is needed to get the job done, and experience by itself is not enough. I work in a very technical department, I deal with systems, I do lots of programming, I think*

my background in computer science really help me, the technical knowhow makes my job easier, it improves my analytical skills, I don't think someone from a business background job would be able to do my job and understand all the technicalities involved, he/she would have a longer way to go. Training is very important at entry levels, I was lucky I did lots of training when I first joined, but it was specialized, now I need a different type of training like problem solving, customer focus, empowerment, and effective leadership to prepare me for senior roles"

Another manager says *"Education is very critical and does not stop at a certain level, technology is changing every day we need to be updated, technology broadens our knowledge, and we learn new things, new ideas, and new way of doing things. Online resources are available everywhere. Opportunities have improved compared to before. Development programs improve our knowledge, our experiences. Workshops for example are very beneficial because I can acquire experience with practice but workshops provide an opportunity to sit with others and share our experiences which can develop us even at the personal level"*

One manager explains *"Education is very critical, not for access to this job because the minimum requirement is high school science degree but for career development. In this field we learn new things every day and since we are an international company we follow international standards so we are constantly studying to develop ourselves and keep up with these standards. Every 2 years we attend refreshing courses for every aircraft. However, training opportunities are not enough, our new generation is luckier than the old ones who received less training, some training programs like safety and some familiarization courses need to be mandatory by the company"*

Another manager comments *"Education is needed to get access to the job, but further education like Masters degree and above are needed to develop into top levels, together with experience. Training makes us in line with trends; learn new things; however the in house training is very limited, no formal training for our level is provided like seminars, conferences, there are always budgetary constraints"*

One manager expounds *"Education provides the theory to back up the experience; it provides the terminology and help link experience to what we have learned. Training is more of a refresher for specialized areas. At our level we need workshops where we can learn from each other, build relations and interests"*

Mentoring

Mentoring is identified as one of the contributing factors to women career development. Every interviewee is asked how important is mentoring to her career.

The majority of women see mentors important to career development. One manager shares her experience *"When I first became a manager, I was given a huge responsibility, I was new, young and scared because I knew it wasn't going to be easy, I was worried of what older people will think of me and whether they will accept me, I wished I had a mentor to teach me and guide me all the way"*

Another one comments *"Everybody needs a mentor no matter how up he goes in the corporate ladder; mentors can be insightful, can help in making big decisions and assure us we are on the right track"*

A third one says *"Being the first women in the field made me a role model to the new girls, they come to me for advice and I am happy to take any of them under my wing and help them as much as I can"*

Another manager states *"Having a mentor is important. When the job is challenging, I need support, someone to boost my self-esteem, someone I can share my experience and learn from and identify missing parts"*

Another manager expounds *"Being one of the few female pilots I would love to understand what other went through, especially when I have kids, how they managed, how it impacted their lives. The "ninty-nines, inc" is the international organization of women pilots. It is a resource center for women who would like to pursue a career of becoming a pilot; they provide networking, mentoring and scholarship to help women in this field. A group of*

professional female pilots mentor other women in order to develop their career and leadership skills"

Another manager adds *"Mentors are important to obtain information especially with new processes; it can ease the learning process and access to information. My manager is my mentor he loves the business and has similar management skills as I do – positive reinforcement, empowering his staff and fighting for what he believes, I look up to him and replicate him"*

One manager elaborates *"A mentor at our level is only needed to handle new things, 2 years ago when I was handled a sensitive project for the first time. Luckily I had a good mentor who taught me, I became expert now and been doing it well every year"*

Another manager adds *"We need someone to learn from, coach us, be our role model, someone to mimic. My manager is my mentor; I think if I had a women mentor she should have a better understanding of what I'm going through"*

Another one comments *"Mentors are important to obtain information especially with new processes; it can ease the learning process and access to information. My manager is my mentor"*

Another manager comments *"At our levels mentor are only needed when new things come up, we need advice, learn new way of doing things"*

The remaining four managers do not see mentors very important at their level; they believe it is more needed to junior levels. One manager says *"In my area there's no need for a mentor, we work with well established guidelines to help us do our work"*. Another manager adds *"No needed at our level, it's more for junior levels"*.

Networking

Networking is discussed in the literature as another contributing factor to women career development. The importance of networking is discussed during the interviews.

One manager expounds *"Networking is very important in my job; I deal with internal customers and external ones such as banks, credit agents, auditors. This has enabled me a lot during the crisis to gain their support and understanding of the situation; many times we process transaction before the official letter gets sent, I also have good relations other seniors and people reporting to me and that's facilitated my progression"*

Another manager adds *"Networking is very important, I deal internally with users from all departments as well as external partners and auditors, networking establishing trust"*

Another manager elaborates *"HR is about networking, it we don't network work will stop, I also deal with ministries, agencies, external partners and through networking I stay in line with what's going on in the market"*

One manager states *"Networking provides access to information and facilitates collaboration and provides mutual benefit to both parties"*

Another one says *"Networking with people is important; it builds trust, due to the nature of my job I fly to many places. Informal networking is part of my job, my colleagues gather and meet up with each other but since everyone around me are men I am not part of these network because society will not approve it, so I miss out many opportunities or important discussions, even when I attend some of these gathering, men don't feel comfortable around me, they have to watch what they say"*

Another manager adds "*Our work is done based on relations with other departments and external partners, knowing the right people makes life easier, gets things done faster, give mores visibility which can foster career progression. Generally though I think access to networks is easier for men than women, I don't see harm in networking in a masculine environment, but our culture is not very acceptant to such gatherings specially in my job where there are lots of after work functions"*

Another manager comments *"Networking improves working relations. Unfortunately I am not a very sociable person, we have some events, obligations at night that I as women can't*

attend because of my family responsibilities, and I know I miss many opportunities, because important issues and decisions are discussed during these gatherings"

Another manager says *"Networking is essential in IT, networking with external partners like vendors, suppliers gives a higher chance of better service delivery, and sometimes we can get other extra services beyond our agreements. We sometimes get easy access to information in an unofficial way. Internal networking is also important, because we are a service division, so our support is ongoing. I have benefited a lot from networking with executives. These people have the right skills; I can observe their leadership style, negotiation style, gain more exposure and prepare for my next role"*

One adds *"Networking improves communication and gets the job done faster"*

Another manager states *"Networking is essential for my job, I need to build relations with others to get the job done, even the simplest processes in the company like fixing you pc requires knowing the right people, getting the tickets faster requires knowing the right people, networking with senior managers gave me a sense of how important is what I do"*

Another manager says *"Networking is important. As we go higher in the corporate ladder business gets done via networking. Networking opens up closed doors, eases processes, I pick up the phone and with a phone call I get things done without having to send an official email"*

Another manager comments *"I like networking, I am a sociable person, I travel a lot and I deal with a lot of people, that's why I left my previous job because it was very technical"*

One managers adds *"Through networking, we learn what's going on in the market, trends, issues and learn from others experiences"*

Related to the issue of networking, the usage of *Wasta* for career development is discussed. One manager says *"Though wrong, Wasta plays a big deal in the company. Being in Finance I have to monitor the company's expenditure, and when I reject certain transactions many people try to use Wasta from people more senior than me and in some cases they manage to*

get things done without my approval, to me as long as I raise my concerns I have nothing to worry about"

Another manager elaborates *"Wasta disregards people's knowledge, competencies, and places the wrong people in the wrong place. Some people use it in recruitment and promotions. I hate Wasta and will never use it. I know myself very well and I know I can shine without its need"*

Another manager expresses *"Wasta is needed to get things done, once I was nominated for a promotion but because of internal freeze it got stopped, my manager had to speak to higher people in order to process my papers and I got the promotion"*

Another manager comments *"Wasta is part of your society, I have used Wasta is some cases, I don't like to use them but sometimes I have to, I think it is ok as long as I am not breaking any law"*

Another manager adds *"Wasta plays a big role in recruitment decisions. I once missed out a job I applied for because the manager preferred to bring his relative. It was totally unfair, where are the fair processes and equal opportunities to everyone"*

Another manager elaborates *"Wasta is not very effective for career development in my area because it more to do with technical stuff, but for other even simple things like getting your leave approved is needed, I feel like I'm begging for something that is my right. Even when I requested to work morning shifts I had to speak to someone to push for it because it was taking too long"*

One manager shares her story *"Unfortunately Wasta is a big hurdle especially in recruitment, it is not fair, why does the company set procedures if people will not follow them. Three years ago there was a promotion is my department and I applied for it and was totally convinced I was going to get it. All of a sudden they hired an outsider, a fresh graduate with no experience, it was totally unfair, at least if it was an internal transfer I would've been upset but not that angry, I worked hard for this promotion, but someone else got it just because of Wasta, I didn't say a thing but I was very disappointed and felt that my superior didn't*

appreciate my education and skills. But I am certain that productivity will be the judge to how wrong this decision was. It is ironic how some people join the company from nowhere without internal or external vacancies announced, they just shows up"

Another manager says *"Wasta is not important even if it happened people who use it don't stay too long, I never used Wasta and if someone got their way using it I will not react negatively, a good person will grow; I am happy I progressed the right way. I will not hire anyone unless they are qualified and have the required education and experience"*

Research question 4: Why are support systems needed to facilitate women career development?

To further facilitate women career development. Support systems are needed at the organizational and national level. Every interviewee is asked how she perceives the role of the organization in supporting her career and national efforts needed to support career development.

Efforts at organizational level

Through the interviews, the role of the company in supporting women through policies, work arrangement and providing education, training and development opportunities are discussed.

In relation to organization policy, as discussed earlier, there is no form of discrimination against women in pay, selection and recruitment, promotions, travel benefits, insurance and retirement. Discrimination is already discussed in research question 2 and some of these views are *"No discrimination", "The selection and assessment process evaluate the individual himself with disregard to gender", "No impact of gender", "Even in our field which is highly dominant by men, there's no discrimination in the selection process", "Qualifications and experience decide who gets the job not gender", "Promotions are based on systematic performance evaluation with disregard to gender"*

In relation to working arrangements, the majority of women are satisfied with the working arrangement such as flexi time, maternity leave and nursing hours.

For example one manager says *"Women are given the option if they want to do morning shifts only which I did"*

Another one states *"Bahraini pilots are given an option if they want to take morning flights only so that they can return home at night and be with the family"*

They also acknowledge how ICT facilitates work. One manager says *"ICT is a great help for me, I travel a lot and technology is my way to stay in touch with work and family"*

Another manager comments *"The use of ICT has been of a great help, it made me more efficient, people at our level are always on call, we don't stick to 8 hours, smart phones allow me to respond to my emails on time, reply to any emergencies and whenever I go on leave I don't need to come back and see hundreds of emails awaiting my response".*

However, five women want additional working arrangements to enable balancing their roles as managers and mother. One manager says *"I wish our insurance policy covers maternity"*

Another manager complains *"When I had my son I did an operation, because the maternity leave is not enough I applied for unpaid leave and my manager rejected it so I ended up taking sick leave to stay with my baby"*

One manager adds *"Flexibility not enough I had to take unpaid leave to stay more with my new baby"*

Another manager says "*I sometimes have to do conference call at 3 am"*

Another manager adds *"Some companies give parents sick leave to accompany their sick children, I wish this get implemented here"*

In relation to education and training; all women in this study acknowledge the importance of education and training to enable women career development. The organization plays a key role in providing education and development opportunities to all its employees. Emphasizing the importance of education the company signed a partnership with City University London to

offer its employees Certificates, Diplomas and Masters in Air Transport Management, Air Safety Management and Aircraft Maintenance Management. One manager explains *"This partnership serves the needs of our employee seeking to enhance their qualifications and knowledge"*. Another interviewee states *"I am considering City University London Master's program*". Another one adds "*London city sponsorship is a very good arrangement, the customized module makes our life easy, and I don't feel a lot of pressure as I usually do when I study"*

Only one manager mentions the need for scholarships. She says *"I was lucky the company sponsored my masters"*

To address training and development needs People development department was created in 2011 with the mission of "*Developing People – Enabling Business Results"*, with direct support from the CEO. People Development is divided into three departments: Learning and Development, Talent Management and Assessment Centre. Training courses are hosted throughout the year but there is more need for leadership and management training which are essential for preparing women for these executive positions.

One manager comments *"Training courses are widely available on the intranet; every employee can chose from and enrol himself"*

Another manager elaborates "*Training programs are available widely in the company but not for our level we need professional training and leadership training"*

Another manager adds *"Online resources are available everywhere. Development programs improve our knowledge, our experiences. Workshops for example are very beneficial because I can acquire experience with practice but workshops provide an opportunity to sit with others and share our experiences which can develop us even at the personal level"*

Another manager says *"Training is important as well, but at our level I think we can do better, given the company's situation, if we need formal training we have to do it on our own"*

One manager explains "*There are very limited training opportunities in the company although every department allocates the training budget every year but in reality very limited number of people go for training, the excuse we always hear is budgetary constraints. Even when I got the chance to go for professional training, I had to pay half of the fees which I think is total unfair, there should be training sponsorships, employees shouldn't pay for their training*"

Another area related to development is performance evaluation. Only three managers mention it. One manager says "*Performance evaluation are very useful for employee development, I want to be involved in setting my kpis instead of having irrelevant generic ones*". Another manager sates "*KPIS need to be linked to training requirement in order for the employees to develop based on their shortcomings*"

Mentoring relationships also facilitate career development. Women in this study discuss the importance of mentors. One manager says *"Having a mentor is important. When the job is challenging, I need support, someone to boost my self-esteem, someone I can share my experience and learn from and identify missing parts"*

Another manager states *"We need someone to learn from, coach us, be our role model, someone to mimic. My manager is my mentor"*

One manager adds *"Mentors are important to obtain information especially with new processes; it can ease the learning process and access to information. My manager is my mentor"*

Another manager says *"At our levels mentor are only needed when new things come up, we need advice, learn new way of doing things"*

Efforts at national level

In addition to the role of the organization, women in this study discuss the role of national efforts in supporting women careers. A number of mechanisms and programs are suggested in order to identify current and future gaps for women and address them.

One manager illustrates *"Women have achieved a lot in Bahrain, we have seen women as Ministers, Shura members and Ambassadors all blessed by the support by the Support of our king and his vision. Yet in the private we are still not there yet, I hope the new generation will be able to overcome the cultural and religious constrains and prove to the community that a woman is worth it"*

Two managers suggest career workshops that bring together successful women in Bahrain. They say *"I wish all successful women would meet at least once a year, we need to sit together, network, share our experiences and stories"*

One manager mentions leadership programs; she says *"I am a member of Young Arab Leaders in Bahrain. It's a non-profit organization that aims to build the capabilities, skills and networking of its members by providing Arab youth with channels to overcome the challenges they face and provide the right education and promote a culture of entrepreneurship. Its members are trained in leadership development, education and entrepreneurship so they could pass these opportunities and knowledge to the future generations. These kinds of initiatives focus on nationals. We can do better than expatriates because we know what best for our country and by that we and our organizations will benefit"*

Another manager talks about another organization called AIESEC. She says *"AIESEC focuses on providing the younger generations with the skills and experiences that contribute to their leadership development, it engages with thousands of organizations to support highly competitive international talent acquisition".*

Another suggestion is *"Unifying public and private sector regulations as much as possible to improve working condition for women"*

Managers also discuss the importance of nationalization strategies. One manager explains *"We need to emphasize on nationalization in recruitment to reduce reliance on expatriates and provide opportunities for Bahraini talent".* Another manager adds *"Bahrainis should be given priority, they need access to job markets and replace order generations and balance society*

All women mention about Tamkeen initiatives. Tamkeen is an effective organization that supports Bahrain's private sector and economic development. One manager states *"As part of enhancing the conditions of women, Tamkeen has signed as agreement with Gulf Air to sponsor Bahraini Female Cabin crew project"*. Another manager elaborates *"Tamkeen attempts to create opportunities in order to make them the employee of choice for semi-skilled and skilled professions"*. One manager explains *"The company endorsed Talent Management Programme for Bahraini employees in order is to support employees in leadership and HR roles and improve their competencies in the areas of HR and Leadership. Employees are trained on different aspects such as, enterprise management, strategic planning, leadership, marketing management, HR management, training and development and Bahrain labor law"*.

Another effective effort is the one organized by inJaz Bahrain. One manager illustrates *"inJaz Bahrain provides young people with knowledge, skills, tools and experience when seeking employment"*. Another manager says *"I volunteered in inJaz Bahrain; I gave lectures to young students in schools*". A third manager adds *"the company constantly encourages us to join inJaz whereby we can help develop the younger generations"*

Finally all women acknowledge the important role The Supreme Council for Women in assisting women's development. The roles identified are:

"Conducting more research on women"

"Providing education for less fortunate women"

"Providing scholarships to support women' higher education"

"Establishing targets for companies to increase women participation"

"Awarding high achievers"

"Raising awareness on women issues in the private sector where women are less fortunate than public sectors"

"Encouraging companies to attract women in senior positions through incentive and awards"

"Providing Training programs to empower women"

"Adjusting the retirement for women in the private sector so they don't need to spend their entire years at work, they can stay at home enjoy time with family and give the younger generation a chance to enter the work field."

Research question 5: What factors influence career expectations?

This question investigates the factors influencing their career expectations through understanding their outcome expectations. According to Social Cognitive Career Theory, outcome expectations are personal beliefs about the imagined consequences of implementing a specific task (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 2002). These factors are shaped by several experiences including direct past life experiences, positive or negative results of other people's experiences and listening to other individuals describe their own experiences (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994). Every interviewee is asked what factors can positively or negatively impact her career decisions.

The factors influencing career expectations discussed during the interview are impact of others, women's physical appearance, impact of networking, gender stereotypes and experience and know-how.

Social support and persuasion

Most interviewees mention the support they receive from their parents, spouse, friends and colleagues can influence their decisions.

One manager states *"My husband has been always supportive, even when I worry about the extra responsibilities that a higher career will bring; he always assures me that he will be there for me"*

Another interviewee comments *"My husband is the biggest influence"*

Another manager adds *"My father was a great support, when I decided to become an engineer; he supported me all the way through. My husband is my biggest supporter, because my husband is also an engineer, he understands what I'm going through, we can always tell each other everything"*

Another manager says *"My mother and sister have always been the biggest supporters; I also have a colleague who is always by my side"*

Another manager comments *"My manager has always been supportive, through his guidance, coaching and help I reached to where I am now"*

Another interviewee says *"I always seek advice from two persons, my colleague and a friend I have"*

Another manager adds *"I truly believe in one of colleagues, I care about what he thinks professionally and I always consult him before taking any decision"*

Another one states *"Being one of the few female pilots, I seek advice from the elder female pilots, I would love to understand what they went through, especially when I have kids, how they managed, how it impacted their lives to know that I can do it"*

The remaining women mention that others have no impact on the decisions they make.

Women's physical appearance

Depending on the nature of the job, a woman's physical appearance can enhance or reduce her chances of getting certain jobs. The importance of physical appearance is discussed, the answers are:

"Presentation is important because first impression is always important"

"Physical appearance and the way I present myself, the language I use got me this job, when you're dealing directly with people, the looks are important."

"Look is very important; I know people look at me and judge how I dress up, if I wear makeup, I take care of myself and that doesn't bother me"

"Physical appearance is important because people by nature are judgmental; they look even at your height and weight"

"Physical appearance is important because women are expected to look good, first impression always counts, in commercial decision the way women look and present can impact their chances of getting a job"

"Physical appearance isn't important in my field, maybe in careers in Sales or Marketing or Crew they can be a deciding point"

"Physical image is not relevant; we all wear the same blue uniform"

Impact of networking

Networks have a big impact on career development. They can positively or negatively impact career development.

Five interviewees discuss the impact of networking on career expectations. One manager explains *"Because the number of women is very small in our field and because we have our customs in the society where it's inappropriate go out with men, I miss many important after work gatherings where discussions, key issues and decisions are made, which puts me at a disadvantage"*

Another interviewee states *"In certain areas knowing the right people at the right time in the right place opens up closed door, to me I know this is wrong and if this mean losing opportunities let it be"*

Another manager adds *"I am not a very sociable person, we have some events, obligations at night that I as women I can't attend, I miss many opportunities, and many things are discussed during these gatherings"*

One manager mentions *"Some decisions are based on the use of Wasta, I hate Wasta; it disregards people's knowledge, competencies, and places the wrong people in the wrong place"*

Another manager adds *"Network with those who have contacts can help find unadvertised jobs, build professional skills to make women more employable"*

Gender stereotypes

Stereotypical views against women in management can influence career development expectations.

One manager mentions stereotyping attitudes negatively reduces her chances of reaching into higher ranks. She expounds "*Seeing the trend in management, I don't think I see a spot for me at the executive level, it will always be assumed as a man's job"*

Another manager says *"I think management will trust a man for senior roles"*

One manager shares her story *"I once applied for a senior job and passed through the assessment process, during the interview my interviewee said this job requires working night shifts, outside visits so he indirectly implied that I'm not the right person for this job so I knew I wasn't going to get it"*

One manager says *"In the field of IT some managers prefers to hire men, they clearly specify they want male applicants, it annoys me because I sometimes feel no hope for women"*

For other women, stereotypes have no impact on how they foresee their careers. One manager says *"I am very confident in my abilities to progress in my division, my department is very supportive"*

Experience and know-how

For certain jobs, having the experience and know-how become a determinant of their likelihood to achieve a career target. One manager mentions *"Competition from others, knowing that someone is more experienced than me reduces my chances of getting that job".*

Another manager says *"Because I am still new, young and lack the experience, I don't see myself progressing in the short term"*

A third one adds *"I see myself very suitable for a higher position; I have the experience, skills and the technical knowledge"*.

Another manager states *"I once applied for a job and went for the interview, once I sat with the interviewee and he explained the job requirements, I knew I miss understood the requirements and that I am not the right person for this job"*.

Ono manager adds *"I want to become a CEO someday but I can't be a CEO for an airline, there's the technical side of it that I don't possess and I don't think during my one year in this company I have acquired the know-how to hold that big role"*

Research question 6: What are women's career goals?

This question addresses career goals. These goals are referred to in the Social Cognitive Career Theory as "Choice goals" (Lent et al., 1994). They refer to the expressed career choice intentions (Lent et al., 1994). Every interviewee is asked what her future career goals are. Seven of these women have goals of reaching to senior manager position in the future. They express their goals as follows:

One says: "*I want to become a Senior Captain and eventually a fleet manager. With proper training and practice, I will develop myself to reach there*"

Three managers say *"I want to hold a senior manager role in my department"*

Another one says *"I want to become a Line manager. I am very competent; I have the skills and personality that will enable me to achieve my goals"*

Another manager states *"I want to be the senior manager of my division"*

One manager explains *"I look at my manager and say, I will be in your chair in the future. Unfortunately stereotypical attitudes toward women in my department are prevailing, they don't believe in women occupying senior position, the more men are hired I lose hope"*

Three of the women have more ambitious goals to reach to the director level.

The first manager expresses *"I want more responsibilities and that will come with a director role"*

The second one says *"I am very confident that I can be the next director in my department. The organization is very supportive, we have seen women progress higher and I'm sure with the right capabilities I can reach there"*

The third manager adds *"I want to be the director in this division but I don't see this happening; the culture is not ready for a female executive"*

Two managers aspire to become CEOs.

One manager states *"I want to become the CEO for an HR company. I have the right qualifications and experience to occupy this position"*

The second one says *"I want to reach to CEO's level"*

Two managers have goals of starting their own business.
One manager expresses her goal *"I want to start my own coaching business, do something I am passionate about and have more freedom in what I'm doing"*

The other one says *"I want to start my own business, become its CEO and be respected as a leader"*

Two interviewees see themselves in the future as housewives. One of them says *"My goal from here is to stay at home and spend more time with my family. I want to go on early*

retirement but currently I can't. I wish the private sector retirement entitlements get improved to encourage elder women to leave and give chances to younger generations"

Summary

This chapter provides details of the answers provided by women in this study pertaining to research questions.

CHAPTER VII: DISCUSSION

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to understand women career development, specifically targeted to Bahraini female managers. As a qualitative study, this study follows content analysis of narrative data as means of collecting and analyzing data. The goal of this approach is to provide detailed descriptions of women experiences using their own words. This chapter presents the discussion of these responses.

Discussion of the sources of women's self-efficacy

The sources of self-efficacy reported by women in this study were education, training, experience, personal achievements and personality types. Table 10 below represents a summary of these sources.

Education

The importance of education in improving these women's capabilities was discussed by all interviewees. Education develops skills, influences how these women think, how they work and how they make decisions in every life aspect. It also provides the terminology and helps link experience to what is learned. Higher levels of education are now being demanded even for lower end jobs; higher level of education is linked to higher career.

In addition, education enhances women's understanding of their rights and provides a foundation for their development. It may not necessarily impact work directly but through the knowledge, the structure and the focus it provides. Five of the women interviewed have completed their postgraduate studies and four are currently in the process because they believe for leadership positions these degrees are essential. The internal drive to develop and enhance learning adds greatly to the women's experience. Higher education leads to greater desire and eagerness to undertake managerial roles.

Women in Finance and Operations stated that education is ongoing in their field. These divisions operate according to international standards. Education is essential to stay updated

and enhance their ability to analyze and understand. The technical background makes the job easier in these fields.

The discussions above support the literature on the importance of education in enhancing women's advancement to higher positions (Alajmi, 2001; Hasan, 2011; Knorr, 2011; Omair, 2008; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2010). Studies point out the importance of educational attainment in increasing the number of women in the workplace (Davidson & Burke, 2004). Education is essential for women to get access into the labor market, develop skills and competencies and build credentials and knowledge needed to succeed in their jobs (Jogulu & Wood, 2011). Education positively influences self-efficacy of women, their confidence and patterns of labor force participation (Jogulu & Wood, 2011). Alajmi (2001) states that in Saudi Arabia, educational opportunities are the most critical element for women's leadership development. Hammoud (1993) mentions that the role of women in management cannot be treated in separation from the general aims of social, economic and educational development. Betz and Hackett (1981) relate self-efficacy to academic ability.

Training

Training is another source of self-efficacy though not as important as education according to women in this study. At every level training is needed but the nature of the job dictates the type of training.

For women in technical departments like Information Technology, Engineering and Flight Operations training is very important and is ongoing. In Information Technology field for example, training is the best way to stay up to date with changes in the market. Training enhances competence levels and becomes one of the criteria in evaluating the suitability of applicant for jobs. However, in less technical fields like Commercial, Finance and Human Resources divisions, technical training does not contributor to self-efficacy; different kinds of training are influential. Women in these specialties require training in problem solving, customer focus, empowerment and effective leadership in order to prepare them for senior positions.

Many studies (e.g. Jackson et al., 2006; Knorr, 201; Kottke & Agars, 2005; Schein, 2007; Simpson et al., 2004; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2010) discuss the importance of training on self-

efficacy. Training opportunities play a significant role in determining occupational aspirations and choices. Training not only trains employees for their current positions but can also provide them with the skills and competencies for future positions and identifies areas of development (Jackson et al., 2006).

Training initiatives provide women with the skills, credentials and knowledge needed to succeed in their jobs (Knorr, 2011). Weir (2003) indicates that one reason for women's underrepresentation in senior positions is limited access to on-the-job training and development. Trainings can facilitate the development of interests and goals for leadership (Chin, Lott, Rice, & Sanchez-Hucles, 2007). Al-Lamky (2007) suggests providing specialized training in areas such as assertiveness and confidence building, networking, mentoring and leadership development in order to develop women's competencies.

Experience

Only six women reported experience as a source of self-efficacy. Senior positions require more than just education, they require experience. Individuals at higher levels are problem solvers and entrepreneurs. They should be able to demonstrate good communication skills and initiatives and this maturity comes from having experience at work. Through experience, skills are acquired such as soft skills, time management, professionalism, innovation, project management and teamwork. Experience is the key to success.

Experience complements training and education in higher positions. For technical positions like pilots and engineers experience is the way to reach to higher ranks. Experience provides the skills and habits necessary for participating in the society, doing many of the same tasks year over year builds up the competence level and help in overcoming obstacle encountered. Prospective employers will look for experience to see why they should employ someone.

Bandura (1977) argues that learning experiences influence self-efficacy beliefs. Omair (2010) argues that positive employment experience is one of factors that support Arab women. Contrary to Ogenyi and Victoria (2004) women's accumulating management experience seemed sufficient to ensure their access to senior management. Also contrary to Al-Lamki (2007) women in this study are exposed to the same sort of experiences necessary for job development. Once established, self-efficacy generalizes to other situations (Bandura, Jeffery,

& Gajdos, 1975). The more successful experiences a person has in a domain the more likely the person's self-efficacy beliefs will increase (Bandura, 1997).

Personal achievements

Personal achievements are an influential source of self-efficacy because they are based on personal mastery experiences. All women interviewed kept records of what they've achieved. These achievements showcase what they have to offer and the contribution they have made to their organizations. Accomplishments are the points that really help sell these women to an employer beyond everyday job duties. To every woman, a sense of achievement is different depending on what she values and sometimes which department she is handling. For example, in financial areas being able to achieve major cost reductions is a big achievement. For the engineer, being the first Bahraini engineer and being awarded by several entities in the society are great accomplishments.

Research suggests that performance accomplishments have the greatest influence on self-efficacy beliefs (Anderson & Betz, 2001). Successes increase mastery expectations; repeated failures lesser them. Performance shapes and changes one's self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). Performance accomplishments are the greatest effective means of developing, shaping and changing self-efficacy beliefs because they provide convincing evidence that a person will succeed or fail in a given situation (Bandura, 1997).

Bandura (1989) suggests that high sense of efficacy is important for sustaining performance in fields with a high rate of failure or rejection (e.g. the arts, technical innovation). Employees monitor and evaluate their performance accomplishments and adjust their own sense of efficacy (Chen et al., 1998).

Personality types

Personality types affect the type of jobs an individual is pursuing. Certain jobs require certain characteristics, depending on the personality type; these women will seek jobs and act in a manner that is consistent with their personalities. They will not pursue a career when they feel that they are not the right person for it. Personality type can also impact leadership style of these women. Every women has a unique personality and that makes her as qualified as others

to occupy senior positions. Personality measures are increasingly being used by managers to evaluate the suitability of job applicants for positions across all levels in an organization.

According to Bandura (1977, 1986), people with a high sense of self-efficacy in relation to a specific task or goal think, feel and act differently than those who see themselves as inefficacious. For example, resilient people view difficult tasks as challenges to be overcome instead of problems to be avoided. They attribute failure and setbacks to inadequate effort and try to expend more energy and commitment to overcome failure and achieve their goals (Bandura, 1977, 1986). Highly efficacious individuals perceive success and failure differently from those with lower self-efficacy.

Contrary to earlier research by (Davidson & Burke, 1994; Powell, 1999) women in this study put great emphasis on personality traits as signs of a good manager and see their feminine characteristics as important and helpful to their success in management (Aycan, 2004). Kirchmeyer (1998) identifies personality traits as variables impacting managerial careers.

In conclusion, psychological factors such as self-efficacy for leadership is an important factor related to women's leadership development and may be related to women's underrepresentation in leadership positions (Hasan, 2011). Many researchers start to explore the internal and psychological factors that can influence women's leadership development (Dickerson & Taylor, 2000; Killeen, Lopez- Zafra & Eagly, 2006; Lips 2000; 2001; Yeagley, Subich, & Tokar, 2010). Understanding the influence of self-efficacy factors on women's leadership representation assists in empowering women to become leaders and better navigate the external environments they come across. Several studies find self-efficacy beliefs as strong predictors of career options (Betz & Hackett, 1981, 1983); though the exact nature of this relationship is not clearly specified in the literature (Bandura, 1977, 1986; Lent et al., 1994).

Table (10) Sources of Self-Efficacy

Sources of Self-Efficacy	No. of times reported
Education	16
Training	
-Technical Training	5
-Leadership Training	11
Experience	6
Personal achievements	16
Personality types	16

Discussion of career development barriers

The main barriers to career development reported by women in this study were gender stereotypes, work family balance and culture. Discrimination was not reported by any of these women. Table 11 below represents a summary of these barriers.

Gender stereotypes

The biggest barrier reported by the majority of women in this study was gender stereotypes. Two issues were discussed in stereotypes. The first issue is attitudes towards women in management. Even with the rising to higher positions, the attitude towards women in management by men still persists and women continue to be subject to stereotypical attitudes. Stereotypes have several implications on these women. These views underestimate women's capabilities and can stresses women healthily and mentally. These views fuel people's doubt about women's leadership abilities and make women personally anxious. They feel they should perform better than their male colleagues decreasing motivation for women to participate in the workplace.

As women attempt to climb up the corporate ladder, their level of commitment and dedication is always questionable especially if they are married or have children. They are perceived as weak, emotional, indecisive and unable to balance work-family responsibilities.

For women who entered male dominant fields like Flight Operation, Information Technology and Engineering these attitudes become even stronger. This discrepancy is incorporated into the lack of fit model of gender discrimination (Heilman, 1983; 1995; 2001). According to the model, jobs become gender-typed by virtue of both the number of men and women who

occupy them and the attributes necessary for successful performance (Heilman, 1983; 1995; 2001). Because of the perceived lack of fit between what women are like and the characteristic presumed to be needed for success at many of prestigious occupations, women are viewed less favorably than their male colleagues (Welle & Heilman, 2005). These stereotypes apply to individuals in work settings and become the basis for inferring internal and stable characteristics (Welle & Heilman, 2005). There is also a lack of fit between the prescriptive stereotypes of women and the characteristics associated with employees who are successful at male gender-typed jobs (Welle & Heilman, 2005).

Consistent with Jamali et al. (2005), these attitudes stem not only from male subordinates and colleagues, but also from female ones (Jamali et al., 2005). One of the managers interviewed thought that women don't have the caliber and that management is a man's world. She says *"Although I am a woman; I think men are more qualified to hold these executive roles. Women handling multiple roles make them less competent; women are to stay at home".*

Women are stereotyped as emotionally unstable, moody, take things personally, easily burnout under pressure and typically allow their personal lives or families to interfere with their job (Hill, 1993; Kartsen, 1994; Rhode, 2003). Jamali et al. (2005) conducted interviews with 62 managers in Lebanon and concluded that Lebanese women are still generally perceived as a higher employment risk on the assumption that family and domestic commitments will take precedence. A study by Omair (2008) indicated that women in Lebanon continue to be perceived as submissive and emotional individuals while men are always perceived as being balanced, assertive, aggressive and autonomous and thus women not perceived as fit to assume leadership positions in an environment that still capitalizes on a masculine leadership prototype. The women interviewed for this study are highly motivated, assertive and do not agree with the traditional stereotypes associated with women in organizations.

The second issue discussed in stereotypes is the preference for a male or a female boss. The majority of women had no preference for a male or a female boss either because some never had a female boss, others had good experience with female bosses and others thought it depends on the personality of the boss. Only six women in this study reported a preference for a male boss. Male bosses are seen as more understanding, less defensive, straight forward, not

jealous and easier to work with compared to females bosses who are jealous of other successful woman, emotional and take things personally.

There are gender differences in leadership styles, whereby women leaders emphasize interpersonal relations and task accomplishment more than do men (Gardiner & Tiggeman, 1999). Individualized consideration, a dimension of transformational leadership, is consistent with the gender stereotype of women being communal (Eagly & Carli, 2007). According to role congruity theory, most beliefs about the sexes are due to communal and agentic attributes (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Communal characteristics are strongly associated with women such being nurturant, helpful, kind and sympathetic whilst men are strongly linked to agentic attributes like as being assertive, ambitious, independent, forceful and self-confident (Heilman & Okimoto, 2007). Agentic characteristics are usually seen as being necessary for successful leadership (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Weyer, 2007). Women, more than men, have generally effective leadership styles, being more transformational than male leaders, particularly concerning support-giving and motivating subordinates (Bass, 1990; Eagly & Johanessen-Schmidt, 2001; Eagly, Johanessen-Schmidt & van Engen, 2003).

Women's discussions are contrary to Powell's (2011b) argument that people still tend to prefer a male manager over a female manager despite the increase of women's representation in management and more employees having a female boss. According to Simmons (2001), all over the globe, people prefer to work for a male boss. Powel (2012) offer three possible explanations why people prefer a male boss. First, stereotypes suggest that leaders are more effective if they show personal characteristics associated with men rather than women. Second, prejudice directed toward female leaders makes it more difficult for women to be as effective as men and reduces their desirability as leaders. Third, male behaviors as leaders can yield better financial results for the organization and more satisfied subordinates than female leaders. Another explanation is that when individuals believe that men possess the characteristics suited for the managerial role more than women, they are likely to evaluate male managers more favorably than female managers, even if they both exhibit exactly the same behavior (Heilman, 1983, 1995).

Harvard Business Review published results from a survey of executives' attitudes toward women in managerial roles in 2005. They foresee change in the structure of managerial ranks

and male executives' attitudes about women in leadership over the next four decades (Powel, 2012). The proportion of male executives who state a favorable attitude toward women in management increased from 35% in 1965 to 88% in 2005 (Bowman et al., 1965; Carlson et al., 2006). Also in the survey, the proportion of men who feel comfortable working for a woman boss increased from 27% in 1965 to 71% in 2005. The proportion of female executives who have a favorable attitude toward women in management remains high, ranging from 82% in 1965 to 88% in 2005 (Powel, 2012).

Similarly the majority of women in this study express similar satisfaction with male and female managers. Positive experience contributes to more positive attitudes toward women as leaders (Ezell, Odewahn, & Sherman, 1981). When people are more satisfied with their interactions with women leaders, they are more positive about women in leadership roles (Bhatnagar & Swamy, 1995).

Work family balance

The second biggest barrier to career development in this study is work-family balance. Being single or married, work has implications on personal lives of these women. Organizations are becoming more demanding of employee time and commitment. Leadership positions add this to challenge because they entail long working hours, endless participation in ceremonies and public functions, frequent travelling and many personal sacrifices to meet the demands of the job (Hill, 2003). These requirements can be hurdles to woman managers with family responsibilities. Without family responsibilities, both men and women can compete evenly but this becomes difficult when marital and family situations change (Winn, 2004).

Single women also mentioned having to work extra hours, work on weekends, cancel their leave plans, miss their obligations, feeling stressed, slowing down their education and even compromising on marriage. Supporting Ezzedeen and Ritchey (2009), many women executives make discreet choices between career and family such as delaying marriage and parenting (Nelson & Burke, 2000). Studies in the West show that women managers have to make difficult choices, like remaining single or childless (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999; Powell & Graves, 2003). In Middle Eastern context, marriage is a social requirement and women are pressured by their families to get married and have children (Kausar, 1995).

Women who pursue corporate careers realize too late that their childbearing opportunities have passed (Winn, 2004).

Other single women did not have a balancing issue. Similar results are reported by Tlaiss & Kauser (2011) in a study of female managers in Lebanon where single managers highlight the positive impact of being single compared to their married counterparts in terms of having less family responsibilities and more time and energy to dedicate to their careers. Herman and Gyllstrom (1977) find that married women experience more work-family conflict than unmarried women. According to Vinnicombe and Singh (2003) for woman with no family commitments, it is probably easier to get to the top.

O'Neil and Bilimoria (2005) argue that one reason for treating women careers differently than me is because of the impact of family responsibilities on their careers. According to Vinnicombe (2011) one of the key hindrances to women career development is the impact of family roles. According to SCCT, family can have an influence on career choices and career development (Ali, McWhirter & Chronister, 2005; Turner & Lapan, 2005). Because men have less social and family expectations they can focus on developing skills essential in the organizational world thus become suitable candidates for fulfilling the requirements of managerial positions (Jogulu & Wood, 2011). Role conflict theory says that individuals have limited amounts of time and energy and extra roles create tension between competing demands and create a sense of overload and role conflict (Fu & Shaffer, 2001).

According to Al-Lamky (2007) work-family balance in the Arab world is challenging for women due to the cultural and social values that emphasize women's emotional and sentimental role as a mother and wife in contradiction to man's rationality and economic role (Moghadam, 2004). Two managers reported attending out of office events or travelling frequently. Attending events can make women miss due their personal obligations to children, spouses and extended family members (Fernando & Cohen, 2011). The effects of stressful life events and the conflict arising from work and family responsibilities have physical and mental health consequences for women such as burnout, depression, illness, reduced energy, difficulties in dealing with others and difficulties completing the required tasks and duties, feelings of loss of control, helplessness and powerlessness job (Ahmed et. al, 2011).

Despite this conflict, women in this study indicated that family does not impact their commitment to work. Contrary to Winn's (2004) none of the women mention leaving work to raise families when the demands of corporate life affect the quality and quantity of family time. Women may have bad days but certainly not to the extent of jeopardizing their performance on the job. Women do not put less effort at work; they simply organize their work in a different way, by avoiding long lunches or after-work gatherings (Eupen, 2010).

Married women reported getting domestic help from their spouse, family and housemaids is essential to balance their responsibilities. Supporting Brett and Stroh (2003), women rely on spousal support to balance work and family. Although male input in domestic work today is high, men still do not fully share domestic responsibility with women (Eagly & Carli, 2007). According to Ismail et al. (2005) the most important form of family support is spousal support, followed by paid domestic help, and assistance from extended family members such as mother and parents-in-law and sisters. Parents and in-laws enhance career/family balance by helping with home and children (Ezzedeen & Ritchey, 2009). Results from Saudi Arabia by Alajmi (2001) show that family support is the second most crucial element for the leadership development of women. Nannies and housemaids are also mentioned as a form of domestic support.

The social make-up in the Arab Gulf is characterized by strong family networks as well as the ease and affordability of employing domestic help to reduce the burden of house chores and child care (Al-Lamky, 2007). Most of the interviewees still carry the guilt of not being as available for the children and spouses as they would wish to (Al-Lamky, 2007). In a survey by Jogulu and Wood (2011) on female and male managers in Malaysia and in Australia, Malaysian woman illustrate despite hiring maids and external family support they still feel the guilt of not being at home and spending time with their kids and husband. The availability of domestic help offered by family is instrumental and reduces the guilt about leaving children to go to work (Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011).

One manager discusses delegation as a way to reduce workload. Flexibility, job autonomy and a supportive supervisor can promote life quality (Maret & Finlay, 1984).

Although the use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) helps in balancing work with family, these women would rather spend their quality time with their families after work. It does make work easier by streamlining processes and communication, but they eventually become addictive and women end up working more.

Modern Information and Communication technology (ICT) allow taking work out of the office into the home and enables workers to modify working hours to their preferences (Felstead & Jewson, 2000). This relocation is closely linked with growing attention to work-life balance issues that has become widespread internationally (Felstead et al., 2005; Warhurst et al., 2008). According to Maret and Finlay (1984) flexibility in when and where work is done and job autonomy should promote life quality. However, these technologies create the expectation that workers will still be available to be contacted at any moment (Eikhof, 2012). In ICT there is less dependence on location and office hours and there is a better opportunity for reconciling work and family commitments. Telecommuting provides autonomy and control that allow workers to adapt work and non-work activities according to their own preferences (Hill et al., 2011).

Culture

Lack of supportive culture is discussed in the literature as a barrier to women career development (Jamali et al., 2005; Knorr, 2011; Mostafa, 2005; Olsson & Walker, 2004). The discussions showed mixed results. Seven managers say culture is not supportive of women. They believe nobody is willing to take the decision to hire women in key positions, people are not ready for a female executives and bosses, the environment is very hostile and men are more trusted for elite positions. The impact of culture intensifies in male dominant divisions such as Technical, Information Technology and Operations where having a woman on top can be seen as breaking the norm. On the other hand, remaining women believe the culture very supportive starting with the CEO. The company is very supportive and keen on women career development.

Researchers argue that organizations exist within cultural contexts. Management and employee assumptions, organizational structures, functions and behaviors are influenced by national culture (Neelankavil et al., 2000). According to Olsson and Walker (2004) there is a growing culture of women in business. Organizational culture can explicitly and implicitly

portray and give legitimacy to gender inequalities and differences such as symbols, images and values (Samardzic & Taksa, 2011).

Jamali et al. (2005) interviewed 62 Lebanese women managers, some of the managers interviewed say that many organizations have a strong masculine culture, which translates into structural arrangements that isolate women. As a result, women managers are not getting the same opportunities as their male counterparts.

Organizational cultures can be influential in dictating the types of careers are acceptable in a particular organizational context (Michie & Nelson, 2006). Unlike results reported by (Jamali et al., 2005), the majority of women in this study express supportive and encouraging work environment where women can develop and realize their full potential. The literature addresses supportive organization culture as a contributing factor to women's development (Bajdo & Dickson, 2001). Bajdo and Dickson (2001) conducted a study on organizational culture and women's advancement in organizations. Their study reveals that organizations that maintain cultures that endorse gender equity are important predictors of increasing the number of women in managerial positions.

Successful career development for women depends highly on its context (Knorr, 2011). In interviews with Lebanese female managers by Tlaiss and Kaiser (2011), female managers from all levels were looking for a more supportive organizational culture that looks for qualified candidates based on their performance and credentials rather than gender. Supportive work culture can lead to increased retention of qualified and motivated women and enhance self-esteem of those who climb the hierarchical ladder (Knorr, 2011). CEO trust is a very important part of the supportive culture. Supportive managers play a role in supporting women career development by helping them move through the ranks and out of their comfort zone (Maxwell et. al, 2007).

Supporting Catalyst (1998), the organizations' initiatives to achieve equity in the workplace are more likely to be successful if CEOs recognized the need for women-focused initiatives. Top management involvement in addressing women's issues at work is very critical. In a study conducted on women executives, top management support is found among the contributing factors to women's career success (Morrison et al., 1987).

Many of the cultural views are highly influenced by the Islamic view of women and their roles in life. The majority of women acknowledge that Islam never restricts women. On the contrary it gave women justice and took into consideration her role in life. The majority of women interviewed were covered and they never saw it as a hindrance to their careers. However, because the company operates internationally, these are some limitations on women. Certain events require mixing or staying late. Sometimes Hijab can limit women's chances in certain fields.

According to Jamali et al. (2005) the various constraints women encounter are aggravated in an Arab context by Islamic values. In the Middle East women are still considered as custodians of cultural values and traditions (Moghadam, 1992). As a result, the constraints encountered by women worldwide are compounded in the Middle East by religiously and culturally defined attitudes and practices (Jamali et al., 2005). In UAE for example, Mostafa (2005) argues that Arab culture's emphasis on masculine role attributes contributes to the society's traditional attitudes towards women managers. In this study, women views of Islam are contrary to Mostafa (2005) who argues that Islam as a religion limits and restricts the role of women in public affairs.

According to Al-Lamky (2007) Islamic interpretations twist the interpretation of the Quran and Hadith (Prophet's sayings) to fit pre-existing traditions and selectively bypass Quranic passages that clearly assert proliferation of women's roles in early Islam (Moghadam, 2004). Islam is not against progress and the Islamic religion promotes equality of women with men (Moghadam, 2004). El-Saadawi (1997) and Mernissi (1991) argue that Islam and patriarchal interpretations of Islam is one of the reasons for women's limited participation in the labor because within Islam, men and women are equal but not the same.

Religion does not impose restriction, but the interpretation of Islamic doctrines (Omair, 2008). Islam does not forbid women from pursuing work, on the contrary, it encourages women to educate themselves, work, own property and engage in business (Al-Lamki, 1999). Islam does not discourage or forbid women from seeking employment even in high positions (Kausar, 1995). Contrary to earlier researches, women in this study are allowed to work without conditions such as working only within specific conditions that do not conflict with

existing customs and religious values, like avoiding contact with men; or being restricted to jobs that suit her female nature (Abdalla, 1996; Elamin & Omair, 2010).

Discrimination

Although discrimination is discussed in the literature as one of the barriers to women career development, none of women in this study mentioned it as a barrier. There is no discrimination in wages, selection and recruitment, promotions, staff benefits and retirement reflecting the company's constant effort for insuring equality in the workplace.

Contrary to several studies worldwide (Knorr, 2011; Omair, 2008; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011; Welle & Heilman, 2005), none of the women in this study reported discrimination at the work place in wages, selection and recruitment, promotions, staff benefits and retirement. Women are not underpaid relative to equally performing men. Also contrary to Welle and Heilman (2005) men are not favored over women in the selection process for male gender-typed jobs even if their qualifications are perceived as equivalent. In an earlier study by Metcalfe (2006) on professional women in Bahrain, Oman and Jordan; women reported that job appointments are not based on personal qualifications but instead on individual relations and family networks.

Women also reported no discrimination in promotions. The performance evaluation process is systematic and fair. Contrary to Lyness and Judiesch (1999) women did not receive fewer promotions than men. Also contrary to Welle and Heilman (2005) performance is not evaluated differently for men and women. Powel (2012) argues that women can be subjected to discrimination when decisions are made about promotions to higher leadership positions. According to Al-Lamki's (1999) research on Omani women, among the barriers encountered is the discriminatory appointment and promotion practices. No form of discrimination was reported reflecting the company's constant effort for insuring equality in the workplace.

Table (11) Career development barriers

Career Development Barriers	No. of times reported
Gender Stereotypes	
-Negative attitudes towards women	15
-Preference for a male over female boss	6
Work-family balance	
-Single women	4
-Married women	8
Culture	
-Corporate Culture	7
-Islam as a restriction	5
Discrimination	0

Discussion of career development enablers

Career development enablers were discussed. The enablers reported by women in this study were education and training programs, mentoring and networking. Table 12 below represents a summary of these enablers.

Education and training programs

Education and training programs are important for women career development. Cited in research question 1 as a source of self-efficacy, education is ongoing. Education is the gateway to a good job and is a great support to women development. It proves she's worth the job and improves her exposure. In certain fields such as Finance, Operations and Information Technology, education never stops. Education is the tool to stay updated with international standards, understand and learn how to analyze and do the job. Higher education is linked to higher jobs.

Education is an important variable that positively affects female labor force participation (Jamali et al., 2005; Mostafa, 2005; Wentling, 2003). Education is the individual's investment in continuing to develop skills and seek change and growth (Graham, 2010). Powell (2000) suggests that regardless of career status the individual has to make a commitment to continuing education.

Education involves the psychological mindset of commitment to continuing to make one more competent (Graham, 2010). All interviewees consider their degrees as the back-bone and the

base of their career development. In a study on Lebanese managers by Tlaiss and Kauser (2011) more than 70 percent of the women interviewed consider educational attainment a crucial requirement for development and managerial progression. According to Tlaiss and Kauser (2011) women with a higher education show a greater desire for independence and eagerness to undertake managerial roles.

Simpson et al. (2004), in a comparative study between the UK and Canada, argues that increased educational attainment, such as obtaining an MBA, might influence gendered barriers. Education also positively influences self-image, confidence and patterns of labor force participation (Jamali et al., 2005).

Women in this study are keen on studying. According to Eupen (2010) not only do women attain more education than a couple of decades ago, they seem to attain more education than their male counterpart. Graham (2010) argues that continued education includes changing one's identity and awareness of self in relation to the larger world, maintains openness to new ideas, provides opportunity to network with others, provides access to further opportunities for growth and makes individuals constantly learn and adapt in order to become better.

Training and development programs are important enablers as well. Technical training is associated with women in Information Technology and Operations whereas women is less technical fields require different kinds of training such as management training, leadership programs, problem solving, workshops, customer focus and empowerment.

Training programs are an excellent opportunity to gain insights into people's capabilities (Jackson et al., 2006). Employees can obtain feedback to improve their performance and also experience conditions that reinforce competencies and professional development (Jackson et al., 2006). Training programs not only train employees for their current positions but can also provide them with the skills and competencies for future positions (Jackson et al., 2006). Training can consist of seminars, workshops, conferences, or on-line courses (Lam et al., 1999).

Training and development initiatives provide women with the skills, credentials and knowledge needed to succeed in their jobs (Knorr, 2011). Eagly (2005) discusses the

importance of leadership training in helping female leaders in their position. These programs can explore the legitimacy deficit which female leaders experience, help understanding and solving subordinates resistance toward female leaders and help women achieve identification and trust from their subordinates. Providing specialized training in areas such as assertiveness and confidence building, mentoring, networking and leadership development is essential for women in order to develop competencies in historically exclusive male domains (Al-Lamky, 2007).

Some women mention the importance of workshops. Career workshops incorporate elements of assessment, direction and development. They assist in learning how to make career decisions, set career goals, create career options and seek career planning information (Haskell, 1993). They allow individuals to assess their skills, values, and interests, practice networking and outline the steps they will take in their own career paths (Haskell, 1993). They improve women's levels of self-confidence, self-awareness, a chance to develop new leadership skills and competencies and an opportunity to tackle difficult issues at the workplace and to better deal with complex issues (Jacksons et al., 2006).

Mentoring

Another contributing factor to women career development is mentoring. Mentors provide guidance, coaching and insight especially in making big decisions or handling new or challenging assignments. In male dominant fields where very few women are working having a mentor becomes crucial to act as a role model, provide advice, emotional support, boost their self-esteem, share experiences and learn from each other. Few managers did not see mentors very important at their level; they believe it is more needed for junior levels.

Mentors are typically senior people in the organization or within a career field, who help junior individuals navigate psychosocial and career-related issues (Kram, 1985). The role of mentors to career development is by providing support personally and professionally. In a study by Olsson and Walker (2004) on executive women managers in New Zealand, a number of women mention career assistance given to them by male and female mentors. Contrary to a number of studies by (Catalyst, 1996, 2001, 2001b, 2004) the majority of women reported no difficulty finding mentors.

Mentoring occurs when women talk to more experienced persons for development, guidance, counseling, providing exposure, coaching, and role modeling. Women can benefit from mentoring support (Clarke, 2011). A role model is a person whose life and activities influence another person in specific life decisions, such as career choice and behavior decisions (Basow & Howe, 1980). Research indicates the presence or absence of role models can affect a woman's work status, career choice and persistence in science and engineering fields (Hackett, Esposito, & O'Halloran, 1989).

Burke and Vinnicombe (2005) argue that one of the reasons for supporting higher female participation at senior levels is to have female role models for younger high-potential women. Female mentors can serve as role models and provide other women with support and information on how to break through the glass ceiling (Thanacoody et al., 2006). Research suggests that female and male mentors are more comfortable mentoring their own sex (Kram, 1985; Ragins, 1989).

Having a female mentor in male dominated fields is more desired as they provide gender-related career advice and emotional connection (Clark, 2000; Thanacoody et al., 2006). According to Clarke (2011) women learn from each other through sharing experiences, discussing frustrations and exploring strategies for overcoming barriers to career advancement. Role models and mentors are crucial resources in aiding women's understanding of how to manage effectively and advance in male dominated organizations and career fields (Essic, 1999). Especially in non-traditional careers, role models and mentors can serve important functions such as providing information about negotiating the demands associated with having a career and a family and providing information used in making self-efficacy evaluations (Nauta, 1997).

Networking

Networking is another contributing factor to women career development. All women acknowledged the importance of networking. The higher the job rank, the more is the dependence on networking to get the job done. In dealing with internal and external customers, networking eases business processes, establishes trust, provides information and visibility, facilitates collaboration and improves working relations and service delivery.

Networking is discussed in the literature as an enabler to women career development (Clarke, 2011; Jamali et al., 2005; Knorr, 2011; Singh et al., 2006; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011). Successful networking can positively influence career outcomes through increased job opportunities, job performance, income, promotions and career satisfaction, providing access to information and resources, gaining visibility, providing professional and social support and career advice (Green, 1982).

Networks assist women in building and maintaining strong professional networks. Contrary to Clarke (2011) all participants acknowledge the importance of networking for career success. They make it a priority and invest time and energy into finding and maintaining career enhancing networks. None of the women report having been denied the informal networking opportunities with colleagues. However because of customs and culture women particularly in male dominated fields get fewer opportunities than their male colleagues for mixing throughout the organization which meant missing some discussions and certain decisions. According to Thanacoody et al. (2006) women who enter a traditionally male dominant workplace are often marginalized.

Getting an opportunity to work close to senior people gives access to a network of influential contacts and more opportunities will come (Vinnicombe & Singh, 2003). Pemberton et al. (1996) surveyed 328 European Women's Management Development network members. They report joining networks to help develop their personal skills, meet others who could help them advance their careers and make social contact. Most of the networking activities focus on career and skills development and improving communication among women members and management (Catalyst, 1998). Michael and Yukl (1993) examine the networking behavior of 247 managers and found that both internal and external networking is related positively to managers' rate of advancement in their organization.

Women in this study reported that networking mostly takes place outside the office, in informal, semi-private entertainment settings. Confirming Linehan's (2001) argument, male managers spend more time networking after work hours which can be difficult for women with family responsibilities. Informal networks can improve professional development by providing encouragement and support from those who understand the difficulties and successes of the career, as well as constant feedback in one's own learning (Graham, 2010)

According to Singh et al. (2006) women with family responsibilities can be at a disadvantage, should out-of-hours socializing result in important work-related outcomes. A study of women deans by Glazer and Raymo (1999) reports that women with no access to informal networks find themselves blocked as they near the top of the hierarchy where promotions are more likely to be based on trust than on performance. Women are usually ignored and excluded from informal networks and from having access to relevant information or decision-making networks within the organization (Thanacoody et al., 2006).

Because Bahrain has a high context culture, *Wasta* was discussed. Though all women confirm the usage of *Wasta* for career development, only one manager used it for getting a promotion. Others reported being negatively impacted by its usage in selection and recruitment. *Wasta* disregards people's knowledge, competencies and places the wrong people in the wrong place. *Wasta* in the Middle Eastern region refers to social networks or connections (Cunningham & Sarayah, 1993).

Cunningham and Sarayah (1993) argue that in Middle Eastern countries, individuals from families with a high social status have a better chance of success in achieving their career objectives because of their social connections or *Wasta*. As a result managerial recruitment, promotions, training and development opportunities and many other aspects of management, end up being based on individual relations and not on an individual's abilities (Metcalfe, 2006).

According to Tlaiss and Kauser (2011) in situations where many individuals pursue the same objective, the candidate with the strongest *Wasta* will be the successful one disregarding qualifications. Contrary to earlier research by (Cunningham & Sarayah, 1993; Metcalfe, 2006) the majority of women in this study did not resort to the assistance of *Wasta* to get a job.

Table (12) Career development enablers

Career Development Enablers	**No. of times reported**
Training and Education Programs	16
Mentoring	12
Networking	16

Discussion of support systems needed to facilitate career development

To further facilitate women career development, support systems are needed at the organizational and national level. Below is the discussion of these efforts. Table 13 below represents a summary of these support systems.

Efforts at organizational level

The company plays a big role in supporting women through policies, work arrangements and providing education, training and development opportunities.

With regards to organizational policy; as discussed earlier in research question 2, there is no form of discrimination against women in pay, selection and recruitment, promotions, travel benefits, insurance and retirement. In relation to working arrangements, the majority of women are satisfied with the working arrangement such as flexi time, maternity leave and nursing hours. However, some want additional arrangements such as maternity policy, extended maternity leave and more flexibility. Women also acknowledge how ICT facilitates their work.

Organizations' policies supportive of the selection and promotion of women in management greatly improve utilization of valuable personnel (Mostafa, 2005). The discussions are contrary to Ezzedeen and Ritchey (2009) who indicate lack of supportive role of formal organizational policies in regards to career advancement. Contrary to Jamali et al. (2005), study of women managers in Lebanon, women in this study did not lack benefits such as flexi time and child care support. There is a greater need for support mechanisms such as extended maternity and family support services, which can be helpful in allowing women to effectively reconcile their multiples roles. In a study by Metcalfe (2006) on professional women in Bahrain, Oman and Jordan; women reported that in the organization policy, maternity policy is considered.

In relation to education and training; all women in this study acknowledged the importance of education and training to enable women career development. The organization played a key role in providing education and development opportunities to all its employees. Emphasizing the importance of education the company signed a partnership with City University London to offer its employees Certificates, Diplomas and Masters in Air Transport Management, Air

Safety Management and Aircraft Maintenance Management. One manager expressed her wish for scholarship programs.

To address training and development needs People development department was created in 2011 with the mission of *"Developing People – Enabling Business Results"*, with direct support from CEO. People Development is divided into three departments: Learning and Development, Talent Management and Assessment Centre. Training courses are hosted throughout the year but there is more need for leadership and management training which are essential for preparing women to these executive positions. Training and development opportunities enhance employee overall achievement and performance (Knorr, 2011).

Developmental programs provide opportunities for women to develop their self-awareness, improve their self-confidence, assume challenging assignments, develop their leadership skills, build strong support networks and learn strategies for balancing work and personal life (O'Neil & Bilimoria, 2005; Weyer, 2007). Another area related to development is performance evaluation. According to Jackson et al. (2006) assessment allows employees to be evaluated and offer an excellent opportunity to gain insights into people's capabilities. Employees can obtain feedback to improve their performance and also experience conditions that reinforce competencies and professional development. They also assist the organization through gathering and processing information on employees development needs of (Heneman et al., 1989), formulate developmental strategies, identify talent for rapid advancement, and identify individual training and development needs (Jackson et al., 2006).

Mentoring relationships also facilitate career development. Women in this study discussed the importance of mentors in research question 3. Mentoring in organizations is a developmental relationship whereby managers provide assistance and support to particular subordinates on an individual basis (Thanacoody et al., 2006). The mentoring process serves both career enhancement and psycho-social functions for the protégé′ (Thanacoody et al., 2006). Burke and Vinnicombe (2005) argue that one of the reasons for supporting higher female participation at senior levels is to have female role models for younger high-potential women.

An important organizational practice that was not mentioned by women in this study is succession planning. Succession planning entails identifying individuals including women

who have the skills to fill key positions within the organization (Buckner & Slavenski, 2000). It starts by identifying and analyzing key positions, assessing candidates against these positions and creating individual development plans (Buckner & Slavenski, 2000).

Another development program that was not mentioned by women in this study is career counseling. Career counseling for women offers them a chance to recount their career, open up new opportunities, show their motivation, values, and needs and identify, visualize, reflect on, and clarify their career issues and concerns (Lamsa & Hiillos, 2008).

Lastly, the success or failure of this effort is based on supportive organization culture starting from the top level. The greater the support received, the more likely that these women will grow and progress. According to Morrison et al. (1987), in a study conducted on women executives, top management support is among the contributing factors to women's career success. Catalyst (1998) argues that organizations' initiatives to promote equity in the workplace were more likely to be successful if CEOs acknowledged the need for women-focused initiatives and implemented strategies for advancing women.

Efforts at national level

In addition to the role of the organization, women in this study discussed the role of national efforts in supporting women careers. A number of mechanisms and programs were suggested in order to identify current and future gaps for working women and address them.

To facilitate women's development several suggestions were given. One suggestion is career workshops intended to bring together successful women in Bahrain. These women can sit together, network and share their success stories.

Second is providing leadership programs for these women aid their career development. Several programs exist. One interviewee mentioned Young Arab Leaders in Bahrain. It's a non-profit organization that aims to build the capabilities, skills and networking of its members by providing Arab youth with channels to overcome the challenges they face and provide the right education and promote a culture of entrepreneurship. Its members are trained in leadership development, education and entrepreneurship so they could pass these

opportunities and knowledge to the future generations. These kinds of initiatives focus on developing nationals.

Another program mentioned was by an organization called AIESEC. AIESEC focuses on providing the younger generations with the skills and experiences that contribute to their leadership development, it engages with thousands of organizations to support highly competitive international talent acquisition.

Others suggested unifying public and private sector regulations as much as possible to improve working condition for women.

Moreover, nationalization of the labor market provides women with the privilege in recruitment and selection, education and training, career development and remuneration (Omair, 2010). Tamkeen initiatives were brought up by all women. Tamkeen is an effective organization that supports Bahrain's private sector and economic development. Several initiatives by Tamkeen were provided to support women's careers. For example the sponsorship of Bahraini Female Cabin crew project. Another initiative is the endorsement of Talent Management Programme for Bahraini employees in order to support employees in leadership and HR roles and improve their competencies in the areas of HR and Leadership. Employees are trained on different aspects such as, enterprise management, strategic planning, leadership, marketing management, HR management, training and development and Bahrain labor law.

Another effective effort is the one organized by inJaz Bahrain. inJaz Bahrain provides young people with knowledge, skills, tools and experience when seeking employment.

Finally, providing career development resources for women is essential for career development (Knorr, 2011). All women acknowledged the important role of The Supreme Council for Women in assisting women's development. The roles identified were: conducting more research on women, providing education for less fortunate women, providing scholarship to support women's higher education, providing training programs to empower women, establishing targets for companies to increase women's participation, awarding high achievers, raising awareness on women's issues in the private sector and encourage

companies to attract women in senior positions through incentive and awards. Al-Lamky, (2007) suggests monitoring organizational performance on gender participation and holding managers accountable to progress in meeting gender targets.

Table (13) Support system needed to support women career development

Support system needed to support women career development	**No. of times reported**
Efforts at Organizational Level	
-Organization policy that does not discriminate between men and women	16
-Flexible working arrangements	5
-Education and Training	16
-Performance evaluation	3
-Mentoring	12
Efforts at National Level	
-Career workshops	2
-Leadership programs	3
-Nationalization strategies	16
-Providing career development resources for women	16

Discussion of factors influencing career expectations

The factors influencing career expectations discussed during the interview were social support and persuasion, women's physical appearance, impact of networking, stereotypes and experience and know-how. Table 14 below represents a summary of these factors.

Social support and persuasion

The first factor influencing expectation is social support. Most of the interviewees mentioned the support they receive from their spouse, parents, friends and colleagues can influence their expectations. Other women mentioned no impact of others on the decisions they make.

Husbands were constantly reported as the biggest supporter. Husbands influence women's decisions, provide emotional support and reassure their capabilities. For single women, parents play a key role in influencing their decisions. Al-Lamki in Oman (1999) identifies family support from a husband very essential. Husbands play an important role in supporting women (Al-Lamky, 2007). Riphenburg (1998) argues that women in developing countries often mention family support, particularly the influence of one of the parents (predominantly fathers) to have influenced their desire to get an education and break the tradition. In

interviews with the top ten women managers in UAE and Bahrain, Wilkinson (1996) finds that successful women identify family support as one of the motivating forces behind their success.

The support received influences these women's expectation. People could be persuaded verbally to believe that they have the career skills and capabilities to succeed. Bandura (1986) asserted that when people are verbally persuaded in ways consistent with realistic expectations from others, they are likely to have greater self-efficacy beliefs. Getting verbal encouragement from important others helps individuals overcome self-doubt (Bandura, 1986). Graham (2010) argues that family support can influence career decision making and increases the likelihood that women will have positive outcome expectations (Ferry, Fouad, & Smith, 2000). High degree of family encouragement leads to higher accomplished goals (Ferry, Fouad & Smith, 2000).

Women's physical appearance

The importance of physical appearance varied depending on the nature of the job. A woman's physical appearance can enhance or reduce her chances in getting certain jobs.

Physical appearance is important in certain jobs that require face to face interaction with internal and external people. Presentation is important because the first impression is always important. Others believe that because people are judgmental, they look at physical appearance, weight, height, how a women dresses up and this requires a women to constantly take care of herself. People in marketing, sales and public relations are expected to look good so physical appearance is a factor in considering applicants for jobs in these fields. On the other hand, women in divisions like engineering, and Information technology don't think physical appearance matters.

Physical appearance can be a way for these women to market themselves to the employer as a potential employee. According to Lips (2001), women use their physical appearance to maintain their authority. Lips (2001) also mentions that physical appearance is one way to negotiate the contradiction between femininity and power (Lips, 2001). This is seen in one interviewee who takes care of the way she looks. In a research conducted on the career of female musicians by Graham (2010), appearance is described as an obstacle by all of the

interviewees in relation to music career. Aging increases women's insecurity in career development and that impacts their belief in their talent.

Impact of networking

Networks have a big impact on career development. They can positively or negatively impact career development. Five interviewees discussed the impact networking had on their career expectations.

Limited access to networking negatively impacts career expectations. In male dominant fields, because the numbers of women is very small in and because of society boundaries where it's inappropriate go out with men, women are disadvantaged. They miss many important discussions, meetings where key issues and decisions are made.

Lack of access to organizational networks is increasingly seen as an obstacle for women to reach the top (Ragins et al., 1998; Catalyst and Opportunity Now, 2000). Luthans et al. (1988) find that a manager's ability to network is a strong predictor of managerial success.

Supporting earlier research by (Kattara, 2005; Omair, 2010) men have more control over key networks that have access to the organization's resources and valuable information. Studies identify the negative consequences of the absence of organizational networks on the women career advancement such as the lack of professional support, lack of information sharing and career planning (Cleveland et al., 2000; Morrison, 1992), lack of interpersonal relationships (Davidson & Cooper, 1992) and exclusion from informal networks such as important meetings (Jackson, 2001).

Another issues related to networking is the usage of *Wasta*. Knowing the right people at the right time in the right place opens up closed door, women who don't have access to these networks may miss on some opportunities. *Wasta* disregards people's knowledge, competencies and places the wrong people in the wrong place. This means that women may be underprivileged of any career planning, professional support, access to important personnel and organizational information.

Gender stereotypes

Stereotypical views against women in management can negatively influence the likelihood of their career development. Some women in the study believed stereotypical attitudes reduce their career development chances. These attitudes reflect preference for men to occupy senior positions. Other women see no impact of stereotypes on their careers even in male dominant jobs like engineering and flight operations. They believe they have worked hard; earned the respect they deserve and proved to everyone that a woman can do it.

Gender stereotypes are persistent and have more negative impact on women leading to fewer opportunities for women (Swim et al., 1998). Consistent with Omair (2008) women managers worldwide deal with stereotypes those women are not capable of combining their roles as wife, mother and executive. Tlaiss and Kauser (2011) argue that gender stereotyping may be the reason why men in Lebanon, as in most of the Arabic region, are more employed than women

Experience and know-how

The last factor influencing career expectations is lack of experience and know-how. For certain jobs, having the experience and know-how become criteria for career development. The importance of experience and know how was discussed in research question 1 as a source of self-efficacy. Women with more experience are more confident in their suitability for a higher position. Experience can lead to more ambitious goals and increases the likelihood of getting a job.

Through learning experiences, outcome expectations can have social effects, physical effects and impact self-evaluation (Bandura 1986; 1997). Social effects include imagined power, recognition, or admiration from others (Bandura, 1986). Physical effects include financial gain or sensory pleasure. Self-evaluation is shaped by individual learning experiences. Learning experiences play a key role in influencing whether or not an individual views specific career goals as attainable (Hasan, 2011).

Based on the discussions above, outcome expectations influence how an individual proceeds in decision-making on a chosen career path. These expectations can affect an individual's goals in an upcoming career path (Lent et al., 1994). Social Cognitive Career Theory argues

that people have positive outcome expectations for tasks they anticipate being successful at and negative outcome expectations for tasks they anticipate failing at (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 2002). Although outcome expectations are an important variable in Social Cognitive Career Theory, they haven't been given enough attention by researchers (Fouad & Guillen, 2006). Yeagley, Subich and Tokar (2010) support that outcome expectations are predictors of goals for elite leadership positions. Social Cognitive Career Theory argues that individuals are more likely to undertake a career that will result in positive outcomes (Lent et al., 1994). According to Landry (2003) when people anticipate attaining various goals in given situations, they will make judgments of the likelihood of attaining them. People will not pursue unattainable goals because they have little motivation to attempt the unreachable (Landry, 2003).

Table (14) Factors influencing career expectations

Factors influencing career expectations	**No. of times reported**
Social Support and persuasion	8
Women's physical appearance	7
Impact of Networking	5
Gender Stereotypes	4
Experience and know how	5

Discussion of women's career goals

Every interviewee was asked what her future career goals are. These goals are referred to in the Social Cognitive Career Theory as "Choice goals" (Lent et al., 1994). Seven of these women had goals of reaching to senior manager position in the future, three women had more ambitious goals to reach to the director level, two managers aspire to become CEOs and two managers have goals of starting their own business. Last two want to retire goal and spend more time with their family. Table 15 below represents a summary of these goals.

Despite these ambitious, not all women saw these goals happening. Some of these women were confident about their ability to achieve their goals because they have the skill, competence, experience and personality. These factors are discussed earlier as sources of self-efficacy. Studies indicate that individuals with high self-efficacy would set higher goals than those with lower self-efficacy (Bandura & Cervone, 1983; Wood & Bandura, 1989). Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between goal setting and performance (Appelbaum &

Hare, 1996). Bandura and Cervone (1986) argue that after setting their goals, individuals with high self-efficacy increased their efforts to achieve these goals, whereas those with low self-efficacy did not. Highly committed employees are motivated to set personal and assigned career goals and then develop plans to attain these goals (Bandura & Cervone, 1986).

Self-Efficacy and Outcome Expectancy Theory proposes that factors that increase individuals' self-efficacy will increase their persistence and aspiration toward educational and career goals (Herrmann, 2010). Gianakos's (1999) supports that career self-efficacy is related to greater confidence in one's abilities to successfully select career goals, collect occupational information and problem solving.

Other women mentioned the support of the organizational culture for women as an enabler to reaching their goal. According to Social Cognitive Career Theory, people are more likely to take actions to attain their goals if they have access to environmental (organizational) support and resources related to the pursuit of these goals (Landry, 2003).

On the other hand, some women are not confident in achieving their goals and attribute this lack to factors such as stereotype and masculine culture. According to Social Cognitive Career Theory, contextual barriers and supports can translate an individual's career interests into career goals, and goals into actions. They may help or hinder an individual's effort to reach a career goal (Lent et al., 2001). Flores and O'Brien (2002) argue that if a woman perceives fewer barriers along with a supportive environment, she is more likely to experience positive outcomes, leading to a positive effect on career goals. Women with more positive and fewer negative expectations regarding leadership roles are more likely to have stronger interests and goals for leadership (Killeen, Lopez-Zafra, & Eagly, 2006; Lips, 2000, 2001).

Table (15) Goals

Goals	**No. of times reported**
Become a Senior Manager	7
Become a Director	3
Become a CEO	2
Start their Own Business	2
Retire	2

Summary

This chapter provided discussion of the interviewee's responses to research questions. The discussions are presented in light of existing literature to provide cross cultural comparisons on women career development. The next chapter will provide an overview of these discussions, conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTERVIII: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate women career development to understand why women are underrepresented on the top of the corporate ladder. The guiding concepts were derived from the Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT). A sample of 16 Bahraini female managers were interviewed. Six issues were addressed. First were the sources of self-efficacy, second were career development barriers, third were career development enablers, fourth was the need for organizational and national efforts to support women career development, fifth was factors influencing career expectations and lastly future career goals. Below is an overview of these discussions.

Overview of the study

A variety of factors were found to influence the career development of participants. A summary of these findings follows.

Sources of self-efficacy

The first factor influencing women career development was self-efficacy. It was discussed that women managers perceive their education, training, experience, personal achievements and personality traits as sources of self-efficacy beliefs. A strong sense of self-efficacy is essential to career development by establishing competence and confidence levels for these women.

Education

Education develops women's skills, influences how women think, how they work and how they make decisions. It is the tool to build experience and broaden their horizon. Education enhances women's understanding of her rights and provides a foundation for her development. With the increased participation of educated women entering the workforce, there will be a high number of women aspiring to become managers. Education is essential for women to get access into the labor market, develop their skills and competencies and build their credentials and knowledge needed to succeed in their jobs.

Training

Training is another source of self-efficacy because it facilitates the development of interests and goals for leadership. Training plays a vital role in determining occupational aspirations and choices. It provides women with the skills and competencies for future positions and identifies areas of development. Limited access to on-the-job training and development has been discussed in the literature as one of the reasons for women's underrepresentation in senior positions.

Experience

Experience influences self-efficacy beliefs and enhances confidence levels. For some women, self-efficacy is something that they have developed through time and experience. The more successful experiences a person has in a domain; the more likely the person's self-efficacy beliefs will increase. Once established, self-efficacy generalizes to other situations. Experience does help when dealing with complex decisions. Experiences represent an important source of information to construct anticipations that will influence the decision making process.

Personal achievements

Personal achievements have a great influence on self-efficacy beliefs. Successes increase mastery expectations; repeated failures lesser them. Achievements provide convincing evidence that a person will succeed or fail in a given situation. Through these achievements women monitor and evaluate their performance accomplishments and adjust their own sense of efficacy.

Personality types

Personality types affect the type of jobs these women are pursuing. They also affect how women perceive success and failure. Highly efficacious people in relation to a specific task or goal think, feel and act differently than those who see themselves as inefficacious.

Career development barriers

Another factor influencing women careers is barriers. Three barriers were reported in this study, gender stereotypes, work family balance and culture. Discrimination was not found as a barrier.

Gender stereotypes

Consistent with research conducted in the West and in the Arab world, gender stereotypes continue to be the biggest barrier women encounter. People still sex stereotype the characteristics of managers favoring men. These views are strong and persistent leading to lesser opportunities for women holding senior positions. Qualities such as leadership ability, confidence, objectivity, competitiveness, aggression, ambition, forcefulness and desiring responsibility are qualities assumed to reside in men.

Stereotypical views underestimate women's capabilities, fuel doubts about women's leadership abilities and makes women personally anxious. Stereotyping increases levels of performance pressure, stress and decreases motivation for women to participate in the workplace. Women are also stereotyped as emotionally unstable, moody, take things personally, easily burnout under pressure and typically allow their personal lives or families to interfere with their job. Stereotypes see women less motivated, less achieving or less intelligent than men.

These opinions, if left unexamined will strengthen the sex role stereotypes that already exist. With more women entering the workforce and people being accustomed to having female managers, these attitudes towards women at the workplace could change.

Trade-off between family and work

Family related variables can have a significant impact on women careers being single or married. Women's responsibility for family acts as a barrier when gender stereotyping can lead to social constructions of women's positions within the organization leading to differential treatment for women. Such attitudes have been confirmed in this study where married women reported questioning their commitment to work and their ability to balance work with family.

A woman's responsibility for her family in addition to her professional life can create stress between competing demands and cause a sense of overload and role conflict. Women can find themselves making choices that men do not experience. Because men have less social and family expectations they can focus on developing skills essential in the organizational world thus becoming suitable candidates for fulfilling the requirements of managerial positions.

This challenge intensifies in the Arab world due to the cultural and social values that emphasize a woman's role as a mother and wife in contradiction to men's rationality and economic role.

Many women reported getting domestic help from their spouse, family and housemaids is essential to balance their responsibilities. In addition, the use of Information and Communication technology (ICT) allows taking work out of the office into the home and enables workers to modify working hours to their preferences. This flexibility in when and where work is done and job autonomy should promote life quality.

Culture

Lack of supportive culture is another barrier to women career development. Organizational culture can explicitly and implicitly portray gender inequalities at the workplace. Because organizations exist within cultural contexts; management and employee assumptions, organizational structures, functions and behaviors are influenced. In some organizations, women occupying executive positions are seen as breaking the norm of men's higher status and superiority.

Organizational cultures can be influential in dictating the types of careers that are acceptable in a particular organizational context. The fact that the majority of women in this study express a supportive and encouraging work environment indicates that there is a growing culture of women in business. Organizations that maintain cultures that endorse gender equity are important predictors of increasing the number of women in managerial positions. Tradition and culture are expected to exert less weight against the forces of education and modernization.

In the Arab world, many of the cultural views are highly influenced by the Islamic view of women and their roles in life. However, Islam does not restrict women. Contrary, it promotes equality of women with men.

Discrimination

Studies pose the question whether discrimination is still a barrier. Several studies reported discrimination towards women in the workplace in wages, promotions, access to education and development opportunities and access to networks.

The results of this study reported no form of discrimination at the workplace. If companies continue with discriminatory practices, then the organizations' policies and the resulting workplace will continue to operate inefficiently to disadvantage women who are unable to progress further in their careers. Such discriminatory practices may also reflect negatively on a company's image. Organizations that create working environments that do not disadvantage women wanting to integrate work family lives will clearly have a competitive edge in retaining their most talented employees.

Career development enablers

Enablers are important forces to help women overcome the barriers and prosper. Three enablers were reported in the study: education and training programs, mentoring and networking.

Mentoring

In this study, the perceptions reported by the majority of the female managers supported the idea of the importance of a mentor for their career development. Women who have a mentor do better in management and in their careers; since these women gain reflected power, feedback, and access to resources and senior managers. Mentoring in organizations is a developmental relationship where managers provide assistance and support to their subordinates on an individual basis. Mentors contribute to women's career advancement by providing sponsorship, coaching, role modeling and counseling. They can have a positive impact on the career advancement of female managers by creating a favorable organizational environment, providing career development functions and self-confidence and improving promotional prospects.

Female mentors can act as role models and provide other women with support and information about how to shatter through the glass ceiling. Research suggests that female and male mentors are more at ease mentoring their own sex. Very few studies examined the

existence or effect of mentoring on the career advancement of Arab female managers. More research is required on whether mentoring relationships play a vital role in the career development of Arab female managers. Mentoring should become a priority for organizations in supporting the career development of their female employees.

Access to networks

The discussions of this study support the literature on the importance of networking. Developing healthy interpersonal networks and relationships at work is consistently reported to be an important component of managerial behavior and success. Networking activities are women's attempts to create for themselves the support generated for men by their informal same-sex grouping. A manager's ability to network is the strongest predictor of managerial success, ahead of their ability to undertake traditional management activities, routine communication and human resource management.

Networking in the Arab region proliferates with the usage of *Wasta* in the organization. *Wasta* is a form of social connection that saturates the business activities of the Middle East. Regardless of gender or management position, *Wasta*, as shown in this study, is a significant force within the workplace for career advancement. *Wasta* destroys any form of equality the workplace and provides advantages to individuals who may not necessarily deserve them and denies others because they lack a network of influential friends.

Successful networking can positively influence career endings through increased job opportunities, provide access to information and influential people, gaining visibility, providing career advice, social and professional support and access to resources.

Support systems needed to facilitate women career development

In addition to the enablers discussed above, the support received at the organizational level is key to help women overcome some of the barriers they encounter and shape their working experience. The support extends beyond organization levels to include national levels.

Efforts at organizational level

Organizations need to recognize, understand and support women's careers and keep hold of talented professional women.

There is a need for a supportive corporate environment for the many responsibilities women have. For example, family friendly policies such as flexible working hours, maternity leave and other work arrangements to aid women balance the many different roles they play in their lives.

In addition, organizational practices need to promote gender equity in managerial selection and recruitment, promotion actions, performance assessment and training and development selection and promotion acts.

Human Resource policies and strategies are needed to promote the recruitment and development of female managers at work, assist the advancement of women as role models. They also need to transform work cultures through change management, team building, cross-gender communication and sensitivity training. Also important is tracking organizational performance on gender participation.

Other initiatives include succession planning to prepare women to fill key positions within the organization. Organizations need to confront the challenge and responsibility of identifying and developing high potential employees and providing adequate developmental opportunities, irrespective of gender. Career counseling for women offers them a chance to recount their career, open up new opportunities, show their motivation and identify, visualize, reflect on and clarify their career issues and concerns.

Eventually, the success of these efforts lies in having a supportive organization culture starting from the top level. The greater the support received, the more likely that these women will grow and progress. Senior management teams in companies need to manage gender issues at work and prepare to function in a more diversified workplace. Recognition at a senior organizational level of the business benefits of a managerial gender mix is the platform for the career development of female managers given the impact this backing could have.

Efforts at national level

Enabling factors extend beyond organizational efforts to initiatives at national level. For example, the GCC governments are enforcing "nationalization" programs to replace foreign workers with national citizens. These policies privilege nationals in education and training,

recruitment and selection, career management and wages. Other governments are establishing policies for education to increase female schooling at all educational levels.

Providing leadership programs and career development resources for women is essential for their career development. These bodies could promote more research on women, provide education and training programs to empower women, establish targets for companies to increase women's participation, award high achievers and raise awareness on women's issues.

Factors influencing career expectations

Another factor influencing career development is career expectations. The factors influencing these women's expectations were addressed. The factors were social support and persuasion, women's physical appearance, impact of networking, gender stereotypes and experience and know-how.

Social support and persuasion

Significant others can influence women's career expectations through social support and persuasion. Significant others include husbands, parents, managers, colleagues and friends. Most of these women spoke of important others who have supported them in their careers, had a positive influence on the direction of their careers and their confidence through emotional support and verbal encouragement.

Those who receive positive reinforcement that they have the skills and capabilities to handle a situation are more likely to put in greater efforts leading to positive career expectations. When faced with new or challenging situations, women succeeded through their own personal sense of strength and through their ability to seek out others to help build their confidence.

Women's physical appearance

In some occupations, employers justify their preferences for male employees on stereotypical assumptions about women's physical and intellectual capacities. Physical appearance can impact the self-image of women which in turn affects their career expectations.

Impact of networking

Networking has a big impact on career development. Limited access to networking negatively impacts women's career expectations. A manager's ability to network is a strong predictor of managerial success. Limited access to networking deprives women access to the organization's resources and valuable information and professional support needed to foster career development.

Gender stereotypes

Stereotypical views against women in management can negatively influence the likelihood of their career progression. These views can result in fewer opportunities for women. Gender stereotype was reported in this study as the biggest barrier to women careers.

Experience and know-how

Experience and know how also affect outcome expectations. Learning experiences influence career expectations by impacting self-evaluation of these women. They also play a key role in influencing whether or not an individual views specific career goals as attainable. The discussions support the literature that people base their expectations on their perceptions of the skills they currently have (or can develop), on how well they have performed and on outcomes they have received.

Women career goals

Future career goals are other factors influencing career development of women. Setting goals is a central component to long-term success. Goals help women focus and allocate time and resources efficiently and can keep these women motivated. These goals remind women of what is expected from them. Achieving these goals will translate to feelings of success leading to a strong sense of self-efficacy. Goals also assist in defining the achievement strategies; determine the intensity of effort and tenacity in seeking solutions to barriers.

However, the attainment of these goals is dependent on several factors such as self-efficacy beliefs, career expectations, barriers and career development enablers including the support from the organization and policy makers. For example, individuals with high self-efficacy for a given task will set higher personal goals than those with lower self-efficacy. Contextual

barriers and supports also impact people's ability or willingness to translate their interests into goals and their goals into actions.

Women who perceive fewer barriers along with a supportive environment are more likely to experience positive outcomes, leading to a positive effect on career goals.

Conclusion

The growth in women's participation in the workforce is globally documented. This study confirms findings of research published in Developed and Developing countries that women are underrepresented on the top of the corporate ladder.

Women in this study were diverse in their ages, their experience, marital status and personal characteristics. From this profile of female managers, it can be concluded that the process is a complex, ever-changing relationship of psychological characteristics, barrier, opportunities, goals and experiences that interact with each other to shape these women's careers. Figure 4 provides a model of the key career choice and development factors influencing the success of women in this company.

First is self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is a main psychological factor related to women's leadership development. The sources of self-efficacy beliefs reported by women in this study were education, training, experience, personal achievements and personality types. These factors play an important role in empowering women to become leaders and better navigate the external environment. Self-efficacy affects how women visualize success and failure; individuals are more likely to become successful in jobs for which they have high self-efficacy.

The second factor is barriers encountered. Based on the interviews conducted, it became evident that the constraints facing women in this study are stereotypes, work family balance and culture. All the participants highlighted the implications of stereotypical attitudes on their careers. The other constraints that were identified consistently across all women participants are constraints stemming from the multiple roles these women play in their lives and cultural nature stemming mainly from the corporate environment. The study suggests that Bahraini women managers share many of the barriers women face in other areas of the world.

Nevertheless some key differences exist. Living in an environment of cherished cultural values and customs has a major impact on societal attitudes and behaviors.

The third factor is career development enablers. Three important enablers of female managers' career development were mentioned in this study, namely education and training programs, mentoring and networking. These factors are important to provide women with the skills, knowledge, credentials, social and professional support needed to prepare them for these executive positions.

Another role is the one of policy makers at the organizational level and at national levels. Organizations need to recruit, retain, develop talented people and ensure the promotion of work values and cultures that do not tolerate for stereotypical attitudes and preconceptions that discriminate against women. Managerial decision making should not consciously or subconsciously work against women development.

Realizing meaningful inclusiveness requires cultivating a vision for the future beyond organizations to include policy makers such as the government and legal authorities and having clear direction to alter women's realities and tackle socio-economic and cultural structures that sustain inequities.

There are factors that can influence career expectations of these women by providing positive and/or negative reinforcement. The most instrumental one is social support and persuasion received from important others such as spouse, family, friends and colleagues. Other factors include women's physical image, impact of networking, gender stereotypes and experience and know how.

Lastly an important driving force is goals. Goals organize and guide behavior, maintain it over long periods of time and increase the chance of attaining longer-term goals. However, not all women saw their goals attainable. These women were more likely to make progress on their goals and see them attainable to the extent that they feel self-efficacious, hold favorable outcome expectations and have access to environmental supports and resources needed to pursue such goals.

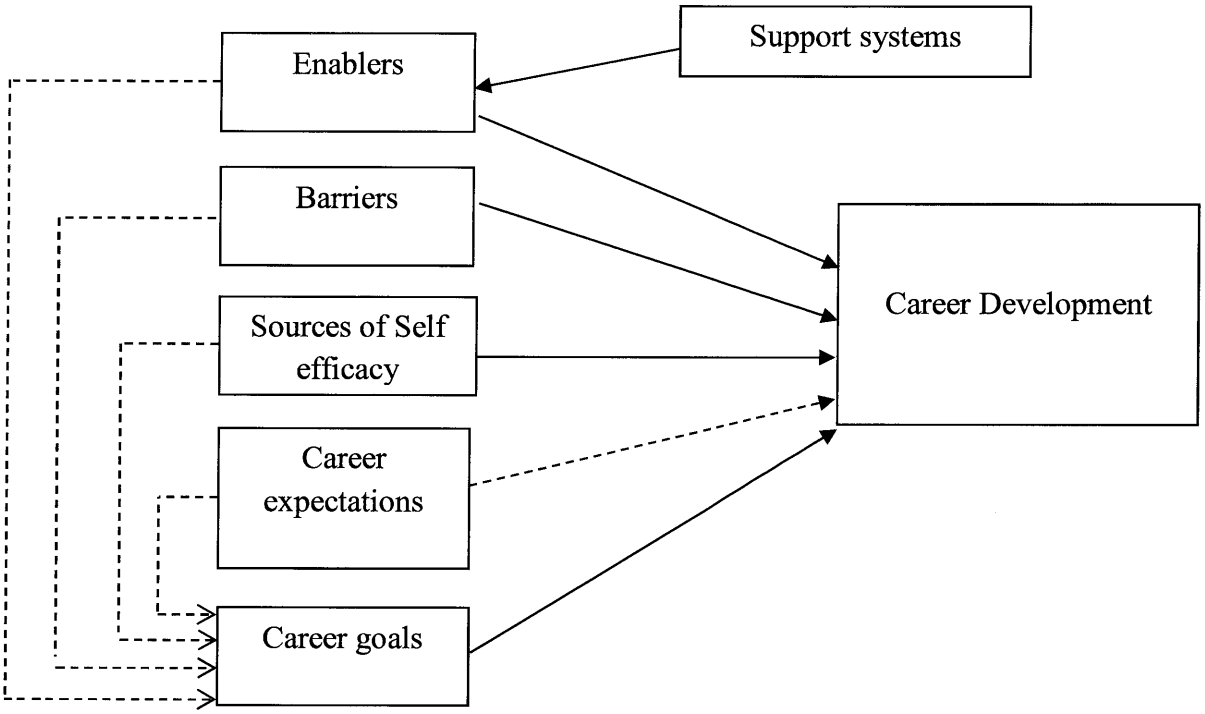


Fig. (7-4) Model of career development: driving factors for women in Gulf Air

Recommendations

The results of this study direct many recommendations that could help working women shatter the glass ceiling and reach to the jobs they ultimately aspire to. Many of these recommendations come directly from the female participants in the study; others are based upon information collected.

Recommendations for working women

The first venue for tackling and addressing the issues facing women at work is action by the women themselves. Women's eventual achievement will be realized through unyielding persistent hard work. In the long run, people in power cannot continue to question women's commitment and reliability to work if these women demonstrate sustained commitment, competence, perseverance and dedication. The dual family-work expectations are not likely to reduce women's commitment to work. Accordingly, much responsibility lies in the hands of women to balance their demanding and/or overlapping roles, raise their career aspirations and challenge the predominant anti-women on top attitude in the organization. Women can also

volunteer with organizations actively involved in recruiting females and invest time in educating and mentoring younger women.

Recommendations for organizations

In order to compete in the highly competitive global economy of the twenty-first century, Bahraini organizations cannot afford to forgo a major managerial talent pool represented by men and women. Organizations need to understand, recognize and support employees' career and relationship priorities in order to keep hold of talented professional employees. To grow and prosper, Bahraini organizations need the active involvement of all employees, both men and women. Some of the recommendations are:

- Developing formal mentoring programs for new employees within the organization and encourage senior members of the company to mentor younger employees upon their entry to the industry. This would help them navigate industrial and company policies, experiences and expectations as well as promote positive role modeling.
- Developing and encouraging the formation of corporate networks within and/or cross divisions. These networks can provide means of career networking and help develop employee's personal skills, meet with others who could help their careers, make social contacts and help off-set the challenges confronted.

- Active and effective company training and career development programs that provide opportunities for employees to develop their skills and provide challenging assignments needed to groom them for these positions.

- Human Resource policies play a key role in fostering gender equity at the workplace. These policies should not discriminate based on gender in recruitment, training and development, performance appraisals and promotions are needed. Family friendly working arrangements such as hours friendly, job sharing, flextime telecommuting and childcare support are needed to help employees balance their personal and professional roles.

- Succession planning which entails identifying individuals who have the skills to fill key positions within the organization. It starts by identifying and analyzing key

positions, assessing candidates against these positions and creating individual development plans.

- Part of the problem women face is cultural. Although a fundamental cultural transformation is not expected, there are certain aspects that have to be addressed. The role of education was stressed in the interviews. Education has to be emphasized as a key venue for change. Education can nurture values of equity, fairness, and mutual respect. Education has indeed been consistently shown to positively influence not only self-image and confidence but also patterns of labor force participation.

- Lastly, monitoring organizational performance on gender participation and holding managers accountable to progress in meeting gender targets.

Recommendations for policy makers

In some developing countries, the government plays a major role in the formation of the social policies, development strategies and legislation that shape opportunities for women. In Bahrain, the laws and legislations brought forward by the Constitution, the National Action Charter, the Civil Service Bureau and as a member of the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) emphasize gender equity in rights, responsibilities and in holding jobs.

The governments need to create a vision for the future to empower women and a transformational gender reform strategy that challenges stereotypical attitudes, raises public awareness about the value of diversity, ensures compliance and enforcement of the legal reforms that promote equal opportunities in order to assist the creation of an environment in which women can grow and develop.

Legal efforts must remain an integral part of the process of reducing barriers to women's advancement. Legal pressures can bring about increased equality despite attitudes to the contrary. Equal employment opportunity laws should encourage corporations to make changes that minimize the negative impact of stereotyping.

Another effective strategy is nationalization (Bahrainization) policies. Nationalization strategies provide Bahrainis with opportunities for career development by giving preference to nationals in recruitment, education, training and development opportunities.

In addition, it is important to raise public awareness about gender issues through education and media and promote the progressive interpretations of Islam supporting social justice and equality. Also promoting the establishment of non-government organizations geared towards career development and economic empowerment.

Recommendations for future research

This study contributed to the minimal knowledge that currently exists on the position of female managers in Bahrain. Consequently, this study can be perceived as the gateway for future studies on women career development in general and in the Arab world. There are several areas of further research from which this study can provide a platform. A few of these include:

- The interviews took place in a single point in time and the reflections of the participants were historical in nature. It would be interesting to conduct a study over several points in time, contributing to longitudinal data analysis. This approach could provide insights to the ongoing journeys of females across their career span. Researchers can gain a deeper understanding of how identity and life role plays into one's career path at different ages.

- Very few studies have investigated the existence or importance of networking and mentors to women's career success. More work is needed in the Middle Eastern Arab region in order to understand these concepts and how they impact women career development.

- Conduct a similar study of male managers to compare the results between the two studies in order to assess the similarities and/or differences among variables of career choice and development of men and women in similar job positions.

- Further research encompassing a wider range of organizations in both the private and public sectors would allow a more comprehensive understanding of cross-cultural aspects of management in Bahrain.

- Conduct a comparative study of other non-traditional fields to investigate the similarities and/or differences in key factors of career choice and development.

- These results need perhaps to be revisited through cross-cultural studies within the Arab region to analyze in more detail the particular similarities and differences between genders.

Summary

This chapter presented how the research findings add to the literature in relation to women career development. The goal of the study was to gain a deeper understanding of women career development using a qualitative approach. The results determined five sources of self-efficacy: education, training, experience, personal achievements and personality traits. These sources positively contribute to women's competence and confidence levels. The study also confirmed the presence of barriers and supports in relation to women careers. The main barriers reported were gender stereotypes and work family balance. Few women reported lack of supportive culture. Regarding career development enablers; education and training, mentoring and networking were reported as the most important enablers. In addition, organizational and national efforts also contribute to women careers. The participants discussed the factors that influence their career expectations. Social support and persuasion was the most influential factor. Other factors reported were women's physical appearance, impact of networking, gender stereotypes and experience and know-how. Lastly, all these women had ambitious career goals. Attainment of these goals was impacted by self-efficacy beliefs, barriers, supports and career expectations. Further research may expand on this knowledge using a different sample of women and/or men to compare ethnic and gender differences in relation to career development.

REFERENCES

Abdalla, I. (1996). Attitudes towards women in the Arabian Gulf region. *Women in Management Review, 11(1)*, 29-39

Ahmad, M.S. & Fakhr, Z. & Ahmed, J. (2011). Working women work-life conflict. *Business Strategy Series, 12(6),* 289 – 302

Akande, A. (1994). The Glass Ceiling: Women and Mentoring in Management and Business. *Journal of Workplace Learning, 6(1)*, 21–28

Al-Hosayni, S. & Al-Aysa, J. (1981). *Qatar: an analytical study of a contemporary society*. Doha

Al-Lamki, S.M. (1999). Paradigm shift: a perspective on Omani woman in management in the Sultanate of Oman. *Advancing Women in Leadership, 5*, 1-18

Al-Lamky, A. (2007). Feminizing leadership in Arab societies: the perspectives of Omani female leaders. *Women In Management Review, 22(1)*, 49 - 67

Al-Mandhry, Z. (2000). Development of women in the Sultanate of Oman, *Al-Markazi, 25(5)*

Alajmi, A. (2001). *Factors that support Arab Muslim women in their career roles*. (Doctoral dissertation), University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA. Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses. (UMI 3038215)

Ali, R., S., McWhirter, E. H., & Chronister, K. M. (2005). Self-efficacy and vocational outcome expectations for adolescents of lower socioeconomic status: A pilot study. *Journal of Career Assessment, 13,* 40–58

Allison, J.C. & Cossette, MN. (2007). *Three Theories of Career Development and Choice 1: Proven Practices for Recruiting Women*. Edmonds Community College, 1-85

Alimo-Metcalfe, B. (1994). Gender bias in the selection and assessment of women in Management. In Davidson, M.J. and Burke, R.J. (Eds), *Women in Management: Current Research Issues*. Paul Chapman, London

Anderson, S. L., & Betz, N. E. (2001). Sources of social self-efficacy expectations: Their measurement and relation to career development. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 58,* 98-117

Samardzic, N.A. & Taksa, L., (2011). The impact of gender culture on women's career trajectories: an Australian case study. *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion: An International Journal, 30(3)*, 196 - 216

Anker, R. (1997). Theories of occupational segregation by sex: an overview. *International Labor Review, 136(3)*, 15-39

Anthony, S., & Jack, S. (2009). Qualitative case study methodology in nursing research. An integrative review. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 65(6),* 1171-1181

Appelbaum, S. & Hare, A. (1996). Self-efficacy as a mediator of goal setting and performance. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 11(3),* 33-47

Askar, A. & Ahmad, M. (2003). Attitudes toward women occupying supervisory positions at various work organizations in Kuwaiti society. *Journal of the Social Sciences, 31(4),* 857-79

Assessing Women in Engineering (AWE) Project (2005). Career Development. AWE Research Overviews. Career Development AWE, 1-17. Retrieved from http://www.aweonline.org.

Aycan, Z. (2004). Key success factors for women in management in Turkey. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 53(3),* 453-77

Bae, S. (2002). *Women's human capital investment and its returns in the United States: findings from the national longitudinal survey of youth.* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Minnesota, St Paul, MN.

Bajdo, L.M. & Dickson, M.W. (2001). Perceptions of organizational culture and women's advancement in organizations: a cross-cultural examination. *Sex Roles, 45(5),* 399-414

Ballout, H.I. (2009). Career commitment and career success: moderating role of self-efficacy. *Career Development International, 14(7),* 655 - 670

Bandura, A. (1976a). Effecting change through participant modeling. In J. D. Krumboltz & C. E. Thoresen (Eds.), *Counseling methods.* New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston

Bandura, A. (1989). Human agency in social cognitive theory. *American Psychologist, 44* 1175–1184

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavior change. *Psychological Review, 84,* 191-215

Bandura, A. (*1986b). Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory. Englewood Cliffs*, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control.* New York: W.H. Freeman.

Bandura, A. & Cervone, D. (1986). Self-evaluative and self-efficacy mechanisms governing the motivational effects of goal systems. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 45(5),* 1017 - 1028

Bandura, A., Jeffery, R. W., & Gajdos, E. (1975). Generalizing change through participant modeling with self-directed mastery. *Behaviour Research and Therapy, 13,* 141-152

Barreto, M., Ryan, M., & Schmitt, M. (2009). *The glass ceiling in the 21st century: Understanding barriers to gender equality.* American Psychological Association. Washington, D.C.

Bartley, S.J., Blanton, P.W. & Gilliard, J.L. (2005). Husbands and wives in dual-earner marriages: decision-making, gender role attitudes, division of household labor, and equity. *Marriage and Family Review, 37(4)*, 69-94

Basow, S. A., & Howe, K. G. (1980). Role-model influence: Effects of sex and sex-role attitude in college students. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 4,* 558-572

Bass, B. M. (1998). *Transformational leadership: Industry, military, and educational impact.* Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum

Bass, B.M. Spokane, A. R., Luchetta, E. J., & Richwine, M. H. (2002). Holland's theory of personalities in work environments. In D. Brown & Associates (Eds.), *Career Choice and Development (*4th ed., pp. 373-426). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass

Bell, N. & Staw, B. (1989). People as sculptor versus sculpture: the role of personality and personal control in organisations. in Arthur, M., Hall, D.T. and Lawrence, B.S. (Eds), *Handbook of Career Theory*, Cambridge University Press, New York, NY, 232-51

Berg, B. (2004). *Qualitative Research Methods, 5th ed.* Pearson Education, Boston, MA.

Betz, N.E. (2007). Career self-efficacy: exemplary recent research and emerging directions. *Journal of Career Assessment, 15(4)*, 403-22

Betz, N. E., & Hackett, G. (1981). The relationship of career-related self-efficacy expectations to perceived career options in college women and men. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 28*(5), 399-410

Betz, N.E. & Hackett, G. (1983). The relationship of mathematics self-efficacy expectations to the selection of science-based college majors. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 23*, 329-45

Bhatnagar, D., & Swamy, R. (1995). Attitudes toward women as managers: Does interaction make a difference? *Human Relations, 48*, 1285-1307

Bielby, WT. & Bielby D.D. (1992). I will follow him: Family ties, gender-role beliefs, and reluctance to relocate for a better job. *American Journal of Sociology, 97*, 1241- 1267

Borysenko, J. (1996). *A Woman's Book of Life, Riverhead Books*, New York, NY

Bowman, G. W., Worthy, N. B., & Greyser, S. A. (1965). Are women executives people? *Harvard Business Review, 4(4).* 14-28, 164-178

Brett, J.M. & Stroh, L.K. (1994). Turnover of female managers. in Davidson, M.J. and Burke, R.J. (Eds), *Women in Management: Current Research Issues*. Paul Chapman, London

Broadbridge, A. (2008). Senior careers in retailing: an exploration of male and female executives' career facilitators and barriers. *Gender in Management, 23(1),* 11-35

Brown, D. (2003). *Career information, career counseling, and career development.* Boston: Pearson Education

Brown, D. & Brooks, L. and Associates (1990). *Career choice and development.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass

Brown, D. & Brooks, L. and Associates (1996). *Career Choice and Development.* Jossey Bass Publishers, San Francisco, CA

Brown, S.D., & Lent, R.W. (Eds.). (2004). *Career development and counseling: Putting theory and research to work.* New York: Wiley

Buckner, M. & Slavenski, L. (2000). Succession planning, *Training and Development, 54(3),* 79-80

Burke, R.J. & Karambayya, R. (2004). Women in management in Canada. in Davidson, M.J. and Burke, R.J. (Eds), *Women in Management Worldwide: Facts, Figures, and Analysis.* Ashgate, Aldershot

Burke, R.J. & Nelson, D.L. (2002). Advancing women in management: progress and prospects, in Burke, R.J. and Nelson, D.L. (Eds), *Advancing Women's Careers: Research and Practice.* Blackwell, Oxford

Burke, R.J. & Vinnicombe, S. (2005). Advancing women's careers, *Career Development International,* 10(3), 165-7

Carlson, D. S., Kacmar, K. M., & Whitten, D. (2006). What men think they know about executive women. *Harvard Business Review, 84(9),* 28

Carroll, J. (2006). *Americans prefer male boss to a female boss.* Gallup News Service. Retrieved May 6, 2009, from http://www.gallup.com.

Catalyst. (1996). *Women in corporate leadership: Progress and prospects.* New York: Catalyst

Catalyst (1998).Women entrepreneurs: why companies lose female talent and what they can do about it. Retrieved 3 April, 2008, from: www.catalyst.org/knowledge/titles/title.php?page¼lead_ womentre_98

Catalyst (1999). *Creating Women's Networks.* Catalyst, New York, NY

Catalyst. (2001). *Women in financial services: The word on the street.* New York: Catalyst

Catalyst. (2001b). *Women in law: Making the case.* New York: Catalyst

Catalyst. (2004). *Women and men in U.S. corporate leadership: Same workplace different realities?* New York: Catalyst

Catalyst (2004). *Women in Leadership: A European Business Imperative*. Catalyst, New York, NY

Catalyst and Opportunity Now (2000). *Breaking the Barriers: Women in Senior Management in the UK Report,* Opportunity Now, London

Central Informatics Organization. (2006). Woman and man in the Kingdom of Bahrain. Bahrain. Retrieved: 7th October, 2011, http://www.cio.gov.bh/CIO_ARA/English/StatPublication/10Gender/File/FinalBHStatistics(NEW).pdf

Chen, C.C., Greene, P.G. & Crick, A. (1998). Does entrepreneurial self-efficacy distinguish entrepreneurs from managers?. *Journal of Business Venturing, 13*, 295-316

Chenevert, D. & Tremblay, M. (2002). Managerial career success in Canadian organizations: Is gender a determinant? *International Journal of Human Resources Management*, 13, 920-41

Chin, J. L., Lott, B., Rice, J. K., & Sanchez-Hucles, J. (2007*). Women and Leadership: Transforming Visions and Diverse Voices*. Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing

Chronister, K. M., & McWhirter, E. H. (2003). Applying social cognitive career theory to the empowerment of battered women. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 81,* 418-425

Clark, E.A. (2000). University administrative careers in family and consumer sciences, *Journal of Family and Consumer Sciences, 92*, 89-94

Clarke. M. (2011). Advancing women's careers through leadership development programs. *Employee Relations*, 33(5), 498-515

Cleveland, J.N., Stockdale, M. & Murphy, K.R. (Eds) (2000). *Women and Men in Organizations: Sex and Gender Issues at Work.* Lawrence Erlbaum, London.

Conway, M. & Vartanian, L. (2000). A status of gender stereotypes: beyond communality and agency, *Sex Roles, 43*, 181-9

Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P.S. (2008). *Business research methods* (10th ed.). New York: McGraw Hill.

Cornelius, N. & Skinner, D. (2005). An alternative view through the glass ceiling: Using capabilities theory to reflect on the career journey of senior women. *Women in Management Review, 20(8)*, 595-609

Corporate Social Responsibility. (n.d.). Retrieved July 20, 2011, from http://www.gulfair.com/English/aboutgulfair/Pages/CorporateSocialResponsibility.aspx

Covington, M. V. & Omelich, C. L. (1979). Are casual attributions casual? A path analysis of the cognitive model of achievement motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 37*, 1487–1504

Crampton, S.M. & Mishra, J.M. (1999). Women in management. *Public Personnel Management, 28*, 87-106

Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches.* Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry & research design choosing among five approaches* (2nd ed). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Cunningham, G. B., Doherty, A. J., & Gregg, M. J. (2007). Using social cognitive career theory to understand head coaching intentions among assistant coaches of womenÂ's teams. *Sex Roles, 56*, 365-372.

Cunningham, R.B. & Sarayah, Y.K. (1993). *Wasta: the Hidden Force in the Middle Eastern Society.* Praeger, Westport, CT.

Darr, A. & Warhurst, C. (2008). Assumptions, assertions and the need for evidence: debugging debates about knowledge workers. *Current Sociology, 56(1)*, 25-45

Davidson, M.J. & Burke, R.J. (2004). *Women in Management Worldwide: Facts, Figures, and Analysis.* Ashgate, Aldershot.

Davidson, M.J., & Cooper, C.L. (1992). *Shattering the Glass Ceiling: The Woman Manager.* Paul Chapman, London.

Dawis, R.V. (1994). The theory of work adjustment as convergent theory. In M.L. Savickas & R.W. Lent (Eds), *Convergence in career development theories* (pp. 33-34). Palo Alto, CA: CPP Books

Dawis, R.V. (1996). The theory of work adjustment and person-environment correspondence couselling. In D. Brown & L. Brooks (Eds), *Career choice and development* (3rf ed., pp. 75-120). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass

Dawis, R. V. (2005). The Minnesota theory of work adjustment. In S. D. Brown & R. T. Lent (Eds.), *Career development and counseling: Putting theory and research to work* (pp. 3–23). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley

Dawis, R. V., & Lofquist, L. H. (1984). *A psychological theory of work adjustment.* Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota Press

Denzin, N., & Lincoln, Y. (2005). *The Sage Handbook of qualitative research* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Dickerson, A., & Taylor, M. A. (2000). Self-limiting behavior in women: Self-esteem and self-efficacy as predictors. *Group and Organizational Management, 25*, 191-210

Eagly, A.H. (1987). Sex differences in social behavior: A Social-role interpretation. *Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum*

Eagly, A. H. (2005). *Achieving relational authenticity in leadership: Does gender matter?* The Leadership Quarterly

Eagly, A. H., & Carli, L. L. (2007). *Through the Labyrinth: The truth about how women become leaders*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press

Eagly, A. & Diekman, A. (2005), What is the problem? Prejudice as an attitude-in-context. in Dovido, J., Glick, P. and Rudman, L. (Eds.), *On the nature of prejudice: Fifty years after Allport* (pp. 19-35). Blackwell, Malden, MA

Eagly, A.H. & Johnson, B.T. (1990). Gender and leadership style: a meta analysis, *Psychological Bulletin, 108(2)*, 233-56

Eagly, A. H., & Karau, S. J. (2002). Role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders. *Psychological Review, 109*, 573-598

Eagly, A., Wood, W., & Diekman, A. (2000b). Social role theory of sex differences and similarities: A current appraisal. in Eckes, T. and Traunter, H. (Eds.), *The Developmental Social Psychology of Gender* (pp. 123-173). Erlbaum, Mahwah, NJ

Eikhof, D. (2012). A double-edged sword: twenty-first century workplace trends and gender equality. *Gender in Management: An International Journal, 27(1)*, 7-22

El-Saadawi, N. (1997). *The Nawal El-Saadawi Reader*. Zed Books, London.

Elamin, A. & Omair, K. (2010). Males' attitudes towards working females in Saudi Arabia. *Personnel Review, 39(6), 746 - 766*

Elsaid, A.M. & Elsaid, E. (2012). Sex stereotyping managerial positions: A cross-cultural comparison between Egypt and the USA. *Gender in Management: An International Journal, 27(2)*, 81-99

Elsesser, K. & Lever, J. (2011). Does gender bias against female leaders persist? Quantitative and qualitative data from a large scale survey. *Human Relations*, 64, 1555-1578

Essic, E. J. (1999). *The multiple mentor model: Getting the mentors you need. An investigation of the effects of a skills-based program for women on perceptions of men.* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation), The University of North Carolina at Greensboro, Greensboro, NC

Ezell, H. F., Odewahn, C. A., & Sherman, J. D. (1981). The effects of having been *supervised by a woman on perceptions of female managerial competence. Personnel Psychology, 34*, 291-299

Ezzedeen, S. &, Ritchey, K. (2009). Career advancement and family balance strategies of executive women. *Gender in Management: An International Journal, 24(6),* 388 - 411

Eupen, S. (2010). *Female leadership for a sustainable European Management Model (EMM).* Katholieke Universiteit Leuven

Feldman, D.C., Folks, W.R. & Turnley, W.H. (1999). Mentor-prote´ge´ diversity and its impact on international internship experiences, *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 20*, 597-611

Felstead, A. & Jewson, N. (2000). *In Work, at Home: Towards an Understanding of Homeworking*. Routledge, London.

Felstead, A., Jewson, N. & Walters, S. (2005). *Changing Places of Work.* Palgrave Macmillan, Basingstoke

Fernando, W.D.A., & Cohen, L. (2011). Exploring the interplay between gender, organizational context and career: A Sri Lankan perspective. *Career Development International, 16(6),* 553-571

Ferry, T. R., Fouad, N. A., & Smith, P. L. (2000). The role of family context in a social cognitive model for career-related choice behavior: A math and science perspective. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 57,* 348-364

Fine, L. & Pullins, E.B. (1998). Peer mentoring dyads in the industrial sales force: does gender matter?, *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management, 18(4),* 89-103.

Fleet. (n.d.). Retrieved July 20, 2011, from http://www.gulfair.com/English/info/TravelInformation/Pages/seating.aspx

Fletcher, J.K. & Bailyn, L. (1996). Challenging the last boundary: reconnecting work and family. In Arthur, M. and Rousseau, D. (Eds), *Boundaryless Careers* (pp. 256-267). Oxford University Press, Oxford

Flores, L. Y., & O'Brien, K. M. (2002). The career development of Mexican American adolescent women: A test of social cognitive career theory. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 49,* 14-27

Fouad, N. A., & Guillen, A. (2006). Outcome expectations: Looking to the past and potential future. *Journal of Career Assessment, 14*, 130-142

Fouad, N.A. & Smith, P.L. (1996). A test of social cognitive model for middle school students: Math and Science. *Journal of Counseling, 43*, 338–346

Forret, N.L. & Dougherty, T.W. (2001). Correlates of networking behavior for managerial and professional employees. *Group & Organization Management, 26(3),* 283-311

Fu, C.K. & Shaffer, A. (2001). The tug of work and family. Direct and indirect domain-specific determinants of work-family conflict. *Personnel Review, 30(5/6)*, 502-22

Gallos, J. (1989). Exploring women's development: implications for career theory, practice, and research. In Arthur, M.B., Hall, D.T. and Lawrence, B.S. (Eds), *Handbook of Career Theory* (pp. 110-132), Cambridge University Press, Cambridge

Gardiner, M. & Tiggemann, M. (1999). Gender differences in leadership style, job stress and mental health in male- and female-dominated industries. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology,* 72, 301-315

Geringer, J.M., Frayne, A.C. & Milliman, J.F. (2002). In search of 'best practices' in international human resource management: research design and methodology. *Human Resource Management, (1),* 5-30

Gianakos, I. (1999). Patterns of career choice and career decision-making self-efficacy. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 54,* 244–258

Gibson, D. E. (2004). Role models in career development: New directions for theory and research. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 65*, 134-156

Gilligan, C. (1982). *In a Different Voice: Psychological Theory and Women's Development.* Harvard University Press, Cambridge, MA

Glazer-Raymo, J. (1999). *Shattering the Myths: Women in Academe.* John Hopkins University Press, Baltimore, MD

Graham, D. (2010). *Persistence among female musicians using the social cognitive career theory.* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation), Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana

Granleese, J. (2004). Occupational pressure in banking: gender differences. *Women in Management Review, 19(4),* 219-25.

Green, M. (1982). A Washington perspective on women and networking: the power and the pitfalls, *Journals of NAWDAC, 46*, 17-21

Greenhaus, J.H., Callanan, G.A. & Godschalk, V.M. (2000). *Career Management*, (3rd ed). Dryden Press/Harcourt College Publishers, Fort Worth, TX

Greenhaus, J.H. & Parasuraman, S. (1999). Research on work, family, and gender: current status and future directions. In Powell, G.N. (Ed.), *Handbook of Gender and Work*, Sage (pp. 391-412). Thousand Oaks, CA

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1981). *Effective evaluation: Improving the usefulness of evaluation results through responsive and naturalistic approaches.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass

Gulf Air Company - Company Profile, Information, Business Description, History, Background Information on Gulf Air Company (2000). Retrieved July 5, 2011, from http://www.referenceforbusiness.com/history2/45/Gulf-Air-Company.html

Gulf Air Company. (n.d.). Retrieved July 20, 2011, from http://www.fundinguniverse.com/company-histories/Gulf-Air-company-company-History.html

Gulf Air Destination Map. (n.d.). Retrieved July 20, 2011, from http://www.gulfair.com/English/PlanandBook/Pages/InteractiveMap.aspx

Hackett, G. & Betz, N.E. (1981). A self-efficacy approach to the career development of women. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 18*, 326-39

Hackett, G., Esposito, D., & O'Halloran, M. S. (1989). The relationship of role model influences to the career salience and educational and career plans of college women. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 35,* 164-180

Hackett, G., & Lent, R. W. (1992). Theoretical advances and current inquiry in career psychology. In S. D. Brown, & R. W. Lent (Eds.), *Handbook of counseling psychology* (2nd ed., pp. 419-452). New York: John Wiley & Sons

Hall, D.T. & Lawrence, B.S. (1989). (Eds), Handbook of Career Theory. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge

Halpern, D., F. & Cheung, F. M. (2008). *Women at the top: Powerful leaders tell us how to combine work and family.* United Kingdom: Wiley-Blackwell Publisher

Hammonds, K.H. (2004). Balance is bunk!, *Fast Company, 7*, 68-76

Hammoud, R.S. (1993). The role of women in higher education management in the Arab region, *Women in Higher Education Management*, UNESCO, Paris, 31-49

Hasan, T.N. (2011). Understating women's leadership interests and goals using Social Cognitive Career Theory. University of Akron (Doctoral dissertation), Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses. (UMI 3455340)

Haskell, J.R. (1993). Getting employees to take charge of their careers, *Training and Development, 7(2)*, 51-4

Heilman, M.E. (1983). Sex bias in work settings: The Lack of fit model. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 5*, 269

Heilman, M.E. (1995). Sex stereotypes and their effects in the workplace: What we know and what we don't know. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality,* 10

Heilman, M.E. (2001). Description and prescription: How gender stereotypes prevent women's ascent up the organizational ladder. *Journal of Social Issues, 57*, 657-674

Heilman, M.E. & Okimoto, T.G. (2007). Why are women penalized for success at male tasks? the implied communality deficit. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92(1)*, 81-92

Heilman, M.E., Wallen, A.S., Fuchs, D. & Tamkins, M.M. (2004). Penalties for success: Reactions to women who succeed at male gender-typed tasks, *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*, 416-427

Heilman, M.E. & Welle, B. (2004). Disadvantaged by diversity? The Effects of diversity goals on competence perceptions. Manuscript under review

Heneman, H.G., Schwab, D.P., Fossum, J.A. & Dyer, L.D. (1989). Personnel/Human Resource Management, Richard D. Irwin, Boston, MA

Herman, J.B. & Gyllstrom, K.K. (1977). Working men and women: inter- and intra-role conflict', *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 1*, 319-33

Herrmann, M. A. K. C. (2010). A Test of the Social Cognitive Career Theory to Predict Career Interests and Goal Setting among Multi-Ethnic, Low SES Adjudicated Adolescents. University of Minnesota (Doctoral dissertation), Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses. (UMI3434267)

Hesketh, B., & Rounds, J. (1995). International cross-cultural approaches to career development. In W. B. Walsh & S. H. Osipow (Eds.), *Handbook of vocational psychology: Theory, research, and practice* (2nd ed., pp. 367–390). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum

Hewlett, S.A. (2002). Executive women and the myth of having it all, *Harvard Business Review, 80(4)*, 66-74

Hill, E.J., Carroll, S.J., Jones, B.L., Buswell, L.A., Fackrell, T.A. & Galovan, A.M. (2011), "Temporal workplace flexibility and associated work-life outcomes for professionals", in Kaiser, S., Ringlstetter, M., Eikhof, D.R. and Pina e Cunha, M. (Eds), Creating Balance? International Perspectives on the Work-life Integration of Professionals, Springer, Heidelberg

Hill, J. (1993). Women and work – is the glass ceiling coming down?, Risk Management, www. highbeam.com/library

History. (n.d.). Retrieved July 20, 2011, from https://www.mygulfair.com/secure/Gulfair_history.asp

Holland, J. L. (1985). *Making vocational choices: A theory of vocational personalities and work environments* (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Holland, J. L. (1997). *Making vocational choices* (3rd ed.). Lutz, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources

Hutchings, K. & Weir, D. (2006). Guanxi and wasta: a comparison. *Thunderbird International Business Review, 48(1)*, 141-156

Igbaria, M. & Wormley, W. (1992). Race effects on organizational experiences and career success among MIS managers and professionals. *Management Information Systems Quarterly*, 16(4), 507-29

Ismail, M., Rasdi, R.M. & Abdul Wahat, N.W. (2005). High-flyer women academicians: factors contributing to success. *Women In Management Review, 20(2),* 117-132

Jackson, D., Hollmann, T., & Gallan, A. (2006). Examining career development programs for the sales force. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing, 21(5),* 291–299

Jackson, J.C. (2001). Women middle managers' perception of the glass ceiling. *Women in Management Review, 16(1),* 30-41.

Jamali, D., Sidani, Y. & Safieddine, A. (2005). Constraints facing working women in Lebanon: an insider view. *Women in Management Review, 20(8)*, 581-594

Janine, A.C. (2006). Field research methods in the Middle East. *PS: Political Science and Politics, 39*, 417-24

Jogulu, U & Wood, G. (2011). Women managers' career progression: an Asia Pacific perspective. *Gender in Management: An International Journal, 26(8)*, 590-603

Kanter, R.E. (1977). *Men and Women of the Corporation.* Basic Books, New York, NY

Kaplan, R.E. (1984). Trade routes: the manager's network of relationships. *Organizational Dynamics, 12(4)*, 37-52

Karmi, G. (1996). *Women, Islam and patriarchalism, in Yamani, M. (Ed.), Feminism & Islam.* New York University Press, New York, NY, 69-85

Kattara, H. (2005). Career challenges for female managers in Egyptian hotels. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *17*, 238-251

Kausar, Z. (1995). Women in feminism and politics: new directions towards Islamization. In: Omar, A. & Davidson, M.J. (2001). *Women in management: a comparative cross-cultural overview*, Cross Cultural Management, 8(3/4), 35-67

Kazemi, F. (2000). Gender, Islam and politics. *Social Research, Vol. 67(2)*, 22-34.

Kelly, E. L., Moen, P. & Tranby, E. (2011). Changing workplaces to reduce work-family conflict: schedule control in a white-collar organization. *American Sociological Review, 76(2),* 265-290

Killeen, L. A., López-Zafra, E., & Eagly, A. H. (2006). Envisioning oneself as a leader: Comparisons of women and men in Spain and the United States. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 30*, 312-322

Kirchmeyer, C. (2002). Gender differences in managerial careers: yesterday, today, and tomorrow. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 5-24

Knorr, H. (2011). From top management to entrepreneurship: women's next move?. *International Journal of Manpower*, 32, 96-116

Korabik, K. (1990). Androgyny and leadership style. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 9(4/5), 283-92

Kottke, J.L. & Agars, M.D. (2005). Understanding the processes that facilitate and hinder efforts to advance women in organizations. *Career Development International*, 10(3), 190-202

Kram, K.E. (1985). *Mentoring at Work.* Scott-Foresman, Glenview, IL.

Lam, N., Dyke, L. & Duxbury, L. (1999). Career development in best-practice organizations: critical success factors, OPTIMUM. *The Journal of Public Sector Management, 29(4)*, 22-30

Lämsä, A.M. & Hiillos, M. (2008). Career counselling for women managers at mid-career: Developing an autobiographical approach. *Gender in Management: An International Journal, 23(6)*, 395 - 408

Landry, C.C. (2003). Self-efficacy, motivation, and outcome expectation correlates of college students' intention certainty Louisiana State University and Agricultural & Mechanical College (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses (UMI3085684)

Lapan, R. T., Boggs, K. R., & Morrill, W. H. (1989). Self-efficacy as a mediator of investigative and realistic general occupationalthemes on the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 36*, 176–182

LaPierre, T & Zimmerman, M. (2012). Career advancement and gender equity in healthcare management. *Gender in Management: An International Journal, 27(*2), 100 - 118

Lee, B., Collier, P., & Cullen, J (2007). Reflections on the use of case studies in the accounting, management and organizational disciplines. *Qualitative Research in Organizations, 2(3), 169-178*

Lemons, M.A. & Parzinger, M. (2001). Designing women: a qualitative study of the glass ceiling for women in technology. *SAM Advancement Management Journal, 66(2)*, 4-11

Lent, R.W., Brown, S.D., Brenner, B., Chopra, S.B., Davis, T., Talleyrand, R., & Suthakaran, V. (2001). The role of contextual supports and barriers in the choice of math/science educational options: A test of social cognitive hypotheses. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 48*, 474-483

Lent, R. W., Brown, S. D., & Hackett, G. (1994). Monograph: Towards a Unifying Social Cognitive Theory of Career and Academic Interest, Choice, and Performance. *Journal of Vocational Behavior.* Academic Press, Inc. *45(1)*, 79-122

Lent, R. W., Brown, S. D., & Hackett, G. (2000). Contextual Supports and Barriers to Career Choice: A Social Cognitive Analysis. *Journal of Counseling Psychology. American Psychological Association, Inc. 47(1),* 26-49

Lent, R. W., Brown, S. D., & Hackett, G. (2002). Social cognitive career theory. In D. Brown & Associate (Eds.), *Career choice and development* (4th ed., pp. 255–311). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass

Lent, R. W., Brown, S. D., Nota, L., & Soresi, S. (2003). Testing social cognitive interest and choice hypotheses across Holland types in Italian high school students. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 62,* 101-118

Lent, R. W., Brown, S. D., Schmidt, J., Brenner, B., Lyons, H., & Treistman, D. (2003). Relation of contextual supports and barriers to choice behavior in engineering majors: Test of alternative social cognitive models. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 50,* 458-465

Lent, R. & Worthington, R. (2000). On School-to-Work Transition, Career Development Theories, and Cultural Validity. *The Career Development Quarterly. 48(4),* 376-383

Leung, S.A. (2008). The Big Five Career Theories. In Athanasou, James A.; Esbroeck, R. van (Eds.), *International Handbook of Career Guidance (pp. 115-132).* Springer Science + Business Media B.V

Lincoln, Y. S. & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage
Lindley, L. D. (2005). Perceived barriers to career development in the context of social cognitive career theory. *Journal of Career Assessment, 13*, 271–287

Linehan, M. (2001). Networking for female managers' career development: empirical evidence. *The Journal of Management Development, 20(9/10),* 823-829

Lips, H. M. (2000). College students' visions of power and possibility as moderated by gender. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 24*, 37-41

Lips, H. M. (2001). Envisioning positions of leadership: The expectations of university students in Virginia and Puerto Rico. *Journal of Social Issues*, *57*, 799-813

Lips, H.M. (2003). The Gender pay gap: Concrete indicator of women's progress toward equality. *Analyses of Social Issues and Public Policy, 3*, 87-109

Luthans, F., Hodgetts, R.M. & Rosenkrantz, S.A. (1988). Real Managers, Ballinger, *Cambridge, MA*

Malterud, K. (2001). Qualitative research: Standards, challenges, and guidelines. *The Lancet. 358*(9280), 483-488

Maret, E. & Finlay, B. (1984). The distribution of household labor among women in dual-earner families. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 46*, 357-64

Mattis, M. (2001). Advancing women in business organizations: Key leadership roles and behaviors of senior leaders and middle managers. *Journal of Management Development, 20(4)*, 371-388

Maxwell, G.A., S.M. Ogden, & D. McTavish, (2007). Enabling the career development of female managers in finance and retail. *Women In Management Review, 22(5)*, 353 - 370

McDaniels, C. & Gysbers, N.C. (1992). *Counseling for Career Development: Theories, Resources and Practice.* Jossey-Bass Publishers, San Francisco, CA.

McElwee, G. and Al-Riyami, R. (2003). Women entrepreneurs in Oman: some barriers to Success. *Career Development International, 8(7)*, 339-346

Media Center. (2009). Retrived July 21, 2011, from: http://www.gulfair.com/English/aboutgulfair/Pages/News.aspx?newsno=48

MENA (2007). *MENA: Middle East and North Africa Gender Overview*. The World Bank, Washington, DC

Mernissi, F. (1991). *The Veil and the Male Elite: A Feminist Interpretation of Women's Rights in Islam.* Perseus Books, Cambridge, MA

Merriam, S. B. (1988). *Case study in research in education: A qualitative approach.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass

Metcalfe, D.B. (2006). Exploring Cultural Dimensions of Gender and Management in the Middle East. *Thunderbird International Business Review, 48(1),* 93–107

Metcalfe, B.D. (2008). Women, management and globalization in the Middle East. *Journal of Business Ethics, 83*, 85-100

Metz, I. (2003). Organizational links to women's advancement in management in banks, *Women in Management Review, 18(5),* 236-51

Metz, I. & Tharenou, P. (2001). Women's career advancement: the relative contribution of human and social capital. *Group and Organization Management, 26(3),* 312-42

Michael, J. & Yukl, G. (1993). Managerial level and sub-unit function as the determinants of network behaviour in organizations. *Group and Organization Management, 18(3*), 328-51

Michie, S. & Nelson, D. (2006). Barriers women face in information technology careers: Self-efficacy, passion and gender biases. *Women In Management Review, 21(1)*, 10-27

Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: A sourcebook of new methods* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Ministry of National Economy (2003). *Oman Human Development Report*. Sultanate of Oman

Moghadam, V. (1992). Women, employment and social change in the Middle East and North Africa. In Kahne, H. and Giele, J. (Eds), *Women's Work and Women's Lives: The Continuing Struggle Worldwide*. Westview Press, Boulder, 87-116

Moghadam, V. (2004). Patriarchy in transition: women and the changing family in the Middle East. *Journal of Comparative Family Studies*, 35(2), 137-52

Moore, J.D. (2006). Women in construction management: Creating a theory of career choice and development. Colorado State University (Doctoral dissertation), Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses. (UMI3226145)

Morgan, D. L. (1988). *Focus groups as qualitative research.* Newbury Park, CA: SAGE Publications

Morgan, D. L. (1998). *Planning focus groups.* Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications

Morrison, A.M., White, R.P. & van Velsor, E. (1987). *Breaking the Glass Ceiling*. Addision-Wesley, Reading, MA

Morrison, K.M. (1992). *The New Leaders: Guidelines on the Leadership Diversity in America.* Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, CA

Mostafa, M. (2003). Attitudes towards women who work in Egypt. *Women in Management Review, 18*, 252-66

Mostafa, M. (2005). Attitudes towards women managers in the United Arab Emirates The effects of patriarchy, age, and sex differences. *Journal of Managerial Psychology 20(6)*, 522-540

Nauta, M. M. (1997). *Women in mathematics, science, and engineering college majors: A model predicting career aspirations based on ability, self-efficacy, role model influence, and role conflict.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Iowa State University, Ames

Nazzah, N. (2004). *Working national women will be released from duty by 4pm.* Gulf News, March 1, 3

Neathey, F., Dench, S. & Thomas, L. (2003). Monitoring progress towards pay equality, Institute for Employment Studies report on behalf of the Equal Opportunities Commission, (www.eoc.org.uk)

Neelankavil, J.P., Mathur, J.P. & Zhang, Y. (2000). Determinants of managerial performance: a cross-cultural comparison of the perceptions of middle-level managers in four countries. *Journal of International Business Studies, 31(1)*, 121-40

Nelson, D.L. & Burke, R.J. (2000). Women executives: health, stress, and success. *Academy of Management Executive, 14(2),* 107-21

Nicklin, J. (2009). Effects of regulatory focus and counter factual thought on goal pursuit in achievement settings: A social cognitive perspective. *Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: The Science and Engineering, 70*, 3214

Noe, R. & Wilk, S. (1993). Investigation of the factors that influence employees' participation in development activities. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78, 291-302

O'Neil, D.A., & Bilimoria, D. (2005). Women's career development phases: Idealism, endurance, and reinvention. *Career Development International, 10(3)*, 168 – 189

Ogenyi, O. & Victoria, O. (2004). A qualitative evaluation of women as managers in the Nigerian civil service. T*he International Journal of Public Sector Management, 17(4),* 360-73.

Olsson, S. & Walker, R. (2004). The wo-men and the boys: patterns of identification and differentiation in senior women executives' representations of career identity. *Women in Management Review, 19(5),* 244-251

Omair, K. (2008). Women in management in the Arab context. *Education, Business and Society: Contemporary Middle Eastern Issues, 1(2),* 107-23

Omair, K. (2010). Typology of career development for Arab women managers in the United Arab Emirates. *Career Development International, 15(2)*, 121 – 143

Osipow, S.H. & Fitzgerald, L.H. (1996). *Theories of Career Development, 4th ed.* Allyn & Bacon, Needham Heights, MA

Patton, W., & McMahon, M. (1999). *Career development and systems theory: A new relationship.* Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole

Pemberton, C., Stevens, S. & Travers, C. (1996). Women's networking across boundaries: recognizing different cultural agendas, Book of Proceedings, The British Psychological Society, paper presented at Annual Occupational Psychology Conference, 3-5 January, 327-33.Podsakoff, P.M.

Pocock, B. (2009). *Working women in South Australia: progress, prospects, and challenges.* A Report to the Premier's Council for Women, Centre for WorkþLife, University of South Australia, Adelaide

Powell, G.N. (Ed.) (1999). *Handbook of Gender and Work.* Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA

Powell, G.N. (2000). The glass ceiling: explaining the good and bad news. In Davidson, M. and Borke, R. (Eds), *Women in Management: Current Research Issues*. Sage, London

Powell, G.N. (2012). Six ways of seeing the elephant: the intersection of sex, gender, and leadership. *Gender in Management - An International Journal, 27(2),* 119-141

Powell, G. N. (2011b). *Women and men in management, 4th ed.* Los Angeles: Sage.

Powell, G.N. & Butterfield, D.A. (2003). Gender, gender identity, and aspirations to top Management. *Women in Management Review, 18(1/2)*, 86-96

Powell, E. & Renner, S. (2003). *Analyzing Qualitative Data, Program Development and Evaluation*. University of Wisconsin, Wisconsin, 1-12

Ragins, B.R. & Candura, T. (1994). Diversified mentoring relationships in organisation power perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, 482-521

Ragins, B.R. & Cotton, J. (1991). Easier said than done: gender differences in perceived barriers to gaining a mentor. *Academy of Management Journal, 34*, 939-51

Ragins, B.R., Townsend, B. & Mattis, M. (1998). Gender gap in the executive suite: CEOs and female executives report on breaking the glass ceiling. *Academy of Management Executive, 12(1),* 28-42

Richardson, C. (1996). Snakes and ladders? The differing career patterns of male and female accountants. *Women in Management Review, 11(4),* 13-19

Rhode, D. (2003). The difference 'Difference' makes: women and leadership. In Rhode, D. (Ed.), *The Difference "Difference" Makes: Women and Leadership.* Stanford University Press, Stanford, *CA*, 59-80

Rhode, D.L. & Kellerman, B. (2007). Women and leadership: the state of play. In Kellerman, B. and Rhode, D.L. (Eds), *Women and Leadership: The State of Play and Strategies for Change*. John Wiley & Sons, Chichester

Richardson, M. S. (1993). Work in people's lives: A location for counseling psychologists. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 40*, 425–433

Rogier, S.A. & Padgett, M.Y. (2004). The impact of utilizing a flexible work schedule on the perceived career advancement potential of women. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 15(1),* 89-106

Roth, L.M. (2003). Selling women short: A Research note on gender differences in compensation on Wall Street. *Social Forces, 82,* 783-802

Rowan, M. & Huston, P. (1997). Qualitative research articles: information for authors and peer reviewers. *Canadian Medical Association Journal, 157(10)*, 1142-46

Ruderman, M.N., Ohlott, P.J., Panzer, K. & King, S.N. (2002). Benefits of multiple roles for managerial women. *Academy of Management Journal, 45(2)*, 369-387

Salzman, A. (1996). *Woman versus woman*. U.S. News and World Report, 120, 50-4

Savickas, M. L. (2002). Career construction: A developmental theory of vocational behavior. In D. Brown & Associate (Eds.), *Career choice and development* (4th ed., pp. 149–205). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Savickas, Mark L. (2005). *The Theory and Practice of Career Construction. in Career Development and Counseling: Putting Theory and Research to Work*, edited by S. D. Brown and R. W. Lent. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons., 42-70

Sax, L. J., & Bryant, A. N. (2006). The impact of college on sex-atypical career choices of men and women. *Journal of Behavior, 68,* 52-63

Schein, V. (1973). The relationship between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 57, 95-100

Schein, V. (1975). Relationships between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics among female managers. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 60*, 340-344

Schein, V.E. (2001). A global look at psychological barriers to women's progress in management. *Journal of Social Issues, 57(4)*, 675-88

Schein, V. (2007). Women in management: Reflections and projections. *Women in Management Review, 22*, 6-18

Schien, V.E. (2001). A global look at psychological barriers to women's progress in management. *Journal of Social Issues, 57(4)*, 675-688

Sears, S.J. (1982). A definition of career guidance terms: A national vocational guidance association perspective. *Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 31(2),* 137–143

Seikaly, M. (1994). Women and Social Change in Bahrain. *International Journal of Middle East Studies, 26(3),* 415-426

Shah, N. & Al-Qudsi, S. (1990). Female work roles in traditional oil economy: Kuwait. *Research in Human Capital and Development, (6),* 213-46

Shank, G. D. (2006). *Qualitative research: A personal skills approach.* Upper SaddleRiver, N.J. Pearson Merrill Prentice Hall

Shelton, B. (1992). *Women, men, and time: Gender differences in paid work, housework, and leisure.* Greenwood, New York, NY

Sidani, Y. (2005). Women, work, and Islam in Arab societies, *Women in Management Review, 20(7),* 498-512

Simmons, W. W. (2001). When it comes to choosing a boss, Americans still prefer men. *Gallup News Service.* Retrieved September 10, 2001, from http://www.gallup.com

Simpson, R., Sturges, J., Woods, A. & Altman, Y. (2004). Career progress and career barriers: women MBA graduates in Canada and the UK. *Career Development International, 9(4/5)*, 459-77

Singh, V. & Vinnicombe, S. & Kumra, S. (2006). Women in formal corporate networks: an organisational citizenship perspective. *Women In Management Review, 21(6),* 458 - 482

Spokane, A. R. (1996). Holland's theory. In D. Brown, L. Brooks & Associates (Eds.), *Career Choice & Development* (3rd ed., pp. 33-74). San Francisco: Jossey- Bass

Stake, R. E. (1995). *The art of case study research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Still. L.V. (2006). Where are the women in leadership in Australia?. *Women in MAnagemenr Review, 21(3),* 180-194

Stone, P. (2007). *Opting out? Why women really quit careers and head home*. University of California Press, Berkeley

Strauss, A. & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of Qualitative Research*. Sage, Newbury Park, CA
Sullivan, S. E., & Mainiero, L. A. (2006). Benchmarking ideas for fostering family-friendly workplaces. *Organizational Dynamics, 36*, 45-62

Super, D. E. (1976). Career education and meaning of work. Monograph on career education. Washington, D. C. : The Office of Career Education, U.S. Office of Education

Super, D. W. (1980). A life-span, life-space approach to career development. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 16*, 282–298

Super, D. E. (1990). A life-span, life-space approach to career development. In D. Brown & L. Brooks (Eds.), *Career choice and development: Applying contemporary approaches to practice* (2nd ed., pp. 197–261). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass

Super, D. E., & Sverko, I. (Eds.). (1995). *Life roles, values and careers: International findings of work importance study*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass

Supreme Council for Women. (2013). *Bahraini woman in numbers*. Kingdom of Bahrain

Surrey, J.L. (1991). The 'self-in-relation': a theory of women's development. in Jordan, J.V., Kaplan, A.G., Miller, J.B., Stiver, I.P. and Surrey, J.L. (Eds), *Women's Growth in Connection: Writings from the Stone Center.* The Guilford Press, New York, NY, 51-66

Tang, M., Fouad, N. A., & Smith, P. L. (1999). Asian Americans' career choices. A path model to examine factors influencing their career choice. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 54*, 142–157

Taylor, K.M. & Pompa, J. (1990). An examination of the relationships among career decision-making self-efficacy, career salience, locus of control, and vocational indecision. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 37*, 17-31

Thanacoody, P.R., Bartram, T., Barker, M., & Jacobs, K. (2006). Career progression among female academics: A comparative study of Australia and Mauritius. *Women In Management Review, 21(7)*, 536 – 553

Tharenou, P. (1999). Gender differences in advancing to the top, *International Journal of Management Review, (2)*, 111-32

Tharenou, P. (2005). Women's advancement in management: What is known and future areas to address. in Burke, R.J., and Mattis M.C. (Eds), *Supporting Women's Career Advancement: Challenges and Opportunities*. Edward Elgar, Cheltenham, 31 57

The Department of Education and Science. (1989). *Career education and guidance from 5-16.* London: HMSO

Times of Oman (2005). *HM: women will be empowered.* Times of Oman, October, p. 1.

Tlaiss, H., & Kauser, S. (2010). Perceived organizational barriers to women's career advancement in Lebanon. *Gender in Management: An International Journal, 25(6),* 462 – 496

Tlaiss, H., & Kauser, S. (2011). The impact of gender, family, and work on the career advancement of Lebanese women managers. *Gender in Management: An International Journal, 26(1),* 8 - 36

Tlaiss, H. (2009). *Managerial progression: the case of Lebanon.* unpublished PhD thesis, Manchester Business School, University of Manchester, Manchester

Turner, S. L. & Lapan, R. (2005). Evaluation of an intervention to increase nontraditional career-interests and career-related self-efficacy among middle-school adolescents. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 66,* 516–531

Valcour, P.M. & Ladge, J.J. (2008). Family and career path characteristics as predictors of women's career success outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 73(2),* 300-309.

Van Fleet, D, D. (1988). *Contemporary Management.* Houghton-Mufflin Company, Boston, MA

Vinnacombe, S. (2002). *The 2002 Female FTSE 100 Report: Women Directors Moving Forwards.* Cranfield Management School

Vinnicombe, S. & Colwill, N. (1995). *The Essence of Women in Management.* Prentice Hall, London

Vinnicombe, S. & Singh, V. (2003). Locks and keys to the boardroom. *Women in Management Review, 18(6),* 325-33

Warhurst, C., Eikhof, D.R. & Haunschild, A. (2008). Out of balance or just out of bounds? Mapping the relationship between work and life. In Warhurst, C., Eikhof, D.R. and Haunschild, A. (Eds), *Work Less, Live More? Critical Analysis of the Work-Life Boundary.* Palgrave, Basingstoke

Weber, R. P. (1990). *Basic content analysis (2nd ed.).* Newbury Park, CA: SAGE Publications

Weir, D.T. (2003). Human resource development in the Arab Middle East: a fourth paradigm. In Lee, M. (Ed.), *HRD in a Complex World.* Routledge, London, 69-82

Welle, B. & Heilman, M.E. (2005). *Formal and informal discrimination against women at work. The role of gender stereotype.* Harvard University, 1-18

Weyer, B. (2007). Twenty years later: explaining the persistence of the glass ceiling for women leaders. *Women in Management Review, 22(6),* 482-496

Wentling, R.M. (2003). The career development and aspirations of women in middle management – revisited. *Women In Management Review, 18(6),* 311 – 324

Wilkinson, G. (1996). *Women in Business.* Gulf Business, Dubai

Wise, A.J. & Millward, L.J. (2005). The experiences of voluntary career change in 30-somethings and implications for guidance. *Career Development International, 10(5),* 400-417

Williams, C. M., & Subich, L. M. (2006). The gendered nature of career related learning experiences: A social cognitive career theory perspective. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 69,* 262-275

Winn, J. (2004). Entrepreneurship: not an easy path to top management for women. *Women in Management Review, 19(3),* 143-53

Wirth, L. (2001). *Breaking the Glass Ceiling: Women in Management.* International Labor Organization, Geneva

Wood, R. & Bandura, A. (1989). Social cognitive theory of organizational management. *Academy of Management Review, 14(3),* 361-84

Yeagley, E. E., Subich, L. M., & Tokar, D. M. (2010). Modeling college women's perceptions of elite leadership positions using social cognitive career theory. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 77,* 30-38. doi: 10.1016/j.jvb.2010.02.003

Yin, R. K. (1994). *Case study research (2nd ed.).* Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications

Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case study research: Design and methods (4th ed.).* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Yoo, G. (2003). Women in the workplace: gender and wage differentials. *Social Indicators Research, 63(1),* 367-78

APPENDIX A: Interview Guide Template for interview with Gulf Air participants

Section 1 Demographic data

- Age
- Marital status
- No. of children

Section 2 Work experience:

- What is your position?
- What are the duties/functions/responsibilities of your job?
- What kinds of problems do you deal with?
- What kinds of decisions do you make?
- Where does this position fit into the organizational structure (lower, middle, senior)?
- How many years have you been employed in this company?
- How long have you been in your current position, and what was your career path to get there?
- What things did you do before you entered this occupation?
- What sorts of changes are occurring in your occupation?
- What were the keys to your career advancement? How did you get where you are?
- Are you confident in your ability to handle more responsibilities?
- What are your greatest strengths? Weaknesses?

Sections 3 Education and Training

- What are your academic qualifications?
- What are the educational requirements for this job?
- What other types of credentials are required?
- What types of training did you receive in your company?
- Does your company encourage further education?
- Does your work relate to any experiences or studies you had?

- What abilities or personal qualities do you believe contribute most to success in this job?
- Did you enter this position through a formal training program?
- How does the company evaluate whether or not you have the necessary skills for your position?
- What does the company do to contribute to its employees' professional development?

Section 4 Barriers to women career development

- Why do you think women are underrepresented in elite jobs?
- Have you ever been effected by gender stereotypes? Give an example?
- Do you prefer a male or a female boss? Why?
- Does your family and/or children impose restrictions in your career development?
- How do you compare women career development to men in your organization?
- Is your boss supportive?
- Is your organization culture supportive of women?
- Have you ever felt that your organization discriminates between men and woman in their career plans?
- Have you ever felt that women are less appreciated in recruitment, promotions and performance evaluations, salary?
- Did you even think that Islam poses any restriction on your career development for example work segregation?
- Do you feel any resistance to women in management in your organization?
- Does your organization have any policies to for women career development?
- What obstacles did you encounter? How did you handle them? What was the eventual outcome?
- Do you have access to formal or informal networks in the organization?
- Does ICT help balance work with family?

Sections 5 Enablers of women career development

- What do you expect from your employer?
- Is there is existing plan for your career development?

- What are the opportunities for advancement?
- If your job progresses as you like, what would be the next step in your career?
- Do you fill positions from the outside or promote from within first?
- Does your company support nationalization?
- How is your work evaluated?
- What types of performance appraisals are used in your organization?
- What are your policies concerning benefits?
- Have you been assigned to a mentor to coach and facilitate your career development?
- Have you held any leadership responsibilities? If so, what were they and what did you learn from this experience? If you didn't hold any leadership responsibilities, why not?
- Are you exposed to challenging assignments?
- Do you work closely with influential senior people?
- Does your company to facilitate the formulation of policies affecting women, primarily in areas of education, employment, health and finance?
- Does your organization provide training in skill development?
- Do you think family support has an impact on your career development?
- How do you balance your work and personal life?
- How has your job affected your lifestyle?
- What can you tell about the corporate culture?
- How would you describe the working atmosphere and the people with whom you work?
- Is there flexibility related to work hours, vacation schedule, place of residence, etc.?
- What obligations does your employer place have on you outside of the ordinary work week? What social obligations go along with a job in your occupation?
- What motivates you?
- What are the major rewards aside from extrinsic rewards such as money, fringe benefits, travel, etc.?
- Does your company conduct any research into the activities and achievement of women?
- Does your organization liaise with national, regional and international agencies involved in women's development programs?
- What national efforts are needed to help support women?

Section 6 Goals

- What position would you like to have in the future? Why?
- What actions do you need to take in order to continue advancing in your career?
- What kind of experience would you encourage for anybody pursuing a career in this company?
- What special advice do you have for people seeking to qualify for your position?

ملخص

التطوير الوظيفي للمرأة في البحرين:
حالة وصفية في شركة طيران الخليج

إن الهدف من هذه البحث هو دراسة التطوير الوظيفي للمرأة لمحاولة فهم انخفاظ نسبة المرأة في المناصب القيادية. وتم تطبيق هذه الدراسة من خلال حالة وصفية في شركة طيران الخليج. ركزت هذه الدراسة على المديرات البحرينيات الإناث. تناول البحث التطوير الوظيفي من خلال الاجراءات والعوامل المؤثرة وتجارب هذه النساء.

تم تطبيق البحث النوعي كوسيلة أساسية لجمع وتحليل البيانات. تم استخدام التقنية البحثية "كرة الثلج" لجمع عينة من 16 امرأة يشغلن مناصب إدارية في الشركة. وتم تحليل آراء المشاركات وخبراتهن، من خلال مقابلات شبه منظمة باستخدام التحليل المضموني للمعلومات المستقاة. المعلومات التي تم جمعها تتعلق بالكفاءة الذاتية، حواجز التطوير الوظيفي، والعوامل المساعدة للتطوير الوظيفي، ونظم الدعم اللازمة المرأة، العوامل المؤثرة في التوقعات المهنية والأهداف المهنية في المستقبل.

أقوى مصدر للكفاءة الذاتية التي ذكرت هي الإنجازات. إلى جانب ذللك التعليم، التدريب والخبرة والشخصية هي مصادر مهمة للنساء لتحقيق إمكاناتهم. فيما يتعلق بالحواجز الوظيفية ودعماً للبحوث السابقة المتعلقة بالتطوير الوظيفي للمرأة، الصور النمطية والتوازن بين العمل والأسرة هما الحاجزان الرئيسيان لحياة المرأة المهنية. خلافا لغيرها من الأبحاث، فإن النساء في هذه الدراسة لم يذكرن التمييز بين الجنسين في العمل كحاجز وظيفي. وقد نوقشت أيضا العوامل المساعدة على التطوير الوظيفي، وهذه العوامل كانت فرص التعليم والتدريب والتوجيه والعلاقات المهنية والشخصية. بالإضافة إلى ذلك، هناك حاجة إلى جهود في المؤسسات وجهود وطنية تأخذ في الاعتبار دور المرأة في الحياة والعمل من أجل المساهمة في تمكين المرأة. غالبية النساء في هذه الدراسة تطمح للوصول إلى أعلى الرتب، ونظرتهن حول امكانية تحقيق ذلك يعتمد على عوامل مثل الكفاءة الذاتية، توقعاتهم والبيئة المحيطة بهم.

التوصيات المستقبلية المقترحة ترتبط بالمناقشات التي حصلت. من المقترح تكرار هذه الدراسة في المؤسسات الأخرى في نفس القطاع والقطاعات الاخرى. وأخذ أيضا نظرة الرجل إلي المرأة القيادية. يؤمل من هذا البحث أن يساهم في محدودية البحوث التي أجريت على مهنة المرأة القيادية في البحرين.

جامعة البحرين

كلية إدارة الأعمال

قسم الإدارة والتسويق

التطوير الوظيفي للمرأة في البحرين:
حالة وصفية في شركة طيران الخليج

رسالة مقدمة كجزء من متطلبات الحصول على درجة الماجستير في
إدارة الأعمال

إعداد

إيمان محمد رشيد

بكالريوس نظم المعلومات الإدارية، جامعة البحرين، مملكة البحرين، 2005

إشراف

د. إبتهاج العالي

أستاذ مساعد في الإدارة

جامعة البحرين

مملكة البحرين

يونيو/2013م