



DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION AMONG DUBAI POLICE EMPLOYEES

By

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Declaration

This is to certify that the work submitted in this thesis under the title: **Determinants of Job Satisfaction among Dubai Police Employees** is original research. No part of this work has been accepted in substance for any degree and is not currently submitted in candidature for any degree.

Signed.....Jassem Mohammed Abdulla

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This thesis is the result of my own work and investigations, except where otherwise stated. All authors and works to which reference has been made are fully acknowledged. A bibliography is appended.

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Signed.....Jassem Mohammed Abdulla

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my parents, my wife, my children,
my brothers and sisters

Abstract

Job satisfaction is one of the methods used to establish and maintain a healthy organisational structure. It has been frequently investigated in studies that deal with organisational strategies because of its potential impact on work attitudes such as job performance, productivity and organisational commitment. Although researchers have identified many factors that relate to job satisfaction, the majority of these factors can be grouped into two broad categories: (a) personal factors, and (b) environmental factors. Although personal and environmental factors are utilised as distinctly competing models of job satisfaction, researchers argue that the work environment is a better predictor of job satisfaction.

Most, if not all, scales used to measure job satisfaction have been developed in Western countries. The aim of this study is to identify the determinants of job satisfaction in one of the largest public sector organisations in the United Arab Emirates, namely, the Dubai Police Force (DPF), and then, to develop a model of job satisfaction linking antecedents and consequences to job satisfaction.

The police, like any other public sector organisation, needs to develop and maintain a strong relationship with its human resources in order to effectively perform crime fighting and service provider roles. The issue of job satisfaction, particularly amongst Middle East police force employees, has received only limited research attention. Although some studies have tried to identify the indicators of job satisfaction among police employees, empirical findings on those indicators have generally been sparse and inconclusive.

The study employed a mixed method approach to meet its aims and to increase the reliability and validity of the results. The research strategy adopted involved sequential procedures. A qualitative study was conducted first to explore the research issue and to provide in-depth evidence for the research objectives (stage one). The results from the qualitative study were used to develop a scale. The quantitative study was carried out to explore the determinants of job satisfaction among the DPF employees (stage two). Five separate data collections (in-depth interviews, focus group, expert panel, pilot testing, and survey-DPF employees) were conducted, involving a total of 1,075 respondents.

The results of this study support the conclusions of previous research that the work environment is a better predictor of job satisfaction than individual demographic variables and that personal factors are of little value to understanding job satisfaction. The results show that 47% of the variance in job satisfaction scores can be explained by eleven environmental and four personal variables (in order of importance): salary and incentives, nature of the work, public perception, organisational policy and strategy, relationships with co-workers, supervision, promotion opportunity, performance appraisal, professional development, communication, job stress, nationality, sex, shift work and public contact. Accordingly, several policy implications of the findings and recommendations for future research are discussed.

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List of Abbreviations

EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
DJSS	Dubai Job Satisfaction Scale
DPF	Dubai Police Force
GCC	Gulf Cooperation Council
GJS	General Job Satisfaction
GNS	Growth Need Strength
JDI	Job Descriptive Index
JDS	Job Diagnostic Survey
JIG	Job in General Scale
JSI	Job Satisfaction Index
JSS	Job Satisfaction Survey
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
KPI	Key Performance Indicator
MOE	Ministry of Economy
MOI	Ministry of Interior
MPS	Motivating Potential Score
MSQ	Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire
NMC	National Media Council
OC	Organisational Commitment
OCB	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
PCA	Principle Components Analysis
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
TQM	Total Quality Management
UAE	United Arab Emirates
VIF	Variance Inflation Factors

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CHAPTER TEN: CONCLUSIONS

10.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overall summary of the research findings and their contribution to existing knowledge, it discusses the possible research limitations, and outlines avenues of future inquiry within the research area.

10.2 Conclusions

- The two main aims of this research were (1) to identify the determinants of job satisfaction in one of the largest public sector organisations in the United Arab Emirates, namely, the Dubai Police Force (DPF), and (2) to develop a model of job satisfaction linking antecedents and consequences to job satisfaction. Five separate data collection techniques (in-depth interviews, focus group, expert panel, pilot testing, and survey of DPF employees) were adopted, resulting in the development by the researcher of a multi-dimensional scale which has demonstrated its validity and reliability. The ease of use of the DJSS and its availability in two languages (Arabic and English) are practical strengths. The DJSS has the potential to make a considerable contribution in both theoretical and practical terms and might be a useful tool for the descriptive qualification of job satisfaction. It can also provide a valuable research instrument, particularly in Arab-Islamic countries. However, the DJSS designed for this study needs to be validated further. Work is ongoing to investigate discriminant, convergent and predictive validity and test-retest and inter-rater reliability in order to assess its capacity to detect change over time (Study limitations will be more discussed in section 10.4).

- One of the research objectives was to assess the level of general job satisfaction among DPF employees. The current findings, consistent with previous worldwide studies, showed that the number of satisfied employees exceeds those who are unsatisfied, and also that DPF employees are as satisfied as employees from many Western countries. Based on the results, the determinants of job satisfaction among DPF employees were identified. More importantly, this research identified eleven environmental and four personal determinants of job satisfaction among DPF employees. Personal determinants were: sex, nationality, shift work, and public contact. Indeed, this research is one of the few studies in the Middle East region to have studied the effect of the status of nationality, shift work, and public contact on job satisfaction. Environmental determinants (in order of importance) are: salary and incentives, nature of the work, public perception, organisational policy and strategy, relationship with co-workers, supervision, promotion opportunity, performance appraisal, professional development, communication, and job stress. The last four variables were weak predictors of job satisfaction. The findings support the conclusion of previous research that the work environment is a better predictor of job satisfaction than individual demographic variables and that personal factors are of little value to understanding job satisfaction.
- The results from the current research indicate that there is a strong, positive association between job satisfaction and OC and OCB. One critical requirement is the need to ensure that the working environment in the police sector enhances job satisfaction and thereby increases OC and OCB. Since the DJSS dimensions were strongly correlated with the GJS, which in itself was strongly correlated with the OC and OCB, this would imply that the DJSS subscales are correlated with the OC and OCB. These findings support the concurrent validity of the DJSS.

To sum up, the results highlight the importance of the work environment in improving employee job satisfaction and enhancing productivity. Organisational commitment to

quality improvement, effectiveness and productivity implies, therefore, that all work-related factors, especially salary and incentives, should be reviewed periodically.

10.3 Contribution to Existing Knowledge

This study has addressed some of the most important issues within the contemporary literature relating to job satisfaction. More specifically, the contribution has been through the following:

- This study is the first to construct a job satisfaction scale for use in Arab countries. Indeed, there is control over the scales market in developed countries, particularly in the USA. The use of, and access to, these scales require the payment of fees and also require permission from the publishers. As discussed in Chapter One, the popular job satisfaction scales were developed in Western cultures which differ from Arab cultures. Consequently, the researcher was keen to construct a new scale that is congruent with the Arab and Islamic culture. In term of scale generalisability, the DJSS was used in two other Arab countries, namely, Qatar and Libya.
- The model developed by this study extends the present knowledge on how job satisfaction is affected by a number of factors (i.e. personal and environmental factors) and on how job satisfaction affects other organisational behaviours (i.e. OC and OCB). A review of existing literature indicates that little research has been undertaken to develop a model for job satisfaction including both antecedents and consequences.
- In terms of results, this research has discovered unique variables which have not been well identified in previous studies. More especially, personal variables like nationality, and shift work, and public contact have been isolated as of real importance. Environmental variables, namely, public perception, job stress, and performance appraisal, have not been previously examined. The inclusion of

these dimensions in the DJSS gives the DJSS advantage and distinction over other western job satisfaction scales. As a consequence, the DJSS contains unique dimensions designed especially for non-western countries like the UAE. These findings might also stimulate future research work to investigate the influence of these three dimensions on job satisfaction among Western cultures. In addition, OC and OCB have not received much attention in prior research, and particularly in Arab countries.

- From the academic point of view, there has been no academic research undertaken in the police context in the UAE. Even in the Middle East countries, there was little research on job satisfaction in police sectors. So, this study is considered to be the first advanced academic project leading to the degree of PhD in the DPF. Therefore, the DJSS is considered the first valid and reliable scale measuring job satisfaction in the police context in the Middle East region.
- It is anticipated that the results of this study may be of interest to both academic and professional communities. The parties who may find the research findings useful include:
 - (a) Police sectors, especially those operating in organisational development and reform systems in Arab countries.
 - (b) Academic communities, through the inclusion of this study in the current academic literature on job satisfaction in police sectors over the world.

10.4 Limitations

Most research has limitations and this study is no exception, embodying several limitations as follows:

- There are a number of concerns about the value and measurement of job satisfaction. Employees' job satisfaction has proven useful as a predictor of turnover among employees, but the concept is inherently difficult to quantify. For example, researchers often find that surveys with ostensibly similar satisfaction

- Although the scale development process is of critical importance, it is time-consuming, costly, and sometimes too sophisticated during the evaluation period.
- The DJSS designed for this study needs to be validated further. Recommendations for further validation tests are discussed in section 10.6.2.

- The researcher has not found a good reference for the DPF, other than the information found on its website. Consequently, this study is considered to be the first of its kind in the police sector in the UAE generally and in the DPF specifically. Because of confidential information, the General Department of State Security was excluded from this research.

- The sample researched was from the DPF organisation, which may in turn limit the generalisability of the study's findings to all public sector organisations. However, the DPF sample can somewhat be representative of the remaining public sector organisations in the UAE. Additionally, the DJSS has been used in two other Arab countries, namely Qatar and Libya, providing satisfactory and encouraging results.

There is no doubt that the absence of the above limitations could have made the outcome of the research much more reliable. It would have helped to form a better understanding of the weaknesses that need to be looked at and investigated, in order to ensure higher levels of job satisfaction and sustain it at those levels.

10.5 The Proposed use of the DJSS in Assessing the Effectiveness of Different Dimensions Related to Employees' Work Environment

The DJSS has the potential to make a considerable contribution in both theoretical and practical terms, and might be a useful tool for a descriptive qualification of job satisfaction. Additionally, it stands as a valuable research tool, particularly in Arab and Islamic countries.

The DJSS could be used to identify the potentially dissatisfying factors among employees. As such, it is suggested that the DJSS could be used as a tool to assist in the interpretation of employees' satisfaction through the comparison of factor or dimension satisfaction scores with the expressed general job satisfaction. An example of such usage is provided in Table 10.1.

Table 10.1: The Proposed use of the DJSS in Assessing the Effectiveness of Different Dimensions Related to Employees' Work Environment

Expressed Satisfaction with the DJSS Dimensions	Expressed General Job Satisfaction	
	Dissatisfied	Satisfied
Dissatisfied	(A) Dire Level (Corrective actions essential)	(C) Adequate Level (Optimal level not assumed)
Satisfied	(B) Inadequate (Corrective actions pending assessment)	(D) Optimal Level (Reinforce current strategy)

First, in order to identify the percentage of participants who were satisfied or dissatisfied with each dimension or the general job satisfaction (GJS), the total score of each dimension needs to be divided by the total number of items in the relevant dimension. The same method was applied to the GJS. Then, the generated variables should be re-coded as categorical variables as follows:

- Values ranging from 1 to 3.4 to be labelled as ‘dissatisfied’
- Values ranging from 3.5 to 4.4 to be labelled as ‘neutral’
- Values ranging from 4.5 to 7 to be labelled as ‘satisfied’

Those with ‘neutral’ responses need to be excluded in order to obtain binary variables (dissatisfied vs. satisfied). Secondly, each dimension (dissatisfied vs. satisfied) would be cross-tabulated with the general job satisfaction variable (dissatisfied vs. satisfied). Then, percentages of employees representing each cell (A, B, C and D) of the above table would be determined. The organisation then needs to choose the desired level for satisfaction towards each dimension and the general job satisfaction. For example, if the desired satisfaction level was 80%, then the threshold level for dissatisfaction would be 20%. This means that dissatisfaction toward each dimension or the general job satisfaction would be a problem if the total percentage of dissatisfied employees exceeded the threshold level (20%).

This analysis would help to identify the work environment dimensions that need reviewing and improving, and help organisations to develop efficient strategies. For example, if the percentage of employees who were dissatisfied with the dimension and the general job satisfaction (Cell A) were greater than the threshold level (20%), then dire effectiveness of the dimension could be assumed. This would indicate that the current strategy has severe shortcomings or is defective; therefore, it would be essential to take corrective action. If cell A were 20% or less, then we would need to look at cell B. If the percentage of employees who were dissatisfied toward the job in general but satisfied with the dimension were higher than 20%, then it would have to be assumed that effectiveness was inadequate; it may not necessarily be desperate or dire, and as such, corrective actions should be considered, pending assessment. However, if cell B were also 20% or less, we would need to look at cell C. If the percentage of employees who were satisfied with their general job satisfaction but dissatisfied with the dimension were greater than 20%, it could be assumed that the efficiency of that dimension was at minimum-adequate, but not necessarily optimal and, as such, there may still be considerable room for improvement. On the other hand, if cell C were 20% or less, it

would indicate that the current strategy was highly effective and, therefore, should be reinforced (Action D).

To sum up, to determine the required action to be considered, these steps should be undertaken.

- If cell A is more than 20%, consider the recommended action in cell A. Otherwise, go to cell B.
- If cell B is more than 20%, consider the recommended action in cell B. Otherwise, go to cell C.
- If cell C is more than 20%, consider the recommended action in cell C. Otherwise, consider the action in cell D.

When the above proposal was implemented in the current study, the following results were obtained. See Tables 10.2 to 9.12.

Table 10.2: Salary and Incentives and General Job Satisfaction (GJS) Cross-tabulation (%)

Salary and Incentives	GJS	
	Dissatisfied	Satisfied
Dissatisfied	(A) 9.5%	(C) 42.5%
Satisfied	(B) .4%	(D) 47.6%

Table 10.3: Supervision and General Job Satisfaction (GJS) Cross-tabulation (%)

Supervision	GJS	
	Dissatisfied	Satisfied
Dissatisfied	(A) 4.4%	(C) 8.3%
Satisfied	(B) 2.6%	(D) 84.8%

**Table 10.4: Public Perception and General Job Satisfaction (GJS)
Cross-tabulation (%)**

Public Perception		GJS	
		Dissatisfied	Satisfied
Dissatisfied	(A) 1.2%	(C) 1.5%	
Satisfied	(B) 6.3%	(D) 91.0%	

**Table 10.5: Promotion Opportunity and General Job Satisfaction
(GJS) Cross-tabulation (%)**

Promotion Opportunity		GJS	
		Dissatisfied	Satisfied
Dissatisfied	(A) 9.2%	(C) 35.6%	
Satisfied	(B) .6%	(D) 54.6%	

**Table 10.6: Organisational Policy and Strategy and General Job
Satisfaction (GJS) Cross-tabulation (%)**

Organisational Policy and Strategy		GJS	
		Dissatisfied	Satisfied
Dissatisfied	(A) 2.9%	(C) 2.8%	
Satisfied	(B) 7.3%	(D) 92.7%	

**Table 10.7: Relationship with Co-workers and General Job
Satisfaction (GJS) Cross-tabulation (%)**

Relationship with Co-workers		GJS	
		Dissatisfied	Satisfied
Dissatisfied	(A) 5.0%	(C) 7.8%	
Satisfied	(B) 2.1%	(D) 85.1%	

**Table 10.8: Professional Development and General Job
Satisfaction (GJS) Cross-tabulation (%)**

Professional Development		GJS	
		Dissatisfied	Satisfied
Dissatisfied	(A) 8.1%	(C) 26.5%	
Satisfied	(B) 1.0%	(D) 64.5%	

**Table 10.9: Nature of the Work and General Job Satisfaction
(GJS) Cross-tabulation (%)**

Nature of the Work		GJS	
		Dissatisfied	Satisfied
Dissatisfied	(A) 2.2%	(C) 1.2%	
Satisfied	(B) 4.9%	(D) 91.7%	

**Table 10.10: Communication and General Job Satisfaction (GJS)
Cross-tabulation (%)**

Communication		GJS	
		Dissatisfied	Satisfied
Dissatisfied	(A) 1.0%	(C) 1.6%	
Satisfied	(B) 6.8%	(D) 90.6%	

**Table 10.11: Job Stress and General Job Satisfaction (GJS) Cross-
tabulation (%)**

Job Stress		GJS	
		Dissatisfied	Satisfied
Dissatisfied	(A) 4.5%	(C) 31.0%	
Satisfied	(B) 4.4%	(D) 60.1%	

**Table 10.12: Performance Appraisal and General Job Satisfaction
(GJS) Cross-tabulation (%)**

Performance Appraisal		GJS	
		Dissatisfied	Satisfied
Dissatisfied	(A) 7.4%	(C) 27.1%	
Satisfied	(B) 1.6%	(D) 63.9%	

From the results presented in the tables above, action C was considered for five dimensions whereas action D was considered for the remaining six dimensions. Table 10.13 presents a summary of the results of assessments of the DPF environmental dimensions and the recommended actions to increase employees' general job satisfaction using the above proposed method. Based on the above findings, the suggested recommendations for the DPF will be outlined and discussed in section 10.6.

Accordingly, one could assume that the effectiveness of five dimensions was minimum-adequate, but not necessarily optimal; therefore, there may still be considerable room for improvement. This could also reflect the employees' disposition or temperament. To this end, it is highly recommended that the DJSS be further examined in relation to employees' personality traits in an attempt to identify employees who are easily pleased or predisposed to satisfaction or, more importantly, dissatisfaction.

The remaining six dimensions achieved the optimal level of effectiveness; therefore, the current strategy should be reinforced.

The total percentage of dissatisfaction toward the dimension could be used to set the dimensions in order of priority for corrective actions to be taken. These five dimensions, in order of priority, were: salary and incentives (52%), promotion (44.8%), job stress (35.5%), professional development (34.6%), and performance appraisal (34.5%).

Table 10.13: Summary of the Assessments of the DPF Environmental Dimensions and the Recommended Actions to Increase Employees' General Job Satisfaction

Dimensions	Action required
-	(A) Dire Level (Corrective action is essential)
-	(B) Inadequate (Corrective actions pending assessment)
(1) Salary and incentives (2) Promotion (3) Job stress (4) Professional development (5) Performance appraisal	(C) Adequate Level (Optimal level cannot be assumed)
(1) Communication (2) Public perception (3) Nature of work (4) Organisational policy (5) Relationship with Co-workers (6) Supervision	(D) Optimal Level (Reinforce the current strategy)

Finally, the DJSS designed for this study needs to be validated further. Construct validity, including predictive, discriminate and convergent validity, should be investigated to determine the degree of correlations among the other popular scales.

If future studies show that the DJSS exhibits good construct validity, including predictive validity and test-retest reliability which is important for applied scales, the DJSS could then be used as a tool to assess employees' satisfaction before and after implementation of each organisational reform process. This would provide richer and reliable information concerning organisational policy appraisals.

10.6 Recommendations

As indicated in Chapter Two, the DPF is considered to be one of the most successful police sectors in the Middle East. However, the success of any police force today does not guarantee its success in the future, with the increasing complexity of crimes, globalisation policies, labour markets and employees' needs. Therefore, based on literature, research findings and knowledge of the researcher, this section presents a number of recommendations that would help the DPF to sustain and maintain success and improve its vision. Also, this section provides recommendations for future research. It is believed that these recommendations will improve organisational performance and increase job satisfaction among police officers and, in the meantime, enhance levels of commitment to the organisation and positively influence the service delivery to the public. This section is divided into two subsections, namely: practical and future recommendations.

10.6.1 Practical Recommendations for the DPF

The findings from this study suggest certain issues for the DPF policy-makers and management to consider in order to maintain the current satisfaction status in respect of different aspects of the job, and to raise satisfaction levels in those aspects that have not reached the desired level of satisfaction. In this respect, management attention is drawn to the corrective actions that need to be taken, so that the shortcomings associated with dissatisfaction can be avoided. As discussed earlier, the effectiveness of five job-related aspects was adequate; therefore, optimal level cannot be assumed. The remaining aspects achieved the optimal level of effectiveness, implying therefore, that the current strategy should be reinforced. The following are possible actions that could be taken:

- Employees' perception of salaries and incentives was at the lowest level of satisfaction compared to other job-related aspects. Therefore, the current salary scale and incentives should be carefully reassessed. The DPF needs to periodically investigate the financial elements (i.e. salary, fringe benefits and rewards) and carry out benchmarking exercises in order to remain competitive in this regard. Employees' salaries need to be adequate and satisfactory in order to avoid the possibility of members of the DPF switching to different organisations for better financial benefits. Ensuring effective and efficient incentive programmes, including providing recognition and financial rewards, is also essential. Fringe benefits (for example, allowances, accommodation and health insurance) should also be improved in order to attract more UAE nationals to work in the DPF. Additionally, the DPF should introduce incentive systems. It is believed that employees who value incentives in their organisation are more likely to exhibit OCB.

- Promotion opportunity was a variable that was reported as unsatisfactory among the DPF employees. Hence, the promotion systems should undergo urgent re-consideration. Indeed, one of the issues of concern among DPF employees is that promotion is not conducted on time each year, which may cause stress among workers. Also, the DPF needs to pay more attention to recruitment issues so that the right person is hired for the right job, as mismatches in this context have a significant negative effect on employee motivation and performance. The appointment of an employee to a particular job should be fair and exclusively based on performance, productivity, innovation and experience indicators; and not be conducted according to personal relationships, or social status.

- As satisfaction towards the performance appraisal system in the DPF did not reach an acceptable level, employees' main concerns in this respect should be taken into consideration. The performance appraisal system should be based on a continuous process of observation and interaction with the employees, and not merely on a routine annual assessment. Thus, managers or supervisors should be

well trained on the techniques, purpose and process of appraisal systems. On the other hand, employees should also understand the mechanism of appraisal systems, and receive a copy of their evaluation at the end of the process; furthermore, they should be able to appraise their supervisors (360° model). Fair performance evaluation processes not only maximise satisfaction, but they also maximise job performance.

- Improving professional development programmes was seen as an important among the DPF employees, as the current status attained a level of low satisfaction. The DPF needs to focus more on human resource management areas by providing sufficient and appropriate training programmes for all employees (supervisory and non-supervisory levels) on a regular basis. To remain current in specific fields, police workers need to regularly update their knowledge. Learning programmes are an important factor in that they improve the quality of police skills and knowledge, and help police officers to cope successfully with their work circumstances. They help employees to transfer knowledge to the workplace and influence their behaviour. The researcher would like to stress the value of encouraging specialty roles. This is highly important in the light of shortages in policing specialties in certain areas such as criminal and management fields. The encouragement of specialty roles would enable employees to be given the chance to participate effectively in conferences, symposiums and seminars inside or outside the UAE. However, employees need to attend specialised courses that are relevant to their particular area of specialty, rather than simply attending general courses. To this effect, the DPF needs to co-operate and make arrangements with all UAE police sectors to establish an annual conference on workshops, in which specialists from all police sectors in the UAE can participate as lecturers. These training programmes would help to identify the most important problems from which this sector suffers, offer pertinent solutions, and take appropriate decisions to improve the situation. Moreover, the DPF needs to emphasise the significance of the police academic institutes providing their police officer candidates with managerial skills and knowledge. This not only will benefit the candidates

themselves, but the police sectors in general in the long term. The aim of skills provision is that the recipients will be more capable of dealing with different tasks and managing problems after their graduation from the Dubai Police Academy. There is no doubt that this would create improvement in several aspects of police work. In addition, acquiring such knowledge would improve the communication channels and supervision style in the police sector.

- Job stress was a main concern among a considerable number of employees in the DPF. To address this, the DPF needs to establish a special committee composed of members who are well experienced, from different ranks and fields, to evaluate the work situation and investigate the factors causing stress. Managers should understand the important implications of employees' needs and complaints, which influence job performance, OC, OCB, and counterproductive behaviour. Employees in the DPF, therefore, should be provided with a clear cut definition of all job duties, that is, a full job description should be provided. This helps employees to understand their job responsibility and be less stressed in the workplace. In addition, sometimes employees complain about certain aspects of their jobs within an organisation such as unfair policy and promotion, and a lack of respect from a supervisor or colleagues. To this effect, the DPF needs to establish a special committee to put more effort into considering employee complaints, and to address employees' needs. Additionally, working conditions should be suitable and comfortable for workers in order to enable them to discharge their job responsibilities easily and smoothly. For example, an equal distribution of work between employees helps to reduce job stress. Moreover, job stress could be higher among newly-appointed employees, and hence, DPF managers and supervisors should pay more attention to the needs of those employees. This can be achieved in a variety of ways: by listening to their complaints and suggestions, giving them more chance to be innovative, motivating them, distributing challenging job assignments, and making them feel as if they are an important part of the organisation. One of the difficulties that new employees face is the non-availability of information, guidelines, standards, and

how to look and search for them. To this effect, the DPF needs to apply job rotation for new employees in order for them to gain an understanding of the different functional areas of the organisation. It is believed that an orientation programme, familiarising new employees with all aspects of their job, as well as the organisation, should be provided. Doing this will help the DPF to identify and introduce employees, as well as place them in the correct job position which can reduce the likelihood of job stress in future.

- Satisfaction with relationships with co-workers achieved a reasonable level. As this is important to employees, the current policy should be continued. Cooperation, and a spirit of teamwork and honest competition among all workers in the organisation, will contribute to a feeling of security and stability in the job. In addition, DPF supervisors should continue sharing with groups, celebrating group achievements and encouraging workers to treat and respect each other in a professional manner. Effective interaction between workers at different job levels can easily contribute towards achieving organisational goals. According to Spector (1997), job satisfaction is, to some extent, a reflection of good treatment. Strengthening the cultural and social activities for members of the police plays a key role in enhancing relationships and reducing work conflict and pressure among employees.

- Although employees' views of DPF policies were favourable, the DPF needs to maintain a review of its policies and assess employees' satisfaction towards them from time to time. This will allow for the introduction of gradual and necessary modifications as appropriate. The most preferable style of decision-making is the consultative style, which is deeply rooted in the Islamic tradition, being referred to as Shura (consultation). Spector (1997) indicates that when employees are offered the opportunity to participate in decisions that affect them, positive benefits can occur for both the organisation and employees. Opportunities must, therefore, be given to employees at all job levels to offer suggestions for improvement and thoughts on their experience. For example, junior employees

- Regarding issues related to responsibility, the DPF managers and supervisors must delegate responsibility to their subordinates. However, responsibility should be given to the best candidates, according to their productivity and performance, and not according to social networks or close relationships with supervisors.

- Certainly, the police cannot solve all of the problems facing Dubai neighbourhoods, but they can improve the effectiveness of the service delivery provided to the community. Furthermore, identifying the most common types of police-public encounters, where officer behaviour can be modified or improved, is essential for service delivery improvement. For example, a practice training programme for employees would not only have a direct effect on police service delivery, but is also a key issue for controlling police-community violence. Maintaining the quality of service provided by police sectors in the country should be amongst the priorities in their roles. Since internal and external customers are critical components of organisational development, they should be given more attention in formulating organisational policy and strategy.

- The DPF needs to appoint consultants in the field of human resource management and psychology. It would be beneficial for the DPF, and for police sectors in general, to either appoint or qualify some of its members, so that they are capable of giving advice according to their respective specialisations.

- The DJSS should be conducted periodically (for example, every two to three years) to assess satisfaction levels, and to diagnose any weaknesses and imbalances in all aspects of work. Although the diagnosis of organisational problems through job satisfaction surveys can be beneficial, the administration of such surveys can also cause considerable damage if performed improperly. Consequently, the DPF should establish an efficient research unit within the police organisation. This would necessitate employing qualified and interested researchers. This research unit should also encourage DPF employees, especially those who are holding MSc and PhD qualifications, to contribute to research publications in many fields, thereby developing a database for the DPF that would help in improving the organisation through evidence-based recommendations.
- The DPF should develop recruitment strategies and selection methods which ensure that the right quality of people join and remain with the organisation. According to Boxall and Purcell (2003), the most important step an organisation can take to improve employee performance is to learn to recruit and retain more effectively.
- If future studies show that the DJSS exhibits good construct validity, including predictive validity and test-retest reliability, which is important for applied scales, the DJSS could be then used as a tool to assess employees' satisfaction before and after the implementation of each organisational reform process, thereby providing richer information on organisational policy appraisal.

10.6.2 Recommendations for Future Research

- The construction and development of a scale is a continuous process which really never ends (Spector, 1992). Although the research findings reported in this study make a valuable contribution to the understanding of factors influencing job satisfaction, additional research is needed to further investigate the potential relationship and effect of other variables on job satisfaction. This study revealed

that 47% of the variance in job satisfaction was accounted for by the eleven environmental and four personal predictors in the model. As satisfaction is viewed as a latent construct involving multiple indicators (Fosam *et al.*, 1998), any serious attempt to determine the factors responsible for the remaining unexplained amount of variance is to be welcomed. Research in this area should be pursued from time to time to advance knowledge in this field.

- Although the DJSS is a potentially useful research tool, it needs to be validated further. Further work is clearly needed to establish the reliability and cross-cultural validity of the instrument. To achieve validity of the scale used in the study, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) needs to be carried out using Amos software. Additionally, construct validity including predictive, discriminate and convergent validity should be investigated to determine the degree of correlation among the other popular scales of job satisfaction. Furthermore, any attempt to derive a short form of the DJSS for research purposes is welcomed. A valid and reliable shorter version of the scale could be of great utility to both researchers and respondents and would cost less effort and time.

- Future research should investigate prospectively the long term effects of changes in work-related variables on the stability of job satisfaction in employees with different personal characteristics by analysing variance in satisfaction over time. That is, if future research is able to obtain measures of satisfaction from respondents over time, it can be established just how stable satisfaction is, and factors that can move workers up or down on a satisfaction scale can be pinpointed. The most rigorous approach, therefore, would be the longitudinal re-testing of the same group of participants over a fixed interval using validated measures sensitive to change. Across sites, variation in satisfaction is also an important issue. That is, it is important to establish the extent to which the mean and variance in job satisfaction differ across sites. If substantial variance is found, it will be important to see what might be associated with 'high' and 'low' satisfaction across sites.

- Investigating the external validity of the model is very important. Further research can have great value in studying job satisfaction between different organisations. In particular, it is not certain how findings from within a single organisation might apply elsewhere. It would be useful to elaborate on what might be expected in terms of satisfaction levels, and their variance across workers might differ for employees of the DPF compared with (a) other police sectors in UAE (b) or other public sectors in different States.

- The efforts aimed at improving police sectors could prove to be more fruitful if areas for future research include conducting research measuring the satisfaction of the public along with police workers at the same time in one research study. This will support the thoughts of Rust *et al.* (1996) and Fosam *et al.* (1998), who consider that, for an organisation to have satisfied customers, it must first have satisfied employees.

- Future research should test the model of the present study by using other sophisticated analytical tools for modelling such as Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). The use of such research tools would strengthen the associations between variables, and therefore improve the structure of the model.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Research

Work plays an important role in individuals' lives because they spend more of their time at work than doing any other single activity. According to Furnham (2005), there are many reasons why people work: work provides a source of income, a source of activity and stimulation, a source of social contacts, a means of structuring time, and a source of self-fulfilment and self-actualisation. Employees' job satisfaction is also an important aspect of work. Positive feelings about a job can contribute to individuals experiencing greater satisfaction with their lives in general. They also lead individuals to be healthier psychologically and physically. Work could be a source of happiness for an individual, and therefore, psychologists and others who are concerned with individuals' happiness emphasise that high job satisfaction should be experienced (for example, Spector, 2008; Arnold *et al.*, 2005).

Historically, the concept of job satisfaction has been widely researched since the beginning of the twentieth century, when there was a move towards considering the psychological conditions of the employee associated with post-war industrial revaluation for the purpose of increasing the productivity of workers (Allen and Wilburn, 2002; Mullins, 2004). Since the Human Relations School was established, the multiple aspects of the linked concepts of job satisfaction and motivation have been demonstrated by the various job satisfaction and motivational theories, such as those by Maslow, Herzberg, Vroom and so on.

Employees are the main organisational resource; without them organisations would not exist or function (Worthington and Britton, 2006). In recent years, measuring employees' satisfaction has become a subject of growing interest among organisational

managements. This organisational interest in measuring job satisfaction has been motivated by the following reasons:

1. Utilitarian reasons such as to increase and improve productivity, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviours, and ultimately, to increase organisational effectiveness.
2. A decreased propensity for counterproductive behaviours such as withdrawal behaviour including absenteeism and turnover; burnout; and workplace aggression.
3. Humanitarian interests (i.e. the notion that employees deserve to be treated with respect and have their psychological and physical well-being maximised) (Ellickson and Logsdon 2001; Organ and Ryan, 1995; Spector, 2008; Spector, 1997).

When employees are satisfied, they improve the performance and productivity of the company and contribute positively towards profitability. According to Wright and Davis (2003), the benefits that employees receive from their organisation influence the effort, skill, creativity and productivity that they are willing to give to their employer. Organisations with satisfied employees outperform other organisations (Ostroff, 1992). Therefore, job satisfaction has become a major organisational objective for competitive levels of quality and organisational success.

On the other hand, low job satisfaction has negative outcomes, such as withdrawal behaviour, increasing costs, decreasing profits and, eventually, customer dissatisfaction (Zeffane *et al.*, 2008). According to Spector (1997), employees experiencing dissatisfaction may develop disruptive behaviours that negatively impact upon their productivity and performance, as well as affecting those around them. Focusing on employee job satisfaction in the workplace is, therefore, key to understanding the elements of employees' behaviour and their effective role.

Job satisfaction can be as critical for employees as it is for the organisation. Today, employees expect to get more satisfaction from their work than ever before. Employees are more likely to consider job satisfaction a reason to remain with their current organisation or to switch to another (Robbins, 2005). At the same time, employees want their needs to be satisfied. Contemporary practitioners of human resources management ascertain an understanding of employees' needs and match individual and organisational needs in such a way that employees feel that their personal development is possible along with the organisation's growth. To this effect, organisations cannot achieve high competitive levels of customer service quality if their employees do not feel satisfied (García-Bernal *et al.*, 2005). In other words, for an organisation to have satisfied customers, it must first have satisfied employees. This is particularly relevant where employees have direct contact with customers.

Identifying determinants of job satisfaction has been a focus of attention for both the professional and academic worlds. Since the job satisfaction of employees is an important part of any strategy aimed at improving the effectiveness of employees (Brunetto and Farr-Wharton, 2003), any organisational commitment to quality improvement implies, therefore, that possible key influences on the level of employee job satisfaction should be investigated. A large volume of research has identified two major groups of factors as important determinants of satisfaction (e.g. Zeffane, 1994; Spector, 1997; Ellickson and Logsdon, 2001; Reiner and Zhao, 1999). These groups are the personal factors of the employees and the factors of the work environment. According to Oshagbemi (2000), components of job satisfaction should be understood in order to improve the well-being of people as well as to achieve successful management in general.

With regard to police work, which is usually conducted within the context of public sector organisations, job satisfaction is a serious issue as a result of the nature of its work. Clearly, a police force is a service-intensive organisation with a significant proportion of its employees working in direct contact with its customers, the general public (Fosam *et al.*, 1998). The definitions of police role in the community have typically focused upon the protection of life and property, crime prevention, the detection of offenders, and the

preservation of peace and order (Avery, 1981). These roles encompass three main police functions: law enforcement (i.e., the use of power to control others); peace keeping (i.e., maintaining public safety); and service provision (i.e., assisting people requiring help) (Boni and Wilson, 1994). Police organisations require a high level of productivity and efficiency from those employees handling such dangerous situations. Therefore, a strong relationship between the organisation and its human resources is an important prerequisite.

Building on the theory in this particular field of HRM, this study examines the determinants of job satisfaction among one of the largest police forces in the United Arab Emirates (UAE), the Dubai Police Force (DPF).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Although many studies have explored the topic of job satisfaction, there has been less agreement about how to measure that satisfaction, what factors to consider when examining it (Al-Fadley, 1996), and the possibility of applying the scale to other cultures. Some publications about the factors contributing to job satisfaction have tended to be contradictory and vary considerably. For instance, one study found that salary plays a key role in determining job satisfaction, while in another study, salary was not found to be a significant factor (see Spector, 2008, 1997). This diversity may be partly related to the complexity of human beings, their cultures and demographic trends and or to the use of different scales in measuring job satisfaction (Spector, 2008). Other reasons include the type of organisation and the nature of work that employees do in that organisation. According to researchers like Hackman and Oldham (1976) and Schultz (1978), the feature and nature of the work is considered the main determinant of an employee's satisfaction with a job. However, Al-Fadley (1996) suggested that determinants of employee job satisfaction do not vary considerably among different organisations with similar cultures, implying that the findings can be generalised to other organisations with similar cultures.

In spite of the importance given to job satisfaction theories and to the welfare and dignity of the individual employee in the United States and other developed Western countries, most of these theories have not been tested in developing countries. Management scholars have argued that many of the satisfaction theories, which reflect Western cultures, might be less valid in other cultures (Spector, 2008; Hofstede, 1997; Lim and Yuen, 1998). According to Spector (2008) and Kaiser (2002), job satisfaction across cultures is not necessarily expected to be comparable, because people of different cultures respond differently to job satisfaction factors. Factors identified in the scales used by researchers might not be applicable to other organisations where cultural backgrounds and experiences are different (Koustelios and Bagiatis, 1997). For example, Spector *et al.* (2001) compared levels of job satisfaction among managers in 24 countries and found significant differences. This variation could be related to differences in cultural values, norms, management attitudes, and economic, political, social and demographic variations.

Indeed, developed countries are culturally, economically, and politically different from developing countries including the UAE, where the present study is conducted. The researcher suggests that the cultural background of the Islamic society in the UAE might to some extent affect, employees' needs and tendencies.

In general, studies into job satisfaction have employed one of three different methods in measuring employee job satisfaction as follows:

- Firstly, most studies have used popular and existing scales in measuring employee job satisfaction, such as the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). The major disadvantage of using an existing scale is that it will be limited to only those facets that the developers of the scale chose to place in their instrument (Spector, 1997). Although these scales are valid and reliable, they do not include specific factors concerning job satisfaction or dissatisfaction that may be relevant to a particular job or societal culture (Spector, 1997).

- Secondly, some researchers have added questions/items to one of the popular scales or portions of these scales. Adding additional items to a known scale can affect the validity and reliability of a scale. It can also cause confusion if there were similarities between items.
- Thirdly, few studies have constructed and developed a scale from scratch in accordance with the goal of their research, because of the efforts involved in ensuring the validity and reliability of the scale.

Having reviewed many of the job satisfaction scales used in the research undertaken so far, it was found that none of them was designed specifically for measuring satisfaction with various facet-specific items applicable to an organisation like the police force in an Islamic society. Therefore, the author felt a need to develop and construct a job satisfaction scale to assess various aspects of features of police work in an Islamic society (A detailed description of the scale development processes is provided in Chapter Seven).

In general, the issue of job satisfaction among police force employees has received only limited research attention (Metcalf and Dick, 2000; Brunetto and Farr-Wharton, 2003; Reiner and Zhao, 1999; Beck and Wilson, 1997; Al-Fadley, 1996). Job satisfaction in policing literature is a complex issue (Greene, 1989), and a concept inadequately defined in policing literature (Pelfrey, 2004). Griffin *et al.* (1978:77) stated that “*job satisfaction, which has long been recognised in private industry as a prerequisite for successful job performance has been merely a slogan in police organisations*”.

Although some studies have tried to identify the indicators of job satisfaction among police employees, empirical findings on those indicators have generally been sparse and inconclusive (Kusow *et al.*, 1997). Additionally, of the few studies undertaken to date, these do not consider employees at all levels of management - top, middle and lower. The research on job satisfaction has, for the most part, focused upon demographic characteristics (Forsyth and Copes, 1994). In calling for greater attention to the

organisational environment in police organisations and its influences upon members' job satisfaction, Zhao *et al.* (1999:168) write:

“We invite other scholars and practitioners of policing to join in the study of the relationship between work environment and job satisfaction in law enforcement agencies...to increase the understanding of organisational environment in police agencies and its effects on officers' job satisfaction”.

Factors such as increases in police stress, workload and turnover, providing security, increasing responsibility, educating and counselling the community, and a lack of research into the police are important issues that need to be considered. If these factors are not given adequate consideration, they may negatively affect employee job satisfaction, which may in turn be reflected in the retention and productivity of the police force (Dantzker and Surrette, 1996). However, these challenges imply that there is a need for a better understanding of the issue of job satisfaction in police organisations.

1.3 Aims and Objectives

As all job satisfaction scales were developed in Western countries and might or might not be suitable to other cultures, there are two aims of this study as follows:

- (1) To identify the determinants of job satisfaction in one of the largest public sector organisations in the United Arab Emirates, namely, the Dubai Police Force (DPF).
- (2) To develop a model of job satisfaction linking antecedents and consequences to job satisfaction.

More specifically, the research objectives for the current study are:

- a) To conduct a literature review to identify the factors affecting job satisfaction.
- b) To develop a model to identify factors and consequences of job satisfaction. The starting point of the proposed model of job satisfaction is the premise that there are two antecedents of job satisfaction, namely, environmental and personal

- c) To construct a new scale of job satisfaction that is congruent with the Arab-Islamic culture and to test its validity and reliability.
- d) To assess the level of the general job satisfaction among the DPF employees.

According to the above model, four main hypotheses are formulated (all hypotheses are stated in terms of alternatives to a null hypothesis of no difference):

1. Hypothesis One (H_1): There are statistically significant differences/correlations between each of the personal variables and job satisfaction.
2. Hypothesis Two (H_2): There are statistically significant correlations between environmental variables and job satisfaction.
3. Hypothesis Three (H_3): Hypothesis three contains three sub-hypotheses as follows:
 - H3.A Personal variables are predictors of job satisfaction after controlling for other environmental variables.
 - H3.B Environmental variables are predictors of job satisfaction after controlling for other personal variables.
 - H3.C Environmental variables are stronger predictors of job satisfaction than are personal variables.
4. Hypothesis Four (H_4): There are statistically significant correlations between job satisfaction and organisational commitment (OC) and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB).

1.4 Importance of the Research

Job satisfaction is frequently used as a central element in many theories and models and most organisational development surveys include satisfaction items (Judge and Klinger, 2008; Griffin and McMahan, 1994; Spector, 1997). The importance of examining job satisfaction amongst employees of different organisations has been addressed by many researchers. However, the most valuable contribution is probably the one made by Spector (1997), as follows:

- Human values are essential in orienting the organisation by respecting and treating their staff fairly, which in turn will reflect positively on their emotions and well-being.
- The behaviour of the organisation's staff impacts on its operations (that is organisational functioning), either positively or negatively.
- The assessment of employee satisfaction is crucial in identifying the areas in need of improvement.

Despite researchers' and practitioners' interest in job satisfaction among workers generally, not many studies have sought to explain variations in job satisfaction among public sector employees in developing countries, and especially in Arab countries.

“The Arab region suffers from a severe shortage of detailed data and information necessary to undertake a comprehensive examination of human development, especially with respect to the dimensions of institutional context and knowledge acquisition” (AHDR, 2002:25).

According to Budhwar and Mellahi (2007), the lack of literature devoted to examining human resources management in the Middle East region has led many Middle Eastern countries to increasingly emphasise the development of human resources aspects. This lack of research in Arab countries contributes to the value and, indeed, indicates the necessity of, such a project. The subject of Human Resources Management (HRM) has recently been paid more attention in some Middle Eastern countries, and in the UAE in

particular. To this effect, HRM requires in-depth investigation, especially due to the lack of empirical literature and clear understanding of management practices.

This research investigates job satisfaction in the police profession and takes the DPF, one of the public sector organisations in the UAE, exhibiting Islamic culture, as a case study. Although there is increasing managerial emphasis on measuring job satisfaction in public sectors in the UAE, no previous study has been undertaken regarding the police in particular. Further, this study is considered to be the first advanced academic project leading to the degree of PhD undertaken to study job satisfaction in the public sector area of police work in the UAE.

The UAE is not as industrialised as the United States or the United Kingdom. However, it is attempting to become industrialised and is also attempting to improve working conditions for its people. Improving employee satisfaction is one of the most important methods to improve the human resources practice in the UAE public sector organisations. Consequently, the present study differs from previous investigations in the sense that it is based in a different part of the world (Middle East) and utilises various methods to develop a new job satisfaction scale that is congruent with the Arab-Islamic culture. The results of this study can support the DPF administrators in selecting the appropriate strategies to improve job satisfaction and in considering the implementation of career development programmes to enhance employees' job satisfaction.

1.5 Research Methods

The study employs a mixed method approach where both quantitative and qualitative methods are employed to gather and analyse the data. The research strategy adopted involves sequential procedures as follows:

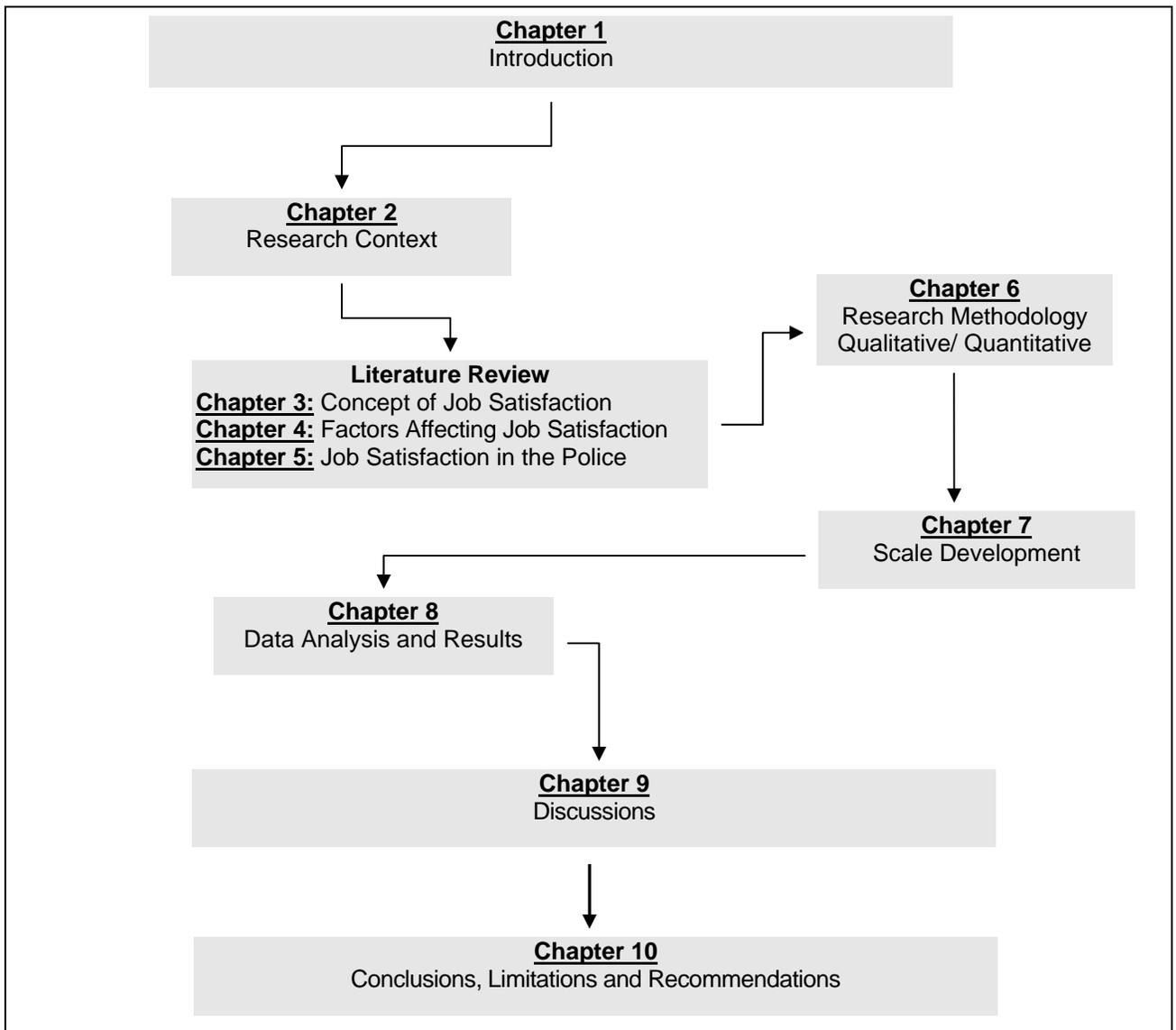
- Stage One: Qualitative methods were used including in-depth interviews and focus groups to explore and examine the respondents' views on the factors affecting job satisfaction.

- Stage Two: Questionnaire Scaling. The researcher followed specific steps to construct and develop a valid and reliable scale. A quantitative approach, in the form of survey questionnaires, was used to identify the determinants of job satisfaction among the DPF employees. (A detailed description of the research methodology is provided in Chapter Six).

1.6 Structure of the Research

The study is organised and presented in ten chapters (see Figure 1.1) as follows:

Figure 1.1: Structure of the Research



Chapter One: An introduction to the study is presented. A statement of the problem, and the purpose of the research are identified, as also is its importance of the study. The objective of this chapter is to set the scene for the thesis.

Chapter Two: A general overview of both the UAE and the DPF is provided. This chapter describes the history and the features of the organisational context.

Chapter Three: The concept of job satisfaction (definitions, theories and measurements) is fully discussed. This chapter lays a theoretical foundation for the study.

Chapter Four: The factors involved in job satisfaction are investigated. The purpose of this chapter is to highlight the dominant factors that affect the job satisfaction of certain individuals in a given set of circumstances in order to provide a more comprehensive picture of the job satisfaction process.

Chapter Five: The main role of the police in general is presented and followed by measurements of job satisfaction in police force work. The objective of this chapter is to focus on employees in relation to job satisfaction in police organisations.

Chapter Six: The research methodology and methods employed in this research are discussed. This chapter focuses on research methodological issues, such as research philosophy and strategy in the context of the DPF, methods of data collection, and the analysis of data. It provides details of how the researcher conducted his research to achieve the research objectives.

Chapter Seven: The scale development process in accordance with established psychometric principles, is examined, and a description of the necessary stages of the research is presented. The objective of this chapter is to highlight certain stages in order to obtain a valid and reliable scale for measuring job satisfaction among the DPF employees.

Chapter Eight: The quantitative findings, which were derived from the questionnaire, are discussed. This chapter answers the research hypotheses and predicts a model of the determinants of job satisfaction from the findings of the study.

Chapter Nine: This chapter provides a discussion of the results of the analyses used to achieve the research objectives. The research findings are first summarised, then the findings are compared with the existing literature and discussed from the perspective of their practical implications including possible management issues.

Chapter Ten: This chapter discusses the possible research limitations, concludes with an overall summary of the research findings and their contribution to existing knowledge and outlines avenues of future inquiry within the research area.

References and appendices are attached at the end of the thesis.

1.7 Summary

Chapter One has outlined the background and rationale of the research, research problems, the aim and objectives, the significance of the research, and the research methodology. It has also given an overview of how this thesis is organised. Other aspects of the research including the literature review, detailed methodology and data analysis results will be discussed in the following chapters. As this research aims to investigate the determinants of job satisfaction in the DPF, the next chapter will describe various background features of the UAE in general and the DPF in particular.

CHAPTER TWO: RESEARCH CONTEXT

2.1 Introduction

An overview of the UAE will be given as a background for this research. The purpose of this chapter is to highlight the main features of the study context. To achieve this, the chapter is divided into two main sections. The first section begins with an overview of the UAE, including a consideration of its general background. This is followed by the second section discussing the general features of the DPF. Finally, a summary of these two sections is presented.

2.2 General Background

2.2.1 History, Location, Area and Population

The United Arab Emirates (UAE) is located in the south-eastern area of the Arabian Peninsula. It was formerly known as the Trucial States or Trucial Coast. From 1820 onwards, Britain established its presence in the region with the signing of several agreements including a maritime treaty, which gave the area its name. Britain announced in 1968 and maintained in 1971 that it would end its treaty relationships with the seven Trucial States (Sheikh Mohammed, 2009; NCM, 2009; Al-Ali, 2008).

A half century ago, before the discovery of oil, the situation in the country was radically different from the way things are today; the UAE consisted of simple villages and hard working shepherds, fishermen and seafarers. It was a real challenge to live in such a difficult situation. Fortunately, the UAE leaders' vision contributed to the development of a federal government that works to harmonise the activities and decisions of the seven emirates (NCM, 2009; MoE, 2007).

On 2 December 1971, six of the eventual seven sheikhdoms formed the United Arab Emirates. The seventh sheikhdom, Ras Al Al-Khaimah, joined in the UAE in 1972. The

seven emirates are Abu Dhabi, Dubai, Sharjah, Ajman, Umm Al-Qaiwain, Ras Al-Khaimah and Fujairah. In 1981, the UAE helped found the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC), together with five other Gulf countries: Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar and Bahrain.

The UAE shares borders with the Arabian Gulf to the north, Saudi Arabia to the south and west, and the Sultanate of Oman to the east. It has a coastline on both the Gulf of Oman and the Arabian Gulf and lies south of the strategically important Strait of Hormuz. The strategic location of the UAE has given the country an economic advantage, as it lies on the trade routes between Asian and European countries; this has enhanced the popularity of the country, and given it an advantage over most other popular countries (Sheikh Mohammed, 2009; NCM, 2009; MoE, 2007; Abdulla, 2004).

The UAE's land is mainly sand dunes and salt flats interspersed with an occasional traditional desert oasis in the south and west of the country. It can be divided into three major areas: coastal, desert and mountainous. Figure 2.1 shows a map of UAE.

Figure 2.1: Map of UAE



Source: www.emirates.org

The total area of UAE is about 83,600 square kilometres (32,278 square miles). The emirate of Abu Dhabi is a capital and the largest of the seven emirates, occupying around 86.7% of the total land area. Dubai is the second largest emirate covering almost 5 % of the total area. Overall, the UAE is considered the third largest country of the GCC after Saudi Arabia and the Sultanate of Oman (Sheikh Mohammed, 2009; MoE, 2007).

As shown in Table 2.1, the population of the UAE in 2005 was estimated to be 4.1 million (MoE, 2007). The population comprises 20 percent Emiratis whilst a large proportion (80 percent) of the people living in the UAE are workers from different parts of the world and include other Arabs, south-eastern and southern Asians, and Europeans and Americans (Al-Ali, 2008; Suliman, 2006) (see Table 2.2). This high percentage of expatriates in the UAE is due to the country's open economic policies and fast growing economy and the development rate following the discovery of oil (Suliman, 2006).

Table 2.1: Population Results by Emirate (Census 2005)

Emirates	Male	Female	Total
Abu Dhabi	926,819	472,665	1,399,484
Dubai	989,305	332,148	1,321,453
Sharjah	520,234	273,339	793,573
Ajman	131,684	75,313	206,997
Umm Al-Qaiwain	30,084	19,075	49,159
Ras Al-Khaimah	129,442	80,621	210,063
Fujairah	78,584	47,114	125,698
Grand Total	2,806,152	1,300,275	4,106,427

Source: MoE (2007)

Table 2.2: Population Results by Sex and Nationality (Census 2005)

Nationals			Non-Nationals			Total		
Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
10.2	9.9	20.1	58.1	21.8	79.9	68.3	31.7	100

Source: MoE (2007)

2.2.2 Culture Characteristics

The UAE is an Arab and Muslim country. The official language is Arabic, but English is well understood and used for communication across the country. The social life in the

UAE is substantially affected by the values and culture of Islam. All UAE nationals see their religion as an integral part of daily life. UAE society derives its values and ideas mainly from the teachings of Islam and from local culture, traditions and customs. Suliman (2006: 64) summarises the value orientation of the UAE as shown in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3: Value Orientation of the UAE

Aspects	Characteristics
General ethical orientation	Personalistic and particularistic
Authority	Highly respected
Interpersonal relationships	Group oriented
Status and prestige	Very high concern
Social structure	Very degree of vertical (kinship) and lateral (class) stratification

Source: Suliman (2006:64)

Suliman (2006:64) indicates six layers of culture that affect work values in the UAE. These are (1) *regional*: this is the factor that most influences the work values and it includes religion, language and history; (2) *national*: this is usually shaped by the regional layer, which in turn reflects on the human resources, policies and practices; (3) *generation*; (4) *social class*; (5) *gender*; and (6) *organisational culture*. Suliman (2006) concludes that the regional and national layers are those that have the greatest influence on work values in the UAE. This is parallel with the findings of Simadi (2006) who undertook a study among young adult Emirates' value and found that religious and cognitive values were prioritized.

2.2.3 Emiratisation

Nowadays, countries and companies in rapidly growing economies like the UAE have started investing more in training and developing their own national workers because they consider nationals to be an important asset for the development of their economies. However, the shortage of a local work force in the UAE has led the country to depend heavily on multicultural foreign workers. Al-Ali (2008) argues that the pace of growth continues, but UAE nationals are not employed in their own country.

To counter this effect, in the early 1990s, the UAE's Council of Ministers developed a new programme called 'Emiratisation' to apply to both sectors, public and private (Al-Ali, 2008; Suliman, 2006). Emiratisation seeks to overcome structural barriers to Emirati employment in organisations, and to address social issues arising from citizens' entry into the labour market (Al-Ali, 2008). According to Shouly (1995), the government has launched the notion of Emiratisation in order to encourage larger numbers of nationals to enter the workforce and to play increasingly significant roles.

The phenomenon of Emiratisation has been more noticeable in the public sector than in the private sector. Some of the private sectors are not reactive with the issue of Emiratisation, although the government enacted laws for this issue. A study conducted by Al-Ali (2008) in the fields of banking and insurance in the private sector in the UAE found the barriers to Emiratisation included low standards of education and skills of potential employees, inadequate English, and a lack of trust by employers in the work-readiness of UAE nationals. Al-Ali (2008) indicates that national workers consider that the private sector offers few career opportunities and low wages in comparison to the public sector. In order to achieve UAE's visions and strategies, the private sectors should reinforce the phenomenon of Emiratisation in their organisations to be a key partner in the development of human resources in the State.

Although the supply of foreigners cannot easily be eliminated or reduced, the next best alternative is to try to upgrade the quality of national workers and make them more competitive in the job market. According to the UAE Federal Government Strategy in April 2007, companies have to establish committees and teams to study, develop and implement a series of actions designed to support the Emiratisation plan and to meet the objective of having a qualified UAE workforce in various positions in most sectors. His Highness (H.H) Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum, UAE Vice President and Prime Minister and Ruler of Dubai said in his speech in 2007, when he unveiled the UAE Federal Government Strategy, one of the key issues of the UAE's strategies would be to focus on achieving “sustainable and balanced development and a high quality of life for all UAE nationals” (MoE, 2007).

This effort has caused great pressure on the UAE system to produce larger numbers of UAE nationals who are ready, willing, and able to enter the job market. Suliman (2006) states that some institutions in the UAE have begun researching and studying human resources development in different fields, such as employment, labour relations, market research and employees' development.

The Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs and the National Human Resources Development and Employment Authority (Tanmia) play a key role in preparing locals for employment, training and development opportunities in both the private and public sectors (Al-Ali, 2008; Suliman, 2006). The following are various examples of Tanmia activities and services, according to Suliman (2006: 72):

- *Advice and guidance*: providing all the alternative jobs that are available in the market so that locals can decide what career plan to make and how to achieve their goal.
- *Skills development*: helping nationals to develop the basic skills required to obtain a job, such as job search methods, how to organize and develop a CV and the techniques required for job interviews.
- *Exploring alternatives*: instead of immediate employment, locals may be guided to explore other opportunities that will be available, including training for a new job or even the provision of further education if required.
- *Creating awareness*: empowering UAE nationals with the tools and information to make educated choices and positive changes in life, starting with finding the right job and creating awareness through various sources, such as personal interviews, employment workshops, careers-library orientation programmes, occupational seminars, work shadowing and summer work experience.

2.3 Dubai Police Force (DPF)

In early times, the UAE was characterised by a social structure that maintained peace and stability. However, with independence in 1971 and the rapid increase in the population and their needs, the police in the UAE have witnessed drastic changes and progress in creating a secure environment for its citizens, residents, business and industry (Abdulla, 2004). Although the UAE has been famous for its stable environment, instability in the Middle East necessitates major attention be paid to security, which is the primary issue of preserving the gains and prosperity of all nations (Abdulla, 2004).

The Dubai Police Force (DPF) was established in 1956 in Naif station (the first police station in Dubai city). It comes under the direction of the Vice President and Prime Minister of the UAE (who in turn is the ruler of Dubai). Initially, the DPF took the form of a simple organisation that had a modest structure and a small number of employees. It was responsible for simple policing tasks, such as guarding the market, helping the authorities in enforcing rulings, and so on (Dubai police, 2009). As UAE society increased in diversity and complexity, the need for effective security systems became more important and necessary.

It is worth mentioning that, the DPF became necessary as a result of the societal development in Dubai. Despite the fact that the DPF is subject to the Government of Dubai, it is an integral part of the UAE's Ministry of Interior. The latter handles the general headquarters in each of the seven emirates. However, each emirate manages its own police force and supervises its police stations. Police stations take complaints from the public, make arrests, and forward all cases to the public prosecutor, who in turn transfers these cases to the courts (MoI, 2009).

The DPF aims at excellence in the performance of its role with respect to the deployment of security and stability, and to the deployment of a sense of tranquility. According to Abdulla (2004), these aspects, in fact, support prosperity and economic growth in any country. Consequently, it believed that administrative excellence is a key part of security to maintain stability and serve social welfare in the country. H.H Sheikh Mohammed bin

Rashid Al Maktoum, UAE Vice President and Prime Minister, and Ruler of Dubai, maintains the general policy of DPF strategy, as follows:

“The graces and blessings of God are countless; we may name a number of these blessings under one title, that is, SECURITY. We, as human beings think that each job we perform may bring a certain type of security, such as, personal, emotional, social, economic, political security. Without security, life becomes unbearable, and looking forward, development, quality, excellence, and success are hopeless and worthless. With the grace of God, the efficiency of our policies, the loyalty of our leaders, UAE is one of the safest countries in the world, and Dubai is the most secure city in the world. Our strategic planning aims for safety, security and justice to go hand in hand with our economic and social growth paths, in that requirement of stabilized safety and security and justice are to be available for country and individuals alike” (Dubai police, 2009).

The major tasks for the DPF are as follows: *dealing with traffic safety* (for example, traffic control); *dealing with daily crime* (for example, quarrels and swearing); *providing police services* (for example, E-services, educational programmes); *dealing with crimes of a dangerous nature* (for example, murder, and armed robbery); *providing security* (securing people and organisations); *dealing with organised crime* (that is, money laundering, internationally wanted criminals); *employing scientific evidence* (for example, fingerprints and DNA); and *crime prevention methods* (for example, guidance, directives, follow-up, statistical projections and periodicals) (Dubai police, 2009).

The DPF has kept up its steady growth since its inception and has undergone a remarkable transformation in terms of manpower, logistics, resources and organisational framework under successive governments in the country. The DPF has been undergoing structural reform as well as recruitment and training changes so as to adapt to the rapidly changing societal needs (Dubai police, 2009; Abdulla, 2004). The DPF is now regarded as one of the largest establishments in Dubai in terms of the number of people it employs and the volume of services it provides to the public (Abdulla, 2004). DPF currently employs more than fifteen thousand personnel of high educational standard (Dubai police, 2009). Moreover, it is renowned for its success in the tasks it undertakes and in high levels of customer satisfaction over a number of years. It is also regarded as one of the fastest-growing workforces among Arab police forces (Government of Dubai, 2009).

Today, the DPF strives to be the most progressive of all Arabic police forces (Government of Dubai, 2009). Interestingly, the DPF is proud to say that it is the first Arabic police force to apply DNA testing in criminal investigations, the first to use global positioning system (GPS) systems to locate stolen vehicles, the first to use electronic finger printing, and the first Arabic department to be cognisant with and to implement the paperless department concept (Government of Dubai, 2009; Dubai police, 2009; Abdulla, 2004). Another first was DPF's adoption of the community policing programme; it was also the first police force to establish a Human Rights Department. DPF has stayed one step ahead in the Arab world by being the first to apply electronic services (Dubai police, 2009). In 2001, DPF was the first force to include their web site and email address on each of their official vehicles (Dubai police, 2009).

The DPF has received both local and international recognition. In 2007, the DPF was first champion (Golden Category) of the Dubai Award for Government Excellence Performance (Dubai Government Excellence Programme, 2009) whilst, in 2008, DPF departments achieved great success in being awarded the ISO 9001/2000 certificate for applying quality management systems in all police fields, which in turn, provide services to internal and external customers (Government of Dubai, 2009; Dubai Excellence, 2009). According to Major General Khamis Al Mazeina, Deputy Chief of Dubai Police, "Dubai Police became one of the first police bodies in the world to have implemented quality standards in all its departments and stations" (Dubai police, 2009). To this effect, in April 2009, the DPF attained the Gold Award for the era of global quality in Geneva (Albayan Newspaper, 2009).

The DPF is facing a great challenge to make Dubai a safer place and believes that information flow between the force and the public is vital. They actively encourage opinions, suggestions and comments from the general public. Thus, effective policing requires maximum co-operation with the public. The DPF has started to emphasise the need to gain community support to help prevent and solve crimes. According to Abdulla (2004), considerable effort is required to improve and to maintain a good relationship between the police and the community. Therefore, the competence, integrity and

dedication of each officer are important to the police service, both in terms of the quality of police duties and in enhancing the relationship with the community.

Like any modern organisation, the DPF has vision. Mission statements have been strategically drawn up to take it into the year 2015. In 2007, DPF presented its proposed strategic plan based on the Dubai government strategic plan for 2007-2015 (Dubai police, 2009). This strategy requires looking to the future for the lifetime of the plan and beyond (see Table 2.4).

Table 2.4: DPF Strategy from 2007 to 2015

Vision	
Security is the pillar of development. Let us ensure security and safety for our community and let us maintain public order at world-class efficiency, professionalism, and excellence levels.	
Mission	
To strengthen the feeling of security, and protection of rights, and to provide service that will win people's satisfaction.	
Values	Strategic Goals
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Integrity and loyalty. 2. Honesty and transparency. 3. Justice and fairness. 4. Proficiency in work. 5. Brotherhood and cooperation. 6. Politeness. 7. Recognition and reward of individual contributions. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The prevention and reduction of crime rates. 2. Detection of crimes and the arrest of criminals. 3. The safeguarding of rights and freedoms. 4. Readiness to deal with crises and disasters effectively. 5. To control the roads safely.

Source: Dubai Police (2009)

In 1997, the DPF established the Human Resources Department, which aims at promoting awareness of the concepts of job satisfaction among its employees (Dubai Police, 2009). Having recognised that organisations with satisfied employees have satisfied customers, the DPF has begun to realise the importance of human resources in the workplace. The Dubai Police General Commandant, Lieutenant General, Dhahi Khalfan Tamim, said that “Dubai Police’s strategic plan no longer concerns Dubai Police only”. He also said that “DPF's message is deeply rooted in a sense of security and services that satisfy people” (Dubai Police, 2009). Parallel to the mission of the DPF is the aim “to strengthen the feeling of security, and protection of rights, and to provide a service that will win people’s satisfaction”. The DPF is viewed as an integral part of the UAE’s development plans, and Dubai's decision makers are concerned about the concept

of human resource development, since investment in quality and in knowledge determines the future of human beings.

The DPF comprises several specialized departments in different security and police fields (see Figure 2.2).

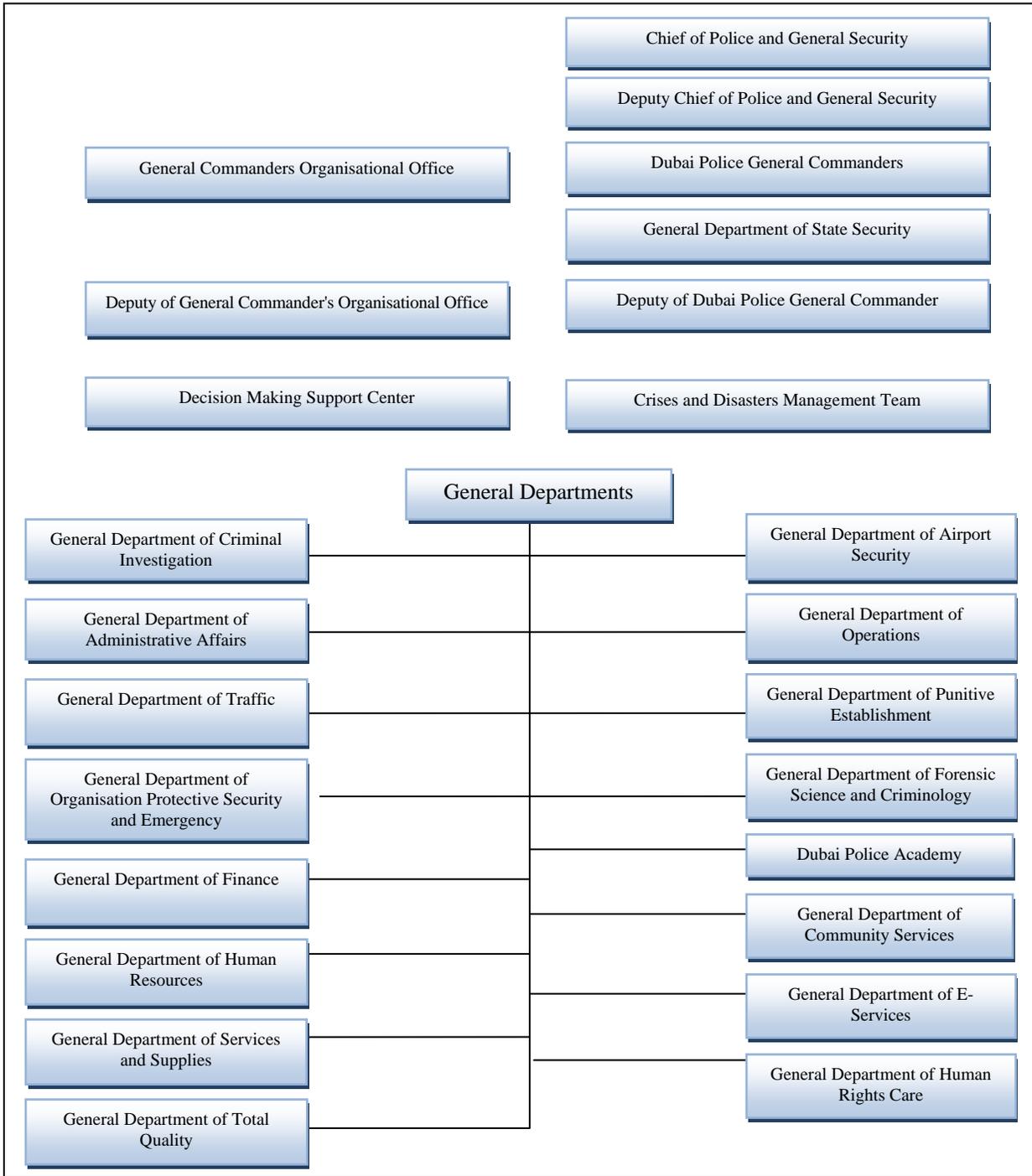
2.4 Summary

This chapter has highlighted the main features of both the UAE and the DPF. In the first section, the UAE's general background including history, culture and Emeritization were discussed. The second section addressed the DPF's role, its achievements and its vision and strategy.

Although the DPF has demonstrated its quality and achieved a good reputation among other police organisations around the world, it has begun to realize and be concerned about the importance of human resources in the workplace. One of the most serious issues in DPF strategy is promoting awareness of the concept of job satisfaction among its employees in all police fields and departments.

In the next chapter, the concept of job satisfaction (definitions, theories and measurements) will be discussed.

Figure 2.2: The DPF Organisational Structure



Source: Dubai Police (2009)

CHAPTER THREE: CONCEPT OF JOB SATISFACTION

3.1 Introduction

Since the main focus of this study is to construct a scale of job satisfaction, it is first necessary to examine the main concept of job satisfaction. Therefore, this chapter will first discuss the definitions of job satisfaction found in the literature. Second, it will review the theories of job satisfaction in order to show how these theories explain the mechanism of job satisfaction. Third, the consequences of job satisfaction will be highlighted. Finally, measurements of job satisfaction, which determine the sources of workers' satisfaction and dissatisfaction with their job, will be presented.

3.2 The Concept of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is one of the methods used to establish and maintain a healthy organisational structure (Abdulla *et al.*, 2008). Nowadays, organisations believe that employees are important assets and they strongly desire job satisfaction from their employees (Oshagbemi, 2003; Purohit, 2004). Assessing levels of job satisfaction has become a common activity in organisations in which management is concerned with the physical and psychological well-being of the individual (Spector, 1997). Therefore, it is evident that managers, supervisors, human resource specialists, employees, and public in general are all concerned with ways of improving job satisfaction (Cranny *et al.*, 1992). However, the question that arises here is what is meant by job satisfaction? In order to answer this question, the following subsections will discuss definitions and the inter-relatedness of job satisfaction and motivation.

3.2.1 Definitions of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been viewed in several ways and has been defined differently in many studies, since the definitions reflect researchers' perceptions, knowledge and experience. Although the concept of satisfaction has been researched extensively in the fields of psychology, sociology and business management, satisfaction remains a complex concept and is difficult to measure objectively because what satisfies workers today may not satisfy them tomorrow; and what satisfies them in one place might not satisfy them elsewhere.

Before discussing the definition of job satisfaction, it is important first to shed light on what the two independent terms (job) and (satisfaction) mean in general. Several studies have illustrated the term 'job' as the collection of tasks, duties and assignments especially undertaken by an employee for pay (Afzal *et al.*, 2004); a job can be considered as a stable source of livelihood.

Many attempts have been made to define the concept of satisfaction, and all agree that satisfaction is the final state of a psychological process (García-Bernal *et al.*, 2005). Despite job satisfaction having been defined in several ways, it is difficult to provide a precise definition. However, there are veins of similarity running through most definitions. Three important aspects have been utilised by researchers (for example, Luthans, 2005; Purohit, 2004) to define job satisfaction as follows.

(1) Job satisfaction as an emotional/cognitive response

This view of job satisfaction claims that it is intangible and can only be inferred (Luthans, 2005). Job satisfaction was defined by Hoppock (1935: 47) as: “*any combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances that would cause a person truthfully to state, I am satisfied with my job*”.

Grunberg (1979) defines job satisfaction as an individual's emotional reactions to a particular job. More specifically, Locke (1976: 1300) defines job satisfaction as: “*a*

pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences". It is important to note that both cognition and affect are used in Locke's definition, which implies that job satisfaction results from the interplay of these aspects (Schultz and Schultz, 2002). Dawis (2004) suggests two basic components of the term 'satisfaction': a cognitive or evaluative component (the perception that one's needs are being fulfilled), and an affective or emotional component (the feeling that accompanies the cognition). Adolphs and Damasio (2001) argue that cognitions are easier to separate from affect in theory than in practice, but isolating the two components conceptually does not deny their close connections (Judge *et al.*, 2009). However, Judge and Klinger (2008: 396) state that "*Cognition and affect concepts can help us better understand the nature of job satisfaction, but they are not substitutes for job satisfaction any more than the accumulated body parts of a cadaver substitute for a living human*".

(2) Job satisfaction as an explanation of how expectations are met

This refers to how well outcomes meet or exceed the expectations of the worker (Vroom, 1964; Porter and Lawler, 1968; Luthans, 2005). Mosadeghrad and Yarmohammadian (2006) argue that the key to understanding job satisfaction is to consider the difference between what a worker experiences on the job and what he or she wants or expects to find. As Vroom (1964) suggests, job satisfaction is a function of a perceived difference between what was expected as a fair and reasonable return and what was experienced. Therefore, the higher the expectations of individuals, the more likely they are to be less satisfied with their jobs, all other things being constant. Indeed, changes in expectations can have a profound impact on the perceived satisfaction of employees.

Porter and Steers (1973) argue that the extent of employee job satisfaction reflects the cumulative level of 'met worker expectations'. That is, employees expect their job to provide a mix of features (for example, pay, promotion, autonomy), but when the accumulation of unmet expectation becomes sufficiently large, there is less job satisfaction (Fields, 2002). For these expectations, each employee has certain preferential values and these preferences vary for different individuals.

(3) Job Satisfaction as a set of attitudes and feelings

This refers to a number of attitudes that together constitute job satisfaction. An attitude is the degree of affect towards an object (Ribeaux and Poppleton, 1981). More specifically, attitude is “*a regularity in an individual's feelings, thoughts and predispositions to act toward some aspect of his or her environment*” (Arnold *et al.*, 2005: 614).

Spector (2008: 223) defines job satisfaction as an *attitudinal variable that reflects how people feel about their jobs*, while Armstrong (2004:239) defines job satisfaction as

“the attitudes and feelings people have about their work. Such feelings towards work are often evaluated via measures of job satisfaction. Positive and favourable attitudes towards the job indicate job satisfaction. Negative and unfavourable attitudes towards the job indicate job dissatisfaction”.

Purohit (2004) indicates that job satisfaction is a specific subset of attitudes held by organisational members. It is the attitude one has toward specific factors, such as wages, security of employment and conditions of work. Spector (2008) and Kreitner and Kinicki (2006) state that job satisfaction encompasses a global feeling about the job and includes a related constellation of attitudes about various facets of the job (such as pay, supervision and co-workers) to which the employee responds effectively. This definition implies two approaches to job satisfaction, namely, the global approach, which is used when the overall attitude is of interest, and the facet approach, which is used to find out which parts of the job produce satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Spector (1997) indicates that the concept of job satisfaction has shifted in the last 30 years from need fulfilment to job satisfaction as an attitudinal variable. For instance, employees can have an attitude of being engaged with or disassociated from their organisation.

As indicated above, although there are many definitions of job satisfaction, an employee's perceptions, expectations and attitude in the workplace influence their overall level of job satisfaction. In the present study, the author has used the term ‘job satisfaction’ to show a combination of the employee's feelings towards the different facets involved. This feeling results from a feeling that is global in nature and from many specific work-related experiences. This is more consistent with Schermerhorn *et al.* (2005:158), who define job

satisfaction as “*the degree to which people feel positively or negatively about a job and its various facets*”. Likewise, Al-Saadi (1996: 41) defines job satisfaction as the feelings of an employee’s contentment, when he says

“Certain internal feelings are dependent on the personality of the employee which takes into account the extent of his contentment with the main factors of the job in the organisation. These feelings control the employee’s character, behaviour and conduct making him delighted in the state of satisfaction but distressed in the state of dissatisfaction, which is consequently reflected in his productivity and contribution to the work”.

3.2.2 Inter-relatedness between Job Satisfaction and Motivation

Although most theories have discussed job satisfaction within the context of motivation, the nature of this relationship is not clear. Mullins (2006) emphasises that job satisfaction is more of an attitude, an internal state, whereas motivation is a process that may lead to job satisfaction. However, organisations should know that a highly motivated employee does not necessarily mean a very satisfied employee and vice versa. Lawler (1973) states that motivation is future-oriented, being influenced by forward-looking perceptions concerning the relationship between performance and rewards, while satisfaction is past-oriented, referring to people’s feelings about the rewards they have received. Similarly, Purohit (2004) argues that while job satisfaction is concerned with the feeling one has towards the job, work motivation is concerned with the employee's behaviour that occurs in the work place.

In spite of the very close relationship between job satisfaction and work motivation, in some academic researches the two have been dealt with quite separately. For example, Schultz (1978: 262) suggests that

“the concepts of motivation and job satisfaction are interrelated, satisfaction can result from the fulfilment of motivations, and new sources of satisfaction can generate other motivations. From an academic and theoretical standpoint we can separate the two and discuss them individually”.

The notion of satisfaction differs from other similar concepts like morale and job involvement. In fact, satisfaction is based on a past or present assessment. It is also based on the opinion of one individual rather than a group appraisal, whereas morale is based

on the opinion of a group of individuals, which leads them to co-operate in the accomplishment of a task (Locke, 1976).

3.3 Concept of Work in Islam

Islam gives much attention to work. It stresses the necessity of work to achieve the objective of human creation which is building the earth. Allah – the Almighty – said in the Holy Qur’an (the literal words of Allah that revealed to the Prophet Muhammad during his life in Mecca and Medina) “Then we made you successors after them, generation after generation in the land, that we might see how you would work” (Yunus, 14). Islamic religion considers work to be a kind of worship because it is following the commandment of Allah and the more a Muslim works hard, the more he or she is rewarded. To this effect, work in Islam plays a crucial role on the lives of Muslims societies (Abbas and Al-Kazemi, 2007).

There are two main sources in encouraging Muslim people to work, namely, Holy Qur’an and Hadith (authentic saying) of the Prophet Mohammed (peace be upon him) which is considered as a second tier of legislation. Holy Qur’an and Sunnah (i.e. the way of life prescribed as normative in Islam) is based on the teachings and practices of the Prophet Mohammed (peace be upon him). Indeed, many Verses and Hadith show the significance of work in life. For example, Allah – the Almighty – says in the Holy Qur’an “Whoever works righteousness, whether male or female, while he (or she) is a true believer (of Islamic monotheism), verily, to him we will give a good life (in this world with respect, contentment and lawful provision) and we shall pay them certainly a reward in proportion to the best of what they used to do” (Al-Nahil, 97). “Do deeds! Allah will see your deeds, and (so will) His Messenger and the believers” (At-Tauba, 105). In addition, Allah- the Almighty- said in the Quran “Then when Salat (prayer) is ended, you may disperse through the land, and seek the Bounty of Allah (by working, and remember Allah much: that you may be successful” (Al- Jumu’ah, 10). The Prophet Mohammed (peace be upon him) stopped people from asking others for money and asked those who have nothing to work and earn their own living as he said “it is better if one of you takes a rope and

gathers wood on his back, than to ask people for money whether given or denied to be given”.

Muslim workers are required to not waste their time and do their job in a perfect way as the Prophet (peace be upon him) said: “Allah favours those who perform work and perfect it”. As a result of good performance in the present life faithful workers will win paradise as a reward for what they did in their lives as Allah – the Almighty – said in Surat Al Kahf (88) “But whoever believes, and works righteousness, he shall have a goodly reward, and easy will be his task as We order it by Our command”.

Islam puts in the conscious thinking of a Muslim that this vast land is a place of work with no limit in seizing opportunities and ambitions except what Allah – the Almighty – prohibited. “He it is who has made the earth subservient to you (i.e easy for you to walk, live and grow the land) so walk in the path thereof and eat of his provision. And to him will be the resurrection” (Al –Mulk, 15). Additionally, work is not limited to trading or occupying a position, but has a wider concept to include all jobs and professions that earn money in return, whether it is physical, mental, administrative, or technical. While a worker has the right to choose any work, they must search for work that is considered Halal. On the other hand, Islam emphasises to workers’ rights and orders employers to treat their employees in a good manner and to not deny their rights as the prophet (peace be upon him) said: “give a worker his wage before he even rests”.

According to Ibn Khaldun (1989: 273), engaging in business has several goals, for example, facilitating cooperation among people, satisfying the needs of people, and increasing wealth and influence. In Table 3.1, Ali (2005: 53-5) and Ali and Al- Owaihan (2008: 11-12) categorise the aspects of work in Islam in accordance with what the Prophet Mohammed (peace be upon him) said.

Table 3.1: Principles of Work in Islam

- **Pursuing legitimate business:** Prophet Mohammed requested from his companions to work hard to benefit themselves and their societies. As a result, the more a Muslim works, the more he or she is rewarded. He stated “worshiping has seventy avenues; the best of them is the involvement in an honestly earned living”.
- **Wealth must be earned:** In Islamic faith, it is acknowledged that people have different capacities. It is these capacities and existing opportunities that enable them to acquire wealth. Pursuing economic activities, however, must be based on moral and legitimate foundations.
- **Quality of work:** Prophet Mohammed said “God blesses a person who perfects his craft (does the job right)” and “God loves a person who learns precisely how to perform his work and does it right”.
- **Wages:** Prophet Mohammed instructed Muslims to be fair and just and prompt in compensating workers. He declared, “Give a worker his wage before he even rests” and “your wage should be based on your effort and spending”. That is, payment for wages should be timely, fair and adequate.
- **Reliance on self:** One of the most important functions of work is that it sustains confidence and self-reliance. Prophet Mohammed stated, “no one eats better food than that which he eats out of the work of his hand” and “no earnings are better than that of one’s own effort”.
- **Monopoly:** In Islam, monopoly is considered a great fault that produces suffering, unlawful profit and ensures inequality. Prophet Mohammed, therefore, forbade it stating, “The supplier is blessed and the monopolist is cursed” and “whoever withholds commodities, is a sinner”.
- **Bribery:** Like monopoly and cheating, bribery is strongly condemned in Islam. Prophet Mohammed declared, “God cursed the one who gives and the one who receives bribery”.
- **Deeds and intentions:** One of the fundamental assumptions in Islam is that intention rather than result is the criterion upon which work is evaluated in terms of benefit to community. Any activity that is perceived to do harm, even though it results in significant wealth to those who undertake it, is considered unlawful. Prophet Mohammed stated, “God does not look at your matters [shapes or forms] and wealth, rather God examines your intentions and actions”.
- **Transparency:** Business and work in general have to rest on ethical and moral foundations. The precondition for propagating and realizing this goal is transparency. Prophet Mohammed said that “He who cheated us is not one of us”. This underlies the significance of transparency in any business transaction, and the necessity for enhancing trust and reducing problems in the marketplace.
- **Greed:** In Islam, greed is considered a threat to social and economic justice. The Prophet Mohammed in his struggle against the elite of Mecca consistently and tirelessly criticized their greediness. He stated, “be aware of greediness; it is the living poverty” and “two qualities are not found in a believer: greediness and immorality”.
- **Generosity. Generosity is a virtue in Islam:** The Prophet Mohammed stated that “there is nothing worse than avariciousness”. He declared, “the generous person is closest to God, heaven, people and far from hell” and “he who removes a distress, God blesses in this world and the hereafter”.

3.4 Theories of Job Satisfaction

Although there is no single definition of job satisfaction, there are many theories regarding what contributes positively or negatively to the concept. As a concept, job satisfaction is extremely complex with no single conceptual model that completely and accurately describes the construct (Mullins, 2006).

Previous studies have developed gradually from a simple evaluation of basic models to more complex issues and in-depth investigations to determine the causes and the consequences of job satisfaction. For instance, Frederick W. Taylor (1911) developed the Scientific Management School, which emphasised the material motives, without considering the human aspects of job satisfaction. The classical theory of Taylor prompted a number of studies that revealed additional reasons explaining job satisfaction, one of which led to the formation of the human relation theories. Elton Mayo (1933) developed the Human Relations School, which stresses that human elements and human relationships are important factors to be taken into account in considering productivity increase. Hoppock (1935), who was the first to conduct an intensive study of job satisfaction, emphasises the importance of studying the feelings and attitudes of the employees toward their job (Locke, 1967). It is, therefore, not surprising that since Hoppock's study, a substantial amount of research has been conducted about job satisfaction.

In order to gain insight into questions such as what makes some people more satisfied with their jobs than others and what underlying processes account for people's feelings of job satisfaction, various theories will be discussed. Researchers such as Campbell *et al.* (1970), Foster (2000) and Rollinson (2008) suggest two approaches to job satisfaction, namely, content and process theories. The former gives an account of the factors that influence job satisfaction, whereas the latter gives an account of the process by which variables, such as expectations, needs, and values, relate to the characteristics of the job to produce job satisfaction. Although content and process theories reflect different starting assumptions, both provide insights into human behaviour and effort at the workplace (Robinson, 2008).

Reviewing all theories and what has been reported about job satisfaction is not the purpose of this chapter, but a brief overview of the main and related ideas of some of these theories might well serve a useful purpose. Therefore, this study will focus on those that have made the greatest contribution to the understanding of job satisfaction.

3.4.1 Content Theories

Content theories propose that management or administration can determine the needs of workers through observing their behaviour and also can predict their behaviour by being aware of their needs. These theories, therefore, assume that the manager's job is to create a work environment that responds positively to individual needs (Schermerhorn *et al.*, 2005). Locke (1976: 1307) indicates that "*content theories attempt to specify the particular needs that must be satisfied or the values that must be attained for an individual to be satisfied with his job*". The content theories (also referred to as need theories) stress that it is inner needs that lead people to act in a particular way in the work situation. Content theories attempt to answer questions like 'What needs do people try to satisfy?' and 'What impels them to action?' Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory (1943) and Herzberg's Motivator-Hygiene Theory (1959) are examples of content theories.

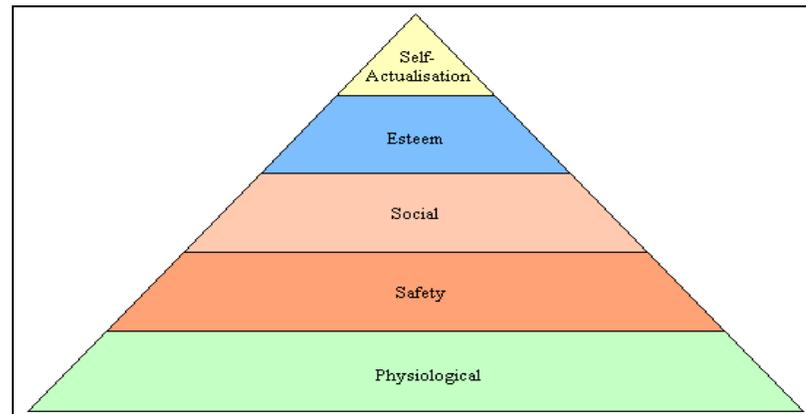
3.4.1.1 Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory

Maslow (1943) proposed hierarchy needs that introduced his theory about how people satisfy various personal needs in the context of their work. He postulated, based on his observations as a humanistic psychologist, that there is a general pattern of needs, recognition and satisfaction that people follow in the same sequence.

Maslow's theory consists of five fundamental needs starting from the physiological, which is located at the bottom of the hierarchy, and leading to self actualization, which is defined as the highest need (see Figure 3.1). This set of needs is innate in individuals. According to Maslow, to make workers more motivated, these needs should be considered, and the more workers fulfill their needs the greater will be their satisfaction. He emphasized that some needs are more important than others and must be satisfied

before the other needs can serve as motivators (Maslow, 1970). While Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory is regarded as a motivational theory, it provides a basic stepping stone for further research related to job satisfaction.

Figure 3.1: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs



Source: Maslow (1943:370)

The hierarchy comprises five levels as follows (Maslow, 1970; Armstrong, 2004; Leverment, 2002; Martin, 2001):

- *Physiological needs*

These include the wide range of basic needs, which must be satisfied for the individual to survive, for example, the need for food, warmth, clothing and shelter, as well as sleep, maternal behaviour and sensory pleasure. Although these needs are innate in human beings, there are certain differences in terms of quality and quantity among people in fulfilling these needs. In an organisational context, this would include the need for good working conditions and an adequate salary.

- *Safety needs*

This category incorporates needs that provide for the security of individuals in their normal environment, for example, the need for safety and security, freedom from pain, and protection from danger. In an organisational context, this would include the need for job security, pension and health insurance.

- *Social needs*

From this category individuals would look to draw on the social support necessary for life, for example, a sense of belonging, social activity, friendships and relationships. These needs can enhance the relationship between workers and avoid serious managerial problems among them, such as lack of cooperation and respect. In an organisational context, this would include relationship with co-workers.

- *Self esteem needs*

This would include individuals having self-respect. Self-respect is the need for a sense of achievement, competence, adequacy and confidence. Franken (1982) indicates that a job can provide sufficient tools, such as prestige and status appreciation, to satisfy workers' esteem needs. In an organisational context, this would be recognition by management and job status.

- *Self-actualisation needs*

This category is related to the opportunity for the individual to become everything they are capable of becoming. According to Spector (2008), Maslow did not define self-actualisation needs clearly, as Maslow (1943: 382) defined it as “*the desire to become...everything that one is capable of becoming*”. This need differs from the previous four needs, as when the need for self-actualisation is gratified, it increases in strength. This growth is endless, and can never be attained or satisfied. In an organisational context, this would include the need for freedom and creativity.

In this hierarchy of needs, Maslow indicated that job satisfaction exists when the job and the environment surrounding the job meet an individual's hierarchical needs. However, people will never fulfil these needs completely; so, specific needs will still dominate their behaviour. The result of the inability to meet and satisfy any of these needs will bring about frustration and will prevent the next need from emerging.

Although Maslow's needs theory is well-known, wide criticism has been lodged against it. The following are some criticisms:

- Locke and Henne (1986) state that Maslow's statement of theory is rather vague, making it difficult to design tests. According to Wahba and Bridwell (1976), there is no clear evidence showing that human needs can be classified into five categories or structured in a special hierarchy. Spector (2008) argues that the validity of the theory is still questionable, as very little is known about the ultimate goal for humans, namely, the need for self-actualisation.

- Maslow's theory maintains that people will look to attain higher-level needs only when lower needs have been satisfied. In fact, this is not practical because people are acutely aware of higher needs even though their fundamental physiological needs have not been fully met (Bennett, 1997a). In addition, Martin (2001) argues that the amount of satisfaction needed at a specific level before a higher level need is activated is unknown. He also maintains that organisational events can impact on satisfaction at more than one level in the hierarchy. For example, money can be used to satisfy needs at every level in the hierarchy.

- The idea that lower needs will stop affecting behaviour when they have been satisfied is doubtful because some of them are continuous needs, such as the need for food, drink and air; different needs are present and determine behaviour simultaneously, horizontally and vertically (Buck, 1988; Bennett, 1997a).

- Maslow's theory fails not only to account for individual differences and professional differences, but also cultural differences, since different cultures have different values and needs (Rollinson, 2008). Social environments influence individuals' perceptions; much depends on the traditions, culture and lifestyle of the societies in which people live (Bennett, 1997a). Studies report that needs vary according to a person's career stage, the size of the organisation, and even geographic location (Douglas *et al.*, 1963; Ivancevich, 1969, cited in Schermerhorn *et al.*, 2005:123).

3.4.1.2 Herzberg’s Motivator-Hygiene Theory

Herzberg *et al.* (1959) postulated a two-factor theory that categorises the factors affecting job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. This theory is considered one of the best known content theories in this regard. Herzberg simply asked 200 engineers and accountants to report the times they felt exceptionally good about their jobs and the times they felt exceptionally bad about them. Thus, this theory differs from Maslow's theory since it has been based on empirical findings. After categorising the responses and analysing them, Herzberg and his associates isolated two sets of factors that determine job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. These two sets of factors are motivators (or satisfiers) and hygiene (or dissatisfiers). The motivator-hygiene theory also describes the concept of job satisfaction with two dimensions (intrinsic factors and extrinsic factors). Table 3.2 presents the factors causing satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Table 3.2: Factors Affecting Job Attitudes of Herzberg’s Motivation-Hygiene Theory

Hygiene Factors Extrinsic Factors - Factors that led to Job Dissatisfaction	Motivators Factors Intrinsic Factors - Factors that led to Job Satisfaction
Company policies and administration Supervision Relations – supervisor Working conditions Salary Relations – peers Personal life Relations – subordinates Status Job security	Achievement Recognition Work itself Responsibility Advancement Growth

Source: Herzberg (1968: 23)

The mechanism of Herzberg’s theory is that the presence of motivator factors, which relate to job content, produce job satisfaction, but their absence does not lead to job dissatisfaction. Achievement, recognition and responsibility are examples of motivating factors. On the other hand, the presence of hygiene factors, which relate to the job context or working environment, do not produce feelings of satisfaction, but their absence leads to job dissatisfaction. Examples of hygiene factors are salary, supervision and job security. The most surprising factor among hygiene factors is salary, since Herzberg

found that a low salary makes people dissatisfied while paying them more does not necessarily satisfy them (Schermerhorn *et al.*, 2005).

In spite of the major contribution Herzberg's theory has made to understanding job satisfaction, there are serious criticisms:

- Locke (1976: 1318) stated that the idea of separate and independent factors seemed to be logically and empirically indefensible. Locke affirmed that these factors are separable but interdependent. Research has shown that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors contribute to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Therefore, there is no clear cut link between the factors causing satisfaction and those causing dissatisfaction (Rollinson, 2008). Kreitner and Kinicki (2006) concluded that some hygiene factors are related to job satisfaction.
- Regarding Herzberg's theory concerning the methodology of the study, several problems have been identified: (a) some of the findings contradict the theory; (b) the findings differ depending on the method of data collection; and (c) the hypotheses and criterion measures are ambiguous (Schermerhorn *et al.*, 2005). Moreover, Herzberg did not say how motivator and hygiene factors contribute to the creation of overall job satisfaction (Gruneberg, 1979).
- The theory fails to take sufficient account of individual and cultural differences. Hulin (1966) argues that Herzberg's theory ignored the role of individual and cultural variables in job situations. Just as Maslow's theory can be criticised for its assumption of universal applicability, so can Herzberg's work. According to Rollinson (2008), what are hygiene factors in one person or culture could be motivators in another and vice versa. For example, Herzberg views money as a hygiene factor that determines dissatisfaction, but for some employees, it may motivate and satisfy them (Hellriegel and Slocum, 2004; Gruneberg 1979).

Despite such criticisms of Herzberg's theory from researchers, an important application of the theory was an approach called 'job enrichment', which was used to improve

satisfaction in the work place (Dawis, 2004: 473). This indicates that job enrichment helps managers to organize changes in specific job characteristics to promote job satisfaction. Herzberg's work also was the basis for Hackman and Oldham's (1975) job characteristics theory, which is discussed later.

Rollinson (2008) states that content theories do not contradict each other and since each theory stresses a different pattern of needs, it is more appropriate to view them as complimentary. In order to reconcile Maslow's approach to that of Herzberg, the basic and social needs in Maslow's hierarchy can be considered as Herzberg's hygiene factors in that they can cause dissatisfaction if they are not fulfilled. On the other hand, the esteem and self actualization indicated by Maslow can be considered as Herzberg's motivators, the absence of which does not lead to dissatisfaction. Roberg and Kuykendall (1997) indicated that Maslow's and Herzberg's theories provide a useful theoretical framework for empirically assessing police officers' job satisfaction.

3.4.2 Process Theories

Process theories (also referred to as cognitive theories) go further than merely identifying the basic needs that motivate people. They recognise that needs are highly personalised and can vary for each individual over time (Rollinson, 2008). Process theories aim to analyse the thought processes that determine behaviour (Schermerhorn *et al.*, 2005).

Process theories are concerned with how behaviour is initiated, directed and sustained. They attempt to answer questions like 'How do behaviours happen?' and more specifically, 'How do satisfaction processes actually operate?' For instance, how is an individual's satisfaction shaped by their perception of what has happened to them in the past and/or what might happen to them in the future as a consequence of their actions? (Murray *et al.*, 2006). Adams's equity theory (1965) and Vroom's expectancy theory (1964) are examples of process theories.

3.4.2.1 Adams' Equity Theory

Adams (1963), a behavioural scientist working at the General Electric Company, proposed the first systematic account of the concept that an employee's perception of fairness in comparison with that of others influences their motivation and job satisfaction. Equity is achieved when the ratio of an employee's outcomes (for example, pay, recognition and promotion) to inputs (for example, experience, education, qualification, effort and skills) is equal to that of other employees (Adams, 1963). That is, employees will evaluate how much they receive from the job (outcomes) in relation to their contribution (inputs). Each employee compares his or her ratio to the ratios of employees working inside or outside the organisation. When workers perceive their compensation as being equal to what other workers receive for similar contributions, they will believe that their treatment is fair and equitable. According to this theory, equity exists only when a person's perception of his input and outcome is equal to the input and outcome of others in a similar position. Dawis (2004: 475) and Spector (2008) indicate that if the ratios are equal, the result is job satisfaction; otherwise, job dissatisfaction results, although with different consequences for positive and negative inequities.

To this effect, feelings of inequity might arise when a person's ratio of outcomes to inputs is either less or greater than that of other employees (see Figure 3.2). For instance, when workers think the salary they receive is relatively less than that received by others in work inputs, they will perceive a feeling of negative inequity, whereas workers who feel the salary they receive is relatively greater than that received by others will have the feeling of positive inequity (Schermerhorn *et al.*, 2005; Spector, 2006). According to Adams (1963), underpayment or negative inequity leads to anger and positive or overpayment inequity induces guilt. Consequently, perceived inequity can lead to negative outcomes, such as tensions and dissatisfaction and a high turnover rate.

Employees will be motivated to reduce inequity through several methods, as follows: changing the inputs (for example, reducing performance efforts), changing the outcomes (for example, asking for rewards), cognitive distortion of inputs and outcomes, leaving

the field (for example, resigning), influencing others, or changing the object of comparison (Daft, 2003).

Figure 3.2: Description of Equity and Inequity

	<i>Person A</i>	<i>Person B</i>
Equity	Inputs (100%) = Outcomes (100%)	Inputs (100%) = Outcomes (100%)
Negative or Underpayment Inequity	Inputs (100%) = Outcomes (100%)	Inputs (100%) = Outcomes (130%)
Positive or overpayment Inequity	Inputs (100%) = Outcomes (130%)	Inputs (100%) = Outcomes (100%)

Although equity theory is considered a key aspect of process theory, it has been criticised by some researchers as follows:

- Equity theory oversimplifies the motivational issues by not explicitly considering individual needs and perceptions. This oversimplification becomes extremely important when the workforce becomes more diverse. The feeling of equity or inequity will depend on the worker's perception, which may be inaccurate, not to mention the individual differences in terms of the sensitivity to equity ratios and the balance of preference (Riggio, 1990).
- The components of the comparison are highly subjective, which is difficult to test empirically (Boddy, 2005; Vroom, 1964). Also, the inputs to and outputs from a job might not be accurately identified by individuals (Bennett, 1997a).
- Mowday (1987) questioned whether people really feel guilty or are unhappy if they are overpaid.
- Cross-cultural differences may play a role in employees' preference for equity. Research has shown that people who feel underpaid are less comfortable than those who feel overpaid. Such results are particularly tied to individualistic

cultures, where self interest tends to govern social comparison, more than to collectivist cultures. The concern of collectivist cultures, such as those of many Asian countries, often focuses more on equality than on equity. This allows for solidarity with the group and helps to maintain harmony in social relationships (Kagitcibasi and Berry, 1989, cited in Schermerhorn *et al.*, 2005).

3.4.2.2 Vroom's Expectancy Theory

Expectancy theory was one of the first theories to focus on the cognitive processes that underlie motivation and job satisfaction. Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory is well known. The theory states that individuals are driven not only by needs, but also by the choices about what they will or will not do. Vroom emphasised that job satisfaction is based on people's beliefs about the probability that effort will lead to performance (expectancy) multiplied by the probability that performance will lead to reward (instrumentality), multiplied by the perceived value of the reward (valence) (Greenberg and Baron, 1997:159). Vroom formulated an equation consisting of three variables, which are expectancy (E), instrumentality (I) and valence (V), in order to illustrate a decision process.

$$\text{Motivation (M)} = (\text{E}) \times (\text{I}) \times (\text{V})$$

In order to imply motivated performance choices, the three variables must have high positive values. For example, if any of the variables approaches zero, the probability of motivated performance also approaches zero, and so there will be no motivation. When all three values are high, motivation to perform is also high (Spector, 2008). Therefore, the interactive combination of all three variables influences motivation and satisfaction.

- *Expectancy*

Schermerhorn *et al.* (2005: 127) state that expectancy is the “*probability that work effort will be followed by performance accomplishment*”. For example, ‘If I tried, could I do it?’ Lawler (1983) indicates that if workers believe that the outcome levels correspond to what they should be, workers will be happy or satisfied. In contrast, workers will be dissatisfied in a case where there is a difference between the two.

- *Instrumentality*

Schermerhorn *et al.* (2005: 127) explore the idea that instrumentality is the “*probability that performance will lead to various work outcomes*”. For example, ‘If I did it, would I attain the required outcome?’ If workers know that they will be rewarded for their effort, then performance will be improved and workers will be satisfied (Stoner, 1983).

- *Valence*

Schermerhorn *et al.* (2005: 127) define valence as “*the value to the individual of various work outcomes*”. For example, ‘Do I really value the available outcomes?’ According to Dubrin (1984:118), valence represents the value or importance or attractiveness, that a particular outcome has for an individual’s perceived value of the reward or outcome that might be obtained by performing effectively. In the job setting, money is a frequent reward that can have different valence levels for different people (Spector, 2008).

The theory was criticised as being of limited practical value. According to Bennett (1997a) and Robbins (2003), expectancy theory is difficult to test practically. For example, in spite of theory assumes that workers think logically and act in a rational manner, experience suggests this might not be the case always (Bennett, 1997a). Everyday experience suggests that people do not weigh the 'pros and cons' of every action to such an extent. House *et al.* (1974) argue that expectancy theory might be valid for predicting in situations in which effort-performance and performance-reward linkages are clearly perceived by the individual. Moreover, Borders *et al.* (2004) indicate that workers choose and examine from a different set of alternatives to engage in particular behaviour patterns. Among the potential alternative decisions that can be made, some appear more attractive than others. Furthermore, the influence of other factors, such as co-workers and supervisors, is sufficiently taken into account, which will affect the results of the analysis.

3.4.2.3 Job Characteristics Model

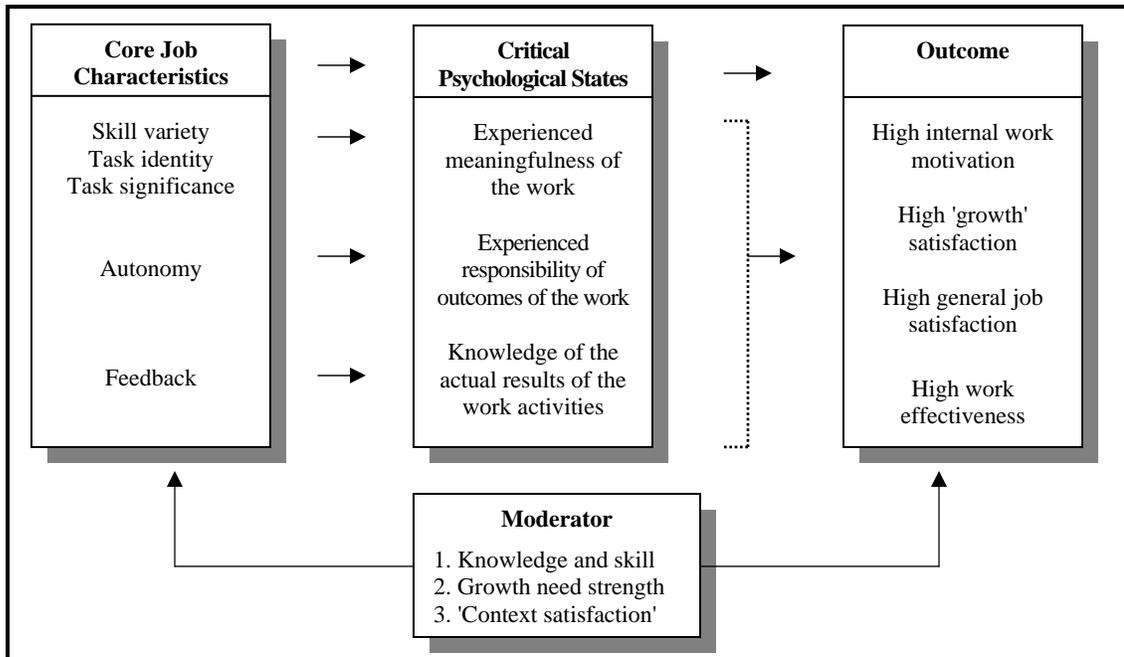
Hackman and Oldham (1975) developed the job characteristics model, which refers to the content and nature of job tasks themselves. The job characteristics model is considered a

popular research model in organisational behaviour. This model suggests that job features induce psychological states, which in turn, lead to work outcomes. The job features or core characteristics consist of five dimensions, which were defined by Hackman and Oldham (1975: 161-162) as follows:

- *Skill Variety (SV)*
“The degree to which a job requires a variety of different activities in carrying out the work, which involves the use of a number of different skills and talents of the employees”.
- *Task Identity (TI)*
“The degree to which the job requires completion of a whole and identifiable piece of work, that is, doing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome”.
- *Task Significance (TS)*
“The degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives or work of other people, whether in the immediate organisation or in the external environment”.
- *Autonomy*
“The degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence and discretion to the employee in scheduling the work and determining the procedures to be used in carrying them out”.
- *Feedback*
“The degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job result in the employee obtaining direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his or her performance”.

The five core dimensions are thought to lead to three psychological states that, in turn, lead to a number of beneficial outcomes for the employee and the organisation, such as motivation, performance and satisfaction. Skill variety, task identity and task significance together induce a sense of meaningfulness at work. Autonomy leads to feelings of responsibility. Feedback leads to knowledge of results (see Figure 3.3). According to Hackman and Oldham (1975), when these critical psychological states are experienced, work motivation, job satisfaction and performance will be high. Spector (2006) indicates that several studies, across many different types of jobs, have found that each of five core characteristics of the job characteristics model relate to job satisfaction.

Figure 3.3: A Job Characteristics Model



Source: Hackman and Oldham (1980: 90)

Hackman and Oldham have developed an instrument called the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS). Scores on the JDS are combined to create a Motivating Potential Score (MPS), which indicates the degree to which the job is capable of motivating people (Schermerhorn *et al.*, 2005). The latter authors state that the higher a job scores on each of the five characteristics, the more the job is considered to be enriched. Specifically, the following formula is used:

$$\text{MPS} = \frac{\text{SV} + \text{TI} + \text{TS}}{3} \times (\text{Autonomy}) \times (\text{Feedback})$$

3

According to Spector (2006), the multiplicative nature of the formula suggests that a job cannot be motivating if it leads to low levels of even one of the three psychological states. If one of the three multiplied terms equal zero, the MPS will be zero.

The model also highlights three individuals' differences that act as moderators that influence individuals' preferences in how their jobs are designed. Since individuals have differing needs for personal accomplishment (that is, learning and growth), they will react to their jobs differently. This is similar to Maslow's esteem and self-actualization. The

moderators are growth need strength (GNS), knowledge and skills, and context satisfaction. According to Hackman and Oldham (1980), the connection from job characteristics to psychological states to outcomes holds true mainly for individuals who score highly for GNS. Individuals having a high GNS score are likely to respond more positively to jobs that are rated highly on the five core dimensions (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). The second moderator is knowledge and skills. People whose capabilities fit the demands of enriched jobs are predicted to feel good about their job and perform well. Job enrichment, however, can fail when job requirements are increased beyond the level of individual capabilities (Schermerhorn *et al*, 2005). Context satisfaction is the extent to which an employee is satisfied with aspects of the work setting, such as salary, supervision and relationship with co-workers.

Although the job characteristics very tightly define the theory that is used widely in predicting job satisfaction and applying job enrichment, research has revealed a number of significant flaws, such as:

- The model says little about changes in job characteristics that lead to changes in motivation, satisfaction and performance (Roberts and Glick, 1987; Arnold *et al.*, 2005). Kelly (1992) attributes this to poor research design.
- The model says little about how to redesign jobs for people with a low GNS and how to identify what might motivate them (Spector, 2006).
- Kelly (1992) suggests that critical psychological states are in serious need of refinement and revision. Algera (1983) states also that there is some doubt about whether the job characteristics actually predict critical psychological states or vice versa.
- The composite measure of job characteristics, MPS, is parsimonious, but it neglects important aspects of jobs, such as pay and job security (Roberts and Glick, 1987). Moreover, the algorithm for computing the MPS was not based on a very strong theoretical rationale (Roberts and Glick, 1987).

3.4.2.4 Situational Theory

The situational theory of job satisfaction has been developed by Quarstein *et al.* (1992). Situational theorists suggest that job satisfaction is influenced by the interaction of three factors: task, organisational, and individual characteristics. This theory proposes and assumes that job satisfaction is determined by two factors, namely, situational characteristics and situational occurrences (Quarstein *et al.*, 1992).

Situational characteristics include those things employees evaluate before taking or accepting a job. Examples of situational characteristics are pay, company policies, promotional opportunities, working conditions, and supervision. Organisations typically assume that these facets are important to the applicant as evidenced during interviews (Quarstein *et al.*, 1992).

On the other hand, situational occurrences are those things employees evaluate after taking or accepting a job and include facets that can be positive or negative. An example of positive situational occurrence can be rewarding employees by letting them leave work early after successfully finishing an urgent job, giving them a free trip for outstanding work performance and placing a new refrigerator in the work area. An example of negative situational occurrence can be insufficient paper towels in the rest rooms, broken copying equipment, rude remarks by co-workers, confusing memos and offensive language used by the supervisor (Quarstein *et al.* 1992).

Situational occurrences and situational characteristics differ in other ways and a comparison between the two is presented in Table 3.3.

The theory hypothesises that overall job satisfaction results from a combination of situational occurrences and situational characteristics. It also hypothesises that situational occurrences play a prevalent role in determining an individual's subsequent satisfaction with the job. Quarstein *et al.* (1992) maintain that both situational characteristics and situational occurrences affect job satisfaction, and understanding them can facilitate improved worker satisfaction.

Table 3.3: Differences between Situational Occurrences and Situational Characteristics

Tendencies of Situational Characteristics	Tendencies of Situational Occurrences
Evaluated prior to accepting job	Evaluated after job begins
Stable/permanent	Transitory/variable-change quickly
Difficult/ expensive to change	Easy/inexpensive to change
Universal/ finite number Easy to categorise	Situational/ infinite number Difficult to categorise
Monitored upon being hired/ Emotional response if changed	Not monitored immediately after being hired/no initial emotional response/ effects accumulate over time.

Source: Quarstein *et al.* (1992: 862)

3.4.3 Comments on Job Satisfaction Theories

The concept of job satisfaction is complex, as it can mean different things to different people; most theories discuss job satisfaction within the context of job motivation (Mullins, 2006). The two major approaches (that is, content and process) focus on different aspects of job satisfaction. Content theories emphasise the needs that give rise to motivated behaviour, but perhaps oversimplify matters since they tend to describe human beings as having a similar set of needs; however, as long as due allowance is made for individual differences, this does not change their potential usefulness (Rollinson, 2008). On the other hand, process theories seek to explain the dynamics of the satisfaction process and so much greater account is taken of individual differences, but this results in theories that are more complex, which means that they are difficult to apply in practice (Rollinson, 2008).

At present, however, no theory can claim to explain job satisfaction fully, because each has limitations and shortcomings. Each theory accounts for some particular aspect of job satisfaction, but not all of them. The result is a great body of specific empirical data, little of which can be generalised. However, according to Rollinson (2008), these theories are complementary rather than opposed.

One of the arguments often levelled against theories of job satisfaction is that they take little account of differences between people and cultures. What is needed by one group of individuals in terms of a job often differs from what is required by another group

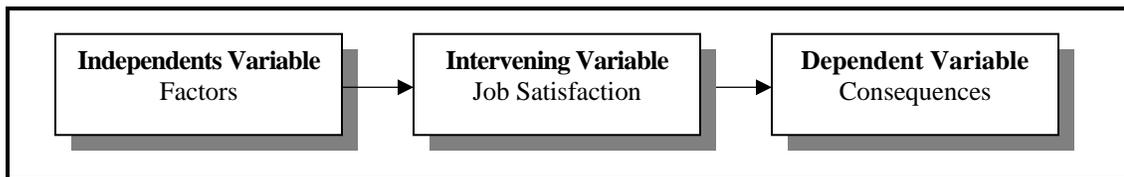
(Oshagbemi, 2003). In the absence of a single general theory, one major view is that job satisfaction is jointly determined by the characteristics of individuals, jobs and organisations (Seashore and Taber, 1975).

3.5 Consequences of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been assumed to be a cause of important employee and organisational outcomes ranging from job performance to health and longevity (Spector, 2008). Although researchers have examined the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational variables, job satisfaction has a variety of outcomes. These outcomes can have both positive and negative consequences for both individuals and organisations. If an organisation changes the conditions for achieving job satisfaction for their workers, one can expect some behavioural outcomes that have an important impact on the well being of organisations. Therefore, it is important to explore the consequences of job satisfaction.

Figure 3.4 represents the relationship between job satisfaction (dependent variable) and its antecedents or factors (independent variables), and the relationship between job satisfaction (intervening variable) and its consequences (dependent variables).

Figure 3.4: Job Satisfaction as an Intervening and Independent Variable



Researchers have identified a number of potential consequences of job satisfaction including, *organisational commitment* (for example, Meyer *et al.*, 1993), *organisational citizenship behaviour* (for example, Organ and Konovsky, 1989), *job performance* (for example, Iaffaldano and Muchinsky, 1985), *job involvement* (for example, Freund, 2005), withdrawal behaviour, namely, *absenteeism* (for example, Lambert *et al.*, 2005), *actual turnover* (for example, Griffeth *et al.*, 2000) and *intention-to-quit* (for example, Campbell and Campbell, 2003). Job satisfaction has also been shown to be significantly related to

an employee's life outside the work place, as determined by measures of *life satisfaction* (for example, McElwain *et al.*, 2005), *work-to family* and *family-to-work conflict* (for example, Mesmer-Magnus and Viswesvaran, 2005), and the manifestation of both physical and behavioural symptoms of stress (Siu *et al.*, 2005).

Although several studies have found that job satisfaction has an association with its consequences, the implications of these results are uncertain because this relationship may be partly attributable to reverse causality 'going the other way', that is, productivity may influence job satisfaction (Allen and Wilburn, 2002: 18). Likewise, Judge and Watanabe (1993) found in a longitudinal study that the effects of life satisfaction on job satisfaction were considerably larger than the effects of job satisfaction on life satisfaction. To this effect, researchers are not in consensus upon the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. It would be unwise to assume that high job satisfaction leads to high performance, or that high performers are satisfied with their jobs (Euske *et al.*, 1980). For instance, Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985), found little to support such a relationship, that is, satisfied employees are not automatically the ones who show higher performance. However, a meta-analysis carried out by Judge *et al.* (2001) uncovered a positive correlation between job satisfaction and performance of around 0.3.

Locke (1976: 1334) summarised the consequences of job satisfaction, after reviewing a considerable number of related studies, as follows:

“Job satisfaction, itself or in combination with the conditions (both in the individual and the job environment) which bring it about, has a variety of consequences for the individual. It can affect his attitude toward life, toward his family, and toward himself. It can affect his physical health and possibly how long he lives. It may be related (indirectly) to mental health and adjustment, and plays a causal role in absenteeism and turnover. Under certain conditions, it may affect other types of on-the-job behaviour as well. However, job satisfaction has no direct effect on productivity”.

The summarised findings of other variables correlated to job satisfaction are presented in Table 3.4. The strength of the relationship ranges from moderate to weak. However, researchers have proposed causes for these weak relationships, including poor or

inconsistent operational definitions of the job satisfaction construct (Brief and Weiss, 2002) and faulty measurement systems (Brief and Roberson, 1989).

Table 3.4: Correlates of Job Satisfaction

Variables Related with Satisfaction	Direction of Relationship	Strength of Relationship
Motivation	Positive	Moderate
Job Involvements	Positive	Moderate
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	Positive	Moderate
Organisational Commitment	Positive	Strong
Absenteeism	Negative	Weak
Tardiness	Negative	Weak
Turnover	Negative	Moderate
Heart Disease	Negative	Moderate
Perceived Stress	Negative	Strong
Pro-union Voting	Negative	Moderate
Job Performance	Positive	Weak
Life Satisfaction	Positive	Moderate
Mental Health	Positive	Moderate

Source: Kreitner *et al.* (2002:196)

Specific employee attitudes relating to job satisfaction are important to the field of organisational behaviour and the practice of human resource management (Luthans, 2005). The following sections will examine organisational commitment (OC) and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) as consequences of job satisfaction. According to Foote and Tang (2008), although the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) has long been known, there is no much research to study this relationship.

3.5.1 Organisational Commitment (OC)

Organisational commitment has received considerable attention from researchers. It reflects the extent to which an individual becomes attached to an organisation (Armstrong, 2004; Griffin, 2008). Mowday *et al.* (1979) define organisational commitment as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in an organisation. They propose three components of organisational commitment: (1) a strong desire to remain a member of the organisation, (2) a strong desire to accept organisational goals and values, and (3) a willingness to make an effort for the organisation.

More recently, the three components were classified by Meyer *et al.* (1993) into three types:

- 1) *Affective commitment*: this essentially concerns the person's emotional attachment to the organisation.
- 2) *Continuance commitment*: a person's perception of the costs and risks associated with leaving their current organisation.
- 3) *Normative commitment*: a moral dimension, based on a person's felt obligation and responsibility to their employing organisation.

Tett and Meyer (1993) carried out a meta-analysis of 68 studies covering 35,282 people and found a significant and strong relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Another meta-analysis of 1,000 studies was accumulated by Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran (2005) relating OC to job satisfaction. The result revealed a positive association between job satisfaction and OC. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found a strong correlation ($r = .49$) between OC and overall job satisfaction. Kreitner *et al.* (2002) argue that managers are advised to increase job satisfaction in order to elicit higher levels of commitment. In turn, higher commitment can facilitate higher productivity.

3.5.2 Organisational Citizenship Behaviours (OCB)

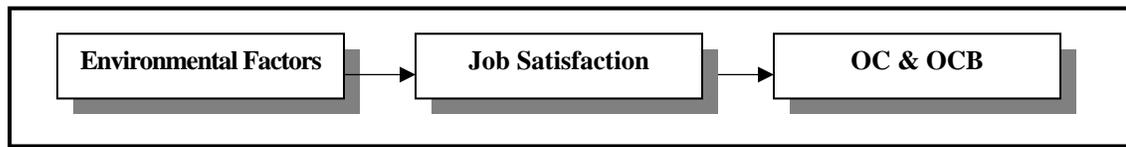
Organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB) is another popular attitudinal variable that contributes to overall organisational effectiveness. It includes a range of employee actions or behaviours that are beyond the formal requirements of a job (the tasks listed in a job description) and that are beneficial to the organisation (Spector, 2008).

Organ and Konovsky (1989) categorise OCB into two types (1) Altruism: that is, a behaviour to help others beyond the call of duty, for example, helping a co-worker who has been absent or making suggestions to improve conditions, and (2) Compliance: that is, doing what is required on the job and following rules, such as coming to work on time and not wasting time (Spector, 2008). However, Organ (1988) proposes five behaviour dimensions of OCB as follows:

1. *Altruism*: a willingness to help other employees in their tasks (for example, voluntarily helping less skilled or new employees).
2. *Conscientiousness*: dedication to the job and a desire to exceed formal requirements in various aspects of the job (for example, staying late to finish a project).
3. *Courtesy*: taking steps to prevent problems with other workers (for example, encouraging other co-workers when they are discouraged about their professional development).
4. *Sportsmanship*: consuming a lot of time complaining about trivial matters (for example, petty grievances).
5. *Civic virtue*: reading and keeping up with industry changes and new products introduced by the organisation (for example, volunteering for a community programme to represent the company).

Employees who are happy with their job might be willing to go beyond what is required of them. Organ and Ryan (1995) conducted a meta-analysis of 28 studies covering 6,746 individuals, which revealed a significant and moderately positive correlation between OCB and job satisfaction. Other researchers who carried out meta-analyses (for example, Hoffman *et al.*, 2007; Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000) demonstrated that OCB is most likely to occur when employees are satisfied with their job. Allen and Rush (1998) argue that managerial behaviour, therefore, significantly influences an employee's willingness to exhibit citizenship behaviours since these behaviours were positively correlated with performance ratings.

In this research, the author will study both parts where job satisfaction is considered an intervening variable. In order to identify the factors that make the most significant contribution to the level of job satisfaction, environmental factors serve as the independent variable while OC and OCB serve as dependent variables of job satisfaction (see Figure 3.5).

Figure 3.5: Causes and Consequences of Job Satisfaction

3.6 Measurements of Job Satisfaction

Measuring job satisfaction has often been the focus of attention of researchers and organisational management interested in identifying the determinants of job satisfaction (Ellickson and Logsdon, 2001; Jamieson and Richards, 1996). However, one of the major obstacles facing researchers is the need for an adequate measure to assess job satisfaction. The first contemporary measure of job satisfaction, published by Hoppock in 1935, was a 4-item measure of general job satisfaction. Dozens of measures to assess job satisfaction followed (Cook *et al.*, 1981).

Not only have many definitions of job satisfaction been used, but also many different scales of measurement. The importance of these scales for measuring job satisfaction stems from the fact that if unreliable scales are used in measuring job satisfaction the result will consequently be incorrect (Hinkin, 1995). An example of this is the low validity of Herzberg's theory due mainly to the way in which Herzberg and his associates collected their data.

It has been argued that no single desirable measurement exists since job satisfaction is related directly to the complexity of human feelings (Wanous and Lawler, 1972). In reviewing the literature, it becomes apparent that different methods have been used to assess job satisfaction, such as (1) asking supervisors or observers, (2) questionnaires, (3) interviews and (4) critical incident analysis (a procedure for measuring job satisfaction in which employees describe incidents relating to their work they found especially satisfying or dissatisfying) (Greenberg and Baron, 2000). The problem is, asking supervisors or observers to estimate the satisfaction of other employees will not give accurate results because only the observed employee knows about his or her own attitude

(Spector, 2008). However, researchers, in general, seem to favour questionnaire techniques to measure job satisfaction rather than other data collection methods due to the demands of time (Spector, 2008).

The measurement technique most commonly utilised regarding job satisfaction is the Likert scale (Locke, 1976; Arnold *et al.*, 2005). The main advantages and disadvantages of measures of job satisfaction based on rating scales are listed in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5: Measuring Job Satisfaction with Rating Scales

<p>Advantages:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ They are normally short in length and can be completed rapidly. The language used is general, as opposed to being occupationally specific; therefore, it caters for a broad spectrum of employees. ▪ The response can be quantified and this facilitates comparisons between groups (for example, the attitudes of employees in a particular organisation are compared with those in similar organisations) and between periods of time. Normative data is available for certain job satisfaction questionnaires, including the distribution of responses in a representative population. ▪ The outcomes of surveys of job satisfaction could lead to the diagnosis of problems amenable to solutions. At the very least, the survey could provide a forum for eliciting constructive feedback from employees.
<p>Disadvantages:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Not everybody may be honest and straightforward when completing the questionnaire. ▪ The results may be distorted by the wording of the questions and the choice of topics contained in the questionnaire. ▪ The results may be contaminated by attitudes or dispositions that bear an indirect relationship to job satisfaction. For example, a person may respond negatively to job-related items because of transport problems affecting their ability to get to work on time. Likewise, short-term considerations, such as a perceived lack of progress in writing a report with the deadline looming, may provoke anxiety. Matters such as these may create an inaccurate picture of the real state of job satisfaction. ▪ There may be problems with the validity of the measuring instrument – do the questions really measure job satisfaction? ▪ There may be problems with the reliability of the measuring instruments – do the questions measure job satisfaction consistently?

Source: MacKenna (2000: 279)

Three major approaches have been used to measure job satisfaction: global measures, facet measures and a combination of global and facets measures (Spector 2008; Fields 2002). According to Spector (1997), sometimes both approaches can be used to obtain a complete picture of employee job satisfaction. The following represents a description of each approach.

3.6.1 General Job Satisfaction Measure

A general measure is simply the measure of an individual's overall job satisfaction as seen in answers to questions such as 'Overall, how satisfied are you with your job?' The general measure suggests that job satisfaction is more than the sum of its parts, and individuals can express dissatisfaction with facets of the job and still be generally satisfied (Thierry, 1998). Nagy (2002) indicates that having just one question to measure global job satisfaction can be just as good because workers generally know how satisfied they are, and do not need a whole set of questions to express this. Similarly, Thierry (1998) criticises this measure on the premise that individuals may not attribute equal importance to each of the facets. Researchers argue that the use of global measures reflects individual differences in the construct rather than simply focusing on responses to specific items (Field, 2002). Moreover, studies that have used global measures argue that the global measure is more inclusive (Scarpello and Campbell, 1983; Highhouse and Becker, 1993). Examples of popular survey instruments designed to measure overall job satisfaction, namely, the Job in General (JIG) scale and the Job Satisfaction Index (JSI), are presented as follows.

(a) The Job in General (JIG) Scale

This scale was developed by Ironson *et al.* (1989) to assess overall job satisfaction, and consists of items that do not reflect the various facets of the job. The JIG uses 18 items to describe global job satisfaction. Each item is a short phrase about the job in general. It uses three response choices. For example, responses are obtained as 'YES' if the employee agrees that the item describes his/her job in general, 'NO' if the item does not and the '?' sign if the employee is undecided. The scale has good reliability and correlates well with other scales of overall job satisfaction (Spector, 2008). More specifically, Field (2002) reviewed many studies and found that the Coefficient alpha values of JIG ranged from .82 to .94

(b) *The Job Satisfaction Index (JSI)*

This scale was developed by Brayfield and Rothe (1951) to measure global job satisfaction. It has sound psychometric properties and has been used extensively by researchers. The JSI comprises 18 items to measure overall job satisfaction (for example, 'Most days, I am enthusiastic about my work'). Responses follow a five-point Likert scale for each statement ranging from a value of 1 for 'strongly disagree' to 5 for 'strongly agree'. The JSI has good reliability with a value of Cronbach's alpha equal to .87 (Field, 2002).

3.6.2 Facet-Specific Job Satisfaction Measure

This second method of measuring job satisfaction involves looking at certain facets that make up a particular job, such as pay, supervision and promotion. Researchers like Howard and Frink (1996) and Porter and Steers (1973) emphasise that job satisfaction is a multifaceted construct, with various features or facets contributing to the construct as a whole. This kind of measurement is conducted to find out how workers feel about each aspect of the job and to identify areas of dissatisfaction that should be targeted for improvement (Spector, 1997). It is worth mentioning that the levels of facet satisfaction had different degrees of relationship with global satisfaction. For example, satisfaction with pay might have the largest positive correlation while satisfaction with supervision might have the lowest (Fields, 2002).

Researchers who have used the facet measure argue that the global approach is too broad and, therefore, responses cannot be effectively interpreted (Rice *et al.*, 1989; Morrison, 1996). Facet measures increase accuracy by including many different facets of the attitude concerned and by avoiding the possibility that a careless response to a single question will invalidate the measure (Arnold *et al.*, 2005). Numerous standardised reliable and valid instruments are available for this type of measurement. The most important ones are described below.

(a) *The Job Descriptive Index (JDI)*

This scale was developed by Smith *et al.* (1969) and it has become the most popular facet scale among organisational researchers. It also may be the most developed and validated scale (Spector, 2008). The JDI contains 72 items, which assess five facets of job satisfaction, namely, work, supervision, pay, co-workers, and promotional opportunities. Each item is a short phrase that describes the job. The JDI uses three response choices: 'YES' if the employee agrees that the item describes his/her job in general, 'NO' if the item does not and the '?' sign if the employee cannot decide.

Measures of strengths and weaknesses within each facet tell practitioners where improvements can be made. Cook *et al.* (1981) observed that some items in the JDI scale may not apply to all employee groups. Spector (2008) comments that this is true for all job satisfaction scales and states that the weakness of the JDI scale is that it has only five facets to assess job satisfaction. Although the actual scale tends to be lengthy, with 72 questions, it does not provide much information about issues such as recognition, autonomy and feedback. Therefore, using the JDI to measure satisfaction in any organisation that has problems with lack of recognition, autonomy or feedback would probably not serve the purpose required unless some adaptations were made. Another limitation is the lack of an overall satisfaction scale; the JDI scale does not allow for the collection of five facets into an overall view (Jex, 2002). Although some users incorporate the five facets into an overall measure of job satisfaction, this practice is not recommended by Ironson *et al.* (1989). However, this issue was solved by some researchers of JDI in developing the JIG scale. Hernández *et al.* (2004) suggest that the '?' category would be best eliminated from the responses format as it is unclear, and forces the respondents into a dichotomous choice.

(b) *The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)*

This scale was developed by Weiss *et al.* (1967) to measure the employee's satisfaction with 20 different facets or aspects of the work environment. These are activity, independence, variety, social status, supervision (human relations), supervision

(technical), moral values, security, social service, authority, ability utilization, company policies and practices, compensation, advancement, responsibility, creativity, working conditions, co-workers, recognition, and achievement. The MSQ comes in two forms, one with 100 questions and one with 20 questions. Both the long and short forms were designed to measure the 20 job facets. Each of the MSQ items consists of statements about various facets of the job and the respondents are asked to indicate their level of satisfaction with each (Spector, 2008). The short form is used to assess either global satisfaction or intrinsic satisfaction and 'concerns aspects central to the job itself' and extrinsic satisfaction 'concerns aspects of the work situation' (Spector, 2006:222). However, authors like Schriesheim *et al.* (1993) have questioned the way the items are classified into the intrinsic and extrinsic groups. The limitation of the MSQ scale is its length, as considerable time is required to complete it (Jex, 2002).

(c) *The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)*

This scale was developed by Spector (1997); it yields an overall satisfaction score and 9 facet-specific scores. The facet-specific scales include pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, co-workers, nature of work, and communication. The JSS utilizes a six-point Likert scale with 1 representing 'disagree very much' and 6 representing 'agree very much'. Respondents are asked to circle one of six numbers that corresponds to their agreement or disagreement about each item. Each of the nine facet subscales contains four items, and an overall measure of job satisfaction can be obtained by calculating the total from all 36 items. Compared to the other measures, the JSS is fairly typical in that the items represent statements about a person's job or job situation. Respondents are then asked to indicate the extent to which they agree with each item. Given this type of scaling, the JSS is more similar to the JDI than to the MSQ because it is more descriptive in nature (Jex, 2002). Unlike the JDI, however, overall satisfaction scores can be computed for the JSS by adding up the facet scores. Compared to the JDI and MSQ, not as much supporting data are available for the JSS, but the evidence supporting the psychometric properties of this scale is still impressive (Jex, 2002; Spector, 1997). A practical limitation of JDI and MSQ is that the questions are

copyrighted by the developers and a fee is required for their use (Allen and Wilburn, 2002).

Both measurements, general and facet, have their strengths and weaknesses. Highhouse and Becker (1993) indicate that the relationship between the global and the facet measure of job satisfaction still needs clarification. Anderson (2002) believes that global and summed facets measures will yield equivalent results. However, Spector (2008:230) states that “*the sum of facets is an approximation of overall job satisfaction, but it may not exactly match the global satisfaction of individuals*”. Researchers recommend combining both measurements because specific facet satisfaction measures may better reflect changes in relevant situational factors, whereas responses to a global measure are more likely to reflect individual differences than are responses to specific items (Witt and Nye, 1992; Spector, 1997).

Another method of measuring job satisfaction is to measure the importance of each facet to workers along with facet measures of job satisfaction. More specifically, researchers like Rice *et al.* (1991) suggest that worker’s overall job satisfaction is consisted of a total of the description of each facet multiplied by the importance of that particular facet to the worker. For example, facet measures of job satisfaction would have to include both descriptions of each facet and a measure or weight of how important the facet was to the worker. These scores would then be multiplied and added together in order to obtain an overall score of job satisfaction. However, Jackson and Corr (2002) have found that there is no increase in predictive ability using weighted versus unweighted job satisfaction measures. That is, workers do not process their levels of job satisfaction by multiplying each facet description by its corresponding facet importance, but instead evaluate each facet in terms of an overall have-want discrepancy, therefore, simplifying measures of facet satisfaction.

The question that may be raised here is ‘Do questionnaire measures of job satisfaction travel across cultures?’ In fact, sometimes there are difficulties in using the same questionnaire in different countries or cultures. For example, translations between

languages are imperfect because people in different countries understand the same words in the questions in different ways. The present study will go further to develop a new scale to measure satisfaction in a particular organisation with regard to context and culture. This scale attempts to include several factors that cover various aspects of a job. In addition, it tries to introduce new items/questions that have not been included in any scale previously (further discussion is provided in Chapters Six and Seven).

For researchers to develop scales to measure job satisfaction, a standardized scale for any possible comparison in findings is preferred (Muchinsky, 1990). Therefore, the selected scale will have the following characteristics: (1) it should provide a reliable and valid assessment, and (2) it should measure the facets of satisfaction that are of greatest interest to the researcher.

3.7 Summary

Understanding job satisfaction is as complex as understanding a human-being because what satisfies workers today may not satisfy them tomorrow; and what satisfies them in one place might not satisfy them elsewhere. Although there are many definitions of job satisfaction, an employee's perceptions, expectations and attitude in the workplace influence their overall job satisfaction.

Although several theories and studies have attempted to explain job satisfaction in the workplace, content theories of job satisfaction are more amenable to testing (Dawis, 2004). Below are examples of the famous theories on job satisfaction used in this chapter.

- Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs theory suggests that individual needs that have to be fulfilled are arranged in a hierarchy of important determinants of satisfaction.

- Herzberg *et al.* (1959) two-factor theory suggests that only fulfilled job content factors (for example, achievement, recognition and advancement) produce job satisfaction, while unmet job context factors (for example, company policy, supervision and job security) lead to job dissatisfaction.

- Adams' (1963) equity theory contains a social element in which the individual compares his or her inputs and outcomes to those of other workers. It predicts that too much of a good thing is dissatisfying. That is, receiving more than is equitable will produce less satisfaction.
- Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory considers that employee effort will lead to performance and performance will lead to rewards. These rewards may be either positive or negative. The more negative the reward, the less likely it is that the employee will be satisfied, whereas, the more positive the reward, the more likely it is that the employee will be highly motivated and satisfied.
- Hackman and Oldham (1975) have presented a different view of the determinants of job satisfaction in their Job Characteristics Model, that is, the characteristics of the job and the way in which people work contribute to enhancing job satisfaction.
- Quarstein *et al.* (1992) maintain that both situational characteristics and situational occurrences affect job satisfaction, and understanding them can facilitate improved worker satisfaction.

Although these theories are frequently cited, no one theory has succeeded in embracing all the circumstances surrounding job satisfaction. In the absence of a single general theory, one major view is that job satisfaction is jointly determined by the characteristics of individuals, jobs and organisations.

Several organisationally relevant behaviours are thought to be the result of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Two of these behaviours were indicated including OC and OCB. For issues related to measurements of job satisfaction there are three major measures, namely, global, facet and a combination of global and facet that have been used to measure job satisfaction. However, there is no perfect or accurate measure of job satisfaction, since job satisfaction is related directly to the complexity of human feelings.

CHAPTER FOUR: FACTORS AFFECTING JOB SATISFACTION

4.1 Introduction

As discussed in Chapter Three, the concept of job satisfaction is difficult to define and measure objectively. Previous research has shown many factors affect job satisfaction. These factors can have positive and negative effects on employees' job satisfaction in organisations. In this chapter, the research will highlight the dominant factors that affect the job satisfaction of certain individuals in a given set of circumstances in order to give a more complete picture of job satisfaction.

4.2 Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction

The search for an understanding of factors contributing to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction has been an ongoing area of interest for social scientists and managers around the world for a considerable time. These interests stem from the researchers' belief that job satisfaction represents an important theme in understanding organisations and the individuals within (Spector, 2008).

Researchers have examined several factors that correlate with job satisfaction, whether in a positive or a negative way. However, the importance of the various factors appears to change from one situation to another. That is, individuals who perform the same job in the same environment and at the same time do not all derive the same degree of satisfaction.

The multi-aspect feature of job satisfaction becomes obvious when trying to determine the relevant dimensions of job satisfaction. Although the main concern for researchers in

this field is to identify the factors that affect the level of satisfaction of employees in work organisations, there is no uniform agreement among researchers about the factors that determine job satisfaction (Grunberg, 1979; Mullins, 2006; Spector, 2008). While several studies in this field are limited to just a few dimensions or factors, a larger number of dimensions have been identified (Seashore and Taber, 1975; Watson, 2002).

Many researchers assume that job satisfaction is a general attitude determined by three factors, namely, the individual, the nature of the job and situational variables (for example, Purohit, 2004; Baron, 1986). Similarly, Glisson and Durick (1988: 61) classify variables affecting job satisfaction into three categories: (1) variables that describe the characteristics of the job tasks performed by the workers, (2) variables that describe the characteristics of the organisations in which the tasks are performed, and (3) variables that describe the characteristics of the workers who perform the task. Mullins (2006) indicates that job satisfaction is affected by a wide range of variables including individual, social, cultural, organisational and environmental factors. Spector (2008) categorises the antecedents of job satisfaction into three models based on research studies. These models illustrate (1) the impact of the job environment, (2) the impact of personality, and (3) the joint influence of the environment and personality on job satisfaction. However, Spector (2008) states that although personality has been shown to have a connection with job satisfaction, the reasons are not well delineated. Therefore, investigation is clearly needed to determine why personality relates to job satisfaction (Spector, 2008).

Although researchers have found many factors that relate to job satisfaction, the majority of these factors can be grouped into two broad categories: (a) personal or demographic factors, which focus on individual attributes and characteristics; and (b) environmental factors, which pertain to factors associated with the work itself or the work environment (see Figure 4.1).

Researchers like Weaver (1980), Rahim (1982) and Sharma and Bhashkar (1991) indicate the importance of demographic variables in determining the level of job satisfaction, and

therefore, regard environmental and personal factors as distinctly competing models. However, researchers like Boke and Nalla (2009) and Reiner and Zhao (1999) indicate that the work environment is a better predictor of job satisfaction than are individual demographic variables. Fields (2002) indicates that personal characteristics, such as age, sex and educational level, do not contribute incrementally to explaining the variance in work satisfaction beyond that explained by the variables describing the job situation. Likewise, other researchers, such as Carlan *et al.* (2007), Davey *et al.* (2001); Ellickson and Logsdon (2001), Zhao *et al.* (1999), and Forsyth and Copes (1994), found that demographic variables were relatively poor predictors of job satisfaction.

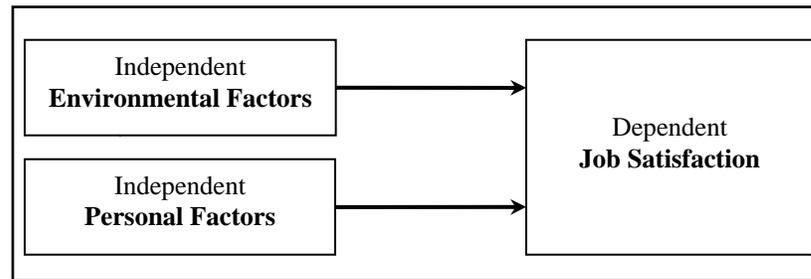
Figure 4.1: Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction

Authors	Factors/Dimensions								
	Personal or Demographic	Social	Culture	Organisational	Environmental	Situational	Job Characteristics	Personality	Environment /Personality
Seahore and Taber (1975)	√	-	-	√	-	-	√	-	-
Baron (1986)	√	-	-	-	-	√	√	-	-
Glisson and Durick (1988)	√	-	-	√	-	-	√	-	-
Sharma and Bhashkar (1991)	√	-	-	-	√	-	-	-	-
Zeffane (1994)	√	-	-	-	√	-	-	-	-
Reiner and Zhao (1999)	√	-	-	-	√	-	-	-	-
Ellickson and Logsdon (2001)	√	-	-	-	√	-	-	-	-
Purohit (2004)	√	-	-	-	-	√	√	-	-
Millins (2006)	√	√	√	√	√	-	-	-	-
Griffin (2007)	√	-	-	-	√	-	-	-	-
Spector (2008)	-	-	-	-	√	-	-	√	√

(-) Not included (√) Included

As will be discussed in Chapter Six, the current research proposes a model of job satisfaction involving environmental factors and personal variables as determinants (see Figure 4.2). The terms ‘personal’ and demographic are used interchangeably in this research.

Figure 4.2: The Relationship between Environmental and Personal Factors and Job Satisfaction



4.3 Personal Factors

Researchers have used ‘personal’ and ‘demographic’ terms interchangeably. So, in the current research the two terms are used interchangeably. Personal characteristics are those that are antecedent, or define the employees before their entry into the work situation. Sex, age, and marital status are all of this type. However, researchers may also regard other information at work, such as job level, shift work and years of experience, as the demographic characteristics for statistical analysis.

As an organisation’s workforce is not homogeneous, it is important to point out that employee satisfaction may differ across subgroups (Fosam *et al.*, 1998). Since individuals have different characteristics (abilities, personalities, learning experiences and attitudes), it is expected that they will perceive work in different ways. These differences can lead to variations in employees’ performance levels and perceptions. Therefore, the role of management is to match the employees’ characteristics with work characteristics in order to achieve both the organisation’s goals and employee satisfaction (Mullins, 2005).

In this chapter, personal factors are divided into two subsections, namely, personal demographics, such as sex, age, and marital status, and work demographics, such as job level and years of experience. The aim of the investigation of personal factors was to construct the research hypotheses for this study. The following personal factors are not listed in any order of importance.

4.3.1 Personal Demographics

4.3.1.1 Sex

The relationship between sex and job satisfaction has been extensively researched. However, the results have been mixed. Historically, it has generally been assumed that females express lower levels of job satisfaction than males (Hulin and Smith, 1976). Spector (2008) offered some reasons for this: (1) females were not likely to have managerial/professional jobs, (2) females may be happier with lower pay and less responsibility than men, and (3) females have lower expectations about what they will receive or because they compare themselves to other women who are in similar circumstances. However, some studies reported no relationship at all between sex and overall job satisfaction (for example, Ting, 1997; Oshagbemi, 2000; Donohue and Heywood, 2004). In police research, Brough and Frame (2004) found that neither sex nor rank was significantly related to job satisfaction among 400 New Zealand police officers. Moreover, meta-analyses conducted by Brush *et al.* (1987) and Witt and Nye (1992) found no differences between males and females.

With the increase in the number of women entering the work force, statistics around the world have shown that women have become increasingly economically active, and this trend is expected to continue (Clark, 1997). The past view of men as the main providers of family income no longer exists since the high cost of living means that men can no longer be the only source of financial support. As a consequence, it is important to examine the relationship between sex and job satisfaction afresh (Oshagbemi, 2000). More recent studies on job satisfaction have shown that women workers are more satisfied with their job than men (for example, Bender *et al.*, 2005 and Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza, 2003). Likewise, the most common findings in the United States and Britain were that women reported greater job satisfaction than men (Clark, 1997).

In spite of some findings that, as discussed earlier, indicate that there are no differences in job satisfaction between men and women, a more in-depth analysis of the factors that constitute job satisfaction reveals differences in the impact that they have on the level of

satisfaction according to sex (Robbins *et al.*, 2003). The 'interpersonal relations' factor, for instance, was shown to influence job satisfaction in men, whereas this dimension was shown to be not significant in determining levels of job satisfaction in female workers. Contrarily, the 'work conditions' dimension was found to affect the level of job satisfaction in women, but had no impact in men (García-Bernal *et al.*, 2005). This may be explained by the notion of value-percept proposed by Locke (1976). That is, the important job facets for women are different from those for men, and the discrepancies between what is desired and received in the important job facets for men are bigger than those in the important job facets for women (Zeffane *et al.*, 2008). Human resources policies, according to García-Bernal *et al.* (2005), should consider these differences in the determinants of job satisfaction between men and women in the workplace since the levels of job satisfaction in facets differ between these two groups. Indeed, studies are needed to re-test the effect of sex on work values, especially because of the differences between Middle Eastern and Western cultures in relation to work values of working women.

4.3.1.2 Age

Studies based on life cycles and work stages suggest that determinants of job satisfaction change depending on the particular stage of the career. Although many studies have examined the relationship between age and job satisfaction, the results are contradictory. For instance, while numerous studies have reported a positive relationship between age and job satisfaction (for example, Al-Otaibi, 1992; Okpara, 2004; Ellickson and Logsdon, 2001), others have identified either no relationship (for example, Ting, 1997 and Reiner and Zhao, 1999) or even a significant negative relationship (Ganzach, 1998).

The question is, 'Does job satisfaction change over the career lifespan?' Researchers like Clark *et al.* (1996) refer to a U-shaped relationship between age and job satisfaction. That is, the U-shaped curve results when the relation between job satisfaction and age starts high, declines and then starts to improve again. More specifically, when a worker joins an organisation, he may have some unrealistic assumptions about what he is going to derive from his work. These assumptions make him more satisfied. However, when these

assumptions fall short of reality, job satisfaction goes down. It starts rising again as he starts to assess the job in the right perspective and corrects his assumptions.

Two large studies, one conducted in England (Clark *et al.*, 1996) and the other in nine countries including the United States (Birdi *et al.*, 1995), found a curvilinear relation between age and job satisfaction. Although it would seem tenable to suggest that there is consistent empirical evidence to show that there is a positive association between age and job satisfaction, Oshagbemi (2003) stated that the trend of this association, whether it is linear or curvilinear, remains unsettled.

4.3.1.3 Marital Status

Another personal factor that has been studied in relation to job satisfaction is marital status. Although previous research has indicated possible differences in job satisfaction between groups with different marital status, studies have yielded contradictory findings (Robbins *et al.*, 2003). For example, researchers such as Koustelios (2001) and Bilgic (1998) reported that marital status had no effect on job satisfaction. Similarly, a study by Al-Fadley (1996), found that police officers' marital status had no significant or direct effect on the overall level of job satisfaction. However, Cimete *et al.* (2003) found the mean score for job satisfaction of divorcees and widows was significantly higher than that of single and married groups.

Other researchers like Dawal *et al.* (2008) and Leung *et al.* (2000) found that married employees were more satisfied with their jobs than were single or divorced or widowed employees. More specifically, Dawal *et al.* (2008) found married workers had higher levels of job satisfaction and were more committed and cooperative than were single workers. They suggested that the single workers might still be deciding on their career and this might impede job satisfaction.

4.3.1.4 Educational Level

Another common personal factor that has been investigated is educational level. Indeed, research to examine the relationship between the level of education and job satisfaction has shown different findings. Some researchers found a positive relationship between education level and job satisfaction while others identified a negative connection. Other studies have shown little or no relationship between education and job satisfaction.

Several studies have reported that relationships between educational levels and job satisfaction are positive (for example, Al-Ajmi, 2001; Martin and Sheehan, 1989 and Okpara, 2004). Griffin *et al.* (1978) point out that employees with a higher educational level would tend to be more satisfied with their job than would employees with a lower educational level. For instance, workers who held a school certificate reported the lowest level of overall job satisfaction, whereas workers with a college certificate reported the highest level of overall job satisfaction. Researchers have given various reasons, such as a lack of pay, fringe benefits and less favourable treatment by management, as contributing to lower satisfaction levels among those who hold a school certificate.

On the other hand, the findings of other studies have been that no significant relationship exists between job satisfaction and educational level (for example, Crossman and Abou-Zaki, 2003 and Scott *et al.*, 2005). A study by Yim and Schafer (2008) into educational levels among police workers in a metropolitan police department in the Midwest of the USA did not detect any statistically significant differences in terms of lower and higher levels of education.

With regard to the negative relationship, a study by Al-Utaibi (1992) compared the job satisfaction of 222 Kuwaitis with that of 156 Arabs employed in eight government institutions and found that the relationship between job satisfaction and education was negative among the Kuwaiti employees. It also found that in both groups, the better educated employees were the least satisfied with their jobs.

Researchers like Janssen (2001) and Johnson and Johnson (2000) argue that one possible reason why more highly educated employees show less satisfaction might be that highly educated people have very high expectations from their jobs, which usually remain unmet. Based on Maslow's (1970) hierarchy of needs theory, those people are likely to have higher-order needs and the deprivation of these higher-order needs, such as esteem needs and self actualization needs, can seriously affect their satisfaction level. Another investigation into how education affects job satisfaction found that average job satisfaction scores declined with education, although indirectly, education did have beneficial effects upon job satisfaction because of the greater pay involved.

4.3.2 Work Demographics

4.3.2.1 Job Level

Job level refers to various levels of organisational hierarchy. It includes supervisory/managerial levels, such as senior managers and top occupational levels (for example, the rank of medical consultant, academic professor and colonel) or non-supervisory/non-managerial levels, such as junior staff and assistant technicians.

It appears that job level is positively correlated with job satisfaction; that is, those at the higher end of the occupational scale reported higher satisfaction with various aspects of their work (Cranny *et al.*, 1992; Bodur, 2002). Higher level jobs provide more satisfaction compared to lower level jobs. A meta-analysis examining the relationship between job level and job satisfaction using data from 35 independent samples and over 18,000 respondents concluded that as the job level increased so did job satisfaction (Robie *et al.*, 1998). They stated that the positive correlation between rank and job satisfaction may be attributed to the fact that higher-level jobs tend to have better working conditions, pay, autonomy and prestige. This also can be applied for higher rank position. Oshagbemi (2000), in his study on United Kingdom academics' job satisfaction, found a statistically significant association between pay and rank of employees and their level of job satisfaction.

Although job satisfaction is positively linked to an employee's position within the company, a study by Mossholder *et al.* (1981) found that job satisfaction decreases with an increase in the job level. In contrast, Aronson *et al.* (2005) reported no relationship between job level and job satisfaction.

4.3.2.2 Years of Experience

Years of experience refers to the time or number of years an employee has spent working for a specific organisation. The terms 'job tenure' and 'years of experience' are used interchangeably in the literature. Researchers suggest that employees' years of experience are related to their job satisfaction and organisational commitment (for example, Dawal *et al.*, 2008; Fosam *et al.*, 1998). Employees' levels of job satisfaction would then increase after a number of years of service. According to some researchers, such as Clark *et al.* (1996) and Oshagbemi (2000), individuals with longer service may experience greater satisfaction since they have found a job that matches their needs. Similarly, a study by Al-Ajmi (2001) among 153 managers in the Kuwaiti oil industry from three different oil companies reported that the number of years of experience has a positive effect on job satisfaction. He found that managers with more than ten years' experience were more satisfied than managers with less experience.

Nevertheless, Clark *et al.* (1996) indicated that, in some cases, a longer tenure does not necessarily lead to increased levels of job satisfaction. For example, studies by Bedeian *et al.* (1992), and Nestor and Leary (2000), found no relationship between job satisfaction and years of experience. However, research conducted by Savery (1996) found a negative relationship between longer tenure in a job and levels of job satisfaction. Researchers like Hom and Kinicki (2001) and Trevor (2001) highlighted possible factors, such as low job mobility and external labour market conditions, contributing to lower levels of job satisfaction.

As discussed with regards to the age factor, the years of experience factor was found to have a U-shaped relationship with job satisfaction in some studies. For example, Ronen (1978) highlighted that employees' expectations are high at the time of appointment, but

when these expectations are not met, the resultant effect leads to a drop in job satisfaction. As employees become more mature and experienced, their expectations will be more attainable, which results in increased job satisfaction. Oshagbemi (2000) attributed the increase in job satisfaction over the length of time to factors such as job stability and responsibility, autonomy and opportunities for promotion.

Indeed, there are other work demographic factors that influence job satisfaction such as shift work and customer contact. However, not many studies have sought to investigate these issues.

4.4 Environmental Factors

In addition to personal factors, much attention has been given to factors arising from the work environment in motivating employees to work with high levels of job satisfaction. According to many researchers, such as Herzberg (1968), Emmert and Taher (1992) and Spector (2008), the work environment can have a positive effect on the satisfaction of an employee. Therefore, research has identified a number of important environmental factors that are thought to influence job satisfaction such as salary, climate management and promotion opportunities. However, perceptions that employees have about different aspects of their work environment were found to explain variations in job satisfaction (Lambert *et al.*, 2001).

Due to there being a wide range of factors involved in the work environment, the category of environmental factors was divided into two areas, namely, job characteristics and organisational characteristics, as discussed in the following section.

4.4.1 Job Characteristics

The term 'job characteristics' refers to the content and the nature of the job tasks. According to Luthans (2005), the nature of the job performed by employees has a significant impact on the level of job satisfaction. The most important influence on a person's job satisfaction experience comes from the nature of the work. Thus, if the job

entails adequate variety, challenge, discretion and scope for using one's own abilities and skills, the employee is more likely to experience job satisfaction (Sharma and Bhaskar, 1991).

In the past half century, investigators such as Herzberg *et al.* (1959) and Hackman and Oldham (1975) have argued that an individual's job satisfaction is determined by the degree to which the job characteristics fulfil the person's needs. Many studies that have investigated the correlation between job characteristics and job satisfaction and results have consistently shown that job characteristics significantly correlate with job satisfaction (for example, Hackman and Oldham, 1975; Judge and Church, 2000). Hackman and Oldham (1975) proposed that the major determinants regarding the job itself are the autonomy of work, skills variety, feedback, task identity and task significance. They added that the work itself might provide opportunities for employees to develop new ideas and to improve skills.

The following are examples of the important job characteristics that influence job satisfaction as identified by previous researchers. It should be noted that they are not listed in any order of importance.

4.4.1.1 Job Variety

Job variety is one of the core dimensions of job characteristics and entails different activities and involves a range of different skills. This is based on the view that skill variety has strong effects on a job, implying that the greater the variety of skills that employees are able to utilise in their jobs, the higher their level of satisfaction (Ting, 1997). Workers appear more satisfied with jobs that allow them variety rather than repetition in their job (Johnson and Johnson, 2000; Lambert *et al.*, 2001). A study by Grant *et al.* (1990) studied police women and found having a variety of assignments correlates strongly with job satisfaction.

Robbins (2001) maintains that workers like jobs that use their competencies in different tasks and that are mentally stimulating. Indeed, variety at work provides a change in mental activity and physical well-being by movement and changes in body posture. In

addition, it can contribute to preventing tasks from becoming too routine (Robbins, 2001; Wright and Davis, 2003). For instance, employees who experience greater variety in their day-to-day work have been shown to be less likely to lose interest in their job or become bored whereas individuals who regularly do the same task are likely to feel bored, frustrated, unchallenged and unsatisfied. According to Luthans (2005), employees derive satisfaction from work that is interesting and challenging. However, it could be argued that some workers do not believe that job variety or job challenge increase satisfaction levels (Johns, 1996). According to Katzell *et al.* (1992), jobs that are not sufficiently challenging lead to boredom, but those that are too challenging lead to feelings of frustration and failure. Under conditions of moderate challenge, most employees will experience pleasure and satisfaction.

4.4.1.2 Job Significance

Job significance usually means the effect a job has on other people. It focuses on the extent to which the job makes a significant impact on the lives and work of other people inside or outside the organisation (Hackman and Oldham, 1975; Spector, 2008). Employees receive recognition from their organisation if they can make important contributions to the organisation. As the 'meaningfulness', commonly referred to as job significance, of employees' experience at work, increases, so too does job satisfaction since employees gain opportunities to fulfil their higher order needs, such as self-esteem and self-actualization (Hackman and Oldham, 1975). According to Ting (1997), if workers perceive task attributes positively they are more likely to find their work meaningful and, consequently, be satisfied with their job. To this effect, various studies have suggested that employees' job satisfaction can be enhanced if they perceive a high degree of job significance (for example, Hackman and Oldham, 1975; Dale *et al.*, 1997; Evans and Lindsay, 1996).

4.4.1.3 Autonomy

Autonomy refers to freedom, independence, authority and discretion in performing and planning the work that a job entails (Hackman and Oldham, 1975; Mullins, 2005). This

usually leads to feelings of responsibility (Spector, 1997). Schultz (1978) agreed that much dissatisfaction may derive from the lack of responsibility or lack of autonomy. Culpin and Wright (2002) concluded that increased task responsibilities are related to overall job satisfaction, and according to Reskin and Padavic (1994: 95), “*workers value authority in its own right and having authority increases workers’ job satisfaction*”. Spector (1986) conducted a meta-analysis that demonstrated there are significant relationships between autonomy and a variety of outcome variables including job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and job performance. Contemporary research on the effects of job autonomy on the overall experience of job satisfaction is fairly consistent in its findings: jobs with higher degrees of autonomy generally have workers who are more satisfied (Chandra *et al.*, 2004; Janssen *et al.*, 2004; Kim, 2001).

4.4.2 Organisational Characteristics

Job satisfaction is determined not only by job characteristics, but also by factors that describe the relationship between individuals and their organisation. Organisational characteristics refer to factors that are perceived to assist or hinder employees in performing their duties (DeSantis and Durst, 1996: 329). These factors have also been widely discussed by many researchers and are considered major factors in determining job satisfaction. According to Reiner and Zhao (1999) and Fields (2002), the work environment contributes incrementally to the variance in job satisfaction due to variables in the job situation.

The following are examples of important organisational characteristics that influence job satisfaction as identified by previous researchers. It should be noted that the factors are not listed in any order of importance.

4.4.2.1 Salary and Fringe Benefits

The early understanding of pay (pay and salary are often used interchangeably) in any organisation was that of paying individuals so they could satisfy their needs, such as buying food and clothes. However, pay can mean much more than merely being able to

satisfy physical needs. Pay can be seen by one worker as a symbol of achievement, as a source of recognition and much more than that (Locke, 1976), while for another worker, it can mean security, as is the case in third world countries (Al-Saadi, 1996). According to Aksu and Aktas (2005), employees are very sensitive to salary issues because of impact on living standards and its importance in providing a sense of security.

Salary has been investigated by several researchers who have tried to explore its effects on job satisfaction. This attention was due to the old belief that to satisfy workers, one should pay them more. According to Luthan (2005), salary is a tool for achieving both people's lower and higher needs. Herzberg and his associates (1959) considered the pay factor to be a 'hygiene factor' that prevents the employee from being satisfied. However, Kreitner and Kinicki (2006) indicate that some hygiene factors cause job satisfaction.

It is interesting to note that, from the fairly extensive research on the importance of salary leading to satisfaction, it has been found in some cases that this relationship tends to be surprisingly small (Spector, 1997). For example, Spector (1985) conducted a study of three samples representing a heterogeneous collection of jobs and found a small correlation between level of pay and job satisfaction. In fact, high pay is not a guarantee of high satisfaction since there are other factors that still cause dissatisfaction, such as lack of autonomy and unfairness. Although there is no doubt money is the most powerful tool to satisfy and motivate people, the importance of pay regarding job satisfaction and the nature of this relationship for some people is not always clear because money for them is placed after other desirable features of a job, such as fairness, opportunities for advancement and recognition. Leavitt (1996) emphasized the importance of pay, but said that a high salary itself would not alleviate problems of low employee job satisfaction. Thus, high salaries or increases in salaries are not always practical.

There seems to be a connection between salary and satisfaction when an employee perceives their salary to be equitable with respect to what others receive (Rollinson, 2008). Previous studies have found that salary is correlated to job satisfaction when employees realize the fairness or equity of their salary (for example, Ting, 1997;

Ellickson and Logsdon, 2001). Williams *et al.* (2006) reported that fairness and equity is a more important determinant of pay satisfaction than the actual level of pay. Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) carried out a meta-analysis and found that justice was strongly associated with pay satisfaction.

Fringe benefits are benefits that employers give an employee in addition to salary. According to Ellickson and Logsdon (2001), the impact of fringe benefits on job satisfaction has been examined less frequently, although available research strongly suggests that a positive relationship exists. Fringe benefits can be monetary and/or non-monetary, such as health insurance, vehicle, travel tickets, accommodation and retirement benefits (Aswathappa, 2005). Most current studies on job satisfaction consider fringe benefits as an important element in determining job satisfaction. For instance, Ellickson and Logsdon (2001) conducted a study of job satisfaction among 1,227 full-time municipal government employees representing 18 departments in the United States, and found fringe benefits and pay to be determinants of job satisfaction. Similarly, Spector (1997) identified how benefits, such as medical, dental, and vacation benefits can significantly affect job satisfaction. Barber *et al.* (1992) reported that fringe benefits lead to positive job satisfaction. They found that highly educated employees attach great importance to fringe benefits and facilities despite receiving a good salary.

According to Adams' equity theory (1963), pay and fringe benefits are one of the outcomes of people's jobs, and when comparing themselves to others, individuals see one of three states: overpayment inequity, underpayment inequity, and equitable payment. Based on how they perceive equity or inequity, they respond by either raising or lowering inputs and outcomes.

4.4.2.2 Recognition and Rewards

Herzberg *et al.* (1959) classified the recognition factor as one of the satisfier factors. Recognition can, for example, be a monthly and/or annual employee of distinction award, an official letter of thanks or gifts. The psychological effects on employees of the recognition of good work are feelings of happiness within the organisation; these feelings

then have a positive effect on their job satisfaction. For instance, Spector (1997) states that if an employee is recognized for good work, job satisfaction automatically increases. Spector (1997) defines recognition as contingent rewards that are not necessarily monetary. Contingent rewards are commonly given for good performance. Jacob and Solomon (1977) found that employees feel greater satisfaction if organisations reward job performances that are above average. Mitchell (2000) maintains that the lack of proper recognition for a job well done by an employee seems to be a major problem for many organisations. For example, employees who experience little recognition are more likely to experience dissatisfaction and frustration.

The issue of financial rewards is another source of employee job satisfaction in the workplace (Lambert *et al.*, 2001). Financial rewards are considered one of the tools with which organisations increase the performance and productivity of their employees (Al Fadley, 1996). Thus, the lack of these rewards in the workplace would contribute considerably to negative feelings of workers about their job. For example, a study conducted by Al Fadley (1996) in the police force in Cairo found the lack of financial rewards was one of the determinant factors causing job dissatisfaction.

Researchers have suggested that employees are more likely to be productive if they receive recognition and financial rewards for good work. This has been found to have a significant impact on knowledge employees (Arnolds and Boshoff, 2004). Issue related to fairness and equity, Nel *et al.* (2004) argue that employees view their remuneration as an indication of the comparison of their inputs to received outputs in relation to that of other employees. According to Boggie (2005), inequity in terms of lack of recognition and poor pay often contributes to a problem with employee retention.

4.4.2.3 Promotion Opportunity

Promotion refers to the act of moving an employee up the organisational hierarchy, usually leading to an increase in responsibility and status and a better remuneration package. With regard to expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), which states that people will be motivated if they feel that they can expect to gain from a certain situation, the

converse is also true. Vroom (1982) argued that promotional opportunity is a goal most workers desire and that an individual's performance is related to the degree to which the individual believes that being promoted is related to performance on the job and how strongly the individual desires the promotion. Studies of employee satisfaction have identified promotional opportunities as an environmental antecedent to job satisfaction (Ting, 1997; Fosam *et al.*, 1998; Ellickson and Logsdon, 2001). A study conducted by Bennett (1997b) among police constables in three nations found promotional opportunities have significant effects on job satisfaction. Purohit (2004) states that while it is true that individuals search for satisfaction in their work environment, they also attach importance to the opportunities for promotion that these jobs offer. For example, if a job offers the opportunity of promotion in the future, it provides more satisfaction. If the opportunity for such promotion is limited, this reduces satisfaction. According to Schneider *et al.* (1992), employees who perceive few opportunities for advancement have negative attitudes toward their work and their organisations.

Promotional opportunities seem to have a variety of effects on job satisfaction because promotions take different forms and include a variety of rewards. For instance, employees who are promoted on the basis of seniority often experience job satisfaction, but not as much as those whose promotion is based on their performance.

Although several studies have identified a positive association between promotional opportunities and job satisfaction, this relationship, according to Kreitner and Kinicki (2006), is dependent on employees' perception of fairness and equity. Thus, if employees are receiving unfair and unequal promotional opportunities in comparison with other workers in the workplace who have similar qualifications and years of experience, then this leads to a prediction of job dissatisfaction. Therefore, it is important for the organisation to take into account cases where promotion policies are designed to enhance employee satisfaction. According to Armstrong (2004), in any organisation where there are frequent promotional moves and promotion arrangements cause problems, it is advisable to have a fair promotions policy and procedure that is known to both management and employees.

4.4.2.4 Communication

Communication is the process of transmitting information or messages from one person to another. It describes the process by which individuals or groups or organisational units undertake transactions in a variety of ways and within different areas with the aim of carrying out organisational goals (Griffin, 2007). Examples of mechanisms for communicating among employees or organisational units are (a) meetings; (b) telephone, fax, email and internet; (c) newspapers and magazines; (d) conferences and seminars; (e) an open door policy; (f) a method to deal with ideas and suggestions; and (g) surveys to measure of job satisfaction. The development in communication and its tools is having a direct impact on the lifestyle of people and organisations. It is anticipated that changes and enhancements in effective communications will result in improved efficiency and productivity of both individuals and organisations. According to Melhem (2004), the use of technology and other methods is considered a must to increase the effectiveness and efficiency of the communication process within any business project.

Purohit (2004) states that communication is like water: it flows very easily from the top downwards, but it needs extra energy to flow upwards. Griffin (2007) identifies two forms of communication, namely, vertical and horizontal communication. Vertical communication is communication that flows up and down the organisation. Downward communication occurs when information flows from managers to their subordinates (for example, the assignment of new responsibilities, performance feedback and general information that the higher level manager thinks will be of value to the lower level manager). Upwards communication consists of messages from subordinates to managers (for example, responses to requests from the higher level manager, suggestions and complaints). The second form of communication is horizontal communication. Whereas vertical communication involves managers and subordinates, horizontal communication involves colleagues and peers at the same level of the organisation. That is, horizontal communication takes place between managers and managers, and between employees and employees. According to Lucas (1995), communication is most effective when it is done in a multidimensional way, that is, when all types of communication are involved.

Communication plays a key role in trying to motivate all employees to strive towards the same organisational goals (Buchanan and Huczynski, 2004). According to research undertaken by Johlke and Duhan (2000), communication is not associated with job performance, but it can influence the level of job satisfaction, which, in turn, can result in a lower turnover amongst employees. Spector (1997) suggests that there is a positive relationship between communication and employee job satisfaction. Thus, effective communication within the work place contributes significantly towards enhancing job satisfaction (Javed *et al.*, 2004).

Nutt (1999) found more than half of an organisation's decision making fails due to poor communication and supervisors' use of inadequate decision-making tactics. Clear and good communication skills are essential to all employees in the workplace. In keeping with role theory, regular clear communication is essential to encourage employees so they know exactly what is expected of them.

In a study conducted at the South Yorkshire Police Department in Britain by Fosam *et al.* (1998), communication with more senior staff was found to be a key predictor of job satisfaction. This shows that communication factors need to be given greater importance for organisations to achieve higher success. Similarly, a recent study conducted by Nobile and McCormick (2008) among 356 staff members from 52 primary schools in Australia found communication factors were predictors of job satisfaction. Moreover, in a study completed by Goris *et al.* (2002), it was found that not only does communication have an effect on job satisfaction and performance, but also the amount and the specific type of communication can affect job satisfaction in different ways. For example, upward communication was found to be a main predictor of pay and promotion satisfaction, whereas downward communication was shown to be a predictor of job performance. Therefore, organisations that are keen to maintain success or achieve high level success need to measure the satisfaction level among all three types of communications on a regular basis.

4.4.2.5 Supervision

Heery and Noon (2001: 355) define a supervisor as a front-line manager who is responsible for the supervision of employees. The supervision factor reflects the extent to which a person derives satisfaction from the relationship with their immediate superior. According to Herrbach and Mignonac (2004), the perceptions of responsible behaviour of leaders favour more cooperative behaviour among colleagues, which can further lead to a pleasant atmosphere in the work place.

Ting (1997) found that workers who enjoy a supportive relationship with their immediate supervisor experience higher levels of job satisfaction than those who do not. However, when trust and communication with the leader are poor, employees may feel stressed with this relationship and this may eventually lead to dissatisfaction (Wech, 2002). Indeed, research in job satisfaction frequently concentrates on whether supervisors provide employees with sufficient support and co-operation in completing their tasks. The supervision factor contains several important elements which influence the level of employee job satisfaction. These include involving employees in the decision-making process, getting useful feedback and conducting performance appraisal.

(a) Decision Making

Every organisation differs from other organisations in terms of practices and procedures in policy and decision making. However, they agree on one common point in that most of the time, if not always, they involve several managers in decision making. Although it is true that not every worker should participate in making policies, at least they should be consulted about them. Participation in organisational decision making has been proven to affect both satisfaction and productivity in a positive way (Miller and Monge, 1986). Chieffo (1991) argues that supervisors who allow their employees to participate in decisions that affect their own jobs will thus stimulate higher levels of employee satisfaction. Jermier and Berkes (1979), in their study of 158 police officers from a Midwestern police department, found two important factors associated with job satisfaction, namely, the degree to which supervisors allowed officers to participate in the

decision-making process and task variety. Miller and Monge (1986) indicate that the more employees are able to participate in the decision-making process in their jobs, the more satisfied these workers become. It is advisable that management, before planning for a new policy, changing the current policy or reaching a major decision, ask lower level individuals to express their opinions or make suggestions since they are generally more realistic and more closely associated with operational problems. Therefore, workers' participation is needed, for without it they will feel alienated and lower levels of job satisfaction will result.

(b) Feedback

Workers like to know the result of their work. Hackman and Oldham's job characteristics theory (1975) considers feedback as one of five core dimensions of job characteristics that have a positive influence on the level of job satisfaction. Indeed, it is uncommon to expect individuals to improve their performance if they are unaware that performance problems exist. Individuals will do better when they get feedback from their supervisors on how well they are doing (Riley, 1996). According to Robbins (2003), feedback acts as a guide to behaviour. Emmert and Taher (1992) indicate that positive feedback increases employees' job satisfaction and commitment both vertically between superiors and employees and horizontally between workers. Authors such as Dale *et al.* (1997) and Evans and Lindsay (1996) indicate that employee job satisfaction can be enhanced if employees perceive a high degree of feedback about performance.

(c) Performance appraisal

Performance appraisal is a periodic review and evaluation of an individual's job performance (Spector, 2008). It is a useful tool as it provides accurate data on employee performance and rating accuracy, which are critical aspects of the appraisal process. According to Poon (2004), performance ratings are often used to make important personnel decisions, such as pay rises and promotions. Ellickson and Logsdon (2001) present persuasive evidence of a significant positive relationship between the outcome of employee performance appraisal and overall job satisfaction. Poon (2004) carried out a

study among 127 employees from various organisations; he found that when employees perceived performance ratings to be manipulated because of raters' personal bias and intent to punish subordinates, they expressed reduced job satisfaction which, in turn, led to more expressions of intentions to quit their jobs.

By using an appraisal system, managers can make sure that feedback actually takes place and that staff are clear about the terms of the organisational goals. Thus, if managers succeed in implementing a clear appraisal system, this will lead to increased job performance, higher levels of job satisfaction and greater commitment to the organisation (Pettijohn *et al.*, 2001).

4.4.2.6 Relationship with Co-workers

The factor of relationship with co-workers reflects the extent to which members of an individual's workgroup are perceived to be socially supportive and competent in their own tasks (Rollinson, 2008: 143). Indeed, the social context of work is likely to have a significant impact on a worker's attitude and behaviour. For instance, if workers in a group are cohesive and cooperative, their degree of job satisfaction is high; however, if this group is not cohesive, then their degree of job satisfaction will be low (Purohit, 2004). According to Ellickson and Logsdon (2001), the relationship with co-workers factor was found to be one of the most important factors of job satisfaction. Ting (1997) found empirical evidence that relationships with colleagues have consistently had significant effects on the job satisfaction of federal government workers in the United States. However, Vroom (1964) reported that individuals who are in isolated positions have a higher turnover rate than those in positions that involve a certain amount of interaction.

Price and Mueller (1981) state that whatever the position of workers in an organisation, whether managers or blue collar workers, the nature of the relationship between co-workers is fundamental to the achievement of job satisfaction. Having the support of other workers, both superiors and subordinates, will generally create feelings of satisfaction within the organisation. Thus, a healthy degree of competition among the

individual workers or groups of workers stimulates their activities to achieve either personal or organisational goals (Purohit, 2004).

Warr and Wall (1975) suggest four main social psychological processes that make social interaction satisfying for individuals. These are as follows:

- 1) Individuals have a need for social contact to satisfy their needs for variety, stimulation, affiliation and approval. These can be gratified only by other people.
- 2) Individuals use social interaction for social comparisons. People validate their own attitudes, opinions, beliefs and evaluations by comparing them with the attitudes, beliefs and so forth of those similar to them who are likely to be found in the same work setting.
- 3) Social interaction in work situations is satisfying because it aids the development of group norms. Therefore, individual group members know what they should or should not do and should or should not think.
- 4) Effective operation and goal achievement at work is in itself valued by most people.

4.4.2.7 Professional Development

Professional development refers to ongoing programmes to enhance personal growth and to perform one's job successfully. These programmes include training and educational opportunities, attendance at workshops and courses, job rotation, and so on. Indeed, individuals need these kinds of programmes as they increase their knowledge, which positively affects their enjoyment of work. There is an ongoing theme in the literature that professional development has a positive effect on employees in the workplace (Novick *et al.*, 2008; Herrbach and Mignonac, 2004). For instance, Novick *et al.* (2008:272) maintain that

“Professional development of employees pays off in two key ways. First, such development leads to greater job satisfaction by the employees, improved

morale, reduced turnover, and enhanced performance. Second, the organisation benefits from a staff with a breadth of skills, knowledge, and attitudes'.

Similarly, Brown and Leigh (1996) state that professional development may also lead to an increase in the perceived meaningfulness of work, encouraging people to invest more cognitive and emotional resources in their work, and enhancing employees' identification between their work roles and the organisation's goals. It is also possible that people develop a stronger sense of job competence and autonomy when they perceive learning opportunities, leading them to feel more enthusiastic and comfortable in achieving the job requirements (Daniels, 2000).

These purposes of professional development improve the performance of individuals and provide opportunities to teach and share with other members of the organisation. Positive perceptions of opportunities for learning and personal development may render the job more intrinsically rewarding and, thus, lead to feelings of well-being (Kasser and Ryan, 1996; Diener and Suh, 1999). However, a lack of this kind of encouragement and support may lead to poor performance and feelings of dissatisfaction.

Opportunities for professional development and the utilisation of skills are important factors affecting job satisfaction and motivation. This is congruent with the research assumption, drawn by Hamermesh (1977), that increasingly, job satisfaction is a function of training opportunities. Motivational theories have traditionally pointed to the motivational role of professional development. It is considered by Maslow as a higher need that is satisfied at a high level (Maslow, 1970) and is considered by Herzberg as a motivator or satisfier factor (Herzberg, 1966). The following are some elements of professional development.

(a) Ability Utilisation

Ability utilisation refers to an employee's perception of having the chance to use his or her specific skills and abilities on the job. Vroom (1982) states that individuals gain satisfaction from jobs that require the use of their abilities as compared to jobs in which

they feel their abilities are not being used. Researchers have maintained that this factor has a strong influence on job satisfaction because workers desire jobs that allow them to make good use of their skills and abilities (Katz, 1978; Dewar and Werbel, 1979; Daley, 1986; Gerhart, 1987; Glisson and Durick, 1988 cited in Ting, 1997). Shipton *et al.* (2004) maintain that employees are most likely to contribute their knowledge and skills to innovate in situations where they feel positively towards their jobs and organisations.

Organisations that place the right person in the right position try to integrate the individual and the work situation since organisational productivity is highly dependent on this interaction. Grant *et al.* (1990), who studied police women, found that job utilization correlates strongly with job satisfaction. Their findings support the claims of other research that demonstrates that employees who feel they are contributing their skills and abilities to the job tend to have higher levels of job satisfaction (Dantzker and Surette, 1996). Similarly, Adamson and Deszca (1990) state that many police officers reported that they were underutilized. O'Brien (1995) maintains that an immediate reaction to lack of ability utilization is job dissatisfaction for police officers.

(b) Training

Spector (2008) points out that most training programmes are provided by organisations in the expectation that individuals will apply what they have learned on the course to their job. This is called transfer training. Siebern-Thomas (2005) analysed thirteen countries in the European Community Household Panel (ECHP) 1994-2001, and found that job satisfaction tended to be higher where there was access to workplace training. Jones *et al.* (2008) found that training is positively and significantly associated with job satisfaction and that job satisfaction is also positively and significantly associated with workplace performance. Abdul-Hamid (2004) suggests that, to improve productivity, training must be treated seriously, by introducing better methods and safer ways of working with less fatigue and frustration. For training to be effective, training policies have to support the organisation's strategies and goals. According to Attwood (1989), training must be approached systematically so as to make effective use of an organisation's resources. This means identifying training needs, planning and implementing training programmes,

evaluating the programmes, and enabling the training specialists perform their role adequately.

(c) Job Rotation

Job rotation is a practice that allows an employee to move laterally between divisions or units within an organisation, through allowing the employee on-the-job training and experience in a variety of areas, without a change in rank or employment status (Morrison and Hock, 1986). Redman and Wilkinson (2001:133) state that there are ranges of jobs in each organisation where employees can be set to work for a short period on each job by moving from one cycle to the next – hence the term 'rotation'. They indicate three advantages of job rotation within an organisation, as follows: (1) alleviating employee boredom, (2) providing some variety, and (3) potentially allowing employees to learn new skills. Organisational practices most commonly mentioned in police literature identify job rotation as being a significant activity in the promotion of professional development. Therefore, professional development programmes have a positive influence on employee job satisfaction, and subsequently improve performance and reduce turnover.

4.4.2.8 Organisational Policy and Administration

Betts (1983: 81) defines organisational policy as a guide or principle for the use of management and supervision in order that they may achieve objectives by following broad pattern of behaviour. Locke (1976) indicates that organisational policy determines all aspects of work, such as promotion, pay and fairness; therefore, the importance of this element stems from its significant influence on other factors that have been proved to influence job satisfaction. An organisation's policies and procedures can be a great source of frustration for employees if they are unclear or unnecessary or if not everyone is required to follow them. This will have a great impact on an employee's sense of satisfaction in the workplace. The following are some elements of organisational policy and administration.

(a) Decentralization

One of the organisational policy variables that can influence the level of job satisfaction is decentralization, which is when the power to make decisions resides in several people or departments as opposed to one or just a handful. Research by Willem *et al.* (2005) found centralization policy had a negative effect of nursing staff job satisfaction. Similarly, a study carried out by Lambert *et al.* (2006) utilised survey responses from 272 staff at a Midwestern high security state prison in the USA and found that centralization had significant negative impacts on both job satisfaction and organisational commitment. This notion of decentralization contributes to a feeling of satisfaction among employees since it leads them to believe that they have some influence over their work such as autonomy and responsibility.

(b) Moral Value

Another variable that can influence the level of job satisfaction is moral value, which means being able to do things that do not go against one's conscience (Weiss *et al.*, 1967). According to Herndon *et al.* (2001), individual moral values are evolved perspectives that can include such concepts as relativism, egoism, justice, deontology, and utilitarianism. Moral value is important not only for specific organisations or societies; it is important for all. Indeed, ethical value has a positive impact on both organisations and individuals. For example, it may increase organisational commitment and enhance employees' job satisfaction and in turn decrease turnover. Apasu (1986) found that individual value congruence with organisational values is negatively associated with turnover. However, organisations that tend to force their workers to act immorally or against their moral values will negatively affect employees' attitudes.

(c) Job Security

The most important motivating factor of job satisfaction, according to a study by Khaleque and Chowdhury (1983), is that of job security. Herzberg (1968) describes job security as the extent to which an organisation is perceived to provide steady employment for employees. Indeed, people are happier with work that provides them with state health

care, stability of employment, insurance and pensions. This desire for security, according to Argyle (1989), may increase among unskilled or semiskilled workers or lower income employees. Herzberg's theory considers job security as a hygiene factor, the absence of which may lead to job dissatisfaction. A study conducted by Spector *et al.* (1999) among a wide range of nations found that having a secure job is an important determinant of work satisfaction. Likewise, Yousef (1998) states that job security has recently attracted research because it has an important influence on work-related outcomes. For example, job security is an important determinant of employee health and psychological well-being, employee turnover and retention, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Yousef (1998) also reports that job security has been of great concern to most managers in the UAE lately in their attempts to achieve a reasonable level of satisfaction with job security for their employees.

(d) Organisational Constraints

Organisational constraint is another variable that can influence the level of job satisfaction. Spector (2008) defines organisational constraints as aspects of the work environment that interfere with or prevent good job performance.

Indeed, individuals prefer organisations that take proper precautions to ensure a safe and healthy workplace. They also prefer physical surroundings that are comfortable (for example, that have air conditioning, lighting, ventilation and physical space), and prefer having the necessary equipment and resources to do the job well (Peters and O'Connor, 1988). If individuals in an organisation faced a lack or problems because of working conditions, that would lead to the obstruction of the work in the institution, which may adversely affect the productivity of individuals. Researchers like Peters and O'Connor (1988), Fosam *et al.* (1998) and Hochwarter *et al.* (2006) indicate that these organisational constraints may be important predictor variables of employee attitudes, motivation and performance. They all agree that high levels of situational constraints, as reported by employees, are associated with job dissatisfaction and high levels of stress at the workplace.

Mansfield *et al.* (1991) found that women often encounter work conditions that are less favourable than those of men, such as having less office space and privacy. Considerations of privacy and space in the workplace are also of great concern especially in some conservative countries. Therefore, the literature concerning total quality management (TQM) is clear on the significance of removing all organisational obstacles to enhancing and optimizing both organisational performance and employee attitudes (Deming, 1986).

4.4.2.9 Public Perception

The term 'public' refers to an organisation's users in the community (that is, customers or clients). Interest in measuring public satisfaction in the services provided by an organisation has recently increased. Organisations promote the use of public satisfaction to achieve service quality. To this effect, several studies have examined the role of customer satisfaction within the service quality framework (for example, Parasuraman *et al.*, 1988; Adcock, 2000).

Achieving high levels of employee satisfaction has also been found to be the best way of caring for the customers for whom an organisation wishes to provide the best quality service (Adcock, 2000; Jamieson and Richards, 1996). Rust *et al.* (1996) found that satisfied customers may well result in satisfied employees. This is particularly applicable in organisations where employees have direct contact with customers, as is the case in police forces. Fosam *et al.* (1998) state that when employees are satisfied with their jobs and work environment, they take pride in their work and are motivated to provide a high quality service to their customers, who are members of the public. According Heskett *et al.* (1997), the employee-customer-service-profit chain suggests that increasing employees' satisfaction and loyalty can result in more satisfied customers, which leads to higher profits. Dubrovski (2001) argues that improving public satisfaction not only raises an organisation's profits, but also facilitates organisational development. This could be through improvements in job performance and productivity.

Policing studies, such as those by Fosam *et al.* (1998) and Lim *et al.* (2000), have concluded that public perception affects job satisfaction. For instance, Fosam *et al.* (1998) indicated that the perceived public view and the perceived quality of service to the public, and some involvement in quality improvement and staffing resource issues have been found to be some of the key predictors of job satisfaction among police force workers. However, Yim and Schafer (2008) state that police officers' perception of how they are viewed by the public is indeed a complex issue and only limited research has been conducted in this area. They indicate that police officers believed that they were viewed negatively by the public. Lim *et al.* (2000) carried out a study in Singapore and found that police officers believed that they were viewed less favourably. They pointed out that the public's lack of knowledge of police work could contribute to the police having a poor public image.

4.4.2.10 Job Stress

Antonovsky (1985: 72) defines stress as a "*demand made by the internal or external environment of an organism that upsets its homeostasis, restoration of which depends on non-automatic and not readily available energy expending action*". Put simply, with regard to job satisfaction, stress is the inability to cope with one's job pressure (Ganster and Schaubroeck, 1991), which is associated with impaired individual functioning in the workplace (Fairbrother and Warn, 2003). Stress in the workplace can have many causes or it can stem from one single event. For example, sources of stress might come from within the organisation (for example, workload), management issues (for example, work outside of one's field specialisation), and relationships with co-workers, or might originate in an employee's family and social life.

Stress can deeply affect individuals, groups and organisations. According to Djebarni (1996), the impact of stress or the stressor affects not just the stessee, but each and every level of living systems, such as organism, community and society. Researchers like Djebarni (1996) and Cooper and Cartwright (1994) indicate that stress or unfavourable job conditions can affect employee health and performance. Therefore, this can result in

serious losses to the organisation in terms of valuable human resources and, consequently, financial resources.

The literature supports the view that work stress is associated with low levels of job satisfaction (Deborah *et al.*, 1993; Fairbrother and Warn, 2003). Fletcher and Payne (1980) indicate that since a lack of satisfaction can be a source of stress, high levels of satisfaction can alleviate the effects of stress. Based on a meta-analysis of seven studies covering 2,659 individuals it was found that perceived stress has a strong negative relationship with job satisfaction (Kreitner *et al.*, 2002). Stress can differ between occupations. Miner (1992) pointed out that job satisfaction is relatively low in stressful professions, such as the police and health-care workers.

Many researchers link work-related stress with the outcome of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and employee withdrawal behaviour (for example, Naumann, 1993; Sullivan and Bhagat, 1992). In addition, several studies have found that job stress is related to organisational change and have pointed out that a stressful work environment is negatively associated with a worker's level of job satisfaction (Spector, 1997; Terry *et al.*, 1993). Moreover, job stressors were found to be predictive of job dissatisfaction and turnover (Cummins, 1990). Greenberg and Baron (1997) and Matteson and Ivancevich (1982) demonstrated that job stress has negative effects on the work place in the following ways: (1) a reduced performance efficiency, (2) a decreased capacity to perform the job well, (3) a dampened initiative and reduced interest in working, (4) a lack of concern for the organisation and colleagues, and (5) a loss of responsibility.

Nonetheless, stress is not always harmful, and a limited amount of stress can act as a stimulus, making the work more challenging, interesting, satisfying, and worthwhile. Stress begins to have a negative effect on an individual's social, emotional, and work life only when it is at a high level over a relatively prolonged time. Therefore, when measuring job stress, an investigator should quantify the amount and duration of the stress in order to study the level of satisfaction at different levels of stress.

Spector (2008) states that role ambiguity and role conflict, usually referred to as role stressors, are the most studied stressors in occupational stress research. Researchers have shown that workers who have a clear understanding of their job role feel less uncertain about the nature of their job and accommodate themselves with more ease and less error to their workplace (Spector, 1997). Role theory, as formulated by Katz and Kahn (1966), is composed of at least two parts: role ambiguity and role conflict.

(a) Role Ambiguity

Role ambiguity refers to individuals who are unclear about their job functions and responsibility (Spector, 2008). So as they grow older, they may become insecure or lose confidence in themselves (Armstrong, 2004). Examples of role ambiguity are a lack of clarity about the scope and responsibilities of the job and a lack of understanding of the correct role behaviour and performance evaluation. Role clarity is just the other face of the coin of role ambiguity. Spector (2008) stated that many supervisors fail to give their subordinates clear guidelines and directions, which in turn leads to a lack of clarity about what employees are supposed to do. Thus, clarifying the tasks of employees, and defining their job and place in the organisation in terms of authority and responsibility can reduce role ambiguity and eventually lead to increased job satisfaction (Drafke and Kossen, 1998).

(b) Role Conflict

Role conflict exists when people experience incompatible demands about their functions and responsibilities (Spector, 1997). Role consistency is the opposite of role conflict, where employees operate quite consistently. Role conflict consists of two components, namely, intra-role and extra-role conflict (Spector, 2008). Intra-role conflict arises from the number of demands on the employee. For instance, the employee may be told two or three different things by two or three different supervisors, causing confusion and uncertainty about the job role (Eys and Carron, 2001). Extra-role conflict occurs due to demands from work and non-work domains. For example, conflict commonly occurs when employees have work-family conflicts along with the demands of the job (for

example, if employees stay at work more than at home and a sick child requires the employee to be absent from work). As with role ambiguity, role conflict also has been associated with decreased job satisfaction (Spector, 2008; Rizzo *et al.*, 1970).

Several studies have found that both role conflict and ambiguity are positively correlated with job dissatisfaction (for example, Jackson and Schuller, 1985; Koustelios *et al.*, 2004). A meta-analysis, carried out by Jackson and Schuler (1985), revealed that higher levels of role ambiguity and role conflict are associated with lower levels of job satisfaction and higher levels of anxiety, tension and intention to quit the job.

4.5 Summary

Researchers have examined several factors that correlate with job satisfaction, whether in a positive or negative way. However, the importance of the various factors appears to change from one situation to another. That is, individuals who perform the same job in the same environment and at the same time do not derive the same degree of satisfaction.

Although researchers have found many factors in relation to job satisfaction, the majority of these factors can be grouped into two broad categories: (a) personal factors, (b) environmental factors. Although personal and environmental factors are utilised as distinctly competing models of job satisfaction, researchers argue that the work environment is a better predictor of job satisfaction. That is, personal factors are of little use in understanding job satisfaction.

CHAPTER FIVE: JOB SATISFACTION IN THE POLICE

5.1 Introduction

This chapter highlights the key role of the police force in protecting all of its members' rights in society, and focuses on recent moves towards a change in the functions of the police. These movements have led to an improvement in the individual and organisational effectiveness of police work. This chapter is divided into two main sections. Section one gives a general overview of police work. Section two examines job satisfaction in police organisations. At the end of this chapter, a summary of the main points is presented.

5.2 A General Overview of Police Work

The achievement of security, peace and stability is the main objective of any society. Nowadays, however, the increasing complexity of societies implies an increasingly complex environment. A public sector service like the police should fulfil their functions in light of these complexities. That is, police procedures and outcomes need to be examined to take account of the increasing complexity of modern society, the expansion of knowledge in many areas of working activity, an increased public expectation of the provision of a quality service and the increasing complexity of global threats (Scott, 2000). According to O'Connell and Straub (2007), the role of the police is not simple, nor is it static. Therefore, progressive police departments continuously refine their mission in achieving the aims of how to address multiple complex and sophisticated tasks, anticipate new challenges and continue to deliver high quality police services to the general public in the community.

5.2.1 Police Culture

A police force, as part of a law enforcement agency, has its own unique culture and set of organisational challenges. Crank (2004) indicates that police culture has been frequently criticized as a source of resistance to change and reform, and is often misunderstood. According to O'Connell and Straub (2007), the values and practices associated with this culture affect employee behaviour and performance.

Initially, police organisations were influenced by the military forces, meaning that there was an emphasis on discipline, rules and procedures. These types of organisations display a formal hierarchical structure and rigid management policies, with power and influence focused in the upper ranks of the organisation and little scope for the lower ranks to have any real influence over their working environment or the tasks that they were expected to carry out (O'Connell and Straub, 2007).

The role of the police typically focuses upon the protection of life and property, crime prevention, the detection of offenders, and the preservation of peace and order (Avery, 1981). Boni (1994) and Griffiths and Verdun-Jones (1994) indicate that the role of the police encompasses three common functions:

1. *Crime Control*: responding to and investigating crimes and patrolling the streets to prevent offences from occurring;
2. *Order Maintenance*: preventing and controlling behaviour that disturbs the public peace, including quietening loud parties, settling domestic disputes and intervening in conflicts that arise between citizens;
3. *Service Provision*: the provision of a wide range of services to the community, often as a consequence of the 24-hour availability of the police, assisting in the search for missing persons and acting as an information/referral agency.

Allison (1983) indicates that the features of public organisations differ somewhat from those of private organisations in terms of their time perspective, performance

measurement, personnel constraints, equity, and openness. Miner (1992) states that police work is considered one of the most dangerous occupations in the state because of its nature when dealing with unpredictable situations in the public domain. Hoque *et al.* (2004) argue that the features of a police force also differ from those of other public organisations in regard to the role that the police play in society. According to Brunetto and Farr-Wharton (2003), all public sector employees probably share similar experiences generally, but the implications for policing may have more serious consequences. Table 5.1 presents the differences between the police and other public sector entities.

Table 5.1: Differences between Police and Other Public Sector Entities

	Police Services	Other Public Sector Entities
Environment	Dynamic, risky and dangerous	May be stable and predictable
Services	Protection of the community and promotion of safety	To provide a community service (e.g., health and education)
Objects	To minimize costs and reduce the demand for expenditure	To recover costs (to an extent) by adopting a user-pays strategy
Revenues	State/government funding	Fees, charges, taxes, donations and government funding

Source: Hoque *et al.* (2004: 78)

5.2.1.1 Police Reform

The development and growth of policing have required many changes. In the past several decades, there have been significant attempts to reform organisational processes within the police services. These reforms have changed most aspects of the organisational context within which policing takes place and, in turn, the work practices of police officers have changed; consequently, their commitment and satisfaction may also have been affected (Brunetto and Farr-Wharton, 2003).

Drives for greater efficiency, ideas such as new public management and changes in workplace philosophy have led and forced the police to re-think and revise the old-fashioned militaristic approach to policing (Feltes, 2002). To this effect, several studies have addressed how transitional countries promote radical police reforms to establish new police forces that link to the rule of law, protect human rights, and serve the people on an equal footing (for example, Gordon, 2001; Jackson, 2001). Additionally, the

implications of the new police reforms have shown a tendency to move toward a more decentralized system, norms of professionalism for employees and effective communication (either internal among employees or external among the community).

The complexity of modern policing will require the deployment of a range of initiatives, beyond traditional roles and resources, in order to meet future challenges. For example, for the last few decades, considerable attention has been paid to the adoption of community policing, the expansion of civilianisation, and the privatisation of police functions (Leishman *et al.*, 1996; Morash and Ford, 2002; Skogan and Hartnett, 1997). According to Dantzker (1999), it is believed that changes in the future will revolve around three major areas (1) personnel (for example, who to hire, training) (2) administration (funding, management, organisational restructuring) and (3) community (for example, adopting community policing). The shift to community policing requires a fundamental change in the role and responsibilities of the police and how they work (Morash and Ford, 2002). Skogan and Hartnett (1997:5) suggest that

“Community policing involves reforming decision-making processes and creating new cultures within police departments: it is not a packet of specific tactical plans.... It assumes a commitment to broadly focused, problem-oriented policing and requires that police be responsive to citizens' demands when they decide what local problems are and set their priorities”.

Much literature about the management and operation of police organisations focuses on the unique mission and methods of police organisations and the efforts undertaken to enhance efficiency and the overall quality of performance (O'Connell and Straub, 2007; Brunetto and Farr-Wharton, 2003). Roberg *et al.* (2002:14) define police management as

“Police organisational practices, including individual, group, organisational, and environmental processes, undertaken for the purpose of producing knowledge that can be used continuously to improve employee satisfaction and organisational performance”.

According to O'Connell and Straub (2007: 12), other attempts to enhance productivity and increase job satisfaction were stymied by one fundamental factor: the structure of police organisations. Goldstein (1990) believed that it was necessary to create an entirely new management structure for police organisations, one that was able to detect and

respond to subtle changes in the internal and external work environments. To understand police organisation and management, Roberg *et al.* (2002) identified seven major themes, as shown in Figure 5.2.

Table 5.2: Major Themes of Police Management

Themes	Characteristics
Humanitarian Orientation	The importance of the humane treatment of employees and citizens is emphasized.
Environment	The expectations of the organisation must be integrated with those of the community.
Interdisciplinary Nature	Relevant principles, models, and theories from the social sciences are utilized.
Scientific Method	Research studies using the scientific method are incorporated. A clinical scientist-perspective is used to create a learning organisation.
Four Levels of Analysis	Individuals, groups, the organisation, and the organisational environment are analyzed.
Systems Theory and Contingency Theory	The interrelated and interdependent parts of a system are related to the whole and to the environment. Management practices vary as circumstances and problems change.
Integrity	An organisational climate that fosters integrity for all employees is established.

Source: Roberg *et al.* (2002:15)

5.3 Job Satisfaction in Police Work

Since the police have a considerable effect on society, police forces are now required to be multidimensional in terms of functions and structure in order to address the variants across the state (Clark, 2005). However, sometimes the nature of police work itself can produce stress and tension among police workers because they deal with unpredictable situations, such as daily hazards and global terrorism. Police workers are also constantly in the public eye and might be vulnerable to criticism whether from members of the public or from the media (Al Fadley, 1996). These challenges and difficulties tend to create various kinds of discomfort among police workers, which in turn affect their job satisfaction, performance and productivity. According to Al Fadley (1996), there could easily be a low level of satisfaction within police work since it involves unpopular activities such as crime prevention, apprehending criminals and law enforcement.

Miner (1992) indicates that police work is commonly classified as a high stress occupation because of the physical danger, conflict, and shift work involved. However, Malloy and Mays (1984) conducted a large meta-analysis and found that although law enforcement is a stressful occupation, it is no more stressful than many other occupations. Chandler (1990) does not agree that police work is one of the most stressful occupations, but he admits that there is a stress problem in police work, such as weak management, low motivation and low morale. Chandler (1990) concluded, after reviewing many studies, that the way police forces manage their officers is less competent than management found in industry. Similarly, Davey *et al.* (2001) argue that the police sector is one of the most stressful occupations not only because of the nature of police work, but also as a result of many other influences associated with the work environment; for example, stress can be caused by poor management, poor supervision, low pay and so on. Likewise, Territo and Vetter (1981), in reviewing previous studies, found many sources of police stress, such as pay, supervision and recognition, which have been found to be major factors in constructing the overall level of job satisfaction. Furthermore, Hart *et al.* (1995) carried out a study in Australia among 527 police officers to evaluate the idea that police work is a highly stressful occupation. It indicated that organisational experience or management practice, which includes factors such as supervision, participation in management, and recognition for work well done, is the key factor in determining the overall level of job satisfaction.

Over the past few decades, particularly in democratic countries, police forces have experienced significant change and innovation in terms of management and technological issues (Bayley, 1994; Weisburd and Braga, 2006). Like other public sector entities, police forces have implemented management reform including policies and strategies aimed at improving organisational performance overall (Cope *et al.*, 1997; O'Connell and Straub, 2007). Such policies and procedures include incentive and rewards policies, hiring professional staff in many fields, training for new recruits, implementing staff diversity, effective communication, developing performance appraisals, providing career paths and job descriptions for all job levels, and dealing with staff complaints and grievances (O'Connell and Straub, 2007). These management reforms have shifted the organisational

focus onto employees' needs (that is, if the job does not meet the employee's expectations or values or fulfil their needs, job dissatisfaction may result). Jones *et al.* (2005: 52), for instance, maintain that the attitudes of police officers will decline if a job “*does not live up to the employee's expectations, and if the organisational characteristics and values do not reflect that of the individuals*”. It is important to recognise that the majority of police officers who resign “*experienced conflict and a state of dissonance when their experiences...were contradictory to their sense of self and their cognitions about what police work should be*” (Haarr, 2005:449). Thus, achieving employees' job satisfaction is one of the new strategies that can build a healthy organisation and improve the psychological well-being of police officers (Violanti and Aron, 1994).

Human resources are an important asset in police sectors, in their aim to have effective crime prevention and control, are highly dependent on the performance efficiency of their employees. The drive for efficiency has resulted in police forces making improvements in many areas to increase the satisfaction among their employees since employee satisfaction is an important driver of customer satisfaction. It is believed that improving levels of job satisfaction leads not only to an improvement in police workers' performance, but also to an improvement in the ability of the police force to achieve its goals.

Previous studies show significant correlation between police activities (i.e. completing a crime report or making an arrest) with victim satisfaction with the police (for example, Brandl and Horvath, 1991; Percy, 1980). According to Tyler (2003) and Sunshine and Tyler (2003), the general public who are satisfied with the police are less likely to fear victimization, are more likely to cooperate with the police, and even are less likely to commit crime. The police reform movements give police forces opportunities to demonstrate concern with the satisfaction of its workers, since employee satisfaction leads to having customer satisfaction (Rust *et al.*, 1996). Dantzker and Surette (1996) maintain that dissatisfied officers could negatively affect the delivery of services and the image or perceptions of the police among the general public.

Like any public sector entity, the police believe that the effect of job satisfaction has on issues such as absenteeism, productivity and employee turnover is very important to the organisation's survival (Dantzker and Surrette, 1996). According to Zhao *et al.* (1999), employees' job satisfaction in law enforcement agencies is attracting researchers' attention, as are related issues (for example, employees' productivity, motivation and performance). To this effect, the identification of how satisfied police officers are with various job-related factors can be extremely useful to the police executive (Dantzker and Surrette, 1996).

Both in the past and currently, in some countries, police work is regarded as one of the least attractive employment options for individuals. According to Idson (1990), the rigid police environment has been linked to decreased satisfaction. More specifically, Hale and Chapman (1981) argue that police forces have some features that could cause dissatisfaction with the job. These characteristics include (1) the style of police management, which relies upon strict discipline and obedience, (2) the authoritarian style of leadership, (3) the lack of participation in decision making, and (4) the lack of adequate channels of internal communication. However, the question is, what motivates people to choose a career in policing? According to Moon and Hwang (2004), recognizing the importance of understanding people's motivations for joining the police force would be useful for creating effective recruitment strategies.

Working for the police, in some countries, is still considered an attractive and trustworthy occupation in respecting and protecting human rights. According to Alpert and Dunham (1988:135), there are three reasons police workers choose police work as a career: (1) people oriented: individuals choose to work as police officers because they derive satisfaction from working with the general public; (2) professional self-oriented: individuals select the police because they wish to utilize their self-identified talents and develop their career; (3) personal reward oriented: individuals choose to work in the police to gain maximum rewards.

Moon and Hwang (2004) carried out a study among 410 Korean police and found that salary and job security were the most important factors affecting people's decision to join the police. However, common themes in the literature confirm the importance of non-materialistic issues for those attracted to the police as a profession. For example, Krimmel and Tartaro (1999) state that although financial and security needs are important for current police officers, the excitement of policing, the opportunity to help people, and the pursuit of status were important career considerations. Likewise, Raganella and Whites' (2004) survey of 1,463 New York City police recruits found that helping people was the most important consideration for both male and female recruits, along with the excitement, the crime fighting opportunities, and the companionship offered by the police profession. Similarly, Meagher and Yentes (1986) found that the opportunity to help people and the excitement of the job were among the top reasons for people selecting policing as their occupation. However, Tarng *et al.* (2001), using a sample from the Central Police University in Taiwan, did not support the view that the opportunity to serve others and the adventurous characteristics of police work were the most important reasons. They found that a good salary and parental influence had the strongest effect on 'students' choosing a career in the police.

The police sector is greatly concerned with employee turnover. According to Sheley and Nock (1979), although job satisfaction is a key element in job performance and turnover rate within any occupation, it seems especially crucial in police work. For instance, a study by Lynch and Tuckey (2008) indicate that there is growing concern within the Australasian police agency about the number of police workers who are resigning from the police profession. Lynch and Tuckey (2008) maintain that given the dramatic increase in the competitive labour market, police forces should investigate the reasons behind these high levels of resignation of qualified and experienced employees. Spector (1997:62) states that most theories of turnover view it as the result of employees' job dissatisfaction since individuals who dislike and are unhappy with their job will try to search for another job. Researchers like Greene (1989), O'Leary-Kelly and Griffin (1995) and Hoath *et al.* (1998) indicate four reasons police organisations should consider enhancing the job satisfaction among their employees:

1. Employee job dissatisfaction may negatively influence job performance, that is, both the quantity and quality of law enforcement service an organisation provides.
2. Employee job dissatisfaction might negatively influence the attitudes and images the public develop about police agencies and their workers.
3. Police forces have a moral obligation to show concern for their workers and encourage positive work related attitudes among them.
4. Job satisfaction eliminates negative outcome variables such as absenteeism and burnout.

As mentioned in Chapter One, research on job satisfaction in police work is crucial since there has been little research in the field (for example, Dantzker, 1996; Brunetto and Farr-Wharton, 2003). Dantzker and Surette (1996:7) state that “*whereas job satisfaction is a popular research topic among industrial and organisational psychologists, police organisational researchers have all but ignored the area of job satisfaction*”.

A police force should understand the causes of job satisfaction within its milieu in order to improve its employees' job performance increase their productivity and reduce turnover rate. According to Buzawa (1984:61), studying different patterns of job satisfaction is critical because of their relationship with important employee behavioural outcomes such as performance and organisational outcomes. Thus, Buzawa (1984) stresses that the studies of job satisfaction in police work should look at various factors that affect workers' job satisfaction. Dantzker and Surette (1996) argue that studies focusing on more factors affecting job satisfaction are rare with regard to policing. Forsyth and Copes (1994) indicate that most job satisfaction research in the police focuses on demographic characteristics, such as key independent variables associated with employees' job satisfaction. Similarly, Zhao *et al.* (1999:153) state that “*knowing about police officers' job satisfaction to date has been limited to empirical inquiry based on individual officers' education level, ethnicity, gender, and rank/years of service*”.

O'Leary-Kelly and Griffin (1995) indicate that two types of variables affect police officers, namely, individual and workplace characteristics. Reiner and Zaho (1999) argue that the effects of the work environment alone have not been given sufficient attention. According to empirical theories and research, it seems that a more comprehensive measure of job satisfaction should consist of various variables that test both the work environment and demographic factors. It would also be ideal to include work environment factors along with demographic factors to provide a complete model in any research undertaken. Although the environment and demographic factors give a clear image in measuring job satisfaction, a demographic model would explain very little on the variance in officers' job satisfaction (for example, Boke and Nalla, 2009; Carlan, 2007; Zhao *et al.*, 1999; Reiner and Zaho, 1999).

5.4 Summary

The achievement of security, peace and stability is the main objective of any society. Police forces work to maintain the internal security, stability and protection of the society and its members, and protect their lives and property as well as addressing crimes of all types. Fortunately, the classic traditional hierarchical management approach to policing has become a thing of the past. The police reform movements have started to increase organisational efficiency, enhance consideration of employees' needs, facilitate the delivery of effective services and reduce turnover rate.

Furthermore, police forces have started to pay more attention to their employees in order to achieve manpower investment, change management and organisational human resource efficiencies. The study of job satisfaction in the police is crucial because of the nature of police work and the ways in which dissatisfied officers could be adversely affecting the delivery of services and the image or perceptions of the police among the general public. Police forces should look at various factors that affect workers' job satisfaction. Researchers believe that demographic and work environment are the main factors that affect police job satisfaction.

CHAPTER SIX: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

6.1 Introduction

To achieve the aims and objectives outlined in Chapter One, a research design had to be formulated. This chapter describes the main features of the methodology and methods adopted in this research. It starts by describing the philosophical assumptions of the research and providing a justification for the mixed methods approach. The research strategy adopted involves sequential procedures. The qualitative approach used prior to quantitative investigation, and how these approaches were deployed in the two stages, are described. Additionally, the chapter presents some of the difficulties and obstacles that were encountered during the research process. It concludes with a discussion of the main points regarding the methodology employed.

6.2 Research Philosophy

In order to identify the most appropriate research strategy for the study, the existing research philosophies were reviewed, bearing in mind the need to achieve the aims and objectives of the research. As noted by Easterby-Smith *et al.* (2002), an understanding of research philosophy is important before conducting research for three main reasons, these being: (a) it can help the researcher to clarify the overall research strategy to be used, (b) it enables and assists the researcher to evaluate different methodologies and methods, and (c) it helps the researcher to be creative and innovative in either the selection or adaptation of methods that were previously outside his or her experience.

Saunders *et al.* (2003) referred to the three schools of research that are most prevalent in the literature: positivism, interpretivism (also called the phenomenological and

constructivist approach) and realism. However, there are many other paradigms like post-positivism and pragmatism (see Table 6.1). Each of them plays an important part in business and management research.

Table 6.1: Comparisons of Four Important Paradigms Used in Social and Behavioral Science

Paradigm	Positivism	Constructivism	Post-positivism	Pragmatism
Approach	Quantitative	Qualitative	Primarily quantitative	Quantitative + Qualitative
Ontology	Single reality	Multiple realities	Critical reality	Accept external reality. Choose explanations that best produce desired outcomes.
Epistemology	Independence of knower and known. Objective point of view.	Inseparability of knower and the known. Subjective point of view.	Modified dualism. Findings probably objectively 'true'.	Objective and subjective points of view accepted.
Axiology	Research is value-free.	Research is value-bound.	Research involves values, but they may be controlled.	Values play an important role in interpreting results.
Causal linkages	There is cause and effect	The cause and effect are indistinguishable.	Causes are identifiable in a probabilistic sense that change over time.	There may be causal linkages, but we will never be able to pin them down.
Logic	Deductive	Inductive	Primarily deductive	Inductive + Deductive

Source: Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998:7-23)

Positivism is a research philosophy that is related to natural sciences and involves working with an observable social reality (Saunders *et al.*, 2003). It offers an objective analysis. Gill and Johnson (1997) state that positivism requires a highly structured methodology in order to help researchers to repeat their studies. In this respect, Remenyi *et al.* (1998:33) indicate that the assumption is that “*the researcher is independent of and neither affects nor is affected by the subject of the research*”. According to Collis and Hussey (2003) researchers adopt a positivistic paradigm to collect mainly quantifiable observational data, which are normally needed to conduct some form of statistical analysis.

Saunders *et al.* (2003) argue that the positivist researcher perceives the social world of management and business as very complex; thus, it cannot adequately lend itself to theorising by definite laws in the same way as do the physical sciences. They go on to argue that when complexity is thus reduced entirely to a series of law-like generalisations, then any richer insights into the profundities of the world are necessarily lost. They also state that if researchers support and agree with such a view, their research philosophy is likely to be closer to that of the interpretivist. To this effect, interpretivism seeks to understand the subjective reality of what is studied. It adopts a more qualitative approach and undertakes to discover the details of a situation to understand the reality (Saunders *et al.*, 2003). Mangan *et al.* (2004) suggest that the positivist approach is a 'top-down, outside-in' research approach and that the interpretivism paradigm is a 'bottom, inside-out' research approach.

The realist philosophical position recognises that people themselves are not objects to be studied in the style of the natural sciences, as suggested by positivism (Harré, 1970), but rather that there are social forces and processes that affect people without them being necessarily aware of there being such an influence on their interpretations and behaviours (Saunders *et al.*, 2003). Realism is based on the belief that a reality exists that is independent of human thoughts and beliefs. That is, the only way for social sciences to be scientific, is for them to develop methods appropriate to a particular subject matter of social sciences based on realist principles (Harré, 1970). Although realism adopts the interpretivist position that it is necessary to ensure that meanings are shared and knowledge can progress in a social environment, it does not insist on the identity of methods or try to reflect scientific practice, but rather avoids interpretivism's fatal flaws (Harré, 1970).

Realism seeks to understand the existence of both an external and objective reality and of the broader social forces, structures or processes that influence, and perhaps constrain people's social interpretations and behaviours, but that may not be perceptible to them (Saunders *et al.*, 2003). Because realism shares some similar philosophical aspects with

positivism, such as external objectivity, it recognises the importance of understanding people's socially-constructed interpretations (Saunders *et al.*, 2003).

Positivism and interpretivism are often mixed in business and management research perhaps reflecting the stance of realism (Saunders *et al.*, 2003). In this respect, realism, when applied to a study of human objects (like this study), recognises the importance of understanding people's socially-constructed interpretations and meanings, or subjective reality, within the context of seeking to understand the broader social forces, structures or processes that impact upon, and perhaps limit, the nature of people's views and behaviours (Saunders *et al.*, 2003).

6.3 Research Approaches

The two basic research approaches are qualitative and quantitative. However, the difference between the two approaches is not merely a question of quantification, but also a reflection of different perspectives on knowledge and research objectives (Jankowicz, 1991). Both quantitative and qualitative approaches have their strengths and weaknesses. The following section shows the differences between these two approaches. In addition, the rationale for selecting one or the other is presented.

6.3.1 The Quantitative Versus Qualitative Research Approach

According to Corbetta (2003), there are two different approaches to research: inductive (theory building) and deductive (theory testing). Generally, an inductive strategy that links data and theory is associated with qualitative research, while a deductive strategy is associated with the quantitative research approach. The relative distinctions between the two main research approaches are presented in Table 6.2

Table 6.2: Major Differences between Deductive and Inductive Approaches

Deduction Emphasises	Induction Emphasises
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Scientific principles. ▪ Moving from theory to data. ▪ The need to explain causal relationships between variables. ▪ The collection of quantitative data. ▪ The application of controls to ensure validity of data. ▪ The operationalisation of concepts to ensure clarity of definition. ▪ A highly structured approach. ▪ Researcher independence of what is being researched. ▪ The need to select samples of sufficient size in order to generalise conclusions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Gaining an understanding of the meanings humans attach to events. ▪ A close understanding of the research context. ▪ The collection of qualitative data. ▪ A more flexible structure to permit changes of research emphasis as the research progresses. ▪ A realisation that the researcher is part of the research process. ▪ Less concern with the need to generalise.

Source: Saunders *et al.* (2007:120)

Qualitative research can be described as any type of research that generates hypotheses or produces findings not arrived at by any statistical procedures or other means of quantification (Straus and Corbin, 1998). Denzin and Lincoln (1994:2) claim that qualitative research has many foci (multi-methods), including an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter. That is, qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them. This approach includes the use and collection of different sorts of materials, such as case study, personal experience, introspection, life story, interviews, observation, histories, interactions and visual texts and the described routine and problematic moments and meanings in individuals' lives.

Qualitative research is typically used to answer questions about the complex nature of phenomena, often with the purpose of describing and understanding those phenomena from the participants' point of view (Yin, 1994). A Qualitative approach is characterised by the use of non-numerical data, induction and exploratory methods (Smith, 1988). Consequently, this method is useful when the researcher does not know the important variables that need to be examined (Leedy and Ormrod, 2001).

Qualitative data involve more in-depth descriptions, concerning individuals (Alvesson and Deetz, 2000) and their perception of the world (Bell, 1993). This approach takes into

account the need for flexibility (Sarantakos, 1994) and offers high validity (Collis and Hussey, 2003). Generally, qualitative research is viewed as less reliable because the data are more subjective than the data obtained by quantitative methods. In qualitative research, sample sizes are commonly too small to allow the researcher to generalise the data beyond the sample selected (Dillon *et al.*, 1993).

The quantitative method, on the other hand, emphasises the measurement and testing of hypothesised or causal relationships between variables through the collection of data in their numerical form (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994) so they can be easily measured or counted and analysed using statistical procedures in order to determine whether it is possible to generalize the study findings to the general population (Creswell, 2003).

Qualitative methods are favoured when constructing a new scale relating to a subject about explaining human feelings and thoughts, such as an employee's experiences of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. It relies heavily on the acquisition of information on people's understanding and knowledge. Therefore, a qualitative approach accomplishes exploration beyond the quantitative method. Some authors think that it is difficult to convert such things into numerical data or to understand the real meaning of an issue by looking at numbers (Kruger, 2003).

Although there have been many controversial issues regarding which approach is better or more scientific, especially before the 1990s, the choice of which method to use depends on the research problem and the purposes for which the research was conducted (Jankowicz, 1991; Hathaway, 1995). Decisions about which kind of research method to adopt may also be based on the researcher's own experience and preference, the population being researched, the proposed audience for the findings, and the availability of time and other resources.

To sum up, qualitative methods are suitable for addressing questions of how and why things occur, whereas quantitative methods are more appropriate for answering what and how questions (Yin, 1994). However, the use of mixed methods in a study will enhance

strengths and reduce weaknesses. In the next section, the choice of the mixed methods approach will be justified.

6.3.2 Justification of the Mixed Methods Approach

Mixed methods research is defined as “*the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative or qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study*” (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004:17). More specifically, it can be conceptualised as combining quantitative and qualitative research in a concurrent, sequential, conversion, or parallel way (Creswell, 2003; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998).

Although a number of researchers believe that qualitative and quantitative methods cannot be mixed, since the assumptions underlying each method are so vastly different, researchers such as Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) and Creswell (2003), have pointed out that using different methods in the same study minimises potential limitations. Using both qualitative and quantitative methods allows the researcher to discover and justify the model components within one study. Furthermore, the results from one method may be used to develop or inform the other method (Greene *et al.*, 1989) and one method can be nested within another method to provide insights into different levels of units of analysis (Saunders *et al.*, 2003). Briefly, this approach allows the researcher to generate the model of job satisfaction and to test it within one study. According to Saunders *et al.* (2003), it is crucial to identify a particular strategy for the research, primarily because of the differences between the deductive and inductive approaches. The following section presents the research strategy adopted in this study.

6.4 Research Strategy

A research strategy is a general plan of how the researcher will answer the research question. It is a procedure for achieving a particular intermediary research objective, such as sampling, data collection, or data analysis (Saunders *et al.*, 2007).

Several strategies have been used in studies, such as experiment, case study, ethnography and survey. Each of these strategies is a different way of collecting and analysing data.

Case study research, for example, generally uses observations and interviews and is principally concerned with the interaction of factors and events whereas ethnography is used primarily to investigate other races or cultures by obtaining data over a long period in order to share the same experiences with the subjects.

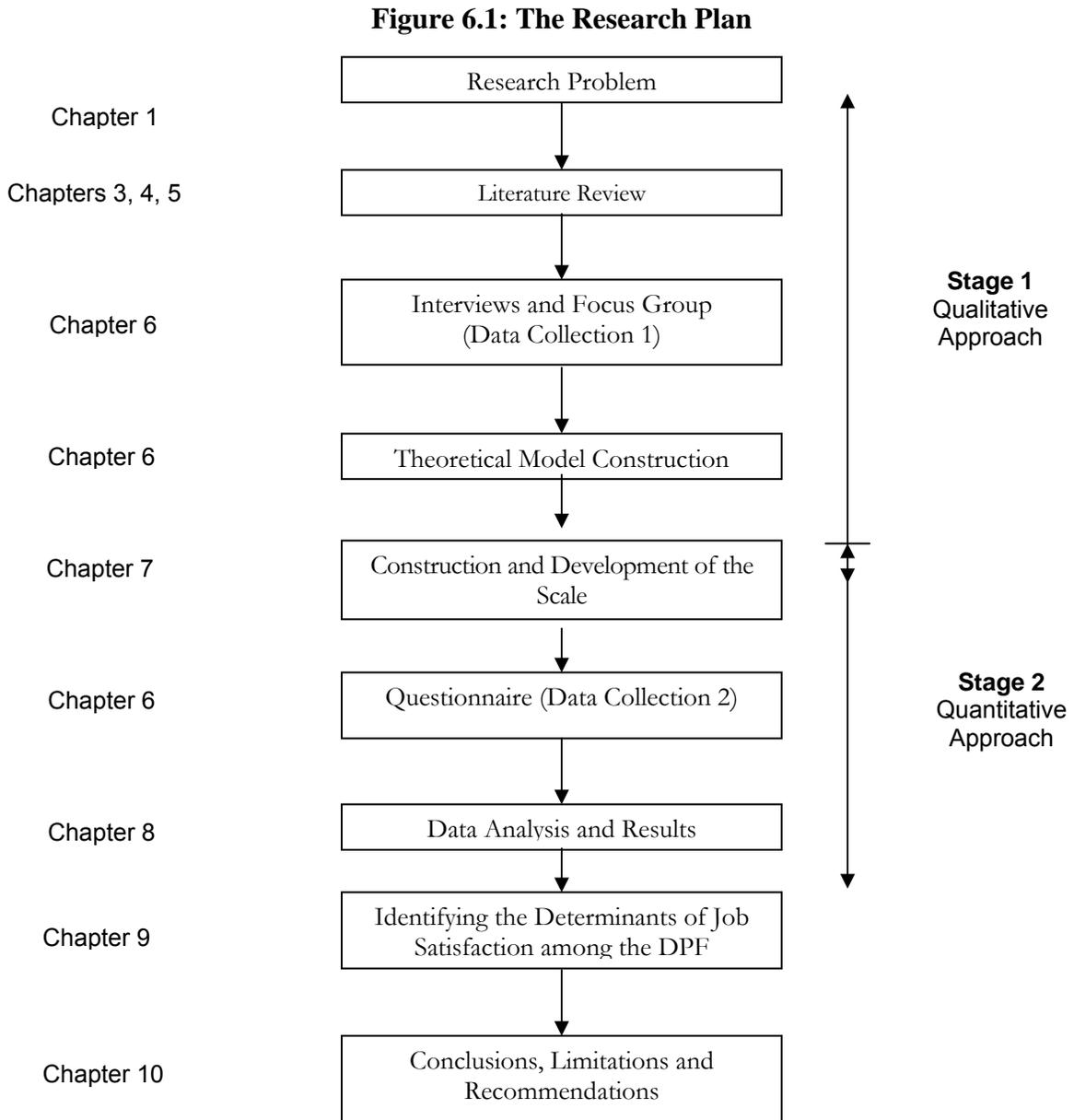
Under a post-positivistic approach, although no one strategy is clearly the best, the survey strategy is a popular and common strategy in business and management research, whereas experimental studies dominate in psychology. The survey is described by Rea and Parker (1997:1) as “*the concept of considering information derived from a small number of people to be an accurate representation of a significantly larger number of people*”. As a strategy, the survey can be descriptive or analytical. The intention of a descriptive survey is to identify and measure the frequency of a specific population whereas the analytical survey investigates whether there are relationships between different variables (Collis and Hussey, 2003).

One of the major features of the survey strategy is that the important variables have to be known in advance. Thus, it can only be used in a relatively well-understood situation. However, due to the choice of a mixed methods approach in this study, the qualitative approach first helped to generate insightful information to identify the essential factors of job satisfaction and facilitate the construction of a theoretical model. This subsequently allowed for the results of the theoretical model to be tested using the quantitative approach. According to Spector (1997), the best way to measure employee satisfaction is either to interview employees or to ask them to complete a questionnaire. In this research, the qualitative and quantitative methods were deployed in two stages (see Figure 6.1).

Based on these steps, the research strategy adopted involved sequential procedures (Creswell, 2003) as follows:

- Stage One: Qualitative methods were used including in-depth interviews and focus groups to explore and examine the participants’ views on the factors affecting job satisfaction. This stage is discussed in detail in section 6.6.

- Stage Two: Questionnaire Scaling. The researcher followed specific steps to construct and develop a valid and reliable questionnaire. A quantitative approach, in the form of survey questionnaires, was used to identify the determinants of job satisfaction among the DPF employees. This stage is discussed in detail in section 6.7 and Chapter Seven.



6.5 The Conceptual Model of the Research

Within the review of the literature an overview of the theories of job satisfaction has been provided, and from this understanding different methods are now discussed in order to develop a conceptual model. The literature review showed that job satisfaction is a complex concept that is difficult to measure objectively, being affected by a wide range of factors. In this respect, individual, social, organisational, cultural, and environmental influences have been identified. A comprehensive review of the literature shows that there are many studies in the area of job satisfaction that will provide a source of important information. This study is based on two sources of data, primary and secondary, to understand and develop the conceptual model of job satisfaction.

The following sub-sections demonstrate the job satisfaction model, the operationalisation of variables, and the formulation of hypotheses.

6.5.1 Job Satisfaction Model

Most research uses questionnaire surveys to examine employee job satisfaction, with different factors/dimensions of the instrument being used to explore and explain its determinants. Although these dimensions differ among organisations, the variations are not obvious (Chen *et al.*, 2006). Thus, the structure of employee job satisfaction models in the public sector or even in the police sector could be similar.

There are many factors surrounding environmental work and every study has examined different factors in accordance with its goal. However, no complete model of job satisfaction can be followed because of the large number of contributing dimensions or factors influencing employee satisfaction. To establish an employee satisfaction model for the DPF, this study considered the job satisfaction models proposed by a number of scholars, such as Maslow (1959), Herzberg *et al.* (1959), Fosam *et al.* (1998), Weiss *et al.* (1966), Spector (1997), and Ellickson and Logsdon (2001). The following models were referred to in discussing the determinants of employee satisfaction in public sector organisations.

- a) Weiss *et al.* (1967) developed the MSQ and found 20 dimensions to measure job satisfaction as presented in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3: MSQ Dimensions

Dimension	Description
Ability utilisation	The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities
Achievement	The feelings of accomplishment I get from the job
Activity	Being able to keep busy all the time
Advancement	The chances for advancement on this job
Authority	The chance to tell other people what to do
Company policies and practices	The way company policies are put into practice
Compensation	My pay and the amount of work I do
Co-workers	The way my co-workers get along with each other
Creativity	The chance to try my own work methods of doing the job
Independence	The chance to work alone in the job
Moral values	Being able to do things that do not go against my conscience
Recognition	The praise I get for doing a good job
Responsibility	The freedom to use my own judgment
Security	The way my job provides for steady employment
Social service	The chance to do things for other people
Social status	The chance to be "somebody" in the community
Supervision - human relation	The way my boss handles his men/women
Supervision – technical	The competence of my supervisor in making decisions
Variety	The chance to do different things from time to time
Working conditions	The working conditions

Source: Weiss *et al.* (1967)

- b) Ellickson and Logsdon (2001) conducted a survey among 1,200 full-time employees to identify the determinants of job satisfaction of municipal government employees in the Mid-western region of the USA. Ten factors were found to influence employee job satisfaction. These were (1) promotional opportunities, (2) pay, (3) fringe benefits, (4) performance appraisals, (5) equipment and resources, (6) training, (7) workload, (8) quality of supervisory relationships, (9) departmental esprit de corps, and (10) physical space.
- c) Spector (1997) developed the JSS and found nine dimensions to measure job satisfaction, as shown in Table 6.4. It is suggested that these dimensions correlate with job satisfaction.

Table 6.4: JSS Dimensions

Dimension	Description
Pay	Satisfaction with pay and pay rises
Promotion	Satisfaction with promotion opportunities
Supervision	Satisfaction with the person's immediate supervisor
Fringe Benefits	Satisfaction with fringe benefits
Contingent rewards	Satisfaction with rewards (not necessarily monetary) given for good performance
Operating Conditions	Satisfaction with rules and procedures
Co-workers	Satisfaction with co-workers
Nature of Work	Satisfaction with the type of work done
Communication	Satisfaction with communication within the organisation

Source: Spector (1997:8)

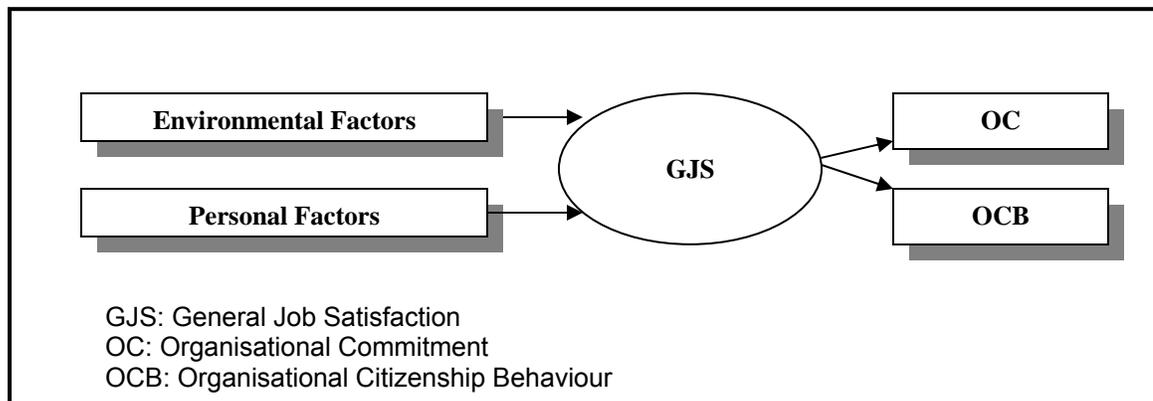
- d) Fosam *et al.* (1998) analysed police organisations to find a suitable employee satisfaction model taking the South Yorkshire Police in the UK as an example. The resultant model is shown in Figure 6.2.

Figure 6.2: Employee Satisfaction Model – Fosam *et al.* (1998)

Although there are many studies of job satisfaction in the literature, only a few have examined the antecedents and consequences of job satisfaction in one study. This focus on the structural and relational factors as potential antecedents and outcomes gives a clear picture of the job satisfaction process. For example, effective supervision from a direct manager can positively influence an employee's level of job satisfaction. This positive feeling may result in the employee being more committed to the organisation.

Based on the discussion in Chapters Three and Four, there are many factors in relation to job satisfaction, the majority of these factors can be grouped into two main factors, namely, personal and environmental factors. Although the proposed model for job satisfaction contains two main factors affecting job satisfaction, these factors include new dimensions and items which have not been investigated in previous research. The starting point of the new model is the premise that there are two determinants of job satisfaction, namely, environmental factors and personal factors. The model also proposes two outcomes of job satisfaction, as illustrated in Figure 6.3.

Figure 6.3: A Proposed Model of Job Satisfaction



More specifically, this model posits that:

1. Environmental factors directly affect the level of job satisfaction. This division may help to identify the most influential factors affecting the level of job satisfaction. Examples of environmental factors are supervision, promotion and relations with co-workers.
2. Personal factors as independent variables influence employee job satisfaction. Examples of personal factors are sex, age and educational level.
3. Job satisfaction can affect employees' behavioural outcomes. These outcomes are organisational commitment (OC) and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB).

6.5.2 Operationalisation of the Variables

Once the conceptual model of the research has been described, it is important to identify the operationalisation of the variables of the research and decide how they are going to be measured. According to Babbie (2004), operationalisation, which is one step beyond conceptualisation, is the process of developing operational definitions, or specifying the exact operations involved in measuring a variable.

In this study, there are four main variables, as depicted in Figure 6.3

- (1) The independent variables are **environmental factors**, such as salary, communication and supervision. They are measured on a seven-point Likert style rating scale, with endpoints 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree.
- (2) The independent variables are **personal factors**, such as sex, job level and years of experience.
- (3) The dependent variable is **job satisfaction**, which is measured on a seven-point Likert style rating scale, with endpoints 1= very dissatisfied to 7= very satisfied. It is worth noting that the three job satisfaction questions in the questionnaire survey are computed to generate the General Job Satisfaction (GJS) variable.
- (4) There are two dependent variables, namely, **OC** and **OCB**, which are considered as consequences of job satisfaction. They are measured on a seven-point Likert style rating scale, with endpoints 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree.

6.5.3 Hypotheses Formulation

Hypotheses are testable propositions about the relationship between two or more concepts or variables from theory (Saunders *et al.*, 2007). The use of hypotheses in most research, including this study, is still regarded by researchers as an important tool of scientific research for identifying certain relationships between variables in a theoretical model (Kerlinger, 1986).

In this study, the hypotheses were designed in a traditional style. According to Creswell (2003), the traditional style of constructing hypotheses is by null/alternative hypotheses. Null hypotheses make a prediction that there is no relationship between variables and alternative hypotheses predict outcomes for the relationships between those variables. If the null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected, the alternative hypothesis (H_1) is supported (Sekaran, 1992). Thus, all hypotheses used in this study were presented in the form of null hypotheses.

The hypotheses were developed based on the literature and the preliminary findings from the qualitative study conducted by the researcher. The suggested model of job satisfaction of the DPF employees led to the four main hypotheses as follows:

(1) Hypothesis H1

As thoroughly discussed in Chapter Four, researchers identified two main factors affecting job satisfaction, namely personal factors and environmental factors. This hypothesis considers personal factors as independent variables affecting the levels of job satisfaction. In addition, the findings from the qualitative investigation in this study found some personal factors such as shift work and public contact to be important variables affecting job satisfaction particularly of police employees. These personal factors include sex, nationality, age, marital status, educational level, job level, years of experience, shift work and public contact.

Based on the literature review and the findings from the qualitative study, the current research examines the following hypothesis:

(H₁): There are statistically significant differences/correlations between each of the personal variables and GJS.

Accordingly, the null hypothesis is as follows:

(H_{01}): *There are no statistically significant differences/correlations between each of the personal variables and GJS (H_{01}).*

Based on Null Hypothesis One (H_{01}), nine sub-null hypotheses were formulated:

Numbers	Sub-Null Hypotheses
$H_{01.1}$	There is no statistically significant difference in the means of GJS between male and female employees.
$H_{01.2}$	There is no statistically significant difference in the means of GJS between UAE and non-UAE employees.
$H_{01.3}$	There is no statistically significant correlation between employees' age and GJS.
$H_{01.4}$	There is no statistically significant difference in the means of GJS between single and married employees.
$H_{01.5}$	There is no statistically significant difference in the means of GJS among the four educational groups.
$H_{01.6}$	There is no statistically significant difference in the means of GJS between supervisory and non-supervisory employees.
$H_{01.7}$	There is no statistically significant correlation between employees' years of experience and GJS.
$H_{01.8}$	There is no statistically significant difference in the means of GJS between employees who work in shift bases and those who do not.
$H_{01.9}$	There is no statistically significant difference in the means of the GJS between employees who deal with the public and those who do not.

(2) Hypothesis H2

The second hypothesis is concerned with the relationship between environmental factors and job satisfaction. Environmental factors are independent variables enhancing employees' job satisfaction in the workplace. As discussed at length in Chapter Four, the environmental factors have been considered by previous researchers as an important factor in determining job satisfaction. Moreover, the literature indicates that when employees are satisfied with their jobs and work environment, they take pride in their work and are motivated to provide a high quality service to their customers who are members of the public. In addition, this hypothesis draws from the findings of the qualitative study which shows that environmental factors are important in improving the

levels of satisfaction and persuading workers to stay in the organisation. The environmental factors include salary and incentives, supervision, public perception, promotion opportunity, organisational policy and strategy, relationship with co-workers, professional development, nature of the work, communication, job stress and performance appraisal.

Based on the literature review and the findings from the qualitative study (details are available in section 6.6), the following hypothesis has been formulated:

(H_2) : *There are statistically significant correlations between environmental variables and GJS.*

Accordingly, the null hypothesis is as follows:

(H_{02}) : *There are no statistically significant correlations between environmental variables and GJS.*

Based on Null Hypothesis Two (H_{02}), eleven sub-hypotheses were constructed:

Numbers	Sub-Null Hypotheses
$H_{02.1}$	There is no statistically significant correlation between salary and incentives, and GJS.
$H_{02.2}$	There is no statistically significant correlation between supervision and GJS.
$H_{02.3}$	There is no statistically significant correlation between public perception and GJS.
$H_{02.4}$	There is no statistically significant correlation between promotion opportunity and GJS.
$H_{02.5}$	There is no statistically significant correlation between organisational policy and strategy and GJS.
$H_{02.6}$	There is no statistically significant correlation between relationship with co-workers and GJS.
$H_{02.7}$	There is no statistically significant correlation between professional development and GJS.
$H_{02.8}$	There is no statistically significant correlation between nature of the work and GJS.
$H_{02.9}$	There is no statistically significant correlation between communication and GJS.
$H_{02.10}$	There is no statistically significant correlation between job stress and GJS.
$H_{02.11}$	There is no statistically significant correlation between performance appraisal and GJS.

(3) Hypothesis H3

The purpose of the third hypothesis is to identify the predictors or determinants of job satisfaction among the DPF employees. As thoroughly discussed in Chapters Three and Four, the literature emphasises the importance of personal and environmental variables in determining the level of job satisfaction. Nonetheless, some authors such as Boke and Nalla (2009), Carlan *et al.* (2007) and Davey *et al.* (2001) argue that the work environment is a better predictor of job satisfaction. That is, personal factors are of little use in understanding job satisfaction. As consequence, the researcher considers that it is worth investigating both types of factors in a non-western country like the UAE.

This hypothesis consists of three main hypotheses as follows:

H3.A *Personal variables are predictors of GJS after controlling for other environmental variables.*

Accordingly, the null hypothesis is as follows:

- **H_{03.A}**: *Personal variables are not predictors of GJS after controlling for other environmental variables.*

Hypothesis (H_{03.A}) contains nine sub-null hypotheses as follows:

Numbers	Sub-Null Hypotheses
H_{03.A.1}	Sex is not a predictor of GJS after controlling for other personal and environmental variables.
H_{03.A.2}	Nationality is not a predictor of GJS after controlling for other personal and environmental variables.
H_{03.A.3}	Age is not a predictor of GJS after controlling for other personal and environmental variables.
H_{03.A.4}	Marital status is not a predictor of GJS after controlling for other personal and environmental variables.
H_{03.A.5}	Educational level is not a predictor of GJS after controlling for other personal and environmental variables.
H_{03.A.6}	Job level is not a predictor of GJS after controlling for other personal and environmental variables.
H_{03.A.7}	Years of experience is not a predictor of GJS after controlling for other personal and environmental variables.
H_{03.A.8}	Shift work is not a predictor of GJS after controlling for other personal and environmental variables.
H_{03.A.9}	Public contact is not a predictor of GJS after controlling for other personal and environmental variables.

H3.B *Environmental variables are predictors of GJS after controlling for other personal variables.*

Accordingly, the null hypothesis is as follows:

- **H_{03.B}**: *Environmental variables are not predictors of GJS after controlling for other personal variables.*

Hypothesis (H_{03.B}) contains eleven sub-null hypotheses as follows:

Numbers	Sub-Null Hypotheses
H_{03.B.1}	Salary and incentives is not a predictor of GJS after controlling for other personal variables.
H_{03.B.2}	Supervision is not a predictor of GJS after controlling for other personal variables.
H_{03.B.3}	Public perception is not a predictor of GJS after controlling for other personal variables.
H_{03.B.4}	Promotion opportunity is not a predictor of GJS after controlling for other personal variables.
H_{03.B.5}	Organisational policy and strategy is not a predictor of GJS after controlling for other personal variables.
H_{03.B.6}	Relationship with co-workers is not a predictor of GJS after controlling for other personal variables.
H_{03.B.7}	Professional development is not a predictor of GJS after controlling for other personal variables.
H_{03.B.8}	Nature of the work is not a predictor of GJS after controlling for other personal variables.
H_{03.B.9}	Communication is not a predictor of GJS after controlling for other personal variables.
H_{03.B.10}	Job stress is not a predictor of GJS after controlling for other personal variables.
H_{03.B.11}	Performance appraisal is not a predictor of GJS after controlling for other personal variables.

H3.C *Environmental variables are stronger predictors of GJS than are personal variables.*

Accordingly, the null hypothesis is as follows:

- **H_{03.C}**: *Environmental variables are not stronger predictors of GJS than are personal variables.*

(4) Hypothesis H4

Spector, (2008) states that to understand the complete picture of job satisfaction, antecedents and consequences should be investigated. Many behaviours and employee outcomes have been hypothesised as being the result of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The Organisational Commitment (OC) and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) are the consequences of variables of job satisfaction. As discussed at length in Chapter Three, the OC is important to both employees and organisations. Researchers and practitioners are keenly interested in understanding the factors that influence an individual's decision to stay with or leave an organisation. To this effect, previous researchers have found that job satisfaction is a significant predictor of OC. The literature also points out that job satisfaction leads to OCB. That is, when workers are happy with their job, they might be willing to go beyond what is required of them. Moreover, proving the positive relationship between job satisfaction and the OC and OCB enhances the concurrent validity of the developed scale of job satisfaction.

Based on the literature review, hypothesis four is generated as:

(H₄): *There are statistically significant correlations between GJS and OCB and OC.*

Accordingly, the null hypothesis is:

H_{04.0}: *There are no statistically significant correlations between GJS and OCB and OC.*

Based on hypothesis four (H₀₄), two null sub-hypotheses were constructed:

Numbers	Sub-Null Hypotheses
H_{04.1}	There is no statistically significant correlation between GJS and OC.
H_{04.2}	There is no statistically significant correlation between GJS and OCB.

6.6 The Qualitative Phase (Stage One)

In this stage, two qualitative methods of data collection are discussed separately, namely, the in-depth interview and focus group.

6.6.1 In-depth Interview

Although it was possible to use a ready-made job satisfaction questionnaire, it was decided to conduct interviews to gather information that was not available or had not been focused upon in the literature. Moreover, the issue of different cultures and the importance of job satisfaction factors might vary from one to another. Therefore, this study was conducted to understand and identify the comprehensive factors that influence employees in UAE public sector organisations.

The interview is used as a technique for collecting data in which selected participants are asked to answer a number of questions in order to find out how they act, think or feel. Healey and Rawlinson (1993) suggest that whether an interview is more valuable than a questionnaire depends on the degree to which the researcher is clear about what he or she wants to discover and what the possible range of answers might be.

Cohen *et al.* (1994:272) point out the three main purposes of the interview as follows: (1) gathering information, which has a direct bearing on the research objectives, (2) testing hypotheses or suggesting new ones, or as an explanatory device to help identify variables and relationships, and (3) combining with other methods in undertaking research.

Saunders *et al.* (2007) identify three different types of interview and their links to the type of research and research strategy. The use of different types of interview is presented in Table 6.5.

Table 6.5: The use of Different Types of Interview

Types of interview	Exploratory	Descriptive	Explanatory
Structured		√√	√
Semi-structured	√		√√
In-depth	√√		

√√ more frequent √ less frequent

Source: Saunders *et al.* (2007: 314)

The structured interview is defined by Bryman and Bell (2003:574) as “a research interview in which all respondents are asked exactly the same questions in the same

order with aid of a formal interview schedule". This type of interview uses predetermined questions with the same wording and in the same order for all participants as a form of questionnaire (that is, an interviewer-administered questionnaire). This method is referred to as the quantitative research interview.

Semi-structured interviews contain predetermined questions, but the order can be modified based upon the interviewer's perception of what seems most appropriate. The wording of questions can be changed and explanations given; particular questions that seem inappropriate with a particular interviewee can be omitted, or additional ones included.

An unstructured or in-depth interview is an informal discussion that has no strict guidelines, allowing the discussion to be open as there is no predetermined list of questions to work through. It can be completely informal, so this type of interview is sometimes called non-directive (Saunders *et al.*, 2007). Bailey (1994) indicates that the unstructured interview enables probing of the participant's deepest and most subjective feelings. It can also elicit repressed feelings that even the participant does not know he/she has or is not willing to admit even to himself/herself. Both semi-structured interviews and in-depth interviews are often referred to as qualitative research interviews (King, 2004, cited in Saunders *et al.*, 2007).

The in-depth interview technique in this research was used to identify and to explore variables affecting job satisfaction in the UAE public sector. More specifically, therefore, the in-depth interview was used, as it was the most appropriate method to achieve the research aims and objectives. The in-depth interview was considered suitable for this study for the two following reasons:

1. It allowed for rich discussion of the issues of the research interests, thus, shedding additional light on some points that needed further investigation, which could not have been achieved through other methods.

2. It allowed interviewees more freedom in responding to the questions and allowed the researcher to have control over the sequence of the interview, while giving him the opportunity to probe.

The in-depth interview, like any other data collection technique, has disadvantages, which are as follows:

- It is a costly method of data collection especially when participants are widely dispersed geographically, since the process is time-consuming (Patton, 1990).
- Interviewing requires a high level of training and skill. Using less-skilled interviewers increases the possibility of bias. Furthermore, the innate characteristics of the interviewer and differences in interview techniques may affect interviewees' answers (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996). As the author is a police officer in the DPF, his job requires interviewing people whether inside or outside the organisation. The author expanded his knowledge by reading text books on how to conduct interviews.
- The interviewee might feel under observation and be less willing to open up than in the relaxed atmosphere of a group. In addition, the presence of the interviewer may make the interviewee feel threatened or intimidated (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996).
- Analysis and interpretation of such data are highly subjective and, therefore, it is difficult to determine the 'true' interpretation (Zikmund, 2003).

Recognising these disadvantages, this study employed a carefully designed interview and a series of justifiable interview procedures to avoid the potential risks associated with data collection.

6.6.1.1 Interview Procedures

To ensure that issues of validity and bias were dealt with adequately, the interview process was carefully managed following the method proposed by Sarantakos (1998). A face-to-face technique for in-depth interviews was used as a research tool. The researcher used the following procedures in conducting the interviews:

1. Telephone and e-mail arrangements were made with the participants to conduct interviews. The researcher started the interviews by introducing himself as a PhD researcher at the Business School in the University of Glamorgan and describing the purpose of the study. The researcher emphasised to the participants that their responses would be kept confidential and used for the purpose of the research only.
2. The interviews were conducted face-to-face with 40 employees working in different public sector organisations in the UAE. In order to have a wide range of participants across worksites and job levels, participants with different job types and different job levels were chosen for the interviews. The interviewee profile is reported in Table 6.6.

Table 6.6: Interviewee Profile

	No.	%
Sex		
Male	23	57.5%
Female	17	42.5%
Total	40	100%
Job Level		
Supervisory/ Managerial	8	20%
Non Supervisory	32	80%
Public Sector Organisations		
1) Dubai Police	9	22.5%
2) Dubai Customs	8	20%
3) Dubai Electricity and Water Authority (DEWA)	7	17.5%
4) Emirates Post	6	15%
5) Military Forces	3	7.5%
6) Health Ministry	2	5%
7) Abu Dhabi Department of Economy	2	5%
8) Etisalat (Emirates Telecommunications Corporation)	2	5%
9) Abu Dhabi National Oil Company (ADNOC)	1	2.5%
Total	40	100%

3. During all interviews, the researcher made every effort to make interviewees feel at ease by talking informally. This gave the participants the opportunity to talk freely. Each interview lasted approximately 25 minutes, and took place, as arranged, in the participants' offices. It was possible for the researcher to record some of the interviews, although some interviewees were not comfortable with having their interviews recorded, because they did not wish to be quoted. According to various researchers (for example, Djebarni, 1996, and Easterby-Smith *et al.* 2002), tape recording may inhibit some interviewee responses and reduce reliability. Where this was likely to happen, notes were taken during the interviews. This helped the researcher save valuable information from the conversations.
4. Open-ended questions were used to allow the researcher to follow up a response made during the interview with probing questions. Consequently, this helped the researcher to investigate in depth, the response to the question, therefore increasing the richness of the data obtained (Kaufman, 1994). According to Patton (1990), open-ended questions give interviewees flexibility on how to respond without the researcher predetermining their responses.
5. Interviewees were asked three main open questions, as follows:
 - A. 'In your opinion: What factors contribute most to job satisfaction in general?'
 - B. 'In your opinion: What factors contribute most to job dissatisfaction in general?'
 - C. 'What do you consider the most important aspect of your job?'

The purpose of these questions was to allow participants to indicate and discuss the factors that contribute most to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction among employees in public sector organisations in the UAE.

6. Finally, interviewees were thanked for their participation and were promised a copy of the findings, if they so wished, as a way of encouraging them to answer frankly and in full.

6.6.1.2 Interview Data Analysis

The data analysis of the qualitative part of the study was carried out by content analysis through drawing up a list of coded categories and ‘cutting and pasting’ each segment of the transcribed data into one of these categories. This was done manually. The use of qualitative analytical tools such as NVivo could be useful, but the author decided to do the analysis manually for two reasons: (1) the information that was gathered from the in-depth interviews were not many and therefore it was considered that there was no need for sophisticated programmes like NVivo; (2) interviews were carried out in Arabic and NVivo does not function in the Arabic language. According to Berg (2004), content analysis with qualitative data is conducted as a coding process that requires an initial process of open coding followed by the construction of coding frames. This involves breaking down the texts into manageable categories of different levels: word, phrases and sentences.

Then the statements made by all the subjects on particular topics were compared with one another. Some comparisons were also made such as that to determine whether people who made statement A also tended to make statement B (see Appendix D). Findings were subjected to a quality control mechanism, whereby a sample of data was analysed by another PhD researcher and by a focus group (this technique will be discussed in next section) to confirm that there was consistency in the meanings that were being assigned to them.

In Table 6.7, Babbie (2001) sets out the strengths and weaknesses of content analysis. Taking into account these limitations, this study used the focus group technique to justify the interview data analysis.

Table 6.7: Advantages and Disadvantages of Content Analysis

Advantages	Disadvantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Is economic in terms of time and money; ▪ Provides safety on the completeness of the research project; ▪ Permits analysis of long process; ▪ Is an unobtrusive measure of the subject studied. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Is limited to the examination of recorded communications; ▪ Contains risks associated with bias in personal interpretation (human error).

Source: Babbie (2001:323-324)

6.6.2 Focus Group

A focus group is an interview with several people on a specific topic. Powell and Single (1996:499) define a focus group as “*a group of individuals selected and assembled by researchers to discuss and comment on, from personal experience, the topic that is the subject of the research*”. The aim of a focus group is to draw upon participants' attitudes, feelings, beliefs, experiences and reactions in a way that would not be feasible using individual interviews. According to Kitzinger (1994), focus groups access information that other methods cannot access.

The use of a focus group was deemed helpful in obtaining additional information regarding job satisfaction in order to construct a new scale. To this effect, the purpose of using this technique was to generate primarily qualitative data and evaluate the content validity of the items derived from the literature review and the in-depth interviews. Fowler (1995) indicates that a focus group can improve a questionnaire in two ways: (1) since each researcher has a limited understanding of the actual system, the group's opinions clarify several issues, and (2) it helps to predict problems that might occur in the formal investigation.

A focus group method has both advantages and disadvantages, as illustrated in Table 6.8. However, efforts can be made to reduce the disadvantages by ensuring that the researcher is well prepared and trained before conducting a focus group.

Table 6.8: Advantages and Disadvantages of the Focus Group

Advantages	Disadvantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ It is a socially-oriented research method capturing real-life data in a social environment. ▪ It offers flexibility. ▪ It offers high face validity. ▪ It gives speedy results. ▪ It is low in cost. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ It affords the researcher less control than individual interviews. ▪ Data are difficult to analyse. ▪ Moderators (interviewers) require special skills. ▪ Differences between groups can be troublesome. ▪ Groups are difficult to assemble. ▪ The discussion must be conducted in a conducive environment.

Source: Krueger (1988:44-47)

6.6.2.1 Focus Group Procedures

The purpose of convening the group was to use the specific experience or opinions about the topic under investigation possessed by the group members to generate discussion about issues related to job satisfaction, which then helped in the finalisation of the questionnaire in the following ways: (1) by adding additional information related to job satisfaction, (2) by examining the clarity of the questions, (3) by identifying and eliminating overlapping ideas, and (4) by examining the face and content validity of the questions. In order to maximise the effectiveness of the focus group, the researcher followed the steps and advice described by Krueger (1988) and Morgan (1998):

1. Participants were selected according to specific characteristics in common with that related to the topic being discussed. According to Kreuger (1988), focus groups usually seek homogeneity among these participants in terms of occupation, social class, educational level, age, or family experience. The focus group was comprised of five PhD students working in the DPF. Morgan (1998) recommended the use of smaller groups when participants are likely to have a great deal to say on the research topic. To maximise the exploration of different perspectives within a group setting, the researcher's Director of Studies was asked to participate. An important consideration is that participants need to feel comfortable with each other in order to interact efficiently. Participants were given full information about the purpose, place and time of the focus group one week prior to the meeting. The location was convenient and comfortable for all participants and refreshments were available. The researcher invited eight participants; however, three participants apologised for not being able to attend due to work and family circumstances.
2. The researcher prepared the necessary equipment including copies of initial questionnaires, marker pens, blank paper and a cassette recorder. Recording the session has the advantage that the researcher is free to engage with the group. Also, it allows the researcher, when reviewing the tape, to locate comments quickly and write down the exact information. Participants in this group did not object to the idea of the session being recorded. Krueger (1998) recommended

that written notes should be taken even when the researcher was recording the focus group. In this study, the researcher himself was the moderator, but an assistant moderator was also present to take notes. This process helped the moderator to question and interacted with the group easily.

3. The researcher followed the principles set out by Kingry *et al.* (1990) in questioning the participants, starting with a polite introduction, followed by orientating the group and establishing the ground rules for the discussion. These included rules such as no interrupting, only one person speaking at a time, no smoking, respect for others' opinions and so on. During the meeting, open questions were promoted and sometimes the moderator used probing techniques to obtain more details. The researcher also carefully maintained control of his verbal and non-verbal reactions throughout the meeting. Reactions, such as short verbal responses, head nodding, smiling, and eyebrow-raising, were used. The moderator was careful to avoid expressing any personal opinion in order not to influence participants' responses.

4. The researcher started by asking four questions in each dimension of job satisfaction. These questions were specific to the area of study and encouraged participants to reveal data, the importance of which they might not have been aware. For example, the participants were asked about salary in the following questions:
 - 'In your opinion: Does salary contribute to job satisfaction?'
 - 'In your opinion: Do the questions under the salary measure salary?'
 - 'In your opinion: Do you think there are other questions that should be added to the questionnaire? If yes, please specify?'
 - 'In your opinion: Do you think the Arabic version of the salary variable gives the same meaning as the English version?'

5. Participants were asked to select the most effective questions from the two popular scales of OC (Allen and Meyer, 1990) and OCB (Smith *et al.*, 1983), based on their experiences, in order to include them in the final questionnaire.
6. Since the study was about the UAE, the questions in the initial questionnaire were back translated into the Arabic language; therefore, both versions (English and Arabic) were available at the meeting. To ensure the validity of the translation from English into Arabic, it was necessary to ensure the correct interpretation to maintain the questionnaire's validity and not to affect the meaning. Furthermore, the group was asked to indicate how difficult they found this questionnaire on a 1-7 Likert scale. Participants' suggestions and comments on the completeness, linguistic clarity and relevance and on whether the questions were easy to answer were taken into account.
7. At the end of the focus group, the researcher and his assistant gave a summary of what had been discussed at the meeting and asked participants to comment, correct, or make amendments regarding what had been reported. Finally, the researcher expressed appreciation to the participants of their time and effort. Participants' suggestions and comments were considered when the questionnaire was finalised. The focus group lasted two hours and thirty-seven minutes.

6.6.2.2 Focus Group Data Analysis

The researcher decided to use one focus group session. According to Morgan (1998), there is no fixed rule about how many groups are enough for a certain project. This depends on the complexity of the topic and diversity of the people being studied, in addition to the cost in terms of time and resources, the assembly of the focus group and the process of analysing the data.

Once the focus group had been conducted, the data were ready for analysis. Analysing focus group data is similar to analysing any other qualitative self-report data (Britten, 1995). The data analysis process was reported by Krueger (1994:80), as follows:

“The researcher is the detective looking for trends and patterns that occur across the various groups. The analysis process begins with assembling the raw materials and getting an overview or total picture of the entire process. The researcher's role in analysis covers a continuum with assembly of raw data on one extreme and interpretative comments on the other. The analysis process involves consideration of words, tone, context, non-verbal, internal consistency, frequency, extensiveness, intensity, specificity of responses and big ideas. Data reduction strategies are essential in the analysis”.

To this effect, after the completion of the discussion session, the researcher made a comprehensive revision of the discussion by reviewing the notes and listening to the cassette tape several times. This process helped the researcher to identify important findings and quotations from the participants. Both descriptive and interpretive analyses were used to provide in-depth analysis and data reduction. The tape recording was transcribed along with the field notes. This transcript contained comments relating to the topic under investigation and a summary of the suggestions. The transcript was read many times by the researcher to enable him to familiarise himself with the content and to gain an understanding of the themes of responses (that is, the themes that were related to the research goals). A ‘cut and paste’ process was used to put appropriate responses under category headings in accordance with the guidelines by Gordon and Langmaid (1988). To ensure the validity of the analysis procedure, the researcher’s Director of Studies was asked to become involved in this analysis and was present during the focus group.

Any question that was found to be unclear or that targeted the same area directly was reworded or deleted from the questionnaire. According to Krueger (1988), focus groups provide further benefits since they have high face validity; furthermore, they are easily understood since their findings are not presented in complicated statistical tables and the groups themselves are speedy and relatively inexpensive. Therefore, the findings that were achieved in the focus group were highly valuable and facilitated the construction of a new scale believed capable of measuring the level of job satisfaction.

6.7 The Quantitative Phase (Stage Two)

6.7.1 The Questionnaire Scaling: The Development Process of a Job Satisfaction Scale

In this context, the word ‘scale’ refers to a measurement tool developed for measuring a theoretical phenomenon that cannot easily be observed or directly assessed (DeVellis, 2003). The terms ‘scale’ and ‘questionnaire’ are used interchangeably in this thesis.

The scale development process is of critical importance, and appropriate steps must be undertaken in order to construct a valid and reliable measure. The operationalisation of this research identified major variables influencing job satisfaction. Accordingly, various steps were taken to develop a scale measuring these variables (as will be discussed in Chapter Seven).

Although researchers (for example, Churchill, 1979; Spector, 1992; Hinkin, 1995; DeVellis, 2003; Netemeyer *et al.*, 2003) have suggested processes for scale development that reflect a number of component stages, there is inconsistency in the number of stages proposed. According to Hinkin (1995) and DeVellis (2003), there is no specific theory offering guidance to scale developers, other than that they should follow researchers' paradigms and suggestions, which serve as a guide to scale development.

In this research, experts' guidelines were followed to guarantee the validity and reliability of the scale (for example, DeVellis, 2003; Netemeyer *et al.*, 2003). The scale development process involved six stages (see Figure 6.4), further discussion of which appears in Chapter Seven.

Figure 6.4: Scale Development Stages

Stage 1	Constructing a Definition and Content Dimension
Stage 2	Generating An Item Pool
Stage 3	Determining the Format for Measurement
Stage 4	Judging of Dimensions and Items by Experts
Stage 5	Designing a Scale and Pilot Testing
Stage 6	Evaluation and Finalising the Scale

6.7.1.1 Validity and Reliability of the Scale

Assessment of both the validity and reliability of the research data is an important step in any research in order to ensure valid results and conclusions. According to researchers, like Hinkin (1995), Netemeyer *et al.* (2003), and DeVellis (2003), problems with the validity and reliability of measures used on scales have often led to difficulties in interpreting the results of field research. In this research, validity and reliability were the concerns when the scale was being designed.

A. Scale Validity

According to Neuman (2000), measurement validity depicts the ‘truthfulness’ of a research instrument. Babbie (2004:143) defines validity as “*a descriptive term used of a measure that accurately reflects the concept that it is intended to measure*”. Sarantakos (1998) maintains that validity is concerned with the ability to produce findings that are in agreement with theoretical and conceptual values.

It is the researcher’s responsibility to ensure, prior to distributing a questionnaire, that the questions are not ambiguous or likely to cause misunderstanding. In this research, two types of validity were used, namely, face and content validity.

- *Face Validity*

Saunders *et al.* (2007:598) define face validity as “*agreement that a question, scale, or measure appears logically to reflect accurately what it was intended to measure*”. Likewise, Anastasi (1988) indicates that face validity refers to what a test appears superficially to measure, that is, to whether the test looks valid to the examinees who take it. The main problem with face validity is that there are no replicable procedures for evaluating the measuring tool.

In this study, the process of pre-testing and the pilot test supported the face validity of the scale. They both demonstrated that the questions were appropriate for the topic. No one

identified any major items in the questionnaire that were irrelevant to the application integration.

- *Content validity*

Content validity should not be confused with face validity. Babbie (2004:145) defines content validity as “*the degree to which a measure covers the range of meaning included within a concept*”. According to Schwab (2005), a measure is content valid when its items are judged to reflect accurately the domain of the construct as defined conceptually. Content validation ordinarily requires experts in the subject matter of interest to assess content validity (Schwab, 2005). It typically involves an organised review of the survey’s contents to ensure that it includes everything it should and does not include anything it should not.

In order to maximise the validity of this study, the researcher adopted all three procedures endorsed by Bauman (1980), these being to: review the literature, perform a pilot study, and obtain expert assistance.

The content validity of the questions was assured because:

- a) All the questions were relevant to the research topic,
- b) All the questions were designed in a straightforward manner,
- c) All the questions were organised into sections with detailed instructions,
- d) All the questions were developed in view of the findings of the qualitative study,
- e) The questionnaire was sent to academics in the same discipline to assess its face and content validity,
- f) Both versions (English - Arabic) of the questionnaire were checked by experts and members of the focus group (this will be discussed more in Chapter Seven)
- g) The questionnaire was piloted and amended prior to distribution.

B. Scale Reliability

In addition to validity, reliability is considered an important aspect in any research method. According to Hinkin (1995), the evaluation of reliability could be considered

part of the testing stage of the newly-developed measure. Field (2005:743) defines reliability as “*the ability of a measure to produce consistent results when the same entities are measured under the same conditions*”. Sekaran (1992:23) maintains that the reliability of a measure indicates the stability and consistency with which the instrument measures the concept and helps to assess the usefulness of a measure.

There are many ways in which reliability can be ensured, such as the test-retest method and Cronbach’s alpha coefficient. Since it is difficult to arrange for people to be tested on the same question on two occasions to assess reliability, an alternative method is to look at the consistency of a person’s response to an item at the same point in time and the degree of agreement for which the measurement is obtained (DeVaus, 2003). This approach provides a measurement of the overall reliability of the scale. According to Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (1996), the most appropriate statistical figure for interpreting the reliability of a scale is Cronbach’s alpha. Similarly, Churchill (1979:68) and DeVellis (2003) argue that the measure of internal consistency, the Cronbach’s alpha, should be the first measure to be calculated to assess the quality of instruments.

Cronbach’s alpha ranges between zero (0) and one (1); the higher the value, the more reliable the scale. However, researchers argue that there are no hard and fast rules for assessing the magnitude of reliability coefficients. For example, Nannally (1978) and DeVellis (2003) recommend a minimum level of 0.7 as an acceptable standard for demonstrating internal consistency. Although Van de Venn and Ferry (1980) indicate that acceptable values may be as low as 0.4 for broadly-defined constructs, many researchers considered this value as too low. For example, researchers like Flynn *et al.* (1994), and Malhotra and Grover (1998) state that a value of 0.6 is often used as a minimum boundary. Kline (1999) asserts that although the generally accepted value of 0.8 is appropriate for cognitive tests, such as intelligence tests or for ability tests, a cut-off point of 0.7 is more suitable. He goes on to say that, realistically, when dealing with psychological constructs, values below even 0.7 can be expected because of the diversity of the constructs being measured.

In this study, the constructs are generally broad in nature and alpha values above 0.6 will be considered. The coefficient alpha analysis is performed on each subscale and on the entire scale with particular attention being given to 'item-to-total correlations' and 'Cronbach's alpha if item deleted'. If an item or question has an alpha value above the overall values of items in the subscale, removing it will increase the alpha value, but if an item has an alpha value lower than or equal to the overall value, dropping it will not raise the alpha value.

6.7.2 Questionnaires

Questionnaires have been widely used for data collection, especially in social science research (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002). Sekaran (1992:200) defined the questionnaire as a pre-formulated written set of questions designed by the researcher to which participants record their answers, and referred to it as "*an efficient data collection mechanism since the researcher knows exactly what is required and how to measure the variables of interest*". According to Oppenheim (1992), a questionnaire is particularly suited to obtaining information about what a person knows, believes or expects, feels or wants, intends, does or has done in a particular context. Put simply, a questionnaire is a list of closed or/and open-ended questions and is usually administered on paper in a structured or semi-structured format.

Table 6.9: Advantages and Disadvantages of the Questionnaire

Advantages	Disadvantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Cost is low; ▪ Gives quick results; ▪ Can be completed by the respondent at his/her convenience; ▪ Offers greater anonymity; ▪ Reduces bias errors of interviewer ▪ Stable, consistent and uniform measure without variation; ▪ Provides wider coverage since the researcher can approach respondents more easily than when using other methods. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Does not allow probing and clarification of questions; ▪ There is no opportunity to motivate the respondent to answer the questions; ▪ The researcher cannot be sure that the right person has answered the questionnaire; ▪ There is no way of knowing whether the respondent has followed the questions' order; ▪ Lack of supervision may result in the possibility of partial response.

Source: Sarantakos (1988)

A questionnaire can be administered in many different ways: face-to-face interview, telephone, mail, and more recently, via the internet (e-mail surveys). Like other methods of data collection, a questionnaire has advantages and disadvantages. The key strengths and weaknesses of questionnaires are summarised by Sarantakos (1988) in Table 6.9.

In this study, there were several reasons for using a questionnaire, as follows:

- 1) It was useful to collect general background details of all participants who were DPF employees, although the acquisition of such detail was not one of the aims of the research.
- 2) It was important to verify and extend the findings of the interview and the focus group to a wider population.
- 3) It seemed to be appropriate once the hypotheses and their corresponding variables had been developed.
- 4) Since the study was being conducted among DPF employees, the use of a questionnaire offered anonymity (Sarantakos, 1998), which is perceived as highly important when questioning in sensitive fields like police work (Robson, 2002). It is usually argued that anonymity increases the rate of response. According to Heneman (1974), the subjects are more likely to give unbiased responses when their anonymity is assured. Thus, questionnaires can be distributed and returned in ways such that respondents can feel confident that their identities are secure.

6.7.2.1 Parts of the Questionnaire

The following characteristics were taken into consideration when designing the questionnaire: (a) specificity, (b) correct length and attractive layout, (c) the type of questions (open/closed ended questions or both), and (d) including a covering letter and instructions (Sarantakos, 1988).

Sarantakos (1988) argues that every questionnaire should include three main elements: a cover letter, instructions and the main body. In this study, the questionnaire started with a cover letter including information about the researcher, the purpose of the research, anonymity, the confidentiality of information provided by participants, and the estimated time needed to fill out the questionnaire.

The questionnaire was divided into four parts: (1) personal information, (2) job satisfaction scale, (3) general job satisfaction, and (4) consequences of job satisfaction. The questionnaire was five pages long including the covering letter. At the end of the questionnaire, space was provided for respondents to make comments. Samples of each of the Arabic and English versions of the questionnaire are provided in Appendix B (B1 and B2).

- *Part (1) Personal Information*

Previous job satisfaction research suggests that there are certain data that researchers should take into account that relate to personal characteristics, such as sex, age and educational level. The aim of the first part of the questionnaire was to obtain a picture of the background of the DPF respondents in order to find out whether there is any degree of association between these backgrounds and job satisfaction. Ten variables (questions) were included to achieve this objective: sex, nationality, age, marital status, educational level, job level, place of work, years of experience, shift work, and public contact. Respondents were asked to tick boxes or to fill in the spaces provided for the answers.

- *Part (2) Job Satisfaction Scale*

This part is considered the critical part of the questionnaire, upon which the scale construction is based (For more details, see Chapter Seven). In this study, it was intended to measure independent factors associated with job satisfaction. It consisted of 68 items that were intended to measure job satisfaction among the DPF employees. The purpose of each item was to indicate employees' degree of agreement with each of the statements by asking them to circle the number that best represented their opinion.

- *Part (3) General Job Satisfaction*

The global satisfaction (general job satisfaction) was measured by taking respondents' views on three items: (1) I like my job, (2) My job fulfils my necessary needs, and (3) Overall, I am satisfied with my job. A total score of the General Job Satisfaction (GJS) variable was derived by summing the points for each of the three items. The GJS variable was used to identify rates of job satisfaction among the DPF employees. It also served as a dependent variable in further analysis conducted to identify determinants (predictors) of job satisfaction.

- *Part (4) Consequences of Job Satisfaction*

As discussed in Chapter Three, two consequences of job satisfaction, namely, organisational commitment (OC) and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), are used in this research. The aim of this part was to highlight some of the outcomes of job satisfaction that have attracted many researchers (see Chapter Three). Research found in the literature review supports the notion that job satisfaction is accompanied by favourable consequences. This part consisted of six items. As agreed in the focus group, the three OC questions were adopted from Allen and Meyer (1990), and the three OCB questions were adopted from Smith *et al.* (1983).

6.7.2.2 Population and Sampling

The population and sampling procedure are among the most important issues facing researchers when conducting a study. Sampling is the use of a sub-set of the population to represent the whole population (Saunders *et al.*, 2007). As mentioned in Chapter Two, the DPF is considered to be one of the most successful police sectors in the Middle East. Because of this, the population of interest in this investigation was DPF employees

There are many sampling techniques available; the choice of a particular technique is determined by the purpose, design and time of the study and by the resources available. There are two broad types of sampling: probability and non-probability (Saunders *et al.*, 2007). In probability or random sampling, each person in the population is chosen at

random and has an equal, or at least known, chance of being selected. There are four basic types of random sampling: (1) simple random sampling, (2) systematic sampling, (3) stratified sampling, and (4) cluster or multi-stage sampling. Non-probability sampling, on the other hand, means that some people have a greater chance of being selected than have others. It is used when a random sample would not be representative or would be impractical. Each technique has its advantages and disadvantages in different situations and needs to be applied with strict adherence to sound principles of sampling to ensure acceptable quality.

This research adopted simple random sampling such that each unit would have an equal probability of inclusion and thus provides more representative sampling than non-probability sampling.

A representative or good sample is one in which the results obtained for the sample can be taken to be true for the whole population. In other words, generalisation is possible from the results. According to Collis and Hussey (2003:155) a good sample should be:

- Chosen at random (every number of the population must have the chance of being chosen).

- Large enough to satisfy the needs of the investigation being undertaken. Usually the larger the sample size, the better, although there is no consensus in the literature on how large a sample size is needed (DeVellis, 2003). A large sample size, however, is not sufficient to guarantee the accuracy of the result. It is true that in some designs, an increase in sample size will increase the precision of the result, but it will not reduce any bias caused by an inaccurate sampling frame. Thus, the size of the sample is not in itself enough to guarantee accuracy (Moser and Kalton, 1971). In this study, several statistical tests were used, such as factor analysis and regression analysis, and several researchers suggest different sample size requirements for performing certain tests. For example, researchers such as Field (2005) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggest that at least 300 samples are needed if factor analysis is to be performed.

6.7.2.3 Administrating the Questionnaire

In this research, a questionnaire survey was distributed in mid-July 2007 among all DPF employees through an internal Web system called the 'Intranet'. This links the departments throughout the DPF. However, the DPF employees who were under military recruitment were excluded. To increase the response rate, hard copies were also given to those respondents who did not have access to the Intranet. Furthermore, text messages (SMS) were sent to a number of DPF employees to remind them to complete the questionnaire online.

Considering the fairly sensitive nature of the research and the need for the employees to be able to reflect upon the questions, respondents were given enough time to go through the questions to answer as honestly as they possibly could. In addition, the researcher's contact details (telephone and email) were provided in the covering letter of the questionnaire so that respondents could seek clarification of any ambiguous points that might arise.

6.7.2.4 Response Rate

The relatively good response rate may have been the result of the strategy used in distributing the questionnaire. Babbie (2004:261) defines the response rate (also called completion rate or return rate) as "*the number of people participating in a survey divided by the number selected in the sample, in the form of a percentage*".

Various techniques were used to minimise the bias and increase the response rate, as follows:

- Items or questions were arranged logically by topic.

- A pilot test was conducted to ensure the questionnaire was error-free and easy to complete.

- A neat questionnaire with appropriate introduction, instructions and a well arrayed set of questions and response alternatives made it easier for the respondents to answer the items in the questionnaire. According to Babbie (2004), designing an attractive questionnaire and wording questions properly help to assure a good response rate.
- A follow-up procedure was undertaken and the researcher's personal contacts were used.

The methods of distribution and collection of the questionnaire were diversified. Two methods were used in this respect, one being via hard copy, and the other via email.

- Completed questionnaires were collected at different times. A total of 1,027 employees in 18 departments in the DPF participated in the study and filled in the questionnaires. However, incomplete responses were discarded. The questionnaires were returned, generating 1,017 usable responses. Table 6.10 represents the two techniques used to distribute the questionnaires.

Table 6.10: Questionnaires Response Rate

No.	Technique	Q. Distributed	Q Returned	Response Rate %
1	E-mail Survey	Not available	701	Not available
2	Hard Copy Survey	400	326	81.5%
Total		400	1027	81.5%

6.8 Access to the DPF

Access is a critical aspect for carrying out research. Obtaining primary data depends on gaining access to an appropriate source (for example, a company), which depends on the research question, the study objectives and the research design. Steps were followed to obtain permission to conduct the study in the DPF.

- Initially, the researcher verbally requested permission from the DPF to carry out the study with all DPF employees. Then, formal permission from the DPF was obtained, which allowed the researcher to conduct the research among DPF employees (see Appendices A1 and A2).

- The researcher requested permission from his supervisor to allow him to return to the UAE to undertake the fieldwork.
- Since the researcher is a DPF officer, his position and presence facilitated access to the organisation and contact with employees. The establishment of a personal relationship of trust between the researcher and the participants was believed to overcome some of the problems encountered in fieldwork.

6.9 Ethical Considerations

Research should be carried out systematically, sceptically and ethically. In order to ensure a study is conducted ethically, it is necessary to following a code of conduct for the research, which ensures that the interests and concerns of those taking part in, or who might possibly be affected by, the research are safeguarded (Robson, 2002).

'Informed consent' to participate and 'employee confidentiality' were the two main ethical considerations of this study (Saunders *et al.*, 2003). They were addressed in the following ways:

- 1) All participants in the study were assured that their participation was purely voluntary. The information in the cover letter with the questionnaire made it clear to the respondents that they did not have to participate if they did not wish to do so.
- 2) The data obtained through the qualitative and quantitative methods undertaken in this research were held confidentially. No data were directly attributable to the persons interviewed either in the project report or in any correspondence or face-to-face contact between the researcher and the organisation that employed the interviewees.

Ethical approval and management permissions for the study were sought from the Dubai Police Head Quarters and granted prior to commencement of the study. Application for ethical approval specified the procedures for interviewing the participant employees from

the DPF. While such participating employees might be vulnerable participants in this study, the researcher followed special instructions before and through each interview. The researcher gave each participant before each interview enough and clear information on the essential elements and aims of the study. The possibility of emotional reaction following an interview arises when participants misunderstand the role and responsibilities of the researchers. These emotional reactions and expectations were avoided (or at least reduced) by ensuring that the research participants were given enough information in a sufficiently clear manner, at the time of giving consent so that there were no grounds for them to form misconceptions about the researcher's roles and responsibilities. In addition, the present author is a police officer and working in the General Department of Human Resources in the DPF, so he has good experience in interviewing and listening to people including those who might be vulnerable.

Moreover, the researcher made it clear to each participant that he/she does not have to participate if he or she did not wish to do so without giving a reason. It was made clear that a decision not to take part would not affect the nature or standard of treatment the employee receives. In addition, it was made clear that any information given by the participant will be treated as strictly confidential and that the participant's identity will not be used and no records identifying him/her individually will be available to any person. All questionnaires and computerized data were number coded and rendered anonymous.

6.10 Data Analysis

Preparation for data analysis represents a major part of any research project and is considered highly dependent upon whether the data collected are of a quantitative or qualitative nature (Collins and Hussey, 2003). For the present study, the quantitative data analysis was performed based on the data collected from the questionnaires.

When the participants' responses had been collected, the next step was to code them. After the completion of coding, data were entered into the computer using the Statistical

Package for Social Sciences (SPSS-15) for statistical analysis. The researcher carried out the data (hard copies) entry himself and the process was completed within one month.

Borg and Gall (1989) clarify the need for the researcher to be aware of four vital steps in order to analyse the results of the research successfully. These steps are (1) available statistical tools, (2) conditions of each tool used, (3) the meaning of statistical results, and (4) how the statistical calculations are made. Two types of statistical tests were considered: parametric tests and non-parametric tests. Some conditions stated by Field (2005) for using parametric tests are:

- The data are from one or more normally distributed populations.
- The variance should be the same throughout the data. This means that the variance of one variable should be stable at all levels of the other variables.
- Data should be measured at least at interval level. Interval level means that the distance between the points of the attitude scale should be equal.
- Data from different participants are independent of each other. This means that the response of one respondent should not be influenced by that of another respondent.

Although the parametric statistical tests require the data to be normally distributed, the central limit theorem suggests that, with large samples, sampling distributions are normal even if raw scores are not (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Therefore, in this study, parametric tests were used. Consequently, descriptive and analytical statistical methods were applied with priority being given to analysis, as follows.

6.10.1 Descriptive Statistical Method

The descriptive statistical technique is used to describe data collected from different sources relevant to the research sample and is mainly concerned with research during fieldwork (Hakim, 1982).

Descriptive techniques are mainly based on the calculation of the mean, median, mode frequency distribution, percentage distribution and standard deviation. In this study, the descriptive method was used to describe the characteristics of the study sample, such as sex, age and educational level.

6.10.2 Analytical Statistical Method

The analytical statistical technique is used to make inferences from the sample statistics to the population parameters (Hakim, 1982).

a) Level of Significance

The statistical level of significance is accepted when the p value is less than 5% (0.05). The lower the significance level, the more the data must diverge from the null hypothesis to be significant. Therefore, the 0.01 level is more conservative than the 0.05 level. This significance level means the probability that this result could have been produced by chance is less than 5%, and the smaller the p value, the greater the likelihood that the result expressed is not merely due to chance. The choice of a 0.05 significant level, which was suggested by Ronald Fisher (1925, cited in Field, 2005:25), means that if there is only a 5% probability of something occurring by chance, then the finding can be accepted as true or statistically significant. The 0.05 level of significance is typical for business research (Bryman and Cramer, 1997).

b) Independent t-test

The independent *t*-test is used to establish whether two means collected from independent samples differ significantly (Field, 2005:734). It is an inferential test designed to help researchers decide whether they should accept or reject their null hypothesis. In this study, the *t*-test was utilised to test some personal variables, such as sex, nationality and job level.

c) Analysis of Variance

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) is a similar notion to that of the independent *t*-test, but it is used to compare more than two groups. It is selected when there is a need to compare two or more means to see if there are any statistically significant differences among them (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). ANOVA uses the *F*-ratio to test the overall fit of a linear model. It is an inferential test designed to assist researchers in deciding whether they should accept or reject their null hypothesis. In this study, ANOVA was utilised to test educational level.

d) Pearson's Correlation Coefficient

Correlation is the extent to which two variables are related to each other (Saunders *et al.*, 2007); that is, a correlation test discovers the direction of association (positive, negative or non-existent). According to Field (2005:741), Pearson's correlation coefficient can take any value from -1 (as one variable changes, the other changes in the opposite direction by the same amount), through 0 (as one variable changes, the other remains the same), to +1 (as one variable changes, the other changes in the same direction by the same amount). In this research, to evaluate the questions, the Pearson correlation was utilised to examine bivariate analyses of some personal variables, such as age and years of experience, and environmental factors, such as salary, supervision and promotion opportunity.

e) Factor Analysis

Factor analysis was performed in this study to reduce the attribute space from a larger to a smaller number of variables. This is considered useful in developing a scale. Factor analysis has three objectives: (1) to understand the structure of a set of variables (that is, to understand the structure of the latent variable 'job satisfaction'), (2) to construct a questionnaire to measure underlying variables, and (3) to reduce the number of items in a scale (Field, 2005).

Since the aim of the research was the development of a scale, which in turn, involved a large number of variables, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was appropriate for data analysis. As Bryman and Cramer (1997) suggest, EFA is used to determine the number of variables and to make sense of the complexity of social behaviour. In this study, principal component analysis (PCA) was conducted among environmental variables that affect job satisfaction. Therefore, the outcomes of factor analysis were used in a multiple regression analysis to identify the predictors of job satisfaction for DPF employees.

f) Multiple Regression

Multiple regression analysis is defined by Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (1996:445) as “a method used when there are several independent variables, each of which may contribute to our ability to predict the dependent variable”. The objective of multiple regression analysis is to summarise data as well as to quantify relationships among variables, expressed via an equation for predicting typical values of one variable given the value of other variables.

Multiple regression analysis involves finding the best straight-line relationship to explain how the variation in dependent variable (Y), depends on the variation in independent variables, (that is, X₁, X₂, X₃). Each predictor has a regression coefficient b_i associated with it, and b₀ is the value of the outcome when all predictors are zero (see Field, 2005: 738). Once the relationship has been estimated, the equation will be calculated as:

$$Y = (b_0 + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + \dots + b_nX_n) + \epsilon_i$$

Therefore, each independent variable is weighted by the regression analysis procedure to ensure maximum prediction from the set of independent variables (Hair *et al.*, 1998). In this study, multiple linear regression was employed to reveal the predictors of general job satisfaction. According to Pedhazur (1997), it is important to show the regression assumptions to ensure the validity of the results. Thus, regression assumptions are presented below.

- *Assessing Regression Validity*

The findings of multiple regression analysis are often assessed to ensure the validity. Researchers such as Field (2005), Hair *et al.* (1998), and Pallant (2005) give guidelines to diagnose the validity of multiple regression analysis. There are two major issues to be taken into account when assessing the validity of regression analysis assumptions, namely, multicollinearity and normality.

1. Multicollinearity

Field (2005) stated that multicollinearity refers to which two or more independent variables are very closely correlated. The presence of multicollinearity would not contribute to a good regression analysis. However, in most research, multicollinearity is present to some degree, but as long as the correlation coefficient between any two variables is not too large, the assumption of multicollinearity can then be ignored (Pedhazur 1997).

The following assessments can be carried out to diagnose the multicollinearity:

- If the correlation coefficient is greater than 0.9 between independent variables then there is cause for concern (Field, 2005). If the largest Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) value is greater than 10, then there is cause for concern (Field, 2005). VIF was used in this study as the cut-off threshold for high multicollinearity.
- Another way of assessing multicollinearity is to measure the tolerance values. If the tolerance value is less than 0.1, there is almost certainly a serious collinearity problem (Hair *et al.*, 1998; Field, 2005). In other words, very small tolerance values denote high collinearity.

2. Normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, independence of residuals

These are all related to the distribution of scores and the nature of the underlying relationship between the variables. These assumptions can be checked from the

scatterplots of the residuals, which are generated as part of the multiple regression procedure. Residuals are the differences between the obtained and the predicted dependent variable scores (Pallant, 2005). The residuals should be checked for the following:

- Normality: the residuals should be normally distributed about the predicted dependent variable scores. This can be checked also by looking at the histogram, which should show a bell-shaped curve (see Field, 2005:204).
- Linearity: the residuals should have a straight-line relationship with predicted dependent variable scores. This can also be tested through a normal probability plot. A point line should lie in a reasonably straight diagonal line.
- Homoscedasticity: the variance of the residuals about predicted dependent variable scores should be the same for all predicted scores (Pallant, 2005).
- Independence of errors: this can be checked by the Durbin-Watson statistic, which provides information about whether the assumption of independent (or uncorrelated) errors is tenable. As Field (2005) suggests that a value of less than 1 or greater than 3 is cause for concern, so this assumption is likely to be met if the Durbin-Watson statistic is close to 2 (and between 1 and 3) (see Field, 2005:190).

6.11 Difficulties and Obstacles to the Research

No research can be carried out without encountering some difficulties and obstacles. However, the researcher made all the necessary arrangements to eliminate or at least to reduce the possible obstacles that were encountered in the study. In fact, several problems emerged in this study, as follows:

- There is a lack of academic work on job satisfaction in the UAE. Additionally, there is not much research on job satisfaction in the police sector on a world-wide basis in general and in the Middle East in particular.

- Although the DPF gave approval to the researcher for him to conduct the research, access to the DPF employees was somewhat difficult. For instance, employees could not co-operate and participate without formal permission from their departments or supervisors. Also, the numbers of employees in each general department of the DPF were not given, despite much deliberation, and guaranteeing the confidentiality of the information.
- The response rate of employees was initially low, when questionnaires were sent via email. This was due to the limitation of employees having internet access. In addition, the time set aside for the fieldwork unfortunately coincided with summer time, which meant that several employees were on holiday. Therefore, the researcher distributed hard copies around the organisational departments to increase the response rate. This led to the researcher having to spend more time entering the data manually into the SPSS software.
- The attitude of some employees towards self-rated questionnaires presented obvious problems. Although assured of the confidentiality of the obtained information, many employees hesitated in filling out the questionnaire. It is believed that this was mainly because of the fear that they could be identified.
- Some DPF employees were not as familiar with research as in other societies and some of them did not realise the objectives of research and its impact upon their lives. The researcher, therefore, had to convince them and explain to them the need to participate, and this created additional pressure on him.

6.12 Summary

An essential ingredient of this chapter has been the researcher's demonstration of the range of methods used in achieving the goal of the study. In this chapter, the research philosophies were reviewed and it was described how the realism school was embraced for the study.

The research strategies adopted in this study can be characterised as a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods. The adoption of mixed methods followed a sequential procedure in which the qualitative study was conducted first to explore the research issue and to provide in-depth evidence for the research objectives (stage one). The results from the qualitative study were used to develop a scale. The quantitative study was carried out to explore the determinants of job satisfaction among DPF employees (stage two). Three techniques, namely, in-depth interviews, focus group and questionnaire, were used throughout the research to analyse both qualitative and quantitative data.

A conceptual model of the research was constructed. The proposed model postulated that there are two determinants of job satisfaction, namely, environmental and personal factors. The model also proposed two outcomes of job satisfaction, namely, OC and OCB. Based on the proposed model, four main hypotheses were formulated.

The study adopted simple random sampling to increase the response rate. A total of 1,017 employees in 18 general departments in the DPF participated in the research and completed the questionnaires. The issues of access to the DPF and ethical approval were addressed. This chapter also focused on the statistical methods and tests employed in this study. At the end of the chapter, some of the difficulties and obstacles that were faced by the researcher were highlighted.

The description of the methodology and research method adopted in this research provides a basis for the need to construct and develop a scale in order to fulfil the research goal.

CHAPTER SEVEN: SCALE DEVELOPMENT

7.1 Introduction

One of the objectives of this study is to construct a scale of job satisfaction that is congruent with the culture in one of the largest public sector organisations in the UAE, namely the DPF. According to the literature, the scale development process comprises six stages as follows: (1) constructing a definition and content dimension, (2) generating an item pool, (3) determining the format for measurement, (4) judging of items by experts, (5) designing a scale and pilot testing, (6) evaluating and finalising the scale (see Figure 7.1).

Figure 7.1: Guidelines in Scale Development

	State of Scale Development	Source of Data	Provides Evidence for
Stage 1	Constructing a Definition and Content Dimension	Literature Review	Understanding the concept of Job satisfaction
Stage 2	Generating An Item Pool	Literature Review, In-depth Interviews (N= 40) and Focus Group (N= 6)	Face validity and Content Validity
Stage 3	Determining the Format for Measurement	Literature Review, In-depth Interviews (N= 40) and Focus Group (N= 6)	Reliability
Stage 4	Judging of Dimensions and Items by Experts	Experts Judges (N= 3)	Face validity and content validity
Stage 5	Designing a Scale and Pilot Testing	Pilot Study (N= 9)	Face validity and content validity
Stage 6	Evaluating and Finalising the Scale	Survey-DPF (N= 1,017)	Dimensionality (factor analysis) and Reliability (Cronbach Alpha)

7.2 Stage One: Constructing a Definition and Content Dimension

The first step is to define clearly the construct which the researcher aims to measure. Thinking precisely about the content of a scale requires focusing on the construct being measured (DeVellis, 2003). This stage, which involves the delimitations of the scale's dimensions and facets, is considered the most difficult step in the scaling process (Netemeyer *et al.*, 2003). Although several researchers, such as DeVellis (2003) and Netemeyer *et al.* (2003) emphasise the inclusion of this stage in the scale construction process, other researchers ignore it because they believe it is implicit in an earlier stage (i.e. literature review) of the study process.

In this research, it is important to understand first the concept of job satisfaction, that is, the definitions, theories, and factors affecting job satisfaction, which could be helpful in constructing and establishing the content dimension. Job satisfaction is considered as a multi-dimensional construct, that is, it is measured by multiple facets, such as salary, supervision and promotion. According to Netemeyer *et al.* (2003), given that a construct's content dimension can be categorised as uni-dimensional or multi-dimensional, its empirical structure should reflect its hypothesised dimensionality. A detailed discussion of the concept of job satisfaction was provided in Chapters Three and Four.

7.3 Stage Two: Generating an Item Pool

Once the concept of job satisfaction has been clearly defined, the second stage is to generate an item pool. According to Hinkin (1995), item generation is considered the core of the scale development process. The objective of this stage is to determine a large pool of items that were candidates for eventual inclusion in the scale. DeVellis (2003) states that the content of each item in the scale should primarily reflect the construct of interest (that is, job satisfaction); otherwise, the scale will not accurately capture the essence of the construct.

Researchers like Hinkin (1995), DeVellis (2003), and Netemeyer *et al.* (2003) report a number of issues of good practice in the selection of items, as follows: (a) using short sentences, and simple language that is easily understood and correctly interpreted by the respondents, (b) avoiding negatively worded items, or using them only with considerable caution because negatively worded items either do not exhibit as high a degree of reliability as positive worded items do or can be confusing to respondents, (c) using a large number of items, as the use of more items will constitute a more reliable test than will the use of fewer items. According to DeVellis (2003:66), if the item pool is exceptionally large, the researcher can eliminate some items based on a priori criteria, such as lack of clarity, questionable relevance, or undesirable similarity to other items. However, while there are no rules for the number of items in an initial item pool, if too few items are used, then the validity of the measure might be at risk (Nunnally, 1978). Nonetheless, a scale that has many items can lead to fatigue and response pattern bias (Anastasi, 1988). Carmines and Zeller (1979) maintain that many items demand more time in both the development and administration of a scale. However, the items of the pool should be selected so as to sample all possible contents.

Two basic approaches, namely, deductive and inductive approaches, could be used to identify and generate a wide variety of items of job satisfaction. The deductive approach is used through a review of the relevant literature, whereas an inductive approach is used when there is a lack of available theory, so the researcher asks respondents to describe attitudes and feelings (Hinkin, 1995). The deductive and inductive approaches generate items that may then be subjected to a sorting process. This process serves as a pre-test, permitting the deletion of items that are deemed to be conceptually inconsistent (Hinkin, 1995:970). However, whether inductively or deductively derived, there should be strong and rational links established between items and the theoretical dimension (Hinkin, 1995).

As job satisfaction has been researched extensively, the deductive approach was selected. A comprehensive review of the literature in respect of job satisfaction was carried out in

order to reveal all possible dimensions and items. So, eventually a list of factors/dimensions and items was built to cover nearly all aspects of job satisfaction.

The use of the deductive approach was enhanced by the use of the inductive approach. As this research was carried out in a non-Western society, the author used the inductive approach by conducting in-depth interviews and focus groups. Both techniques assisted in achieving the following goals: (a) adding dimensions and items, (b) checking the clarity of the dimensions and items, (c) investigating the clarity of the dimensions' and items' directions, (d) deleting repeated dimensions and items, and (e) receiving other suggestions. In-depth interviews generated some new dimensions and items, which have not been frequently indicated in previous studies or in the literature in general. Examples of these are public perception on service quality and performance appraisal dimensions and some other items. Other important dimensions that have been frequently reported by previous investigators, such as salary and promotion dimensions, were also reported as important factors influencing job satisfaction by most of the interviewees in the current study.

After the initial item pool was generated using the deductive and inductive approaches, the items were selected, modified, and added according to the goal of the study. To this effect, the deductive and inductive approaches were combined to generate a first draft of the scale. Figure 7.2 shows the numbers of dimensions and items which have been used over the scale development process.

Figure 7.2: Dimensions and Items in the Scale Development Process

Sources	No. of Added Dimensions	No. of Added Items	No. of Deleted Items
Literature Review	25	78	-
In-depth Interviews	-	36	-
Focus Group	-	15	51
Expert Panel	-	6	15
Pilot Testing	-	2	3
Factor Analysis	11	-	3
The Final Scale	11	65	

7.4 Stage Three: Determining the Format for Measurement

Although many formats for questions exist (for example, Thurstone, Likert and Guttman), during the generation of items, developers of a scale should keep in mind the need to determine a format for measurement (DeVellis, 2003).

Rating questions most frequently use a Likert scale. According to Sarantakos (1988:89), a “*Likert scale is very popular among social scientists, is relatively easy to construct and is believed to more reliable than a Thurstone scale*”. A Likert scale comprises a set of response categories constructed around a range of agreement/disagreement levels and participants tick the appropriate level on the Likert scale usually on a 4, 5, 6, or 7-point rating. Hinkin (1995) maintains that the importance of scaling of items is to achieve sufficient variance or variability among respondents for subsequent statistical analysis. However, the use of a single unified style as much as possible throughout the scale is recommended, since any scale using different styles of rating might create confusion for the respondents and, in turn, lead to contradictory findings.

In this study, a 7-point Likert scale was used to measure the degree of job satisfaction with a specific statement. The scale ranged from 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree. It was assumed that the higher the number selected, the greater the level of job satisfaction. A 7-point Likert scale was used to for several reasons:

- (a) It is simple to administer, it measures a response on an agreed numerical code and is, by its nature, quantifiable;
- (b) Expanding the rating question gives respondents more choices to indicate their opinion;
- (c) The outcomes of the pilot test suggested that the respondents in the UAE would prefer a 7-point Likert scale.

However, there were some observations regarding the 7-point numerical rating scale in the pilot test. Most respondents in the pilot study were confused about the two categories

for (1) indicating complete disagreement and (7) indicating complete agreement, after answering several questions. Therefore, it was considered necessary in the final questionnaire to add the ‘anchor point’ above each box to facilitate the understanding of each question, as shown below:

Items	The Degree of Measurement						
My work varies and is not routine	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7.5 Stage Four: Judging of Dimensions and Items by Experts

This stage seeks people who are knowledgeable in the content area to review the initial scale. The use of an expert to review dimensions and items intended for use in the scale is recommended by several researchers, such as Churchill (1979), DeVellis (2003) and Netemeyer *et al.* (2003).

To ensure the face and content validity, three faculty members from the Business School in the University of Glamorgan were asked to review the initial scale. Two of them were originally from Arab and Muslim countries.

The judges were asked to assess each item in the scale by rating each of the items as ‘not at all representative’, ‘somewhat representative’, or ‘clearly representative’ of the definition provided. The review, in addition, included checking the clarity of the dimensions and items, the ranking scale for the questions, and the overall layout of the scale. The scale construct was modified and 15 items, which were judged as ‘not at all representative’ or ‘somewhat representative’, by at least two judges, were deleted. The remaining 68 items which were considered to have sufficient face and content validity were ready for further investigation (see Figure 7.2).

7.6 Stage Five: Designing a Scale and Pilot Testing

Once a potential set of dimensions and items have been identified, the next stage is to design a scale that will obtain valid responses to the questions posed. Indeed, a well-

designed scale is clearly essential in any effective data-collection process. However, scale design is very much an art and it is easy to fall into the trap of constructing a badly-designed scale. Three important aspects are discussed in this section: (1) designing the scale, (2) translating the questionnaire, and (3) pilot testing.

7.6.1 Designing the Scale

The purpose of the design exercise is to develop a scale that is effectively fit and that addresses the research objectives.

In order to achieve this aim, the researcher carefully followed the three principles of Dillman (1978:123-125) in sequencing the order of the items of the scale; these principles increase the respondents' motivation for, and confidence in, completing the scale:

- a. Order questions in descending order of importance and usefulness. Participants in the focus group and pilot testing agreed upon the order of questions.
- b. Group the questions that are similar in content together, and within areas, by type of question. This issue was taken into consideration when constructing the scale. For example, questions related to salary, fringe benefits, recognition and rewards, were grouped under one subject entitled salary and incentives.
- c. Take advantage of the cognitive ties that respondents are likely to make among the groups of questions in deciding the order of the questions involved.

7.6.2 Translation of the Questionnaire

Since the study was about the UAE, the researcher had to translate the questionnaire from English into Arabic, which is the main language in the UAE. It was essential that the questions in the two versions (English and Arabic) had the same meaning. To ensure the validity of the translation from English into Arabic, it was necessary to take steps to guarantee a correct interpretation to maintain the questionnaire's validity and not to affect

the meaning. According to Iyenger (1993:174), validity requires that questions in one language be translated into another language in such a way as to retain their meaning.

In this research, the original questionnaire was translated into Arabic by the researcher himself and two other PhD students, who were fluent in both languages. Then, both versions were double-checked by an Arabic-speaking lecturer at the University of Glamorgan and by five Arabic PhD students in a focus group meeting in order to obtain the most precise translation.

7.6.3 Pilot Testing

According to Saunders *et al.* (2007), all parts of a questionnaire should be pilot tested before data collection takes place to assess the validity and likely reliability of the questions. A pilot test is defined as:

“a small-scale study to test a questionnaire or interview checklist or observation schedule, to minimise the likelihood of respondents having problems in answering the questions and of data recording problems as well as to allow some assessment of questions’ validity and the reliability of the data that will be collected” (Saunders *et al.*, 2007:606).

Dillman (1978) suggests that a scale should be pre-tested by three different groups: colleagues, potential users of the data, and potential respondents. To this effect, the scale was pre-tested by three groups, namely, academics, research students and DPF employees, and was sent to ten people. The aims of the test were to check (a) the clarity of the cover letter, (b) the content of questions, (c) the scale instructions, (d) understanding of the scale employed, and (e) the time taken to complete the scale. Respondents who were fluent in both languages were given both versions (English and Arabic) of the questionnaires. In the time period of two weeks, nine questionnaires were returned, giving a response rate of 90%.

Overall, the respondents agreed that the questionnaire successfully met the data collection objectives. The feedback of the respondents regarding the scale was useful in revising the questions. Some changes were made after the pilot study in order to avoid confusion, aid

questionnaire understanding, and ensure that respondents answered the questionnaire spontaneously.

7.6.3.1 Feedback from the Pilot Testing

Although most of the respondents agreed upon the clarity of the questionnaire in general, comments on the following issues were received and these required consideration:

1. Two repeated questions were deleted.
2. Three new questions were produced.
3. Two questions showed a slight variation between both versions (English and Arabic). Thus, questions were re-worded in such a way that respondents found them easy to understand.
4. Some words needed to be clearly defined in order to be understood by respondents (for example, job rotation and career path). Thus, full definitions were given.
5. The scale rating direction starting from a high rating to a low rating was not found easy to use by respondents; thus, it was decided to change the direction of rating from low to high. There were also some observations regarding the 7-point numerical rating scale in the pilot test. Therefore, it was considered necessary in the final questionnaire to add the 'anchor point' above each box to facilitate the understanding of each question.
6. Some of the reviewers commented about the length of the questionnaire.
7. Reviewers suggested placing the logos for the DPF and Glamorgan University in the questionnaire in order for it to be considered more formal.

7.7 Stage Six: Evaluating and Finalising the Scale

In the previous stages, the initial items were developed, checked and administered to an appropriate large sample (1,017). At this stage, it was time to statistically assess the performance of the individual items in order for them to be included in the final measure. To evaluate the items, factor analysis and reliability tests were employed. More specifically, a factor analysis was performed in this study to reduce the attribute space from a larger number of variables to a smaller number of factors. A Cronbach's alpha reliability method was used to determine the reliability of the scale.

7.7.1 Factor Analysis

Factor analysis examines relationships among variables to identify groups of variables forming latent factors (Hair *et al.*, 1998). According to Nunnally (1978: 112-113), "*factor analysis is intimately involved with the question of validity and it is at the heart of the measurement of psychological constructs*". However, the factor analysis technique is a complex procedure with few absolute guidelines and many options (Costello and Osborne, 2005).

As discussed in Chapter Six, the EFA was utilised in this study to search for structure among the variables. Osborne and Costello (2005) indicate that EFA is a widely utilised and broadly applied statistical technique in the social sciences. Field (2005) indicates that item reduction is a primary use of EFA. The PCA is used for such a purpose in place of common factor analysis (Hair *et al.*, 1998). According to Costello and Osborne (2005:2), factor analysis rather than the default PCA is used since factor analysis better suits the purpose of revealing any "*latent variables that cause the manifest variables to covary*". In this research, EFA was used to measure a group of variables that affect job satisfaction levels in the DPF, and PCA was undertaken to identify the items that loaded adequately in each group. The following sections will discuss the factor analysis assumptions and results.

7.7.1.1 Assessing Factor Analysis Assumptions

Before starting the analysis of the findings of a factor analysis, it is important to check its assumptions. Researchers (for example, Field, 2005; Pallant, 2005) propose guidelines to diagnose the assumptions of factor analysis as follows:

- *Sample Size:* The reliability of factor analysis depends on the sample size. Many researchers suggest different sample size requirements for performing factor analysis (see Table 7.1). In this research, the sample size was 1,017, which is more than 15 participants per variable.

Table 7. 1 Suggested Sample Size for Factor Analysis

Authors	Year	Sample Size Ratio
Nunnally	1978	10 participants per variable
Comrey and Lee	1992	100 (poor), 300 (good), 1,000 (excellent)
Field	2005	300 or more
Tabachnick and Fidell	2007	300 at least

- *Data screening:* Data were cleaned from outliers and extremes. Thus, responses of six participants were discarded.
- *Multicollinearity:* Although mid-multicollinearity is not a problem for factor analysis when measuring the same underlying dimensions, it is important to avoid extreme multicollinearity, that is, when variables correlate too highly (for example, variables that are highly correlated and for which R is greater than 0.9). In this research, the correlation matrix was examined and it was found that all correlations between variables were less than 0.9. Furthermore, a check of the value of the ‘determinant’ at the bottom of the correlation matrix table revealed it to be 1.09E021 (that is, 0109), which is greater than the necessary value of .00001 (see Field, 2005:652). Thus, multicollinearity was not a problem in this study.
- *Sampling Adequacy:* In this research, the data passed the default of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) with a value of 0.964. According to Field (2005), the KMO statistic should be greater than 0.5 as a bare minimum. In addition, the value of

significance for Bartlett's test sphericity should be less than 0.5. In this study, the value for Bartlett's test sphericity is significant (Sig= .000) (see Table 7.2).

- *Residuals*: They are computed between observed and reproduced correlations. In this research, there were 184 (8.0%) non-redundant residuals with absolute values greater than 0.05.
- *Eigenvalue*: The *eigenvalue test* was applied to assist in the selection of the number of factors retained for interpretation. Thus, factors yielding an eigenvalue greater than 1 were retained.
- Comrey and Lee (1992) suggested that any loading greater than ± 0.71 is considered excellent, above 0.63 very good, above 0.55 good, above 0.45 fair and below 0.32 poor. In this research, the use of a minimum factor loading of 0.4 was used as the acceptance level (Field, 2005). Therefore, items that did not load with any other item or loaded below 0.4 were removed.

7.7.1.2 Results of the Factor Analysis

Factor analysis was run with 68 items following Field's (2005) guidelines. The PCA with orthogonal Varimax rotation was used. According to Hair *et al.* (1998), Varimax is the best rotation method in orthogonal rotation.

From Table 7.2, it can be seen that 11 factors or subscales had been extracted initially. Each factor had eigenvalues greater than one. Factor 1 accounted for the most variance among all factors (35.087%), followed by the variance in the second factor, which accounted for 6.383%, and so on. Together, the 11 factors accounted for 64.632% of the variability of the 68 items. After rotation loadings, the percentage of total variance accounted for was 64.547%.

Table 7.2: Summary Results of the Initial Eigenvalues, Percentages of Variance, Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings, and Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings for the Job Satisfaction Scale

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
Factor 1	23.859	35.087	35.087	23.859	35.087	35.087	6.203	9.122	9.122
Factor 2	4.340	6.383	41.470	4.340	6.383	41.470	5.983	8.799	17.921
Factor 3	2.903	4.269	45.739	2.903	4.269	45.739	5.786	8.509	26.430
Factor 4	2.550	3.749	49.488	2.550	3.749	49.488	4.697	6.908	33.338
Factor 5	1.933	2.842	52.330	1.933	2.842	52.330	4.651	6.840	40.178
Factor 6	1.915	2.816	55.147	1.915	2.816	55.147	3.558	5.232	45.410
Factor 7	1.702	2.503	57.650	1.702	2.503	57.650	3.532	5.193	50.603
Factor 8	1.346	1.980	35.087	1.346	1.980	59.629	3.447	5.069	55.672
Factor 9	1.200	1.764	61.394	1.200	1.764	61.394	2.237	3.289	58.961
Factor 10	1.140	1.676	63.070	1.140	1.676	63.070	1.995	2.933	61.895
Factor 11	1.062	1.562	64.632	1.062	1.562	64.632	1.804	2.653	64.547
KMO= .964									
Significant of Bartlett test of Sphericity= .000									

As can be seen in Table 7.3, the Component Matrix Table displays 11 factors and 65 items of job satisfaction. Only items with loadings greater than 0.4 were included in the table. According to Isaac and Michael (1990), to have a meaningful factor, at least three items should load on it. In this research, three factors loaded with three items per factor. Three items/questions were deleted by factor analysis, namely, Q41, Q42, and Q50 to produce a better fitting model.

Table 7.3: Component Matrix Table

Items	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9	F10	F11
Factor 1: Salary & Incentives											
Q17	.831										
Q14	.824										
Q15	.810										
Q16	.787										
Q56	.694										
Q57	.632										
Q18	.546										
Q58	.498										
Q20	.482										
Q19	.412										
Factor 2: Supervision											
Q23		.798									
Q24		.794									
Q22		.776									
Q25		.754									
Q21		.720									
Q31		.635									
Q26		.436									
Factor 3: Public Perception											
Q66			.830								
Q67			.801								
Q68			.791								
Q64			.790								
Q65			.746								
Q62			.722								
Q63			.650								
Factor 4: Promotion Opportunity											
Q44				.800							
Q43				.778							
Q60				.676							
Q46				.543							
Q45				.521							
Q40				.413							
Factor 5: Organisational Policy and Strategy											
Q53					.720						
Q54					.709						
Q55					.673						
Q51					.608						
Q52					.541						
Q48					.496						
Q49					.464						
Q47					.448						
Factor 6: Relationship with Co-workers											
Q9						.662					
Q35						.597					
Q34						.542					
Q33						.505					
Q8						.486					
Q10						.415					
Factor 7: Professional Development											
Q37							.799				
Q36							.777				
Q38							.600				
Q39							.502				
Q61							.492				
Factor 8: Nature of the Work											
Q2								.725			
Q6								.707			
Q3								.682			
Q4								.637			
Q1								.582			
Q7								.547			
Q5								.522			
Factor 9: Communication											
Q30									.670		
Q29									.611		
Q32									.562		
Factor 10: Job Stress											
Q11										.796	
Q13										.657	
Q12										.581	
Factor 11: Performance Appraisal											
Q28											.587
Q27											.431
Q59											.414

7.7.1.3. Classifications of Factors

This stage looks at the content of items that load onto the same factor group in order to classify the common themes. This process starts at Table 7.3, looking at the first item, and then moving horizontally from left to right while looking at the highest loading for that item on any factor; this is repeated until all the variables have been examined.

(1) Factor One: Salary and Incentives

By looking at the highest loading in Table 7.2, it can be seen that ten items were loaded highly on column one. These items related to monetary and benefits issues; therefore, this factor is named ‘Salary and Incentives’. The loading items ranged from .412 to .831.

Items	Factor 1 - Salary and Incentives
<i>Salary</i>	
Q14	My salary is adequate for my living expenses.
Q15	The period between pay rises is reasonable.
Q16	I feel appreciated by the organisation when I think about what they pay me.
Q17	My organisation has an appropriate salary scale.
<i>Fringe Benefits</i>	
Q18	All necessary fringe benefits are provided in my organisation (e.g., health insurance, travel tickets, accommodation and allowances).
<i>Recognition and Rewards</i>	
Q19	The performance recognition system in my organisation is as good as in most other organisations.
Q20	There are adequate financial rewards for those who work here.
<i>Fairness and Equity</i>	
Q56	Regarding salary, I feel that I am treated fairly compared with colleagues in my organisation who have similar qualifications and who have served a similar number of years.
Q57	Regarding fringe benefits, I feel that I am treated fairly compared with colleagues in my organisation who have similar qualifications and who have served a similar number of years.
Q58	Regarding recognition and rewards, I feel that I am treated fairly compared with colleagues in my organisation who have similar qualifications and who have served a similar number of years.

(2) Factor Two: Supervision

In column two, seven items were loaded on factor two and all items addressed the relationship between supervisors and subordinates. So, this factor is labelled ‘Supervision’. The loading items ranged from .436 to .798.

Items	Factor 2 - Supervision
<i>Supervision Style</i>	
Q21	My supervisor is available when needed.
Q22	My supervisor shows consideration for subordinates' feelings.
Q23	My supervisor gives me the opportunity to participate in important decision-making.
Q31	Communication between me and my immediate supervisors is good.
<i>Supervision Feedback</i>	
Q24	I receive regular feedback about my performance.
Q25	The feedback I receive from my supervisor is useful.
Q26	The form my supervisor uses accurately evaluates my performance.

(3) Factor Three: Public Perception

Seven items were loaded on factor three and all items seemed to address the relationship between DPF employees and public perception; therefore, this factor is named 'Public Perception'. The loading items ranged from .650 to .830. The rating scale for this factor is different. The scale ranged from 1= Very Dissatisfied to 7= Very Satisfied (see Appendix B).

Items	Factor 3 - Public Perception
A) What is your perception of how satisfied the public is with the services provided by the Dubai Police in the following areas:	
Q62	Crime control
Q63	The presence of police officers in public places
Q64	Traffic safety
Q65	Community educational programs
B) What is your perception of how satisfied the public is with the performance of Dubai Police employees in the following aspects:	
Q66	Response time
Q67	Communications skills (e.g., attitude, concern and follow-up).
Q68	Professionalism (e.g., problem solving)

(4) Factor Four: Promotion Opportunity

Six items were loaded on factor four; these addressed managerial issues. Thus, this factor is labelled 'Promotion Opportunity'. The loading items ranged from .413 to .800.

Items	Factor 4 - Promotion Opportunity
<i>Career Path</i>	
Q40	My organisation has a clear <u>career path</u> (that is, the defined track a person follows in the pursuit of professional goals).
<i>Promotion Opportunity</i>	
Q43	Promotion opportunities are not limited and are fairly adequate in this organisation.
Q44	My organisation has a clear and fair promotion policy and strategy that takes efficiency, performance and experience into account.
Q45	My organisation puts the right person in the right position.
Q46	My organisation gives proper attention to staff complaints and grievances
<i>Fairness and Equity</i>	
Q60	Regarding promotion, I feel that I am treated fairly compared with colleagues in my organisation who have similar qualifications and who have served a similar number of years.

(5) *Factor Five: Organisational Policy and Strategy*

Eight items were loaded highly on factor five, all of which related to organisational policy. Thus, factor five is named ‘Organisational Policy and Strategy’. The loading items ranged from .448 to .720.

Items	Factor 5 - Organisational Policy and Strategy
<i>Organisational Procedures</i>	
Q47	The procedures in my organisation do not interfere with good job performance.
<i>Moral Values</i>	
Q48	The general policy for my organisation is congruent with moral values.
<i>Job Security</i>	
Q49	This department is doing a good job of providing steady employment.
<i>Organisational Constraints</i>	
Q51	The organisation takes proper precautions to ensure a safe and healthy workplace.
Q52	The working conditions (e.g., air conditioning, lighting and workplace) are comfortable.
<i>Public Focus</i>	
Q53	My organisation gives considerable attention to public needs (e.g., running annual surveys).
Q54	My organisation gives proper attention to complaints by the public.
Q55	My organisation has a clear strategy to improve public service quality delivery.

(6) *Factor Six: Relationship with Co-workers*

Column six contained 6 items that addressed relations between workers in the workplace. Therefore, factor six is named ‘Relationship with Co-workers’. The loading items ranged from .415 to .662.

Items	Factor 6 - Relationship with Co-workers
<i>Role Consistency</i>	
Q8	I receive an assignment with the proper staffing to complete it
Q9	I work with a team who operate quite consistently
Q10	I do not receive incompatible requests from all of my supervisors.
<i>Co-workers</i>	
Q33	Honest competition exists between workers in this organisation.
Q34	There is no bickering and fighting at work.
Q35	I do not have difficulty in my job because of the competence of the people with whom I work.

(7) Factor Seven: Professional Development

Column seven contained five items that were related to training and ability utilisation. So, this factor is labelled ‘Professional Development’. The loading items ranged from .492 to .799.

Items	Factor 7 - Professional Development
<i>Training and Development</i>	
Q36	The organisation provides me with enough work-related training.
Q37	The organisation provides me with adequate resources and chances to develop myself professionally (e.g., workshops, courses and conferences).
Q38	My organisation practises <u>job rotation</u> (that is, the rotation of workers between different tasks to acquire skills).
<i>Ability utilisation</i>	
Q39	I am given the chance to try out some of my own ideas.
<i>Fairness and Equity</i>	
Q61	Regarding opportunities for professional development, I feel that I am treated fairly compared with colleagues in my organisation who have similar qualifications and who have served a similar number of years.

(8) Factor Eight: Nature of the Work

Seven items were loaded on factor eight and all items are related to job nature and characteristics. Therefore, this factor is named ‘Nature of the Work’. The loading items ranged from .552 to .725.

Items	Factor 8 - Nature of the Work
<i>Job Variety</i>	
Q1	My work is varied and is not routine.
Q2	My job requires the use of a number of skills.
<i>Job Significance</i>	
Q3	The work I do contributes to the organisation's goals.
Q4	A lot of other people can be affected in some way by my work
<i>Autonomy</i>	
Q5	My job gives me the opportunity to work independently.
Q6	My job requires me to be very creative.
<i>Role Clarity</i>	
Q7	My job goals are clear.

(9) *Factor Nine: Communication*

Column nine contained three items that addressed the notion of communication in the organisation. Thus, this factor is labelled 'Communication'. The loading items ranged from .562 to .670.

Items	Factor 9 - Communication
Q29	The equipment required for effective communication is widely available in this organisation (e.g., telephone, fax and internet).
Q30	Information is shared openly within this organisation (e.g., bulletins, circulars and orders)
Q32	Communication between me and other workers is good

(10) *Factor Ten: Job Stress*

Three items were loaded on factor ten, which addressed stress in the workplace. Thus, this factor is named 'Job Stress'. The loading items ranged from .581 to .796.

Items	Factor 10 - Job Stress
Q11	My job does not require me to work extra hours.
Q12	Work assignments are not out of my specialised field.
Q13	My job does not interfere with my family and social life.

(11) *Factor Eleven: Performance Appraisal*

The last column, eleven, contained three items addressing performance evaluation. Therefore, factor eleven is labelled 'Performance Appraisal'. The loading items range from .414 to .587.

Items	Factor 11 - Performance Appraisal
<i>Performance Appraisal</i>	
Q27	My performance appraisal is conducted on time each year.
Q28	I always receive a copy of my annual performance appraisal.
<i>Fairness and Equity</i>	
Q59	Regarding performance appraisal, I feel that I am treated fairly compared with colleagues in my organisation who have similar qualifications and who have served a similar number of years.

7.7.2 Reliability of Job Satisfaction Scale

As discussed in Chapter Six, Cronbach's alpha is an important indication of a scale's quality in terms of evaluating the potential items. In this study, analysing the Cronbach's alphas of all the items on the scale reveals the extent to which items on the questionnaire focus on the notion of satisfaction. As can be seen in Table 7.4, Cronbach's alpha analysis was performed for the entire scale and for individual factors/dimensions (in order of high alpha value). The alpha coefficients for job satisfaction factors ranged from 0.612 to 0.919. The overall alpha value for the eleven factors is 0.887. These findings indicate that each factor score has adequate internal consistency reliability with factors above the conventional standard of ≥ 0.60 (α range, 0.612 to 0.919).

Table 7.4: Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients for Job Satisfaction

Factors/Subscales	No. of Items	Cronbach Alpha (α)
Factor 1: Salary and Incentives	10	.919
Factor 2: Supervision	7	.914
Factor 3: Public Perception	7	.911
Factor 5: Organisational Policy and Strategy	8	.899
Factor 4: Promotion Opportunity	6	.898
Factor 7: Professional Development	5	.891
Factor 6: Relationship with Co-workers	6	.809
Factor 8: Nature of the Work	7	.792
Factor 11: Performance Appraisal	3	.749
Factor 9: Communication	3	.719
Factor 10: Job Stress	3	.612
Entire Factors	65	.887

As mentioned in Chapter Six, for each subscale, if an item has an alpha value above the overall value of items in the subscale, removing it will increase the alpha value, but if an item has an alpha value lower than or equal to the overall value, removing it will not raise the alpha value (see DeVellis, 2003; Field, 2005). According to Field (2005), any items

that result in substantially greater values of α than the overall α may need to be deleted from the scale to improve its reliability. However, if the deletion of an item will not increase significantly the reliability, there is no advantage in deleting it. In this study, three questions were kept because of alpha values that were close to the overall values, as follows:

- Relationship with Co-workers: overall $\alpha = .829 \rightarrow \alpha$ if item (Q.8) deleted = .809
- Supervision: overall $\alpha = .916 \rightarrow \alpha$ if item (Q.26) deleted = .914
- Communication: overall $\alpha = .743 \rightarrow \alpha$ if item (Q.32) deleted = .719

7.8 Summary

In order to obtain a valid and reliable scale, certain stages of the scale development process should be investigated. As the aim of this research was to construct a scale of job satisfaction, six stages were followed. These stages were: (1) constructing a definition and content dimension, (2) generating an item pool, (3) determining the format for measurement, (4) judging of dimensions and items by experts, (5) designing a scale and pilot testing, and (6) evaluating and finalising the scale.

Determination of particular dimensions and items for inclusion, the modification of some items and the addition of new items was based upon the deductive and inductive generation of items. This resulted in 68 items (questions), which were considered to have sufficient face and content validity.

A good scale must be both valid and reliable; therefore, factor analysis and reliability were examined. An EFA was utilised in this research to search for structure among job satisfaction variables. Factor analysis generated eleven factors or subscales that influence DPF employees' job satisfaction. These factors were: (1) salary and incentives, (2) supervision, (3) public perception, (4) promotion opportunity, (5) organisational policy and strategy, (6) relationship with co-workers, (7) professional development, (8) nature of the work, (9) communication, (10) job stress, and (11) performance appraisal.

The reliability of the scale was also established. A Cronbach's alpha analysis was performed for the entire scale and for individual factors. The internal consistency of factors on the job satisfaction scale meant that the scores of the eleven factors could be considered reliable.

The discussion of the methodology and research methods in Chapter Six and of the scale development process in Chapter Seven provide a basis for the description of data and the presentation of the research findings in the next chapters.

CHAPTER EIGHT: DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

8.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to evaluate the proposed model of job satisfaction presented in Chapter Six in Section 6.5. The variables being used in this study have been identified in previous chapters. To this effect, the model is examined by testing the formulated hypotheses detailed in Chapter Six using both bivariate and multivariate analyses techniques, where appropriate.

In conducting the analysis, both descriptive and inferential statistics are used. Descriptive statistics are used to summarise or present quantitative data, whereas inferential statistics are used to draw a conclusion from a sample of quantitative data and then generalise it to the population. It is worth noting that this chapter only reports the findings and that Chapter Nine will present a discussion of these results.

The next section, Section 8.2, provides descriptive results for the study sample. Section 8.3 investigates satisfaction levels in the DPF. Sections 8.4, through to 8.7, test hypotheses one, two, three and four respectively. Finally, Section 8.9 summarises the main results of this research.

8.2 Descriptive Results: Sample Characteristics

Describing sample characteristics is very important in social science research, because it provides both the researcher and the reader with information about the research setting, deepens the understanding of the study context, and helps to show research participants' responses in a questionnaire survey.

As described earlier, the questionnaire survey in this study consisted of four parts, namely, questions related to: personal information, the job satisfaction scale, general job satisfaction, and consequences of job satisfaction.

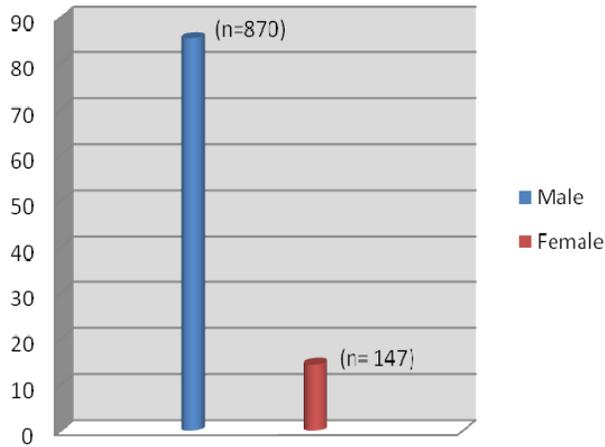
The total sample consisted of 1,017 employees working in the 18 general departments of the DPF. The characteristics of the sample, including the personal variables, were summarised using the mean, median, the minimum value (Min) and maximum value (Max) standard deviation (SD) and frequency/proportions of observations, where appropriate.

The distribution of the sample across several personal data is presented separately. The sample characteristics are discussed in the order they appeared in the questionnaire.

8.2.1 Sex

As can be seen in Figure 8.1, males represented the majority of the surveyed respondents (85.5%), while female respondents represented only 14.5% of the population. This figure indicates that there are fewer female employees in the DPF compared to male employees, a fact that can be attributed to the nature of police work and the UAE culture, which predisposes females to prefer to work in environments that have fewer risks and require less shift work, and that are less likely to interfere with their family life. However, there are relatively higher numbers of female employees in some public sector organisations in the UAE compared to the DPF.

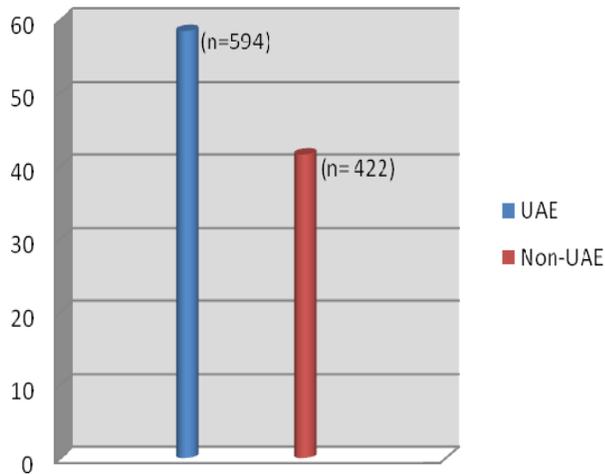
Figure 8.1: Sex



8.2.2 Nationality

With regard to the nationality of respondents, the sample was sorted into UAE nationals and non-UAE nationals. There was no specification of nationality for non-UAE respondents, but most were from Arab countries. Figure 8.2 shows that more than half (58.5%) of the respondents held UAE nationality, whilst 41.5% held other nationalities.

Figure 8.2: Nationality



8.2.3 Age Distribution

Respondents were asked to specify their age in years. Table 8.1 shows that the mean of the respondents' age was 34.26 years (SD = 8.7). The minimum age recorded was 20 years and the maximum age was 67 years. This result reflects the usual age distribution of employees in the public sector in the UAE. In general, appointments in the UAE public sector start at the age of 18 years and above, whereas the age of retirement is around 60 years, so the mean of the sample age lies close to the middle of that range.

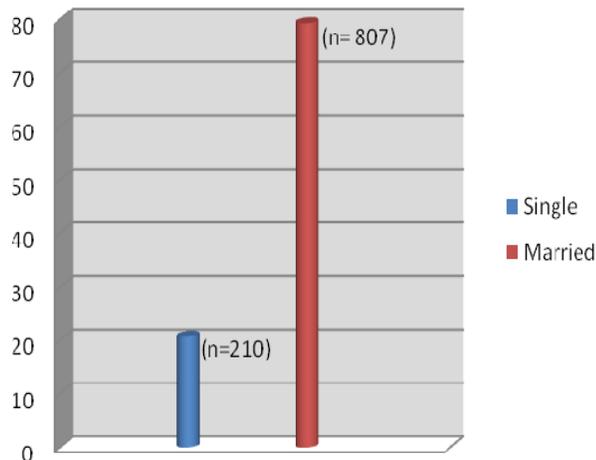
Table 8.1: Age Distribution

Personal Variables	Frequency	Mean (SD)	Minimum	Maximum
Age (Years)	969	34.26 (8.7)	20	67

8.2.4 Marital Status

Figure 8.3 shows that the majority of the respondents (79.3 %) were married, whereas 20.7% were single. This result reflects the high level of marital sustainability among the DPF employees. This is closely related to the Islamic teaching exhibited by the employees that encourages marriage in early adulthood and influences marital sustainability through strengthening social relationships and integrity.

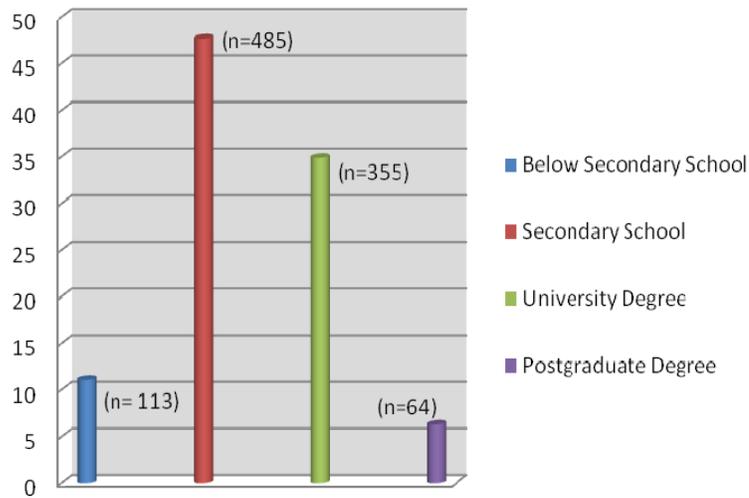
Figure 8.3: Marital Status



8.2.5 Educational Level

Figure 8.4 shows that about half the respondents held a secondary school certificate (47.7%) and 34.9% held a university degree. Only 11.1% of respondents had an educational level lower than that of secondary school and only 6.3% of respondents held postgraduate degrees (MSc or PhD). Therefore, the majority of the study sample (82.6%) held secondary school certificates and university degrees, representing the level of education among the DPF employees. The DPF recruits employees with different educational backgrounds to occupy different types of jobs and according to the goals and objectives of each post. Recently, the DPF has been aiming to increase the educational level of its force by establishing educational institutions and providing scholarship opportunities for its employees.

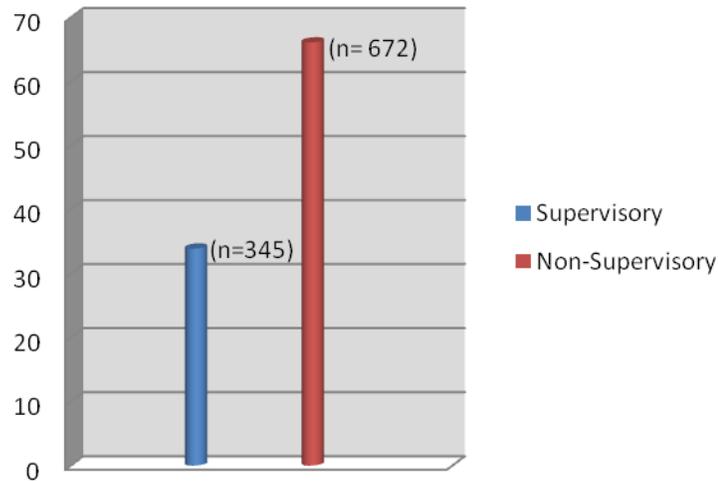
Figure 8.4: Educational Level



8.2.6 Job Level

Figure 8.5 shows that nearly two thirds of the DPF respondents (66%) did not occupy managerial positions, while 34% of respondents were supervisors or managers. The number of employees occupying managerial or supervisory positions in this sample was higher than expected. The DPF implementation of a decentralisation policy among all departments may play a major role in increasing the numbers of employees in managerial or supervisory positions.

Figure 8.5: Job Level



8.2.7 Place of Work (DPF Departments)

Respondents were asked to select the department to which they belonged. The illustration in Table 8.2 presents the frequency and proportions of the respondents among the 18 general departments in the DPF. Nearly two thirds of the sample (61.5%) occupied positions in departments related to Criminal Investigation (26.5%), Operation (12.6%), Services and Supplies (7.9%), Dubai Police Academy (7.8%) and Community Services (6.7%).

The remainder of the sample were working in the following departments: Human Resources (4.4%), Punitive Establishment (4.1%), Organisation Protection Security and Emergency (4%), Airport Security (3.1%), Administrative Affairs (3.1%), E-Services (3.1%), Forensic Science (3%), Total Quality (2.9%), Traffic (2.7%), Finance (2.5%), Human Rights (1.9%), Decision Making and Support Centre (1.8%), and Commander's Organisational Office (1.8%). Indeed, the two largest groups of respondents (that is, Criminal Investigation and Operation) accounted for more than two thirds of the total sample (39.1%) working in departments related to crime control and order maintenance, which is consistent with the main role of the police. However, the author could not

compare the proportions of the respondents working in the above departments with the actual proportions of the DPF employees due to confidentiality issues.

Table 8.2: Place of Work (DPF Departments)

Personal Variables	Frequency	Percentage %
Commander's Organisational Office	18	1.8%
Airport Security	32	3.1%
Decision Making Support Centre	18	1.8%
Dubai Police Academy	79	7.8%
Forensic Science	31	3%
Criminal Investigation	269	26.5%
Total Quality	30	2.9%
Human Resources	45	4.4%
Organisation Protection Security and Emergency	41	4%
Finance	25	2.5%
Community Services	68	6.7%
Punitive Establishment	42	4.1%
Operations	128	12.6%
E-Services	32	3.1%
Administrative Affairs	32	3.1%
Traffic	27	2.7%
Services and Supplies	80	7.9%
Human Rights	19	1.9%
<i>Total</i>	<i>1017</i>	<i>100%</i>

8.2.8 Years of Experience

Respondents were asked to indicate the length of their working experience with the DPF in years. Table 8.3 shows the mean of the respondents' experience as being 12.5 years (SD = 8.2). The minimum years of experience was one year and the maximum experience length was 39 years. This finding indicates that the DPF tends to keep its employees and provides all means of support to retain its workers longer.

Table 8.3: Years of Experience

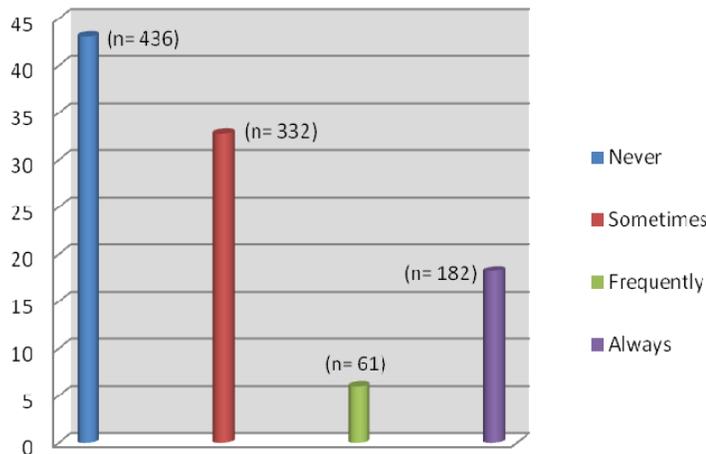
Personal Variables	Frequency	Mean (SD)	Minimum	Maximum
Experience (Years)	990	12.51 (8.2)	1	39

8.2.9 Shift Work

Respondents were asked to rate the frequency with which they worked shifts, on a rating scale ranging from never (1) to always (4). Figure 8.6 shows that 43.1% of the sample

stated that they never worked shifts (n= 436). About one third of the sample (32.8%) indicated that they sometimes worked shifts and 24% frequently or always worked shifts. Having more than half of the sample working shifts is not uncommon in the police sector due to the nature of police duties where a large number of a force's employees are responsible for ensuring the security and safety of the public.

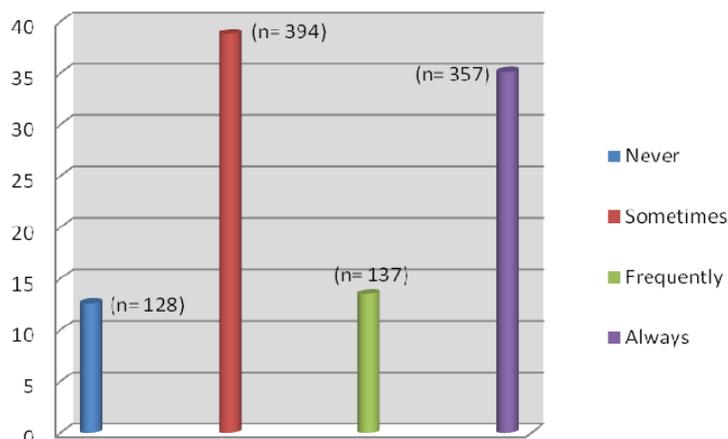
Figure 8.6: Shift Work



8.2.10 Public Contact

Respondents were asked to indicate whether their job involved dealing with the public or not. Figure 8.7 shows that 87.4% of respondents stated that they dealt with the public, while only 12.6% of respondents indicated that they had no such contact. These figures are consistent with the nature of the organisation, which is mainly a public service provider organisation. Since the vast majority of the sample deals with the public, it is very important to determine whether employees' satisfaction is influenced by the public's views towards the quality of services provided.

Figure 8.7: Public Contact



8.3 General Job Satisfaction (GJS)

The third parts of the questionnaire survey contain the general feeling or satisfaction toward the DPF. Table 8.4 shows the frequency, median, mean, minimum, maximum and standard deviation of the three variables along with GJS total score (The sum of the three items).

Table 8.4: General Job Satisfaction (GJS)

Items	No.	Median	Mean	Min	Mix	S.D.
(Q 1) I like my job	1016	6	6.01	1	7	1.366
(Q 2) My job fulfils my necessary needs	1015	5	5.11	1	7	1.660
(Q 3) Overall, I am satisfied with my job	1016	6	5.54	1	7	1.558
GJS	1015	18	16.6	3	21	3.9

Table 8.5: Classification of the DPF Respondents by Satisfaction Levels

Items	Dissatisfied (1-3)		Neutral (4)		Satisfied (5-7)	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
(Q 1) I like my job	62	6.1	56	5.5	898	88.4
(Q 2) My job fulfils my necessary needs	156	15.4	129	12.7	730	71.9
(Q 3) Overall, I am satisfied with my job	104	10.2	93	9.2	819	80.6
GJS (Average value of Q1, Q2 & Q3)	107.3	10.6	92.7	9.1	815.7	80.3

One of the objectives of this study was to examine the satisfaction levels of DPF employees. According to Seashore and Taber (1972), the level of job satisfaction is of particular interest if viewed as a social indicator of the quality of employment. In order

to determine the level of job satisfaction, each of the three questions concerning the general feeling toward the DPF was recoded into a categorical variable as follows: (1)disagree (dissatisfied), (2) neutral, and (3) agree (satisfied). Table 8.5 presents the frequency and proportions of respondents who were satisfied, neutral or dissatisfied.

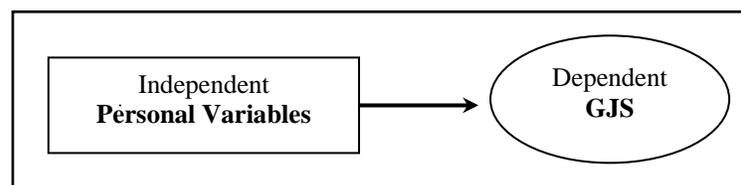
The majority of respondents (88.4%, n=898) indicated that they liked their job, whereas only 6.1% (n=62) of respondents did not; 71.9% (n=730) of respondents felt their job fulfilled their needs while 15.4% (n=156) of respondents believed it did not; 80.6% (n=819) of respondents indicated that they were satisfied overall with their job, whereas only (10.2%) (n=104) of respondents were not satisfied.

In order to determine the level of GJS among the participants, an average value of the proportions of participants who responded as being satisfied with the statements in Q1, Q2 and Q3 was obtained (see Table 8.5). Accordingly, 80.3% of respondents were satisfied with their job in general.

8.4 Hypothesis One Testing: The Relationship between Personal Variables and GJS

The proposed model of job satisfaction, in this research, shows that personal variables, as independent variables, influence employees' job satisfaction (see Figure 8.8).

Figure 8.8: The Relationship between Personal Variables and GJS



Hypothesis one tests whether there are relationships between personal variables (independent variables) and GJS (the dependant variable) by using bivariate analyses. Nine personal variables were investigated and the findings differed among variables.

These were sex, nationality, age, marital status, educational level, job level, years of experience, shift work, and public contact.

The variables were individually tested. Tests used depend on the nature of the variable. For example, in order to investigate any significant difference in GJS among different groups, the *t*-test and ANOVA tests were used. Pearson's Correlation was used to examine whether there was any correlation between scale variables and GJS.

As there were nine personal factors, nine sub-null hypotheses were generated:

8.4.1 Sub-Null Hypothesis ($H_{01.1}$): There is no statistically significant difference in the means of GJS between male and female employees.

The independent *t*-test was used to examine whether the means of GJS between men and women were different. Table 8.6 shows that there was no statistically significant difference in the means of GJS between the male and female DPF workers. Indeed, both groups exhibited almost similar levels of satisfaction towards their job (Mean=16). Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_{01.1}$) that there is no difference was accepted and hence, one can conclude that both males and females exhibit the same level of satisfaction overall.

Table 8.6: The Relationship between Sex and GJS

Personal Variable	no.	Mean (SD)	<i>t</i>	df	Sig.
Male	868	16.75 (3.8)	1.578	1013	.116
Female	147	16.14 (4.4)			

8.4.2 Sub- Null Hypothesis ($H_{01.2}$): There is no statistically significant difference in the means of GJS between UAE and non-UAE employees.

Table 8.7 illustrates the fact that the relationship between the nationality variable and GJS attained a statistically significant result using the *t*-test ($p < .05$). The DPF non-UAE participants showed a higher level of satisfaction (Mean= 17) than did participants

holding UAE nationality (Mean= 16.4). Increased expectation among the UAE employees compared to non-UAE employees may contribute to the difference in their satisfaction levels. Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_{01.2}$) that there is no difference was rejected and hence, one can conclude that non-UAE employees exhibit a higher level of satisfaction overall than UAE employees.

Table 8.7: The Relationship between Nationality and GJS

Personal Variable	no.	Mean (SD)	<i>t</i>	df	Sig.
UAE	594	16.4 (4.1)	-2.409	962.7	.016*
Non-UAE	422	17 (3.6)			

*Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

8.4.3 Sub-Null Hypothesis ($H_{01.3}$): There is no statistically significant correlation between employees' age and GJS.

Pearson's Correlation was used to measure the relationship between age and GJS. Table 8.8 shows the statistically significant correlation with GJS ($r = 0.164$ $p < 0.01$). That is, job satisfaction increases with an increase in age. Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_{01.3}$) that there is no relationship was rejected and hence, one can conclude that older employees exhibit a higher level of satisfaction overall than younger employees.

Table 8.8: The Relationship between Age and GJS

Personal Variable	no.	<i>r</i>	Sig.
Age	968	.164**	.000

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

8.4.4 Sub-Null Hypothesis ($H_{01.4}$): There is no statistically significant difference in the means of GJS between single and married employees.

A *t*-test was used to determine whether marital status groups (single and married) differed significantly. As it can be seen in Table 8.9, married employees reported higher scores of job satisfaction (Mean= 16.9) than did single workers (Mean= 15.8). Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_{01.4}$) that there is no difference was rejected and hence, one can conclude

that married employees exhibit a higher level of satisfaction overall than single employees.

Table 8.9: The Relationship between Marital Status and GJS

Personal Variable	no.	Mean (SD)	<i>t</i>	df	Sig.
Single	210	15.8 (4.1)	-3.696	1013	.000*
Married	807	16.9 (3.8)			

*Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

8.4.5 Sub-Null Hypothesis ($H_{01.5}$): There is no statistically significant difference in the means of GJS among the four educational groups.

The four educational level groups were subjected to ANOVA analysis to determine which group differed significantly. Table 8.10 shows no significant differences in GJS between levels of education. Also, Pearson's Correlation test showed no significant correlation between levels of education and GJS. Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_{01.5}$) that there are no differences was accepted and hence, one can conclude that there is no difference between levels of education and job satisfaction overall.

Table 8.10: The Relationship between Educational Levels and GJS

Personal Variable	no.	Mean (SD)	<i>F</i>	df	Sig.
Below Secondary School	113	16.97 (4.4)	1.082	3	.356
Secondary School	485	16.7 (3.7)			
University Degree	355	16.4 (4.1)			
Postgraduate Degree	64	16.98 (3.6)			

8.4.6 Sub-Null Hypothesis ($H_{01.6}$): There is no statistically significant difference in the means of GJS between supervisory and non-supervisory employees.

A *t*-test was used to determine whether job level groups (supervisory and non-supervisory) differed significantly. As it can be seen in Table 8.11, respondents occupying supervisory and managerial positions reported significantly higher job satisfaction scores (Mean= 17.2) than did non-supervisory respondents (Mean= 16.4). Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_{01.6}$) that there is no difference was rejected and hence,

one can conclude that supervisory employees exhibit a higher level of satisfaction overall than non-supervisory employees.

Table 8.11: The Relationship between Job Level and GJS

Personal Variable	no.	Mean (SD)	<i>t</i>	df	Sig.
Supervisory/Managerial	345	17.2 (3.7)	3.528	727.4	.000*
Non Supervisory	672	16.4 (3.9)			

*Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

8.4.7 Sub-Null Hypothesis ($H_{01.7}$): There is no statistically significant correlation between employees' years of experience and GJS.

With regard to the length of service (years of experience), a Pearson Correlation test yielded a significant positive correlation between years of experience and GJS ($r = 0.185$, $p < 0.01$) as Table 8.12 shows. That is, job satisfaction increases with an increase in the length of experience. Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_{01.7}$) of no correlation was rejected and the alternative hypothesis was accepted.

Table 8.12: The Relationship between Years of Experience and GJS

Personal Variable	no.	<i>r</i>	Sig.
Years of Experience	990	.185**	.000

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

8.4.8 Sub-Null Hypothesis ($H_{01.8}$): There is no statistically significant difference in the means of GJS between employees who work in shift bases and those who do not.

The four shift work groups were recoded into two groups of status of shift work (that is, 'no' and 'yes'). A *t*-test was used to determine whether the two groups differed significantly. Table 8.13 shows no significant differences in GJS between employees who work in shift bases and those who do not. Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_{01.8}$) that there is no difference was accepted and hence, one can conclude that employees who work in shift bases do not exhibit different levels of job satisfaction than those who do not work in shift bases.

Table 8.13: The Relationship between Shift Work and GJS

Personal Variable	no.	Mean (SD)	<i>t</i>	df	Sig.
No	436	16.8 (3.9)	.909	1007	.364
Yes	575	16.6 (3.9)			

8.4.9 Sub-Null Hypothesis ($H_{01.9}$): There is no statistically significant difference in the means of the GJS between employees who deal with the public and those who do not.

The four groups of status of public contact were recoded into two groups (that is, ‘no’ and ‘yes’). The independent *t*-test was used to examine whether the means of GJS between the two groups of public contact were different. Table 8.14 shows that there was no statistically significant difference in the means of GJS between employees who deal with the public and those who do not. Indeed, both groups exhibited almost similar levels of satisfaction towards their job. Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_{01.9}$) that there is no difference was accepted and hence, one can conclude that employees who deal with the public and those who do not show no significant difference in levels of job satisfaction.

Table 8.14: The Relationship between Public Contact and GJS

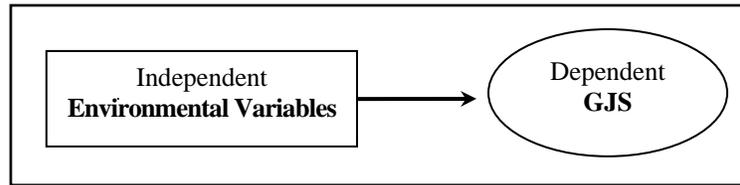
Personal Variable	no.	Mean (SD)	<i>t</i>	df	Sig.
No	128	16.3 (4.2)	-1.039	1012	.299
Yes	888	16.7 (3.8)			

To sum up, five out of nine of the personal variables were found to have a statistically significant relationship with the GJS. Higher levels of GJS were associated with each of the following: holding a non-UAE nationality, increased age, being married, occupying supervisory job levels, and increased years of experience.

8.5 Hypothesis Two Testing: The Relationship between Environmental Variables and GJS

The proposed model of job satisfaction also shows that environmental variables, as independent variables, influence employees’ job satisfaction (see Figure 8.9)

Figure 8.9: The Relationship between Environmental Variables and GJS



As discussed in Chapter Seven, factor analysis of the job satisfaction scale revealed 65 items divided into eleven factors (environmental factors). The eleven factors included salary and incentives, supervision, public perception, promotion opportunity, organisational policy and strategy, relationship with co-workers, professional development, nature of the work, communication, job stress, and performance appraisal.

The items comprising each factor/dimension were computed to generate a total factor score. A Pearson Correlation test was used to measure the correlation between each factor score and GJS.

As there were eleven environmental factors, eleven sub-null hypotheses were generated:

8.5.1 Sub-Null Hypothesis ($H_{02.1}$): There is no statistically significant correlation between salary and incentives, and GJS.

This hypothesis was tested by correlating salary and incentives with the GJS. A Pearson Correlation analysis was performed and it was found that $r = 0.535$, $p < 0.01$ (see Table 8.15). Thus, the null hypothesis ($H_{02.1}$) that there is no significant correlation was rejected. This result indicates a significant relationship between salary and incentives and GJS. That is, if employees have been paid or rewarded more, their job satisfaction will automatically increase.

Table 8.15: The Relationship between Salary and Incentives, and GJS

Environmental Variable	no.	r	Sig.
Salary and Incentives	985	.535**	.000

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

8.5.2 Sub-Null Hypothesis ($H_{02.2}$): There is no statistically significant correlation between supervision and GJS.

The Pearson Correlation analysis was carried out and it was found that $r = 0.499$, $p < 0.01$ (see Table 8.16). That is, there is a positive relationship between supervision and GJS. Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_{02.2}$) of no significant correlation was rejected. The result implies that supervisors or managers who are often close to their subordinates' feelings, and provide them with more support and co-operation, positively influence the employee job satisfaction and motivation.

Table 8.16: The Relationship between Supervision and GJS

Environmental Variable	no.	r	Sig.
Supervision	1003	.499**	.000

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

8.5.3 Sub-Null Hypothesis ($H_{02.3}$): There is no statistically significant correlation between public perception and GJS.

The result presented in Table 8.17 show a significant correlation between public perception of service quality and the GJS using Pearson Correlation analysis ($r = 0.466$, $p < 0.01$). Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_{02.3}$) that there is no significant correlation was rejected. Police sectors promote the use of public satisfaction as a measure of achieving service quality and enhancing workers' performance. The result underlines the fact that public perception of service quality strengthens the relationship between workers and customers. This eventually will fulfil both customers' and employees' needs.

Table 8.17: The Relationship between Public Perception and GJS

Environmental Variable	no.	r	Sig.
Public Perception	1004	.466 **	.000

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

8.5.4 Sub-Null Hypothesis ($H_{02.4}$): There is no statistically significant correlation between promotion opportunity and GJS.

The result presented in Table 8.18 show significant correlation between promotion opportunity and the GJS using Pearson Correlation analysis ($r = 0.527$, $p < 0.01$). Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_{02.4}$) of no statistically significant correlation was rejected. The result indicates that opportunities for growth and advancement are strong motivators and hence, lead to increased job satisfaction.

Table 8.18: The Relationship between Promotion Opportunity and GJS

Environmental Variable	no.	r	Sig.
Promotion Opportunity	997	.527 **	.000

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

8.5.5 Sub-Null Hypothesis ($H_{02.5}$): There is no statistically significant correlation between organisational policy and strategy and GJS.

The result presented in Table 8.19 show significant correlation between organisational policy and strategy and the GJS using Pearson Correlation analysis ($r = 0.578$, $p < 0.01$). Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_{02.5}$) of no significant correlation was rejected. The result indicates that an organisation's policies and procedures can be a great source of frustration for employees if they are unclear or unnecessary or not fairly implemented. This will have a great impact on an employee's sense of satisfaction in the workplace.

Table 8.19: The Relationship between Organisational Policy and Strategy and GJS

Environmental Variable	no.	r	Sig.
organisational policy and strategy	987	.578 **	.000

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

8.5.6 Sub-Null Hypothesis ($H_{02.6}$): There is no statistically significant correlation between relationship with co-workers and GJS.

As shown in Table 8.20, the Pearson Correlation analysis indicates a significant correlation between relationship with co-workers and GJS ($r = 0.534$, $p < 0.01$). Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_{02.6}$) that there is no significant correlation was rejected. The result indicates that a strong and cohesive relationship between members in an organisation generates feelings of happiness among them. Consequently, this feeling enhances teamwork and team productivity and minimises conflict between workers.

Table 8.20: The Relationship between Relationship with Co-workers and GJS

Environmental Variable	no.	r	Sig.
Relationship with co-workers	978	.534**	.000

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

8.5.7 Sub-Null Hypothesis ($H_{02.7}$): There is no statistically significant correlation between professional development and GJS.

As can be seen in Table 8.21, the Pearson Correlation analysis indicates a significant correlation between professional development and GJS ($r = 0.492$, $p < 0.01$). Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_{02.7}$) that there is no significant correlation was rejected. The result indicates that educational programmes, such as training, job rotation and ability utilisation, enhance personal growth and improve performance. The findings indicated that professional development increases workers' skills and knowledge and, in turn, affects their satisfaction and productivity positively.

Table 8.21: The Relationship between Professional Development and GJS

Environmental Variable	no.	r	Sig.
Professional Development	998	.492**	.000

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

8.5.8 Sub-Null Hypothesis ($H_{02.8}$): There is no statistically significant correlation between nature of the work and GJS.

The result presented in Table 8.22 show a significant correlation between nature of the work and GJS ($r = 0.484$, $p < 0.01$). Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_{02.8}$) that there is no significant correlation was rejected. This result indicates that the content of the job tasks, such as job variety, job significance and autonomy has important influence on an individual's job satisfaction. Therefore, if the job entails adequate variety, challenge, discretion and scope for using an employee's own abilities and skills, the employee is more likely to experience job satisfaction.

Table 8.22: The Relationship between Nature of the Work and GJS

Environmental Variable	no.	r	Sig.
Nature of the Work	984	.484**	.000

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

8.5.9 Sub-Null Hypothesis ($H_{02.9}$): There is no statistically significant correlation between communication and GJS.

As shown in Table 8.23, the Pearson Correlation analysis indicates a significant association between communication and GJS ($r = 0.380$, $p < 0.01$). Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_{02.9}$) of no significant correlation was rejected. This result indicates that frequent communication, either horizontal or vertical, increases the effectiveness and efficiency of the communication process in an organisation and in turn inspires all workers to strive towards achieving the organisational goals. The literature underlines the fact that effective communication in an organisation contributes significantly towards enhancing job satisfaction.

Table 8.23: The Relationship between Communication and GJS

Environmental Variable	no.	r	Sig.
Communication	1009	.380**	.000

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

8.5.10 Sub-Null Hypothesis ($H_{02.10}$): There is no statistically significant correlation between job stress and GJS.

The result presented in Table 8.24 show a significant correlation between job stress and GJS using Pearson Correlation analysis ($r = 0.224$, $p < 0.01$). Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_{02.10}$) of no significant correlation was rejected. The result indicates that job stress, such as working extra hours, working in different fields, and work interfering with social life, impaired job performance. Previous studies have argued that job stress not only affects job performance, but also can affect employee health.

Table 8.24: The Relationship between Job Stress and GJS

Environmental Variable	no.	r	Sig.
Job Stress	995	.224**	.000

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

8.5.11 Sub-Null Hypothesis ($H_{02.11}$): There is no statistically significant correlation between performance appraisal and GJS.

As can be seen in Table 8.25, the Pearson Correlation analysis show a significant association between performance appraisal and GJS ($r = 0.429$, $p < 0.01$). Therefore, the null hypothesis ($H_{02.11}$) that there is no significant correlation was rejected. This result indicates the role of performance evaluation in maximising an employee's sense of equity and fairness in the workplace, and it emphasises the previous findings of the positive relationship between employee performance appraisal and job satisfaction and commitment and the importance of the fair performance appraisal in improving job performance and productivity.

Table 8.25: The Relationship between Performance Appraisal and GJS

Environmental Variable	no.	r	Sig.
Performance Appraisal	1004	.429**	.000

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

Overall, the above findings show statistically significant correlations between the 11 environmental variables and GJS. Therefore, these findings support Hypothesis Two.

Adopting the commonly used guidelines proposed by Cohen (1988, 1992) ($r = .1$: small effect, $r = .3$: moderate effect, $r = .5$: large effect), the correlation coefficients constitute effect sizes ranging between a small effect to large size effects (see below).

Environmental Variables	Small Effect	Moderate Effect	Large Effect
(1) Salary and Incentives			√
(2) Supervision			√
(3) Public Perception			√
(4) Promotion Opportunity			√
(5) Organisational Policy and strategy			√
(6) Relationship with Co-workers			√
(7) Professional Development			√
(8) Nature of the Work			√
(9) Communication			√
(10) Job Stress	√		
(11) Performance Appraisal		√	

8.6 Hypothesis Three Testing: Predictors of GJS

In order to identify the set of environmental and personal variables that serve as predictors of GJS scores, a multiple regression analysis was conducted on the GJS by forcing the eleven environmental variables, representing the factors generated from the factor analysis solutions, into the model first, and then following with by the nine personal variables using the Enter method. While the sample size of this research is quite large, the forced entry (or Enter as it is known in SPSS) is used to fulfil the hypothesis of controlling for each independent variable in regression analysis.

a) Evaluation of the Regression Model

The quality of the regression model was judged by examining the R^2 , Adjusted R^2 value and the significance level. As can be seen in Table 8.26, the first model presents the set of environmental variables predicting the GJS. In the second model personal variables were entered along with the environmental variables. The predictor variables in the second model present the number of environmental and personal variables predicting the GJS.

Multiple regression analysis on GJS scores while entering both environmental and personal variables as independent variables yielded a significant model at the .002 level with 15 predictor variables accounting for 47% of the variance in GJS (see Table 8.26).

Table 8.26: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.683(a)	.466	.459	2.82515	.466	66.836	11	842	.000	2.025
2	.695(b)	.483	.470	2.79645	.016	2.931	9	833	.002	

a Predictors: (Constant), Performance Appraisal, Supervision, Professional Development, Job Stress, Relationship with Co-workers, Salary and Incentives, Promotion Opportunity, Organisational Policy and Strategy, Public Perception, Nature of the Work, Communication.

b Predictors: (Constant), Performance Appraisal, Supervision, Professional Development, Job Stress, Relationship with Co-workers, Salary and Incentives, Promotion Opportunity, Organisational Policy and Strategy, Public Perception, Nature of the Work, Communication, Marital Status, Public Contact, Educational Level, Shift Work, Job Level, Sex, Age, Nationality, Years of Experience

c Dependent Variable: GJS

b) Checking the Assumptions

There are a number of assumptions underlying the use of regression analysis. These assumptions concern both the individual variables (dependent and independent), and the relationship as a whole. According to Field (2005), when assumptions are met, the produced model can be accurately applied to the population of interest. The following points present these assumptions:

- **Multicollinearity**

The correlation between each of the independent variables was not too high. That is, the correlation matrix for all the independent variables used in this analysis shows that none of the variables has a correlation of 0.8 and above. In addition, there are two common measures used for assessing collinearity, namely, tolerance value and VIF. The tolerance value was checked and found to be above 0.1 suggesting no possibility of multicollinearity. The VIF value was less than 10 indicating no multicollinearity (see Table 8.27); therefore, all variables were retained.

- Normality, Linearity, Homoscedasticity, Independence of Residuals and Outliers

The scatterplot of the residuals and the normal probability plot of the regression standardised residuals were inspected. The normal probability plot showed points lying in a reasonably straight diagonal line from bottom left to top right suggesting no major deviations from normality (see Figure 8.10). Normality was also checked by assessing the histogram in Figure 8.11, for which the GJS variable appears to be normally distributed in the population (a bell-shaped curve). The standardised residuals in the scatterplot had a roughly rectangular distribution, with most of the scores concentrated in the centre (along the 0 point) (see Figure 8.12). There was no clear or systematic pattern to the residuals (for example, curvilinear, or higher on one side than the other). Independence of errors was checked through looking at the Durbin-Watson coefficient value, which was 2.025, indicating that this assumption is likely to be met (see Table 8.26).

Outliers were checked from the scatterplot and only a few were seen. With a sample this large, it is not uncommon to find a number of outlying residuals; therefore, no action was necessary (Pallant, 2005).

Figure 8.10: Normal P-P Plot for GJS

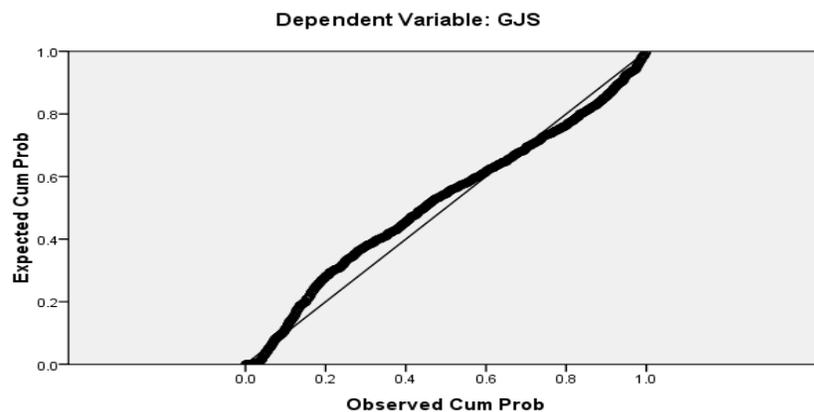


Figure 8.11: Histogram for GJS

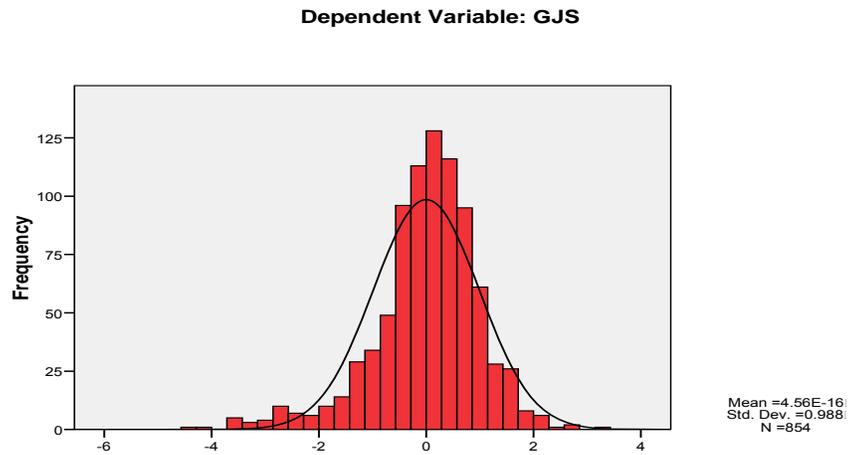
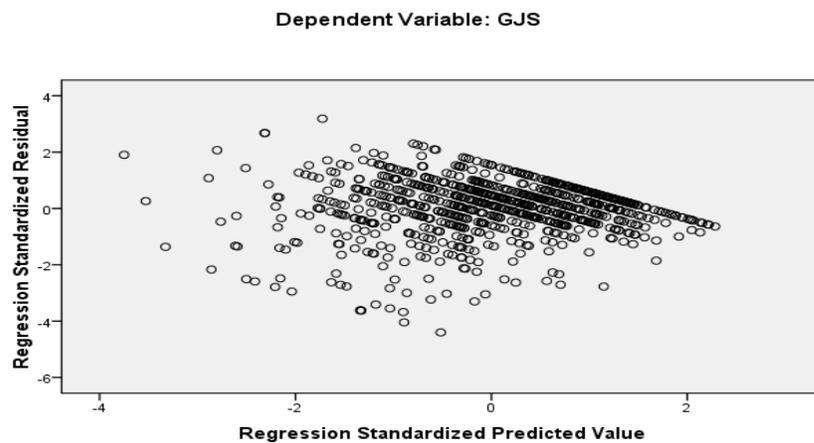


Figure 8.12: Scatterplot for GJS



c) Evaluating of the Predictor Variables

Table 8.27 represents 15 predictors of job satisfaction in order of their strength of contribution to the dependent variable (GJS). The results indicate that a positive perception of salary and incentives makes the strongest unique contribution to explaining

the increase in GJS, when the variance explained by all other variables in the model is controlled for ($\beta = .350, p < .001$). This was followed by positive perception of nature of the work ($\beta = .271, p < .001$), public perception ($\beta = .252, p < .001$), organisational policy and strategy ($\beta = .237, p < .001$), supervision ($\beta = .212, p < .001$), relationship with co-workers ($\beta = .208, p < .001$), and promotion opportunity ($\beta = .175, p < .001$). Although significant, the following variables showed the weakest contribution to explaining the increase in GJS: holding non-UAE nationality ($\beta = .102, p < .01$), a positive perception of professional development ($\beta = .097, p < .001$), performance appraisal ($\beta = .096, p < .001$), communication ($\beta = 0.083, p < .01$), job stress ($\beta = 0.069, p < .01$), being female ($\beta = 0.072, p < .05$), not working shifts ($\beta = -.058, p < .05$) and dealing with public ($\beta = 0.052, p < .05$).

The above results shows that all of the eleven environmental variables: salary and incentives, supervision, public perception, promotion opportunity, organisational policy and strategy, relationship with co-workers, professional development, nature of the work, communication, job stress, and performance appraisal are predictors of GJS after controlling for personal variables. Thus the null hypothesis $H_{03.B}$ that the environmental variables are not statistically significant predictors of GJS after controlling for personal variables is rejected.

In addition, the findings indicated that only four personal variables: namely nationality, sex, shift work, and public contact are statistically significant predictors of GJS after controlling for environmental and other personal variables.

Table 8.27 : Standardised Coefficient Beta

Model 2	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	14.869	1.183		12.566	.000		
Salary and Incentives	1.333	.104	.350	12.769	.000	.826	1.211
Nature of the Work	1.046	.101	.271	10.406	.000	.915	1.092
Public Perception	.976	.099	.252	9.872	.000	.957	1.045
Organisational Policy	.909	.099	.237	9.163	.000	.928	1.077
Supervision	.805	.095	.212	8.450	.000	.988	1.012
Relationship with Co-workers	.796	.099	.208	8.034	.000	.924	1.082
Promotion Opportunity	.669	.096	.175	6.977	.000	.985	1.015
Professional Development	.369	.097	.097	3.824	.000	.971	1.030
Performance Appraisal	.371	.101	.096	3.684	.000	.906	1.104
Communication	.324	.099	.083	3.262	.001	.967	1.034
Job Stress	.266	.100	.069	2.655	.008	.916	1.091
Nationality	.801	.251	.102	3.188	.001	.601	1.663
Sex	.772	.316	.072	2.446	.015	.716	1.397
Shift Work	-.449	.218	-.058	-2.062	.040	.775	1.291
Public Contact	.583	.292	.052	2.000	.046	.925	1.082
Years of Experience	.028	.020	.059	1.399	.162	.347	2.885
Job Level	-.297	.235	-.037	-1.264	.207	.709	1.411
Educational Level	-.179	.151	-.035	-1.191	.234	.739	1.353
Age	-.014	.020	-.031	-.717	.474	.335	2.989
Marital Status	.247	.277	.025	.892	.373	.775	1.290

a Dependent Variable: GJS

d) *Comparison between the contribution of environmental variables and personal variables in predicting job satisfaction*

Comparison between the two produced regression models aimed to answer the following two questions:

- (1) How large is the contribution of environmental variables in predicting job satisfaction?
- (2) How large is the contribution of environmental factors with personal variables in predicting job satisfaction?

By comparing the R^2 and Adjusted R^2 (see Table 8.28) between models one and two, it is obvious that the inclusion of the personal variables: nationality, sex, shift work and public contact in the model in addition to the environmental variables added only 1% to the total amount of variance explained. In addition, the actual differences in the regression coefficient (β) values for the eleven environmental variables between the two

models were very small and appear to be of little practical significance (see Table 8.28). This suggests that if we control for the possible effect of nationality, sex, shift work and dealing with public, the set of the environmental variables is still able to predict an almost similar significant amount of the variance in job satisfaction.

From the above findings, one can conclude that the set of the eleven environmental variables is a stronger predictor of GJS than personal variables. Thus the null hypothesis $H_{03.C}$ that the environmental variables are not stronger predictors of GJS than are personal variables is rejected.

Table 8.28.: Comparison between the Standardised Coefficient Beta (β) of the Predictor Variables Produced from the Regression Models 1 and 2

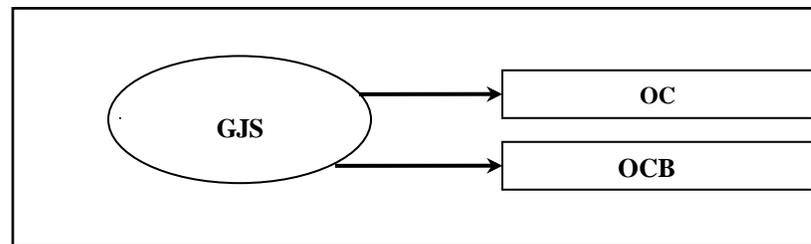
	Standardized Coefficients		
	Model 1 β	Model 2 β	Differences β
(Constant)			
(F1) Salary and Incentives	.328***	.350***	0.022
(F8) Nature of the Work	.268***	.271***	0.003
(F3) Public Perceptions	.267***	.252***	0.015
(F5) Organisational Policy and Strategy	.243***	.237***	0.006
(F2) Supervision	.208***	.212***	0.004
(F6) Relationship with Co-workers	.221***	.208***	0.013
(F4) Promotion Opportunity	.179***	.175***	0.004
(F7) Professional Development	.102***	.097***	0.005
(F11) Performance Appraisal	.120***	.096***	0.024
(F9) Communication	.079**	.083**	0.004
(F10) Job Stress	.090***	.069**	0.021
Nationality	-	.102**	
Sex	-	.072*	
Shift Work	-	-.058*	
Public Contact	-	.052*	
Adj.R ²	46%	47%	1%

* p<.05; ** p<.01; *** p<.001

8.7 Hypothesis Four Testing: The Relationship between GJS and OC and OCB

The proposed model of job satisfaction of this study shows that the GJS variable, as independent variable, can affect employees' behavioural outcomes. These outcomes include organisational commitment (OC) and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) (see Figure 8.13).

Figure 8.13: The Relationship between GJS and OC and OCB variables



The items comprising OC and OCB were each computed separately to generate a total OC and a total OCB. A Pearson Correlation test was used to measure the correlation between GJS and each of the OC and OCB variables.

8.7.1 Sub-Null Hypothesis ($H_{04.1}$): There is no statistically significant correlation between GJS and OC.

The Person correlation test between GJS and OC showed a statistically significant correlation ($r = 0.648$, $p < 0.01$) (see Table 8.29). Thus, the null hypothesis ($H_{04.1}$) of no significant correlation between GJS and OC was rejected. The result indicates that the more satisfied an individual is with his or her job, the more committed that individual is to the organisation. Therefore, the job satisfaction is important to both employees and to the organisation to retain a strong workforce.

Table 8.29: The Relationship between GJS and OC

Consequence Variable	no.	r	Sig.
Total OC	1010	.648**	.000

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

8.7.2 Sub-Null Hypothesis ($H_{04.2}$): There is no statistically significant correlation between GJS and OCB.

As can be seen in Table 8.30, the Pearson Correlation analysis indicated that there is a statistically significant relationship between GJS and OCB ($r = 0.466$, $p < 0.01$). Accordingly, the null hypothesis ($H_{04.2}$) of no significant correlation between the GJS and OCB is rejected. The result indicates that when workers are satisfied with their job, they might be more willing to achieve beyond what is required of them and promote the effective functioning of the organisation.

Table 8.30: The Relationship between GJS and OCB

Consequence Variable	no.	r	Sig.
Total OCB	1012	.466**	.000

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

Adopting the commonly used guidelines proposed by Cohen (1988, 1992) ($r = .1$: small effect, $r = .3$: moderate effect, $r = .5$: large effect), both correlation coefficients constitute a large size of effect in correlation with GJS. However, the OC ($r = 0.648$) was a relatively stronger correlate to GJS compared to the OCB ($r = 0.466$), indicating that the effect of GJS on OC is relatively stronger than that on the OCB.

8.8 Summary

This chapter has provided an investigation of the four parts of the questionnaire including personal data, the job satisfaction scale, general job satisfaction, and consequences of job satisfaction.

The SPSS software was used to analyse the data in the DPF's sample population of 1,017 respondents. The chapter started with the study sample characteristics. The study has also shown that an examination of the distribution of responses on job satisfaction reveals that the DPF employees are highly satisfied with their work (80.3%).

Additionally, this chapter has been dedicated to the testing of the four main study hypotheses. The findings of these hypotheses are summarised in Table 8.31.

The eleven environmental variables proposed as predictors of job satisfaction were investigated using multiple regression analysis. The findings show that 47% of the variance in job satisfaction scores was accounted for by the 15 predictors. Personal factors have little influence on job satisfaction. Although the effect of the personal factors: nationality, sex, shift work and dealing with the public reached statistical significance, the personal variables in the model accounted only for 1% of the total amount of variance explained.

Table 8.31: Summary of Hypotheses Testing Results

Null-Hypotheses	Analyses Tests	Accepted	Rejected
(H₀₁) Personal variables are not associated with the GJS (9 Sub-Null Hypotheses)	Bivariate Analyses	4 variables (sex, educational level, shift work, and public contact)	Null hypotheses related to 5 personal variables (nationality, age, marital status, job level, and years of experience)
(H₀₂) Environmental variables are not associated with the GJS (11 Sub-Null Hypotheses)	Bivariate Analyses	-	Null hypotheses related to 11 environmental variables (salary and incentives, supervision, public perception, promotion opportunity, organisational policy and strategy, relationship with co-workers, professional development, nature of the work, communication, job stress, and performance appraisal)
(H₀₃) (H_{03.A}) (Personal variables are not Predictors of GJS)	Multivariate Analyses	age, marital status, educational level, job level, and years of experience	sex, non-nationality, shift work, and public contact
(H_{03.B}) (Environmental variables are not Predictors of GJS)	Multivariate Analyses	-	(salary and incentives, supervision, public perception, promotion opportunity, organisational policy and strategy, relationship with co-workers, professional development, nature of the work, communication, job stress, and performance appraisal)
(H_{03.C}) (Environmental factors are not stronger predictors of job satisfaction than are personal variables)	Multivariate Analyses	-	H_{03.C} was rejected
(H₀₄) (2 Sub-Null Hypotheses) OC and OCB are not significantly correlated with the GJS	Bivariate Analyses	-	Both sub-null hypotheses (OC and OCB) were rejected

CHAPTER NINE: DISCUSSIONS

9.1 Introduction

There were two main aims of this study, these being to: (1) identify the determinants of job satisfaction in one of the largest public sector organisations in the United Arab Emirates, namely, the Dubai Police Force (DPF), and (2) develop a model of job satisfaction linking antecedents and consequences to job satisfaction. These were achieved by using both qualitative and quantitative research approaches which were considered useful for producing a valid model of job satisfaction.

Having presented the data results of the survey questionnaire in Chapter Eight, this chapter discusses the prominent findings and compares them with other findings from relevant research. Thus, the chapter includes two main sections:

- **Section One:** this provides a discussion on the Dubai police job satisfaction scale and the levels of job satisfaction in the DPF;
- **Section Two:** this discusses the results of testing the four main research hypotheses related to determinants and consequences of job satisfaction.

9.2 Section One

9.2.1 The Dubai Job Satisfaction Scale (DJSS)

One of the objectives of this study was to develop a scale of job satisfaction in the public sector organisation of the DPF, and a mixed methods approach was adopted in order to this. Given the paucity of measurement scales in the Middle East region, the newly-

developed Dubai Job Satisfaction Scale (DJSS) is considered as the first valid and reliable scale in the UAE.

Six stages were followed in order to develop the DJSS:

- (1) *Constructing a definition and content dimension*: the theoretical framework of the study rests on well-known job satisfaction theories;
- (2) *Generating an item pool*: variables were generated using deductive and inductive approaches;
- (3) *Determining the format for measurement*: 7-point Likert scales were used to ask the respondents to measure the degree of job satisfaction with a specific statement;
- (4) *Judging of dimensions and items by experts*: three academic reviewers checked the validity of the DJSS (face and content validity);
- (5) *Designing a scale and pilot testing*: three steps were involved, these being: (a) designing a scale, (b) translating a questionnaire, and (c) pilot testing;
- (6) *Evaluating and finalising the scale*: two steps were involved which were (a) grouping variables by factor analysis, and (b) assessing the scale's reliability.

The DJSS construct was tested using principal components analysis with varimax rotation. Eleven factors were extracted, accounting for 64.6 % of the variance. These eleven factors were labelled and classified into group dimensions or sub-scales as follows:

- (1) Salary and incentives, (2) Supervision, (3) Public perception, (4) Promotion opportunity, (5) Organisational policy and strategy, (6) Relationship with co-workers, (7) Professional development, (8) Nature of the work, (9) Communication, (10) Job stress, and (11) Performance appraisal.

The factor analysis validated the structural properties of the multi-dimensionality of the DJSS construct. In addition, in this study, the variance explained by the factor solution was relatively higher than that reported by factor solutions of other job satisfaction scales such as the five dimensions structure of the JDI (43%) and the twenty dimensions structure of the MSQ (46%) (Buckley *et al.*, 1992).

Table 9.1 presents a comparison between the dimensions of each of the DJSS, JDI, MSQ and JSS scales. The dimensions of the DJSS include almost all of the five JDI and nine JSS dimensions. The DJSS included all dimensions of the MSQ except for three, these being: activity, achievement and social services.

Component items of achievement, which are related to task identity dimension, were not retained in the DJSS. Using both qualitative and quantitative approaches, the researchers ascertained from DPF employees in the current research that task identity and being active most of the time are not perceived as important factors affecting employees' job satisfaction. Although previous researchers found that workers gain satisfaction from the completion of a task, as this gives them a feeling of success and accomplishment, in the case of certain services, like the police, there is generally no definite end to a task. According to Reiner (1978:178), "*there is no end product to police work*". Consistence with this, Reiner and Zhao (1999) indicated that task identity in the police is not an important predictor of any facet of job satisfaction.

With regard to social services, the current study's qualitative and quantitative research revealed that the DPF employees believe their satisfaction to be more influenced by the perception of the public towards the services provided rather than by being involved in social services. Therefore, the DJSS included a dimension named entitled 'public perception'. It is believed that this is one of a few analyses that have studied the importance of the public's view of service quality in achieving job satisfaction.

In addition to this public perception, the following dimensions of the DJSS were not included in any of the JDI, MSQ and JSS: performance appraisal, and job stress. This

would explain the higher level of explained variance of the DJSS compared to the other scales. Public perception, job stress and performance appraisal dimensions have not been frequently investigated in Western studies of job satisfaction or even included in previous western job satisfaction scales. This would give the DJSS an advantage over other job satisfaction scales.

These findings indicate that employees in the UAE, one of the non-western countries, emphasises those three dimensions in addition to the other dimensions as significant factors affecting job satisfaction. These findings imply that the relationship between those three dimensions (public perception, job stress and performance appraisal) and job satisfaction should be further investigated in Western countries. Since employees' satisfaction helps the organisation to achieve public or customer satisfaction, which is the goal for most organisations, organisations must first satisfy their employees (Rust *et al*, 1996; Fosam *et al*, 1998).

Job stress leads to a person being unable to cope with his or her job, and therefore affects the level of job satisfaction (Deborah *et al.*, 1993; Fairbrother and Warn, 2003). Job stress items include working extra hours, working in different fields, work interference with social life and impaired job performance. Job stress not only affects job performance, but also can affect employee health (Spector, 2008).

The role of performance appraisal is to maximise an employee's sense of equity and fairness in the workplace, as suggested by Adams' (1963) equity theory. The literature reveals that the importance of fair performance appraisal is in improving job performance and productivity. Performance appraisal is an important tool not only to manage the performance of employees but the organisation in general (Yousef, 1999). Performance appraisal has also an economic sequel; that is, factors such as promotion, recognition and financial rewards depend on positive performance evaluation.

Reliability of the DJSS was assessed by Cronbach's alpha coefficient for each sub-scale and for the entire scale. The results indicated satisfactory internal consistency for the

entire scale (0.887) and for all sub-scales, with all reliability coefficients being above the conventional standard of ≥ 0.60 . The reliability coefficients for the entire scale and its subscales were similar to that for the JSS (entire scale: 0.91, subscales: 0.60 to 0.82) (Spector, 1985) and the MSQ (entire scale: 0.85 to 0.91, subscales: 0.70 to 0.86) (Hart, 1999; Wong *et al.*, 1998; Huber *et al.*, 1992; Davy *et al.*, 1997; Breeden, 1993). These results provide evidence for the fact that the DJSS has reasonable internal consistency.

Since the DJSS dimensions/subscales were strongly correlated with the GJS, which in itself was strongly correlated with the OC and OCB, this would imply that the DJSS subscales are correlated with the OC and OCB. These findings support the concurrent validity of the DJSS.

The advantages of the DJSS are as follows:

- It is the first developed scale measuring job satisfaction that is congruent with the Arab-Islamic culture of public sector organisations in the UAE, as most of the existing scales of job satisfaction such as the JDI, the MSQ and the JSS were developed in countries with cultures different to that in the UAE.
- It has a key strength in its simplicity and availability in two languages (Arabic and English). Samples of each of the Arabic and English versions of the DJSS are provided in Appendix C (C1 and C2).
- It was intended to study the relationship between job satisfaction and the important job-related dimensions and personal characteristics in a single study and deliberately attempted to address the main glaring limitations in existing studies. Previous scales, for example the JDI and the JSS, did not provide adequate information about some important dimensions such as job variety and autonomy. Therefore, when using the JDI or the JSS to measure satisfaction in any organisation which has problems concerning routine work, decentralisation would probably not serve the purpose required unless some adaptations were made. Repetition of dimensions with similar meaning and purpose was obvious in

some scales. The MSQ, for example, contains 20 subscales with some of these being quite similar in meaning, which would eventually confuse and worry respondents and make the scale unnecessarily lengthy. For instance, subscales like independence, authority or responsibility all refer to autonomy in general. Therefore, some questions under these subscales give a similar meaning. In the current study, the author ensured the independence of each item from others in its meaning and aim at each step of the scale's development. The factor analysis, in addition, supported the relative independence of the eleven subscales of the DJSS.

- A practical limitation of most job satisfaction scales like the JDI and the MSQ is that the questions are copyrighted by the developers and a fee is required if the DPF wants to use it. Although some researchers like Spector (1997) gave the license to use the JSS for non-commercial academic and research purpose, the JSS is limited by nine general sub-scales. Therefore, the JSS is not always fit for all organisations.

- In terms of generalisability, the results to date are satisfactory and encouraging, since the DJSS has been used in two States, namely Qatar and Libya.

Table 9.1: Comparison between JDI, MSQ, JSS and DJSS

Scales' Dimensions	Job Satisfaction Scales			
	JDI	MSQ	JSS	DJSS
JDI				
Work		√	√	√
Pay		√	√	√
Promotion		√	√	√
Supervision		√	√	√
Co-Workers		√	√	√
MSQ				
Ability utilisation	√		-	√
Achievement	√		-	-
Activity	√		-	-
Advancement	√		√	√
Authority	-		-	√
Company policies and practices	-		√	√
Compensation	√		√	√
Co-workers	√		√	√
Creativity	√		-	√
Independence	-		-	√
Moral values	-		-	√
Recognition	-		√	√
Responsibility	√		-	√
Security	-		-	√
Social service	-		-	-
Social status	-		-	√
Supervision - human relation	√		√	√
Supervision - technical	-		-	√
Variety	√		-	√
Working conditions	√		-	√
JSS				
Pay	√	√		√
Promotion	√	√		√
Supervision	√	√		√
Fringe Benefits	-	-		√
Contingent rewards	-	-		√
Operating Conditions	-	√		√
Co-workers	√	√		√
Nature of Work	√	√		√
Communication	-	-		√
DJSS				
Salary and Incentives	√	√	√	
Supervision	√	√	√	
Public Perception	-	-	-	
Promotion Opportunity	√	√	√	
Organisational Policy and Strategy	-	√	√	
Relationship with Co-workers	√	√	√	
Professional Development	√	√	-	
Nature of the Work	√	√	√	
Communication	-	-	√	
Job Stress	-	-	-	
Performance Appraisal	-	-	-	

(-) Not included (√) Included

9.2.2 Perceived Levels of Job Satisfaction in the DPF

Job satisfaction is an important aspect of employees' work. When employees are satisfied with their work, their performance can be enhanced, and their communications with customers are more likely to be effective. Thus, job satisfaction could be viewed as being important not only from the individual's perspective, but also from an organisational viewpoint.

The findings of this study reveal a collective sense of satisfaction among employees towards the DPF. About 80.3% expressed satisfaction with their job, which reveals that the majority of the DPF employees are satisfied with their work. This reflects a highly desirable result for an organisation. It may suggest that fulfilment of most of the DPF employees' needs influenced the study participants' tendency to express their attitudes toward their jobs positively.

The current findings suggest that employees of the police force in the UAE are as satisfied as police force employees in many other countries. For example, Seltzer *et al.* (1996) found that 82% of Washington DC police officers were satisfied with their jobs. Forsyth and Copes (1994) analysed the sources of job satisfaction among 120 Louisiana police officers in the USA and found quite a high level of job satisfaction (77%). Likewise, Carlan (2007) reported that 70% of Alabama police officers expressed satisfaction with their policing job. Yucel (2008) found high satisfaction among police officers at Eskisehir police departments in Turkey (Mean= 3.42: overall job satisfaction mean ranges from 0 to 4). A recent study carried out by Chan and Doran (2009) reported 83% of Australian police officers were also satisfied with their job. On the other hand, the current rate of employee satisfaction found in the current study was higher than that reported in some other studies. For example, a study conducted by Al-Fadley (1996) found only 50% of the police force in Cairo was satisfied, and another piece of research carried out by Dantzker (1994) reported that police officers, in southern police departments in the USA, expressed more dissatisfaction than satisfaction in respect of 16 out of 23 issues.

It is clear from the above findings that job satisfaction can vary among organisations and countries. Job satisfaction is a complex issue and is affected by many factors; however, there are some issues that increase employees' job satisfaction which require little or no monetary resources, and could be achieved through utilising more effective managerial strategies. Job satisfaction can be higher in organisations that have criteria for endorsing new, more effective motivating strategies such as assuming equal opportunities and allowing more flexibility in managing their organisations; allowing individuals to work in their department of preference.

9.3 Section Two

This section discusses the results of the tests performed on the four main research hypotheses related to predictors/determinants and consequences of job satisfaction.

9.3.1 Determinants of Job Satisfaction among the DPF Employees

One of the goals of the research was to identify the determinants of job satisfaction among employees in the UAE. Multivariate regression analysis revealed a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and four out of nine personal variables and eleven environmental variables. The personal predictors were (in order of importance): nationality, sex, shift work, and public contact. The environmental predictors include: salary and incentives, nature of the work, public perception, organisational policy and strategy, relationship with co-workers, supervision, promotion opportunities, professional development, performance appraisal, communication, and job stress.

The findings of this research are parallel to the literature indicating that job satisfaction is a multi-dimensional construct. Each dimension is influenced by different variables constituting the characteristics of the work environment. Since the current model only explained 47% of the variance in job satisfaction, it implies that nearly 53% of the variance in job satisfaction may be explained by factors not considered in this study. This finding suggests that job satisfaction is affected by a wide range of variables. Consistent

with this, previous researchers such as Fosam *et al.* (1998:236) pointed out that satisfaction is a “*latent construct involving multiple indicators*”.

When the eleven environmental factors were entered alone into the regression analysis without personal factors, the result indicated that 46% of variance in job satisfaction was explained by the predictor variables in the model. The inclusion of the personal variables in the model, however, added only 1% to the total amount of variance explained (47%). This is consistent with what Davey *et al.* (2001) found in their study: demographic predictors account for only 1.4% of the variance in job satisfaction scores. The findings of the current research suggest that, if we control for the possible effect of personal variables, the set of environmental variables is still able to predict an almost similar significant amount of the variance in job satisfaction. This finding supports findings of some previous studies which showed that environmental factors are stronger predictors of job satisfaction than the personal variables, and that the latter are of little value to understanding job satisfaction (for example, Boke and Nalla, 2009; Carlan, 2007; Davey *et al.*, 2001; Ellickson and Logsdon, 2001; Zhao *et al.*, 1999; Forsyth and Copes, 1994).

This result highlights the importance of the work environment in improving employee job satisfaction and enhancing productivity. According to Herzberg’s (1968) motivational theory, job satisfaction is a function of the work environment. However, some personal variables can be weak predictors, and should therefore, be included in the multivariate analysis in job satisfaction studies as control variables, to present the net effects of environmental variables on the other variables.

The next subsections provide discussions on the environmental and personal variables that were found in the regression modelling to be significant predictors of job satisfaction in the current study. A discussion of the personal variables that emerged as having no influence on job satisfaction is also provided.

9.3.1.1 Environmental Determinants of Job Satisfaction

Findings indicated that seven variables, in order of predictive strength salary and incentives ($\beta=0.350$), nature of the work ($\beta=0.271$), public perception ($\beta=0.252$), organisational policy and strategy ($\beta=0.237$), supervision ($\beta=0.212$), relationship with co-workers ($\beta=0.208$), and promotion opportunity ($\beta=0.175$) have the greatest effect on job satisfaction because of their large Beta coefficients. On the other hand, the results indicated that professional development ($\beta=0.097$), performance appraisal ($\beta=0.096$), communication ($\beta=0.083$), and job stress ($\beta=0.069$) have weak effects on job satisfaction because of their small Beta coefficients. It is worth noting that the latter four weak environmental predictors were not included in any of the JDI, MSQ and JSS scales, with the exception of communication, which was included in the JSS. Although they appeared to be weak predictors, they significantly increased the amount of the explained variance. In addition, each of the determinants associates with and complements each other. Thus, organisations cannot guarantee increased levels of job satisfaction by only focusing on strong determinants. The determinants generated from this study could constitute a DPF construct of employees' satisfaction that is, of course, liable for further development.

1. *Salary and Incentives*

Of the eleven independent variables, salary and incentives clearly emerged as the most powerful determinant of job satisfaction. The findings suggest that the DPF workers pay a great deal of attention to remuneration such as salary, fringe benefits, recognition, and financial rewards. Many executive managers in the UAE have emphasised the importance of monetary and incentive issues in determining workers' job satisfaction, and the probability that they will remain in their jobs. This is more important in an environment where there are steady increases in the cost of living. From personal observation, it is obvious that UAE society's spending habits have dramatically changed toward being more consuming and materialistic compared to the last five or ten years and this has placed more pressure on organisations to pay higher salaries to their employees. At the same time, it has created a peer-pressure effect seen amongst employees from different

organisations who are keen to make comparisons to identify which organisations have higher salary scales.

The finding is consistent with previous studies which found salary and incentives to be an important positive determinant of job satisfaction (for example, Seo *et al.*, 2004; Ellickson and Logsdon, 2001; Karatepe *et al.*, 2003; Ting, 1997). Al-Fadley (1996), in his research among 269 police officers in the Cairo Police Force, found a significant association between salary and fringe benefits and overall levels of job satisfaction. And among Kuwaiti managers and employees in the 15 government sectors, Al-Enezi (2000) found salary and recognition to be the strongest predictors of job satisfaction.

It is worth noting that a considerable amount of money is required to meet physiological needs described by Maslow's theory, or a hygiene factor as described by Herzberg's theory. For example, as Maslow (1943) suggested, physiological needs, with provision of sufficient wages for the fulfilment of basic needs for life being one of them, cause dissatisfaction when an employee's needs have not been met. These unsatisfied needs negatively affect employee motivation. To this end, it is important for organisations (managers and decision-makers) to pay high attention to employee needs. That is, if the decision-makers in an organisation know the needs of the employees, they can motivate them through suitable compensation packages, proper job design, and appropriate management policy.

Organisations sometimes utilise a combination of monetary and non-monetary benefits in order to recognise and reward individuals' contributions. For example, recognition and rewards for a job well done by individuals are often among the top motivators of employees. Researchers like Persson *et al.* (1993) and Koch (1990) consider recognition to be one of the key factors affecting the level of job satisfaction, regardless of occupational level.

Furthermore, issues related to fairness and equity within the organisation were found to be important. For instance, organisations, when dealing with provisions such as salary

and rewards, should keep in mind that individuals often compare their job input-output relative to those of others inside the organisation. Handy (1993) indicates that a high level of pay is not often an issue in many cases, but fair and equitable levels which are based on a comparison made by workers is. As Adam's (1963) equity theory suggests, satisfaction is the result of social comparison with respect to relevant referents. Fairness and equal treatment have a great impact on increasing job satisfaction. Consequently, if pay or benefits are used to motivate workers or have any positive influence, it should be felt to be fair and equitable. Janssen (2001) states that there is not much research examining the influence of perceptions about workplace fairness, and other workplace variables, and the resulting impact on job outcomes.

(2) Nature of the Work

Nature of the work (often referred to as job characteristics) emerged as the second strongest determinant of employee job satisfaction. This finding shows that satisfaction with the job requires satisfaction with different aspects of that job, including variety in the skills and activities required by the roles, job significance and its impact on others, and autonomy in performing work. The work itself might provide opportunities for creativity and task variety, allowing employees to increase their knowledge and change in responsibility. Consistent with this study, job characteristics have been widely regarded as a major factor in determining job satisfaction (e.g. Herzberg *et al.*, 1959; Hackman and Oldham, 1975; Judge and Church, 2000; Wong *et al.*, 1998). Furthermore, Luthans (2005) considers the most important influence on a person's job satisfaction to be the experience coming from the nature of the work.

Job variety plays an important role in the development and enhancement of an employee's skills and knowledge. The results show that DPF employees did not like routine work. In addition, those who claimed to have jobs requiring the use of a number of skills were significantly more satisfied than those who did not. The nature of police work, which requires strict rules and procedures, might allow only minimum freedom for employees to generate innovative solutions and more creative ideas in the execution of

their tasks. Hackman and Oldham (1980) stressed that increasing employees' satisfaction requires expanding the content of the job by providing a variety of tasks for employees.

Employees' perception of job significance was significantly associated with increased levels of job satisfaction. This was consistent with the findings of Reiner and Zhao (1999), who suggested that police officers' satisfaction could be enhanced if they perceived a high degree of job significance.

The findings also show that in order to increase levels of employee satisfaction, it is necessary to provide a clear job description with a defined set of roles and responsibilities. This clarity helps employees to achieve organisational goals and expectations and may decrease their level of job stress. The literature shows that employees who have a clear understanding of their job roles are at ease, and are less likely to commit errors within their jobs (Bedeian and Armenakis, 1981). As with Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory, when individuals know precisely what is required and expected from them, the provision of a job description serves as a motivator. Police workers, as a result, will be more able to achieve the security system's goals.

The findings also show that the DPF employees place much importance on jobs that provide discretion and freedom in managing the work. Among 22 different occupations, police work was found to be greater in terms of job satisfaction than others as a result of higher levels of authority and autonomy given to the employees, in addition to job security, complexity and variety of work, and utilisation of ability (Cacioppe and Mock, 1985). The job enrichment technique suggested by Herzberg (1966) increases levels of employee satisfaction by increasing individuals' responsibilities, authority and freedom, as well as reducing the amount of supervision to which individuals are subjected, and introducing more challenging and exacting tasks. Bryson *et al.* (2004) state that job satisfaction is closely linked to the objective features of an individual's working experience, including features over which employers have control. Green (2002) maintains that job satisfaction has been in decline in Britain since the early 1990s, the main reason being a lack of task discretion, which is a factor that employers have some

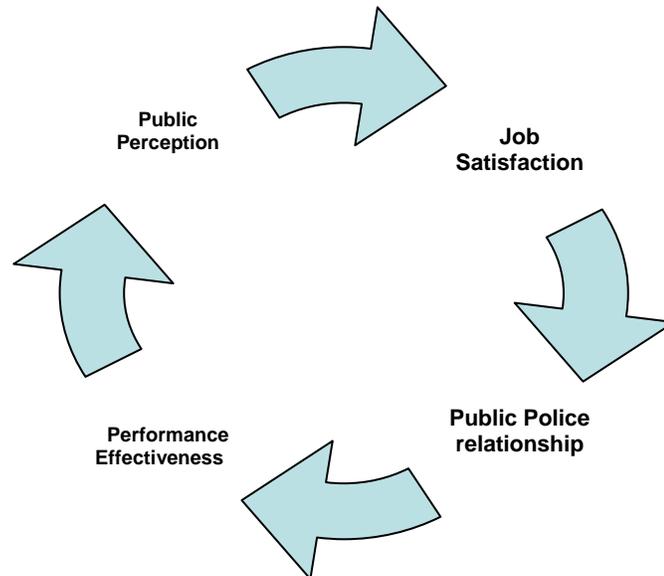
control over. The general feeling is that the DPF workers perceive managers with a high job level or rank as controlling most of the organisational activities and they, as police workers, have to blindly follow managers' orders. Autonomy could be viewed within a broader sense and be integrated into the efforts to develop and empower people in general. Accordingly, a beneficial proposal would be that the DPF needs to practise more effective motivating managerial strategies through implementing more decentralisation and empowerment policies, which are likely to lead to a higher job satisfaction level.

(3) Public Perception

This finding shows that the majority of the DPF workers believe that they were viewed favourably by the public, and this good image reflects the effective services provided. Consistent with the current finding, Fosam *et al.* (1998) found perceived public perception to be one of the key predictors of job satisfaction among police. The literature clearly shows that satisfied customers may well result in satisfied employees (Rust *et al.*, 1996). This is particularly applicable in public service-providing organisations, where employees have direct contact with customers, as is the case in police forces. When employees are satisfied with their jobs and work environment, they take pride in their work and are motivated to provide a high quality service to their customers, who are members of the public (Fosam *et al.*, 1998).

It has also been reported that police relationships with the public and the quality of their services are greatly influenced by how police feel about their job; this, in turn, is influenced by how they think they are seen by the public (Yates and Pillai, 1996). This suggests that public perception could act as both an antecedent and a consequence of job satisfaction at the same time. Figure 9.1 illustrates the relationship between public perception and job satisfaction among public service provider organisations such as the police force. This highlights the criticality of fostering a healthy relationship with the public to maintain a positive public image, in order to increase both their level of satisfaction and effectiveness in performing their roles as crime fighters and service providers.

Figure 9.1: The Dynamic Relationship between Public Perception and Job Satisfaction in Police Sectors



In spite of the great attention given nowadays to identifying the determinants of public satisfaction toward the police force, little research has been conducted on this topic (Yim and Schafer, 2008). The current author (Abdulla, 2004), in his study of measuring public satisfaction toward the DPF among 201 service users in the UAE with different nationalities, found that respondents were overwhelmingly very satisfied (80%) with the DPF services and employees' performance. Significant association was reported between public satisfaction and a variety of different factors including the effectiveness of the police function of crime control, traffic safety, and police visibility. It was concluded then, that any commitment towards achieving public satisfaction requires an improvement in employees' performance, which could be obtained by improving the effectiveness of communications with the public (Abdulla, 2004). Johnson (1993:2) argues that:

“Police, more than any other public service agency, must have the support of the community if they hope to effectively perform their roles as service providers and crime fighters. ... Without the support of citizens ... the police would be incapable of doing their jobs on a day to day basis”.

Dantzker (1992) states that job satisfaction is especially important to police work with respect to job performance. Likewise, Williams (2002) maintains that surveys of police attitudes help police administrators to recognise that officers' job satisfaction is closely related to better job performance and motivation, which in turn positively affect service quality.

In general, we have to keep in mind the important fact that due to the duties and responsibilities set for the police and the allocated power by the authorities, a cultural fear may have been encouraged that might prevent the public from complaining about police conduct or the quality of the service provided. Accordingly, creating an effective complaint system that allows any citizen to file complaints against any member of the DPF would be a good way to identify negative public views about police work. Targeting such weaknesses and problems would increase public satisfaction toward the police and enhance the public-police relationship.

(4) Organisational Policy and Strategy

This research underlines the importance of the organisational policy in the workplace with regard to achieving employee job satisfaction. These organisational policies and strategies include: setting rules and regulations, having moral values, being less bureaucratic, focusing on internal and external customers, and the provision of job descriptions. Imbalances and deficiencies in these elements have a significant influence on other factors that have been proved to influence job satisfaction. According to Locke (1976), clear policies and procedures play an important role in understanding organisational goals; otherwise, ambiguity can be a great source of dissatisfaction and frustration. Although organisational policies are intended to be interpreted in the same way all of the time, policies must be flexible in order to adapt to rapidly changing situations (Betts, 1983).

Police services have undergone significant reform (Dantzker, 1999), and, as a result, management and organisational policies and practices have changed, in an attempt to increase efficiency, effectiveness and accountability. Papasolomou (2006) states that

organisations with a bureaucratic style are not only associated with employees' dissatisfaction, but will experience the greatest difficulty in achieving customer satisfaction.

The findings of this study show the importance of job security in the workplace. This finding is parallel to a study by Carlan (2007), who examined job satisfaction among 1,114 police officers from 16 municipal departments in Alabama, and revealed job security to be one of the influential factors. According to Cacioppe and Mock (1985), police work is greater in terms of job satisfaction than others because it provides more job security. There was a positive relationship between age and years of experience in the current study, indicating that the DPF provide a fairly level standard of job security, which could be considered as strong contribution to employees' satisfaction in the workplace.

The study results also show that organisational constraints such as having an inadequate or unsafe workplace and uncomfortable working conditions, negatively affect employees' job satisfaction. Although working conditions are not directly a part of the actual employment, they constitute an important aspect of it. It stands to reason, that if employees' motivation to achieve organisational goals is high, but working conditions act as a barrier to attaining that goal, then the result will be frustration and dissatisfaction. Al-Fadley (1996) found that adverse working conditions in police organisations negatively affected the amount of satisfaction among police officers, and researchers like Peters and O'Connor (1988), Fosam *et al.* (1998), and Hochwarter (2006) all identify that organisational constraints may be important variables of employee attitudes, motivation and performance. Removing organisational obstacles sends a message that management are willing to improve the work environment, which in turn contributes to increased levels of employee satisfaction, motivation, and commitment to the organisation (Brown and Mitchell, 1993).

Recently, the race between law breakers and the police has increased. That is, law breakers use any possible idea and new technology to commit their crimes successfully.

Thus, if the public feels that the police cannot win the battle against offenders, because of a shortage of equipment or even inadequate tools, this might create a source of dissatisfaction within society generally. According to Jex and Gudanowski (1992), a lack of equipment and facilities will contribute to poor productivity, frustration, job dissatisfaction and turnover (Griffeth *et al.*, 2000). Therefore, the police sectors should pay attention to these issues, and make suitable conditions available in order to enable the police to perform their work successfully.

Employees' concern about receiving complaints from the public was found to affect job satisfaction. Hence, the DPF needs to provide its employees with all the basic information they need about their customers, to enable the employees to perform their work more efficiently, and meet customer expectations without receiving any serious complaints. According to Mellahi and Eyuboglu (2001), customer focus was found as one of the critical success factors for TQM implementation in Turkey.

(5) Relationship with Co-workers

The findings reflect the importance of social relations in the workplace on employee job satisfaction. Maslow (1970) considers this issue to be one of a third category called social needs. In this category, Maslow refers to the need for belonging and love that employees require in order to be fulfilled; this draws attention to the importance of interpersonal relationships and socialisation in overall job satisfaction. Vroom (1964) indicates that individuals who are in isolated positions have a higher turnover rate than those in positions that involve a certain amount of interaction.

The DPF employees felt that they were part of a team, and that contact with their colleagues indicates a supportive and constructive relationship between them. In Al-Enezi's (2000) studies among 408 Kuwaiti managers and employees in government sectors, it was found that relationships with colleagues were the main source of job satisfaction. The Islamic religion emphasises strong relationships between groups of people whenever and wherever they exist. Islamic scholars indicate that a healthy degree of competition among the individual workers, or groups of workers, stimulates their drive

to achieve either personal or organisational goals. According to Al-Bahi (1996), the goal of life is not only living itself, but struggling to introduce the message of values, co-operation and love. The importance of relationships is consistent with previous research in Western cultures as well. For example, researchers such as Ting (1997), and Ellickson and Logsdon (2001), found that positive relationships with co-workers resulted in increased job satisfaction. And Cuming (1993:348) states that a good and adequate relationship between the workers themselves is a key factor in high morale, which leads to increased levels of job satisfaction. He added that “*no matter how well paid and interesting jobs are, if the people performing them do not get on well together and respect each other’s abilities, then morale will be adversely affected*”.

Based on the importance of team spirit in police work, police sectors could be seen as being more motivating by practising a philosophy that adopts working in a professional and secure team. A major point in building a team is to meet the needs of individuals, as well as groups, in the team. Teamwork works best in organisational cultures characterised by a concern for achievement. To be good team players, police managers should be seen to be effective, supportive, co-operative, human-oriented, analytical, planners and promoters of team concepts. This necessitates removing barriers between workers, enhancing honest competition, and encouraging friendship. Effective interaction between workers can more easily achieve organisational goals. According to Lambert *et al.* (2001), organisations must participate in the integration of individuals in order to find group cohesion among individuals and departments within the organisation. This, in turn, increases job satisfaction, job involvement and decreases the turnover rate.

(6) Supervision

The study findings show that supervisors, or direct managers, who follow up problems, participate with employees, have good communication skills, provide necessary resources and appropriate management are more capable of satisfying their employees. The supervision factor reflects the extent to which a person derives satisfaction from his/her relationship with his/her immediate superior (Rollinson, 2008). Rollinson (2008:143) states that satisfaction with supervision is usually linked to two aspects of supervisor

behaviour: (1) interpersonal support, whereby the supervisor is interested in the person's welfare, and; (2) technical support, which is the extent to which the supervisor provides technical and task-related help and guidance.

Many research findings from Western countries have reported a positive association between supervision and job satisfaction (e.g. Ting, 1997; Seo *et al.*, 2004; Bennett, 1997). Vroom (1964) maintains that the supervisor who is competent, democratic, considerate to his subordinates, and has a good relationship with his employees will cause the workers to have positive feeling towards their jobs. However, when relations, trust and communication with the supervisors are poor, employees may feel stressed with this relationship and this may eventually lead to dissatisfaction (Wech, 2002). According to Brunetto and Farr-Wharton (2003:59), previous research concludes that police workers *“will feel most satisfied and committed when they are involved in decision making, feel supported by superiors and receive adequate levels of feedback about their job tasks, performance and expectations”*.

It was noticed that the general police organisational culture is based on the fact that the most important decisions are taken and enforced on a unilateral basis by the top police leaders/majors rather than there being a collaborative decision process as happens in most commercial organisations. It was apparent that DPF employees want greater involvement from their supervisors in work related-decisions, since this involvement could increase their job status and could allow for more interaction with others. Participation in decision-making can lead to engagement in OCB such as helping co-workers in their jobs when such help is needed (Porter *et al.*, 1996). The study by Al-Fadley (1996) of the Cairo police force, found that a lack of participation in decision-making and poor communications between officers, negatively affected employees' motivation and satisfaction.

Issues related to job feedback are also an important element in organisational development. That is, supervisors who adequately inform subordinates about their performance expectations, and discuss any work-related or personal problems, can

improve employees' job performance and increase satisfaction levels. The relevant literature on job satisfaction indicates that feedback is one of the important sources leading to satisfaction. For example, Reiner and Zhao (1999) looked at job satisfaction in the US Air Force Security Police, and found that feedback was the strongest predictor of job satisfaction.

Morris and Feldman (1996) indicate that employees are expected to show positive emotions to their customers, but close supervision and effective communication is needed to minimise any emotional dissonance that may lead to job dissatisfaction. In fact, the relationship between satisfaction and supervision is a seriously sensitive issue, particularly in an environment in which supervisors could hinder their subordinates from receiving a certain allowance, or perhaps prevent expatriates from gaining a recommendation that would allow them to renew their contracts. Taking this important issue concerning subordinates into consideration might significantly affect satisfaction levels.

(7) Promotion Opportunity

This finding suggests that the DPF employees pay a great deal of attention to promotion, which significantly affects their job satisfaction. According to Herzberg *et al.* (1959), opportunities for growth and advancement are strong motivators, and hence lead to more motivation and job satisfaction. The finding of this study is parallel with those from previous Western studies which found promotional opportunities to be positively related to job satisfaction (for example, Ting, 1997; Fosam *et al.*, 1998; Ellickson and Logsdon, 2001).

Limiting promotion, or even having unclear promotion policies, will negatively affect employees (Schneider *et al.*, 1992; Travers and Cooper, 1993). Organisations that do not provide good promotion opportunities for their employees create an influential motivator for employees to decide to switch jobs. Vroom (1982) argues that promotional opportunity is a goal desired by most workers. Employees would be satisfied if they were convinced that their organisation, or even department, promoted and hired workers in

appropriate positions through placing the right person in the right position. Motivation works best when the employment matches the psychological needs of the people (Likert, 1967). The employees' concern is not only over the amount of financial rewards, but also regarding the social implications associated with promotion. That is, when the employee is promoted, he/she will gain an increase in monthly income and an upgrade in social position.

Promotion opportunities should be characterised by fairness and equity which are important to any employee in any organisation. The findings of this study correspond with those outcomes reported in the literature with respect to the negative impact of inequity in promotion on employee motivation (Tyagi, 1991). Indeed, employees usually tend to compare themselves with employees who have similar qualifications, and who have served a similar number of years in the organisation. Therefore, promotion needs to be fairly distributed to employees, and should be based on productivity, competency and achievement. The promotion system in the DPF requires the fulfillment of three conditions: (1) the annual report of the employee's efficiency should be not less than very good; (2) the expiration of the period set for promotion, and (3) the availability of vacancies. However, an employee can receive a special promotion in the case of services provided for outstanding work. For example, on many remarkable occasions H.H Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum, UAE Vice President and Prime Minister, and Ruler of Dubai, has rewarded DPF employees for their exceptional performance (Al Bayan Newspaper, 2009).

For an organisation like the DPF, it is important to provide good channels of communication, and well laid out administrative procedures, to deal with employee complaints and grievances in an effective and careful way. Failure to handle employee grievances and complaints effectively could result in an employee becoming dissatisfied with his/her management, and eventually may lead to the organisation losing the employee. It is essential for the DPF to prepare an efficient promotion policy, which will be an important motivating factor in improving the job satisfaction of the current employees, as well as in attracting younger Emiratis to join this field of work.

(8) Performance Appraisal

The results show that employees' perception of their performance evaluation has a significant influence on their job satisfaction. Although most managers and their subordinates dislike performance appraisal, there are many benefits. For example, performance appraisal reports can be used as a resource for administrative decisions, employees' development, and research to determine the effectiveness of organisational practices and procedures (Spector, 2008). If supervisors succeed in implementing a clear performance appraisal system, it will lead to increased job performance, higher levels of job satisfaction, and commitment to the organisation (Pettijohn *et al.*, 2001).

Indeed, fairness perceptions with relation to performance appraisal processes have been considered to be an important factor (Bartol *et al.*, 2001). According to Spector (2008), perceptions of fairness are important determinants of people's behaviour and reactions to work. Yousef (1999) states that there were positive associations between the perceived effectiveness of performance appraisal systems, and job satisfaction and job performance. However, if the performance evaluation process is felt to be unfair or encounters ignorance from organisational management, employees will express dissatisfaction, in turn, leading to an increased turnover rate. Weiss *et al.* (1999) conclude that happiness, guilt, anger and pride are influenced by fairness perceptions, which are associated with affective well-being (Brief and Weiss, 2002). Organ and Ryan (1995) found that employees who believe they are fairly treated will be more likely to exhibit OCB that benefits the organisation more than those who are not. Thus, fair procedures in performance appraisal often result in a fair outcome, while unfair decision processes yield unfair outcomes. Adams' (1963) equity theory suggests that perceived inequity, as a result of comparison of an individual's input to output ratio, relative to another's input to output ratio, will cause unfairness perceptions in both. The individuals with the higher or lower ratio may experience guilty and angry feelings respectively, while equal ratios will yield feelings of satisfaction.

Spector (2008) indicates that there are other factors that influence performance ratings such as the rater's mood, errors, and cultural issues. In Japan, for example, performance

The first step in evaluating job performance is to develop a performance criterion that defines good and poor performance. To this effect, many researchers suggest using multiple perspective ratings in order to minimise the biases of individuals (Spector, 2006). Rating conducted by peers, self, and subordinates can be a useful complement to supervisor ratings, and can be helpful in providing feedback for employees' development (Maurer *et al.*, 2001). The use of multiple perspectives for manager feedback has been called 360 degree feedback (Baldwin and Padgett, 1993). In practice, this means performance appraisal from the perspectives of supervisors, co-workers, internal or external customers, and even subordinates (for managers being appraised). According to Organ *et al.* (2006), the implementation of the 360° model increases the frequency and prevalence of OCB. Research has shown that giving employees the opportunity to sit down with supervisors and discuss appraisals openly can lead to better attitudes (Korsgaard and Roberson, 1995). Brunetto and Farr-Wharton (2003) state that a number of police sectors have undertaken changes in management practice, including appraisal and evaluation procedures.

The author could not source information on the current performance appraisal system practised by the DPF. Gilliland and Langdon (1998) suggest specific practices to be undertaken in the evaluation process which can enhance employees' effectiveness and perception of fairness (see Table 9.2).

Table 9.2 : Fairness in the Appraisal Process

Determinant	Description	Recommended Practice
Voice	Have employees provide input into the appraisal process.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Have employees complete self appraisals. ▪ Train employees to share information with supervisors. ▪ Train supervisors to solicit information from employees.
Consistency	Ensure consistent standards when evaluating different employees.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Ensure consistency with respect to advance notice, employee input, and collection of performance information. ▪ Train supervisors to promote consistency. ▪ Standardise and formalise appraisal process and instrument.
Bias	Minimise supervisor biases during the appraisal process.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Train supervisors and standardise appraisal instrument. ▪ Use multiplier raters and 360° feedback. ▪ Increase supervisor accountability by having rating reviewed by supervisor's peers or higher-level management.
Familiarity	Ensure raters are familiar with the employee's work.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Use supervisor diaries to record employee performance. ▪ Solicit input from co-workers and secondary supervisors.
Relevance	Ensure appraisal ratings are job-related.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Ensure the appraisal system is related to the job.
Communication	Communicate performance expectations prior to the appraisal process	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Inform employees about performance standards and how they will be evaluated. ▪ Inform employees of any changes during evaluation period.
Feedback	Avoid surprises (unexpected negative evaluations) in appraisal ratings.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Provide continuous feedback during evaluation period. ▪ Ensure employees have reasonable expectations going into the appraisal process.
Outcomes	Base administrative decisions on ratings	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Match administrative decisions (such as merit increases, bonuses, promotions) to appraisal ratings. ▪ Communicate structure of incentive system to employees.

Source: Gilliland and Langdon (1998:229)

One thing to consider at this stage is that most International Key Performance Indicators (KPI) might require a great deal of customisation to fit the organisational culture of the DPF since there are some major cultural differences between the origin of the international KPI and this region's culture.

(9) Professional Development

Professional development clearly emerged as a determinant of job satisfaction. This aims to increase the professional capabilities of people by providing learning and continuous development opportunities. Consistent with the literature, this study has confirmed a significant positive association between professional development and satisfaction, along with motivation. For example, the theories of Maslow and Herzberg both consider professional development to be a need that satisfies at a higher level and also acts as a real motivator. Although everyone in the organisation has the knowledge and skills to do their work effectively, the performance of individuals is subject to continuous improvement in their knowledge and skills. To this effect, professional development depends on a number of factors such as training, fairness and equity, ability utilisation, and job rotation.

Training aims to improve present and future work skills and behaviour. Organisations which provide enough work-related training and adequate resources help employees to develop their abilities to improve their performance and productivity. Since there is a direct link between job satisfaction and the job enrichment features of the work environment, the focus of training and workplace improvement efforts should be on employee task assignment and empowerment (Reiner and Zhao, 1999). The Lieutenant General, Dhahi Khalfan Tamim, Commander-in-Chief of the DPF, insists that police sector employees needed to be specialised in various fields to solve problems and fight different crimes more effectively (Abdulla, 2007).

The DPF employees believe that fairness and equity in the opportunities for professional development for all employees is important in the effort to create a more competent workforce that can better achieve organisational goals. Learning and development is not confined to a certain category of staff, since all members of the organisation serve the organisation's goals.

Ability utilisation was also shown by researchers to have a strong impact on job satisfaction and work innovation. This is because employees desire jobs that allow them

to make good use of their skills and knowledge. Vroom (1982) states that individuals gain satisfaction from jobs that require the use of their abilities, as compared to jobs in which they feel their abilities are not being used. Shipton *et al.* (2004) maintain that employees are most likely to contribute their knowledge and skills in order to innovate, in situations where they feel positively towards their jobs and their organisations.

Organisations which provide employees with the opportunities to work on different tasks, as a part of their orientation programme, enable those employees to learn the importance of their work and how it affects the work of their colleagues in the organisation. This may help in exploring the issue of which departments/tasks can best utilise their own skills. For example, job rotation is of great help for newcomers, as it introduces them to the different functions of the organisation within which they are working. Utilising job redesign strategies such as job rotation and enrichment could be successful approaches to make jobs more interesting. This can help police managers to be mindful of workers' preferences, competencies and interests. The DPF managers could easily do this, as it costs no money and lies within their area, even in the current security system.

It is important to mention that training and career development in large organisation is usually difficult and when it comes to the DPF, it appears that they are facing this problem, since not all DPF employees are receiving proper training in their field.

Most of the departments in the DPF provide introductory training programmes (orientation) for their newly-recruited employees; however, there is always the question of the efficiency and effectiveness of such orientation programmes. Therefore, it is recommended to provide flip rotation programmes, whereby a new employee can embark on the orientation programme once he/she has completed a certain period of time with the assigned job and is able to draw a complete picture of the nature of the work. Also this concept is applied in respect of the provision of specialised training, in which respect it is recommended that in house training would be more beneficial than training which is outsourced.

(10) Communication

This study underlines the importance of communication and interaction in relation to job satisfaction. It is obvious that communication within the job environment plays a positive role in increasing employees' motivation, job satisfaction, job involvement and performance. According to Johlke and Duhan (2000), effective communication is not only linked with job performance, it can also influence the level of job satisfaction which, in turn, can cause lower turnover amongst employees. Fosam *et al.* (1998) found communication to be a key predictor of job satisfaction in the South Yorkshire Police Department in Britain.

Available communication tools and equipment are important to accomplishment, as well as enhancing communication between workers. It is likely that organisational efficiency may be enhanced by the management identifying and addressing specific issues that may be compromising the effectiveness of communication processes, in addition to the mode used to convey work information such as bulletins, circulars and orders. Using communication tools intensively can also lead to minimum human interaction such as face-to-face meeting between the employees and this might create tension between co-workers.

The results also identify the importance of the communication processes on the ability of police officers to help workers to communicate easily within the workplace. This can help police to counterbalance work stresses and enhance relationships with co-workers. Therefore, it is important for police sectors to create and maintain an organisational culture characterised by openness and transparency, with multi-dimensional channels of communication. According to Lucas (1995), the most effective communication occurs when it is achieved in a multi-dimensional way that involves all types of communication. Once communication has been identified as a critical factor for the functioning of policing units, managers may become more effective by familiarising themselves with the communication practices in their organisations.

(11) Job Stress

Miner (1992) and Davey *et al.* (2001) stated that police work is one of the most stressful and dangerous jobs, where job satisfaction is relatively low. This is based on the fact that police work encounters many stressful experiences related to the nature of the profession, involving critical moments such as risks and crimes. Also, the absence of clear and organised systems of work exposes police workers to miscommunication with colleagues, the organisation and the general public. Previous studies have also found job stress to be associated with job dissatisfaction (for example, Fairbrother and Warn, 2003; Fletcher and Payne, 1980).

Police sectors could reduce job stress by providing job standards, an indication of the scope of practice, and job descriptions. Such strategies might help to decrease individuals' workloads, alleviate anxiety, raise psychological status, and search for effective means for supporting co-workers, not only in order to be productive, but also to feel good. According to Herzberg *et al.* (1959), an important precondition of job satisfaction is that the individual finds the work itself personally interesting and meaningful. Additionally, one of the causes of stress and reduced productivity and innovation among employees is being given some tasks which are outside their specialised field.

The DPF employees believe that job stress not only negatively impacts on their job satisfaction, but can also affect their social life in general. Indeed, many researchers have linked work-family conflict to job stress. For example, Allen *et al.* (2000) conducted a meta-analysis and found a negative correlation between work-family conflict and job satisfaction. This pattern was found for both men and women. However, causality could not be assumed in cross-sectional studies, as family conflicts could cause job stress as much as job stress could cause family conflict.

Also it is important to mention that due to the military nature of the DPF, employees are sometimes placed under a huge level of pressure and stress which can have negative

impacts on the personal lives of the employees and automatically reduce the productivity level of employees.

9.3.1.2 Personal Determinants of Job Satisfaction

The findings of regression analysis demonstrated that four of the personal variables showed a statistically significant effect on job satisfaction. These were (in order of importance) nationality, sex, shift work, and public contact. On the other hand, age, marital status, educational level, job level, and length of experience were not significant predictors of job satisfaction.

Below is a list of the significant determinants of job satisfaction as found in the current study:

1. Nationality

Employees' nationality was found to be the strongest personal predictor of job satisfaction among the DPF employees after controlling for other personal and environmental variables. The results indicated that non-UAE employees are more satisfied than UAE employees. The nationality variable was examined in relation to job satisfaction because of large numbers of expatriates in the UAE. Indeed, this research is one of the few studies in the Gulf region to have investigated the effect of native nationality compared to non-native nationality on job satisfaction among public sector employees. The non-UAE employees left their original home countries to achieve better living conditions and higher earnings, realising that their chances in the UAE were greater compared to opportunities in their countries. To this effect, it is likely that they were more ready to follow rules and regulations and be satisfied about their job. On the other hand, UAE employees' expectations and ambitions tend to be higher compared to their expatriate counterparts, and therefore, they always expect to receive more benefits and better treatment than others. In addition, the wide variation in the salary scales of the UAE employees among different organisations across the UAE has led UAE nationals in particular, to compare themselves with other local workers outside their organisation in

terms of salary, benefits and rewards and also the authorities and responsibilities allocated to them. These trends have led UAE national employees to expect more from their organisations. This finding is similar with that of Al-Naji (1993), who studied the Saudi context and found that foreign employees were more satisfied than Saudi employees with their work environment. Likewise, a study conducted among Al Bayan newspaper workers in the UAE found that the UAE local employees were less satisfied with their jobs than their counterparts (Abdul-Hamid, 2004).

2. Sex

The sex variable emerged as the second significant personal predictor of job satisfaction after controlling for other personal and environmental variables. More specifically, female employees in the DPF perceived higher levels of job satisfaction than male employees. This finding is parallel to those of Bender *et al.* (2005), Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Posa, (2003), Clark (1997) and Dantzker (1994), who all found that female employees have significantly higher levels of job satisfaction compared to male employees. Likewise in research carried out by Aremu and Adeyoju (2003) among female officers in Nigeria, it emerged that higher job satisfaction was reported than that of their male counterparts.

Although police sectors are traditionally male-dominated, it is expected that females might be less satisfied than their male counterparts. However, this trend changed when women entered the labour market. Indeed, there are some reasons why female workers exhibit a higher level of satisfaction than men. These are as follows:

- Firstly, providing better work conditions and offering job flexibility for female workers by the organisation are important factors affecting their job satisfaction. Lately, the UAE government has given a great deal of attention to women workers and considers them to be true partners with men in the development process in all fields. Thus, all means of support have been given to women in order to ensure they are treated fairly and equally in the workplace. With the increase in the number of women entering the workforce, statistics around the world have shown that women have become increasingly economically active.

Consequently, women's improved position in the labour force has increased their satisfaction (Clark, 1997). Following the UAE government recommendations to provide adequate facilities and improve work conditions for female workers, the DPF and the majority of government sector organisations offer flexibility for women workers and special facilities including breastfeeding hours, maternity leave, and separate offices for female workers. In addition, a number of nurseries have been established in some public sectors in order to allow women workers to breastfeed their infants during working hours and to save the additional expense of nursery fees. Also, some public sectors in the UAE suggested establishing a female club in order to increase social activities between female workers. This is consistent with other studies, which showed that higher satisfaction levels were achieved among female workers with organisations providing better work conditions and offering job flexibility (Bender *et al.*, 2005; García-Bernal *et al.*, 2005).

- Secondly, in the UAE culture, whereas men's jobs are considered to be a primary source of the family income to cover marriage and daily expenses including housing, transportation and children's school fees, women's jobs are considered to be of secondary importance and are viewed as providing additional family income. This has raised the male employees' expectations relative to female expectations.
- Thirdly, jobs involved with social services and dealing with the public, for example, in the police sector, enable female workers to maintain a state of psychological well-being; therefore, they remain satisfied despite the occupational environment risks (Krimmel and Tartaro, 1999). Female police, in addition, were found to exhibit less burnout towards the public community in terms of concern and treatment (Johnson, 1991).

3. *Shift work*

Employees who do not work on a shift basis have been found to be more satisfied than employees who work in shifts. In common with this finding, Davey *et al.* (2001), who conducted a study (n=749) of an Australian state police service, found that those who worked shifts reported lower levels of job satisfaction compared to those who did not work shifts. The police sector is one of the emergency occupations responsible for ensuring the security and safety of the public. Therefore, the nature of police duties requires services to be available 24 hours; thus, it requires the use of three to four shifts of workers to cover the whole day. In the case of the DPF, employees in some departments work standard schedules of eight hours a day (7:30 am to 2:30 pm), five days a week. In other departments, employees work non-standard schedules (shift work) which include evenings, nights and weekends. Indeed, it is not surprising that job satisfaction would differ between employees who work on a shift basis and those who do not. As police work deals with un-controllable and unpredictable duties, some employees do not prefer to work on a shift basis. However, sometimes employees prefer to work shifts because of shift allowances, and longer days mean more days off.

Studies found that working shifts causes mental and physical health problems. For example, Daus *et al.* (1998) found night shift work causes sleep disturbance, either through being unable to fall asleep or having poor quality of sleep. These, in turn, lead to physical problems such as stomach upsets and anxiety (Spector, 2006). Shift work does not only have serious health effects, it can also cause social problems, by its isolation of people from their family and friends; for example, shift-work has a negative effect on marriages and impedes child care responsibilities. Bohle and Tilley (1998) carried out a study among hospital nurses concerning their feelings about shift work, concluding that the best predictor of dissatisfaction was conflict between work and non-work activities. That is, employees who reported high levels of conflict tended to report the greatest dissatisfaction with shift work. Furthermore, police employees working in shifts are particularly in the public eye including the media; therefore, the general public are more likely to criticise and complain about their work (Davey *et al.*, 2001).

4. *Public Contact*

The status of having contact with the public emerged as a significant personal predictor of job satisfaction after controlling for other personal and environmental variables. The majority of the study sample reported that they dealt with the public. This is expected in a public service sector organisation like the police, where large numbers of employees have direct contact with the general public. The results showed that the DPF employees who had contact with the public or customers were significantly more satisfied than those who did not have that contact. Although previous studies have not investigated this relationship among public sector organisations, Heskett (1997) concludes that there are direct links between customer service variables (satisfaction and loyalty), employee variables (satisfaction, enthusiasm, loyalty, commitment, capability, and internal service quality), and financial results. So, if the public perception is that employees are not satisfied, some wrong assumptions may be made, resulting in decreased sales for the organisation. The new management concepts such as TQM have emphasised on the relationship between customers' and employees' satisfaction (Deming, 1986).

The current study, therefore, suggests that a relationship between the public and employees positively influences employees' satisfaction through increasing the sense of job significance and gaining respect, recognition and prestige from positive public reaction towards them. A large proportion of police employees who deal with the public are involved in activities outside the organisation such as police patrol and traffic safety. Working outside the office, or even outside the organisation, can give them more autonomy and opportunities to be away from monitoring and supervision. Being representatives of the organisation in the community may make them more loyal and committed towards their organisation. In addition, dealing with the public usually requires employees to perform different tasks and activities, which remove the boredom of routine work and provide a sense of refreshment in their labours. Moreover, in countries with an Islamic culture like the UAE, employees like to work on tasks that involve helping other people and consider this issue to be a kind of worship; therefore, they would feel happier and be more satisfied about their work if they were able to be of such service.

- *Personal Factors that do not influence job satisfaction:*

With regard to regression analyses, this research did not find a statistically significant independent association between job satisfaction and each of the following personal variables: age, length of experience, marital status, job level, and educational level.

Despite the common belief, which was supported by previous researchers, that the older and more experienced the employee, the more satisfied he/she is with his/her job (Hoath *et al.*, 1998; Forsyth and Copes, 1994), neither the age, nor years of experience variable was found to be a predictor of job satisfaction in this study, after controlling for other personal and environmental variables. The findings of this research are consistent with previous studies that found no relationship between age and job satisfaction (Bernal *et al.*, 1998; Ting, 1997; Reiner and Zaho, 1999), and between job satisfaction and length of experience in public sector organisations in general (Bedeian *et al.*, 1992; Nestor and Leary, 2000; Clark *et al.*, 1996) and in the police sector in particular (Lee, 2004).

The findings suggest that the DPF employees' expectations and needs are less likely to be influenced by their age or length of service. If employees' important needs such as salary, fringe benefits, fairness, equality and job security were adequately fulfilled, irrespective of their age or length of service, the satisfaction levels would not differ across years of age or service in the organisation.

Marital status did not emerge as a significant predictor in regression analysis after controlling for other personal and environmental variables. This finding is parallel with what has emerged in previous studies which reported that marital status had no effect on job satisfaction (Saiyadain, 1985; Koustelios, 2001; Bilgic, 1998). Similarly, Al-Fadley (1996) found that police officers' marital status had no significant effect on the overall level of job satisfaction. In contrast, some studies found that married employees have greater job satisfaction than single employees (Dawal *et al.*, 2008; Leung *et al.*, 2000; Al-Otaibi, 1992). Married employees are more likely to be psycho-socially stable than divorced or widowed employees; therefore, it is expected that those with stable and

settled lives may express more positive feelings towards their jobs. This is very prominent in Islamic and Arab cultures, where marriage is considered to be an important religious and cultural requirement. On the other hand, married employees have more responsibilities toward their families and have higher life expenses compared to single employees. These play a major role in increasing their expectations in issues related to salary, benefits, promotion and job security, which may remain unfulfilled. Such bi-directional effects of marital status would possibly cancel each other out and the difference between the groups would not be significant.

In addition, job level has not been found to be a significant determinant of job satisfaction. This study found that the DPF employees, whether at supervisory or non-supervisory levels, did not differ in their satisfaction levels. This finding is parallel with that of Aronson *et al.* (2005) who found no relationship between job level and job satisfaction. Similarly, Bretz *et al.* (1994) reported a negligible relationship between job satisfaction and job level. In contrast with previous studies, job level was reported as a predictor of job satisfaction in the following cases: Cranny *et al.* (1992), Bodur (2002), Robie *et al.* (1998). Since higher supervisory levels are linked to better pay, promotion and autonomy, it was argued that job satisfaction increases with an increase of job level. Nevertheless, Lambert *et al.* (2001) stated that younger workers at higher job levels are more likely to be dissatisfied with their jobs. This is because they are more likely to hold higher expectations that may remain unfulfilled, as jobs prove insufficiently challenging or meaningful. The present study suggests that job satisfaction is not influenced by the perceptions of power and authority which are related with the higher job levels. If employees with different job levels were treated equally and fairly in respect of benefits and work policies, they would perceive a similar level of satisfaction. Fairness of organisational policies in appointing employees at higher levels through exclusive reliance on educational level, experience and performance, play a major role in sustaining satisfaction across employees with different job levels. In addition, providing good opportunities for professional development and promotions among those with lower or non-supervisory levels provides a healthy competitive environment and increases their satisfaction levels.

Finally, the educational level variable was not found to be a predictor of job satisfaction after controlling for other personal and environmental variables. This finding is parallel to other researchers' findings such as those of Buzawas (1984), Zaho *et al.* (1999), Jones *et al.* (2005), Carlan (2007), and Yim and Schafer (2008), who all found no significant differences in job satisfaction amongst employees with differing educational levels in police sector organisations. This would imply that employees' educational level does not influence their expectations, despite the fact that some previous research has linked educational level with employees' expectations. In this respect, Janssen (2001) and Johnson and Johnson (2000) found that highly educated employees showed less satisfaction than others with lower educational levels. This might be because highly educated people have very high expectations from their jobs, which usually remain unmet. On the other hand, Al-Ajmi, (2000) and Okpara (2004) found highly educated employees to be more satisfied than employees with a lower level of education. The difference in the findings of the above studies is possibly related to the organisational efforts to meet their employees' expectations. Such organisational attempts to meet employees' expectations, particularly those with higher educational levels, through providing opportunities for promotion or increases in salaries and benefits, significantly raise satisfaction levels. This is supported by the statistically significant positive correlation found between educational level and perception of salary and incentives variables in the current study ($r = 0.071$ $p < .05$). Also, providing chances and facilities for studying such as paid study leave or relief hours would encourage those with lower educational levels to obtain higher degrees and maintain good satisfaction levels among employees with different educational levels.

9.3.2 The Relationship between GJS and Organisational Commitment (OC) and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)

As discussed in Chapter Three, researchers have identified a number of potential consequences of job satisfaction. To this effect, this study proposed a model that examines the relationship between job satisfaction and OC and OCB. More importantly,

the results indicate that there is a positive relationship between GJS, and OC and OCB. Results showed that employees in the DPF were more likely to exhibit OC and OCB when they were satisfied with their job. These findings are consistent with previous research suggesting that job satisfaction has a direct effect on OC and OCB.

(a) Organisational Commitment (OC)

The findings underline the idea that the more employees are satisfied with various facets of the job, the higher is their commitment to the organisation. Satisfied employees can be committed to the organisation as a whole, and their commitment is more stable as it cannot be influenced by day-to-day work events. Employees' OC was evident from their strong desire to remain members of the organisation and not look for better jobs. Committed employees value their membership in the organisation and often develop expectations of continuity. OC influences employees to accept organisational goals and values and make their best efforts for the organisation. It is argued that committed employees are more likely to engage in behaviours that support the organisation. This study found a positive relationship between OC and OCB ($r = 0.466$ $p < 0.01$). On the other hand, low OC incurs high costs resulting from turnover. Employees who have the intention of quitting demonstrate less satisfaction with their employers, believing that the organisation is no longer able to provide them with what they expect.

The link between job satisfaction and OC has received consistent support in the management literature. This result is generally consistent with previous meta-analysis studies which found a significant relationship between OC and satisfaction (Tett and Meyer, 1993; Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran, 2005). Iverson (1996) shows that individuals with high OC associate more with the values and objectives of their organisation, as well as being willing to accept organisational change. Kreitner *et al.* (2002) indicated that supervisors or managers are stimulated to increase job satisfaction among their subordinates in order to achieve higher levels of commitment, which in turn facilitates higher productivity. In the case of the DPF, it is important to periodically review their policies to maintain the status of high job satisfaction; in turn, this helps to

maintain employees' commitment and willingness to help their organisation to be more successful.

(b) Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)

This research makes a significant contribution to understanding the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB, a relationship that has long been known but not well examined. The findings of this research may provide some insights into the practice of effective management in the DPF, especially in efforts to improve the OCB among the employees.

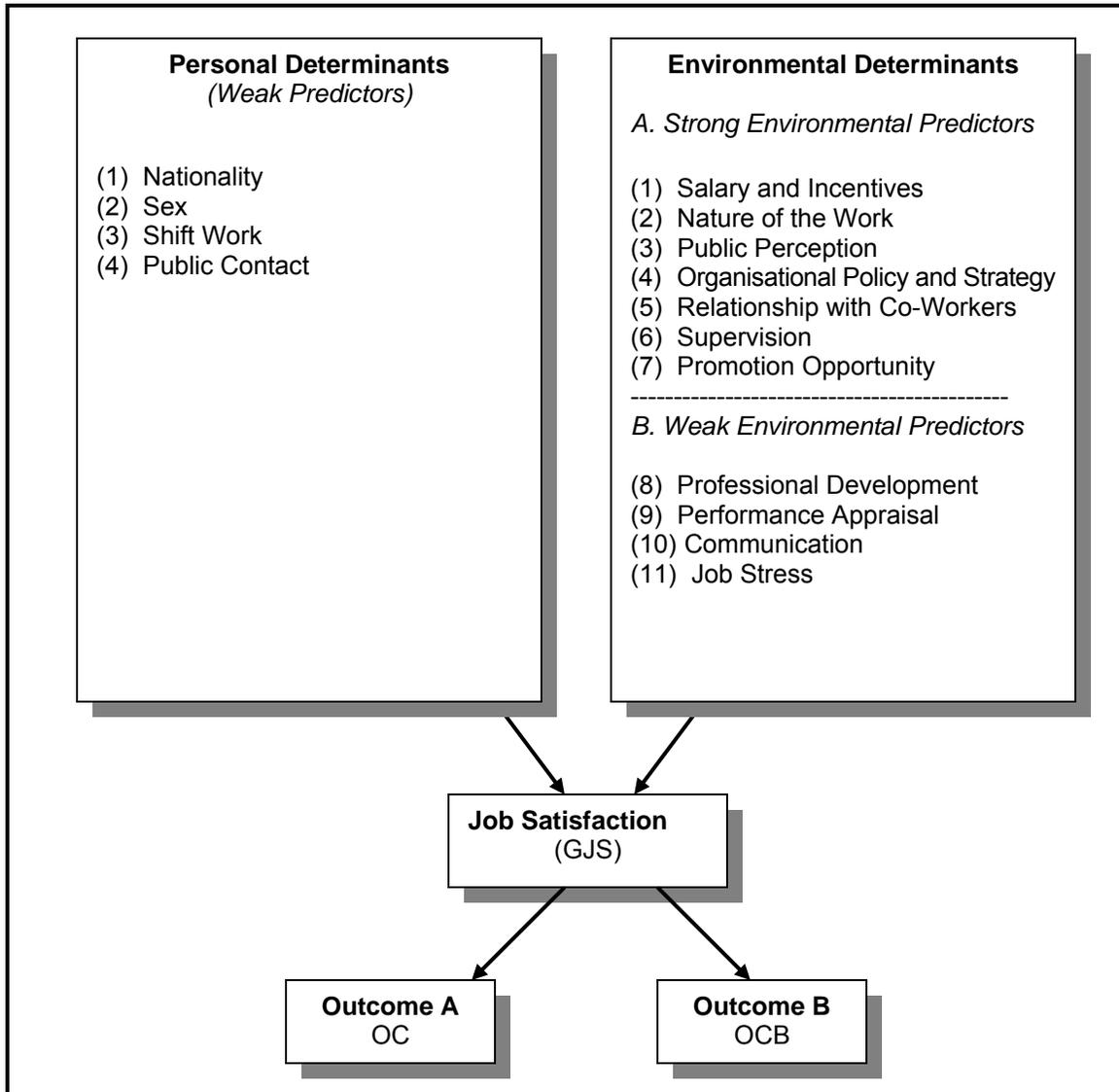
The results confirm that the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB was shown to be significant. This study shows that the DPF employees who were more satisfied were more motivated to show OCB. That is, employees who are happy with their job might be more willing to go beyond what is required of them. It very unlikely that employees deliver an exceptional service when they are not satisfied with their work. Employees' enhancement of job satisfaction through improving various facets of the job leads to improvement of OCB. This increases compliance among employees: that is, doing what is required on the job and following rules, such as coming to work on time and not wasting time. Enhancing OCB also provides potential benefits for the overall work environment. One of these benefits is enhancing the relationship with co-workers. For example, helping a co-worker who has been absent or making suggestions to improve conditions.

This study provides support for those previous research efforts that have clarified the positive relationship between job satisfaction and OCB., as identified in the meta-analyses provided by several scholars (Organ and Ryan, 1995; Hoffman *et al.*, 2007; Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000). Managerial behaviour, therefore, significantly influences employee willingness to exhibit citizenship behaviours, since these behaviours are positively correlated with performance ratings (Allen and Rush, 1998).

Moreover, the positive link between job satisfaction and OCB has several implications for managers, suggesting they should encourage and stimulate OCB in as many ways as possible. This can be done by selecting and retaining employees with high satisfaction, helping to set a clear vision that allows all individuals to clearly understand their roles and how their roles are connected to other individuals, and recognising and rewarding OCB. Managers also need to enhance employee commitment to the organisation and to do this they must examine the issue of fairness in workplace. Some literature suggests that if a lack of fairness is perceived, there is no correlation between job satisfaction and OCB (see Appelbaum *et al.*, 2004). The greater the manager's emphasis on these actions, the more the employees tend to exhibit OCB, which, in turn, will lead to higher quality of service and levels of customer satisfaction.

Based on the above discussion, the model of job satisfaction resulting from this study is illustrated in Figure 9.2.

Figure 9.2: Job Satisfaction Model



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Appendix A1
Glamorgan University Letter

business school



27th June 2005

Human Resources Department
Dubai Police General Head Quarters

To Whom It May Concern:

Dear Sir

RE: JASSEM ABDULLA

The Business School's Departmental Research Programmes Committee, met to consider Mr Abdulla's registration document.

The registration was approved, subject to receiving a letter from the Dubai Police Force, confirming that Mr Abdulla will be able to obtain full access to the information that he may require to assist him in his research degree. Please could you also confirm that you will provide facilities / assistance for Mr Abdulla to accomplish his research.

Should you require any further information, please contact me via email on vjones1@glam.ac.uk or on 00 44 1443 482975.

Yours sincerely

Victoria Jones
Business School Research Office



INVESTOR IN PEOPLE



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Vice-Chancellor - Sir Adrian Webb

Appendix A2
Dubai Police Letter

Dubai Police General H. Q.



القيادة العامة لشرطة دبي

Ref: A/F - 9542
Date: 20th / 07 / 2005

Business School
University of Glamorgan

To whome it may concern

Dear Madam,

With refrence to your letter dated 27th June 2005. Dubai Police General Head Quarters can confirm that **Mr. Jassem M. H. Abdulla** will be able to obtain full access to the information that he may require and also any assistance that the researcher need to accomplish his research degree will be provided.

If you require any further information, please do not hesitate to contact us.

Yours Faithfully,

A blue ink signature of Brigadier, Taresh Eid Al Mansoori, written over a circular official stamp of the Dubai Police.

Brigadier, Taresh Eid Al Mansoori
Director
Gen. Dept. of Human Resources
Dubai Police G.H.Q.

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Appendix B

B1: Arabic Questionnaire



عزيزي المشارك

أنا طالب دراسات عليا أحضر لنيل درجة الدكتوراه في جامعة جلامورجن بالمملكة المتحدة، وأجري حالياً بحثاً دراسياً حول "محددات الرضا الوظيفي لدى العاملين في القيادة العامة لشرطة دبي".

الهدف

الهدف من هذه الدراسة هو إيجاد نموذج حديث لقياس الرضا الوظيفي ينسجم مع ديمغرافية المنطقة وثقافتها العربية الإسلامية، بالإضافة الى تحديد العوامل التي تؤثر على رضا الموظفين في القطاع الحكومي في دولة الإمارات العربية المتحدة.

المطلوب

البحث يعتمد كلياً على المعلومات التي سوف يتم جمعها من خلال قائمة الاستبيان التي بين يديك، والمطلوب منك رجاءً:

- منح حوالي 20 دقيقة من وقتك الثمين لتعبئة البيانات المرفقة بهذا الاستبيان.
- الإجابة بصراحة وصدق.
- الإجابة على كل الأسئلة.

الأهمية

تعتبر مساهمتك ومشاركتك في هذا الاستبيان ذات أهمية كبرى في تحسين مستوى الرضا الوظيفي في القطاع الحكومي بدولة الإمارات العربية المتحدة ، وفي شرطة دبي بالتحديد. وكننتيجة لذلك، سوف يتم تقديم عدد من الملاحظات والتوصيات للقيادة العامة لشرطة دبي للاستفادة منها. وكما سوف تنشر نتائج هذه الدراسة في إحدى المجلات العلمية العالمية.

ملاحظة

- أنت غير مطالب بكتابة اسمك، كما نؤكد لك بأن إجاباتك التي سوف تقدمها سوف تحاط بالسرية التامة، ولا يستخدمها الباحث إلا لأغراض الدراسة.
- الاستبيان معد لجميع العاملين في شرطة دبي بمختلف رتبهم ودرجاتهم الوظيفية.
- في حال وجود أي استفسار حول هذه الدراسة، الرجاء عدم التردد بالاتصال بالباحث.

أشكرك جزيل الشكر على مشاركتك في إتمام هذا الاستبيان

النقيب: جاسم محمد عبدالله الملا

هاتف متحرك: 050/ 4149447

البريد الإلكتروني: jassim98@hotmail.com

القسم الأول: البيانات الشخصية

الرجاء وضع علامة (√) داخل المربع المناسب

1	الجنس	ذكر	أنثى
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2	الجنسية	إماراتي	غير إماراتي
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3	العمر (الرجاء حدد)	
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4	الحالة الاجتماعية	أعزب	متزوج
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5	المؤهل الدراسي	أقل من الثانوية	ثانوية عامة	جامعي
		دراسات عليا	أخرى (حدد):	

6	المسمى الوظيفي	مسؤول إداري	غير مسؤول إداري
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7	ما هي الإدارة العامة	المكتب التنظيمي للقائد العام	أمن المطار	مركز دعم اتخاذ القرار
		الأكاديمية	الأدلة الجنائية	التحريات والمباحث الجنائية
		الجودة الشاملة	الموارد البشرية	أمن الهياكل والمنشآت والبنى التحتية
		المالية	خدمة المجتمع	المؤسسات العقابية والإصلاحية
		العمليات	الخدمات الالكترونية	الشؤون الإدارية
		المروور	الخدمات والتجهيزات	حقوق الإنسان
		أخرى (الرجاء حدد):		

8	كم هي عدد السنوات التي تعمل في شرطة دبي؟ (الرجاء حدد)
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9	هل تعمل على نظام المناوبات؟	أبدا	أحيانا
		أغلب الأحيان	دائما

10	هل عملك يتطلب التعامل مع الجمهور (أفراد المجتمع)؟	أبدا	أحيانا
		أغلب الأحيان	دائما

القسم الثاني: مقياس الرضا الوظيفي

كيفية إتمام الاستبيان :

- الرجاء قراءة كل عبارة من العبارات التالية بدقة وحدد اختيارك بوضع دائرة حول الرقم الموجود في المربع الذي تراه مناسباً ويعبر عن وجهة نظرك
- درجة الإجابة تتدرج من الأضعف إلى الأقوى (حيث 1= أعارض تماماً و 7 = موافق تماماً) كما هو موضح بالشكل التالي:

درجة الإجابة						
أعارض تماماً			موافق تماماً			
7	6	5	4	3	2	1

الأسئلة							أعارض تماماً	أعارض	محايد	موافق بعض الشيء	موافق	موافق تماماً				
							7	6	5	4	3	2	1			
(1) خصائص العمل																
1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	عملتي الوظيفي متنوع وغير روتيني
2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	تتطلب وظيفتي استخدام عدد من المهارات
3	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	عملتي يسهم في تحقيق أهداف المؤسسة
4	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	يمكن لوظيفتي أن يكون لها تأثير على الأشخاص الآخرين بشكل أو بآخر
5	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	تعطيني وظيفتي فرصة للعمل بشكل مستقل
6	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	تتطلب وظيفتي أن أكون مبدعاً
7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	أهداف وظيفتي واضحة
8	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	المهام المطلوب إنجازها في العمل تتناسب مع القوى البشرية الموجودة
9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	أعمل مع فرق تعمل بشكل متناسق
10	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	لا يوجد تعارض بين الأوامر التي أتلقاها من كل رؤسائي
11	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	وظيفتي لا تتطلب العمل لساعات إضافية
12	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	لا أكلف بمهام خارج مجال اختصاصي
13	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	عملتي لا يتعارض مع حياتي العائلية والاجتماعية
(2) الأجور والحوافز																
14	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	راتبي مناسب لنفقات معيشتي
15	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	الفترة الزمنية بين الزيادات في الراتب مناسبة
16	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	أشعر بالتقدير من قبل مؤسستي حين أفكر إلى الراتب المصروف لي
17	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	مؤسستي لديها سلم رواتب مناسب
18	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	توفر مؤسستي المزايا الإضافية الضرورية لموظفيها (تأمين صحي، تذكرة سفر، بدل سكن، العلاوات...الخ)
19	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	منظومة تقدير الأداء الوظيفي في مؤسستي جيدة مقارنة بالمؤسسات الأخرى
20	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	هناك مكافآت مالية جيدة للعاملين في هذه المؤسسة
(3) الإشراف																
21	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	مسؤولي متواجد كلما احتاج إليه
22	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	مسؤولي يعبر اهتماماً لمشاعر مرؤوسيه
23	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	مسؤولي يمنحني فرصة المشاركة في اتخاذ القرارات المهمة
24	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	أحصل على رأي مسؤولي بشكل منتظم حول أدائي
25	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	آراء وتعليقات مسؤولي حول عملي مفيدة
26	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	مسؤولي يستخدم نموذجاً دقيقاً لتقييم الأداء
27	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	يتم تقييم أدائي الوظيفي في موعد محدد كل سنة
28	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	أحصل دائماً على نسخة من تقييمي السنوي
(4) التواصل																
29	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	وسائل الاتصال في هذه المؤسسة متوفرة (هاتف، فاكس، إنترنت...الخ)
30	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	معلومات العمل متوفرة و تتداول بشكل واضح في هذه المؤسسة (النشرات، التعميمات، الأوامر....الخ)
31	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	الاتصال بيني وبين المسؤول المباشر جيد
32	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	الاتصال بيني وبين الموظفين جيد
33	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	يسود جو من التنافس الشريف بين الموظفين في المؤسسة
34	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	لا يوجد شجار ومشاحنات أثناء العمل في مؤسستي
35	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	لا أجد صعوبة في العمل بسبب كفاءة الأشخاص الذين أعمل معهم

الأسئلة							أعترض تماماً	أعترض	أعارض بعض الشيء	محايد	موافق بعض الشيء	موافق	موافق تماماً
الأسئلة							1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(5) التطوير المهني													
36	توفر لي مؤسستي تدريبات كافية المتعلقة بالعمل	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
37	توفر لي مؤسستي فرصاً مناسبة للتطوير المهني (ورش عمل، دورات، مؤتمرات...الخ)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
38	تمارس مؤسستي التدوير الوظيفي (تنارب العاملين بين المهام المختلفة لاكتساب المهارات)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
39	مؤسستي تمنحني الفرصة للقيام بمحاولات لتجربة بعض أفكار	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
(6) السياسة التنظيمية والإدارية													
40	لدى مؤسستي مسل وظيفي واضح (المخطط المتضمن المسارات المحتملة في وظائف الأفراد والفرص المهنية في المنظمة)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
41	مؤسستي لديها توصيف وظيفي واضح لجميع مستويات العمل (وصف للمسؤولية والأعباء المرتبطة بالوظيفة)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
42	تتميز المؤسسة التي أعمل بها باللامركزية (إمكانية إتخاذ القرار في أكثر من جهة أو إدارة أو شخص)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
43	فرص الترقية جيدة و غير محدودة في هذه المؤسسة	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
44	المؤسسة لديها سياسة وإستراتيجية واضحة في الترقية والتي تأخذ بعين الاعتبار كفاءة الأداء والخبرة	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
45	مؤسستي تضع الرجل المناسب في المكان المناسب	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
46	مؤسستي تولي اهتماماً جيداً لشكاي وتظلمات الموظفين	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
47	الإجراءات في مؤسستي لا تتعارض مع أداء العمل الجيد	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
48	السياسة العامة لمؤسستي تسيير وفق ضوابط أخلاقية	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
49	هذه المؤسسة تعمل بشكل جيد في سبيل توفير وظائف بشكل ثابت	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
50	لدي التجهيزات والموارد اللازمة لأداء عملي بشكل جيد	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
51	مؤسستي تتخذ الاحتياطات المناسبة لضمان السلامة والصحة في مكان العمل	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
52	ظروف العمل في المؤسسة مريحة (التكيف، الإضاءة، مكان العمل...الخ)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
53	مؤسستي تهتم باحتياجات المجتمع (استطلاع آراء الجمهور...الخ)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
54	مؤسستي تولي اهتماماً جيداً لشكاي المراجعين	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
55	مؤسستي لديها إستراتيجية واضحة لتحسين جودة الخدمات المقدمة لأفراد الجمهور	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
(7) العدالة والمساواة: أشرح بآني أعمل بشكل عادل مقارنة بزملائي في العمل الذين لديهم نفس المؤهلات ونفس سنوات الخدمة في المؤسسة، وذلك بالنسبة للجوانب التالية:													
56	الراتب	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
57	المزايا الإضافية	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
58	التقدير والمكافآت	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
59	تقييم الأداء	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
60	الترقية	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
61	فرص التطوير المهني	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					

الأسئلة							غير راض تماماً	غير راض	غير راض بعض الشيء	محايد	راض بعض الشيء	راض	راض جداً
الأسئلة							1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(8) رأي الجمهور													
أ) ما هو تصورك نحو مدى رضا الجمهور حول الخدمات التالية التي تقدمها شرطة دبي:													
62	السيطرة على الجريمة	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
63	تواجد أفراد رجال الشرطة في الأماكن العامة	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
64	السلامة المرورية	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
65	البرامج التثقيفية للمجتمع	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
ب) ما هو تصورك نحو مدى رضا الجمهور حول أداء موظفي شرطة دبي في الجوانب التالية:													
66	سرعة الإستجابة	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
67	مهارات الإتصال (السلوك، الاهتمام، المتابعة.....الخ)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
68	الكفاءة المهنية (المقدرة على حل المشكلات.....الخ)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					

Appendix B

B2: English Questionnaire



Dear Participant

I am a doctoral student in the University of Glamorgan, United Kingdom, currently conducting research on the "Determinants of Job Satisfaction among Dubai Police Employees".

Aim of the Study

The purpose of this study is to develop a new model of the job satisfaction scale that is congruent with the Arabo-Islamic culture and also to identify factors that influence employees' job satisfaction in the governmental sector in the United Arab Emirates.

The Requirement

The research is fully dependent on the information you provide, and therefore:

- Please give 20 minutes from your valuable time to answer the questions.
- Please answer frankly and honestly.
- Please try to answer all questions.

The Importance of the Study

Your participation is considered important in improving the level of job satisfaction in the governmental sector in the United Arab Emirates and Dubai Police in particular. As a result, there will be a number of observations and recommendations to the Dubai Police to make use of it. The results will be published in international scientific journals.

Note

- You are not required to write your name. Any information collected in this study will be kept strictly confidential, and will be used only for the purpose of the research.
- This questionnaire has been designed for all workers of different ranks and grades.
- For any inquiry about this study, please do not hesitate to contact the researcher.

Thank you very much for your valuable time and thoughts in completing this questionnaire.

Captain: Jassem Mohammed Abdulla Al Mulla
Mobile Number: 050/ 4149447
E-mail: jassim98@hotmail.com

Section One: Personal Information

Please Tick (√) in the appropriate box:

1) Sex	Male		Female	
---------------	------	--	--------	--

2) Nationality	UAE		Non-UAE	
-----------------------	-----	--	---------	--

3) Age (please specify)	
--------------------------------	--

4) Marital Status	Single		Married	
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5) Educational Level	Below Secondary school		Secondary school	
	University Degree		Postgraduate Degree	
	Other (specify):			

6) Job Level	Supervisory/ Managerial		Non Supervisory	
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7) Which Department do you work for?	Commander's Organizational Office		Airport Security		Decision Making Support Center	
	Academy		Forensic Science		Criminal Investigation	
	Total Quality		Human Resources		Organisation Protection Sec.& Emergency	
	Finance		Community Services		Punitive Establishment	
	Operations		E-Services		Administrative Affairs	
	Traffic		Services & Supplies		Human Rights	
	Other (please specify):					

8) How many years have you been working in the Dubai Police? (please specify):	
--	--

9) Do you regularly work shifts?	Never		Sometimes	
	Frequently		Always	

10) Does your job require dealing with the Public?	Never		Sometimes	
	Frequently		Always	

Section Two: Job Satisfaction Scale

How to complete this section:

- Please read each statement carefully and indicate your degree of agreement with each of the following statements by circling one number that best represents your opinion.
- The scale ranges from weaker to stronger (1= strongly disagree and 7= strongly agree) as illustrated in the following key:

The Degree of Measurement						
Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Questions		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(1) Job Characteristics								
1	My work varies and is not routine.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	My job requires the use of a number of skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	The work I do contribute to the organisation's goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	A lot of other people can be affected in some way by my work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	My job gives me the opportunity to work independently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	My job requires me to be very creative.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	My job goals are clear.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	I receive an assignment with the proper staffing to complete it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	I work with a team who operate quite consistently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	I do not receive incompatible requests from all of my supervisors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	My job does not require working extra hours.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Work assignments are not out of my specialized field.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	My job does not interfere with my family and social life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(2) Salaries and Incentives								
14	My salary is adequate for my living expense.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	The period between pay raises is reasonable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	I feel appreciated by the organisation when I think about what they pay me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	My organisation has an appropriate salary scale.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	All necessary fringe benefits are provided in my organisation (e.g. health insurance, travel tickets, accommodation and allowances).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	The performance recognition system in my organisation is as good as in most other organisations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	There are adequate financial rewards for those who work here.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(3) Supervision								
21	My supervisor is available when needed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	My supervisor shows consideration for subordinates' feelings.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	My supervisor gives me the opportunity to participate in important decision making.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	I receive regular feedback about my performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25	The feedback I receive from my supervisor is useful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26	The form my supervisor uses accurately evaluates my performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	My performance appraisal is conducted on time each year.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28	I always receive a copy of my annual performance appraisal.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(4) Communication								
29	The equipment required for effective communication is widely available in this organisation (e.g. telephone, fax and internet).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30	Information is shared openly within this organisation (e.g. bulletins, circulars and orders)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31	Communication between me and my immediate supervisors is good.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32	Communication between me and other workers is good.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33	Honest competition exists between workers in this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34	There is no bickering and fighting at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35	I do not have difficulty in my job because of the competence of people with whom I work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Questions		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(5) Professional Development								
36	The organisation provides me with enough work related training.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37	The organisation provides me with adequate resources and chances to develop myself professionally (e.g. workshops, courses and conferences).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38	My organisation practices <u>job rotation</u> (The rotation of workers between different tasks to acquire skills).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39	I am given the chance to try out some of my own ideas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(6) Organisational Policy and Administration								
40	My organisation has a clear <u>career path</u> (The defined track a person follows in the pursuit of professional goals).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41	My organisation has a clear <u>job description</u> for all job levels (Description of the responsibilities associated with a given job).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42	My organisation has an ethos of <u>decentralization</u> (The possibility of decision making in more than one department or person).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43	Promotion opportunities are not limited and are fairly adequate in this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44	My organisation has a clear and fair promotion policy and strategy that takes efficiency performance and experience into account.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45	My organisation puts the right person in the right position.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46	My organisation gives proper attention to staff complaints and grievances	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47	The procedures in my organisation do not interfere with performing a good job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48	The general policy for my organisation is congruent with moral values.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49	This department is doing a good job of providing steady employment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50	I have the necessary equipment and resources to do my job well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51	The organisation takes proper precautions to ensure a safe and healthy workplace.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52	The working conditions (e.g. air conditioning, lighting and workplace) are comfortable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
53	My organisation gives considerable attention to public needs (e.g. running annual surveys).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54	My organisation gives proper attention to public complaints.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55	My organisation has a clear strategy to improve public service quality delivery.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(7) Fairness and Equity: In consideration of the aspects listed below, I feel that I am treated fairly compared with colleagues in my organisation who have similar qualifications and who have served a similar number of years.								
56	Salary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57	Fringe benefits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58	Recognition and rewards	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
59	Performance appraisal	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
60	Promotion	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
61	Opportunity for professional development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Questions		Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Slightly Dissatisfied	Neutral	Slightly Satisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(8) Public Opinion:								
A) What is your perception of how satisfied the public is with services provided by the Dubai Police in the following areas:								
62	Crime control	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
63	The presence of police officers in public places	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
64	Traffic safety	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
65	Community educational programme	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B) What is your perception of how satisfied the public is with the performance of Dubai Police employees in the following aspects:								
66	Response time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
67	Communications skills (e.g. attitude, concern and follow-up).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
68	Professionalism (e.g. problem solving)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix C1
Dubai Job Satisfaction Scale (DJSS)

كيفية إتمام الاستبيان :

- الرجاء قراءة كل عبارة من العبارات التالية بدقة وحدد اختيارك بوضع دائرة حول الرقم الموجود في المربع الذي تراه مناسباً ويعبر عن وجهة نظرك
- درجة الإجابة تتدرج من الأضعف الى الأقوى (حيث 1= أعارض تماماً و 7 = موافق تماماً) كما هو موضح بالشكل التالي:

درجة الإجابة						
أعارض تماماً			موافق تماماً			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

الأسئلة							أعارض تماماً	أعارض بعض الشيء	محايد	موافق بعض الشيء	موافق	موافق تماماً	
							1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(1) طبيعة العمل													
1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	عملي الوظيفي متنوع وغير روتيني					
2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	تتطلب وظيفتي استخدام عدد من المهارات					
3	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	عملي يساهم في تحقيق أهداف المؤسسة					
4	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	يمكن لوظيفتي أن يكون لها تأثير على الأشخاص الآخرين بشكل أو بآخر					
5	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	تعطيني وظيفتي فرصة للعمل بشكل مستقل					
6	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	تتطلب وظيفتي أن أكون مبدعاً					
7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	أهداف وظيفتي واضحة					
(2) الإشراف													
8	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	مسؤولي متواجد كلما أحتاج إليه					
9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	مسؤولي يعبر اهتماماً لمشاعر مرؤوسيه					
10	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	مسؤولي يمنحني فرصة المشاركة في اتخاذ القرارات المهمة					
11	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	الاتصال بيني وبين المسؤول المباشر جيد					
12	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	أحصل على رأي مسؤولي بشكل منتظم حول أدائي					
13	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	آراء وتعليقات مسؤولي حول عملي مفيدة					
14	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	مسؤولي يستخدم نموذجاً دقيقاً لتقييم الأداء					
(3) الأجور والحوافز													
15	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	راتبي مناسب لنفقات معيشتي					
16	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	الفترة الزمنية بين الزيادات في الراتب مناسبة					
17	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	أشعر بالتقدير من قبل مؤسستي حين أفكر إلى الراتب المصروف لي					
18	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	مؤسستي لديها سلم رواتب مناسب					
19	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	توفر مؤسستي المزايا الإضافية الضرورية لموظفيها (تأمين صحي، تذكرة سفر، بدل سكن، العلاوات....الخ)					
20	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	منظومة تقدير الأداء الوظيفي في مؤسستي جيدة مقارنة بالمؤسسات الأخرى					
21	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	هناك مكافآت مالية جيدة للعاملين في هذه المؤسسة					
22	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	أشعر بأنني أعامل بشكل عادل مقارنة بزملائي في العمل الذين لديهم نفس المؤهلات ونفس سنوات الخدمة في المؤسسة بالنسبة للراتب					
23	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	أشعر بأنني أعامل بشكل عادل مقارنة بزملائي في العمل الذين لديهم نفس المؤهلات ونفس سنوات الخدمة في المؤسسة بالنسبة للمزايا الإضافية					
24	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	أشعر بأنني أعامل بشكل عادل مقارنة بزملائي في العمل الذين لديهم نفس المؤهلات ونفس سنوات الخدمة في المؤسسة بالنسبة للتقدير والمكافآت					
(4) العلاقة بين زملاء العمل													
25	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	يسود جو من التنافس الشريف بين الموظفين في المؤسسة					
26	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	لا يوجد شجار ومشاحنات أثناء العمل في مؤسستي					
27	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	لا أجد صعوبة في العمل بسبب كفاءة الأشخاص الذين أعمل معهم					
28	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	المهام المطلوب إنجازها في العمل تتناسب مع القوى البشرية الموجودة					
29	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	أعمل مع فرق تعمل بشكل متناسق					
30	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	لا يوجد تعارض بين الأوامر التي أتلقاها من كل رؤسائي					

الأسئلة							موافق تماماً	موافق	موافق بعض الشيء	محايد	أعارض بعض الشيء	أعارض تماماً	
							7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(5) التواصل													
31	الاتصال بيني وبين الموظفين جيد	7	6	5	4	3	2	1					
32	وسائل الاتصال في هذه المؤسسة متوفرة (هاتف، فاكس، إنترنت...الخ)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1					
33	معلومات العمل متوفرة و تتداول بشكل واضح في هذه المؤسسة (النشرات، التعميمات، الأوامر....الخ)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1					
(6) فرص الترقى													
34	فرص الترقية جيدة و غير محدودة في هذه المؤسسة	7	6	5	4	3	2	1					
35	المؤسسة لديها سياسة وإستراتيجية واضحة في الترقية والتي تأخذ بعين الاعتبار كفاءة الأداء والخبرة	7	6	5	4	3	2	1					
36	مؤسستي تضع الرجل المناسب في المكان المناسب	7	6	5	4	3	2	1					
37	مؤسستي تولي اهتماماً جيداً لشكاوي وتطلعات الموظفين	7	6	5	4	3	2	1					
38	لدى مؤسستي مسيل وظيفي واضح (المخطط المتضمن المسارات المحتملة في وظائف الأفراد والفرص المهنية في المنظمة)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1					
39	أشعر بأنني أعامل بشكل عادل مقارنة بزملائي في العمل الذين لديهم نفس المؤهلات ونفس سنوات الخدمة في المؤسسة بالنسبة للترقية	7	6	5	4	3	2	1					
(7) التطوير المهني													
40	توفر لي مؤسستي تدريبات كافية المتعلقة بالعمل	7	6	5	4	3	2	1					
41	توفر لي مؤسستي فرصاً مناسبة للتطور المهني (ورش عمل، دورات، مؤتمرات...الخ)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1					
42	تمارس مؤسستي التدوير الوظيفي (تناوب العاملين بين المهام المختلفة لاكتساب المهارات)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1					
43	مؤسستي تمنحني الفرصة للقيام بمحاولات لتجربة بعض أفكارى	7	6	5	4	3	2	1					
44	أشعر بأنني أعامل بشكل عادل مقارنة بزملائي في العمل الذين لديهم نفس المؤهلات ونفس سنوات الخدمة في المؤسسة بالنسبة للتطوير المهني	7	6	5	4	3	2	1					
(8) السياسة والإستراتيجية التنظيمية													
45	الإجراءات في مؤسستي لا تتعارض مع أداء العمل الجيد	7	6	5	4	3	2	1					
46	السياسة العامة لمؤسستي تسير وفق ضوابط أخلاقية	7	6	5	4	3	2	1					
47	هذه المؤسسة تعمل بشكل جيد في سبيل توفير وظائف بشكل ثابت	7	6	5	4	3	2	1					
48	مؤسستي تتخذ الاحتياطات المناسبة لضمان السلامة والصحة في مكان العمل	7	6	5	4	3	2	1					
49	ظروف العمل في المؤسسة مريحة (التكييف، الإضاءة، مكان العمل...الخ)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1					
50	مؤسستي تهتم باحتياجات المجتمع (استطلاع آراء الجمهور...الخ)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1					
51	مؤسستي تولي اهتماماً جيداً لشكاوي المراجعين	7	6	5	4	3	2	1					
52	مؤسستي لديها إستراتيجية واضحة لتحسين جودة الخدمات المقدمة لأفراد الجمهور	7	6	5	4	3	2	1					
(9) تقييم الأداء													
53	يتم تقييم أدائي الوظيفي في موعد محدد كل سنة	7	6	5	4	3	2	1					
54	أحصل دأناً على نسخة من تقييمي السنوي	7	6	5	4	3	2	1					
55	أشعر بأنني أعامل بشكل عادل مقارنة بزملائي في العمل الذين لديهم نفس المؤهلات ونفس سنوات الخدمة في المؤسسة بالنسبة لتقييم الأداء	7	6	5	4	3	2	1					
(10) ضغط العمل													
56	وظيفتي لا تتطلب العمل لساعات إضافية	7	6	5	4	3	2	1					
57	لا أكلف بمهام خارج مجال اختصاصي	7	6	5	4	3	2	1					
58	عملي لا يتعارض مع حياتي العائلية والاجتماعية	7	6	5	4	3	2	1					

Appendix C2

Dubai Job Satisfaction Scale (DJSS)

How to complete this scale:

- Please read each statement carefully and indicate your degree of agreement with each of the following statements by circling one number that best represents your opinion.
- The scale ranges from weaker to stronger (1= strongly disagree and 7= strongly agree) as illustrated in the following key:

The Degree of Measurement						
Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Questions		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(1) Nature of the Work								
1	My work varies and is not routine.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	My job requires the use of a number of skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	The work I do contribute to the organisation's goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	A lot of other people can be affected in some way by my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	My job gives me the opportunity to work independently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	My job requires me to be very creative.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	My job goals are clear.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(2) Supervision								
8	My supervisor is available when needed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	My supervisor shows consideration for subordinates' feelings.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	My supervisor gives me the opportunity to participate in important decision making.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Communication between me and my immediate supervisors is good.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	I receive regular feedback about my performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	The feedback I receive from my supervisor is useful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	The form my supervisor uses accurately evaluates my performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(3) Salary and Incentives								
15	My salary is adequate for my living expense.							
16	The period between pay raises is reasonable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	I feel appreciated by the organisation when I think about what they pay me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	My organisation has an appropriate salary scale.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	All necessary fringe benefits are provided in my organisation (e.g. health insurance, travel tickets, accommodation and allowances).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	The performance recognition system in my organisation is as good as in most other organisations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	There are adequate financial rewards for those who work here.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	Regarding salary, I feel that I am treated fairly compared with colleagues in my organisation who have similar qualifications and who have served a similar number of years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	Regarding fringe benefits, I feel that I am treated fairly compared with colleagues in my organisation who have similar qualifications and who have served a similar number of years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	Regarding recognition and rewards, I feel that I am treated fairly compared with colleagues in my organisation who have similar qualifications and who have served a similar number of years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(4) Relationship with Co-workers								
25	Honest competition exists between workers in this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26	There is no bickering and fighting at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	I do not have difficulty in my job because of the competence of people with whom I work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28	I receive an assignment with the proper staffing to complete it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29	I work with a team who operate quite consistently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30	I do not receive incompatible requests from all of my supervisors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Questions		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(5) Communication								
31	Communication between me and other workers is good.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32	The equipment required for effective communication is widely available in this organisation (e.g. telephone, fax and internet).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33	Information is shared openly within this organisation (e.g. bulletins, circulars and orders)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(6) Promotion Opportunity								
34	Promotion opportunities are not limited and are fairly adequate in this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35	My organisation has a clear and fair promotion policy and strategy that takes efficiency performance and experience into account.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36	My organisation puts the right person in the right position.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37	My organisation gives proper attention to staff complaints and grievances	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38	My organisation has a clear <u>career path</u> (The defined track a person follows in the pursuit of professional goals).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39	Regarding promotion, I feel that I am treated fairly compared with colleagues in my organisation who have similar qualifications and who have served a similar number of years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(7) Professional Development								
40	The organisation provides me with enough work related training.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41	The organisation provides me with adequate resources and chances to develop myself professionally (e.g. workshops, courses and conferences).							
42	My organisation practices <u>job rotation</u> (The rotation of workers between different tasks to acquire skills).							
43	I am given the chance to try out some of my own ideas.							
44	Regarding opportunities for professional development, I feel that I am treated fairly compared with colleagues in my organisation who have similar qualifications and who have served a similar number of years.							
(8) Organisational Policy & Strategy								
45	The procedures in my organisation do not interfere with performing a good job.							
46	The general policy for my organisation is congruent with moral values.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47	This department is doing a good job of providing steady employment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48	The organisation takes proper precautions to ensure a safe and healthy workplace.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49	The working conditions (e.g. air conditioning, lighting and workplace) are comfortable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50	My organisation gives considerable attention to public needs (e.g. running annual surveys).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51	My organisation gives proper attention to public complaints.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52	My organisation has a clear strategy to improve public service quality delivery.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(9) Performance Appraisal								
53	My performance appraisal is conducted on time each year.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54	I always receive a copy of my annual performance appraisal.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55	Regarding performance appraisal, I feel that I am treated fairly compared with colleagues in my organisation who have similar qualifications and who have served a similar number of years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(10) Job Stress								
56	My job does not require working extra hours.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57	Work assignments are not out of my specialized field.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58	My job does not interfere with my family and social life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix D
Interview Questions

Statement A	Statement B	Statement C	Note
Factors contributing to Job Satisfaction	Factors contributing to Job Dissatisfaction	Important aspects of job	
1.....	1.....	1.....	
2.....	2.....	2.....	
3.....	3.....	3.....	
4.....	4.....	4.....	
5.....	5.....	5.....	
6.....	6.....	6.....	
7.....	7.....	7.....	
8.....	8.....	8.....	
9.....	9.....	9.....	
10.....	10.....	10.....	

Appendix E
Conference Paper

**CONSTRUCTION OF A SCALE MEASURING THE JOB SATISFACTION
OF PUBLIC SECTOR EMPLOYEES IN THE U.A.E WITH PARTICULAR
REFERENCE TO THE DUBAI POLICE**

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ABSTRACT

Job satisfaction is one of the methods used to establish and maintain a healthy organisational structure. To this effect, the measurement of employee job satisfaction is central to the strategies of most organisations [1]. The police, like any other public sector organisation, needs to develop and maintain a strong relationship with its human resources in order to effectively perform crime fighter and service provider roles. Most if not all scales used to measure job satisfaction have been developed in the West. The aim of the paper is to construct and test a scale of job satisfaction that is congruent with the Arabo-Islamic culture in the U.A.E. The DP employees serve as the study setting. The scale construction process is of critical importance and specific steps should be carried out to construct a valid and reliable measure. The study employed a mixed method approach to meet the aim of the study and to increase the reliability and validity of the results. The research strategy adopted involved sequential procedures. A qualitative approach was used prior to quantitative investigation and how these two approaches were deployed in the two research stages is investigated. A qualitative approach using in-depth interviews and a focus group was used to explore the research subjects in the real life context of the U.A.E. Subsequently, a quantitative approach using a self rated questionnaire survey was used to verify and extend the research findings across a wider area. Factor analysis was performed in this study to reduce the attribute space from a larger number of variables to a smaller number of factors. The Cronbach alpha reliability method was also employed to determine the reliability of the survey questionnaire.

Keywords: Job Satisfaction, Scale Development, Dubai Police.

1. INTRODUCTION

Job Satisfaction is one of the methods used to establish and maintain a healthy organisational structure. The measurement of employee job satisfaction is central to the strategies of most organisations [1]. Measuring job satisfaction has been a focus of attention for researchers and organisational management interested in identifying the determinants of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. This organisational interest in measuring job satisfaction has been motivated by utilitarian objectives (e.g., to increase productivity and organisational commitment, lower absenteeism and turnover, and ultimately, to increase organisational effectiveness) as well as humanitarian interests (i.e., the notion that employees deserve to be treated with respect and have their psychological and physical well-being maximised) [2].

Given the nature of police work, job satisfaction is a serious issue for this particular public sector organisation. Clearly, a police force is service-intensive organisation with a significant proportion of its employees working in direct contact with its customers, the general public. The police, like any other public sector organisation, needs to develop and maintain a strong relationship with its human resources in order to effectively perform crime fighting and service provider roles. Since the job satisfaction of employees is an important part of any strategy aimed at improving the effectiveness of police or other public sector employees [3], any organisational commitment to quality improvement implies, therefore, that possible

key influences on the level of employee job satisfaction should be investigated.

The scale development process is of critical importance and specific steps should be carried out to construct a valid and reliable measure. The operationalisation of this research identified major variables influencing job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The development of a scale measuring these variables is described throughout the scientific steps of this research. This paper will cover the recommended steps and procedures in scale development and validation from constructing a definition to scale evaluation.

Therefore, the Dubai Police (DP), one of the largest public sector organisations in the United Arab Emirates (U.A.E), was setting for this study.

2. PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH

As all job satisfaction scales were developed in Western countries and might or might not be suitable to other cultures, the aim of this paper is to construct and test a scale (questionnaire) of job satisfaction that is congruent with the Arabo-Islamic culture in a public sector organisation in the U.A.E, the DP.

3. RESEARCH CONTEXT

Police play a vital role in any community. The definitions of this role have typically focused upon the protection of life and property, crime prevention, the detection of offenders, and the preservation of peace and order [4]. These roles encompass three main police functions: law enforcement (i.e., the use of power to control others); peace keeping (i.e., maintaining public safety); and service provision (i.e., assisting people requiring help) [5].

The DP is one of the local police forces in the U.A.E and one of the fastest-growing work forces. It was established in 1956 by the Dubai Local Government with a small number of employees. Since then it has displayed steady growth and is now a large organisation with more than 15,000 staff working in 18 departments. It is regarded as one of the largest establishments in Dubai in terms of the number of people it employs and the volume of services it provides to the public [6].

Over the past few years, there have been significant attempts to reform organisational processes within the police services in DP. The aim of the reform has been to achieve increased efficiency and effectiveness. Following research into police force in developed

countries, DP started research on employee satisfaction.

4. THE SCALE DEVELOPMENT PROCESS OF JOB SATISFACTION

The scale development process is new subject and includes specific steps to develop a valid and reliable measure. In spite of many scales being developed to measure attitudes and perceptions, scales are often used before the assessment of validity and reliability [7]. This limitation may eventually lead to contradictory findings [7, 8] Assuring the effective and accuracy of scale under examination has been considered a cornerstone of scientific research [8].

Although researchers [7-12] have suggested processes for scale development that reflect a number of component stages, there is inconsistency in the number of stages proposed. There is no specific theory offering guidance to scale developers, other than that they should follow researchers' paradigms and suggestions that will serve as a guide to scale development [7, 10]. In this research, authors guidelines were considered as the most current resources to improve the validity of the scale [8, 10] . The scale development processes are carried out over six steps (see Figure 1).

Step 1	Constructing a Definition and Content Domain
Step 2	Generating An Item Pool
Step 3	Determining the Format for Measurement
Step 4	Judging Items by Experts
Step 5	Designing and Administrating a Scale
Step 6	Evaluating and Finalizing the Scale

Figure 1: Guidelines in Scale Development

4.1 STEP 1: CONSTRUCTING A DEFINITION AND CONTENT DOMAIN

In scale development the first step should define clearly and precisely the construct of what the researcher wants to measure. That is, thinking clearly and precisely about the content of a scale requires focusing on the construct being measured [10]. Clearly defining the construct (i.e. facets & domains) is considered as the most difficult step in the scaling process [8]. In this research, job satisfaction construction is developed based on the literature review (i.e. theories and research) and empirical studies (i.e. interviews and a focus group) to form a

comprehensive conceptual framework. The scale is intended to be relatively narrow with respect to the DP organisation. Therefore, it is important to understand first the concept of job satisfaction (i.e. definition and theories). This can be helpful in construct definition and establishing content domain.

Although job satisfaction seems to be a difficult concept for which to provide an exact definition, traditionally it has been viewed as the opposite of job dissatisfaction [13]. In this research, the term has been used to show a combination of the employee's feelings towards the different facets of job satisfaction. This feeling results from a global nature (i.e. domains) and from many specific work-related experiences (i.e. facets). This is more consistent with authors who defined job satisfaction as “the degree to which people feel positively or negatively about a job and its various facets” [14].

There is no one definition that sums up job satisfaction but there are many theories on what contributes positively or negatively to job satisfaction. As a construct job satisfaction is extremely complex with no single conceptual model completely and accurately describing it [15]. Numerous studies have been completed over the years in an attempt to classify and determine factors influencing job satisfaction. The current theories of job satisfaction were divided into two groups, namely, content and process theories [16]. Content theories give an account of the factors that influence job satisfaction. Maslow's needs hierarchy theory [17] and Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory [18] are examples of content theories. Process theories try to give an account of the process by which variables such as expectations, needs, and values are related to the characteristics of the job to produce job satisfaction. Vroom's expectancy theory [19] and Adams' equity theory [20] are examples of process theories. In addition, other theories have been found in the literature regarding job satisfaction such as the Job Characteristics Model [21] and Situational Theories [22]. In general, each theory has succeeded in focusing attention on differing aspects of job satisfaction.

“Given that a construct's content domain can be hypothesized as unidimensional or multidimensional, its empirical structure should reflect its hypothesized dimensionality” [8]. Job satisfaction is considered as a multi-dimensional construct, that is, job satisfaction is measured by multiple facets such as salary, supervision and promotion. There have been two major approaches to measure job satisfaction namely single item global measures and facet measures which assess satisfaction with several aspects of the job such as pay, supervision, promotion, co-workers and the job itself

[23]. However, both approaches can be used to obtain a complete picture of employee job satisfaction [24]. The literature of industrial and organizational psychology contains different measures and scales to assess job satisfaction. Examples of popular job satisfactions scales are Job in General Scale (JIG), Job Satisfaction Index (JSI), Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), Job Descriptive Index (JDI), Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) and Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS).

4.2. STEP 2: GENERATING AN ITEM POOL

Once the concept of job satisfaction has been clearly defined, the second step is to construct the scale. Item generation is considered as the heart of the development process in constructing the validation of the scale [7]. The objective of this step is to determine a large pool of items that are candidates for eventual inclusion in the scale. Therefore, the content of each item in the scale should primarily reflect the construct of interest, otherwise the scale will not accurately capture the essence of the construct [10].

The importance of clearly identifying the aspects and parameters of the measurement process is critical if an appropriate level of specificity and accuracy is to be achieved in the item generation [10, 11]. The exact phrasing of items can exert a profound influence on the scale that is actually measured [25]. Researchers reported a number of issues of good practice in selection items [7, 8, 10]: (a) using short sentences and simple language that is easily understood and correctly interpreted by the respondents (b) avoiding negatively worded items or use with considerable caution because negatively worded items either do not exhibit as high a reliability as positive worded items do or can be confusing to respondents (c) using a large number of items is preferred as more items will constitute a more reliable test than less items. “If the item pool is exceptionally large, the researcher can eliminate some items based on a priori criteria, such as lack of clarity, questionable relevance, or undersirable similarity to other items” [10].

In this research, two basic approaches, namely deductive and inductive approaches, were used to identify and generate a wide variety of items of job satisfaction. The deductive approach can be through a review of the relevant literature, whereas an inductive approach, due to a lack of available theory, asks respondents to describe attitudes and feelings [7]. Both approaches generated items that may then be subjected to a sorting process that will serve as a pretest, permitting the deletion of items that are deemed to be conceptually inconsistent [7]. However, whether inductively or deductively derived there should be

strong and rational links established between items and the theoretical domain [7].

In job satisfaction literature, the deductive approach uses previous theories as a source for the generation of items. A comprehensive review of the literature in respect of job satisfaction was fully reviewed in order to reveal most domains and items. The literature search suggested some items that were reflective of the construct. So, eventually a list of items was made to cover all aspects of job satisfaction.

The inductive approach is another useful source of item generation. Thus, a qualitative approach was used to generate the item. In this research, the qualitative approach comprises of in-depth interviews and a focus group. Both techniques assist in achieving the following goals: (a) adding items (b) checking the item clarity; (c) investigating the clarity of the item's directions; (d) deleting repeated items, and (e) other suggestions. After the initial item's pool, the items were selected, modified, and added according to the need of the study. Therefore a number of items were developed based on the analysis of information found during the literature review and the qualitative data.

4.3. STEP 3: DETERMINING THE FORMAT FOR MEASUREMENT

Although many formats for questions exist (e.g. Thurstone, Likert and Guttman), a scale developer needs to consider this step simultaneously with the generation of items [10]. The importance of scaling items is to achieve sufficient variance or variability among respondents for subsequent statistical analysis [7]. Rating questions most frequently use a Likert-style rating scale. "A Likert scale is very popular among social scientists, is relatively easy to construct and is believed to be more reliable than the Thurstone scale [26]".

In this research, seven-point Likert scales were used to ask the respondents to measure the degree of job satisfaction with a specific statement for several reasons: (a) it is simple to administer, it measures a response on an agreed numerical code and is, by its nature, quantifiable, (b) expanding the rating question gives respondents more choices to indicate their opinion, (c) the outcomes of a pilot test suggested that the respondents in the U.A.E are familiar and comfortable with the seven point Likert Scale.

Rating questions used to measure employees' satisfaction towards the DP ranged from 1 to 7. For the purposes of this analysis, it is assumed that the higher the number selected the greater the level of job satisfaction as follows: (1) Strongly Disagree, (2)

Disagree, (3) Slightly Disagree, (4) Natural, (5) Slightly Agree, (6) Agree, (7) Strongly Agree. With regards to some questions, the ratings were (1) Strongly Dissatisfied, (2) Dissatisfied, (3) Slightly Dissatisfied, (4) Natural, (5) Slightly Satisfied, (6) Satisfied, (7) Strongly Satisfied.

4.4. STEP 4: JUDGING ITEMS BY EXPERTS

Having clearly examined the concept of job satisfaction, item generation and selection of suitable format measurement, the next step is to seek knowledgeable people who are in the content area to review the first draft of the scale.

The use of an expert to review items intended for use in the scale is recommended [10, 11]. To ensure content validity, two faculty members from the Glamorgan University Business School reviewed the initial pool of items. The objective of the review was to assess each item in the questionnaire. At this point the judges were asked to rate each of the items as either "not all representative", "somewhat representative", or "clearly representative" of the definition provided. Also, the review included checking the item clarity, ranking scale and the overall layout of the questionnaire. This helps to investigate the face and content validity in the early stage of the development process.

The critique and advice were fully considered. The scale construct was modified and inadequate items were deleted.

The findings of both of the deductive and inductive approaches result in with 68 items which were considered to have sufficient face and content validity. The first draft of the questionnaire was then developed.

4.5. STEP 5: DESIGNING AND ADMINISTRATING A SCALE

This step represents three important aspects, namely: (a) designing a questionnaire (b) carrying out a pilot study and (c) administering the questionnaire.

The questionnaire is the most widely used technique of data collection techniques in research [27]. The general format and layout of the questionnaire should be well designed to give a professional impression to the reader. It should importantly have some features that would attract the potential reader to take part in completing the questionnaire. The scale developer needs to consider important aspects in designing a questionnaire: (a) the questionnaire should be specific, (b) correct length and have an attractive layout and, (c) the type of questions (open/closed ended questions or

both). Every questionnaire should include three main elements, the covering letter, the instructions and the main body [26].

Since the study was conducted in an Arabic country, the U.A.E, the researcher had to translate the questionnaire from English into Arabic. It is essential that the questions are fully understandable by respondents, therefore, the Arabic version was checked thoroughly by two Arabic PhD students who are fluent in both languages.

Sections of the questionnaire should be pilot tested before collecting data to assess the validity and likely reliability of the questions [28]. A pilot test was defined as “A small-scale study to test a questionnaire or interview checklist or observation schedule, to minimise the likelihood of respondents having problems in answering the questions and of data recording problems as well as to allow some assessment of questions’ validity and reliability of the data that will be collected” [28]. The questionnaire was pre-tested with three groups: academics, research students and DP employees and was sent to 10 people. The aims of the test were to check the clarity of the covering letter, questions, questionnaire instructions, understanding the scale employed, and the time taken to complete the questionnaire. Respondents who are fluent in both languages were given both versions of the questionnaire (English & Arabic). Overall, the respondents agreed that the questionnaire successfully met the data collection objectives. The respondents seemed to understand the content of the questionnaire and no major mistakes were found in questionnaire returns. The feedback of the respondents in the questionnaires was useful in revising the questions. Several changes were made after the pilot study in order to avoid confusion, aid questionnaire understanding, and ensure respondents answered the questionnaire spontaneously.

The questionnaire was administered to see how well the items conform to the expected and theorized structure of the construct. In this research, a questionnaire survey (English & Arabic) with a covering letter addressing the respondents distributed was randomly among all DP employees through an internal Web system called ‘Intranet’. This links the departments throughout the DP. Respondents were also given hard copies for those who do not have access to the Intranet in order to maximize the response rate.

Considering the quite sensitive nature of the research and the need for the employees to be able to digest the questions, respondents were given enough time to go through the questions to answer as honestly as they possibly could. Also, the researcher provided his

contact details (telephone and email) in the covering letter of the questionnaire to clarify any ambiguous points that might rise from respondents and give respondents the chance to ask about any doubts or queries regarding the survey. A total of 1,027 employees in 18 departments in the DP participated and completed the questionnaires. The questionnaires were returned, generating 1,017 usable responses.

4.6. STEP 6: EVALUATING AND FINALIZING THE SCALE

In the previous steps, the initial items were developed, checked and administered to an appropriate large sample, in this step it is time to assess the performance of the individual items in order to be included in the final measure [10]. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, V.15) was used to analyze the questionnaire.

To evaluate the items, the Pearson correlation was first examined between individual items and overall job satisfaction to determine which questions were valid. Factor analysis was also performed in this study to reduce the attribute space from a larger number of variables to a smaller number of factors. Then the Cronbach alpha reliability method was employed to determine the reliability of the survey questionnaire.

Factor analysis is considered useful in scale development. It has three objectives: (1) to understand the structure of a set of variables (i.e. to understand the structure of the latent variable "job satisfaction") (2) to construct a questionnaire to measure underlying variables (3) to reduce the number of items in a scale [8, 29]. Factor analysis over the default principal components analysis is used since factor analysis better suits our purpose of revealing “any latent variables that cause the manifest variables to covary” [30]. It can be used as a validity predictor [31]. While a scale development requires substantial sample sizes in general, so does factor analysis in particular [10, 29]. Factor analysis was run with 68 items following Field's guidelines and investigation assumptions [29]. To explore the factor structure, principle components analysis with varimax rotation was used. From Table 1, it can be seen that 11 factors (subscales) together were extracted initially. Each had eigenvalues greater than one. The results were listed in factor analysis with factor 1 accounting for the most variance 35.087 %. Together, the 11 factors accounted for 64.632 % of the variability of the 68 items.

Table 1: Summary Results of the Initial Eigenvalues for Job Satisfaction Scale a long with KMO and Bartlett's Test

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
F 1	23.859	35.087	35.087
F 2	4.340	6.383	41.470
F 3	2.903	4.269	45.739
F 4	2.550	3.749	49.488
F 5	1.933	2.842	52.330
F 6	1.915	2.816	55.147
F 7	1.702	2.503	57.650
F 8	1.346	1.980	35.087
F 9	1.200	1.764	61.394
F 10	1.140	1.676	63.070
F 11	1.062	1.562	64.632
KMO= .964			
Significant of Bartlett test of Sphercity= .000			

From the results of factor analysis, 11 factors (subscales) were generated from 68 items that constitute the final questionnaire. Each subscale consisted of three items and more (range 3 – 10). To have a meaningful factor, at least three items should load on it [32]. At this point 3 questions were removed (e.g. delete items with factor loading less than 0.40 [29]) by factor analysis for being unrelated to the principle.

In order to interpret the factor analysis findings, one should first look at the content of questions that load onto the same factor to try to identify common themes. By considering the Rotated Matrix Table from the first variable (item) moving horizontal from left to right and the highest loading for that variable on any factor, and for all variables, the results were as follows: Factor One (F1) Salaries and Incentives, Factor Two (F2) Supervision, Factor Three (F3) Public Perception, Factor Four (F4) Promotion Opportunity, Factor Five (F5) Organisational Policy, Factor Six (F6) Relation with Co-workers, Factor Seven (F7) Professional Development, Factor Eight (F8) Nature of the Work, Factor Nine (F9) Effective Communication, Factor Ten (F10) Job Stress, and Factor Eleven (F11) Performance Appraisal.

Analyzing the internal consistency of the survey items reveals the extent to which items on the questionnaire focus on the notion of satisfaction. Reliability coefficient alpha is one of the most important of a scale's quality in terms of evaluating the potential items [10]. The alpha value ranges from 0.0 to 1.0, although it is unlikely to attain these extreme values.

A reliability analysis was performed in each scale with particular attention being given to “item-to-total correlations” and “Cronbach’s alpha if item deleted”. So, if an item has an alpha value above the overall values of items in the subscale, removing it will increase the alpha value but if an item has an alpha value lower or equal than the overall value, dropping it will not raise the alpha value [10]. Table 2 shows the reliability coefficients for job satisfaction dimensions (range 0.612 - 0.919). The findings indicate that each subscale score has adequate internal consistency reliability with subscales above the conventional standard of ≥ 0.70 (α range, 0.728 to 0.919) except for one subscale, namely, Job Stress ($\alpha = 0.612$). Four questions were deleted to increase the total alpha value. These questions included, (I receive an assignment with the proper staffing to complete it), (I do not receive incompatible requests from all of my supervisors), (The form my department uses accurately evaluates my performance), and (Communication between me and my immediate supervisors is good).

Table 2: Cronbach’s Alpha Reliability Coefficients for Job Satisfaction Scale

Subscales	No. of Items	Alpha Coefficients (α)
(F1) Salary and Incentives	10	.919
(F2) Supervision	7	.914
(F3) Public Perception	7	.911
(F4) Promotion Opportunity	8	.898
(F5) Organisational Policy	8	.899
(F6) Relation with Co-workers	4	.809
(F7) Professional Development	4	.891
(F8) Nature of the Work	7	.792
(F9) Communication	2	.743
(F10) Job Stress	3	.612
(F11) Performance Appraisal	3	.749

5. CONCLUSION

Although the scale development process is of critical importance, it is time consuming, costly and sometimes too sophisticated during the evaluation period.

Unlike previous scales, this research attempted to construct a more suitable scale for specific culture and organisation. The Dubai Job Satisfaction Scale (DJSS) was specifically developed to measure the major dimensions of job satisfaction of the employees in the DP. Six steps were carefully followed in order to develop a scale. These were as follows: (1) constructing a definition and content domain (2) generating an item pool (3) determining the format for

measurement (4) judging items by experts (5) designing and administrating a scale (6) evaluating and finalizing the scale.

The DJSS was developed using principle components analysis with varimax rotation to produce subscales. This resulted in eleven subscales as follows: (1) Salaries and Incentives, (2) Supervision, (3) Public Perception, (4) Promotion Opportunity, (5) Organisational Policy, (6) Relation with Co-workers, (7) Professional Development, (8) Nature of the Work, (9) Effective Communication, (10) Job Stress, and (11) Performance Appraisal. The DJSS showed high internal consistency and construct validity. Adequate levels of 11 subscales reliability were also reported.

The DJSS has the potential to make a considerable contribution in both theoretical and practical terms and might be a useful tool for descriptive qualification of job satisfaction and can provide a valuable research tool. Finally, the DJSS designed for this study needs to be validated further. Construct validity should be investigated to determine the degree of correlations among the other popular scales of job satisfaction.

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