

**AN ANALYTICAL STUDY OF JOB SATISFACTION  
IN THE SAUDI ARABIAN PUBLIC SECTOR**

**Thesis submitted in accordance with the  
requirements of the University of Liverpool  
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy**

**by**

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**June, 1990**

ABSTRACT

This study explores the relationship between employees and their work in the public sector. The analysis is focused on responses of the employees to their own job as indicated by their degree of job satisfaction. Specifically, the work setting for this research involved sampling of the Saudi Arabian public employees in five organizations, namely: Ministry of Education, Ministry of Interior, Presidency of the National Guard, the Institute of Public Administration, and the Saudi Basic Industries Corporation. Thus, this study departs from previous investigations of job satisfaction in four principle ways: in dealing with the public sector, in re incorporating the job environment, in incorporating important variables such as job effort, job resources, discrimination, work preference and size of the workplace in the Saudi Arabian work setting.

In terms of its relationship to previous work in this area, this study clearly builds upon the evolving humanistic approach to work (Gibson and Teasley, 1973; Hackman and Oldham, 1980). Recent research on job satisfaction has focused on redesigning the characteristics of jobs such as autonomy, variety, and so forth as the primary means of increasing satisfaction. The major findings of this research indicate that a much broader approach to increasing job satisfaction than job redesign seems to warranted. Job environment, especially, supervision, promotion practices, and job mobility are of substantial importance in predicting job satisfaction. Indeed when job characteristics dimensions are compared to the job environment, the job context or environment dimensions are stronger, explaining more of the variance in job satisfaction. There is also indication that individual attributes influence job satisfaction indirectly through affecting perceptions of the work situation. Exploration of the issues proposed in this study are believed to contribute measurably to better understanding of the variables that play an important part in job satisfaction.

In addition, a comparison of the work situation components and levels of satisfaction by each of the five surveyed organizations is investigated in order to shed some light on the dimensions that need more attention in future job design considerations. From the perspective of the Saudi policy maker or public manager seeking to enhance job satisfaction, a number of approaches are suggested. The implication for management is to create a "proper climate" in which employees can develop to their fullest potential. This proper climate might include supportive and democratic leadership styles, adequate job resources, and task identity so that employees would work toward the enhancement of their performance and satisfaction.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my appreciation, and faith to Mr. Morton R. Davies, Director of the Liverpool Institute of Public Administration and Management (L.I.P.A.M.), at the University of Liverpool, for continued support and guidance throughout my entire study.

I offer my thanks to the staff and colleagues at the University of Liverpool for their cooperation and assistance. In particular, many thanks are due to Mr. R. A. Doig, the Sub-Dean of the Faculty of Social and Environmental Studies (S.E.S) and his staff, and to Mr. Royce Turner , Miss Joyce Hodson and Miss Pamela Ingham of L.I.P.A.M. for their kindness and their invaluable help.

My gratitude is also extended to those who have given me the opportunity to complete my BA and MA degrees in the U.S.A. and my Ph.D. study in the U.K. These include HRH Prince Mete'b Bin Abdullah Al-Saud, Commander of King Khalid Military Academy, Dr. Abdul Rahman Al-Subait, Deputy of the National Guard for Educational Affairs, and Mr. Mohammed O. Al-Rakban, the General Director for Management in the National Guard.

I am also indebted to Mr. Abdulrahman Al-Shwaire, Assistant Deputy of the Ministry of Education, and Mr. Nasser Al-Adaily,

Director of Research at the Public Administration Institute, for their valuable time and effort to help with task of organizing interviews as well as the distribution and collection of questionnaires.

Finally, a special mention is also due to friends and colleagues in the Ministry of Interior and SABIC for their cooperation and assistance.

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CHAPTER ONE  
INTRODUCTION AND GENERAL OVERVIEW

For a long time very little concern was directed to the topic of employee attitudes toward their work. Almost without exception, everyone worked in a particular job because they had to in order to survive from day-to-day with no choice. Little change was apparent even in industrialized countries such as the United Kingdom and the United States of America, until well into the early part of this century. Today, in some industrialized countries and in non-industrialized nations, people still have almost no job choice and there is not much concern over the job satisfaction of workers.

In the United States, job attitudes, or how people feel about their work, has become a prominent area of study within the field of organizational behaviour. Industrial and organizational psychologists have conducted and published many research reports and articles on motivation and work behaviour. This interest has developed as the United States has learned more about worker productivity and has become more interested in mental health, employee training and development, and supervisor-subordinate relationships. The reason for this interest lay in the assumption that there was a relationship between the satisfaction of workers and their productivity, attendance and desire to remain in the organization.

During the last 30 years a great deal has been written concerning the relation of motivational processes to various other important organizational factors (such as job design, reward systems, group dynamics, etc.). Such literature, however, has been largely fragmentary and conflicting models are still common place in this field. Also considerable research attention has been focused around motivational processes in private organizations, but much less attention has been paid to the motivational processes in public organizations.

Generally, the literature on employee attitudes and satisfaction tends to concentrate heavily on employees within industrial and business organizations. With approximately 80 percent of the Saudi workforce employed in the public sector, it is clearly important to develop better insights into the factors affecting job satisfaction variance in public organizations.

Many public sector managers probably identify with the most current concerns about government efficiency and are represented by methods such as "Zero-Based Budgeting (ZBB)", "cut back management", "total performance measurement", etc. Thus, it is important to note that insufficient research attention has been given to some of the basic responsibilities of public managers, among them employee attitudes at work. Reasons for this deficiency are considered later.

The purpose of the present study is to explore the

importance of certain factors to job attitudes in terms of satisfaction\dissatisfaction analysis for Saudi Arabian government employees (managers and workers). The study examines work from the perspective of employees in all job categories in a public sector setting. The response of an employee to his or her work is affected primarily by the work environment, both in terms of the nature of the job content and the nature of the other employees in that environment. Most studies of work identify only some of these components of the work setting. This study tries to explore the interrelationships between the individual and the working environment in a more comprehensive manner and in the context of the public sector.

Specifically the work setting for this research involves sampling of public employees in five public organizations namely: Ministry of Education, Ministry of Interior, Presidency of National Guard, and the Institute of Public Administration, and Saudi Basic Industries Corporation (SABIC).

Although Saudi Arabia is not an industrialized country as is the United States or the United Kingdom, it is attempting to become industrialized and is also attempting to improve working conditions for its people, thus employee job satisfaction is becoming an important topic. Exploration of the issues proposed here should contribute measurably to a better understanding of the variables that play an important part in public sector



motivational processes. In addition, the following reasons have encouraged the author to pursue this topic.

First, there have been very few published studies conducted in the area of work behaviour in Saudi Arabia. Also there are no serious studies to be found on job satisfaction among Saudi government employees (managers and workers). It is hoped that this study will shed some light on this neglected and important subject.

Second, the study aims to explore the strengths and weaknesses of factors causing government employees' satisfaction and dissatisfaction in Saudi Arabia.

Third, the existing system of salary structure, promotion, and motivation in public services may not been effective enough in producing high levels of satisfaction or reducing the levels of dissatisfaction for Saudi public employees. It is hoped that this study will help the Civil Service Bureau to create a good alternative and a solution for incentives and motivation.

Fourth, the results of this study may help the Institute of Public Administration and other training agencies to study employee satisfaction, motivation and solve other human factor needs in their human resource development programmes.

Fifth, this study could be of value to the Ministry of Planning to assisting their knowledge of human behaviour and

employees' attitudes in the public organization environment in order to help the public service organization to innovate and change.

Next, this research is hoped to produce a good deal of background in job satisfaction and motivation theories and research in this vital and important field . Also, to develop a new conceptualization and approach of job satisfaction in developing countries.

Finally, the researcher would hope that this study encourages the researchers in Saudi Arabia to pay more attention and focus their research in this neglected area of work behaviour.

## 1.2 Preliminary Discussion

The topic of employee attitudes and job satisfaction at work has received considerable attention in recent years among both practicing managers and organizational researchers. The reason for this is that first, in addition to the necessity to acquire financial and physical resources, every organization requires people in order to function. More specifically, Katz and Khan (1966) have posited that organizations have three behaviour requirements in this regard:

- (i) People must be attracted not only to join the organization but also to remain in it;
- (ii) People must perform the tasks for which they are hired, and must do so in a dependable manner;
- (iii) People must go beyond this dependable role performance and engage in some form of creative spontaneous, and innovative behaviour at work.

In addition, organizations have for some time viewed their financial and physical resources from a long term perspective. It is only recently that serious attention has started to be paid to developing their employees as future resources (a talent bank) upon which they can draw as they grow. Evidence of this can be seen in human resource planning centres, and enlargement of job skills through training, job design, job rotation, etc.

The second reason for the increased attention to the topic

of employees attitudes in recent years is due to the ever-tightening economic constraints placed on organizations. Management had to look for new mechanisms in order to increase and in some cases just maintain its level of organization effectiveness and efficiency. This became to some degree a question of management ability to motivate its employees toward achieving the goals of the organization. Thus, job attitudes or how people feel about their work has become a prominent area of research and the level and determinant of job satisfaction have in consequence been a central emphasis in such research.

There has been considerable change in the reasons for studying job satisfaction. Initially those who studied job satisfaction sought to relate it to productivity. Such research tended to have industrial sponsors who sought improved productivity as a direct outgrowth of the research. As is often the case, immediate results did not occur. In general, such research produced weak or mixed findings on the relationship between job satisfaction and productivity (Vroom, 1964; Ronan, 1970; Katzell and Yankelovich, 1975).

Despite the limited impact of this research in altering productivity, researchers were still substantially interested in the concept of job satisfaction. Studies of job satisfaction continued to flourish as part of an increasing concern by humanistically oriented scholars with the role of the individual

in organization. The more recent humanistic approach (Gibson and Teasley, 1973), instead of focusing on productivity, seeks to improve the quality of workers' lives by increasing job satisfaction. Building on the humanistic approach, some scholars have also made a strong case for job satisfaction as a social indicator (Kahn, 1972).

Scholarly attention to the quality of worklife may arise not only from a concern with the well-being of the individual but from one's perspective about the nature of a "good" society. A society composed of a significant minority of dissatisfied or demoralized workers is not likely to be a healthy society either economically or socially.

This change in the reasons for studying job satisfaction has been accompanied by other changes in the model used to predict job satisfaction. One important variation is the extent to which Maslow's view of individual needs (Maslow, 1943, 1954) is followed. According to his view, job satisfaction is said to exist when an individual's needs are met by the job and its environment. Maslow asserted that these individual needs are uniform and hierarchically arranged. More recently, others have assumed that individual needs vary both with time and individuals (Hackman and Lawler, 1971; Turner and Lawrence, 1965; Hulin and Blood, 1968).

The earlier studies of job satisfaction were considered as

important potential determinants of both the nature of the job itself and the immediate environment. However, as studies of job satisfaction shifted to a more humanistic focus, there was also a shift in emphasis toward an examination of job characteristics only.

Recent studies focus on job redesign or enlargement as a means of increasing satisfaction (Alderfer, 1969b, Hackman and Oldham, 1980). The redesign approach sees job characteristics as the prime determinant of job satisfaction, moderated by the nature of the workers' needs. It seems likely that there has been a greater focus on job characteristics, at least partly, because researchers feel it may be easier to redesign jobs than to alter their environments (Hackman, 1969).

In the public sector, reactions to job satisfaction were justified as a promoter of the community's mental health and as an indicator of the quality of working life (Kahn, 1972). However, current budgetary cutbacks in the public sector, with accompanying reductions in government employees at all levels raise important issues about the future quality of work in government.

Insufficient research attention has been given to some of the basic responsibilities of public managers, among them employees attitudes at work and job satisfaction. This deficiency of research in job satisfaction in the public sector

was justified by the belief that if the government differs from other management contexts, it is distinguished by the nature of work or the environment within which the work occurs, not by the individuals whom it employs or attracts (Perry and Porter, 1979). Thus, only few studies provide an indication of the motivational characteristics of individuals in public sector organizations. A brief review of these studies is discussed below.

Guyot (1960) compared middle managers in the federal government and in business on their needs for achievement, affiliation, and power. He concluded, quite surprisingly, that government middle managers had higher needs for achievement and lower needs for affiliation than did their business counterparts, but their needs for power were roughly the same.

Several studies indicate that public managers experience significantly lower levels of satisfaction as compared with their business counterparts. Among the areas in which the difference is significant is satisfaction with promotion (Paine, Carrol, & Leete, 1966; Rhinehart, Barrel, Dewolfe, Griffen, & Spaner, 1969; Rainey, 1979). These studies show a fairly high degree of consistency regarding the needs of public employees and how these needs differ from an individual in other sectors.

A report by the U. S. National Center for Productivity and Quality of Working Life ((1978) suggests that two other job dimensions, job content and job challenge satisfy the needs of

employees relatively well. In addition, the U.S. National Center for Productivity reported that employees perceived a lower quality of supervision in the public sector than the private sector.

To this end, the current status of job satisfaction, as reported by Cameron (1973) considers that the attitude of a person reflects the degree to which his important needs are satisfied by his job. The concept of job satisfaction can therefore be broken down into the following elements:

- a) a feeling of positive affect (i.e. good feeling)
- b) produced by satisfaction of important needs
- c) in conjunction with a feeling that these needs could not have better or more easily satisfied in a comparable job
- c) such perception being with respect to the job as a whole.

Several complexities exist, however, which tend to complicate this basic concept of job satisfaction. Firstly, the needs, desires, and expectations within an individual change and they may be in conflict with each other. For example, a desire to put in extra hours at the office to get some advancement may be in direct conflict with a desire to spend more time with the family.

A second complication is that while satisfaction of certain needs, desires, and expectations may at times lead individuals to shift their attention toward different needs or desires, at other



times, such satisfaction can serve to increase the strength of the need. For example, as argued by Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) and other researchers, giving a person a pay rise does not long satisfy the desire for more money; in fact, it may even heighten this desire. Similarly, promoting an employee to a new and more challenging job may intensify the need or desire to work harder in anticipation of the next promotion. Thus, it is difficult to observe or measure satisfaction at work with much certainty using the above concept.

Improvement in the quality of worklife and an understanding of the topic of job satisfaction requires at least some attention to be directed toward those factors that affect employees' reactions (satisfaction). Attention should be focused particularly on the effects of variations in other factors such as individual characteristics, job characteristics, and the work environment as they relate to satisfaction. Values as to what is desired from work may vary according to the individual, but if variations in job satisfaction can be understood the first step will have been taken in potentially altering those factors most apt to suppress satisfaction.

### 1.3 Definitions and Measurements

Even though a great deal of work has been carried out for many years, agreement is still lacking about such aspects as definition and measurements of job satisfaction. It is important to be aware of such differences when attempting to compare results from different studies and in different cultures. Some of these differences are discussed below.

#### **Definitions:**

Since Hoppock's monograph on job satisfaction in 1935, a substantial amount of research has been conducted on this topic. Since that time, psychologists have used the term "job satisfaction" to refer to affective attitudes or orientations on the part of the individuals toward their jobs. Hoppock states that job satisfaction is the thing in which we are interested, is any combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that cause a person truthfully to say, "I am satisfied with my job".

In 1939, Roethlisberger and Dickson developed the importance of studying the attitudes, feelings, and perceptions that individuals have about their jobs.

Schaffer (1953) has argued that job satisfaction will vary directly with the extent to which those needs of an individual

which can be justified are actually satisfied. Schaffer emphasized variables within the individual as contributing to satisfaction and dissatisfaction. He believed that some psychological "set" or mechanism was in operation which made people satisfied or dissatisfied in general.

Vroom (1964) thinks of job satisfaction in terms of the degree to which a job provides the person with positively valued outcomes. Vroom equates satisfaction with "valence". He explains "if we describe a person as satisfied with an object, we mean that the object has positive "valence" for him. However, satisfaction has a much more restricted usage. In common practice, we refer to a person's satisfaction only with reference to objects which he possesses".

Locke (1969) defines the concept as follows: "job satisfaction is the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as realizing or facilitating the achievement of one's job values." He pointed out that satisfaction is determined by the simple difference between what the person wants and what he perceives to receive; the more his wants exceed what he receives, the greater his dissatisfaction. Locke thinks that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one's job and what one perceives it is offering.

Lawler (1973) pointed out that all "drive" theories and some

"need" theories state that the more people successfully obtain what they want, the more satisfied they will be.

Landy and Trumbo (1980) indicate that job satisfaction is used to describe the feeling of the worker about the work in the same way as the quality of life is used to describe the reaction to life in general. They added that there is probably no other single activity that consistently demands as much physically, emotionally, and cognitively as work.

In addition to the above definitions, it should be noted that the terms job satisfaction and job attitudes are typically used interchangeably. Positive attitudes toward the job are conceptually equivalent to job satisfaction, and negative attitudes toward the job are equivalent to job dissatisfaction. Similarly, the term "morale" has been given a variety of meanings, some of which correspond quite closely to the concepts of attitudes and satisfaction.

#### **Measurements:**

Not only have many definitions of job satisfaction been used, but also many different methods of measurement. Job satisfaction, job attitudes, and morale are typically measured by means of interviews or questionnaires in which workers are asked to state the degree to which they like or dislike various

aspects of their work roles. The degree to which a person is satisfied with his job is inferred from his verbal responses to one or more questions about how he feels about his job. Other more indirect methods have been developed (Weschler and Bernberg, 1950; Weitz and Nuckols, 1953) but they have not had very wide use. Since there has been little standardization of job satisfaction measures, investigators have more commonly "adapted" old instruments or devised new ones to meet their requirements at a given time. This practice greatly restricts the comparability of the results of different studies.

Hoppock (1935) used the method of asking workers to express their job satisfaction directly by answering questions regarding their overall job satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Roethlisberger and Dixon (1939) used an alternative method directly observing the behaviour of workers, then inferring attitudes, feelings, and motives from the observed behaviour.

Porter (1961) developed an approach to measuring job satisfaction, which has related actual conditions to those perceived as ideal by the employee. He asked employees how much of a given outcome there should be for their job and how much of a given outcome actually existed. Porter measured the satisfaction by considering the discrepancy between the two answers.

Adams (1963) believed that satisfaction is determined by the perceived input-outcome balance in the following manner: the perceived equity of the rewards of an individual is determined by his input outcome balance. This perceived equity in turn, determines satisfaction. Satisfaction results when perceived inequity exists. Thus, satisfaction is determined by the perceived ratio of what a person receives from his job relative to what a person puts into his job. According to Adams, either under-reward or over-reward can lead to dissatisfaction, although the feelings are different. He emphasized that over-reward leads to feeling of guilt, while under-reward leads to feeling of unfair treatment.

Herzberg (1957) stated that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are not the reverse of each other, rather they are best viewed as two separate and parallel continuum. Herzberg, et al (1957) summarized the findings of research studies on this topic conducted from 1946 through 1953. These authors found that among studies in which performance was compared with favourability of job attitude, 54 percent reported a positive relationship, 35 percent no relationship, and 11 percent a negative relationship. These studies did not show any consistent relationship between performance and job attitude, nor any consistency in the proportion of workers who were satisfied or dissatisfied. The studies did however show a yearly increase in the median percentage of job satisfied persons.

Herzberg (1968) stated that job satisfaction is determined by the feelings that an individual has in relation to his job content which includes achievement, recognition, responsibility, and psychological growth. Also, he believed job dissatisfaction to be determined by the feelings expressed by an individual has in relation to the context or the environment which include security, salary, status, supervision, etc. Herzberg's approach involved asking the employees to think of a time when they felt especially good about their jobs and when they felt particularly bad about their jobs - and then to describe the conditions that contributed to those feelings.

By the use of a job descriptive index method in measuring job satisfaction, Hulin (1966), Hulin and Smith (1965), Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969) pointed out that job satisfaction is a feeling toward discriminable aspects of the job situation. They believed that these feelings were thought to be associated with perceived difference between what is expected and what is experienced in relation to alternatives available in a given situation. Appropriate measures of satisfaction may then be sensitive to the effects of differences not only of the actual situation but also of the expectations of individuals as determined by their background and experience and by the long and short-term alternatives which are present in the psychological field.

Lawler (1973) stated that researchers appear to be in agreement that satisfaction is determined by what a person expects to receive rather than by what he wants or feels he should receive. He pointed out that the literature on job satisfaction contains three different discrepancy approaches: the first examines what people want, the second at what people feel they should receive, and the third at what people expect to receive. Lawler developed a model of the determinants of facet satisfaction. He believed that the same psychological process operates to determine satisfaction with job factors ranging from pay to supervision and satisfaction with work itself.

Locke (1976) reviewed approximately 3,300 articles and dissertations published on job satisfaction in recent years. He concluded that job satisfaction seems to come directly from "events and conditions" and indirectly from "agents". Events and conditions are thought to be directly responsible for feelings of happiness or unhappiness. Agents are those variables which are responsible for events and conditions. Locke considered the amount of work required, the task activity and compensation as examples of events and conditions, while supervisors, co-workers, and customers are examples of agents.

As a conclusion, job satisfaction was already a concept before a formal theory was developed in the field. Managers were already interested in whether people were satisfied with their



jobs. The reasons for this interest was the assumption that there was a relationship between worker satisfaction and productivity, attendance, and desire to remain in the organization. Thus, much of the confusion surrounding job satisfaction has been due to unspecified and sometimes unjustified assumptions. It is felt that the best way of avoiding such confusion, and the most efficient strategy to adopt is to base any results firmly on a sound theoretical framework. Many measures have been derived in the context of a model or criteria to predict specific behaviour and therefore can be validated against clear criteria. There are no such criteria for job satisfaction. From an early stage, surveys of employees morale, etc. have asked employees in one way or another whether they were satisfied with their jobs. Basically, this is still the way in which job satisfaction is measured. Answers to job satisfaction questionnaires are assumed to reflect an internal state of the job holder. There are no external events, apart from that which the job holder says against which the job satisfaction questionnaire can be validated directly. Scales can be checked for consistency and reliability in the normal way, but there is no way of checking that what is being measured is what should be called "job satisfaction". A number of supposed measures of job satisfaction do exist, but not all of them relate well to each other. (for more details see chapters on theoretical and methodological considerations).

## 1.4 Organization of the Study

### **Chapter 1**

This chapter gives an overview of the role of the private and public sector with respect to the research in job satisfaction. It outlines the purpose and the future implications for such an investigation. It reviews some definitions and measurements of job satisfaction and finally describes the structure of this thesis.

### **Chapter 2**

This chapter reviews the existing literature. It consists of three parts. Part one examines the basic motivational theories that were rooted in most job satisfaction studies. These include: Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory, Murray's Manifest Needs Theory, Valence-Instrumentality-Expectancy (VIE) Theory, and Equity Theory.

The second Part of this chapter reviews some important instruments used in job satisfaction studies that were relevant to the present research. They include: Fulfillment and Discrepancy Theories, Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory, Requisite Task Attributes Model, and the Job Characteristics Model.

The final part of this chapter surveys job satisfaction studies in public organizations in Britain, and Saudi Arabia.

### **Chapter 3**

In an attempt to give the reader sufficient acquaintance with the Saudi Arabian environment, this chapter examines aspects of geographical, social, political, and economic conditions.

### **Chapter 4**

As a background to the case study, this chapter reviews the system of Saudi Arabian government and its agencies including the five organizations used as part of the present survey. Since this study deals with the public sector in general, and is not restricted to only ministries, public corporations and their roles in national development effects are reviewed.

## **Chapter 5**

In this chapter, the perceptions of the worker toward the work situation and job satisfaction are analyzed and a theoretical framework is constructed. Next, definition and measurement of job satisfaction are explained. Finally, some selected dimensions of the work situation and individual attributes are identified and the research on each dimension is reviewed.

## **Chapter 6**

This chapter outline methods and techniques generally used to collect data and describes in detail the methodology adopted in this study. This includes the opportunities and problems to look out for when conducting research in Saudi Arabia. Scope and data collection techniques used in the present study are described, also those used in a pilot study, questionnaire construction and validity. Finally, documentary data used in this study and the measurement limitations.

## **Chapter 7**

This chapter deals with data analysis and research findings. It comprises four parts. The first deals with individual attributes and job orientation factors which include age of respondents, marital status, education, occupation status, job tenure, and work preference. The second part analyses the selected dimensions of job characteristics which includes seven dimensions: variety, identity, significance, autonomy, feedback, effort, and resources. The third part examines the selected dimensions of job environment which also includes seven dimensions: supervision, job mobility, promotion, discrimination, salary, working conditions, and size of workplace. For each part the distribution of responses for each dimension as well as the expected relationship with job satisfaction are examined. The final section makes a comparison by organization with respect to the job characteristics dimensions and the job environment dimensions.

## **Chapter 8**

Finally, the results of the research investigations are described in a summary form. This is followed by conclusions, recommendations, and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER TWO  
LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews considerable research in an attempt not only to organize ideas concerning human behaviour, but also for evaluating the ability of each of the theories that follows to deal adequately with important factors in the work situation. In other words, this research review will be beneficial by identifying the important factors which will then be incorporated into the theoretical consideration presented in chapter five.

As mentioned earlier in Chapter one, the literature on job satisfaction is voluminous. However, most of the previous research has been based on motivation theories. Thus, as a starting point, two major need theories will be reviewed: Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory and Murray Manifest Needs Theory. Both models, while differing in some respects argue that human needs represent the primary driving force behind employee behaviour in organizational settings. Important theories that have been rooted in many of the previous job satisfaction studies will also be examined. These include Vroom's (1964) Expectancy Theory, and Adam's (1965) Equity Theory.

The second part reviews five important job satisfaction models. These include Fulfillment and Discrepancies theories of job satisfaction, Herzberg's Two-Factor Model, the Requisite Task Attributes (RTA) Model, and the Job Characteristic Model.

As a conclusion, a review of vital studies of job satisfaction in public organizations, studies of job satisfaction in Saudi Arabia, and in Britain is included.

## 2.1 Motivation Theories

Job Satisfaction is a concept that has been rooted in many motivation theories that investigate the causes and effects of job satisfaction in the work situation perspective. Some individuals perceive their satisfaction as coming from the fulfillment of certain needs and desires. Others feel satisfied when their expectations are met on the job.

In this section, four important theories of motivation are reviewed. These have been used as the basis of most job satisfaction models and include needs theories, expectancy theory, and equity theory.

One of the most commonly discussed aspects in the area of work motivation has been the concept of needs. This concept is often utilized as an element of other complex models that describe the work situation. For example, the case of an employee who is seen by others in the organization as having a high need for achievement, or a low need for affiliation.

Although need theories are currently not generating a great deal of research as Mitchell (1982) noted, they still represent an important emphasis on what the individual brings to the work situation. For this reason, two major need theories will be briefly reviewed: Maslow's need hierarchy theory and Murray's manifest need theories.

### 2.1.1 Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory

One of the current basic and popular theories of work motivation is Abraham Maslow's need hierarchy theory. On the basis of his clinical observations, Maslow (1943,54) posited that most individuals pursue with varying intensities the following needs:

1. **Physiological needs:** These needs are thought to be the most basic needs and include the needs for food, water, and sex.
2. **Safety needs:** The second set of needs centres around the need to provide a safe and secure physical and emotional environment.
3. **Belongingness needs:** These needs relate to one's desire to be accepted by one's peers and to develop friendship.
4. **Esteem needs:** These focus on the desire to have a positive self-image and to receive recognition, attention, and appreciation from others for one's contributions.
5. **Self-actualization needs:** The highest need category is the need for self-actualization. Here the individual is concerned primarily with developing his or her full potential as an individual and with attaining all that is available.

Maslow's needs consists of two premises. The first premise states that individuals are primarily "wanting" creatures, motivated by a desire to satisfy certain specific types of needs. The second premise is that needs which individual pursue are universal across various populations and that they are arranged sequentially in hierarchical form. That is, once the lower-order needs (physiological and safety needs) are satisfied, the

individual g moves up the hierarchy one level at a time and attempts to satisfy the next higher-order needs.

Since Maslow first published his theory forty years ago, it has become one of the most popular theories of motivation in the management and organizational behaviour literature. Surprisingly though, until the mid-sixties, little empirical evidence existed that tested predications of the theory (Wahba & Bridwell, 1973). Wahba and Bridwell reviewed publication of a number of empirical studies testing some predictions of the theory. They concluded that there was no clear evidence that human needs are classified into five distinct categories, or that human needs were structured in a special hierarchy. Some evidence exists for possibly two types of needs, higher and lower-order needs, even though this categorization is not always operative.

#### 2.12 Murray's Manifest Needs Theory

On the basis of several years of clinical observations, Henry A. Murray (1938) wrote his classic explorations in personality, in which he argued that individuals could be classified according to the strengths of various personality need variables. Later, the model has been considerably developed and extended by David McClelland (1953) and John Atkinson (1964).



Murray posted two dozen needs including the need for achievement, affiliation, power, autonomy, and so forth. He believed that needs are mostly learned, rather than inherited, and are activated (or manifested) by clues from the external environment. According to this theory, a person may have a high need for achievement, but such a need may not be strongly aroused because of impediment in the environment (such as a lack of a challenging task).

Whilst Murray was concerned with an entire set of needs, most current research in this area has focused on the specific need for achievement, particularly as it relates to performance in organizational settings. In essence, achievement motivation theory posits that employees with a high need for achievement should be given more challenging work assignments. Such assignments provide them with opportunities to accomplish a task with a standard of excellence, thereby leading to need satisfaction.

McClelland (1967) proposed that the job offers an opportunity to satisfy four needs: the need for achievement, the need for affiliation, the need for autonomy and the need for power.

### **Need for Achievement**

While Murray was concerned with an entire set of needs, most

current research in this area has focused on specific need for achievement, particularly as it relates to performance in organizational settings. McClelland, Atkinson, and their associates presented a series of laboratory studies indicative of a strong positive relation between high need for achievement and high levels of performance and executive success (Atkinson and Feather, 1966).

Individuals with a high need for achievement see organizational membership as a chance to solve challenging problems and to excel. Steers (1981) characterised persons with high need for achievement by: (1) a strong desire to assume personal responsibility for finding solutions to problems; (2) a tendency to set moderately difficult achievement goals and take calculating risks; (3) a strong desire for concrete feedback on task performance and (4) a single minded preoccupation with task and task accomplishment. Low need for achievement, conversely, is typically characterised by a preference for low risk levels on tasks and shared responsibilities on tasks. The concept of need for achievement is important to understanding how people respond to the work environment, especially in terms of job design. For example, enriching the employee's job by providing greater amounts of variety, autonomy, and responsibility would probably enhance performance only for those employees who were challenged by such a job. Low need achievers, conversely, may be frustrated by the increased personal responsibility for task accomplishment

and may perform poorly or may even withdraw from that situation.

### **Need for Affiliation**

In contrast to the need for achievement, relatively little is known about the behavioural consequences of the need for affiliation. The need for affiliation may be defined as an "attraction to another organism in order to feel reassured from the other that the self is acceptable" (Birch and Veroff, 1966). This need should not be confused with being sociable or popular; instead, people with a high need for affiliation are classified by the following: (1) a strong desire for approval and reassurance from others; (2) a tendency to conform to the wishes and norms of other when pressured by people whose friendship they value; and (3) a sincere interest in the feeling of others. Individuals high in need for affiliation tend to take jobs characterised by a high amount of inter personal contact, like sales, teaching, public relations, and counseling.

Some evidence suggests that individuals with a high need for affiliation have better attendance records than those with a low affiliation (Steers and Braunstein, 1976). French (1958) found in a laboratory experiment that, while high in affiliation individuals performed better when given task related feedback, supportive feedback or where pressure increased output was exerted by one's friends only. Thus, individuals high in

affiliation are expected to be more productive in a cooperative supportive work environment where positive feedback is tied to performance.

### **Need for Autonomy**

Individuals with a high need for autonomy prefer situations in where they work alone, control their own work pace, and are not hampered by excessive rule or procedures. It has been found that individuals with a high need for autonomy tend to be poor performers unless they are allowed to participate in the determination of their tasks. They are also found to be uncommitted to the goals and objectives to the organization and are not managers (Vroom, 1959).

### **Need for Power**

This presents a desire to influence others and to control one's environment. The ultimate satisfaction of an individual comes with his or her ability to have influence over the environmental forces that exert power on them. Whether they become leaders or are seen only as "dominating individuals" depends on other attributes such as ability and sociability. They usually attempt to influence directly by making suggestions, by giving their opinions and evaluations, and by trying to

influence others. They are usually verbally fluent, often talkative, sometimes argumentative and seek positions of leadership in group activities.

Recent research demonstrates that employees with high need for power or dominance tend to be superior performers, have above average attendance records, and tend to be in supervisory positions (Steers and Braunstein, 1976).

McClelland (1976) noted that need for power can take two forms among managers: personal power and institutional power. Employees with a personal power orientation strive for dominance almost for the sake of dominance. Personal conquest is very important to them. Institution power managers, conversely, are organization minded and feel personal responsibility for building up the organization and are willing to sacrifice some of their own self-interest for the welfare of the organization. They have a strong sense of justice and equity. They enjoy work and completing tasks in an orderly fashion. They are more mature and more willing to seek expert advice when necessary.

Using this description of needs as a basis, what kind of a need or set of needs does a manager require in order to be most successful? McClelland argues persuasively that the best manager is one who has a high need for power. McClelland's argument (1976) begins by asking what is meant by managerial success:

"Almost by definition, a good manager is one who, among other things, helps subordinates feel strong and responsible, who rewards them properly for good performance, and who sees that things are organized in such a way that subordinates feel they know what they should be doing. Above all, managers should foster among subordinates a strong sense of team spirit, of pride in working as part of a particular team. If a manager creates and encourages this spirit, his subordinates certainly should perform better."

The characteristics of managers who have a high need for achievement tend to be highly independent individuals who want to assume responsibility, who receive credit for task accomplishment, and short term feedback on their performance. These characteristics are often associated with the entrepreneur. In complex organizations, managers obviously can not perform all the tasks necessary for success; team work is necessary and feedback on the group's effort and performance is often vague and delayed. Thus, the managerial position may not provide an environment that would stimulate a person with a high need for achievement.

Affiliative managers have a high need of group acceptance and, partly as a result of this, they often tend to be indecisive in decision-making for fear of alienating one group or another. This concern or need for maintaining good interpersonal relationships often results in keeping subordinates happy instead of improving performance.

Managers with a high need for "institutional" power were found in McClelland's (1976) study to supervise work groups that

were both more productive and more satisfied than other managers. Thus power orientated managers, when truly concerned about the organization as a whole (instead of themselves) provide the structure, drive, and support necessary to facilitate goal oriented group behaviour. In this sense, they fit very neatly into the definition of managerial success noted above.

### 2.1.3 Valence-Instrumentality-Expectancy Theory (VIE)

In recent years, there has been increasing attention to a variety of theories that could give a thorough explanation of the behaviour of individuals whilst at work, these are referred to as expectancy theories. These theories have their roots in Vroom's (1964) book on work motivation.

The theory consists of three key mental components: "valence, instrumentality, and expectancy". Each of these components is a belief that is seen as instigating and directing behaviour. Vroom uses the term valence to refer to the effective (emotional) orientations people hold with regard to outcomes. That is, valence refers to the expected levels of satisfaction or dissatisfaction brought about by work related outcomes. According to Vroom, a given level of performance is said to be positively valent if the employee believes that it will lead to other outcomes, which are called the second level outcomes.

The second major component of VIA theory is referred to as "instrumentality". Vroom suggests that instrumentality should be considered as a probability belief linking one outcome (performance level) to other outcomes. If an employee believes that a high level of performance is instrumental for the acquisition of other outcomes that he expects will be gratifying (such as promotion) and/or if he believes that a high performance level will be instrumental for avoiding other outcomes that he



wishes to avoid (such as being fired), then that employee will place a high valence upon performing the job well.

According to Vroom, the level of instrumentality ranges from 1.0 (meaning that the attainment of the second outcome is certain if the first outcome is achieved), through zero (meaning that there is no likely relationship between the attainment of the first outcome and the attainment of the second), to -1.0 (meaning that the attainment of the second outcome is certain without the first and that is impossible with it). For example, bonus pay that is distributed at random would lead to employee instrumentality perceptions linking bonus pay to performance equal to zero (performance and pay have no connection). On the other hand, commission pay schemes which tie pay directly to performance, are designed to make employees perceive that performance is positively instrumental for the acquisition of money. Finally, an employee might perceive that taking a job as a traveling salesman will be instrumental for attaining a number of outcomes, some of which he expects will be positive, some of which he expects will be negative. On the positively valent side, meeting people and seeing new things are outcomes that will be instrumental for satisfying his relatedness and growth needs, while possible threat to his family life may not encourage him to take the job.

The third major component of VIE theory referred to as

expectancy, is the strength of a person's belief about whether a particular outcome is possible. If a person believes that a particular outcome can be achieved he will be more motivated to try it. Vroom suggested that of expectancy is thought in probability terms ranging from zero (in the case where the person's subjective probability of attaining an outcome is psychologically zero "I can't do it") to 1.0 (indicating that the person has no doubt about his capacity to attain the outcome).

Since the publication of Vroom's book in 1964, there has been a considerable amount of both theoretical and empirical attention paid to expectancy-type models of work motivation (Porter and Lawler, 1968; Lawler, 1971, 1973; Shpiro, and Wahba, 1974; and Campbell and Pritchard 1976).

Most of these efforts have sought to study the characteristics of people and organizations that influence valence, instrumentality, and expectancy beliefs, or to examine the types of conditions within which VIE-type predictions of work motivation can be expected to apply. However, these studies showed that Vroom's (1964) statement of VIE theory left a number of questions unanswered. Perhaps the most important of these concerns the origins of valence, instrumentality, and expectancy beliefs, and the nature of the relationship between employee attitudes toward work and job performance.

#### 2.1.4 Equity Theory

None of the above approaches tackles the problem of how values are acquired by the individuals, nor how acquired values change. Employees form impressions of others and the events that affect them and show a behavioural response based on their positive or negative evaluation. One useful attempt to understand this point and how social interactions in the workplace influence employee reaction to their jobs and participation in the organization, is provided by theories of social exchange processes (Adams, 1965; Simson, 1972).

Adams' theory of equity is perhaps the most rigorously developed statement of how individuals evaluate social exchange relationships. The theory has led to considerable research interest in testing its predications and investigating employee reactions to compensation in employer-employee exchange relationships. The theory and supporting research, therefore, is highly relevant to increasing the present understanding of behaviour in organizational settings.

The major components of exchange relationships in Adams theory are inputs and outcomes. Inputs or investments are those things a person contributes to the exchange. In the employment situation, inputs include previous work experience, education, and training. Outcomes are those things that result from the exchange such as pay, supervisory treatment, job assignments,

fringe benefits, and status symbols.

Adams suggests that individuals weight their inputs and outcomes by their importance to the individual. Also, the person evaluates his or her outcomes and inputs by comparing them with those of others. Equity is said to exist whenever the ratio of a person's outcomes to inputs is equal to the ratio of other's outcomes and inputs. If this ratio compares unfavourably with the ratio for a "comparison other", then feelings of inequity and presumably also dissatisfaction result. The conditions necessary to produce equity or inequity is based on the individual's perceptions of inputs and outcomes and the characteristics of the situation are of less importance than the person's perception.

Inequity does not necessarily exist if a person has high inputs and low outcomes as long as the comparison other has a similar ratio. An employee may therefore exhibit satisfaction on a job that demands a great deal and for which they receive very little if the comparison other is in a similar position. The theory, however, does not specify adequately how a comparison other is chosen.

Adams describes six alternative methods of restoring equity: (1) altering inputs; (2) altering outcomes; (3) cognitively distorting inputs or outcomes; (4) leaving the field; (5) taking actions designed to change the inputs or outcomes of the comparison other; (6) changing the comparison other. The choice

of a particular method of restoring equity will depend upon the characteristics of the inequitable situation. In general, it is considered easier to distort input or outcomes. Leaving the field (e.g., turnover from an organization) as a method of reducing inequity will only be considered in extreme cases of inequity.

Although equity considerations are relevant to a number of different types of social relationships, most research has focused attention on the employer employee exchange relationships.

## 2.2 Job Satisfaction Models

Having reviewed the important motivation theories related to job satisfaction, attention is now turned to the examination of the major models used to measure job satisfaction in the work situation.

This section covers four models of job satisfaction that were found to be related to some parts of this present research. This includes Fulfillment and Discrepancy models, Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory, the Requisite Task Attributes (RTA) model, and finally the Job Characteristics (job design) model.

### 2.2.1 Fulfillment and Discrepancy Theories

Perhaps the simplest conceptual approach to job satisfaction is known as the Fulfillment Theory proposed by Schaffer (1953). This suggests that job satisfaction is determined by finding out how much of each valued outcome an individual is receiving, and summing these, weighted for the importance of each class of outcomes, to provide a measure for total job satisfaction. Some job satisfaction questionnaires of this type ignore the importance of outcome and ask only "how much does your job provide of the following ....".

Several other approaches have felt that the individual

differences in values or need strengths have an influence on satisfaction. Ideas put forward by Locke (1969), for example, can be referred to as Discrepancy Theory. Locke stresses that the perceived existing value is what is crucial, rather than the objective actual value. According to Locke, job satisfaction can be measured only via satisfaction with the various facets of the job. He argues:

"Since a job is not perceived or experienced as such, it cannot initially be evaluated as a single unit. Overall job satisfaction is the sum of the evaluations of the discriminable elements of which the job is composed."

He suggests that a valid overall index of satisfaction would, in the present view, be a sum of the evaluation of all job aspects to which an individual responds, as oppose to the average, even when individuals respond to a different number of aspects. Locke focuses on one problem concerning measurement, namely that discrepancy scores for different values are not directly comparable. This point is of practical significance only when testing Locke's theory of job satisfaction. This approach would presumably require the direct measurement of expressed satisfaction rather than measurement of the discrepancy between desired and perceived in order to incorporate the importance consideration. However, he emphasizes strongly that before considering measuring job satisfaction, a conceptual analysis must be attempted. The apparent confusion in the job satisfaction literature and the number of different items

currently used to measure job satisfaction provide support for this view.

Another discrepancy approach to job satisfaction is that of Porter (1962). This is similar to that of Locke, but in measuring satisfaction, rather than asking directly, Porter uses two items, one "How much should there be..." and one a "How much is there now..." item. A satisfaction measure is derived from a sum of the discrepancies. Since this is a questionnaire measure, the "is now" item is in fact a perceived actual, rather than an objective actual figure, as Locke suggests. Importance is also measured, but used as a separate variable, and never combined with the discrepancy.



### 2.2.2 Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

One of the earliest researchers in the area of job redesign as it affects motivation was Frederick Herzberg (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959). Herzberg and his associates began their initial work on factors affecting work motivation in the mid-1950s. Their first publication effort included a comprehensive review of existing research to date on the subject. On the basis of this review, Herzberg carried out his now famous survey of 200 accountants and engineers, from which he derived the initial framework for his theory of motivation. Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959: 81-82) summarized the theory as follows:

"The three factors of work itself, responsibility, and advancement, stand out strongly as the major factors involved in producing high job attitudes. Their role in producing poor job attitudes is by contrast extremely small. Contrariwise, company policy and administration, supervision and working conditions represent the major job dissatisfiers with little potency to affect job satisfiers and deal with the factors involved in doing job, whereas the job dissatisfiers deal with the factors that define the job context."

On the basis of his survey, Herzberg discovered that employees tended to describe satisfying experiences in terms of factors that were intrinsic to the content of the job itself. These factors were called "motivators" and included such variables as achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth. Conversely,

dissatisfying experiences called "hygiene" factors, resulted largely from extrinsic, non job related factors, such as company policies, salary, coworker relations, and supervisory style.

Herzberg argued, on the basis of these results, that eliminating the causes of dissatisfaction (through hygiene factors) would not result in a state of satisfaction. Instead, it would result in a neutral state. Satisfaction (and motivation) would occur only as a result of the use of motivators.

The implications of this model of employee motivation are clear: Motivation can be increased through basic changes in the nature of an employee's job (that is, "job enrichment"). Thus, jobs should be redesigned to allow for increased challenge and responsibility, opportunities for advancement, and personal growth, and recognition.

Herzberg differentiated between what he described as the older and less effective job redesign efforts, known as "job enlargement", and the newer concept of "job enrichment" (Paul, Robertson, & Herzberg, 1969). The term "job enlargement", as used by Herzberg, refers to a horizontal expansion of an employee's job, giving him or her more of the same kinds of activities but not altering the necessary skills. "job enrichment" on the other hand, means a vertical expansion of an employee's job, requiring an increase in the skills which

eventually leads to increased opportunities. As described by Paul et al. (1969: 61), job enrichment:

"seeks to improve both efficiency and human satisfaction by means of building into people's jobs, quite specifically, a greater scope for personal achievement and recognition, more challenging and responsible work, and more opportunity for individual advancement and growth."

Since its development, Herzberg's theory has been subject to several important criticisms. For example, it has been noted (King, 1970) that the model itself has five different theoretical interpretations and that the available research evidence is not entirely consistent with any of these interpretations. Second, a number of scholars believe that the model does not give sufficient attention to individual differences and assumes that job enrichment benefits all employees. Research evidence suggests that individual differences are, in fact, an important moderator of the effects of job enrichment. Finally, research also has generally failed to support the existence of two independent factors: motivators and hygiene factors (King, 1970; Schneider and Locke, 1971; Water and Waters, 1972).

Although Herzberg's hypothesis have been largely refuted, the distinction between the job itself and its context remains important in the literature. In addition, the model has enhanced the understanding of motivation at work. Therefore, his contribution should not be overlooked. Before 1959, little

research had been carried out on work motivation, and the research that did exist was largely fragmentary. Work carried out by Maslow on need hierarchy theory and that carried out by Murray, McClelland, and Atkinson on achievement motivation theory was concerned largely with laboratory based findings or clinical observations. Neither had seriously addressed the problems of the workplace at that time.

Moreover, the theory put forward by Herzberg was simple to grasp, was based on some empirical data, and equally important offered specific recommendations for managers to improve employee motivational levels. In doing so, he forced organizations to examine closely a number of possible misconceptions concerning motivation. For example, Herzberg argued that money should not necessarily be viewed as the most important force on the job. He stated that other "context" factors in addition to money which surround an employee's job (such as fringe benefits and supervisory style) should not be expected to affect motivation markedly either. He advanced a strong case that managers must instead give considerable attention to a series of "content" factors (such as opportunities for achievement, recognition, and advancement) that have an important bearing on the behaviour of the employee. These contributions are often overlooked in the heated debates over the validity of the empirical data behind the theoretical formulations (Brockman, 1971; Whitset & Winslow, 1967).

### 2.2.3 The Requisite Task Attributes Model

The requisite task attributes model, proposed by Turner and Lawrence (1965), argued that an enriched job (that is, a job characterised by variety, autonomy, responsibility, etc.) would lead to increased attendance and job satisfaction. The model was similar to Herzberg's in that it viewed job enrichment as a motivating variable. It differed from the model of Herzberg in that Turner and Lawrence included absenteeism as a dependent variable.

Moreover, Turner and Lawrence acknowledged the existence of two sets of important moderators in the job scope-outcome relationship. First, it was found in their study that workers from urban settings were more satisfied with low-scope jobs than workers from rural settings. Second, it was found that situational factors (such as supervisory style and coworker relations) also moderated the impact of job scope on satisfaction and absenteeism. This acknowledgment of the role of individual and situational variables represents a significant contribution in understanding the ways in which job redesign affects employee attitudes and behaviour. In fact, much of the subsequent work on the topic has taken the lead from the work of Turner and Lawrence.

### 2.2.5 The Job Characteristics Model

A model specifying how job characteristics and individual differences interact to affect the satisfaction, motivation, and productivity of individuals at work has been proposed by Hackman and Oldham (1976). The model is specifically intended for use in planning and carrying out changes in the design of jobs and uses an instrument called the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS).

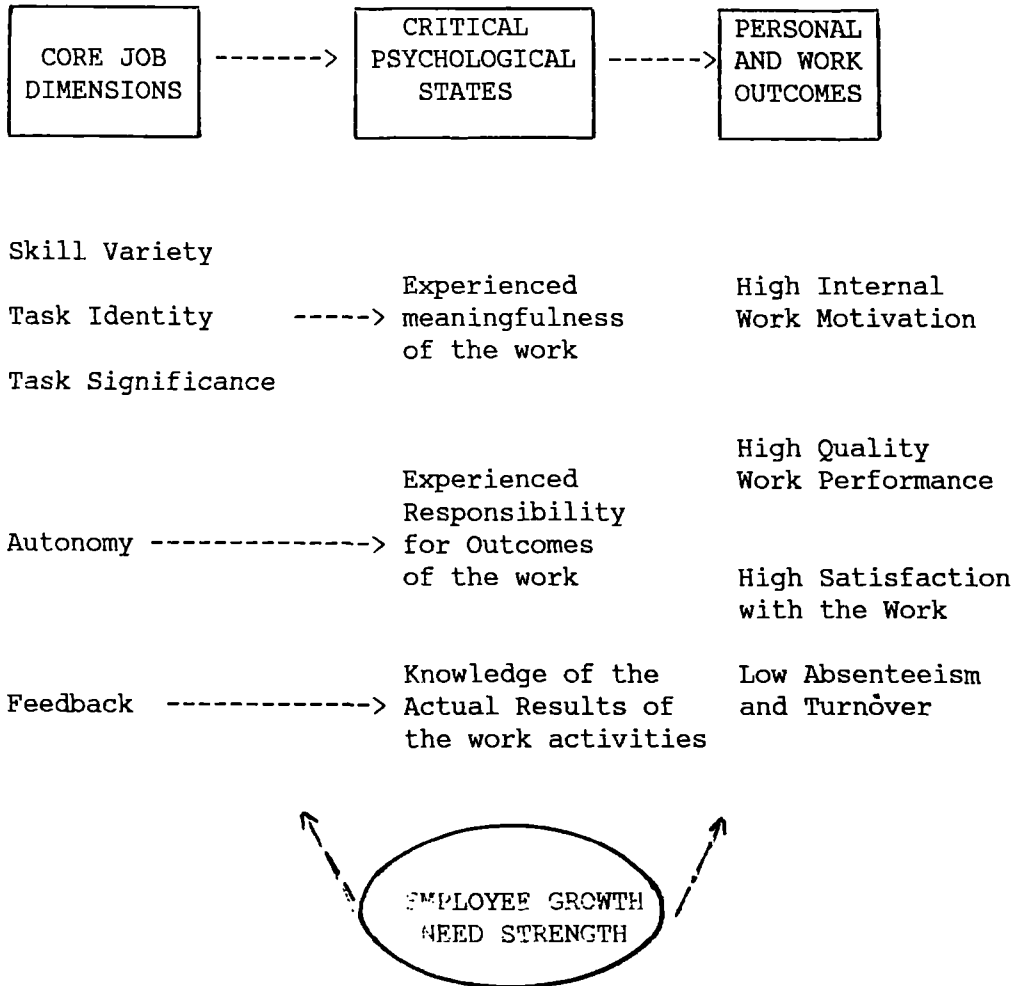
The theory which gave rise to the present model is based on earlier work by Turner and Lawrence (1965) and by Hackman and Lawler (1971). The basic job characteristics model is shown in Figure 1.

As illustrated in the figure, five core job dimensions are seen as creating three critical psychological states, that, in turn, lead to a number of beneficial personal and work outcomes. The links between the job dimensions, the psychological states, and the outcomes are shown to be moderated by individual growth need strength. The major classes of variables in the model are reviewed briefly below.

The following three psychological states are postulated as critical in affecting the motivation of an individual and satisfaction on the job:

1. Experienced meaningfulness: The person must experience the work as generally important, valuable, and worthwhile.

**Figure 3.1: The Job Characteristics Model**



**Source: Hackman and Oldham, 1975, Development of Job Diagnostic Survey.**

2. Experienced responsibility: The individual must feel personally responsible and accountable for the results of the work he performs.
3. Knowledge of results: The individual must have an understanding on a fairly regular basis, of how effectively he is performing the job.

Hackman and Lawler postulate that internal rewards are obtained by an individual when he learns (knowledge of results) that he personally (experienced responsibility) has performed well on a task that he cares about (experienced meaningfulness). These internal rewards are reinforcing to the individual and serve as incentives for continued efforts to perform well in the future.

The theory proposes that these critical psychological states are created by the presence of five "core" job dimensions. Experienced meaningfulness of the work is enhanced primarily by three of the core dimensions: skill variety, task identity, and task significance. Experienced responsibility for work outcomes is increased when a job has high autonomy. Knowledge of results is increased when a job is high on feedback.

**Skill variety:** the degree to which a job requires a variety of different activities that involve the use of a number different skills and talents.

When a task requires a person to engage in activities that



challenge or stretch his skills and abilities, that task almost invariably is experienced as meaningful by the individual.

**Task identity:** the degree to which the job requires completion of a whole and identifiable piece of work, that is, performing a task from beginning to end with a visible outcome.

If an employee assembles a complete product or provides a complete unit of service, he should find the work more meaningful than if he were responsible for only a small part of the whole job.

**Task Significance:** the degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives or work of other people, whether in the immediate organization or in the external environment.

When an individual understands that the results of his work may have a significant effect on the well-being of other people, the experienced meaningfulness of the work is usually enhanced.

The job characteristic predicted to promote feelings of personal responsibility in the employee for the work outcomes is autonomy. It can be defined as the following:

**Autonomy:** The degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out.

To the extent where autonomy is high, work outcomes will be viewed by workers as depending substantially on their own

efforts, initiatives, and decisions, rather than on the adequacy of instructions from the boss or from a manual of job procedures. In such circumstances, individuals should feel strong personal responsibility for the successes and failures that occur on the job.

The job characteristic that fosters knowledge of results is feedback, which can be defined as follows:

Feedback: The degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job results in the individual obtaining direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his performance.

When using the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) instrument, the scores of a job on the five dimensions described above are combined into a single index reflecting the overall potential of the job to prompt self-generated work motivation in job incumbents. Following the model as illustrated in Figure 1, a job high in motivating potential must be high on at least one (and hopefully more) of the three dimensions that lead to experienced meaningfulness, and high on autonomy and feedback also. Arithmetically, scores of jobs on the five dimensions are combined as follows to meet this criterion:

$$\text{Motivating Potential Score (MPS)} = \frac{[\text{Skill Variety} + \text{Task Identity} + \text{Task Significance}]}{3} \times \text{Autonomy} \times \text{Feedback}$$

As can be seen from the formula, a near zero score of a job on either autonomy or feedback will reduce the overall MPS to near zero; such a score on one of the three job dimensions that contribute to experienced meaningfulness cannot do so by itself.

Individual Growth Need Strength is also postulated to moderate how people react to complex, challenging work at two points in the model shown in Figure : first at the link between the objective job dimensions and the psychological states, and again between the psychological states and the outcome variables. The first link implies that high growth need individuals are more likely (or better able) to experience the psychological states when their objective job is enriched than as compared with their low growth need counterparts. The second link implies that individuals with high growth need strength will respond more positively to the psychological states when they are present, than will low growth need individuals.

An empirical test of the job characteristics model of work motivation is beyond the scope of this research and is reported in detail elsewhere (Hackman and Oldham, 1975).

In general, the job characteristics model has advantages in that it supports the results which have shown that people who score highly on their job characteristics are more motivated and satisfied than whose jobs have low score. However, the use of the Job Diagnostic Survey has been criticized by many

researchers in this area (Alday, Barr and Brief, 1981; Roberts and Glick, 1981). Roberts and Glick (1981: 197) argue particularly that:

"The composite measure of job characteristics, the MPS, is parsimonious but neglects important aspects of jobs such as pay, security, social status, safety, and so on, and fails to account for individual differences in valences associated with each outcome. ..The algorithm for computing the MPS was not based on a very strong theoretical rationale.

### 2.3.1 Studies of Job Satisfaction in Public Organizations

Perry and Porter (1979) attempted to assess the present understanding of the motivational context in public organizations. In doing so, they tried to identify aspects of public organizations that make them somewhat unique, compared with other types of organizations, and to see how these differences can affect work motivation. Based on the types of organizations studied in their research, generalizations were made that seemed appropriate for civil servants and civil service jobs in medium to large governmental agencies, and may apply to public employees in other contexts also.

Based on a classification system (Porter and Miles, 1974), four major categories of variables were identified: (1) individual characteristics; (2) job characteristics; (3) work environment characteristics; and (4) external environment. They pointed out that if motivation is to be affected, one or more of these variables must be changed or affected.

The focus of the individual characteristics was on certain features (such as attitudes) brought to the work situation. The job characteristics describe that which the person does at work, that is, the nature of the job or the collection of tasks that comprise the job. They believed understanding of individual characteristics affecting public sector motivational process to be deficient and that motivation-relevant characteristics of

public sector jobs also were not well documented in the research literature.

Guyot (1961) compared middle managers in the federal government and in business on their needs for achievement, affiliation, and power. He concluded that both popular and academic images of civil servants were distorted. Government middle managers had higher needs for achievement and lower needs for affiliation as compared with their business counterparts, but their needs for power were roughly the same.

Using samples of students about to enter management careers, Rawls and his associates (Rawls and Nelson, 1975; Rawls, Ulrich, and Nelson, 1975) found that students about to enter the nonprofit sector (primarily government) were significantly more dominant and flexible, had a higher capacity for status, and valued economic wealth to a lesser degree as compared with entrants to the profit sector. No significant differences existed between the groups on need for power and need for security.

Several studies showed a comparison of the needs of the public employees and how these needs differ from individuals in other sectors (Paine, Carrol, and Leete, 1966; Rhinerhart, Barrell, Dewolfe, Griffin, and Spaner, 1969; Rainey, 1979). The collective findings of these studies indicated that in contrast to their counter parts in business, public managers experience

significantly lower levels of satisfaction. One area in which the differences are significant is that of satisfaction with promotion.

A related aspect of work motivation in many public organizations is what Buchanan (1975a) terms "goal crispness". Buchanan argues that government organizations pursue diffuse and conflicting goals, quite unlike the tangible and relatively more specific goals of business organizations. Thus, public managers are usually confronted by a two-pronged dilemma with respect to the motivational properties of public sector jobs: (1) jobs for which performance criteria cannot be readily defined or measured and (2) conflicting criteria for superior performance. In another study, Buchanan (1974a) compared business and public managers on their first year challenge. Industrial managers in his sample scored higher, reporting significantly greater first year job challenge. Several reasons for the lower level of first year job challenge among government managers were put forward. One reason for this was thought to be that bureaucratic roles, particularly at training levels, might be difficult to infuse with excitement. This could be exacerbated by the gap that exists between the routine of the first job and the idealism that might have drawn the manager to the public service. Buchanan notes that the first year job challenge might also be negatively affected by efforts of the government to assure representation and to train unemployed individuals. These

policies might unwittingly contribute to overstaffing and the dilution of training positions.



### Studies of Job Satisfaction in Britain in the Public Sector.

A number of surveys of job satisfaction in the Civil service were conducted prior to the 1970s. These surveys included those conducted in 1966-67 for the Fulton Committee, most notably a study by the Treasury of job satisfaction among executive and clerical officials and a survey of administrative class principals, as well as the earlier work of Walker.

These studies were mainly concerned with three aspects of the work in the public sector: economic rewards, pay, career prospects, security, etc.; social aspects of work: congenial colleagues, external status of the job, quality of relationships with superiors; and psychological rewards; interest and scope of the work itself, amount of personal freedom it offers, etc. These studies also provided some results for overall job satisfaction.

Brown (1970) reviewed the nature and basic findings of these various studies. In the case of Walker, for example, it was found that 25 percent of his sample were generally satisfied with their job, 13 percent were dissatisfied and 62 percent were somewhere in between. Interestingly, satisfaction tended to increase with age, length of time in post, and rank. The Treasury survey of executive officers reported that 69 percent liked their job, 21 percent were indifferent and 10 percent disliked it. Age was

also found to exert a relevant influence on the responses obtained, with over 25 percent of those aged below 40 stating that they regretted having joined the civil service. It was found that the major causes of dissatisfaction among young employees were work related , which did not, in their view, fully develop their potential or provide them with sufficient individual recognition. Having reviewed these findings, Brown (1970: 290) come to the conclusion that:

"The overall picture is not idyllic, but neither is it on the whole a bad one. It is unfortunate that so many people dislike their jobs, particularly at the lower levels, and that more civil servants do not derive positive satisfaction for their work... The main causes of dissatisfaction seem to lie in the area of psychological rather than economic rewards."

Schroff (1981) reviewed the alleged evidence and reasons for the decline in job satisfaction in the 1970s. One reason for the low job satisfaction in public administration at the beginning of this period was the decision in the early 1970s to establish a small team in the Civil Service Department with responsibility for several functions. These included the identification of the factors influencing job satisfaction and the development of ways to overcome them. The small team with little support from government has been seen as an indicator of low job satisfaction.

Schroff pointed out that recently, however, there has been a number of specific projects designed to improve job satisfaction

in various parts of the Civil service. These have included schemes in the Inland Revenue, the Department of National Savings at Durham, local offices of the Department of Health and Social Security, the Civilian Pay and Records Office of the Ministry of Defence at Bath, etc. These important projects were initiated as a result of the establishment of the Wider Issues Review Team in July 1973. It sought, in the aftermath of the first ever national, official strike in the civil service, "to identify the factors, which increasingly affect the attitudes to work and the sense of satisfaction derived from it of the staff, particularly in the middle and lower grades of the Civil Service" (Civil Service Department, 1975: 10).

A study performed by Exlcy (1977) has investigated the apparent problem of low morale in the Department of Customs and Excise. Its results have highlighted relatively low satisfaction with regard to staff management, personnel management systems, uncertainty about the future and resource provision. In short, dissatisfaction tended to be associated with the context, rather than the content of the job.

Long (1975) conducted a survey of local government officers, seeking their views on working in local authorities following reorganization procedures. They asked the respondents to rate the importance of 23 aspects of their job. The result indicated that the sample as a whole attached strong importance to the

sense of fulfillment by their work and working relationships with other people.

As a conclusion to this section, the results of one or two relevant empirical studies conducted in the 1980s will be pointed out.

Livingstone and Wilkie (1981) conducted a study to determine the motivation and performance among civil service managers. Respondents were asked to describe situations in which they felt especially bad and especially good about the work they were doing. Responses were obtained from four sample groups of Civil servants: 300 higher executive officers and their professional equivalents, 150 senior executive officers and their professional equivalents, 60 graduate specialists, and 30 executive officers from a single department.

The responses obtained showed no significant difference between the four groups. Their final conclusion is summarized as follows:

"The findings strongly support the viewpoint of those who have advocated the importance of designing jobs in work organizations in order to provide opportunities for interest, achievement and for taking responsibility."

Using the data in the General Household Survey for the year 1974 and 1978, Beaumont and Partridge (1983), examined the levels of job satisfaction of public and private sector employees in Britain. According to the authors there has been no large

scale, representative survey that directly compared job satisfaction levels in the public and private sectors in Britain. Comparisons were made under the following sub-headings: economic rewards and sanctions, social aspects of work, psychological rewards, and overall job satisfaction for two groups men and women in the public administration and the rest. The 1974 General Household Survey included 806 respondents employed in public administration among the 13,630 who answered the questions on job satisfaction, with 65.1% of these being men. Conversely, the 1978 survey included 742 public administration respondents among a total of 11,740 respondents, with 65.1 of these being men. For 1974 survey, results showed the following:

"Women were more satisfied than men in public administration with their usual take home pay, hours of work and relationships with supervisors. Women in public administration were more satisfied than women in the rest of the sample with their usual take home pay, promotion chances, and job security. Men in public administration were more satisfied than men in the rest of the sample with their job security and promotion prospects..."

For the 1978 survey, the pattern of findings was as follows:

"Women in public administration were more satisfied than men in public administration with all questions relating to pay, hours of work, the overall running of the organization and physical working conditions. Women in public administration were more satisfied than women in the rest of the sample with their pay, job security, and less satisfied with the use of their abilities in the job. Men in public administration were less satisfied than men in the rest of the sample with all matters relating to pay, and with the use of their abilities in the job and the running of the organization, while they were more satisfied with their job security.."

Generally, Beaumont and Patridge (1983) showed the level of satisfaction to be greater in 1974 than 1978 in both men and women. The percentages of responses of men in public administration who were dissatisfied rose from 5.4% in 1974 to 15.7% in 1978. While in the case of women the rise was from 3.2% to 11%. In short, there has been a general rise in reported dissatisfaction, but it has been much sharper in the case of employees in public administration.

### 2.3.3 Studies in Saudi Arabia

The literature review of work-related studies conducted in Saudi Arabia indicates that there has been no serious theoretical and empirical studies in job satisfaction. With the exception of one or two studies, most focused on group behaviour in public bureaucracy, manpower selection, training, and decision-making policies. None dealt with job satisfaction, except for one or two studies which will be discussed below.

Although the government of Saudi Arabia is convinced that administrative development is a prerequisite for the success of economic and social development plans and thus created administrative agencies including the Institute of Public Administration. It seems, however, that most of these agencies focused their research studies on the national development problems such as manpower selection, training, and organizational structure. There are exceptions, however, which will be discussed below.

Ibrahim (1975) by using Thurstone's Law of Comparative Judgment studied the opinions and judgments of Saudi workers in the private sector. His sample comprised some 61 factory workers and 16 plant managers or persons who worked as managers. The two samples were selected from different industrial firms in Saudi Arabia, and were obtained separately. The purpose of the study was to gain a general insight into the incentives listed in the

test and their relative importance.

The results indicated that both groups appeared to over-react to the questions. Plant managers over emphasized the importance of material rewards and hence almost ignored the importance of intangible incentives. Factory workers, on the other hand, over-reacted in their preference for esteem and other rewards which had been ignored by their supervisors over those of material nature, and hence under ranking the importance of material rewards as vital to them in time of soaring inflation and rising standard of living.

Sahally (1977) used the same method as Ibrahim (1975). His sample consisted of 106 technicians and engineers and 17 managers working in the Ministry of Information in Saudi Arabia. The sample included only Saudi employees in the Ministry.

The purpose of his study was to establish their relative scale values according to their importance in satisfying and motivating technicians and engineers employed by the public sector in Saudi Arabia and the comparison of the results to a similar study done by Ibrahim (1975).

The results of the study indicated the presence of an agreement between public and private sector employees on the relative importance of the test incentives.



Abdulwahab (1979) investigated decision-making in Saudi Arabia. A part of the questionnaire in his study was concerned with motivations of managers and needs satisfaction. His sample consisted of 80 Saudi managers who worked in government organizations. Two groups were formed: managers who had training in decision making a year before the study, and managers who had no training in decision-making.

His results showed that managers who had training in decision-making considered self-esteem and recognition from others as the most important need, followed by job security, promotion, and self-actualization. Relations with peers, salary and work condition were the least important needs. Managers who had no training considered job security to be the most important need, followed by self-esteem and recognition from others. In common with the other group, relations with peers and self-actualization, salary, promotion, and working conditions were found to be the least important needs. Also, he found that managers who had training in decision-making were more satisfied with self-esteem and self-actualization than managers who had no training in decision-making.

Al-Adaily (1981) explored the importance of certain factors to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction for Saudi Arabian government employees. The data of this study was collected by the use of a sixty four item modified Minnesota Satisfaction

Questionnaire (MSQ) that was mailed to the employees by their authority supervisors. Two hundred and forty-four were used in this study.

The descriptive analysis of Al-Adaily's study revealed that respondents felt that three factors were most important in job satisfaction: (1) responsibility, recognition, and relationship with peers and with subordinates; (2) working conditions; (3) supervisory techniques. The factors which Saudi employees were least satisfied with were: (1) security and salary; (2) organizational policies and personal recognition; and (3) time demands and requirements of the job. The remaining three factors fall between the extremes of high and low job satisfaction: (1) opportunities for advancement; (2) status ; and (3) personal development and opportunity to make own decisions.

The main findings indicated that Saudi government employees seem homogeneous in their rating of their satisfaction/dissatisfaction with aspects of their jobs, that job satisfaction is a unidimensional phenomenon, and that the general job satisfaction factor has nine components. However, the fact that data analyzed was obtained in a classroom context, where the author had been teaching motivation theory to the respondents, must raise the possibility of some bias being present in the responses. Such a problem does not exist with the data that is being analyzed in this study.

Diyab (1987) conducted an investigation in the area of career development and job satisfaction for the Saudi Arabian middle managers. The purpose of this research was to identify and explore in detail the general attitudes of university students towards the policies of the General Civil Service Bureau (GCSB) requiring them to join selected organization after graduation, and to examine the reasons behind what has become a large scale movement (especially of middle managers) from ministries to public organizations.

The research of Diyab focused on two types of organization: government organizations represented by different ministries, and public organizations such as Saudi Arabia Airlines, Petromin,.etc. It examined the effect of particular variables on the general job satisfaction of employees. Such variables included organizational structure, pay and fringe benefits, authority and the overall organizational climate.

The research showed that career development was the lowest for the middle managers. Managers were denied participation in decision making, their jobs did not appear to fulfill their aspirations, and above all their appointment by the GCSB was not suitable since the the majority were placed in jobs that did not match their area of specialization.

The research findings were summarized by Diyab (1987: 349,366) as follows:

"The first finding confirmed the expectation that psychological contracts, which are made up primarily of matches in expectations are related to greater job satisfaction, productivity, and reduced turnover..... Individuals will respond differently to their jobs depending on the degree of fit or misfit between individual job and organizational characteristics. As a consequence of this, when considering career satisfaction, the job itself is certainly not the only important factor influencing such satisfaction. We found in this research that factors such as autonomy, variety, structure, management policies, pay and the overall organizational environment were important determinants of career and job satisfaction."

Aba-Alkhail (1988) conducted a study of motivation and satisfaction among the middle managers in the Saudi Basic Industries Corporation (SABIC). The purpose of the study was to explore managerial thinking of Saudi middle managers in SABIC and compare them with the non-Saudi middle managers in the same organization. A comparison was made for three groups of middle managers: Saudi middle managers, middle managers from developing countries, and middle managers from the developed countries who work in Sabic.

The data was obtained using an instrument comprised of forty eight questions that were designed to cover the following:

- (i) demographic information, including age, sex, education, income, etc.
- (ii) leadership styles adopted from Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958), tapped managers's leadership style as democratic or authoritative style. Another set of questions were adopted from Fleishman et al (1955), covering the leader's behaviour.

(iii) managerial attitudes towards job satisfaction and motivation.

The findings of this study showed that there were similarities between the three groups of middle managers. In their thinking toward superior subordinate relationships, in terms of the superior's priorities of work, the training gained from superiors, and qualities expected in their superiors.

Results regarding the middle managers' motivation for joining Sabic, showed that the job itself was the main factor for the three groups. Middle managers' satisfaction stemmed from finding the job interesting, being involved in a variety of activities and producing the feeling of being "the expert" in a particular area. However, the three groups have differences in ranking other factors. For example, social relations at work was ranked number two for Saudis, number three for developing countries and was not important at all for the developed countries. Aba-Alkhail argues that:

"These results support the culture school of thought. In other words, one should not treat motivational theories as something universally accepted and applicable."

Finally, the findings regarding the level of job satisfaction is indicated by the author showed that there was a significant difference between the three groups of Sabic managers. It was found that middle managers from developed

countries were not very satisfied as employees of Sabic. This was attributed to their short term attachment to Sabic and the government policy of "Saudisation". The middle managers from Saudi Arabia and developing countries were very satisfied with their job in Sabic. Aba-Alkhail (1988: 297) concluded:

"From the above discussion, one significant aspect of these findings for this study is that of the 139 Sabic middle managers belonging to different countries, developing and developed countries. Both similarities and differences were found between them. However, we cannot attribute these similarities and differences to one single explanation..."

## CHAPTER THREE

### THE SAUDI ARABIAN ENVIRONMENT

Before examining the features of Ministries covered in this study, it is necessary to describe some of the geographical, political, economic, and social characteristics of Saudi Arabia.

#### 3.1 Saudi Arabia - Geographical Consideration:

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia occupies some four-fifths of the Arab Peninsula (see Appendix E: map of Saudi Arabia), covering an area of about 2,245,000 square kilometres. It has 1,760 kilometres of western coast along the Red Sea and 560 kilometres of eastern coast along the Arabian Gulf. 1

Geographically, Saudi Arabia is bounded on the north by Jordan, Iraq, and Kuwait; on the south by North and South Yemen; on the west by the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aqaba; and on the east by Oman, Qatar, the United Arab Emirates and the Arabian Gulf. Aside from the country's religious and economic significance, the potential importance of the geographical position of Saudi Arabia is quickly apparent. It is strategically located between Africa and mainland Asia, lies close to the Suez Canal and has frontiers on both the Red Sea and the Arabian Gulf. 2

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1. Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, A Guide to Industrial Investment, 6th edition (Riyadh, 1981), p. 1.
  2. George Lipsky, Saudi Arabia its people, its society, its culture, HRAF Press (New Haven, 1959) p. 19.

Saudi Arabia is divided administratively into five provinces. These five provinces are: the Central Province (Najd), Western Province (Hejaz), Eastern Province (Al-Hasa), Northern Province (Tabouk), and Southern Province (Asir).

The Central Province (Najd), situated at the heart of the Arabian Peninsula, contains the present capital al-Riyadh and the centre of all government activities and is vaguely divided into five districts. In the northernmost part of Najd is Jabil Shammar (Shammar's mountain), which takes its name from one of the most powerful tribes of Najd. The second district of Najd is al-Qassem which, on account of its agricultural resources is one of the most populated areas in Najd. Its cities of Buraida and Unayaza are also important as trade areas. Southwest of al-Qassem is to be found the third district Sudayr, whose largest city is al-Majma'ah. The fourth district is al-Arid, in the centre of which the capital, al-Riyadh is located. This district has a special historical significance since it has been the land of both the House of Al-Saud (the ruling family) and the Al-Shaikh Mohammed Ibn Abd Al-Wahhab, the founder of the famous religious movement in the eighteenth century known as "Wahhabism" which still provides ideological and legal bases of the country. The fifth district, Al-Washm is north of Riyadh of which Shagra is the largest city.

The Western Province (Al-Hejaz) includes the balance of the



west coast region, together with a mountain chain which decreases gradually in elevation as it moves northwards towards the coastal plain bordering the Red Sea where it widens slightly. Its major cities are Jeddah, the leading business centre of the Kingdom in which is situated the busy seaport of Jeddah, known as the Islamic Port of Jeddah. Also situated in this region are Makkah and Madina, which are the holy cities of Islam, and Al-Taif, a tourist resort and which has become the summer capital since the King and his Cabinet spend three to four months there annually.

Al-Ahsa is the third province of Saudi Arabia and stretches from Dahrhan, east of Najd province to the Arabian Gulf. It meets the Empty Quarter in the south, and on its northern borders is located Kuwait and the neutral zone. The Eastern Province is the country's wealthiest part, containing its massive petroleum resources. The principal cities include Al-Hafuf, Al-Qatif, Dhara, Dammam, Rastanura, and Al-Khober. The headquarters of the Arabian American Company (ARAMCO) is located in Dharan, a few miles from the administrative capital and port of Dammam. Rastanura, the world's largest petroleum port is located to the north of Dharan. To the west is the site of the Kingdom's new industrial complex at Al-Jubail. The fertile oasis cities of Al-Qatif and Hafof are also located here.

The fourth province, Asir, lies to the south of Al-Hejaz and extends down to the North Yemen, and includes a coastal plai

(Tihamas) along the Red Sea. Tihamas are unique in their extensive marshlands and lava fields. To the east of these plains runs a range of mountains, broken down here and there by Wadis or Valleys. Among the Wadis, most of which have oases, the most important are Yanbu, Fatma, and Itwid and Bisha. The Asir region is comprised of three separate districts. The first is the highland district of Asir with Abha. The second is Jaizan, a low-lying coastal district of Tihamah, and the third district is Najran, a cluster of fertile little oases connecting the interior borders of Yemen.

The Northern Province lies within a vast expanse of gravel and rock plains and extends from the Great Nafud Desert in the north to the border of Jordan and Iraq. The principal cities include Tabuk, Hail, and Sakaka.

#### **Population of Saudi Arabia:**

According to the official Saudi census in 1974, the population of Saudi Arabia was 7,012,642, of which about 24 percent were nomads. This represents the only population census available at the present time (the Statistical Indicator, 1985). The compilation of an accurate population count is complicated by the fact that perhaps one third of the population are shepherds who are nomadic in life style, moving from one place to another in search of water and pasture. Nomad agglomerations are

Table 3.1  
POPULATION OF SAUDI ARABIA BY ADMINISTRATIVE AREA

ADMINISTRATIVE AREA	No. of demographic units	No. of families	Sedentary	Nomadic	Population % of nomadic to total population	TOTAL
Al Riyadh	1,992	198,936	965,805	306,470	24.0	1,272,275
Mecca	4,088	325,789	1,513,634	240,474	13.7	1,754,108
Eastern Province	667	120,684	690,188	79,460	10.3	769,648
Asir	4,597	127,131	434,884	246,427	36.2	681,361
Medina	1,742	98,855	282,195	337,099	45.7	519,294
Jizan	4,537	85,483	387,161	15,945	4.0	403,106
Qasim	509	48,724	215,447	101,193	32.0	316,640
Hail	504	45,338	117,210	142,719	54.9	259,929
Tabut	472	33,642	105,388	88,375	45.6	193,763
Al-Baha	1,296	34,323	156,997	28,908	15.5	185,905
Najran	242	26,569	91,555	56,415	38.1	147,970
Northern Frontiers	130	19,345	42,666	86,079	66.9	128,745
Jawf	85	10,243	34,093	31,401	47.9	65,494
Qurayyat	98	5,873	18,432	12,972	41.3	31,404
Frontier Nomads	-	50,000	-	210,000	-	210,000
Saudis resident abroad at time of census	-	-	73,000	-	26.8	73,000
Total	20,995	1,210,915	5,128,655	1,883,987		7,012,642

NOTE: Demographic units: consisting of towns, villages, settlements, farms, waterwells and nomad agglomeration.

SOURCE: Abdel R. Al-Madani and Mohammad Al-Fayez, Population Bulletin of the United Nations Commission for Western Asia, Nos. 10 and 11 (1976), p.186.

unevenly distributed among the administrative areas, but in no area except Jizan did the census results indicate that the nomadic population was below 10 percent of the total population.

Table 3.1 gives further details concerning the distribution of population among administrative regions. Thirty nine percent of the population in Saudi Arabia live in towns of 30,000 inhabitants or more. According to United Nations estimates, the population of persons under 15 years of age constitutes 44 percent of the total population of Saudi Arabia. The percentage of persons 65 years and over is relatively small.

### 3.2 Saudi Arabia - Social Consideration:

The social value system in Saudi Arabia is based on three major sub-systems: (1) religion; (2) the family; (3) traditions.

Saudi Arabia is the birthplace of Islam and its impact on the culture and society of Saudi Arabia cannot be overstated. Nyrop states that 'Religion is the single most important factor in Saudi Culture. But Islam is more than a religion, it is a way of life. All desires and daily acts are coloured by recognition of their suitability or unsuitability in the light of Islamic precepts. In particular, verbal expression is invariably interspersed with references or appeals to God.

Furthermore, for Saudi Arabians, it is not only the importance of Islam as a major source of social values and norms that complete the institutionalization of Islamic doctrines and teaching, but also its effect as the source of all legal and political acts that perpetuates and enforces such an institutionalization. In other words, it is the source of all activities of the government. In fact, the constitution and legal system of Saudi Arabia are based on Islamic law called the "shariah". (1) The late King Faisal (1972) said:

Our constitution is the Koran and our law is the Shariah of Prophet Mohammed (God's peace and blessing be upon him), our system of government is based on the interest of this country, where such interest does not conflict with the principles of our religion and the Shariah. (2)

Also the present King Fahad (1982) stated that:

The system of government which defines responsibilities, right and duties and regulates the institutions of the government and its power in the light of the Book of Allah, which is our constitution, and the traditions of his prophet, which constitute a model of life to be copied by us. (3)

The history of Islam goes back to 610 when Mohammed, the Prophet, began his teachings which were based on revelations from God revealed to him through the Angel Gabriel. The Prophet

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1. Richard F. Nyrop et al., Area Handbook for Saudi Arabia, U.S.A. Government Printing Office (Washington D.C., 1977), p. 113.
  2. Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Information, (1972).
  - 3 . Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, The Policy of Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Information, (1982).

Mohammed (God's peace and blessing be upon him) not only promulgated a religion, but also a complete social system containing minute regulations for man's conduct in all aspects of life, with due rewards and penalties according to his fulfillment (or otherwise) of these rules. In other words, Islam is a social and cultural institution whose system of social conduct and spiritual forces penetrates every aspect of Muslim life.

Also, Islam has its own distinctive views of man and his nature, his rights and obligations. The Koran, the Sunnah (the sayings and practices of Prophet Mohammed), and Islamic history are the sources which contains these views. Sayyid Qutb, the famous interpreter of the Koran, outlines Islamic views of human nature in the following points:

1. The concept of man in Islam holds him in esteem when it qualifies him to be responsible for his actions and allows him freedom of choice. This esteem is an honour to the human being for it allots him a high and respected position in this world - a position that is worthy of the creature in whom God has blown his breath, made with his Divine hand, and given preference over all other creatures.

2. The concept of human nature in Islam puts man's fate in his own hands and makes the responsibility for that fate rest ultimately with him. This is apt to incite the feeling of

awareness, caution, and taqwa (conscious and positive awareness of God) in man. The Muslim individual knows that the Will of God is fulfilled through his own modes of activity and courses of action. He believes, as stated in in Koran, that God would never change the situation or circumstances of any people unless they themselves changed it. This, in itself, is a difficult task which requires a full awareness and acuteness of mind.

3. The concept of human nature in Islam reminds man of his perpetual need to refer to God's fixed criteria. The firm standards that God revealed would ensure that man's whimsical desires do not overcome him into ill fate. Thus, man keeps in close touch to God's teaching, follows this guidance which illuminates his way on life's road by His light.

The previous discussion leads on to formulate on some of the Islamic views and assumptions about human nature. In theory, Muslim administrators and managers hold the following assumption about man as outlined in the Islamic religious texts.

(a) Work is a natural activity in human life. Man is constantly asked in the Quran and the Sunnah to fulfill this natural endeavour by spreading out on earth and working to live. From an Islamic perspective, work carries, in itself, a merit, and only the "evil" or "bad" and unproductive work is distasteful and presumably dissatisfying to the Muslim personality.

(b) Man is an intelligent being who is able to exert self-control on himself in the course of his daily activity. In other situations, man needs all the help and direction of his fellow man. It is by spiritual consciousness and intellectual competence that man can overcome his whims and desires and attain a high level of self-control.

(c) Man is being worthy of responsibility and has high ambitions in life. On the light of man's qualities and functions, God prepares him to bear the most important responsibility, the trust offered to him by God, as clearly defined in the Koran:

We did offer the Trust to Heavens and the Earth and the Mountains; but they refused to undertake it being afraid thereof but man undertook it. (Koran: XXXIII;72)

Commenting on the above verse, Dr. Ali Abdul Kader stated that this Trust was nothing more nor less than that responsibility centres man decided to undertake because of his freedom of choice and of his faculty of intellect. This responsibility centers around the obedience to God's ordinance, and the abstinence from that which is forbidden. Man, then, is a responsible being who can fulfill any assigned task given to him. Obviously, some situations may call for proper direction and motivation in the course of undertaking these responsibilities.



### **The Effect of the Family:**

Originally, Saudi Arabian society was predominantly tribal. The characteristic trait of the tribal organization of Saudi Arabian society is that it is based on blood ties. From its smallest unit to the broad federation of tribes, the main social organization of Arabia is the tribal unit or Al-Qabilah, whose members trace their ancestry to one of the two branches of the Arabs, Qahtan, and Adnan (who respectively represented a division between the southern and northern Arabs of the Peninsula).

Although tribal ties are still important and people who have a tribal background still boast about it with a sense of pride, the family is the strongest unifying force after Islam. Today, the Saudi Arabian person is known by the family to which he belongs. The Saudi Arabian family comprises more than direct members of the nuclear unit of procreation and orientation.

Roger Davies wrote:

... It also became apparent that the Arab concept of all (kin) differs from the lineal concept typically of our culture and includes individuals other than these of immediate family of procreation and orientation and that a much closer degree of relationship exists between the individual and his collateral relative. (1)

Thus, the family consisting of the parents and the children is not what is meant by the basic society unit. Instead,

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1. Roger P. Davis, 'Syrian Arabic Kinship Term' Southwestern Journal of Anthropology, V (Autumn, 1949) p.249.

reference is made to the joint family, a larger or extended family group consisting of the parents, their children, grandparents, uncles and aunts, and ascendent and collateral relatives to the third or fourth degree or more.

The individual is responsible for the well being of his family and if he fails in his role he is regarded as a disreputable character but does not lose his membership of the family. He carries out his acts in terms of his family and therefore his behaviour in various life situations is mainly an expression of his family patterns. It is not surprising then that the loyalty of the individual and duty to his family are greater than any other social obligations. George Lipsky notes:

All social relations in Saudi Arabia are indirectly if not directly tied to family considerations and the family is the fundamental and essential repository of every individual's personal identity... In practice, family obligations take the precedence over all others.(1)

Consequently, the role of the Saudi family differs from the role of family in the west, where the freedom and independence of the individual outweigh his obligation to the family.

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1. George Lipsky, op.cit., p.45.

A western observer wrote:

... With the Arab, membership in the family defines his identity and primary social relationships, and provides him with security and status. His personal freedom and individuality are secondary to the needs and demands of the broader kinship group in which he is inextricably bound, from birth to death. (1)

Thus, the Saudi Arabian society starts with the family rather than with the individual and a man derives both status and role entirely from the position of his family and from his position within the family.

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1. Summer Scott Huyette, Political adaptation in Saudi Arabia: A Study of the Council of Ministers, Westview Press(1985), p.40.

### 3.3 Saudi Arabia - The Political and Economic Consideration:

Politically, Saudi Arabia was unified and declared as the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in 1932 by HM Abdul Aziz Bin Abdul Rahman Al-Saud after many years of tribal wars. Since that date the country has been ruled by the house of Saud. The rule of the Saud is justified by a legal system based on Islam. Baribati and Al-Farsy reported that "Saudi Arabia adheres to a particularly conservative version of Islam promulgated by Shaikh Ibn Abdel Wahhab during the eighteenth century." Indeed the Wahhab family, (providing religious leadership) and Ibn Saud (providing military political leadership) formed an alliance which eventually consolidated the contemporary Saudi Arabia.

After its unification in September, 1932, the Ministry of Finance was established as an initial step toward organizing a systematic set of governmental departments. The Ministry of Finance subsumed other departments such as customs, minerals and oil, health, education, public works and communications. As the government expanded, however, these departments became ministries in their own right, along with others such as the Ministries of Defence, Higher Education, and Agriculture. 1

This development was, of course, spurred by the discovery of oil in Saudi Arabia in 1932. Prior to this discovery, the

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1. Richard H. Nolte, *Tale of Three Cities: Dharan, Riyadh, Jeddah, Hanover, New Hampshire: American Universities Field Staff* (1977).

country had been considered of minimal importance in terms of resources. For example, fifty years ago, the gross national income was dependent solely upon agricultural production and the breeding of livestock, and proceeds from the pilgrimage. 1

Saudi Arabia's first commercially exploitable oil was exported in 1939. However, the Second World War inhibited the company ( Standard Oil Company of California) from pressing ahead with further installation of production facilities. It was, therefore, not until the late 1940s that substantial quantities of oil were being exported from Saudi Arabia and substantial revenues were being received.

During 1950s oil production was firmly in the hands of American oil companies, most notably Aramco. However, in 1960 Saudi Arabia, Iran, Kuwait, and Venezuela founded the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) to act as a "defensive body to form a common front vis a vis major expatriate oil firms and major oil-importing countries." 2 By 1976 the Saudi government had acquired a 60% share in the Aramco oil company and by 1980 Saudi Arabia was the sole owner.

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1. Muhain R. Tarabzune, *Petroleum and Industry*, an analysis of the effect of capitalizing exploration and development cost in the petroleum industry, with emphasis on possible consequences in Saudi Arabia. First edition (Jeddah, Saudi Arabia, 1984), p.70.
  2. Abdulaziz Al-Sowayegh, *Arab Petro-politics*, Croom Helm, (London, 1984), pp. 30-34.

For the contemporary Saudi economy oil revenues are clearly of central importance. As El-Mallakh notes:

"The significance of the oil sector extends far beyond its financial contributions. In addition to revenues, the oil sector's direct contributions are to foreign exchange earnings, the balance of payments, employment, GNP, not to mention energy supply and use of domestic inputs. More important from the long-run point of view, however, is the indirect contribution of the sector to the economy's development and structural change"

Despite the influx of oil revenues from the late 1940s extensive development expenditure is a comparatively recent phenomenon. The limited sums allocated to development projects in the late 1950s and the 1960s were not of such a nature as to transform the economy. It is only since the oil price rises of 1973-74 brought vastly increased resources into the Saudi treasury that a fundamental transformation of the economy has been attempted. The second and third five-year plans (1976-80 and 1980-85 respectively) have laid the framework for this transformation.

Economic development plans - the basis of Saudi development has been a series of five year economic plans. A fully developed planning strategy became a reality with the Royal Approval of the First Development Plan, covering the years 1970 to 1974. The specific objectives the government hoped to achieve through its

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3. Ragaei El-Mallakh, Saudi Arabia: Rush to Development , Croom Helm, (London, 1982), p.72.

planning strategies were:

- (1) to increase the rate of growth of the gross domestic product.
- (2) to develop human resources so that the various elements of society would be able to contribute more effectively to production and to participate fully in the process development; and also
- (3) to diversify the sources of national income with reduced dependence on oil through increasing the share of other sectors in the gross domestic product. 1

The First Plan's intentions for human resources development are of interest here. These are summarized as follows:

With regard to human capital and social development, appreciable targets were set in the plan. In an attempt to develop a manpower programme which would reduce the shortage of skilled and semi-skilled labour, an expansion in educational and vocational training facilities was given priority. The objective was to raise the number of students at all levels of education substantially during the period of implementation of the plan. The anti-illiteracy programme was to be intensified, the number of evening schools for this purpose was scheduled to rise from 592 to 792 by the end of the Plan period. An expansion of educational programmes at Riyadh University, King Abdul Aziz University and the college of Petrol and Minerals were to be undertaken as part of the Plan's objectives. The Plan also aimed to open six vocational training centres in different parts of the Kingdom, expanding the training facilities available at

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1. Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Central Planning Organization, First Five Year Development Plan 1970-75, p.23.

existing centres and the opening of new centres. These it was hoped, would supply about 1,600 skilled and semi-skilled workers domestically as compared to an estimated demand of more than 61,000. 1

Another objective of the First Plan was to diversify the sources of National income by reducing dependence on oil. Thus, in order to make itself less dependent on oil income, which today amounts to around 70% of the Gross Domestic Product, Saudi Arabia aluminium smelter, has two refineries for the export of petroleum and has established a policy to develop the economy through agriculture and industry. Thus, in 1975 the government embarked on a massive building programme. Two major industrial centres were established: one in Jubail in the Eastern Province, the other in Yanbu in the Western Province. The ultimate goal is to establish industrial projects involving gas collection, a steel mill, and three petrochemical complexes in Jubail. In Dammam, near Jubail, the following projects are in progress: two ammonia and urea plants, grain silos, flour mills and a cement factory. At Yanbu, there is an oil refinery and a petrochemical complex. In addition, there are several other industrial plants elsewhere in the kingdom. The First Plan had an initial budget of SR 56,223 million (about \$17.2 million). Health and Social Services received 4.4 percent, while human resources development received

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1. *ibid.*, First Five Year Development Plan, p. 49.



18.1 percent of the total appropriation. 1

The undertaking of these projects commenced with the Second Plan (1975-80) when the economic strength of Saudi Arabia was significantly improved as a result of the 1973 increase in oil prices. The Second Plan was more effective in reaching its targets than its predecessor, but problems of effectiveness remained in the field of human resource development and manpower. There was the concern that the required qualified manpower was still not available in contemporary Saudi Arabia. The appropriation for this plan was SR 498,230.2 million (\$140,997 million). The Human resources development constituted 15.9 percent and social development 6.7 percent. 2

The Third Plan (1980-85) showed similar concerns with manpower/human resource as did the Second Plan. This challenge was pointed out by the Minister of Planning, Hisham Nazer, in a lecture given in May 1981:

"Saudi Arabia is facing a new challenge in its development programmes. This challenge lies in the areas of manpower and productivity. Since the oil price increased in 1973/74, the Saudi economy has experienced an imbalance between the availability of supply and demand for labour. 3

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1. Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Planning, First Development Plan 1970-75, p. 321.
  2. *ibid.*, Second Five-Year Plan, 1975-80.
  3. Hisham Nazer, in Zehrani, Saeed, (1983), A Study about Problems of Health Education in Saudi Arabia, Ph.D. Thesis Pittsburg University.

The Third Plan had a budget of SR 783,000 million (\$235,000 million).<sup>1</sup> This plan concentrated on developing the human resources which received 22.2 percent of the total appropriation. Therefore, the Third Plan gave emphasis to the need to systematically prepare Saudi citizens for participating in both manual and non-manual skilled work throughout the economy. It also placed a strong emphasis on applying Islamic principles to the task of human resource development.

The Fourth Plan commenced in 1985 and should end in 1990. The appropriation for this plan was SR 1,000 billion. Human resource development constituted 27.1 percent of the total appropriation.

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1. *ibid.*, Third Five-Year Plan, 1980-85.

### **Problems of Economic Development:**

One of the major problems facing Saudi Arabia, as mentioned previously, is satisfying its labour needs in the vast rapid economic development which Saudi Arabia is undergoing at present.

Saudi Arabia is characterised by a youthful population. It is estimated that more than 44 percent of its total population fall in the 1-15 years age bracket. The economic impact of this youthful demographic profile is further affected by the absence of most women from the workforce, because formal education for girls only began in 1960. Table 3.2 shows that the number of Saudi men in the labour force grew at about 24 percent between 1975 and 1980, and in 1980-85 the Saudi labour force grew at an average annual rate of 3.7 percent compared with Saudi females in the labour force who increased at an average annual rate of only 1.5 percent.

In recent years the Saudi strategy to solve this problem has been to import the necessary labour from outside the Kingdom (see Table 3.3). This table shows that total employment in the Kingdom grew by 1,420,000 during the Third Plan period. The indigenous Saudi component of this growth accounted for only 292,800 or approximately 21 percent. The Saudi labour force grew at an average annual rate of 3.7 percent, compared to non-Saudi growth rate of 11.7 percent. During the Fourth Plan period 1985-1990, total employment has been projected to decline by 226,200,

and thus reversing the earlier growth in the employment of foreign workers from an average annual increase of 11.7 percent in the Third Plan to an average annual decline of 5.0 percent during the current plan.

**TABLE 3.2**

**ESTIMATED AND PROJECTED VALUES OF THE SAUDI ARABIAN  
LABOUR FORCE (Thousands of Workers)**

SEX	1975	1980	1985	1990*
Saudi Men	1,156.5	1,366.4	1,649.2	1,984.1
Saudi Woman	96.0	126.8	136.8	176.6
Total	1,252.5	1,493.2	1,786.0	1,160.7

\* Projected

SOURCE: Third Development Plan, Table 2.5

Fourth Development Plan, Tables 2.6 and 5.7

**TABLE 3.3**

**LABOUR FORCE FROM 1979-1990**

NATIONALITY	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990
Saudi	993.4	1,253.0	1,493.2	1,786.0	2,160.7
Non-Saudi	172.4	494.0	1,532.8	2,660.0	2,059.8
Total	1,165.8	1,747.0	3,026.0	4,446.0	4,220.8

SOURCE: Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Third Development Plan 1980-1985, p. 35. Fourth Development Plan 1985-1990, p. 36, 184.

During this Fourth Plan, the government intends to change the pattern of employment in the Kingdom. As the non Saudi workers will decline, the economy will absorb a substantial number of new Saudi entrants to achieve the goal of the Saudi government by increasing Saudi females in the labour force by 5.5 percent by 1990. The total Saudi population of working age will grow at an average annual rate of 3.8 percent during this time.

Moreover, the manpower problem in Saudi Arabia is not confined to the shortage of numbers of Saudi workforce, as discussed earlier, concern is also focused on the quality of those workers, their capabilities and their general attitudes towards work (i.e., motivation). 1

In order to achieve a high quality of workers capabilities those employees who have the capacity to be good administrators, will usually require additional training in order to be really effective. This problem of the quality of the indigenous workforce in Saudi Arabia is partly the result of the history of the country. Only one part of the country, Al-Hejaz, had ever experienced formal government administration. Since Al-Hejaz contains the Islamic Holy cities of Mekkah and Medinah (see geographical factors in this chapter), which are visited annually by pilgrims from all over the world, the administration of the

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1. Al Tawail, 'Public Administration in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia', Amman-Jordan, September 1986, p.53.

province, therefore, had to deal with different kinds of administrative responsibilities and services. Until the unification of the Kingdom, the remainder of the area had been governed in a traditional manner characterised by leadership of tribal Sheikhs (see social environment in this chapter). 1

Another factor related to the quality problem of Saudi Arabian manpower is the education system. The school practice the traditional methods of rote learning with little emphasis on management and administrative sciences at the college level. Hence, many managerial positions are filled by college graduates who have not received training in managerial or administrative activities. 2 This problem of quality in manpower poses serious obstacles to the economic and social progress of the Kingdom. This has been partly resolved by the import of huge number of skilled and semi-skilled foreign workers.

In addition, the huge expansion in funds allocated for development projects in Saudi Arabia led to the appearance of some behavioural problems which hinder government agencies preventing the effective performance of their functions in providing a high quality of work. Studies conducted on Saudi

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1. See Al-Awaji, op.cit., pp.43-51.

2. Al-Awaji, op.cit., pp.47-49.

Arabia's manpower behaviour patterns reveal the following: immateriability of time, use of official authorities for personal goals, and favouritism. 1

Immateriability of time is manifested, as a behavioural problem by leaving work early, idleness during working hours, using working hours for private business and activities not related to work or talking to a colleague, reading a newspaper, drinking tea or coffee, and sometimes unexcused absenteeism. Moreover, such behaviour regarding time is caused by the absence of adequate internal supervision within the organization. Koningham stated that there is:

Almost universal tardiness, newspapers being read during working hours, absence from desks and offices, horseplay in the halls, and gathering around for general discussion instead of working. The causes are numerous, such as, lack of responsibility and accountability being assigned to supervisors, lack of training for supervisors, lack of interest in the work, inability to perform duties, and in some cases insufficient work to keep employees busy. 2

This problem of time misuse has many adverse effects on administration and society, such as an excessive increase in administration costs, harm to the interests of citizens and beneficiaries of government services, and causing damage to the public interest and to the national economy.

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1. *ibid.*, pp. 67-70; see also Naser Al-Adaily, Human and Organizational Behaviour in Administration, IPA (Riyadh, 1981)
  2. Louis G. Koningham, 'Civil Service in Saudi Arabia', a Report, Ford Foundation (Riyadh, 1963), p.3.

Another behavioral problem related to manpower in Saudi Arabia involves the taking advantage of institutional positions and authority for personal interests. For example, the use of official property (i.e., house guest and transportation allowances) for personal purposes, and compensation for fictitious activities such as field trips, extra pay for committee services, consultations and overtime assignments. George Lipsky bluntly describes this problem in the following words:

It is in keeping with old practices in the area for officials at all levels to take advantage of their position to enrich themselves. Those who did not do so would be regarded as stupid or eccentric. 1

It should be noted, however, that the use of official property for personal purposes is not as a result of low governmental salaries, but because the values and expectations of Saudi government employees have changed beyond the capacity and levels of their monthly salaries. This behaviour is identified by Al-Awaji: (2)

First, as a result of the Prevailing Particularistic social values, the spirit, or the commitment to the national interest, is very weak among the populace. People regard the public purse as a productive cow whose milk or even meat is a gift for whoever is in a position to utilize it to its maximum capacity...

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1. George Lipsky, op. cit., p.178.
  2. Al-Awaji, op.cit., pp.242-44.



Second, they are overimpressed with the western influence. The influx of materials, cars, and means of modern living (villas and modern appliances) has caused many of them to seek extra financial resources by different means and methods ... Thirdly, over-centralization of authority in the hands of a few officials may facilitate corruption. Also, the lack of an effective system of financial control makes corruption an easy adventure.

Favouritism is another behaviour problem which has its own roots in the social values and customs that give kinship, friendship and family ties precedence over the public interest. In other words this behaviour of serving their personal interests is undertaken in spite of requirements of the official mandates of these employees' organizations. In fact they are rather in line with the behavioural patterns generally defined and sanctioned by the society as a whole.

Moreover, favouritism can be attributed to the citizen's ignorance of the relevant laws, regulations and methods and to the weak awareness of the public service possessed by some government officials. This causes serious problems because it involves the acceptance of legally unacceptable demands and the granting of special favours in cases where special favours are not permitted at all. The Saudi government has recognized that the long term approach to the solution of the quality aspect of manpower is through re-evaluation and modification of the educational system to ensure that it is directed toward fulfilling its role in achieving the national goals.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### BACKGROUND TO THE CASE STUDY

The public sector in Saudi Arabia can be divided into two main groups of organizations: Ministries which are institutions completely run and supervised by government; and public organizations which can be identified as being semi autonomous, have some financial and administrative independence, and are not totally controlled by government. This freedom of action of public organizations, even though it is relative, has given the general public an impression that public organizations are better organized, less routine orientated, and more attractive to join. The following few pages will explore these issues in both types of organization in Saudi Arabia.

#### 4.0 The System of Government:

The organizational structure of the Saudi government is certainly different from that of previous years when a statutory commission was formed by His Majesty the late King Abdul Aziz to formulate the central organization of the government in the early 1930s. (1)

The expansion of services to cover all administrative regions in the Kingdom created the need for a central body to

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1. Mohammad T. Saedq, The Evolution of the System of Governance and Administration in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia ( Riyadh : Institute of Public Administration, 1965), p.35

assume the formulation of public policy, the coordination and control of the activities of ministries and other agencies. Thus the Royal Decree No. (5) was issued on 1/2/1373 H (1953 AD) pertaining to the establishment of the Council of Ministers as the executive and legislative authority responsible for directing and integrating all administrative functions.

The period which followed is considered to be as a new organizational stage in which the overall organizational structure of the government was completed and the base was founded for the establishment of the country's modern administrative organizations in keeping with the development era. The same period also witnessed special emphasis on the preparation of manpower, the promulgation of modern laws and regulations, and modification of existing ones. Consequently, there was an increase in the number of ministries and government agencies, an expansion in the establishment of public corporations and administrative and financial control agencies. Also, increases were seen in the development of planning and management agencies, and the establishment of institutions for administrative development and universities.

At present, the Kingdom has completed the establishment of a comprehensive organizational structure as follows: (1)

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1. Mohammed A. Al-Tawail, Administrative Organization in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (Riyadh: Institute of Public Administration, 1977), p.5.

- The Council of Ministers (executive and legislative body).
- 20 ministries representing sovereign affairs, development, and services sectors.
- 12 government agencies.
- 14 regional municipalities.
- 6 municipalities for major cities.
- 103 municipalities of different classes.
- 45 rural compounds to provide services for rural areas.
- 3 agencies for central control.
- 32 public corporations ( including 7 universities).
- 5 independent agencies.
- 6 agencies for administrative development.

The organizational chart of government administration in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, attached in the Appendix, shows the location and relations among these agencies in the overall organizational structure of the government.

#### **The Council of Ministers:**

The Council of Ministers was established in 1373 H (1953 AD). Its creation represented the starting point of a modern administrative system in the Kingdom. Its authority was defined as follows:

"The Council of Ministers formulates internal, external, financial, economic, educational, and defence policies, and all public affairs of the State, and supervises their implementation. It has all organizational, executive, and administrative authorities. It is the supreme authority with respect to financial affairs and the affairs of all ministries and government agencies. It devises pertinent procedures in this respect. Decisions of the the Council of Ministers are final with the exception of those related to laws, treaties, international agreements, capitulations, loans, and State budget. These decisions are issued by royal decrees."

The Council of Ministers consists of His Majesty the King, His two Viceroys, the Executive Ministers, the Ministers of State. It is headed by His Majesty the King; and its members are responsible, individually and collectively, to His Majesty the King for the management of public affairs according to the general policies adopted by the Council of Ministers.

#### **Ministries and Independent Agencies:**

There are 20 ministries and 12 independent agencies (1) which cover all government activities in the Kingdom. Ministries can be classified, according to their functions, into three sectors as follows:

1. Sovereign Affairs Sector which comprises Ministry of Justice, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of Defence and Aviation, Ministry of the Interior, and Presidency of National Guards.

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1. See Appendix : Organizational Chart of The State Machinery of Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in 1986.

2. Services Sector which includes Ministry of Health, Ministry of Education, Ministry of Higher Education, Ministry of Communication, Ministry of Post, Telephone, and Telegraph, Ministry of Public Works and Housing, Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, Ministry of Haj (Pilgrims) and Endowments, Ministry of Information, and Ministry of Municipal and Rural Affairs.
3. Development Sector which is made up of the Ministry of Finance and National Economy, Ministry of Commerce, Ministry of Planning, Ministry of Industry and Electricity, Ministry of Oil and Mineral Resources, and Ministry of Agriculture and Water.

Most ministries and government agencies have branch offices in a number of regions in the Kingdom to extend their services to the citizens of the regions in which they are established.

The internal organization of the ministry consists of a number of line and staff departments. Each ministry and government agency is headed by a chief appointed by His Majesty the King and responsible to him. Each minister or agency head is assisted by one or more deputies and assistant deputies to whom directors of main departments report. In the administrative system of the Kingdom, the minister's post is not totally political, as is the case in many countries, but also

administrative, since most decisions in the ministry are made by the minister. All ministries and government agencies in the Kingdom are subject to uniform financial and administrative laws and regulations. (1)

#### **Central Agencies and Committees:**

This section of the study deals with central agencies and committees and their role in developing and modernizing employment laws and regulations in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. They include the following: The Civil Service Council, General Bureau of the Civil Service, Central Department for Organization and Management, Supreme Committee for Administrative Reform. Also, the Central Training Committee, Manpower Council, and central agencies for control and inspection.

#### **The Civil Service Council:**

The Civil Service Council was established in 1978 and was to be presided over by the His Majesty the Prime Minister, with the Deputy Premier as Vice President; members of the Council consisting of four ministers and three experts in civil service affairs. The Civil Service Council, in collaboration with concerned agencies, is responsible for " the planning and

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1. M.A. Al-Tawail, Administrative Organization in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, p.11.

organization of civil service affairs in all ministries, government agencies, and public corporations. It is also responsible for developing the civil service and raising its productivity." (1)

The Civil Service Council is assisted by an Administrative Preparatory Committee which has the authority to conduct studies and submit recommendations about subjects referred to it by the Secretary General of the Civil Service Council on the basis of suggestions by the Council or the President of the General Bureau of the Civil Service.

**General Bureau of the Civil Service:**

The General Bureau of the Civil Service passed through a number of development stages during the period from 1943 to 1978. The Bureau was authorized to announce vacant jobs and specify their qualification requirements, and to propose civil service regulations. In 1978, the name of the Bureau was changed to the General Bureau of the Civil Service. It was defined as an autonomous body responsible for agencies, and public corporations, and was affiliated to the Civil Service Council.

Article (10) of the Civil Service Law enunciated the jurisdiction of the Bureau in the following:

1. Article (1) of the Civil Service Council Law, issued by Royal Decree No. (M/48), 1978.



- supervising the execution of civil service laws and regulations and related resolutions.
- conducting studies and research into the civil service, especially in the fields of job classification, salaries and wages, allowances, incentives, and remunerations.
- proposing civil service laws and regulations, and submitting them to the Civil Service Council.
- Formulating rules and procedures for selecting the best candidates to occupy vacant jobs.
- Collaborating with personnel departments in ministries and public agencies and directing them to the best way of implementing personnel laws and regulations, and maintaining records of appointments, promotions, transfers, and other civil service affairs.
- Studying employee grievances referred to it by competent agencies, and proposing appropriate ways for addressing such grievances.

The President of the General Bureau submits a bi-annual report, incorporating its achievements, to the Civil Service Council which in turn submits this report, with a comprehensive study of civil service problems to the Prime Minister.

**The Manpower Council:**

The Manpower Council is directly attached to the prime Minister, and is responsible for manpower planning, training, and development. Its functions includes the following: (1)

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1. The Manpower Council Law, Article (2).

- examining manpower needs of different categories, Saudis and Non-Saudis, in light of the needs of development plans and programmes, and formulating public policies by which all government agencies should abide in carrying out their responsibilities in this area.
- formulating policies for diversifying and up-grading the skills of Saudi manpower.
- formulating policies for increasing the contribution of Saudis in the total labour force and for increasing the number of Saudis, of all age groups.
- formulating policies for providing manpower with financial and non-financial incentives that will enhance motivation for work.

The Manpower Council is composed as follows: The Minister of Defence and Aviation as chairman, and selected Ministers as members. The Manpower Council has a General Secretariat attached to its chairman and is responsible for conducting studies for the Council and following up the implementation of its decisions.

**Central Agencies for Control and Inspection:**

To ensure adequate performance of public administration agencies, especially in the stage of development which was accompanied by a tremendous expansion of government activities and machinery, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia established a number of central control agencies for the purpose of verifying the soundness of performance, preventing deviations, and correcting mistakes. These agencies include: The General Audit Bureau, Board of Grievances, Surveillance and Investigation Board, and Administrative Investigation. (1)

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1. For details, see: Khalid A. Al-Hamad, "Report on Administrative Development in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia", 1984.

#### 4.1 Ministry of The Interior

The Ministry of the Interior is one of the most important ministries in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The Responsibilities of the ministry of Interior cover public security, investigation, special forces, the coast-guard along with immigration and naturalisation. Security duties are shared by the National Guard, the public security police and the coast guard, frontier forces, investigation and special forces. In addition, all governors of the regions report to the Minister of the Interior (see chart for departmental distribution).

To accommodate the various functions and responsibilities of the Ministry of the Interior and to prepare officers for internal security, the King Fahad Security Academy was established, which was designed to serve two thousand students.

The Ministry recently established the National Information Centre, which uses modern methods for carrying out many security functions and services. They include: registration of foreigners, control of borders, passport issuing and renewal, civil records, organization of entry and exit of the pilgrims and other related duties.

In addition to the above, there are numerous specialised institutes, colleges and training centres which provide the different security organizations with qualified, expert and

well-trained personnel. These include a Marksmanship School, a Language Institute, a Traffic Institute, a Civil Defence Institute, a Passports Institute, Car-Driving Schools, and a Cavalry Institute. Sophisticated technological devices as well as trained personnel according to the most advanced training plans confer full security upon the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia despite the vastness of its territory (Ministry of Information, 1988).

#### 4.2 The Ministry of Education

It was only in 1954 that the Department of Education became a Ministry formed, in order to execute educational development plans. The Ministry was supported by increased funds and headed by HRH Prince Fahad to provide free education to all nationals and also aims to eradicate illiteracy from the Kingdom as soon as possible (Al-Farsy, 1988). Toward this end, a large number of schools at different levels of education are opening every year throughout the Kingdom.

The Ministry is not the sole agency concerned with education. The Ministry of Higher Education and several ministries have been responsible for the execution of educational policies. The education pattern in the Kingdom closely follows that of other Arab countries and comprises four stages: kindergarten, primary, intermediate, and secondary. There is also a small but significant group of schools which come under the heading of technical education. The Special Education Department of the Ministry of Education also runs schools for the blind, the deaf and mentally retarded.

For administrative purposes the headmaster of each school reports to the district director, who is in turn answerable to the Assistant Deputy Minister. The latter reports to the Deputy Minister for Educational and Administrative Affairs, who under the Minister, is the de facto chief executive for most matters

concerning school education for boys (for departmental distribution see chart).

Within the Ministry there are departments for primary, intermediate, secondary and technical education, each headed by a director general. Within each department are a number of subject-specialized inspectors general, who ensure that the centralized curriculum laid down by the Ministry is properly adhered to in the schools. The inspectors general are assisted by cadres of inspectors based in the larger town.

The administration of school education is still highly centralized though there have been recent attempts to decentralize and eliminate bureaucratic procedures. There is a great need to train and retrain large numbers of lower grade officials, many of whom may have had only a very basic education themselves. However, the institutes of public administration and the Ministry itself have done much to improve the situation over recent years. For example, the results of the Ministry's scheme to send large numbers of headmasters and middle grade district and Ministry officials abroad on courses in educational administration becoming apparent. Also, at the middle management level there is a much greater willingness to take decisions and look for solutions than there would have been a few years ago.

#### 4.3 The Presidency of the National Guard

The National Guard traces its origin back to the Ikhwan that were founded by the late King Abdulaziz. The Ikhwan responded to the call of Abdulaziz by carrying out the long struggle for unifying the land. There was a time when excessive enthusiasm, independent military actions and excesses had to be curbed or controlled by Abdulaziz. Once this was done, the Ikhwan were allowed to reappear as the white army, which later became known as the National Guard (Al-Farsy, 1986)

The National Guard, unlike its American counterpart is not a reserve force. Most of the National Guard personnel are on active duty. It is totally separate from the armed forces and is under the command of HRH, Crown Prince Abdullah, a brother of the King. The traditional view of the National Guard has been that it serves as a counterpart to the regular armed forces and the internal security forces. However, it remains the most powerful internal security force.

Increasingly, however, the National Guard is viewed at the professional level as complementary to the armed forces in the event of a major emergency or an invasion. In addition to maneuvers with Saudi land forces and with the air force, the National Guard has been involved in extensive training missions, established under agreement and cooperation between the Kingdom and some advanced nations such as USA and UK, intended to train

and modernise the Saudi armed forces. With the exception of anti-aircraft defence, defending the oil fields remains a major task of the National Guard.

Modern facilities were built to insure the comfort of the National guard and their families. These were built at Khashm Al-An which is also the centre for King Khaled Military College. This is an institution of higher learning and its main mission is to train officers for the National Guard. Its doors were opened in December, 1982. The programme at this college is three years in duration and leads to the degree of Bachelor of Military Science. The college can accommodate about about 416 students. The subjects on offer are balanced between the academic and military.

Aside from the active duty component of the National Guard, there are tribal battalions that operate under the command of local Sheikhs. Personnel in this category report for duty about once a month and receive a monthly stipend for their services. In this way the central government helps the National Guard and militia battalions by distributing wealth to bedouins that may be in remote areas of the Kingdom. The support of the bedouins and their tribes helps in maintaining a structured reserve that can be mobilised when the situation warrants.

In addition, the Cavalry regiment of the National Guard and the motorised battalions are equipped with modern tanks and



mobile artillery designed for desert conditions.

King Fahad in his role as the supreme commander, has paid special attention to the National Guard. He initiated many large projects such as the King Khalid Hospital for the National Guard in Jeddah, the King Fahad Hospital for the National Guard in Riyadh, and the King Khalid Military College.

#### 4.4 The Institute of Public Administration:

The Institute of Public Administration was established by Royal Decree No. (93) dated 24/10/1380H (corresponding to April 10, 1961). According to its Law, the Institute of Public administration is "an autonomous body with a separate legal entity." It is managed by a Board of Directors under the chairmanship of the Minister of Finance and National Economy and the membership of the Director General of the Institute. This includes the Vice-President of King Saud University, the Deputy Minister of Education, the Vice-President of the General Bureau of the Civil Service, and the Deputy Minister of Finance and National Economy. The objectives of the Institute were stated in its Law as the following: (1)

- Raising the efficiency of public officials and preparing them, theoretically and practically, to shoulder their responsibilities and to exercise their authorities in a manner that will lead to improving administrative performance and enhancing the development of national economy.
- Contributing to the effective organization of government agencies.
- Furnishing advice to the ministries on administrative problems they encounter and present to the Institute .
- Conducting research in administrative affairs.
- Maintaining strong cultural relations with similar institutions and regional and international organizations in the field of public administration.

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1. Law of the Institute of Public Administration, Articles (2) and (3).

At present, the Institute employees 834. People are distributed as follows: 529 as faculty members, 149 as technical and administrative employees, and 156 employees and labourers in general service. The Institute's financial resources has also increased; the budget rising from SR 1,300,000 in the year 1961/1962 to SR 171,000,000 in 1984/1985. (1)

In order to extend its services to different regions of the Kingdom, the Institute established two branches, one in Jeddah (for Western Region), and another in Dammam (for Eastern Region). A new type of activity was initiated with the establishment of a third Women's Branch for the Institute in Riyadh in 1983, for training women and preparing them to participate more actively in national development efforts.

The Institute plays an important role in spreading administrative thought by publishing two periodicals, books and research studies covering a wide variety of subjects, and by transforming all administrative documents of the government into microfilms which are accessible to researchers through a computerized system of search and retrieval of information.

The Institute has established a separate department for designing and developing training programs in 1985 (see organizational chart).

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1. Annual Report of the Achievements of the Institute of Public Administration for the Year 1404-1405 H (Riyadh: IPA, 1986), pp. 147 - 155.

The Institute has also offered training for 41,715 government employees as follows: (1) 34148 in the in-service training programs, 4319 in the special training programs, and 3248 in the preparatory training programs. These programs covered a variety of fields such as administration, finance, computers and information systems.

The Institute has also conducted consultation studies for government agencies in the Kingdom and in some international and Arab organizations.

The establishment of the Institute of Public Administration in the Kingdom is considered as the first practical step toward administrative reform. In a quarter of a century, from the time it was established till to the present day, the institute exerted strenuous efforts in supporting the process of administrative development in the Kingdom and realized a great deal of accomplishments.

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1. Ibid., p. 156.

## 5.5 Public Corporations:

Public corporations differ in their style of management and in the functions assigned to them from ordinary government agencies. They have more flexibility which enables them to achieve higher degrees of efficiency and effectiveness through faster decisions, better utilization of resources, and more control over costs. In addition, the establishment of public corporations aims at speeding up the execution of development projects and the provision of services in the various development sectors such as industry, agriculture, construction, and production. Generally speaking, the traditional government administration is not equipped to undertake the development burden effectively. Thus, the government has to resort to public corporations.

Public corporations differ in their management from government agencies due to the different functions they perform. Their management resembles to an extent that of the private enterprise the major difference being that their goal is not always making profit. The distinctive features of their management are the following: (1)

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1. Nawaf Kana'n and Mohamoud Al-Banna, Public Corporations in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: A Theoretical and Applied Study (Riyadh: Farazdak Press, 1984).

1. They are governed by boards of directors who manage their administrative and financial affairs and enjoy wide ranging authorities.
2. They are legal entities with autonomous financial status which grants them the right to own assets and to dispose of them accordingly.
3. They have enough flexibility in financial and administrative management to enable them to prepare their own budgets and to propose rules and procedures to regulate their activities.
4. They are subject to general supervision of the minister to whom they are administratively attached, and to financial audit by the State General Audit Bureau and by external audit firms.

The first experience of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia regarding public corporations dates back to the early seventies when the Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency was established as the first public corporation.(1) The number of public corporation increased as the government activities increased. Expansion of its services took place , especially during the early stages of development planning. At present, there are more than thirty public corporations in the Kingdom.

Although public corporations enjoy a high degree of autonomy, they are part of the State machinery; and, thus, are subject to the financial laws and regulations of government regarding their budgets and final accounts. (2) Some public corporations have their own independent budgets (such as the Institute of Public Administration and the universities) which

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1. Kan'an and Al-Banna, op. cit., p. 251  
2. Ibid., p. 287.

are separate from the budget of any ministry or government agency even though they are issued by Royal Decree. Budgets for other public corporations appear as "annex budgets", that is, they appear with the budgets of the ministries or government agencies by which they are supervised and to which they are administratively attached.

Public corporations are subject to supervision and control by their boards of directors and chairmen of such boards as well as their directors or heads. Also, public corporations are subject to the Civil Service Laws and Regulations (with some exemptions), and employees of such corporations are subject to the pension regulations of the civil service.

Public corporations in the Kingdom can be classified according to the nature of activities they perform, into three main categories as follows:

1. Economic Corporations: They include:

- General Organization of Petroleum and Minerals
- Saudi Arabian Airlines Corporation
- Railroad Corporation
- Grain Silos and Flour Mills Organization
- Water and Sewage Authorities
- Electricity Corporation
- General Organization for Ports
- General Organization for Desalination
- Royal Organization for Jubail and Yanbu
- Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency
- Industrial Development Fund
- Saudi Development Fund
- Real Estate Development Fund
- Saudi Arabian Agricultural Bank
- Saudi Basic Industries Corporation
- Saudi Credit Bank

2. Educational and Training Corporations: They include:

- Institute of Public Administration
- King Saud University
- King Abdul Aziz University
- University of Petroleum and Minerals
- Al-Emam Mohammed Ben Saud Islamic University
- Um Al-Qura University
- Islamic University
- General Organization for Technical Education and Vocational Training
- King Abdul Aziz City for Science and Technology
- King Faisal University
- National Center for Science and Technology

3. Service Corporations: They include:

- General Organization for Social Insurance
- Pensions Department
- Saudi Red Crescent Society
- Saudi Arabian Standard Organization (1)

The government's policy toward public corporations involve transforming some of the corporations which provide public services into join-stock companies in which the State becomes a share-holder, providing that the government has the right to determine service fees and rates according to public interest. (2) Thus, the government decided to sell part of the shares of the Saudi Arabian Basic Industries Company (SABIC) to the private sector. (3)

In general, it can said that as a result of such decisions, public corporations in the Kingdom lost many of the authorities

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1. Ibid., p. 220.

2. The Third Development Plan, 1980-1985, p. 86.

3. The Fourth Development Plan, 1985-1990, p. 138.



granted to them by their basic statutes. Such a conclusion becomes more vivid when authorities of public corporations in the Kingdom are compared to those granted to public corporations in other countries.

#### 4.6 Saudi Basic Industries Corporation (SABIC):

SABIC was established by Royal Decree No. M/66 dated 7th. September 1976, as a joint stock corporation under the authority of the Ministry of Industry and Electricity, with SR.10,000 million (\$2.973 million) as capital, divided into ten million shares. According to Article (3), the objectives of the corporation shall be:

- (a) implementation of petrochemical, fertilizer and other hydrocarbon based industries;
- (b) implementation of iron and steel, and aluminum industries;
- (c) implementation of other basic industries which the private sector cannot undertake, with the concurrence of the Ministry of Industry and Electricity;
- (d) execution of projects necessary to supply the corporation with the raw material requirements;
- (e) marketing industrial products inside and outside the Kingdom.

The number of employees required for the direct management and operation of all SABIC's industries total 7,054. These include all technical and administrative categories when all these industries reach the stage of operation. It can be noted that this total number is only for the stage of operation which has actually commenced for four of the industries. For the remaining industries, such a stage was started in 1985-86. (1)

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1. Saudi Basic Industries Corporation, Seventh Annual Report (1983), p. 35.

The total number of employees required for SABIC's industries up to 1990 is about 12,500 of all technical and administrative categories. (1)

SABIC industries concentrate primarily on bulk chemicals; the product is ethylene, which serves as a "building block" for many other petrochemical products and their immediate derivatives. These include ethylene glycol, ethylene dichloride, vinyl chloride monomers and polymers, polyethylene, ethanol, styrene and polystyrene; other products are methanol, ammonia and urea for use in fertilisers.

SABIC has 13 projects (see figure 4.1 in the Appendix). The joint project between SABIC and Shell is the largest SABIC petrochemical project. SADF in Al-Jubail with equal participation in capital by SABIC and Shell Oil Company was established on 28th September 1980, with capital investment of approximately SR10 million. (3)

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1. Ibid., p. 17.

2. Sabic's Projects Status, Third Quarter, 1984 (for Official use), September, 1984, p. 8.

3. Saudi Basic Corporation, The Seventh Annual Report (1983), pp. 24-32. See also, Jehany, Berne and Mixon Jnr. Saudi Arabia Economy (1986), pp. 124-125.

Another project between SABIC and Mobil (Yanpet) was established on 19th April 1980 and set up at Yanbu. This company, a joint venture with the Mobil corporation, has equal levels of capital participation with a total capital of SR8 million.

The Arabian Petrochemical Company (Petrokemya) is wholly SABIC owned. This project was established on 20th May 1981 with an approximate capital investment of SR3 million, and was set up at Al-Jubail. The Jubail petrochemical company "KEMYA", a joint venture with the Exxon corporation with a fifty percent capital participation by each partner, was established on 26th April, 1980. It has approximately SR4500 million in invested capital.

The Saudi Methanol Company (Al-Arazi) was established on 24th November, 1979 at Al-Jubail. It had a capital investment of approximately SR 900,000,000, as a joint venture with fifty percent participation by both SABIC and the Japanese Company.

The National Plastic Company (Ibn Hayan), was established on 18th December 1983, at Al-Jubail with a capital of SR438 million as a joint venture between SABIC and the Lucky Group of South Korea. 85 percent of the capital was contributed by the former and 15 percent by the latter. Another joint venture between SABIC and South Korea's Lucky Group was the establishment of Sharg at Al-Jubail.

The other companies of SABIC differ from the others in that they produce output other than petrochemical feedstock. They include the Saudi Arabian Fertilizer Company (SAFCO), the Jubail Fertilizers Company (SAMAD). Two other companies produce steel which include the Saudi Iron and Steel Company (Hadeed), and Jeddah Steel Rolling Mill Company (SULB).

In conclusion, the various joint venture partners as well as the efforts of a host of administrators, engineers and other professionals in the U.S.A., U.K., Japan, and elsewhere virtually assure the viability of these products, thereby laying a firm basis for future industrial development.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

On the basis of the information already presented in this thesis and the work of others in this field, it is possible to foresee a number of problems facing any research investigation in the area of job satisfaction.

Some of these problems relate to the general issue of employee job attitudes as they relate to job satisfaction. Others are specifically related to research techniques and measurement of job satisfaction.

This chapter considers first conceptualization issues of job satisfaction and their implications for the choice of variables and methods best suited to such an investigation. Second, definition and conceptualization of job satisfaction is developed. This is followed by measurement issues of job satisfaction. Third, the second major component of this research, the work situation, is developed. For each component, dimensions, indices, and hypothesis are identified. Finally, the chapter ends with a discussion of the third and final component of this research, the individual attributes and job orientations.

## 5.1 The General Research Issues

Although what is desired from paid employment may vary among individuals, it is important to understand those factors that affect the attitudes of the employees (satisfaction). If an understanding or prediction of variations in job satisfaction can be achieved, the first step will have been taken in potentially altering those factors suppressing satisfaction. If one considers employees' attitudes to be an important topic, as all managements should, then it becomes essential to explore how and why employees respond as they do to their jobs.

Undoubtedly the major determinant of employee attitudes is the nature of the task requirements as well as the job context or job environment. Thus, the primary issues to be dealt with are those of concept and measurement. A number of problems exist with current conceptualizations of the work situation. First, it seems to be assumed in much of the previous research that the characteristics of jobs and their environment are both stable over time and relevant to the needs of individual workers (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1977). Contrary to this original formulation, some studies now assume that the relevance of the components of the work situation to the worker are seen to vary by individual and by time (Argyris, 1973; Hackman, 1971).

If either job characteristics or their context vary in importance to individuals over time or across individuals, then

general job redesign may have limited utility in maximizing individual levels of job satisfaction. After all, jobs that are expanded in scope and depth may appeal only to either certain workers or workers at certain times.

Most recent research has focused almost exclusively on the nature of the job, rather than the social context or environment within which the job is located. This approach clearly omits the possibility that the immediate environment of the work substantially affects how people define the nature of their jobs and how they feel about their work.

Another problem concerning this conceptualization of the work situation is that although some studies measure the nature of the work situation apart from the perceptions of the employees (Hulin and Blood, 1968; and Turner and Lawrence, 1961), the dominant mode is to measure the work situation through the perceptions of the workers (Roberts and Glick, 1981).

Salancik and Pfeffer (1977: 431) argue that:

"These researchers seem to believe that they are studying the characteristics inherent in the jobs or in their context. They do not seem to realize that they are studying the work situation as a social construct of the individual viewing it, rather than an objective reality."

Thus, using the perception of the workers to measure the nature of the work situation raises questions about the



relationship between perceptions and the phenomena under study, that being the job. This has been addressed in the work of several researchers. For example, Hackman and Lawler (1975), who used workers' perceptions as the primary measure of job satisfaction, also employ measures of the work situation based on objective job characteristics (as defined by supervisors and researchers). They find substantial correspondence between the subjective and objective measures of job satisfaction. Other studies have also found substantial correspondence between employee perceptions of their jobs and ratings by both supervisors and outside researchers (Hackman and Lawler, 1971; Stones and Porter, 1978)

Another related problem occurs when the researcher preselects the aspects of the work situation about which to question the employee. In such a case there is a serious potential problem of priming. The respondent is directed toward the phenomena under study by the researcher, whose stimulus of the question may or may not be of importance to the respondent.

There is no ideal way to define the nature of the work situation. To a certain extent each researcher has his or her own list of relevant job and contextual factors. There is, however, some improvements which can be made by viewing each work situation first conceptually and then by measuring this phenomena in the best way possible by avoiding any of the

problems mentioned earlier.

The work situation may not be the only important determinant of worker attitudes. Attitudes held by workers occupying virtually the same jobs in the same context may be completely different. Thus, an important factor in why employees respond as they do to their jobs is those attitudes and values that individuals bring with them into their employment. For example, employees may vary in terms of their expectations about their jobs, the importance of work in their lives, or the manner in which they relate to other people.

There are major theoretical issues that dominate the consideration of the factors individuals bring with them to their job. These issues revolve around the implicit or explicit reliance on Maslow's needs-hierarchy theory or some variation on it as the principle on which to explain human motivation and in this case to link the nature of the work situation to job satisfaction. However, some have argued that the basic assumptions of the theory are questionable (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1977).

The most important problem dealt with by the Maslow needs model arises from its dual assumptions that needs are relatively stable across time and that jobs have fixed characteristics. In response to such problems, modifications have been made in the need-satisfaction model that acknowledge different strengths of

needs in individuals (Vroom, 1964; Hackman and Lawler, 1971) and different individual expectations from jobs (Argyris, 1973). This modified model lacks the simplicity of its earlier version and no research to date has provided a comprehensive test of the effectiveness of such a "multivariate" need-satisfaction model operationalized in this modified way (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1977).

Another important problem is that most of the former studies of job satisfaction were geographically restricted and occupationally confined to single plants and often to single occupations (Kahn, 1972:169); Kalleberg, 1974:299; Kalleberg and Griffin, 1978:374). Some recent exceptions to this narrow focus are evident (see Survey of Working Conditions, 1971, Quality of Employment Survey, 1973, 1977; Oldham and Hackman, 1981).

Given these problems, it is important to consider and develop a definition and conceptualization of job satisfaction that takes these problems into consideration.

## 5.2 Investigating Job Satisfaction

For an analysis of job satisfaction in the public sector, a job characteristics model has been adapted from previous research (for more details see literature review). The model focuses on job satisfaction as an effect rather than a cause of the other factors and thus the dependent variable. There are three components of the model: job satisfaction, the work situation, and individual orientations. In the following pages, each of three components is defined and a discussion of the relationships known to exist among these components and job satisfaction is presented.

## 5.3 Defining Job Satisfaction:

Although utilized in research since 1930s (Hoppock, 1935, Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1939), job satisfaction has only rarely been treated theoretically. Most often job satisfaction is defined only by its measurement. With so much reliance placed on this feature, it is important to note that the measurement of job satisfaction has been somewhat haphazard.

The most common definitions are those that assume the existence of needs and generally view job satisfaction as resulting from the fit between those individual needs and the job and its environment. Thus, job satisfaction can be simply

defined as the fulfillment or gratification of certain needs of the individual that are work associated. Issues of how to define job satisfaction arise primarily because of the implications of such definitions in terms of causes of satisfaction, particularly the nature of individual needs. This may also be why many researchers have avoided explicit definitions of job satisfaction.

In an interesting treatment of job satisfaction, Locke (1969) defined it as the pleasurable emotional state resulting from gratification or satisfaction about one's job. Locke views job satisfaction as being caused primarily by the interaction of one's values and one's perceptions of the job and its environment. Whether one employs the concept of needs or values, these approaches are consistent in their view that there is a factor within individuals that conditions their reactions to their jobs. It is not the purpose here to define the nature of that preconditioner or its origins, rather primarily the nature of the relationships among the three components' dimensions and job satisfaction will be focused upon.

In common with other researchers a need-satisfaction model in a modified form is relied upon, which views needs as variable in strength across different individuals and across time within the same individuals (Hackman and Lawler, 1971). This will be discussed in the next section.

#### 5.4 Measuring Job Satisfaction:

Wanous and Lawler, 1972 pointed out there are a number of ways to measure job satisfaction and it is clear that many studies are not measuring the same phenomena. Also, Seashore and Taber (1975) have said that no single desirable measurement exists. There are, however, two basic ways of measuring job satisfaction. Most common are 'facet-free' measures of job satisfaction, in which the employee is asked directly, 'All in all, how satisfied would you say you are with your job? (1) very satisfied; (2) somewhat satisfied; (3) not too satisfied; (4) not at all satisfied.'

Using this approach to measuring job satisfaction has the benefit of being easy to administer and understand (Kalleberg, 1974:301). In responding to facet-free questions, individuals are likely to consider a variety of different aspects of their job and provide their own means of summarizing these into a single response (Seashore and Taber, 1975 : 335; Johns, 1980). Despite these advantages, facet-free job satisfaction surveys have been severely criticized for a number of reasons. Most importantly, the direct measure assumes that job satisfaction is unidimensional, when job satisfaction seems very likely to be multidimensional (Kalleberg, 1974:301; Seashore and Taber, 1975). For example, an individual might be satisfied with the content of the tasks required in his job and dissatisfied with pay or the

social relationships in the work environment. This approach is also of questionable utility in asking individuals to provide a single answer to a concept that may be vague or complex (Blauner, 1966).

The second general means of measuring job satisfaction is through the use of facet-specific measures (Hackman and Oldham, 1975). Basically, faceted job satisfaction measures ask the respondent to assess his/her satisfaction with a series of job facets. The responses are then combined in such a way as specified by the researcher. As Seashore and Taber (1975:335-336) note, the specification of facets can never be complete so the difference between facet free and faceted measures of job satisfaction is one of degree rather than of kind. This approach is advantageous in that it coincides with the multidimensional character of job satisfaction, provides comparability across the respondents, and permits a degree of control and direction by the researcher (Seashore and Taber, 1975:336).

Having agreed that job satisfaction is multidimensional or multifaceted, two major measurement issues remain. Firstly, which facets to investigate? Secondly how to combine the responses to a number of facets of job satisfaction? The first of these issues, namely which facet to study is ultimately unresolvable. Previous research studies differ widely in both the number of facets of job satisfaction investigated and the kinds of facets

included (Wanous and Lawler, 1972). Most investigations using the need satisfaction model employ facets that reflect various areas of individual needs (porter, 1961; Hackman and Oldham, 1975), such as self-esteem or a feeling of security. Others ignore needs by representing the various facets as specific aspects of the job such as pay or working conditions. Both approaches have been combined here by studying twenty-three facets, some corresponding roughly to potential areas of individual need fulfillment from a job and some representing specific aspects of jobs. The facets selected for investigation here are not unique to this study but follow questions originally used by the Job Diagnostic Survey (Oldham and Hackman, 1980). Many scholars have criticized the lack of replication of varying measurements of job satisfaction (Seashore and Taber, 1975; Kahn, 1972:169) on different populations at different times. Thus, the use of questions from a previous study should facilitate evaluation of the measurement of job satisfaction.

Given the problems associated with the concept of needs, the choice to use a number of facets representing potential needs is not without its limitations and difficulties. For example, when the researcher specifies a list of potential need facets, regardless of what the facets are, the common problem of incompleteness results. Also, if the respondent is only asked to respond to a list of facets provided by the researcher, then the researcher is either implicitly defining the values or



needs of the individual (Blauner, 1966; Kalleberg, 1974) or specifying which job factors are relevant to the individual.

In this study of the twenty three facets, employees were asked two questions as the following:

Below are two sets of questions about selected aspects of jobs. First, We would like to know how important to you each of these things are in any job you might have. Secondly, does your present job actually provide these things?

Studies vary in the kinds of questions asked about the various facets of job satisfaction. The second question, "actually provides" is similar to what is commonly called the "is now" question, which is part of virtually every faceted measurement of job satisfaction, although question wording may vary somewhat. This question asked the respondents to express their degree of satisfaction with the facets of their current job.

In most investigations of faceted job satisfaction, at least one question, in addition to the "is now" question, is asked about the job facets. The most common second questions asked are "would be" questions; that is, how much would they like to have of a given facet (Wanous and Lawler, 1972)? In this study, the additional question, "how important" was asked. The format and wording of these questions have very important consequences in terms of the meaning of job satisfaction. These are considered below in the context of how to combine the raw responses to faceted job satisfaction questions.

The second major measurement issue in regard to job satisfaction is how to combine responses to the various job satisfaction facets. There are at least three different kinds of treatments of raw responses that have been commonly used: weighting, clustering, and discrepancy scoring (Seashore and Taber, 1975:337-339).

Using weighting, the respondents are asked to assess the relative importance to them of each of the job facets. Relative importance is used to weight their responses as to how satisfied they are with their current job ('is now'). These weighted facets are then summed across facets to provide an overall job satisfaction score for each individual. The weighting of facets by their relative importance was conceived as a means of taking into account individual differences in need structures. Locke (1969) objects to this weighting of job facets, referring to it as redundant. He believes that individuals weight their own responses in the course of providing their satisfaction with job facets. In their empirical assessment of nine faceted indicators of job satisfaction, Wanous and Lawler (1972:103) found that, in general, faceted satisfaction measures weighted by importance were not an improvement over other methods and at times were worse. Seashore and Taber (1975:337) conclude that there is:

"an emerging consensus that differential item weighting seldom offers a significant gain in construct validity, measurement reliability, or predictive power."

The second type of treatment given to the raw responses to faceted job satisfaction questions is clustering. Although there is agreement on the multi dimensional character of job satisfaction, the best way of clustering or dimensioning job satisfaction is still unresolved (Seashore and Taber, 1975:338). Clustering can be performed on either rational or empirical grounds, with factor analysis being the most common empirical technique employed. Despite problems arising from the lack of comparable job facets and varying populations, there is considerable agreement on at least the nature of the largest of the major dimensions.

The choice whether or not to use some dimensioning in the treatment of job satisfaction depends largely on the purpose of the research involved. In this study a single measure of job satisfaction is desirable in order not to make the job satisfaction measure presented here over complex.

The third and most common treatment of raw responses to faceted job satisfaction involves discrepancy or differences scoring (John, 1981). Basically, discrepancy scoring involves a calculation for each facet of the discrepancy between two satisfaction based questions, such as the "is now" "should be" or "would be" questions discussed above. The discrepancies across facets are then summed to yield an overall job satisfaction score.

scores worked better than non-discrepancy scores.

As a consequence of its fit with psychological theory and its past track record, the discrepancy scoring technique was selected for this study. In order to calculate the discrepancy between the "actually provides" question and "how important" question (the questionnaire is presented in the Appendix), each pair of responses were compared and then assigned a discrepancy score on the following basis:

<u>Respondent's Answer</u>	<u>Discrepancy Score</u>
(very Important, not at all)	1
(very important, in some ways)	2
(fairly important, not at all)	2
(very important, quite a bit)	3
(fairly important, in some ways)	3
(not important, not at all)	3
(fairly important, quite a bit)	4
(not important, in some ways)	4

The discrepancy scores for each pair of questions were then summed for each employee and divided by the number of sets of questions answered, thus providing comparability of scores across individuals. A score with no discrepancy (3-4) indicates that there is no negative discrepancy between the importance of various facets of the job and the degree to which the employee

feels the job supplies his needs. A low discrepancy score (2) indicates that in some of the facets covered, the job does not fulfill all of the individual's needs, yet in other areas the individual's needs are fulfilled. Employees with a high discrepancy score (1) report a large gap between aspects they value in a job and the degree to which their job supplies these aspects. In essence the greater the discrepancy, the higher the level of dissatisfaction.

## 5.5 THE WORK SITUATION:

The second major component of this research concerns the work situation. Most studies on the work situation distinguish between the nature of the job and the environment within which the work takes place. This distinction has its origins in the work of Herzberg, Mausner and Synderman (1959). Briefly, their theory consists of two sets of variables : job content or "satisfier/motivator" variables and job context or "dissatisfier/hygiene" variables. The job aspects that form the content of the job are labeled motivators to draw attention to their ability to satisfy the individual's needs for self-actualization in his work. Those job aspects that relate to the job context are labeled hygiene to symbolize the preventive role that they play in regard to job dissatisfaction. According to two-factor theory, when the positive aspects of job content variables, such as work itself, advancement and responsibility, are present on the job, they can increase job satisfaction from indifference to enjoyment of the job. However, when the negative aspects of these variables are present, they can do little or nothing to promote dissatisfaction. In contrast, when the positive aspects of job context variables, such as salary, company policy and supervision, are present, they cannot, according to the theory, increase satisfaction much above indifference. However, when their negative counterparts are present, they can increase dissatisfaction from indifference to

scorn for the job.

Although Herzberg's hypotheses for motivation and hygiene aspects of work have been largely refuted (Vroom, 1964; Hinton, 1968; Dunette, Campbell, and Hakel, 1967; Waters and Waters, 1972; King, 1970; and Schneider and Locke, 1971), the distinction between the job itself and its context remains an important one in the literature.

In this survey the work situation contains many dimensions and variables that should be examined to determine their relationships with job satisfaction. In order to facilitate such an examination, job characteristics and the job environment were considered separately. A number of questions were asked to tap the employees' perceptions of both aspects of the work situation. These perceptions were then utilized to measure the nature of the work situation. In addition, a series of additive indices relative to the work situation may need to be created. Such an index construction may be undertaken to search for underlying common dimensions that would reduce the complexity of the analysis by lowering the number of variables to be considered. Table 5.1 presents a list of the varying aspects of the work situation explored in the questionnaire along its two major dimensions: job characteristics and the job environment.

Job characteristics, those phenomena associated with the nature of job tasks, are considered first. Current measurement

**Table 5.1 The Work Situation Components**

Job characteristics

**Variety dimension**

learning new things  
doing variety of activities  
requires different skills

**Autonomy dimension**

freedom as to how to do work  
decision discretion  
planning ahead

**Task Identity dimension**

responsible for a "whole" job  
from beginning to end

**Task Significance dimension**

considered important job in the  
eyes of others

**Job Feedback dimension**

obtain direct result from job  
itself

**Job Effort dimension**

speed  
mental effort  
repetitiveness

**Job Resources dimension**

co-worker help  
time  
information  
equipment

Job environment

**Supervision:**

**Consideration**

maintains good personal  
relations with employees  
understanding when mistakes  
were made  
keeps employees posted on  
how well they are doing

**Participation**

likes to get  
subordinates ideas  
involves employees in  
decision-making  
delegates tasks fairly

**Job Mobility**

how hard or easy the  
changing of job?

**Working Conditions**

comfort and health of  
working conditions

**Discrimination**

**Salary**

the adequacy of salary  
compared to performance

**Fairness of promotions**

**Size of the Workplace**



of job characteristics has its origins in the work of Turner and Lawrence (1965). These authors developed a summary measure of six task attributes called the Requisite Task Attribute Index (RTA) which were predicted to be positively related to employee satisfaction and attendance. The six attributes comprise of: (a) variety, (b) autonomy, (c) required interaction, (d) optional interaction, (e) knowledge and skill required, and (f) responsibility. This summary index was then used in ascertaining the relationships between the attributes of the jobs and employee job satisfaction and attendance.

According to Turner and Lawrence (1965), jobs which were high on the RTA Index would have higher job satisfaction and lower absenteeism. However, the authors' expectation was not fully supported (Blood and Hulin, 1967; Hulin and Blood, 1968).

Another commonly used measurement instrument is the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) ( Hackman and Oldham, 1975). The theory which gave rise to this instrument is based on earlier work by Turner and Lawrence (1965) and by Hackman and Lawler (1971). The basic theory is presented chapter 2. It proposes that positive personal and work outcomes (high internal motivation, high work satisfaction, high quality performance, and low absenteeism and turnover) are obtained when three "critical psychological states" are present for a given employee: (experienced meaningfulness of the work, experienced responsibility for the outcomes of

the work, and knowledge of the results of the work activities). The theory proposes that these critical psychological states are created by the presence of five "core" job dimensions. Experienced meaningfulness of the work is enhanced primarily by three of the core dimensions: skill variety, task identity, and task significance. Experienced responsibility for work outcomes is increased when a job has high autonomy. Knowledge of results is increased when a job is high on feedback. Thus, the theory suggests that high work satisfaction is obtained when five job dimensions are present at a high level for a given employee's job. These five job dimensions are skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and job feedback.

The authors of both instruments as well as those studying job redesign argue that a job with such characteristics generally would be expected to be experienced as highly meaningful and worthwhile and individuals will obtain personal satisfaction from such jobs.

Although the measurement differs, the dimensions of job characteristics used in this study roughly coincide with the concerns expressed in both instruments mentioned above.

The measurement of job characteristics used in this study includes twenty questions utilized to tap the nature of employees' perceptions of job characteristics. Questions included in this component relate to task identity, task

significance, variety, autonomy, job effort, job feedback and job resources. All job dimensions were measured by answers to the following:

"Here is a list of things that might describe a person's job. For each thing check how much ( a lot, somewhat, a little, not at all) this is like your job?"

Task identity refers to the degree to which a job requires completion of a "whole" and identifiable piece of work, that is, doing a job from start to completion with a visible outcome. According Turner and Lawrence (1965, p.157):

" jobs high on task identity are characterized by (a) a very clear cycle of perceived closure - the job provides a distinct sense of the beginning and ending of a transformation process, (b) high visibility of the transformation to the worker, (c) high visibility of the transformation in the finished product, and (d) a transformation of considerable magnitude. "

According to these authors, a job with such characteristics generally would be expected to be experienced as highly meaningful and satisfying. Task identity was measured by a question which asked the respondent if they were required to do a complete task from start to completion.

Task significance refers to the degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives of other people, whether those people are in the immediate organization or in the world at large. Respondents were asked if their job is seen as important in the eyes of others.

Variety refers to the degree to which a job requires a variety of different activities in carrying out the work, involving the use of a number of different skills and talents of the person. Thus, working on high variety jobs may become personally meaningful and satisfying to some employees. It should be noted, however, that only variety, which does in fact challenge the employee will be expected to be experienced as satisfying to employees. Writing different identification numbers on different forms, for example, might be considered as variety, but would not be expected to be experienced as meaningful and satisfying. For example, Hall and Lawler (1970) found that among research scientists, high job variety can be associated with low job satisfaction, apparently because jobs with high variety also tended to be low in task identity and feedback. This dimension is measured by answers to questions pertaining to the following: the degree to which job requires different skills, the performance of a variety of activities, and learning new things.

Autonomy refers to the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out. As autonomy increases, individuals tend to feel more personal responsibility for success and failures that occur on the job and are willing to accept personal accountability for the outcomes of the work. Autonomy is measured by answers to the following: the degree of

freedom in work procedures, the level of decision discretion, and planning ahead requirements.

Job feedback refers to the degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job provides the individual with direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his or her performance. Our measure of this dimension is determined by answering the following: do you obtain direct results from the the job itself?

Task identity, task significance, variety, autonomy and job feedback have received considerable attention in previous job redesign studies. (Turner and Lawrence, 1965; Alderfer, 1969b; Hackman and Lawler, 1971; Hackman and Oldham, 1980). Those studying job redesign argue that a job with such characteristics generally would be expected to be experienced as highly meaningful and worthwhile and individuals will obtain personal satisfaction from such jobs. Therefore, it is expected that individuals who give high responses on variety, autonomy, task identity, task significance, and feedback, would be more satisfied than those who give low responses on these dimensions.

Job effort refers to the degree to which a job requires working fast and repetitive tasks involving the use of mental effort. Of these three measures, only repetition has received considerable attention in previous studies, which have found that as the repetitiveness of jobs increases, levels of job

satisfaction decline and turnover increases (Guest, 1965; Kahn, 1972: 184-85; Katz and Kahn, 1966; Vroom, 1964; Hackman and Lawler, 1971). Since working both hard and fast seem somewhat similar to repetition conceptually, it is expected that as repetition, and speed/hardness increases, job satisfaction decreases.

Job resources refer to the degree to which a job provides substantial equipment, information and time needed to accomplish tasks, as well as co-worker help and assistance. Availability of resources is not commonly dealt with in job satisfaction studies, with the exception of co-worker help. In their survey of these studies, Porter and Steers (1973) report mixed results, but have found a general trend toward an inverse relationship between supportive co-worker relationships and employee turnover; therefore, it might be expected that a positive relationship between co-worker help and job satisfaction exists. It also seems likely that persons hampered in the performance of their job by a lack of other resources would become frustrated and perhaps eventually dissatisfied. The ability to adequately perform is seldom considered as a partial determinant of satisfaction (Kirchner, 1967). In addition to co-worker help, a range of other resources are considered, including time, information, and equipment. In general, as the adequacy of resources increases, job satisfaction is expected to increase.

The second component of the work situation to be investigated is the job environment or the immediate context within which the job is performed. It is determined by the attitudes and actions of others. Aspects of the job environment may produce either negative or positive effects on job satisfaction, and our consideration of the job environment extends to seven major dimensions: supervision, job mobility, working conditions, discrimination, salary, promotions, size and number of employees in the work place.

The nature of supervision is defined by the relationship between the individual employees and the immediate supervisor. In his review of the job satisfaction literature, Kahn (1972: 185-89) found that virtually all studies agree that supervision had an important impact on job satisfaction. In order to explain the effects of supervisor behaviour on job satisfaction, it is necessary to find some basis for describing and measuring differences in supervision. Much of the research on supervision has been based on the assumption that supervisors can be characterized in terms of the degree to which they are considerate of the desires of their subordinates. Various statements have been used to describe this aspect of supervisory behaviour including: establishment of a supportive personal relationship with his subordinates, the taking of a personal interest in those he supervises, and the ability to be understanding when mistakes were made. There is considerable

evidence that the consideration of subordinates by their supervisors results in a high level of satisfaction (Halpin and Winer, 1957; Fleishman, 1957 ; Vroom, 1960).

Another basic assumption of those associated with the research on supervision believe that persons would obtain satisfaction from influencing decisions and controlling their work environment. Terms such as group decision, democratic leadership, and participative supervision refer to supervisory styles which permit subordinates a substantial degree of influence on decisions which affect them. There is considerable evidence associated with the degree to which they are permitted an opportunity to participate in making decisions (Jacobson, 1951; Baumgartel, 1956; Ross and Zander, 1957, Ley, 1966).

The measurement of supervision used in this study includes both dimensions of supervision: considerations and participations. Considerations of subordinates by their supervisor is measured by questions pertaining to the following: maintenance of good personal relations with employees, the posting of employees as to how well they are performing, and showing understanding when mistakes were made. Participation in decision making is measured by examining whether the supervisor likes to receive suggestions from employees ideas and implements them, involves employees in decision making, and delegates tasks fairly.

The second indicator of the job environment relates to



employees' perceptions of their own potential job mobility, the possibility of their changing jobs. Although not dealt with frequently in the job satisfaction literature, mobility is treated relative to concepts such as absenteeism and job turnover (Porter and Steers, 1973, Michaels and Spector, 1982). These studies are based on the idea that people who are dissatisfied with their jobs may avoid their work through absenteeism or if dissatisfied enough would resign (Tallachi, 1960; Waters and Roach, 1971).

The measure of job mobility used here taps individuals' perceptions of the possibility of their changing jobs. Thus, potential job mobility is not seen as a result of satisfaction or dissatisfaction, as are absenteeism or staff turnover, but as a potential cause of satisfaction. Individuals who believe they could move out of their jobs could use this as a frustration relief mechanism, thereby becoming more satisfied than those who feel they do not have this option. Therefore, it is hypothesized that as the perception of the ease of job mobility increases, job satisfaction increases.

The question of working conditions measures the comfort of the environmental conditions in the work situation. Therefore, it is expected that adequate working conditions are positively related to job satisfaction. It is not the case that pleasant surroundings are likely to yield proportionate increases in

satisfaction, but rather that very poor conditions seem likely to increase job dissatisfaction (Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman, 1959).

The fourth dimension of the job environment is discrimination. Surprisingly it is not considered in the job satisfaction literature. Hopkins (1980), points out that individuals who feel discriminated against in their job whether on the basis of age, sex, or race seem likely to be less satisfied with their jobs. The measure of discrimination asks employees who feel there is discrimination, for the reasons of such discrimination whether on the basis of seniority, qualifications, the region which the person comes from, or other reason. Thus, it is hypothesized that as discrimination increases, job satisfaction decreases.

One of the most frequently studied determinants of job satisfaction is the level of income. Despite considerable attention, the evidence from the literature reveals somewhat mixed findings about its importance (Kahn, 1972:190). When people are asked to rank the aspects of their work in relation to satisfaction, wages tend to be in the middle of the listing (Vroom, 1964). Herzberg (1968), pursuing his notion of separate satisfiers and dissatisfiers, reports that while adequate salaries may promote dissatisfaction, higher salaries will not lead to satisfaction. Other studies report positive

relationships between pay and job satisfaction but fairly low correlations (Seashore and Taber, 1975:350). Despite the doubts raised by these researchers about the nature and strength of the relationship, it is hypothesized that as income increases, job satisfaction increases.

Promotion as an aspect of the job environment has been largely concerned with the perception of individuals of the opportunity for their own promotion. Viewing promotion in this way complicates an examination of its linkage with job satisfaction. Promotional opportunities may be a strong determinant of job satisfaction for an ambitious and mobile person. On the other hand, promotion may be something to be avoided by a person with either strong work group attachments or strong family relations that such a change might disrupt. A promotion has, after all, the potential to change a person's job tasks, salary, work group, and even physical location (Vroom, 1964). In order to avoid some of these problems the individual's opportunity for promotion is not dealt with, but their perception of the fairness of promotions (Kahn, 1972). This is consistent with Patchen (1960), who found that the fairness of promotions, rather than their number or rapidity was crucial in influencing satisfaction. It is expected that the fairness of the job environment as it relates to promotions should be positively related to job satisfaction since this would promote both a sense of individual and group well being (Hulin, 1968). Thus, it

is hypothesized that as the fairness of promotions increases, job satisfaction increases.

Another aspect of the job environment is the size of the work place. Size has been studied numerous times as a potential determinant of job satisfaction (Tallachi, 1960; Kerr, Koppelmeier and Sullivan, 1951; Indik and Seashore, 1961) and as a correlation of absenteeism and turnover (Ingham, 1970), although it has been studied less in studies of job redesign (Kahn, 1972:192). Size is generally one of the few systemic variables considered (Seashore and Taber, 1975:350) and has received increased attention recently as a component of organizational structure (James and Jones, 1976; Oldham and Hackman, 1981). These studies generally anticipate that individuals would prefer smaller unit sizes, perhaps because so many of the job environments studied are large industrial plants. The results of these studies have been mixed. Nonetheless, it is hypothesized here, with limited expectations, that as size of the work place increases, job satisfaction decreases.

In summary, job characteristics seen as promoting job satisfaction include variety, autonomy, task significance, task identity, job feedback, and the adequacy of job resources. The nature of the job effort as measured by speed, mental effort, and repetitiveness have been viewed as depressants of job

satisfaction. In the job environment many aspects have been viewed as promoters of job satisfaction, including supervision, mobility, working conditions, income, and promotions. In contrast, discrimination and size of work place have been seen as factors that seem likely to reduce job satisfaction. These hypotheses will now be tested in the data analysis section.

## 5.6 The Individual Attributes and Job Orientations:

The third and final component of the model is individual attributes and job orientations. Individuals bring attitudes and orientations with them to their jobs, and these orientations may affect an individual's expectations of work. These "personal variables" as termed by Seashore and Taber (1975), play a critical role in affecting the relationship between the work situation and job satisfaction. Individual attributes, such as age, marital status, and number of children may predispose an individual's responses to the work situation and thus indirectly affect job satisfaction. Before turning to the second dimension, job orientations, a discussion of the individual attributes is considered and how they are expected to be related to job satisfaction is followed.

Age is a process that is dependent upon many of the activities of individuals and affects the performance in the work place and our evaluation and treatment by others. The roles played by an individual and the status enjoyed are often determined at least partially by age. Thus, age is an individual factor that seemingly acts as surrogates for attitudes and predisposition not covered else where.

Previous research consistently indicates that age is positively related to job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1959; Rousseau, 1978; Weaver, 1980). As an individual ages, his or her

likelihood of being satisfied is greater than at a younger age. This relationship may be the result of the individual adjusting to the increased difficulty of alternative employment or it may be that one's expectations alter with maturity.

Wright and Hamilton (1978) have shown that younger workers are systematically less satisfied with their work than older workers. Wright and Hamilton attributes this to the fact that younger workers, in the early stages of their careers, have objectively poorer jobs than their older counterparts. Janson and Martin (1982) also present evidence that links age to satisfaction, but their evidence rejects Wright and Hamilton's suggestions that better jobs among older workers are the source of this relationship. Janson and Wright suggest that the jobs of older workers are not much improved over those of younger workers, but they also do not offer a strong alternative explanation. This answer may lie in the expectation level of the individuals involved, with younger workers expecting more and receiving less, and older workers expecting less and receiving it, and thus being more satisfied.

In addition to individual attributes, individuals also possess certain job orientations, characteristics, or attitudes. These orientations are derived from previous training as well as current experiences. The factors considered in this study include: occupational status, length of service, education,

place of education or training, and attitudes toward working.

Occupational status is one of the individual characteristics that has been frequently studied in relation to the work situation and job satisfaction, and has been found to be fairly strongly related to these factors (Litterer, 1965:66-81; Hoppock, 1935). Herzberg (1959) found in seventeen of eighteen studies that occupational status was positively related to job satisfaction. In another survey of the job satisfaction literature, Vroom (1964) noted that consistently, occupational status is positively related to job satisfaction. This is to be expected because higher status jobs generally carry with them greater job freedom, wider responsibilities, and greater variety, all of which have been found to promote greater satisfaction.

Although occupational status arises from the nature of the job and its environment, it is considered here as an individual characteristic because it becomes, in time, a part of the individual and his or her self identification.

There are many ways to group occupation either on the basis of skill requirement, training, or social responsibility. The classification used to measure occupational status is the Duncan Socioeconomic Status Index of Occupation (Duncan, 1961). This index was created to classify census data on occupations, and was originally used to be education and income in addition to occupation to determine the socioeconomic status of occupations.



For purposes of this analysis, occupation has been classified into five categories: general managers, departmental managers, professionals, division managers, and secretary, clerks, etc. The aim is to determine if high status jobs (i.e. managerial positions) are more satisfying to the surveyed employees than those of low status jobs.

Length of service, the second job orientation factor, asks the question of how long an employee has been in his or her job. It has been a frequent item of study in previous research. Previous findings relating length of service to job satisfaction have been somewhat conflicting, however. Herzberg (1959) found that in the seventeen studies that aimed at length of service, eight found that as job tenure increased job satisfaction also increased. Seven of the studies, however, could not reach any conclusion as to the relationship between length of service and job satisfaction, and two studies concluded that length of service and job satisfaction were related inversely.

More recent studies have tended to find that new employees have higher job dissatisfaction levels, those in the middle periods exhibited low satisfaction; and those in the long service category displayed higher levels of satisfaction. When length of service is so short there are undoubtedly consequences of considerable importance.

Kilpatrick, Cummings and Jennings (1964) suggest alternative

explanations for this relationship by noting that job security, which has long been viewed as an important benefit of governmental jobs, decreases in importance to the employee as tenure increases. As job security becomes less important to the long term government employee due to attainment, there is an erosion of the perceived benefit and subsequently job satisfaction. Satisfaction may also be greater among long term employees as they adjust their expectations downward to meet that which is possible for them. Services of longer duration seem to positively affect perceptions of the work situation and suggest a more static job environment, which in turn, implies an adjustment of expectations and perhaps perceptions to cope with that continuing reality. Thus, length of service is expected to be positively related to job satisfaction.

Education is rarely seen as a job orientation factor but is more often considered with occupation and income as a status measure. Education may, however, provide the individual with a way of viewing the world around them, helping them to frame personal expectations and aspirations. There is evidence that education raises worker expectations. More educated workers approach their work with a different set of expectations than do their less educated counterparts. Seybolt (1976) found that greater rewards in the forms of pay, job variety, and task complexity were required to satisfy more educated workers. This is apparently a common phenomenon.

Although Herzberg (1959) reports mixed findings on the relationship between education and job satisfaction, there is some tendency for education levels to be inversely related to job satisfaction. In other words, higher education levels tend to decrease the likelihood of job satisfaction. Tannenbaum et al. (1974) report that higher levels of education were significantly related to lower satisfaction when other relevant occupational variables were controlled. Thus, in all five countries studied by Tannenbaum and his colleagues, the more educated workers expressed less satisfaction if the relevant characteristics of their jobs were the same as for the less educated workers. This presumably results from the impact of increased education in heightening job expectations.

Some contrary evidence is derived from a recent study of over four thousand employees by Weaver (1980), which found a positive relationship between education and satisfaction. Glenn and Weaver (1982), report that, in general, education is positively related to satisfaction. More educated workers are able to obtain work that brings them the rewards that they have learned to expect. If they are not able to find such work, the underemployment phenomenon which is discussed below may result.

The educational factor has an interesting twist. Some writers have expressed concern about "overeducation" or the situation in which a person has more education than his or her

job is thought to require. Quinn (1974), for example, reports particularly low satisfaction among workers who had attended college but had not graduated. In other words, expectations and aspirations are raised by college attendance and that when these are not realized, satisfaction suffers.

Others have not found this pattern. Wright and Hamilton (1979); Hamilton and Wright (1981); and Glenn and Weaver (1982) report that among manual workers with one or more years of college education, there was no significant relationship between education and satisfaction. They suggest that for these workers, who constitute one fifth of white male blue-collar workers, came from working-class or lower-middle class backgrounds to begin with, had little identification with middle-class values. Burris (1983) comes to a very similar conclusion in his analysis of overeducation. He notes that there is a common assumption that overeducated or underemployed individuals will be dissatisfied and oriented toward collective movements for mobility. He found a slight relationship between high overeducation and dissatisfaction, but in general found the overeducation arguments to be overstated. Nonetheless, the overall relationship between education and satisfaction would appear to hold across broad educational levels.

The measure for education as a quantity may or may not be sensitive enough to pick up the potential linkages between those

personal orientations factors and work. However, if relatively high levels of education are found among employees (i.e. 70% of the sample have at least a university degree) would suggest high expectation and aspirations. When coupled with the short tenures would indicate that governmental employment may not be meeting or satisfying those highly educated employees.

The final job orientation factor, work preference, has not been thought to be examined to our knowledge, in any previous work environment study. It seems likely that a certain proportion of the work force would prefer not to be working. A preference not to work seems likely to establish a basic predisposition that would then negatively affect job satisfaction. Thus, work preference, is also expected to be inversely related to job satisfaction.

Perceptions of the work situation may be affected by one's job orientations and/or personal attributes. Thus, individual orientations may affect job satisfaction indirectly by means of their influence on perceptions of the work situation. If the impact of individual orientations on the work environment are not specified, an inaccurate picture may emerge of the inter relationships among the factors involved in the work setting.

## CHAPTER SIX

### METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The purpose of this chapter is to describe and explain different approaches and methods of data collection, and the reasons and criteria for the selection of methods and techniques used in this present research.

As a starting point, the major difficulties of conducting research in Saudi Arabia will be analyzed. The second part of this chapter will describe the research procedures, the instrument and methods of collecting data, and the research population. Finally, the chapter ends with a view of the success and limitation of this research strategy and its relationship to other studies conducted in this field.

#### 6.1 Conducting Research in Saudi Arabia: Problems and opportunities

The key to good research is to design a research strategy to fit a particular context. Research techniques and instruments which are of conventional use in the Western industrial societies may have serious and unanticipated consequences if applied to the Saudis without being modified to suit the Saudi context. This has been argued by Bouchard (1976, p. 402), who noted that:

".... methods are means to ends, no more, no less. The key to good research lies not in choosing the right method, but rather in asking the right question and picking the most powerful method for answering that particular question. Methods are neither good or bad, but rather more or less useful for answering particular questions at a particular time and place."

Sensitivity to, and considerations for the feeling of others is one of the most obvious characteristics of the Saudi society which stems directly from Islam.

It seems that the "right questions" and the "best methods" to apply to Saudi Arabia are likely to be those which take into account the Islamic codes of conduct which generally shape many aspects of the Saudi Arabian lives and behaviour.

In addition to paying attention to the Islamic code of conduct, researchers should be familiar with some important issues of the Saudi culture which may affect the design and the overall success of the research. Two issues are considered below.

#### **1. Time Management:**

Generally speaking, the Saudi lack punctuality in time schedules and appointments. This may be a result of the "social pressures" placed by the Saudi society. Social pressures refers here to the expectations, demands, or constraints which the Saudi society places on its members (for more details see Saudi Arabia: Social and Political Considerations).

Therefore, a researcher should be prepared for the fact that everything takes a little longer. He should not be surprised if his personal appointment was somewhat behind schedule or took place with a number of other people in the room since the Saudi long tradition of hospitality requires him to meet visitors personally even if this results in the cancellation or delay of a prearranged meeting.

When conversing with the Saudis, it is generally advisable not to show impatience, preoccupation with other affairs, or undue haste. The Saudis will invariably engage in social talk and amenities with his guest for what may seem a long time. Thus, patience is a very important concept which has to be in the mind of any researcher conducting research in Saudi Arabia.

## **2. Establishing Personal Relationships and Trust:**

One of the most important points in conducting research in Saudi Arabia is to establish personal relationships and trust between the researcher and the research participants.

Saudis generally mask their own feelings or attitudes towards others, their work, etc. This can be decreased if trust and personal relationships have been properly established. This may take a relatively long time, but if a Saudi puts his trust in a person, he will be helpful in providing the researcher with substantial information.



In conclusion, it seems clear that any researcher is strongly advised to design and apply research techniques and methodologies which take the Saudi situation into consideration.

## 6.2 Scope and Research technique of the Present Study:

This study examines work from the perspective of employees in all job categories in a public sector setting. The response of an employee to his work is affected primarily by the work environment, both in terms of its structure and the nature of the other employees in that environment. Most studies of work identify only some of these components of the work setting. This study attempts to explore the inter relationships among the individual and the working environment in a more comprehensive manner and in the context of the public sector. Specifically the work setting for this study is the Saudi Arabian government, with samples of public employees in five public organizations: Ministry of Education, Ministry of Interior, Presidency of National Guard, the Institute of Public Administration, and Saudi Arabian Basic Industries Corporation (SABIC).

Given the lack of detailed information concerning job attitudes for Saudi Arabian government employees, this study is intended to be exploratory and analytical. The object is to identify areas in which specific problems are located, to clarify the nature of these problems and to consider possible remedial

actions. For this reason the concern lies with understanding and identifying problematic areas rather than with the measurement of causal relationships or testing strictly formulated hypotheses. Thus, the questions put forward are: (1) what factors are most satisfying or dissatisfying to the Saudi employees in relation to their work environment? (2) what methods can be used to analyse the issues? (3) what recommendations can be made to improve the situation.

The research setting also influenced the type of research techniques employed. A number of methods were considered to examine the quantitative dimensions of job satisfaction within the public sector - that is, the number of employees, the level of education of employees, etc. These methods and techniques consisted of a self administered questionnaire, semi structured personal interviews as a pilot study, and official documents and records. The following is an examination of these methods and techniques:

#### **1. Self-Administered Questionnaire (SAQ):**

The following points need to be considered in relation to SAQs. Firstly, it is considered as a tried and tested method of data collection in the social sciences. Black and Champions (1976) have claimed that it is probably the most used data collection tool in social research and that the questionnaire, used alone or in conjunction with other data collection methods,

must be considered the most popular of the many methods available. In addition, it is a technique which can be used either to test already developed hypotheses and theories (e.g. replication) or as a tool to generate descriptive data to serve as the raw material for the production of hypotheses. Second, cost and coverage: SAQs are relatively simple to administer at relatively low costs, in terms of time (very important in Ph.D type research) and money (no need for trained interviewers etc.). Also, relatively large numbers of respondents can be covered with limited resources. Third, virtual elimination of interviewer bias is possible from limited skill or personal characteristics of interviewers. Fourth, anonymity is made possible, which is particularly important if the subject under investigation is held to be 'sensitive'. Finally, the SAQ allows respondents time to consider answers to questions which it might be difficult to answer in the immediate interview.

There are a number of disadvantages associated with the SAQ technique. These generally include the following. Firstly, the SAQ is dependent upon relatively simple and unambiguous questions. Secondly, there is no opportunity for the researcher to probe the respondent for more information or for elaboration of incomplete answers. Thirdly, the researcher's control over who completes the questionnaire and in what manner (e.g. non-seriously, deliberately misleading) is much reduced. Finally, SAQs are prone to a very low response rate (which can be as low

as 20% or less). Additional evidence (e.g. Bailey 1978) suggests that non completion is not randomly distributed within a sample but tends to cluster around certain social groups, particularly those with low levels of education. In this respect a significant bias may be introduced into the sample. Bearing these points in mind, it is useful to show how these advantages and disadvantages of the SAQ were handled within the present study. This will be done after considering the other methods and derivation of the sample.

## **2. Semi-Structured Pilot Interviews:**

A small number of semi-structured personal interviews were also conducted in order to obtain in depth information about the most important factors as seen by the employees and to serve as a pilot study (see below). Some general comments regarding this technique and its limitations and advantages are useful.

Semi-structured interviews involve a list of topics or issues about which the interviewer requires information. These issues are developed out of the hypothetical/theoretical interests of the investigation. Questions tend to be fairly general and are designed to allow the respondent to develop his ideas and views fully with minimal guidance from the interviewer. Additional prompts, probes and requests for further information may be added as and when the interviewer feels it necessary.

Questions can either be asked in a pre set order or the order can be dictated by the flow of conversation. The principal criteria is that all the topics scheduled are covered during the course of the interview. This form of interviewing has often been designated "an exploratory tool" (Wiseman and Aron 1970; Lofland 1971). It seeks to gain from the interviewee what are considered to be important questions relative to a given topic, or descriptions of some situations being explored. Thus its object is to carry on a guided conversation and to gain rich details and materials.

The data from such interviews tends to be qualitative rather than quantitative and for this reason some social scientists have argued that is pre-scientific. Others such as Spencer and Dale (1979), have suggested that many of the common contrasts between qualitative and quantitative research are logically independent. They provide a useful comparison between the two approaches. In their view, Spencer and Dale (1979), argue that:

"qualitative data appears as more than simply raw material for quantitative concepts and measurements to be applied. Rather it provides many opportunities for developing and refining concepts, rather than relying on the assumption of quantitative research that we know the relative properties and categories in advance".

In the present study the qualitative data generated by the semi structured interviews was regarded as a pre requisite to the more comprehensive data gathered by the questionnaire. The semi-

structured interviews were intended as the main part of the pilot study (details below) and were intended to show the validity of the concepts and hypothesis within the Saudi Arabian work context, i.e. to "develop and refine concepts".

Some of the disadvantages of semi-structured interviews are as follows. Firstly, the possibility of misunderstanding between interviewer and respondent within the relatively 'detached' interview situation. This danger is reduced if the interviewer is relatively familiar with the customs, environment, language and meaning systems of the respondent. Secondly, the reluctance of respondents to talk openly and frankly within the less than anonymous interview situation. This is a difficult problem to overcome, especially if the matter under consideration is sensitive. It remains incumbent upon the interviewer to gain the respondent's trust, make him feel at ease, provide convincing guarantees of anonymity/confidentiality and establish a good relationship. The way in which these difficulties were guarded against in the present research will be considered below. First it is necessary to consider the nature and derivation of the sample.

### 6.3 The Construction of the Questionnaire and its Appropriateness to the Study:

First, the suitability of the self administered questionnaire (SAQ) method to the objectives of the present study is considered. The present research was exploratory and descriptive in nature and designed to give data about an area that has had relatively little previous analysis, i.e. job satisfaction in Saudi Arabia. The logic of descriptive studies is well summarised by Best (1977) who argues that such studies are:

"concerned with conditions or relationships that exist, opinions that are held, processes that are going on, effects that are evident, or trends that are developing. It is primarily concerned with the present, although it often considers past events and influences as they relate to current conditions". (p.116)

Given that the present study is intended to study problems and processes associated with the general perceptions of the work situation in Saudi Arabia amongst Saudi employees, the SAQ can be justified as an effective and generally efficient method for the collection of descriptive data, for the following reasons:

1. It allowed a reasonable number of respondents to be questioned (311 out of 500 approached; with a response rate of 64%).
2. It allowed respondents to remain anonymous. This was stated clearly on each form. This was a consideration

thought to be particularly important given that the survey was requesting information which related both to the employing organization of the respondent and, indirectly, to the policies and efficiency of their government.

3. The issues being discussed were complex and it was considered that a SAQ would give respondents scope for reflection upon issues to which they might normally give little thought.

It is now appropriate to consider how the study attempted to minimise the disadvantages of SAQ (as outline above). It was thought that the study would overcome some of the difficulties associated with SAQs in the following ways:

1. Questionnaire Construction. A number of steps were taken in the construction of the questionnaire to ensure that the questions appeared unambiguous to respondents and gave accurate responses. This included the adoption of questions from two successful studies previously conducted in related fields of study, and the conducting of a pilot study.
2. The source of the questionnaire. In particular, close reference was made to the methods used in the Job Diagnostic Survey by Hackman and Oldham (1975); and the study of Al-Adaily (1981). The reasons for this may be stated by reference to each study in turn.



Firstly, the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) is intended for use: (a) in diagnostic activities to determine whether (and how) existing jobs can be improved to increase employee motivation, performance, and satisfaction; and (b) in evaluation studies of the effect of work redesign on employees.

The JDS instrument does not cover all the components of this research, however, it was found relevant to the central concerns of the present study (i.e., the job characteristic component). The instrument is based on a specific theory of how job design affects work motivation, and provides measures of (a) objective job dimensions; (b) individual psychological states resulting from these dimensions, and (c) affective reactions of employees to the job and work setting.

Thirdly, Al-Adaily's study of job satisfaction which is set in Saudi Arabia deals with Herzberg's two factor theory in relation to Saudi government employees (managers and workers).

The availability of this study of job satisfaction was considered a welcome addition to the present study. Al-Adaily's study was aimed specifically at Saudi governmental employees (managers and workers) in order to elicit their views on factors affecting their job satisfaction. Thus, in the first instance the environment of this study is the same. Secondly, although the study was conducted ten years ago, this was seen as being of particular utility in the present research with regards to the

important factors affecting job satisfaction in the Saudi Arabian work environment. (for more details see Review of Literature: Studies in Saudi Arabia).

Although the measurement differs, the dimensions of job characteristics used in this study roughly coincide with the concerns expressed in the above two studies.

Therefore, it could be justified that there are good reasons for basing the present questionnaire upon appropriately qualified versions of those two studies. The modification made to these studies were determined by the author's own knowledge of conditions of the Saudi work situation, and the theoretical issues discussed previously (see Theoretical Considerations), and by a pilot study which will be discussed below.

In addition to using a questionnaire design favoured by other authors in this field as a basis, it was decided to use the format of the Likert scales in the presentation of some of the statements. This provides a series of choices: "a lot", to "not at all" or straightforward "yes" and "no" answers for the selection of statements which represent a particular position.

The decision was made to use the example of the Likert scales in the formulation of the statements because of its ability to assess attitudes using series of choices. By using the questionnaire design preferred by Likert, it is possible to

formulate statements in an attempt to ascertain attitudes.

Research performed by Likert in the 1930's gives a number of indicators to attitude questionnaire design which the author has noted:

1. Statements should indicate expressions of 'desired behaviour' whenever possible.
2. Statements should be clear and concise, and avoid ambiguity.
3. It seems desirable to construct each statement so that the model reaction is approximately on the middle of the possible responses.
4. It seems desirable to word the statements in such a way so that about 50% of them have one end of the attitude continuum corresponding to the upper part of the reaction alternatives, and the remainder have the same end of the attitude continuum corresponding to the lower part of the reaction alternatives.

In constructing an appropriate scale for "scoring" the responses, it is considered desirable to select more statements than are likely to be finally used. This is because, after trying the statements on a group, some may be found unsatisfactory. Therefore, after selecting a good number of statements, they should be given to the group, or part of the group whose attitudes are to be measured. At this point, the pilot study and the validity of the questionnaire can be examined.

#### 6.4 Pilot Study and Validity of Questionnaire:

Having established an approximate schedule of questions relevant to the issues planned to be investigated in the present study - i.e. the most important work situation factors leading to job satisfaction amongst the Saudi governmental employees - it was decided to conduct a pilot study to test the validity and appropriateness of these assumptions within the research setting. For this purpose, a series of semi-structured interviews was proposed, based on a short, scheduled questionnaire with additional scope for the respondents to express their views and opinions at length. The principle intention was to confirm that the theoretical and practical issues identified by the author were appropriate to the work situation in Saudi Arabia.

The interviews were conducted with five departmental managers and ten employees from the five organizations used in this study. The intention was to draw upon their knowledge of the work situation in general and specifically for the field of job satisfaction, to obtain some 'views' and 'background information' about the problems identified by the researcher. These five managers and ten employees were not included in the larger survey.

## **The Questionnaire**

The study of job satisfaction requires some method of assessment and measurement; an instrument that would collect respondents' perceptions and subjective responses to job satisfaction as it related to their work environment. Therefore, to explore the factors affecting job satisfaction or dissatisfaction as perceived by the Saudi public employees, a two part survey instrument was used as is set out below.

### **FIRST PART: Individual attributes and job orientations**

This part of the survey instrument comprised of fifteen questions designed to provide responses which would first permit the classifications of the data into general categories. Secondly, a response to individual attributes such as age, marital status, etc., may predispose an individual's response to the work situation and thus indirectly affect job satisfaction. A note should be made that respondents were not required to give their names or any other information which might identify them personally. These categories were:

- (1) Individual Attributes: (i) age; (ii) marital status; (iii) no. of children.
- (2) Job Orientations: (i) occupational status; (ii) education; (iii) place of education or training; (iv) length of service;

## **SECOND PART: Job characteristics and job environment**

This part of the research instrument consisted of twenty four questions designed to seek or predict variations in job satisfaction for the Saudi public employees.

As was discussed in Chapter 5: Theoretical Considerations, three components were explored in order to identify the major determinant of employee attitudes as they relate to job satisfaction. These were the nature of the work situation, overall job satisfaction, and individual attributes and job orientations.

In the survey the work situation contains many dimensions and variables that should be examined to determine their relationships with job satisfaction. In order to facilitate such an examination, the job characteristics and the job context or environment were considered separately. A number of questions were asked in order to tap the perceptions of the employee of both aspects of the work situation.

The measurement of job characteristics in this study includes twenty questions utilized to tap the nature of employee perceptions of job characteristics. Questions included in this component relate to task identity, task significance, variety, autonomy, job effort, job feedback, and job resources. All job dimensions were measured by answers to the following:

"Here is a list of things that might describe a person's job. For each thing check how much (a lot, somewhat, a little, not at all) this is your job?".

The second component of the work situation to be investigated is the job environment or the immediate context within which the job is performed. It is determined by the attitudes and actions of others and may produce either negative or positive effects on job satisfaction. The considerations here of the job environment extend to seven major dimensions. These are supervision, job mobility, working conditions, discrimination, salary, promotions, size and number of employees in the workplace.

The third major component of this research is that of job satisfaction. It was measured by investigating twenty three facets, some corresponding roughly to potential areas of individual need fulfillment from a job and some representing specific aspects of jobs.

In this study of twenty three facets, employees were asked two questions as the following:

"Below are two sets of questions about selected aspects of jobs. We would like to know how important to you each of these things are in any job you might have. Secondly, does your present job actually provides these things?"

The second question, "actually provide" is similar to what is commonly called the "is now" question which is part of

virtually every faceted measurement of job satisfaction. In most investigations of faceted job satisfaction, at least one question, in addition to the "is now" question, is asked about job facets. In this study, the additional question, "how important" was asked. The format and wording of these questions have very important consequences in terms of the meaning of job satisfaction. These were considered in Theoretical Considerations: chapter 5).

The questionnaire was given a primary translation from English to Arabic by the researcher. It was then submitted to a team of translation specialists working at the Institute of Public Administration in order to obtain a valid and accurate translation which would best serve the purpose of the study.

#### 6.5 Pilot Study Results:

The findings of the pilot study indicate that most factors identified by the author as affecting job satisfaction or dissatisfaction were relevant and practical within the Saudi work environment. Other factors such as discrimination, size of workplace and job mobility were added to the study. On the whole, the responses from the pilot study confirmed the opinions developed by the author and on this basis, it was decided that the self administered questionnaire would be appropriate.



As a final test, a random sample of five respondents was drawn from each of the five populations and asked to complete the questionnaire. On the basis of these responses, a number of changes were made to the questionnaire. First, some statements and questions were omitted, others were made shorter and clearer so as to facilitate easier comprehension for respondents. Secondly, the Likert scale (see above) was introduced with common Arabic scales so as to simplify the choices for the respondents. Thirdly, the length of the questionnaire was determined primarily by the desire to keep the completion time within reasonable limits.

#### 6.6 The Sample:

The pool of subjects which might be included in a study consisted of all male Saudi Arabia government employees located in Riyadh. Realistically the problems of selecting a sample from such a total pool were so great that some reduction had to be made.

Considerations was given to such factors such as personal variables of the respondents (i.e., age, education, etc.) or job related variables (monthly income, length of service, etc.) or to the numbers of government agencies or public organizations in

Saudi Arabia. After considering all these variables and the importance of this study and its results in Saudi Arabia, it was decided to select employees (managers and workers) who work in government agencies in Riyadh. Specifically, the sample consists of public employees in five organizations: Ministry of Education, Ministry of Interior, Presidency of National Guard, the Institute of Public Administration, and Saudi Arabian Basic Industries Corporation (SABIC).

The subjects were limited to government employees working in Riyadh in order to simplify the distribution of the questionnaire and to eliminate the private job influences since most of the employees in Saudi Arabia work in government agencies which have a similar system in terms of policies, administration rules, salary regulations, work conditions, job security, and opportunities, etc. Also, Riyadh as the capital city of Saudi Arabia represented the best selection of government employees who came from different cities and towns and environmental backgrounds.

The researcher in this study expected that the final questionnaire could be distributed to more than five hundred Saudi government employees in Riyadh city in January 1988. It was further assumed that the return rate would be about 50%.

## 6.7 Data Collection:

In December 1988, the investigator traveled to Saudi Arabia for the purpose of administering the questionnaire and collecting the data. It took the researcher approximately four months to accomplish the task of visiting and interviewing a sample of the five public organizations employees, conducting a random selection process, distributing the questionnaire and receiving the responses.

Formal letters concerning this study signed by the Deputy of the National Guard were sent to the Minister of Education, Deputy Minister of Interior, Director of the Institute of Public Administration, the Board Chairman of SABIC, and General Director of Administration in the National Guard. The letter explained the purpose of the study and asked each department head to help and cooperate with the researcher (see Appendix B).

The questionnaire was also accompanied by a personal letter from the investigator to all participants explaining to them the purpose of the study and its importance. It also urged each of the participants to participate in completing the questionnaire and to return it as soon as possible. The letter assured the confidentiality of all information provided in the questionnaire.

The investigator administered the instrument to all subjects with the aid of staff assistants from each department. The

researcher was available to respond to any questions or problems that the subject might have encountered while completing the instrument.

#### 6.8 Documentary and Recorded Data:

In Saudi Arabia, as in any other developing country, lack of information is the main problem confronting researchers and investigators. The lack of information might be in terms of unavailability and /or unreliability. Some data in the country might be available, mostly for confidential purposes; and some other, specifically statistical data, may not be reliable or may not have been accumulated.

However, for this study, all avenues of possibility were tried in order to gather and collect the data and information required for this study. The following resources were considered for this purpose.

1. Saudi Government Ministries, including: the Ministries of Education; Interior; National Guard; Planning; Labour; and Information.
2. Saudi agencies and semi-governmental establishments ,

including: Civil Service Bureau (CSB); Central Statistical Department (CSD); and the Institute of Public Administration (IPA); the Saudi Arabian Basic Industries Corporation (SABIC).

3. University Libraries and Research Centres, including: the University of Liverpool; University of Manchester; King Saud University in Riyadh.
4. Educational services centres, including: The British Library; University microfilms; and the Inter-Library loan system.
5. Local and International: Newspapers, Magazines and other periodical publications concerning the subject.
6. Official personnel in both Saudi Arabia and in the United Kingdom, as well as selective people concerned with the subject and/or associated with it as professionals, administrators, teachers, and employees.

## 6.9 Measurement Limitations

The work situation has been defined conceptually to include both job characteristics and the job environment. The distributions of the indicators of the work situation have been examined and some variations noted.

The elaboration of the nature of the work situation in this study is potentially limited in two ways by the nature of the data base. The first limitation relates to the reliance on worker perceptions as measures of the nature of the work situation (Kahn, 1972; Seashore and Taber, 1975:356-57). Such perceptions are, by nature, subjective definitions and will differ since they are dependent upon the perceptual apparatus of the worker. It is clearly possible that a worker's perception of the work situation might differ from a more objective view provided by an outside observer, based on some agreed upon standards of judgment. Given the time, scope, and cost limits of this study, external observation of this kind was impossible. It should be borne in mind, however, that the work situation discussed here is only as the worker perceives it to be. Perceptual based measurements appear to make sense when they are used, as in this study, to explain variations in another highly subjective phenomenon, such as job satisfaction.

A related potential limitation of the measurement of the work situation is the process by which aspects of job

characteristics and job environments were selected for study. Previous research on the work situation have been criticized by the author for presuming that characteristics identified in association with jobs and their environments are inherent in them. A strategy similar to that of previous studies is followed in identifying aspects of the work situation appropriate for study. For the most part, workers were asked about aspects of the work situation that were found to be of importance in previous studies, and it is clearly possible that this approach may overlook other important aspects. In order to decrease this possibility, considerable, although unsystematic attempts were made to identify additional factors that might be of importance in characterizing the work situation, such as job discrimination and work preference.

## CHAPTER SEVEN

### THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

In previous chapters, the aims of this study were pointed out and the fundamental criteria which would guide the choice of research methods to be used were presented. To provide a framework for this analysis of job satisfaction in the public sector, a conceptualization has been made. There are three basic components of this conceptualization: individual orientations, job satisfaction, and the work situation (job characteristics and job environment).

Individual orientations, the job characteristics, and the job environment are all portrayed as potentially important determinants of job satisfaction. In chapter 5, those determinants of job satisfaction have been defined conceptually, alternative definitional and measurement approaches used in previous research have been reviewed and the measurement selected for this study of job satisfaction among public employees elaborated upon. A series of relationships between the varying aspects of the work situation and the extent of satisfaction have also been hypothesized.

Since the work situation and individual orientations are both conceptually broad and have been measured in a variety of ways in previous research, a number of aspects or dimensions of



these concepts have been operationalized in this study. Specifically, twenty three facets of the work situation, seven job characteristics , seven job environments features as well as six individual attributes are considered.

Analysis with so many variables obviously errs in having too much complexity. To this end, a strategy was followed to reduce the variables of the work situation components to a more manageable size by constructing indices where possible. This was done on the basis of the findings of previous research. Thus, the analysis proceeds in four steps. The first step is to generate descriptive statistics (frequency distribution) for each dimension in this survey. Frequency distribution is a description of the sample characteristics which appear in Tables for each component of the work situation. The second step is to examine the relationships between the individual attributes and job satisfaction as well as the relationships between the work situation and job satisfaction. The purpose of this analysis is to examine the strength and direction of such relationships. Also, to assess the relative importance of these dimensions as potential predictors in explaining job satisfaction. The fourth and final stage aims to examine the overall distribution of job satisfaction for the surveyed employees.

## 7.1 Individual Attributes and Job Orientations

The first component of this study of work and job satisfaction concerns the individual's orientations and attributes. Individuals bring attitudes and orientations with them to their jobs, and these orientations may affect an individual's expectations at work. These "personal variables" as termed by Seashore and Taber (1975), play a critical role in affecting the relationship between the work situation and job satisfaction. Individual attributes, such as age and marital status may predispose an individual's response to the work situation and thus indirectly affect job satisfaction. The purpose here is not to examine the antecedents of such predispositions and expectations, but to examine their relationship to and impact on more immediate attitudes (toward jobs), as well as on perceptions of the overall job satisfaction.

The dimensions of individual orientations that may affect work satisfaction include individual attributes, and job orientations. Individual attributes include: age, marital status, and number of children. In addition to personal attributes, individuals also possess certain job orientations, characteristics, or attitudes. These orientations derive from previous training as well as current or past jobs. They may have a varying impact on the individuals' perception of their entire work milieu. The job orientations considered in this

study include: occupational status, length of service, education, and attitudes toward working.

7.1.1 Distribution of Respondents by Age

Age is a process that is dependent upon many of the activities of individuals and affects their performance in the work place and their evaluation and treatment by others. The roles played and the status enjoyed are often determined at least partially by age.

**Table 7.1**  
**Distribution of Respondents by Age**

Age	Frequency	Percent
18-25 years	36	11.5
26-35 years	156	50.2
36-45 years	83	26.7
46-55 years	32	10.3
56-65 years	3	1.0
66 and above	1	0.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>311</b>	<b>100.0</b>

In this survey, Table 7.1 presents the sample distribution of the age groupings of Saudi employees. From observation of this age distribution it would appear that the majority of the respondents are relatively young (i.e. 50.2 percent fall between the ages 26-35; and 11.6 percent fall between the ages 18-25 years). This may be attributed to the recent policies of the

General Bureau of Civil Service (GBCS) which encouraged all university graduates to join governmental ministries in order to "Saudize" government occupations including the decision making functions at practically all levels of government (for more details see Saudi Arabian Government and Public Corporations).

In some occupations, especially those performed in bureaucratic organizations as is the case of some Saudi organizations formal rules and norms exist regarding the age of the individual applying for certain positions. Even in occupations performed in less bureaucratic contexts, informal norms may exist that define certain kinds of activities as appropriate for persons of particular ages and inappropriate for others. Norms of this kind are a reflection of the more general cultural norms that authority should increase with age and that younger persons should show deference to those older than them. These norms also may serve as a guide to career planning and career expectations on the part of the individuals. In addition, they may serve as a basis for judging one's relative success in an occupation as well as the success of others. Thus, individuals may compare themselves with their age peers and any substantial deviation from these norms may generate a variety of problems for individuals. They may also operate to thwart and frustrate the career expectations and aspirations of individuals. Thus, an individual who falls behind the age norms of his occupation may find that advancement in the occupation becomes

increasingly difficult. Interviews with Saudi employees conducted in this research found that they often graduate from universities with unrealistically high expectations. However, based upon their own expectations, organizations attempt to shape the individual behaviour by training, for example, to satisfy organizational needs.

From analyzing the literature concerning job satisfaction and age, it has been shown that age is positively related to job satisfaction. As the individual ages his or her likelihood of being satisfied is greater than at a younger age. This relationship may be the result of the individual adjusting to the increased difficulty of alternative employment or it may be that one's expectations alter with maturity.

**Table 7.2**

**The Relationship between Age and Job Satisfaction**

Age	Not Satisfied	Satisfied	Total	Percent
18-25 years	8	28	36	71.0
26-35 years	34	122	156	72.0
36-45 years	10	73	83	86.0
46-55 years	3	29	32	90.0
56-65 years	0	3	3	100.0
66 and above	0	1	1	100.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>55</b>	<b>256</b>	<b>311</b>	

Table 7.2 presents the evidence that links age to job

satisfaction. This result shows that the percentage of those who are satisfied increases with older age groups. Thus, this result confirms that of Wright and Hamilton (1978) which showed that younger workers are systematically less satisfied with work than older workers. Their suggestions that better jobs among older workers are the source of this relationship are not believed to be correct. In this case, the young employees have entered the work force with high expectations about the amount of challenge and responsibilities they will find in their first job (this has been deduced from interviews with a sample of Saudi employees). Generally speaking, the younger the employee, the higher the expectations and the more they look forward to satisfying their higher-order needs (e.g. esteem, autonomy, and self actualization). Thus, the suggestion put forward here for this relationship lies in the expectation level of the individual involved, with younger employees expecting more and receiving less, while older employees expecting more and receiving it, and thus being more satisfied.

#### 7.1.2 Distribution of Respondents by Education

Education may provide the individual with a way of viewing the world around them, helping them to frame personal expectations and aspirations. For this survey the level of education is presented in Table 7.3 which indicates that the

highest percentage (46.6 percent) have graduated from university, and the lowest percentage (4.2 percent) had an elementary education. This Table also shows that 70.1 percent of our sample have received a university degree or higher education.

**Table 7.3**

**Distribution of Respondents by Education**

Education Level	Frequency	Percent
elementary	13	4.2
preparatory	17	5.4
secondary	63	20.3
university	145	46.6
higher education	73	23.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>311</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Higher education may help employees to obtain better jobs and participate in high levels of management in terms of decision-making and advancement. However, there is evidence that education raises workers expectation and hence decreases the likelihood of job satisfaction (Tannenbaum, 1974).

Our survey results in Table 7.4 confirms those obtained by Tannenbaum results and show a slight decrease in satisfaction as education levels increase. Table 7.4 shows that when education levels increase from secondary, the level of job satisfaction decreases. This results from the impact of increased education in heightening job expectations.

**Table 7.4**

**The Relationship between Education and Job Satisfaction**

Education Level	Not Satisfied	Satisfied	Total	Percent
elementary	2	11	13	84.6
preparatory	2	15	17	88.2
secondary	11	52	63	82.5
university	26	119	145	82.0
higher education	14	59	73	80.8
Total	55	256	311	

More educated employees approach their work with a different set of expectations than do their less educated counter parts. It may be argued that because of the greater educational investment, it is reasonable to assume that the highly educated employees generally expect more out of life in terms of higher paid jobs, better working conditions, etc. Seybolt (1976), for example, found that greater rewards in the forms of pay, job variety, and task complexity were required to satisfy more educated workers.

**Table 7.5**

**The Relationship between Educational Level Obtained and Job Requirements (by percentages)**

Educational Level	Less Needed	Same Education	More Needed
elementary		15%	85%
preparatory		41%	59%
secondary	6%	52%	42%
university	40%	50%	10%
higher education	55%	40%	5%



Table 7.6

The Relationship between Education Level  
Obtained and Job Salary

Education Level	Not Enough	Enough
elementary	33%	67%
preparatory	25%	75%
secondary	15%	85%
university	55%	45%
higher education	69%	31%

Table 7.6 shows that 69 percent of those with high education levels require higher salary levels than that offered by their jobs. At the same time, Table 7.5 shows that 55 percent of those with high education levels think their jobs require less education than what they themselves hold. Therefore, this result confirms that highly educated employees generally expect more in terms of higher paid jobs, better working conditions, etc.

Educational attainment and qualifications imply the acquisition of skills and the competence of an individual in a particular field. If individuals are not given the scope for applying such skills, as appeared to be the case with Saudi employees, the effect from an organizational standpoint could be inefficiency in the utilization of manpower. However, the major effect could be in terms of the reaction of the individuals (i.e. managers and workers) which could well be to leave the organization entirely. This seems to confirm the earlier

discussion that the link between expectation and subsequent reality is particularly important here.

**7.1.3 Distribution of Respondents by Location of Education or Training**

Location of education or training may have an effect on the attitude, norms, or expectations of Saudi employees. Al-Farsy (1980) commented that Saudis who graduated from institutions abroad appeared to have more open attitude than locally educated ones. Thus, location of education or training is considered an important attribute of the Saudi employees.

**Table 7.7**  
**Distribution of Respondents by Place of Education**

Place of Education	Frequency	Percent
Saudi Arabia (S.A.) only	184	59.1
S.A. & Arab country	18	5.8
S.A. & foreign country	109	35.1
Total	311	100.0

Results presented in Table 7.7 show that the highest percentage of our respondents (59.1 percent) have received their education in Saudi Arabia and the lowest percentage (5.8 percent) in other Arab countries. This Table also shows that 35.1 percent

of the respondents were educated or trained in foreign countries. This was due to the recent effort by the government to place a high value upon employees receiving education and training in foreign countries thus enabling them to learn and experience the work environment of a more advanced institution.

**Table 7.8**  
**Affect of Foreign Experience**

Affect	Frequency	Percent
not at all	12	11.0
little effect	6	5.5
some effect	61	56.0
affect completely	25	23.0
do not know	5	4.5
Total	109	100.0

The results in Table 7.8 show that respondents feel that attending college or school in a foreign country has affected their attitude or feeling toward work. The largest percentage, 56 percent, report having some effect. Results indicate that education and training in a foreign country influence the respondents' attitude and behaviour towards job satisfaction, which infers that work attitudes could be learned and experienced through education or training from country to country and from environment to environment. In other words, culture plays a role in job attitude.

#### 7.1.4 Distribution of Respondents by Level of Responsibility (occupational status)

Even though occupational status arises from the nature of the job and its environment, it is considered here as an individual characteristic since it becomes, in time, a part of the individual and his or her self-identification.

There are many ways to group occupation either on the basis of skill requirement, education and training obtained, level of income, or social responsibility (Duncan, 1961). For the purpose of this analysis the occupation has been classified into five categories: general managers, departmental managers, professionals (physicians, engineers, special advisors or inspectors, etc.), division managers, and administrative clerks (secretary, accountants, typists, etc.). Respondents were asked to check one of these positions as it matches their jobs' level of responsibility. It should be noted that the basic aim is to determine if high status jobs (i.e. managerial positions) are more satisfying to our surveyed employees than those of low status jobs.

Table 7.9 presents our respondents' level of responsibility. It shows that 42.8 percent were in low level positions (e.g., clerk , secretary) ; 28.6 percent were professionals (e.g., teachers, engineers); and 14.8 percent were division managers. Only 4.2 percent were general managers

**Table 7.9**

**Distribution of Respondents by Level of Responsibility**

Level of Responsibility	Frequency	Percent
general manager	13	4.2
department manager	30	9.6
division manager	46	14.8
professionals	89	28.6
secretary, clerk, etc.	133	42.8
Total	311	100.0

and 9.8 percent were departmental managers. The result in Table 7.9 also indicates that 28.8 percent of our sample work as managers in different types of departments. This sample is considered representative of the type and range of employment found in government agencies in Saudi Arabia. (1) Although the administrative workers remain slightly over-represented in the sample, this was not considered to seriously prejudice the study. Responses should reflect how most public employees feel about their jobs and support the validity of this study.

There is some evidence that level of responsibility or job position is positively related to job satisfaction. This is to

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1. The job ranking method in Saudi Arabia government agencies starts from low to high, from rank one to rank fifteen. For example, a director of a special program or a division manager would be in the sixth or seventh rank. A manager or assistant of a large unit or department would be in the eighth or ninth rank. Finally, a general manager for a major department would be in the eleventh rank or higher, and a deputy or assistant of a minister would be in the fifteenth.

be expected because higher status jobs generally carry with them greater job freedom, wider responsibilities, and greater variety, all of which have been found to promote greater satisfaction (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). Table 7.10 shows the relationship between occupational status and job satisfaction. The results in Table 7.10 indicate that with movement from low level positions to high level positions (managerial positions) then the percentages of those reporting satisfaction increase and hence, it may be concluded that occupational status is positively related to job satisfaction. This result is consistent with the findings of previous studies ( Vroom , 1964; Herzberg, 1959).

**Table 7.10**

**The Relationship between Occupational Status  
and Job Satisfaction (by percentages)**

Level of Responsibility	Not Satisfied	Satisfied
general manager	7%	93%
department manager	10%	90%
division manager	14%	86%
professionals	19%	81%
secretary, clerk, etc.	23%	77%

Table 7.11 presents the percentages of differences and similarities in job title with actual work done. The majority (63.5 percent) of our respondents reported having same job title as actual work done.

**Table 7.11**

**Job Requirement Same as Job Title**

Response	Frequency	Percent
yes	197	63.5
no	114	36.5
Total	311	100.0

**7.1.5 Distribution of Respondents by Years Working (job tenure)**

Turning attention now to the job tenure, the data concerning this job orientation factor is presented in Table 7.12. This Table presents the number of years respondents had been working in government. Results indicate that the highest percentage (28.3 percent) were working for more than 15 years and the

**Table 7.12**

**Distribution of Respondents by Job Tenure  
(Years in Public Sector)**

Length of Service	Frequency	Percent
1-2 years	36	11.6
3-5 years	45	14.5
6-10 years	86	27.7
11-15 years	56	18.0
over 15 years	88	28.3
Total	311	100.0

lowest percentage (11.6 percent) were working between 1 to 2 years. On the other hand, the table also shows that most of the sample (74.0 percent) spent more than five years in their work in government. This indicates that most respondents had a lot of work experience in government and that experience could influence their satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their jobs.

**Table 7.13**

**Distribution of Respondents by Job Tenure  
(Years in the same organization)**

Length of Service	Frequency	Percent
1-2 years	54	17.4
3-5 years	75	24.1
6-10 years	92	29.6
11-15 years	40	12.9
over 15 years	50	16.0
Total	311	100.0

The number of years for which the respondents had been working in the same organization is presented in Table 7.13. The highest percentage (29.6 percent) were working in the same organization between 6 to 10 years and the lowest percentage (12.9 percent) were working between 11 to 15 years.



**Table 7.14**

**The Relationship between Job Tenure and Job Satisfaction**

Job Tenure	Not Satisfied	Satisfied	Total	Percent
1-2 years	9	27	36	75.0
3-5 years	9	36	45	80.0
6-10 years	18	68	86	79.1
11-15 years	10	46	56	82.1
over 15 years	9	79	88	89.8
Total	55	256	311	

In Table 7.14 the result shows that when job tenure increased job satisfaction also increased. Long service categories display high levels of satisfaction because job security, which has long been viewed as an important benefit of governmental jobs, decreases in importance to the employee as his tenure increases. This suggests a more static job environment, which in turn, implies an adjustment of expectations to meet that which is possible for them.

**7.1.6 Distribution of Respondents by The General Attitude Toward Working**

The final job orientation factor, work preference, has not been examined, to the author's knowledge, in any previous job satisfaction studies. It seems likely that a certain proportion of the work force would prefer not to be working. If individuals prefer not to work it seems likely to affect their

responsiveness to the job and in turn would effect their satisfaction with their jobs. This dimension is measured by asking the employees "If you were financially able, would you prefer not to work?". The results shown in Table 7.15 indicates that only 8.4 percent expressed a preference for not working.

**Table 7.15**

**Distribution of Respondents by Work Preference**

Work Preference	Frequency	Percent
yes	26	8.4
no	285	91.6
Total	311	100.0

Furthermore it was interesting to demonstrate if there was any significant difference of work preference in age, occupation status, or job tenure. Table 7.15(a) shows that there were no

**Table 7.15(a)**

**The Relationship between Age, Occupational Status, Job Tenure and Work preference (by percentages)**

Age	Yes	No	Job Tenure	Yes	No
18-25 years	31%	69%	1-2 years	27%	73%
26-35 years	6%	94%	3-5 years	8%	92%
36-45 years	6%	94%	6-10 years	6%	94%
46-55 years	9%	91%	11-15 years	5%	95%
56-65 years	0	100%	16-20 years	2%	98%
66 and above	0	100%	over 20 years	0	100%

such significant differences in age or job tenure. However, it should be noted that for younger employees (18-25 years) with short job tenures, this group tends to be the highest in preferring not to work if they were financially able.

The relationship between work preference and job satisfaction is shown in Table 7.16. Of those surveyed employees who preferred not to work if they were financially able only 22 percent were not satisfied.

**Table 7.16**  
**The Relationship between Work Preference and Job Satisfaction (by percentages)**

Work Preference	Not Satisfied	Satisfied	Total	Percent
yes	8	28	36	78%
no	47	228	275	83%
Total	55	256	311	

To summarize the previous findings, the analysis began with an exploration of the nature of the individual and job orientations. Individuals bring personal attributes and job orientations with them to their jobs and these may affect the individual expectations at work and hence play a critical role in the relationship between the work situation and job satisfaction.

The distribution of responses regarding age showed that the

majority of respondents were relatively young (61 percent) and that age was found positively related to job satisfaction. The results of the research by Wright and Hamilton (1978) confirmed this finding. Education was another important factor affecting personal orientations. Although the majority of respondents had received a university degree or higher, the relationship between education and job satisfaction was found slightly to be inversely related as we move from secondary to higher education levels. The inverse relationship between education and job satisfaction was also confirmed by the research of Tannenbaum (1974). It was found that higher education levels tend to increase workers expectations (i.e. higher salary levels) and hence decrease the levels of job satisfaction. The educational and training experiences abroad have been found to have some influence on the respondents attitudes and behaviours toward the job satisfaction.

The level of responsibility was considered an important job orientation factor in this study. The distribution of respondents level of responsibility showed that 42.8 percent were in secretariat type of jobs, 28.8 percent in managerial positions, and 28.6 percent were professionals. Our findings showed that as we move from low responsibility levels to high levels (managerial) job satisfaction increases and conclude that responsibility level is positively related to job satisfaction as have been found in previous studies (Herzberg, 1959; Vroom,

1964). Job tenure was another important dimension considered in this research. The distribution of responses showed that a variety of length of service in the public sector. Our findings again showed a positive relationship between job tenure and job satisfaction. The final job orientation factor was work preference. If individuals prefer not to work if they are financial able would seem to affect their responsiveness to the job and in turn would affect their satisfaction of their jobs. The result showed only 8.4 percent expressed a preference for not working and this dimension was related to job satisfaction.

## 7.2 The Job Characteristics and Job Satisfaction

As mentioned in the Theoretical Chapter, the work situation contains many variables and dimensions that should be examined to describe first the distribution of the employees perceptions of the work situation and to determine the relationships between these work dimensions and job satisfaction. In order to facilitate such an examination, job characteristics and the job environment were considered separately.

Among the twenty questions utilized to tap the nature of employees' perceptions of job characteristics seven dimensions were investigated: task identity, task significance, variety, autonomy, job feedback, job effort, and job resources. As mentioned previously, these dimensions were based on the work of Turner and Lawrence (1965) and Hackman and Lawler (1971). The theory suggests that high work satisfaction is obtained when three critical psychological states are present for a given employee (experienced meaningfulness of the work, experienced responsibility for the outcomes of the work, and knowledge of the results of the work activities). Experienced meaningfulness of the work is enhanced primarily by three of the job dimensions: task variety, task identity, and task significance. Experienced responsibility is increased when a job has high autonomy. Knowledge of results is increased when a job is high on feedback. Thus, work satisfaction is obtained when these five job

dimensions are highly present for a given employee's job.

In this consideration of job characteristics, the degree of effort required to perform a job (job effort), and availability of resources to enable employees to do their jobs (job resource) were included as part of the measurement of the relationship between job characteristics and job satisfaction. The fact that these factors have been assumed by most scholars to affect the quality of the job which in turn affects job satisfaction have encouraged the author to include these two factors among the job characteristic dimensions. It also seems likely that persons hampered in the performance of their jobs by a lack of job effort or job resources would become frustrated and perhaps eventually dissatisfied.

As a first part of the analysis of job characteristics the distribution of responses in regard to these characteristics associated with seven dimensions and the expected relationships between each dimension and job satisfaction are examined. Examination of each of the dimensions shows which specific aspects of the job are most in need of improvements. The second part of this analysis will examine the distribution of responses with respect to the job environment dimensions and expected relationships between these dimensions and job satisfaction.

### 7.2.1 Variety Dimension

The distribution of the variety dimension shown in Table 7.17 indicates that 65.3 percent (203 employees) of the total surveyed employees feel they have jobs which require the

**Table 7.17**  
**Job Characteristics Distribution (by percent)**  
**Variety Dimension**

description	a lot	somewhat	a little	not at all
learning new things	36.3	37.3	22.2	4.2
doing variety of activities	18.0	36.7	29.6	15.8
requires different skills	29.9	37.6	25.1	7.4
Total	84.2	111.6	76.9	27.4
variety dimension	28.1	37.2	25.6	9.1

acquisition of different skills and the performance of different activities whilst carrying out the work. Since most of the respondents believe that they are engaging in some activities that expand their skills or abilities, they would experience these activities as meaningful. However, the experienced meaningfulness of work may be enhanced when a job provides a worker with the opportunity to accomplish something by using skills and abilities which he personally values. Therefore, the discrepancy question of how important it is for the surveyed employees to develop their abilities and skills in the job will



be examined and also if their present job actually provides the opportunities for their skills and abilities to be developed. Table 7.18 shows that of the 203 surveyed employees who reported having a job which is high on variety dimension only 43.7 believe that their skills and abilities are important in their jobs and their jobs provided enough of them. At the same time 35 percent believed that their skills and abilities were important but their jobs did not provide enough opportunities to use them. Only 21.3 percent of those reporting high on the variety dimension believed their skills and abilities were not important in their jobs.

**Table 7.18**

**The Discrepancy Results between the Importance and Actually Provides Questions of Variety Dimension (by percent)**

importance of variety	not enough provided	enough provided
important	35.0	43.7
not important	0	21.3

The relationship between variety dimension and job satisfaction is shown in Table 7.19. The above data shows that of those who reported having a job which is high on variety dimension (203 of total 311 surveyed employees) almost 88 percent were satisfied. At the same time, those who reported having

**Table 7.19**

**The Relationship between Variety Dimension and  
Job Satisfaction**

Level Reported	Satisfied	Not Satisfied	Total	Percent
high	178	25	203	87.7
low	78	30	108	72.2
Total	256	55	311	

a job which is low on variety (108 respondents) 72 percent were satisfied. Therefore, it may be concluded from these findings that as the level of variety increases, job satisfaction also increases. As discussed earlier, when a job requires workers to engage in variety of activities which might challenge or stretch their skills and or abilities, those employees almost invariably report that their jobs are meaningful and hence become more satisfied. It should be noted, however, that when variety is too high, as suggested by Scott, 1966, employees may experience a general state of muscular and mental hypertension which can greatly handicap performance effectiveness and job satisfaction.

### 7.2.2 Task Identity Dimension

The distribution of the task identity dimension presented in Table 7.20 shows that 55.6 percent of the surveyed employees report doing a whole and identifiable piece of work. This means

**Table 7.20**  
**Job Characteristics Distribution (by percent)**  
**Task Identity Dimension**

description	a lot	somewhat	a little	not at all
allows you to do "a whole" job from beginning to end.	23.6	32.0	24.1	20.3
Task Identity dimension	23.6	32.0	24.1	20.3

that more than half of the respondents tend to see their job as meaningful and thus care about their work. In particular, when an employee performs a task from beginning to end such as providing a complete unit of customer service or writing an entire administrative report, they tend to see that task as more meaningful than is the case when they are responsible for only a small part of the job. For example, through our interviews, a social worker in the ministry of Interior explained that he was responsible for dealing with a complete report of his clients complaints and found work more meaningful and interesting than before where he used to deal with only a small portion of his

clients' complaints such as opening a complainant's file or filling out a complaint's form. He said "with the present situation I can see the consequence of my work and would take more care..". If we look at the above comments of this aspect of work - task identity - which probably provides workers with greatest satisfaction, we find that many of these work design issues have been supported by many researchers in this area (Cooper, 1970; Hackman and Oldham, 1975).

The relationship between task identity and job satisfaction is shown in Table 7.21. The Compiled data indicates that 91 percent of those who reported having a job which is high on task identity dimension (173 of total 311 surveyed employees) were satisfied, while only 71 percent of those who reported to have a job which is low on this dimension were satisfied.

**Table 7.21**

**The Relationship between Task Identity Dimension and Job Satisfaction**

Level Reported	Satisfied	Not Satisfied	Total	Percent
high	158	15	173	91.3
low	98	40	138	71.0
Total	256	55	311	

The belief that when individuals perform a whole unit of service or put together an entire report, they tend to see their job as more meaningful than is the case when they are responsible for only small part of the job. Thus, the task identity factor is both an important motivator and source of job satisfaction and is a concept certainly supported by this data. However, caution should be exercised since this does not mean that doing only a small portion of the job increases job dissatisfaction.

### 7.2.3 Task Significance Dimension

The data for the task significance dimension is presented in Table 7.22. The result indicates that more than half of our surveyed employees did not believe that their jobs were important in the eyes of other people. This is to be expected because some of the employees whom we interviewed felt their work to be largely irrelevant to the lives and well being of other people, whether those people are immediate relatives or in the society at large. They view their work as a public service which is administrative in nature and could be provided by any employee.

**Table 7.22**

**Job Characteristics Distribution (by percent)  
Task significance Dimension**

description	a lot	somewhat	a little	not at all
important job in the eyes of others	16.1	33.4	36.0	14.5
task significance dimension	16.1	33.4	36.0	14.5

It should be noted, however, that 49.5 percent of employees surveyed reported that the work being done is important in the eyes of others. These employees experience their work generally as affecting someone else's happiness, health, or safety. These

include jobs of medical staff, social workers, and internal security officers as in the ministry of Interior or the National Guard.

The relationship between task significance and job satisfaction is shown in Table 7.23. The compiled data show that of those who reported having a job which is high on task significance dimension (154 of total 311 surveyed employees) 87 percent were satisfied. At the same time, 78 percent of those who reported low task significance on this dimension (157 respondents) felt satisfied with their jobs.

**Table 7.23**

**The Relationship between Task Significance Dimension  
and Job Satisfaction**

Level Reported	Satisfied	Not Satisfied	Total	Percent
high	134	20	154	87.0
low	122	35	157	77.7
Total	256	55	311	

Each of the three job characteristics described above (variety, task identity, and task significance) contributes to the overall experienced meaningfulness of the work. If a given job is high on all three of the characteristics, an employee is

very likely to experience the work as meaningful and more satisfying than those reporting that their job characteristics are quite low on these dimensions. The characteristic of jobs that fosters increased feelings of personal responsibility for successes and failures that occur on the job will now be investigated.



#### 8.2.4 Autonomy Dimension

The distribution of the autonomy dimension is shown in Table 7.24 which indicates that 60 percent of our surveyed employees perceived having jobs that provide freedom and discretion to the individuals in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out.

**Table 7.24**  
**Job Characteristics Distribution (by percent)**  
**Autonomy Dimension**

description	a lot	somewhat	a little	not at all
planning ahead	36.3	33.8	22.2	7.7
decision discretion	16.7	30.2	31.8	21.3
freedom as how to do work	25.1	38.9	25.1	10.9
Total	78.1	102.9	79.1	39.9
autonomy dimension	26.0	34.3	26.4	13.3

The result for the autonomy dimension indicates that more than half of employees surveyed (60.3 percent) view work outcomes as depending substantially on their efforts, initiatives, and decisions, rather than on, say, the adequacy of instructions from the boss or on the job specification or procedures. Since most respondents view the accomplished work as their own, they would feel that they are responsible for that portion of the work and

would also experience a feeling of personal success and a gain in self-esteem.

Table 7.24a shows that of the 60 percent who report having a job which is high on the autonomy dimension, only 48.9 percent believe that autonomy is important and their jobs provided enough of it. However, 11.1 percent of those reporting a high autonomy dimension believe that autonomy is not important in their jobs. Also, 40 percent of the total surveyed employees (i.e., those reporting low autonomy dimension) believe autonomy to be important but their jobs do not provide enough of it.

**Table 7.24(a)**

**The Discrepancy Results between the Importance and Actually Provides Questions of Autonomy Dimension (by percent)**

importance of variety	not enough provided	enough provided
important	40.0	48.9
not important	0	11.1

The relationship between autonomy dimension and job satisfaction is shown in Table 7.25. The data indicates that of those who reported having a job with high autonomy (188 of total 311 surveyed employees) 90 percent felt satisfied, while 70

percent of those reporting low on autonomy dimension were satisfied.

**Table 7.25**

**The Relationship between Autonomy Dimension and Job Satisfaction**

Level Reported	Satisfied	Not Satisfied	Total	Percent
high	170	18	188	90.4
low	86	37	123	70.0
Total	256	55	311	

Those employees who believed themselves to have jobs that provide freedom in work methods and decisional discretion in scheduling the work procedures, they would view the accomplished work as their own. They would experience a feeling of personal success and therefore would be more satisfied than those who view their jobs with low or no autonomy. Moreover, there are some interesting findings that suggest that increased autonomy can have beneficial effects on learning (Perlmutter and Monty, 1977), on responses to stressful situations such as crowding (Baron and Rodin, 1978), and on happiness and health (Rodin and Langer, 1977).

### 7.2.5 Job Feedback Dimension

The data for the job feedback dimension presented in Table 7.26 shows that 73.6 percent of employees surveyed report that their jobs provided an individual direct and clear information about their performance. This means that most respondents have a sense or knowledge of results from the task activities themselves, as when an employee handles a client request and sees him when the transaction is complete. In this case, the knowledge of results derives from the work activities themselves, rather from some other person ( such as co-worker or a supervisor) who collects data or makes a judgment about how well the work is being done. Although, the second type of feedback which is received from a supervisor or a co-worker can also contribute to the overall knowledge of results, the focus here is on feedback type that are designed into the work itself.

**Table 7.26**

**Job Characteristics Distribution (by percent)  
Job Feedback Dimension**

description	a lot	somewhat	a little	not at all
obtain direct result when performing job from job itself	38.9	34.7	19.9	6.4
job feedback dimension	38.9	34.7	19.9	6.4

The data in Table 7.27 presents the relationship between job feedback and job satisfaction. It shows that of those who reported having a job which is high on feedback (229 of 311 total surveyed employees) 60 percent felt satisfied with their jobs. At the same time, 60 percent of those who reported having a job which is low on this dimension (82 respondents) were satisfied with their jobs.

**Table 7.27**

**The Relationship between Job Feedback Dimension and Job Satisfaction**

Level Reported	Satisfied	Not Satisfied	Total	Percent
high	196	33	229	85.6
low	60	22	82	73.2
Total	256	55	311	

### 7.2.6 Job Effort Dimension

The sixth job characteristic dimension is the job effort, or the degree of effort required to do a job. The job effort dimension is measured by three questions: the job requires working fast, requires exerting mental effort, and the degree of repetitiveness in the job.

**Table 7.28**  
**Job Characteristics Distribution (by percent)**  
**Job Effort Dimension**

description	a lot	somewhat	a little	not at all
speed	45.3	39.5	14.1	1.0
mental effort	46.3	32.5	17.7	3.5
repetitiveness	35.7	38.3	22.8	3.2
Total	127.3	110.3	54.6	7.7
job effort dimension	42.4	36.8	18.2	2.6

The distribution of the job effort dimension shown in Table 7.28 indicates that almost 80 percent of employees surveyed report their jobs as having high requirements for speed/hardness, as well as a high degree of repetition.

The relationship between job effort dimension and job satisfaction is shown in Table 7.29. The data shows that of those surveyed employees who had a job which was high on job

Table 7.29

The Relationship between Job Effort Dimension and  
Job Satisfaction

Level Reported	Satisfied	Not Satisfied	Total	Percent
high	201	45	246	81.7
low	55	10	65	84.6
Total	256	55	311	

effort (246 of the total surveyed employees) 82 percent felt satisfied with their jobs. At the same time, of those who reported having a job low on this dimension (65 respondents), 85 percent felt satisfied with their job.

### 7.2.7 Job Resource Dimension

The last dimension of the job characteristics, the job resource, includes basically those things which are available to the worker on the job to facilitate the execution of the jobs. Respondents were asked whether their job provided enough of four resources: availability of co-worker help, availability of time to execute tasks, information and facts needed for the job, and tools and other equipment needed to execute required tasks. The distribution of the resource dimension shown in Table 7.30 indicates that the four job resources seem to be in adequate supply.

**Table 7.30**

**Job Characteristics Distribution (by percent)  
Job Resource Dimension**

description	enough	not enough
Co-worker help	91.0	9.0
Time	87.8	12.2
Information	60.1	39.9
Equipment	70.7	29.3
Total	309.6	90.4
job resource dimension	77.4	22.6

The relationship between job resource dimension and job satisfaction is shown in Table 7.31. It shows that of those who



reported having a job which was high on resources (241 of 311 total surveyed employees) 93 percent felt satisfied with their jobs. At the same time, 54 percent of those who reported having a job low on this dimension (70 respondents) were satisfied with their jobs.

**Table 7.31**

**The Relationship between Job Resource Dimension and Job Satisfaction**

Level Reported	Satisfied	Not Satisfied	Total	Percent
high	218	23	241	90.3
low	38	32	70	54.3
Total	256	55	311	

### 7.3 The Job Environment and Job Satisfaction

The second component of the work situation to be investigated is the job environment. The job environment provides the immediate context within which the job is performed. Much of the nature of the job environment is determined by the attitudes and actions of others which may produce either negative or positive effects on the satisfaction of the workers.

In this survey of public employees, a number of questions were asked to tap the employees' perception of the nature of job environment. Seven major dimensions of the job environment were examined: Supervision, job mobility, work conditions, discrimination, salary, promotion, and size of the workplace.

As mentioned in the theoretical considerations, supervision, job mobility, promotion, salary, and work conditions were all commonly studied aspects of the job environment. Based on a previous pilot study, interviews with Saudi employees, and the knowledge and experience of the researcher, two additional and related aspects were also investigated: discrimination and size of workplace. Employees' perceptions of discrimination against them in their work seems an important aspect of the job environment. In addition, since public employees who have been studied may or may not be crowded in their office, such a lack of workplace would seem likely to hamper the performance of such

persons and thus causing frustration and perhaps eventually dissatisfaction.

As the first part of the analysis of the job environment, the distribution of responses associated with seven dimensions and the expected relationship between each of the job environment dimensions and job satisfaction is examined. Examination of each of the dimensions shows which specific aspects of the job environment are most in need of improvements. The empirical findings and analysis of each dimension will now be discussed.

### 8.3.1 Supervision Dimension

Based on the previous research findings of supervision and our pilot study results, two main aspects were investigated: the supervisor's consideration of their subordinates and subordinates' participation in decision-making. These two dimensions were found vital in describing supervisory behaviour that would seem to have an effect on job satisfaction (for more details see theoretical considerations and pilot study results).

Six questions were utilized to tap the nature of employees' perceptions of these two major supervisory behaviours. The distributions of employees' perceptions of their job environment associated with the supervisor's consideration and subordinate's participation in decision-making are shown in Tables 7.32 and 7.34. The expected relationships between these two dimensions and job satisfaction are presented in Tables 7.33 and 7.35 respectively. Examination of each of the dimensions indicates which specific aspects of the supervisor's behaviour are most in need for improvements.

The distribution of the consideration dimension indicates that most of employees surveyed (almost 82 percent) felt that they had supervisors who maintained good personal relations with them, kept employees posted on their level of progress, and were understanding when mistakes were made. Since most respondents felt that their supervisor was considerate, it was expected

**Table 7.32**

**Job Environment Distribution (by percent)  
Supervision Dimension**

<b>Supervisor's Consideration</b>	<b>always</b>	<b>usually</b>	<b>sometimes</b>	<b>rarely</b>
-maintain good personal relations with employees	61.8	21.5	14.1	2.6
-is understanding when mistakes were made	60.8	29.6	7.7	1.9
-keeps employees posted on how well they are doing	34.1	34.7	22.8	8.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>156.7</b>	<b>85.8</b>	<b>44.6</b>	<b>12.4</b>
<b>Considerations index</b>	<b>52.2</b>	<b>28.6</b>	<b>14.9</b>	<b>4.3</b>

as hypothesised previously, that consideration of subordinates on the part of a supervisor result in a high level of satisfaction. Therefore, the relationship between consideration dimension and job satisfaction will now be examined.

**Table 7.33**

**The Relationship between Consideration and Job Satisfaction**

<b>Level Reported</b>	<b>Satisfied</b>	<b>Not Satisfied</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Percent</b>
high	230	21	251	91.6
low	26	34	60	43.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>256</b>	<b>55</b>	<b>311</b>	

The data in Table 7.33 shows that of those who reported having a supervisor who was highly considerate (251 of total 311 surveyed employees) 92 percent were satisfied. At the same time those who reported low in the consideration dimension (60 respondents) only 43.3 percent were satisfied. Therefore, it is tempting to conclude from these findings that as the level of consideration increases, job satisfaction levels also increases.

The distribution of the participation in decision-making dimension presented in Table 7.34 indicates that only 48.1 percent of our surveyed employees felt they had a supervisor who was interested in their ideas and tried to make use of them, involved them in decision-making and delegated tasks fairly. Since less than half of respondents did not feel that their

**Table 7.34**

**Job Environment Distribution (by percent)  
Supervision Dimension**

<b>Subordinates' Participation</b>	<b>always</b>	<b>usually</b>	<b>sometimes</b>	<b>rarely</b>
-likes to get our ideas and tries to do something about them	26.4	34.4	24.7	14.5
-involves employees in decisions	15.4	21.2	36.6	26.8
-delegates tasks fairly	20.5	26.2	41.2	12.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>62.3</b>	<b>81.8</b>	<b>102.5</b>	<b>53.4</b>
<b>participations index</b>	<b>20.8</b>	<b>27.3</b>	<b>34.2</b>	<b>17.8</b>

supervisors had given them an opportunity to participate in decision-making, it would be expected, as hypothesised previously, that satisfaction of subordinates would decrease since job satisfaction is positively related to the degree to which they are permitted an opportunity to participate in making decisions.

**Table 7.35**

**The Relationship between Participation and Job Satisfaction**

Level Reported	Satisfied	Not Satisfied	Total	Percent
high	143	7	150	95.3
low	113	48	161	70.2
Total	256	55	311	

Table 7.35 shows the relationship between participation dimension of employees and job satisfaction. The data shows that of 48.1 percent (150 employees of a total 311) reported having to a large extent (reported high) an opportunity to participate in making decisions, thus 95 percent were satisfied. Conversely, of those that reported that they were occasionally involved in decision-making ( 52 percent reported low), 70 percent were satisfied. Thus, as participation in decision-making increases , job satisfaction also increases and the

assumption that satisfaction is positively associated with the degree of participation in decision-making is correct.

Although this is probably the most likely explanation of these data, it is by no means the only one. The use of subordinates' reports to measure supervisory behaviour makes a number of additional interpretations possible. For example, supervisors display a great degree of consideration for subordinates in whom they have realised a strong need for affiliation and perceived to be satisfied and accepting of them. On the other hand, subordinates who do not have such personal characteristics and are perceived to be dissatisfied are more likely to elicit controlling and structuring behaviour from their supervisor and less likely to be the recipients of warmth and personal support. Such an explanation has some degree of validity and cannot be ruled out completely on the basis of existing data. There is considerable evidence in the literature of social psychology that descriptions of the behaviour of one person by another tend to be subject to biases, including a tendency to attribute favourable behaviours to liked individuals and unfavourable behaviours to disliked individuals. Thus, another possible interpretation of the observed satisfaction between supervisory behaviours and the reported attributes of subordinates reflects the fact that subordinates who, for one reason or another like their supervisors, describe them in different way than do subordinates who dislike their supervisors.



These biases could be rejected if it could demonstrate that similar relationships between supervisory behaviour and satisfaction are obtained. This could be done by comparing subordinates' descriptions of the behaviour of their supervisors with such descriptions by the supervisor himself, by the supervisor's superior, by the supervisors peers, or by the use of nonparticipant observation methods. Given the scope, purpose, and time span for this study the present data does not permit the rejection of the above interpretation. There is, however, growing evidence in the literature that subordinates' descriptions of the behavior of their supervisors are not highly related to such descriptions by the supervisor himself, by the supervisor superior, by the supervisors peers, or by the use of nonparticipant observation (Gross, 1956; Besco and Lawshe, 1959; and Vroom, 1960a).

In any future research it would be important to construct questions capable of exploring those mentioned types of supervisory behavior measures and other vital variables such as the nature of the social situation in which both supervisors' consideration and employees' participation is exercised, the nature of the decisions made, and desires and characteristics of the persons involved. Clearly, such investigation would probably require a more precise definition of the concepts of consideration and participation.

### 7.3.2 Job Mobility

The second job environment dimension is job mobility. The measure of job mobility taps employees' perception of the possibility of their changing jobs. Perceptions of job mobility seem likely to be affected by the financial climate of the employees' organization, as well as by the nature of the employment picture existing within that particular organization. Individuals who believe they could move out of their jobs would have this option open for them and thus are more satisfied than those who feel they do not have this option. Whether or not the individuals' assessments are accurate or not should not alter their effect on the level of job satisfaction.

Table 7.36

Job Environment Distribution (by percent)  
Job Mobility Dimension

description	very hard	somewhat hard	somewhat easy	very easy
How hard or easy is it for you to change your job?	13.5	38.2	44.1	4.2
Total	13.5	38.2	44.1	4.2

The distribution of the job mobility dimension is presented in Table 7.36. It indicates that almost 52 percent of the

surveyed employees felt that it was hard to change their jobs.

It should be noted here, however, that potential job mobility is not seen as a result of satisfaction or dissatisfaction but as a potential cause of satisfaction. As mentioned above, individuals who believe they could move out of their jobs could use this as a frustration relief mechanism, thereby becoming more satisfied than those who feel they do not have this option. Since only 48 percent of our respondents felt they do have the option to move out of their jobs, it would be expected that job satisfaction for this group will be greater than those who reported having difficulty in changing their jobs. To show this empirically, an examination of the relationship between job mobility dimension and job satisfaction will be carried out.

**Table 7.37**

**The Relationship between Job Mobility Dimension  
and Job Satisfaction**

Level Reported	Satisfied	Not Satisfied	Total	Percent
hard	116	45	161	72.0
easy	140	10	150	93.3
Total	256	55	311	

The data in Table 7.37 shows that of those surveyed employees (150 out of 311 respondents) who reported ease in

moving out of their jobs, 93 percent were satisfied. At the same time, those who reported having difficulty in changing their jobs (161 respondents), only 72 percent were satisfied. Thus, from these findings it may be interpreted that as the perception of the ease of job mobility increases, job satisfaction increases and the assumption made previously is correct.

### 7.3.3 Working Conditions

The third job environment dimension concerns the working conditions. The question of working conditions measures the comfort of the environmental conditions (heating, lighting, ventilation, etc.) in the work situation.

Table 7.38

Job Environment Distribution (by percent)  
Work Conditions Dimension

description	enough	not enough
Are your (heating, lighting, ventilation, etc.) comfortable	76.8	23.2
Total	76.8	23.2

The distribution of responses for the working condition dimension is shown in Table 7.38. Of the total employees surveyed, almost 77 percent felt the environmental working conditions to be adequate, while 23 percent felt it inadequate. The concern here is that it is not the pleasant surroundings that are likely to yield proportionate increases in satisfaction, but rather that very poor conditions seem likely to increase job dissatisfaction. As a result, working conditions emerge as a separate and identifiable dimension, but appear to affect

satisfaction less than the other dimensions considered previously. Herzberg (1959) considers working conditions incapable of satisfying, although quite capable of dissatisfying. Kilpatrick (1964) find them very low on the list of requirements that make a job either ideal or "worst possible". Therefore, an examination of the relationship between working conditions dimension and job satisfaction is now required in order to verify the hypothesis made earlier.

**Table 7.39**

**The Relationship between Working Conditions Dimension and Job Satisfaction**

Level Reported	Satisfied	Not Satisfied	Total	Percent
adequate	199	40	239	83.3
inadequate	57	15	72	79.2
Total	256	55	311	

The relationship between working conditions and job satisfaction is shown in Table 7.39. The findings confirm the assumption that adequate working conditions are positively related to job satisfaction. Almost 84 percent of those reporting adequate working conditions were found to be satisfied. Conversely, of those reporting inadequate working conditions, 79 percent were satisfied. The result indicates that

job satisfaction has decreased for those who reported inadequacy in working conditions. However, since decrease in job satisfaction is very small, it may not be attributable as a good predictor of job satisfaction as will be pointed out in the analysis conclusion at the end of this chapter.

#### 7.3.4 Discrimination

The fourth dimension of the job environment is discrimination. Each respondent was asked if they felt that any discrimination against employees in the work situation. The distribution of responses to discrimination dimension is shown in Table 7.40. Approximately 33 percent of the surveyed employees felt there was some discrimination against employees in the work situation on the basis of seniority, qualifications, the region which the person comes from, and other reasons not specified. On the other hand, 67 percent felt that there was no discrimination on their jobs.

**Table 7.40**

**Job Environment Distribution (by percent)  
Discrimination Dimension**

description	yes	no
Do you feel there is any discrimination against employees in the work situation?	32.8	67.2
Total	32.8	67.2

The respondents' perceptions for the reasons of discrimination in their job, as mentioned above, were based on seniority, qualifications, the region from which the superior



Table 7.41

The Distribution of Responses for the Reasons of Discrimination

Reason	Frequency	Percent
seniority	40	39.2
qualifications	15	14.7
region where superior come from	25	24.5
others	22	21.6
Total	102	100.0

came, as well as other reasons not specified. The distribution of responses according to these reasons are shown in Table 7.41.

Of those who believed there was discrimination in their jobs (102 employees), 39 percent believed the reasons for the discrimination was seniority, almost 15 percent attributed it to qualifications of individuals, and 24.5 percent thought it was related to the region where the "boss" came from (i.e. from the village, city, tribe, or district from where the superior and his family are related, for more information see Social Considerations in chapter 3). In addition, 21.6 percent did not specify the reasons for the discrimination.

The relationship between discrimination and job satisfaction is presented in Table 7.42. It was hypothesised that as discrimination increases, job satisfaction decreases. Our data shows that of those reporting discrimination on the job (102 respondents) only 69 percent were satisfied, while 89 percent

Table 7.42

The Relationship between Discrimination Dimension  
and Job Satisfaction

Level Reported	Satisfied	Not Satisfied	Total	Percent
yes	70	32	102	69.0
no	186	23	209	89.0
Total	256	55	311	

of those reporting no discrimination on the job were satisfied. Thus, the assumption that as discrimination increases, job satisfaction decreases could be justified by the above findings. However, as with working conditions dimension, discrimination may not be a good predictor of job satisfaction (see concluding remarks at the end of this section).

### 7.3.5 Promotion

Promotion is another dimension of the job environment which has been largely concerned with the perception of the employees of an opportunity for their own promotion. However, viewing promotion in this way complicates an examination of its linkage with job satisfaction (for more details see the Theoretical Considerations). Thus, the perception of the fairness of promotions will be dealt with as oppose to the opportunity for promotion.

Table 7.43

Job Environment Distribution (by percent)  
Promotion Dimension

description	highly fair	moderately fair	weak level	very weak level
fairness of promotions	14.1	52.4	20.6	12.9
Total	14.1	52.4	20.6	12.9

The distribution of responses of promotion dimension is presented in Table 7.43. Of the total surveyed employees (311 respondents) 66.5 percent believe generally that promotions were handled fairly in the organization where they work, while only 33.5 percent perceived that the fairness of promotion was at a low level. It was assumed previously that as the fairness of

promotions increases, job satisfaction increases. Thus, the relationship between fairness of promotions and job satisfaction will now be examined.

**Table 7.44**

**The Relationship between Promotion Dimension  
and Job Satisfaction**

Level Reported	Satisfied	Not Satisfied	Total	Percent
high level	188	19	207	90.8
low level	68	36	104	65.7
Total	256	55	311	

Table 7.44 presents the relationship between fairness of promotions and job satisfactions. The data shows that of those admitting largely to fair promotions in their organization (207 employees), 90 percent were satisfied. On the other hand, of those who perceived their fairness of promotion at a low level only 66 percent were satisfied. Thus, as fairness of promotions increases job satisfaction increases and our assumption that satisfaction is positively associated with the degree of fairness in promotions is valid.

### 7.3.6     Salary

One of the most frequently studied determinants of job satisfaction is the salary of employees or as it is commonly referred to as the level of income. However, the importance of pay to job satisfaction, and the nature of the relationship is not always clear.

**Table 7.45**  
**Job Environment Distribution (by percent)**  
**Salary Dimension**

Salary Level	Frequency	Percent
SR 1001-3000	13	4.2
SR 3001-5000	44	14.1
SR 5001-7000	82	26.4
SR 7001-9000	64	20.6
SR 9001-12000	71	22.8
SR 12001-15000	31	10.0
over SR 15000	6	1.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>311</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Table 7.45 shows the distribution of responses associated with the level of salary. The highest percentage (26.4 percent) of our sample had an income between 5001 to 7000 Saudi Riyals (3.75 Saudi Riyal =1 U.S. dollar), and the lowest percentage (1.9 percent) receiving over SR 15000 per month.

As mentioned earlier, there has been persistent controversy over the importance of salary to work satisfaction. Economists and many executives stress the importance of the size of the pay check in determining a worker's job satisfaction and the probability that he will remain in his job. Therefore, it seems likely, that the over all job satisfaction and salary relationship hold (Lawler and Porter, 1971). To this end, the relationship between salary level and job satisfaction is examined. It should be noted that due to the similar number of responses, it was not possible to categorize the salary level into high-low type of relationship.

The data in Table 7.47 shows that the nature of the relationship between the salary level is not clear. When the salary level is reviewed against the percentages of satisfaction,

**Table 7.46**

**The Relationship between Salary Dimension  
and Job Satisfaction**

Level Reported	Satisfied	Not Satisfied	Total	Percent
SR 1001-3000	10	3	13	76.9
SR 3001-5000	32	12	44	72.7
SR 5001-7000	64	18	82	78.0
SR 7001-9000	52	12	64	81.3
SR 9001-12000	62	9	71	87.3
SR 12001-15000	30	1	31	96.8
over 15000 SR	6	0	6	100.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>256</b>	<b>55</b>	<b>311</b>	

the result shows that there is no consistent increase in the percentage of satisfaction as movement is made from a low salary level to the next level in the rank. Thus, the assumption made earlier that the salary level is positively related to job satisfaction does not hold. This result may be attributed to the fact that in Saudi Arabia the economy of the country as a whole has flourished and individual sources of income has expanded so that the salary is not the major or only source of income for employees. In the interview, a group of employees have indicated that due to today's standard of living, employees have to look for other activities or investments that yield double their monthly salary. Thus, based on the above findings it may be concluded that the salary level may not be a predictor of job satisfaction. Other studies have suggested that the effect of salary level on satisfaction depends on the frame of reference or perceptions of equity (Patchen, 1961; Adams, 1963). That is, an individual employee may compare his work effort and his job salary with similar jobs within or outside his immediate organization. In this survey the respondents were asked if they thought their pay was adequate for performed work. The distribution of responses to this question is shown in Table 7.46(a).

**Table 7.46(a)**

**Job Environment Distribution (by percent)  
Salary Dimension**

description	adequate	inadequate	not at all
salary compared with performed work	60.8	33.1	6.1
Total	60.8	33.1	6.1

The distribution of responses of the equality of salary with work performed shows that almost 61 percent felt that their pay is adequate for the performed work. On the other hand, 39 percent perceive their salary as insufficient for the effort or performance of their jobs. By using this type of comparison the adequacy of salary compared to performed work as a good predictor of job satisfaction may be determined. This relationship will now be examined.

**Table 7.46(b)**

**The Relationship between the Adequacy of Salary  
and Job Satisfaction**

Level Reported	Satisfied	Not Satisfied	Total	Percent
adequate	168	21	189	88.9
inadequate	88	34	122	72.1
Total	256	55	311	



**Table 7.46(b)**

**The Relationship between the Adequacy of Salary  
and Job Satisfaction**

Level Reported	Satisfied	Not Satisfied	Total	Percent
adequate	168	21	189	88.9
inadequate	88	34	122	72.1
Total	256	55	311	

Table 7.46(b) shows that of those reporting to have adequate pay for performed work (189 employees of total 311), 89 percent were satisfied. Of those who perceived their salary to be inadequate for their performance, 72 percent felt satisfied. Thus, it can be stated that the adequacy of salary compared with performed work is positively related to job satisfaction. However, the strength of this predictor will be the issue under investigation in the next section.

### 7.3.7 Size of the Workplace

Another aspect of the job environment which has been included in this research is the size of the work place. Although it has not generally been one of the few systematic variables considered, size has received increased attention recently as a component of organization structure and has been studied numerous times as a potential determinant of job satisfaction. The measure of the size of the workplace in this study asks employees if their office size is suitable, more than needed, or less than needed.

**Table 7.47**

**Job Environment Distribution (by percent)  
Size of Workplace Dimension**

description	more than needed	suitable size	less than needed
size of workplace	5.9	66.8	27.3
Total	5.9	66.8	27.3

The distribution of responses of size of workplace dimension is shown in Table 7.47. More than 66 percent of the surveyed employees (208 of the total 311 employees) felt that they had a suitable office size. At the same time 27.3 percent (85 employees) perceived their office size to be less than what they

required. Only 5.9 percent thought it was more than required for their work.

**Table 7.48**

**The Relationship between Workplace Size Dimension  
and Job Satisfaction**

Level Reported	Satisfied	Not Satisfied	Total	Percent
adequate	191	35	226	84.5
inadequate	65	20	85	76.5
Total	256	55	311	

Previously, it was hypothesized that as the perception of the size of the workplace increases (suitable or more than needed, which is referred to here as adequate), job satisfaction also expected to increase. Table 7.48 shows that of those reporting to have adequate office size (226 employees), 85 percent were satisfied. At the same time, 77 percent of those who perceived their office size as inadequate were satisfied. Although the above finding confirms the previous assumption, but this dimension might not seem to be a strong predictor of job satisfaction as will be discovered later.

As a summary of the analysis of the work situation components, the pattern of findings for the dimensions of job characteristics are presented, in addition to the relationships that exist between these dimensions and job satisfaction. Table 7.49 shows the summary of response distribution in regard to the seven dimensions of job characteristics.

**Table 7.49**

**Job Characteristics Distribution  
(Summary)**

Dimension	high	low
Variety	65.3	34.7
Identity	55.6	44.4
Significance	49.5	50.5
Autonomy	60.3	39.7
Feedback	73.6	26.4
Effort	79.2	20.8
Resource	77.4	22.6

The data illustrates that most of the employees surveyed regard their job characteristics as involving a greater variety of activities, performing invariably a whole and identifiable piece of work, and considering their job to have little importance in the eyes of other people.

The pattern of results show that in the case of the autonomy, most of the employees surveyed considered their jobs

as providing decisional discretion and freedom as to how the work should be performed. The remainder (40 percent) felt that their jobs were characterized by little or no autonomy. The vast majority of respondents (73.6 percent) reported that their jobs provided clear and direct information (feedback) about their performance from the job itself.

The job effort responses indicate that some jobs are characterised by greater effort. This describes jobs with requirements for some speed and mental effort as well as a high degree of repetitiveness. The five job resources appeared to be in fairly adequate supply (74.4 percent).

The distributions of public employees' perceptions of their job environment as a summary are shown in Table 7.50. On the whole, Saudi employees surveyed are fairly pleased with personal considerations made by their supervisors, but feel less involved in decision making, and have expressed some difficulty in securing another job. They also feel that their promotions are fairly handled to some degree, and believe the salary they receive and size of the workplace are adequate for the work performed. In addition, approximately 33 percent of the surveyed employees feel discrimination on the basis of either seniority, qualifications, or the region to which the superiors belong. It was expected that, in some cases, aspects of the job

Table 7.50

Job Environment Distribution  
(Summary)

Dimension	high	low
Considerations	80.8	19.2
Participations	48.1	51.9
Supervision	64.6	35.4
Job Mobility	51.7	48.3
Working Conditions	76.8	23.2
Discrimination	32.8	67.2
Promotions	66.5	33.5
Salary	60.8	39.2
Workplace Size	72.7	27.3

characteristics and job environment would vary according to the respondents organization. Differences attributable to organizations are described in the next section.

It was hypothesized previously that a series of relationships existed between the varying dimensions of the work situation and the extent of satisfaction. The strength and direction of the relationship between each dimension and job satisfaction have been examined separately. Thus, to sum up the analysis regarding this point, the dimensions of job characteristics are grouped as to determine the strongest predictor of job satisfaction. This is followed by a similar treatment for the dimensions of the job environment.

Table 7.51 gives a summary of the relationship between the seven dimensions of job characteristics and job satisfaction. It

shows the strongest predictor of job satisfaction among the dimension and was calculated by comparing those who reported high levels satisfaction of variety, identity, etc. with those still reported satisfaction even with low characteristics. If a large discrepancy exists between the high and low values of satisfaction, then the dimensions under study is considered as significantly related to job satisfaction, and thus would be a good determinant or predictor of job satisfaction.

An examination of the percentage values for discrepancy in Table 7.51 indicates that virtually all the relationships between the dimensions of job characteristics and job satisfaction are in the hypothesized direction. Although these relationships are in the hypothesized direction, they vary in the strength of the direction. In order to determine the strength of the relationship between each dimension and job satisfaction the discrepancy score was investigated.

Of the job characteristics, three of the seven dimensions are significantly related to job satisfaction. Table 7.51 indicates that the job resources dimension is the strongest predictor of job satisfaction among the dimensions of job characteristics, explaining 36.0 percent of the variance. The second strongest determinant of job satisfaction is the identity dimension with a score of 21.3 percent, followed by autonomy with a variance score of 20.4 percent. Differences in public

employees' perceptions of job feedback, job effort, and task significance are not strongly related to job satisfaction.

Table 7.51

**Job Characteristics Dimensions and Job Satisfaction  
(Summary)**

Dimension	Satisfied (high)	Satisfied (low)	Discrepancy
Variety	87.7	72.2	15.5
<b>Identity</b>	<b>91.3</b>	<b>71.0</b>	<b>21.3</b>
Significance	87.0	77.7	9.3
<b>Autonomy</b>	<b>90.4</b>	<b>70.0</b>	<b>20.4</b>
Feedback	85.6	73.2	12.4
Effort	81.7	84.6	-2.9
<b>Resource</b>	<b>90.3</b>	<b>54.3</b>	<b>36.0</b>

The summary of the relationships between the seven job environment dimensions and job satisfaction are shown in Table 7.52. Within the job environment, three of the seven dimensions are significantly related to job satisfaction. The two supervisory variables, namely considerations toward subordinates and the degree of subordinates participation in decision making are the strongest predictors of job satisfaction explaining in excess of 36 percent. Fairness of promotions and job mobility are also significantly related to job satisfaction. Perceptions of salary and discrimination in the workplace by the



**Table 7.52**

**Job Environment Dimensions and Job Satisfaction  
(Summary)**

Dimension	Satisfied (high)	Satisfied (low)	Discrepancy
Considerations	91.6	43.3	48.3
Participations	95.3	70.2	25.1
<b>Supervision</b>	<b>93.5</b>	<b>56.8</b>	<b>36.7</b>
<b>Job Mobility</b>	<b>93.3</b>	<b>72.0</b>	<b>21.3</b>
Working Conditions	83.3	79.2	4.1
Discrimination	89.0	74.8	14.2
<b>Promotions</b>	<b>90.8</b>	<b>65.7</b>	<b>25.1</b>
Salary	88.9	72.1	16.8
Workplace Size	84.5	76.5	8.0

public employee are not significantly related to job satisfaction job satisfaction. The working conditions and size of the workplace have very little effect on job satisfaction.

To conclude, the two strongest work situation predictors of job satisfaction, whether the dimensions of the job characteristics, or the job environment are job resources and supervision. However, separate examination of the two variables of supervision indicates that considerations of the supervisor towards subordinates is the strongest predictor of job satisfaction, explaining in excess of 48 percent of the variance. The importance of this job environment factor in addition to the existing strong predictors of job satisfaction points to the substantial limit of recent studies in focusing almost exclusively on job characteristics variables.

#### 7.4 The Work Situation and Job Satisfaction by Organization

This part of the analysis of the work situation is concerned with the investigation and comparison of empirical findings of both the job characteristics and the job environment dimensions with respect to each organization.

In this particular survey 311 respondents answered the questionnaire: 85 were from the Education Ministry, 52 were from the Interior Ministry, 80 from the Presidency of the National Guard, and 45 from the Saudi Basic Industries Corporation (SABIC).

This section is concerned firstly with making a comparison by organization with respect to the seven job characteristics and seven job environments dimensions. The aim here is to explore the differences and/or similarities as well as to determine which organization is in position of the highest\lowest percentage of the job characteristics dimensions as perceived by the employees working in the same organization. With regard to this comparison, it is important to stress that the absence of a difference can be as important and interesting from both a research and practical point of view if there is reason to believe that a difference may exist between these organizations in terms of the work situation.

Secondly, a comparison is made to determine if there is any

difference in the satisfaction levels associated with those dimensions of the work situation with respect to each organization. An interesting case in point could be satisfaction in working for a public corporation, such as SABIC. One might reasonably expect greater satisfaction with this organization since it is more business oriented in comparison to the rest of the sample.

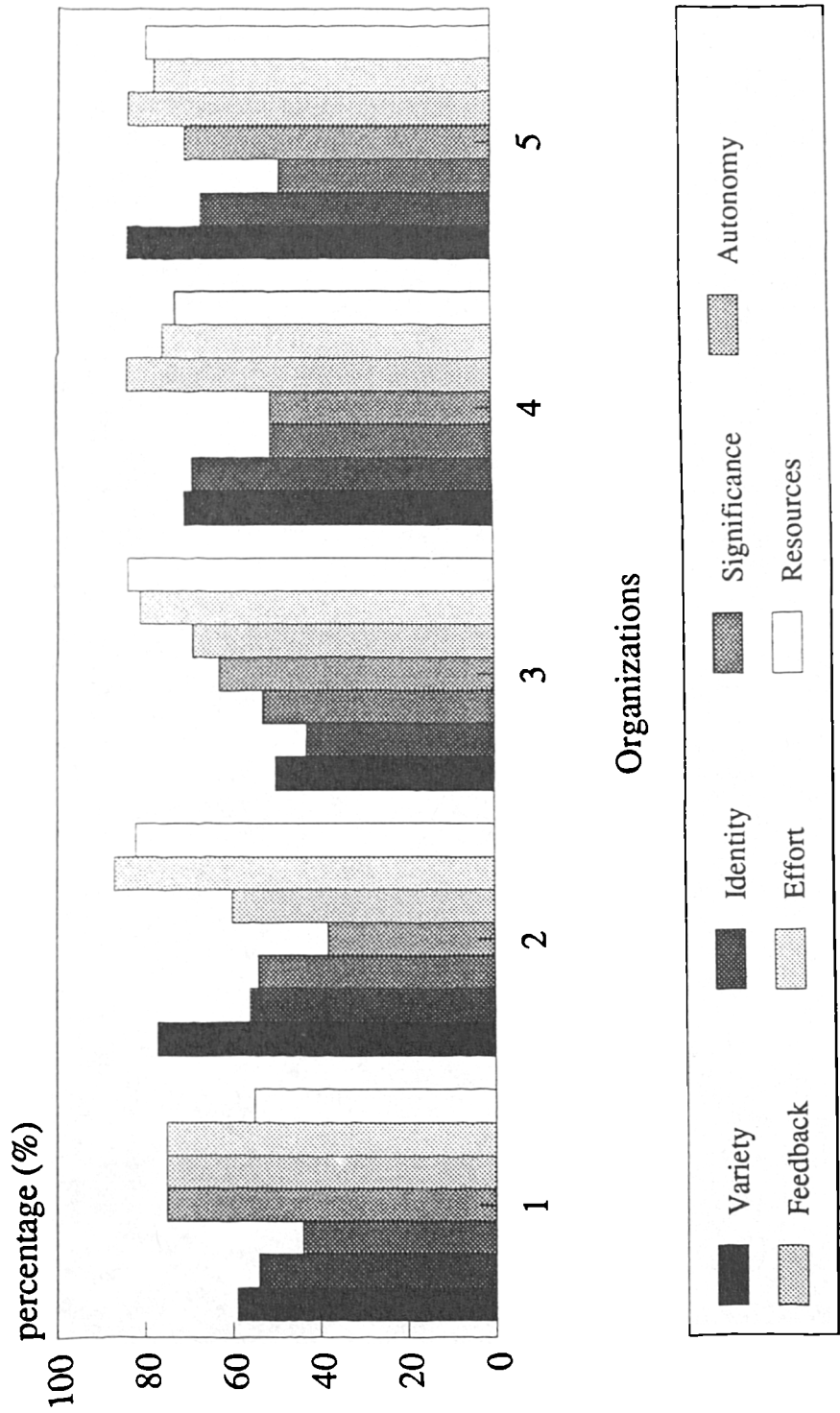
Table 7.53 shows the distribution of responses by organization with respect to the seven job characteristics dimensions. In the case of the variety dimension the pattern of findings shows that the employees who worked for SABIC were most likely (87 percent) to perceive their jobs as a variety of activities that required learning new skills and using different skills. In the same dimension, the National Guard employees were the least likely (50 percent) to perceive their jobs as having such characteristics. The rest of the organizations varied considerably between these two extremes.

The second dimension of job characteristics concerning identity shows that employees of the Public Administration Institute (PAI) and SABIC scored the highest of the five organizations. This indicates that a great number of employees at PAI (69 percent) and SABIC (67 percent) are responsible for a complete job from beginning to end and thus would tend to see their jobs as more meaningful than those responsible for

**Table 7.53**  
**Distribution of Job Characteristics by Organization**

Dimension	Education	Interior	National Guard	P.A.I.	SABIC
high	50	40	40	35	38
low	35	12	40	14	7
	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
<b>Variety index</b>	<b>85</b> <b>59%</b>	<b>52</b> <b>77%</b>	<b>80</b> <b>50%</b>	<b>49</b> <b>71%</b>	<b>45</b> <b>84%</b>
high	46	29	34	34	30
low	39	23	46	10	15
	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
<b>Identity index</b>	<b>85</b> <b>54%</b>	<b>52</b> <b>56%</b>	<b>80</b> <b>43%</b>	<b>49</b> <b>69%</b>	<b>45</b> <b>67%</b>
high	37	28	42	25	22
low	48	24	38	24	23
	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
<b>Significance index</b>	<b>85</b> <b>44%</b>	<b>52</b> <b>54%</b>	<b>80</b> <b>53%</b>	<b>49</b> <b>51%</b>	<b>45</b> <b>49%</b>
high	60	20	50	25	32
low	25	32	30	24	22
	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
<b>Autonomy index</b>	<b>85</b> <b>75%</b>	<b>52</b> <b>38%</b>	<b>80</b> <b>63%</b>	<b>49</b> <b>51%</b>	<b>45</b> <b>71%</b>
high	64	31	55	41	38
low	21	21	25	8	7
	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
<b>Feedback index</b>	<b>85</b> <b>75%</b>	<b>52</b> <b>60%</b>	<b>80</b> <b>69%</b>	<b>49</b> <b>84%</b>	<b>45</b> <b>84%</b>
high	64	45	65	37	35
low	21	7	15	12	10
	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
<b>Effort index</b>	<b>85</b> <b>75%</b>	<b>52</b> <b>87%</b>	<b>80</b> <b>81%</b>	<b>49</b> <b>76%</b>	<b>45</b> <b>78%</b>
high	47	43	67	36	36
low	38	9	13	13	9
	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
<b>Resource index</b>	<b>85</b> <b>55%</b>	<b>52</b> <b>82%</b>	<b>80</b> <b>84%</b>	<b>49</b> <b>73%</b>	<b>45</b> <b>80%</b>

# Distribution of Job Characteristics by Organizations



- 1. Education Ministry
- 2. Interior Mini.
- 3. National Guard
- 4. Public Admin.Ins.
- 5. SABIC

only a small part of the job. The response pattern of the National Guard employees again scores the least (43 percent) in perceiving their jobs as requiring the completion of a whole task from start to completion. This infers that for the National Guard employees the work outcome may not be seen as meaningful as compared with those jobs of the PIA or Sabic. The remaining two organizations, the Ministry of Education and Interior, more than half of the surveyed employees perceived jobs as requiring such characteristics.

The Task Significance dimension shows that the employees who worked for the Ministry of Interior were the highest (54 percent) to report having a job that was important in the eyes of other people. Of the five organizations the employees of the Ministry of Education were the least (44 percent) to admit to having a job with such characteristic. Although this dimension has visualised those organizations with the highest and lowest jobs characteristics associated with task significance, this dimension did not seem likely to contribute to the satisfaction levels of the employees due to the similarity of percentages reported by each organization. The relationship between the Task significance dimension and job satisfaction with respect to each organization will be presented in the second part of this section.

The Ministry of Education followed by Sabic were the highest

to report having jobs that were highly characterized as autonomous jobs. Surprisingly, the employees of the Ministry of Education were recorded to be the greatest (75 percent) in their perception as having jobs that provided decisional discretion and freedom as to how to do the work. Throughout the interview in the Ministry of Education, employees continuously complained that there was a great deal of centralization at the top management levels in the Ministry. However, this does not contradict these findings since the pattern of responses of the Ministry of Education originated from management or professional levels. Table 7.54 presents the distribution of responses by organizations with respect to occupational status (responsibility level).

**Table 7.54**

**Distribution of Responses of the Level of Responsibility by Organization**

Level of Responsibility	Education	Interior	N.Guard	PAI	SABIC
general manager	4	2	3	2	2
department manager	10	3	6	4	7
division manager	12	5	9	7	13
professionals	30	15	10	18	16
secret., clerk, etc.	29	27	52	18	8
<b>Total</b>	<b>85</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>49</b>	<b>45</b>

The vast majority of respondents for all five organizations reported highly in the job feedback dimension. In particular, 84 percent of the surveyed employees in Sabic and PAI perceived

having jobs that provided direct information about their performance from the work activities themselves.

The response pattern for the effort dimension is again similar to that of job feedback. All five organizations gave high scores on the job effort dimension with the employees of the Ministry of Interior being the greatest (87 percent) to perceive that their jobs required them to work fast and to exert mental effort as well as with a high degree of repetition. The remaining four organizations have also shown an increase in the job effort dimension. This increase can be attributed to the fact that either the jobs of the surveyed employees were actually characterized as having requirements for speed/hardness as well as a high degree of repetition or the respondents have given a false indication that their jobs were characterized as such so as to indicate that they are fully occupied in case if there was any job changes occurred as a result of this study.

The final job characteristics dimension is concerned with availability of resources for employees to accomplish their jobs. In this research five job resources were mostly believed to be required to facilitate the execution of the job. These include co workers help, time, information and facts, also tools and equipments needed to execute required tasks. The pattern of findings for this dimension shown in Table 7.53 indicates that the employees who worked for the National Guard reported the

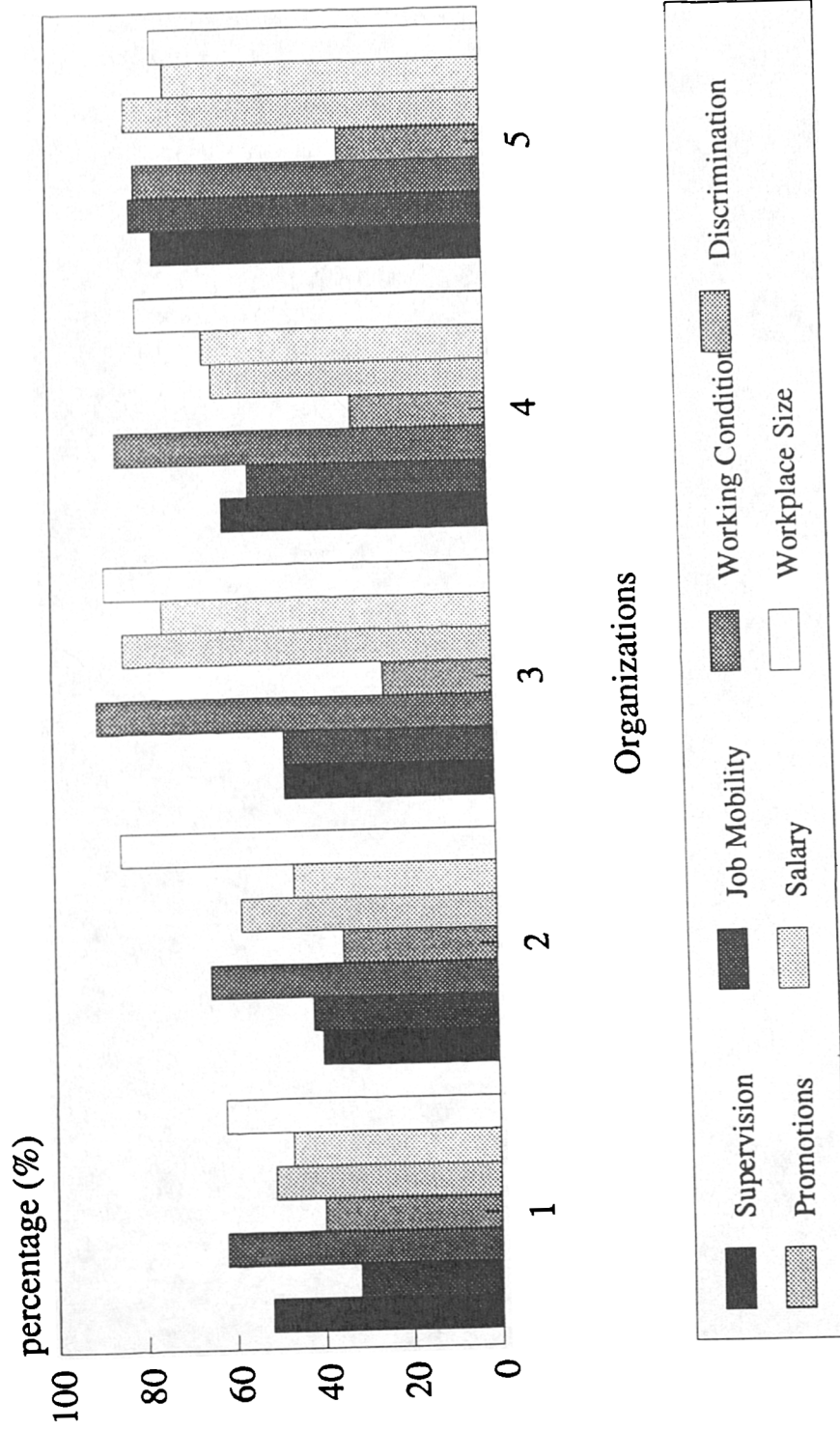


greatest (84 percent) adequacy of these resources. Those employees who worked for the Ministry of Education scored least (55 percent) in having sufficient resources in their jobs.

The distribution of responses of the seven job environment dimensions with respect to each organization is presented in Table 7.55. The pattern of findings for the supervision dimension consists of two parts. First, the supervisor's considerations of the subordinates factor shows that the employees of SABIC were in the majority reporting that their supervisors were considerate toward them. Conversely, the employees of the National Guard had a low perception that their supervisors had this quality of supervision. The second part of the behaviour of supervisor which has been investigated in this study is the level of subordinates' participation in decision making. In this case, the employees of SABIC reported the highest level of involvement in decision making followed by the Institute of Public Administration. The rest of the organizations varied considerably.

The second job environment dimension, job mobility, illustrates that the employees of SABIC were by a great deal the highest (81 percent) to report having a job that was easy to change. Of the five organizations the employees of the Ministry of Education were the least (32 percent) to report ease of changing their jobs.

# Distribution of Job Environment by Organizations



- 1. Education Ministry
- 2. Interior Mini.
- 3. National Guard
- 4. Public Admin.Ins.
- 5. SABIC

Table 7.55

Distribution of Job Environment Dimensions by Organization

Dimension	Education	Interior	National Guard	P.A.I.	SABIC
high	65	38	68	40	40
low	20	14	12	9	5
	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Considerations index	85 59%	52 77%	80 50%	49 71%	45 84%
high	37	22	36	25	30
low	48	30	44	24	15
	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Participation index	85 44%	52 42%	80 45%	49 51%	45 67%
<b>Supervision Index</b>	<b>52%</b>	<b>40%</b>	<b>48%</b>	<b>61%</b>	<b>76%</b>
easy	27	22	38	27	36
hard	58	32	30	24	22
	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Job Mobility index	85 32%	52 42%	80 48%	49 55%	45 81%
high	53	34	72	42	38
low	32	18	8	7	7
	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Working Conditions index	85 62%	52 65%	80 90%	49 85%	45 80%
yes	34	18	20	15	15
no	51	34	60	34	30
	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Discrimination index	85 40%	52 35%	80 25%	49 31%	45 33%
high	43	30	66	31	37
low	42	22	14	18	8
	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Promotions index	85 51%	52 58%	80 84%	49 63%	45 82%

Table 7.55 (continued)

Distribution of Job Environment Dimensions by Organization

Dimension	Education	Interior	National Guard	P.A.I.	SABIC
adequate	40	24	60	32	33
inadequate	45	28	20	17	12
	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
	85	52	80	49	45
<b>Salary index</b>	<b>47%</b>	<b>46%</b>	<b>75%</b>	<b>65%</b>	<b>73%</b>
adequate	53	30	70	39	34
inadequate	32	22	10	10	11
	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
	85	52	80	49	45
<b>Workplace Size index</b>	<b>62%</b>	<b>58%</b>	<b>88%</b>	<b>80%</b>	<b>76%</b>

The distribution of responses in the working conditions dimension with respect to each organization is shown in Table 7.55. The concern here lies with the comfort of the environmental conditions (heating, lighting, ventilation, etc.) in each organization. The Presidency of the National Guard was reported to have the most (90 percent) comfortable working conditions. PAI and SABIC were also found to have very good working conditions (85 and 80 percent respectively). The Ministry of Education was believed to be the lowest (62 percent) in providing comfortable working conditions. It should be noted, however, that its low score in working conditions dimension does not necessarily mean that the organization has very poor or uncomfortable environmental conditions. It might mean that

working conditions of the Ministry did not meet the expectations and desires of the employees, particularly when a comparison was made with more comfortable office facilities found in newly operated agencies.

The fourth dimension of the job environment component concerns discrimination in the workplace. As mentioned previously, to the knowledge of the researcher, this dimension has not previously been studied Saudi Arabia. Based on the pilot study and the interview, four categories were considered as the basis of discrimination in the work situation. They include seniority, qualifications, the region which the superior came from as well as other reasons that were not specified. The distribution of responses associated with discrimination is shown in Table 7.51. The highest level of discrimination (40 percent) was found in the Ministry of Education, and the lowest (25 percent) was attributed to the National Guard. The remaining organizations have also reported discrimination levels between these extremes.

Promotion is another dimension of job environment which measures the employees' perception of fairness of promotion. Of the five organizations studied, the National Guard and employees of SABIC scored the highest in admitting fair promotions practices in their organizations (83 and 82 percent respectively). The employees of the Ministry of Education again

reported the lowest to have promotions that were handled fairly.

The distribution of responses with respect to the adequacy of salary is presented in Table 7.55. Of the five organizations, the National Guard and the employees of SABIC were the highest (75 percent) to consider that their jobs salary as adequate for the work performed. The least to consider the job salary to performed work ratio as equal were employees of the Ministry of Education and Ministry of the Interior.

The compiled data for the size of the workplace dimension shown in Table 7.55, indicates that employees of the National Guard were the highest (88 percent) to report that the size of the workplace was adequate. The employees of the Ministry of Interior were the least (58 percent) to report that size of workplace was adequate.

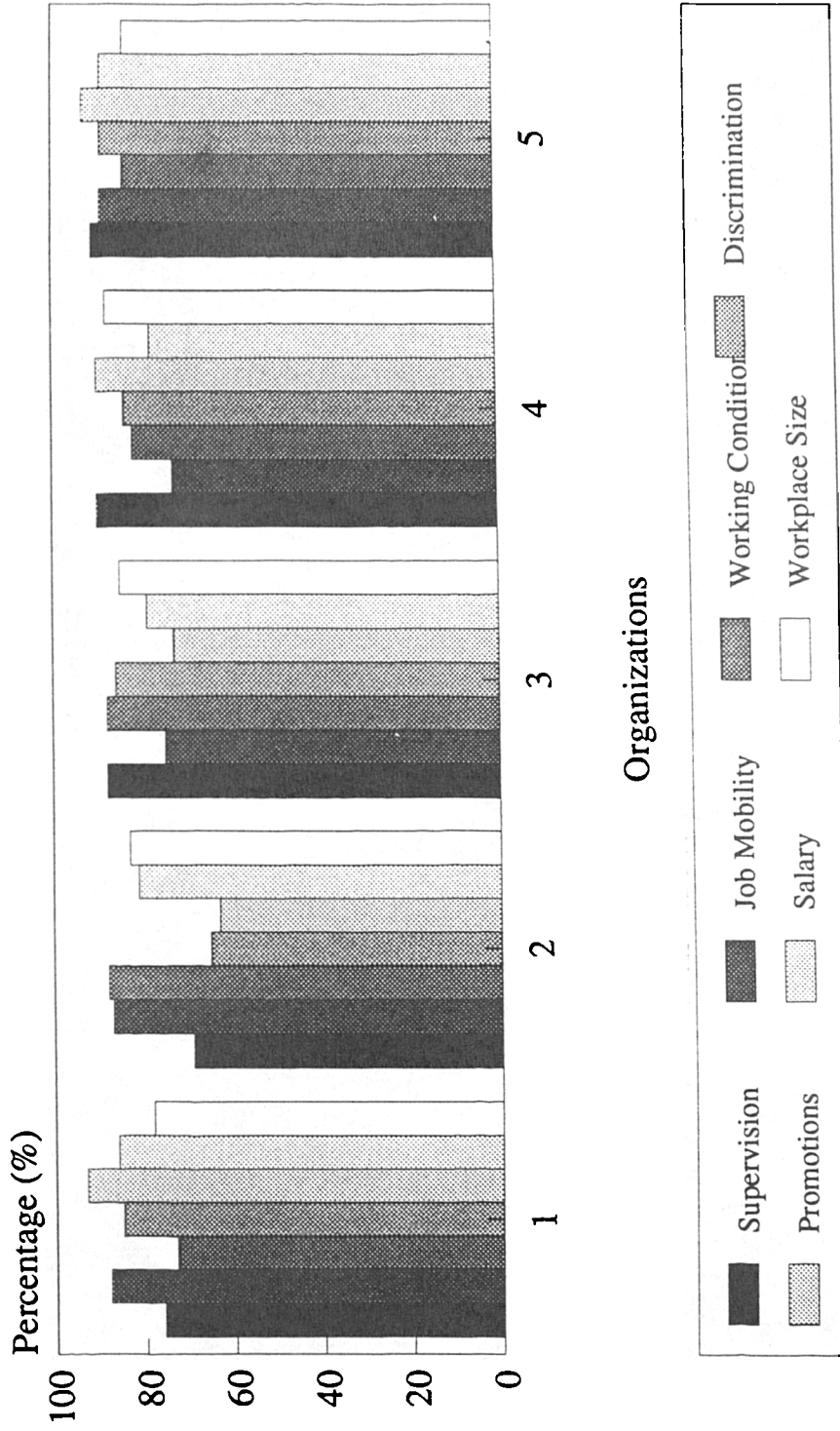
The second part of the comparison is made to determine if there is any difference in the satisfaction levels associated with those dimension of the work situation with respect to each organization.

Table 7.56 presents the relationships between the job characteristics dimensions and job satisfaction for each organization. The employees of the Ministry of Interior were the least satisfied with the variety of skills and activities in their jobs. The rest of the organizations reported a

**Table 7.56**  
**Relationships between Job Characteristics Dimensions**  
**and Job Satisfaction by Organization**

Dimension	Education	Interior	National Guard	P.A.I.	SABIC
satisfied	65	36	70	44	41
not satisfied	20	16	10	5	4
<b>Variety</b>	85	52	80	49	45
<b>satisfact. index</b>	<b>76%</b>	<b>69%</b>	<b>88%</b>	<b>90%</b>	<b>91%</b>
satisfied	75	45	60	36	40
not satisfied	10	7	20	13	5
<b>Identity</b>	85	52	80	49	45
<b>satisfact. index</b>	<b>88%</b>	<b>87%</b>	<b>75%</b>	<b>73%</b>	<b>89%</b>
satisfied	62	46	70	40	38
not satisfied	23	6	10	9	7
<b>Significance</b>	85	52	80	49	45
<b>satisfact. index</b>	<b>73%</b>	<b>88%</b>	<b>88%</b>	<b>82%</b>	<b>84%</b>
satisfied	72	34	69	41	40
not satisfied	13	18	11	9	5
<b>Autonomy</b>	85	52	80	49	45
<b>satisfact. index</b>	<b>85%</b>	<b>65%</b>	<b>86%</b>	<b>84%</b>	<b>89%</b>
satisfied	79	33	58	44	42
not satisfied	6	19	22	5	3
<b>Feedback</b>	85	52	80	49	45
<b>satisfact. index</b>	<b>93%</b>	<b>63%</b>	<b>73%</b>	<b>90%</b>	<b>93%</b>
satisfied	73	42	63	38	40
not satisfied	12	10	17	11	5
<b>Effort</b>	85	52	80	49	45
<b>satisfact. index</b>	<b>86%</b>	<b>81%</b>	<b>79%</b>	<b>78%</b>	<b>89%</b>
satisfied	66	43	68	39	38
not satisfied	19	9	12	10	7
<b>Resource</b>	85	52	80	49	45
<b>satisfact. index</b>	<b>78%</b>	<b>83%</b>	<b>85%</b>	<b>80%</b>	<b>84%</b>

# Relationships Between Job Characteristic and Job Satisfaction



- 1. Education Ministry
- 2. Interior Ministry
- 3. National Guard
- 4. Public Admin. Ins.
- 5. SABIC



satisfaction level of more than 75 percent. Thus, it is inferred that 31 percent of the employees surveyed in the Ministry of Interior do not perceive their jobs as meaningful or interesting because of the lack of variety in skills and activities required by their jobs.

In the case of task identity, the employees of the P.A.I. and the National Guard were the least satisfied in regard to this dimension. It is inferred from these findings that twenty five percent of the employees surveyed in the P.A.I. and the National Guard may not appear to be performing a whole job from start to completion, thus would not perceive the accomplished work as meaningful and satisfying.

The employees of both the Ministry of Interior and the National Guard scored the highest satisfaction level in regard to task significance. It was mentioned earlier (in chapter 4) that both the Ministry of Interior and the National Guard are considered the most powerful internal security forces in the Kingdom. Most of the personnel in both organizations are on active duty in case of a major emergency or an invasion. Thus, this finding is supported by the fact that some of the employees in both organization are security officers and professionals who view their work as relevant to the lives and well being of other people. The employees of the Ministry of education, however, reported the least satisfaction for task significance.

Except for the Ministry of Interior, all organizations reported satisfaction levels of more than 84 percent with regard to the autonomy dimension. Thus, it is inferred from this finding that 35 percent of the employees of the Ministry of Interior may not view the accomplished work as their own. They would not experience a feeling of personal success when the task is completed because they did not view their work outcomes as depending substantially on their efforts, initiatives, and decisions. It is believed that tasks are assigned to employees by their manager whom they refer to for instructions and procedures to how to perform tasks. The employees may not be involved in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out. As a consequence, this would reduce the feeling of experienced responsibility of the task outcome which would lead to reduction in satisfaction levels for this dimension.

The relationship between job feedback and job satisfaction shown in Table 7.56 indicates that the employees of the Ministry of Interior again scored the least (63 percent) satisfaction with this dimension. This finding would suggest that 37 percent of those employees surveyed did not perceive their jobs as providing direct and clear information about their performance. Thus, the respondents may not have a sense or knowledge of results which would reduce the internal motivation and work satisfaction as suggested by the Job Characteristics Model

described in chapter 2. The remaining organizations reported satisfaction of more than 90 percent.

Although most the employees surveyed described their jobs as having high requirements for speed and mental effort as well as a high degree of repetition, their satisfaction levels was reported to be higher than 79 percent for all five organizations. This can be attributed to the fact that this dimension received noticeable attention particularly at the interviews. It was felt that employees wanted to stress that their jobs comprised more efforts that its equivalents. However, this was not apparent in the findings of this survey.

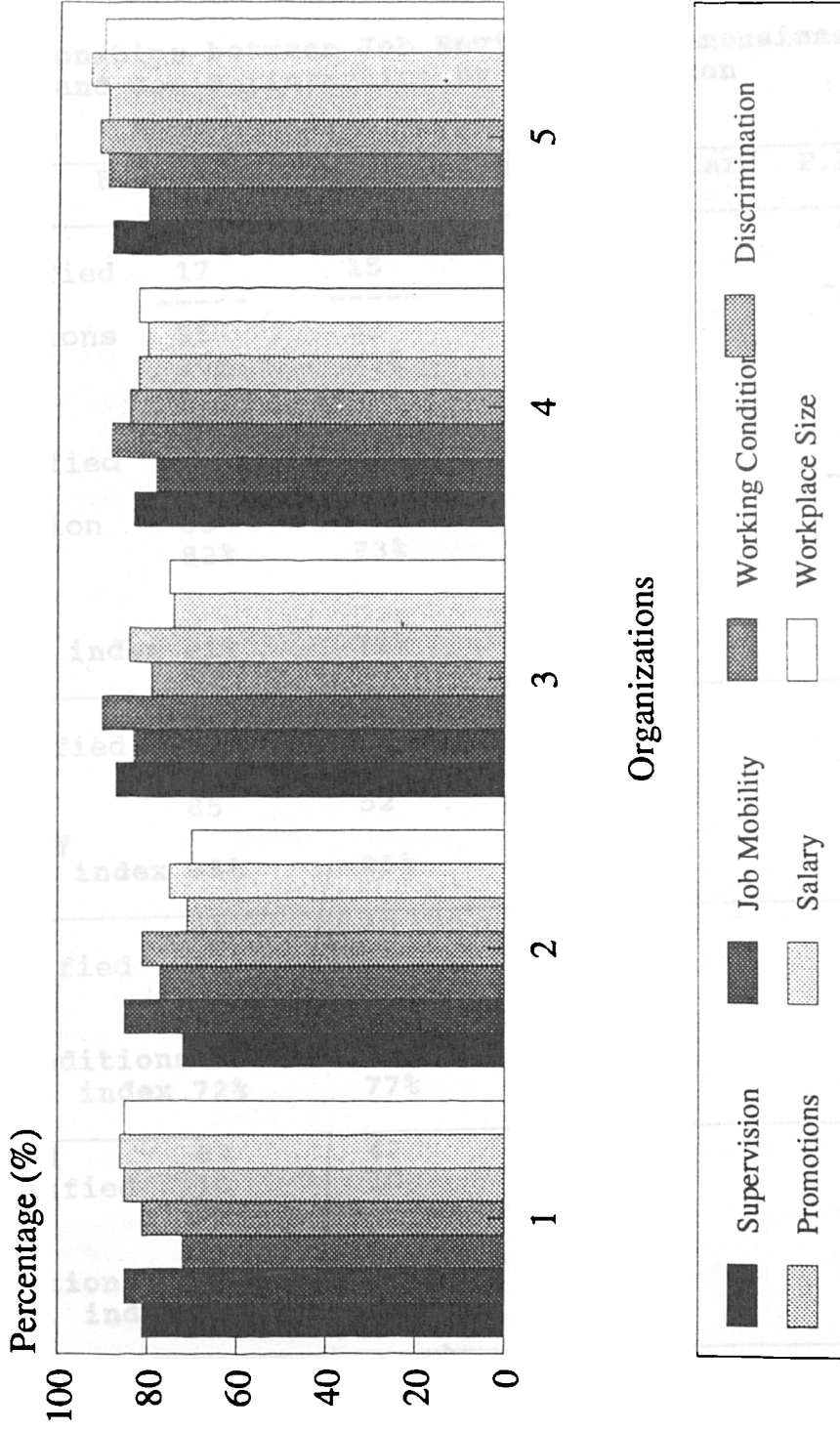
The final dimension to be considered with respect to job characteristics is job resources. As mentioned in chapter 5, it refers to the degree to which a job provides substantial equipment, information and time needed to accomplish tasks, as well as co worker help and assistance. The compiled data for job resources shown shown in Table 7.56 indicate that the highest satisfaction levels reported were the employees of the National Guard. This is followed by the employees of SABIC and the MInistry of Interior. Although there was no significant difference in the satisfaction levels among the five organizations, the employees of P.A.I and especially the employees of the Ministry of Education reported the lowest

satisfaction level (78 percent) with this dimension.

The distribution of responses with respect to the satisfaction levels of the second component of the work situation, the job environment is presented in Table 7.57.

The measurement of supervision used in this study includes two factors: considerations of subordinates by their supervisor and the subordinates level of participation in decision making. It may be recalled in chapter 5 that consideration factor was concerned with the degree to which the supervisor maintained good personal relations with his subordinates. This included the establishment of a supportive personal relationship, the posting of employees on how well they are progressing and the ability to be understanding when mistakes were made. Participation in decision making was measured by examining whether the supervisor likes to get subordinates' ideas and tries to do something about them, involves subordinates in decision making and delegates tasks fairly. Thus, looking at the compiled data for consideration factor shown in Table 7.57 indicates that the employees of the National Guard scored the highest satisfaction level (88 percent). The least satisfied (71 percent) with consideration were the employees of the Ministry of Interior. In the case of the participation in decision making, the employees of SABIC scored the highest involvement (91 percent) in decision making. This can be attributed to the fact that SABIC

# Relationships Between Job Environment and Job Satisfaction



- 1. Education Ministry
- 2. Interior Mini.
- 3. National Guard
- 4. Public Admin.Ins.
- 5. SABIC

Table 7.57

Relationships between Job Environment Dimensions  
and Job Satisfaction by Organization

Dimension	Education	Interior	National Guard	P.A.I.	SABIC
satisfied	68	37	70	42	39
not satisfied	17	15	10	7	6
	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Considerations index	85 80%	52 71%	80 88%	49 86%	45 84%
satisfied	70	38	68	39	41
not satisfied	15	14	12	10	4
	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Participation index	85 82%	52 73%	80 85%	49 80%	45 91%
<b>Supervision</b> <b>satisfact. index</b>	<b>81%</b>	<b>72%</b>	<b>87%</b>	<b>83%</b>	<b>88%</b>
satisfied	72	44	66	38	36
not satisfied	13	8	14	11	9
	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
<b>Job Mobility</b> <b>satisfact. index</b>	<b>85%</b>	<b>85%</b>	<b>83%</b>	<b>78%</b>	<b>80%</b>
satisfied	61	40	72	43	40
not satisfied	24	12	8	6	5
	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
<b>Working Conditions</b> <b>satisfact. index</b>	<b>72%</b>	<b>77%</b>	<b>90%</b>	<b>88%</b>	<b>89%</b>
satisfied	69	42	63	41	41
not satisfied	16	10	17	8	4
	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
<b>Discrimination</b> <b>satisfact. index</b>	<b>81%</b>	<b>81%</b>	<b>79%</b>	<b>84%</b>	<b>91%</b>
satisfied	59	40	72	43	42
not satisfied	26	12	8	6	3
	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
<b>Promotions</b> <b>satisfact. index</b>	<b>69%</b>	<b>77%</b>	<b>90%</b>	<b>88%</b>	<b>93%</b>

Table 7.57 (continued)

Relationships between Job Environment Dimensions  
and Job Satisfaction by Organization

Dimension	Education	Interior	National Guard	P.A.I.	SABIC
satisfied	73	39	59	39	42
not satisfied	12	13	21	10	3
	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
	85	52	80	49	45
<b>Salary</b>					
<b>satisfact. index</b>	<b>86%</b>	<b>75%</b>	<b>74%</b>	<b>80%</b>	<b>93%</b>
satisfied	72	36	60	40	41
not satisfied	13	16	20	9	4
	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
	85	52	80	49	45
<b>Workplace Size</b>					
<b>satisfact. index</b>	<b>85%</b>	<b>70%</b>	<b>75%</b>	<b>82%</b>	<b>90%</b>

management is believed to be using the current business style of participative leadership. The evidence of this factor was deducted during the interview of a department manager in SABIC, in which he elaborated on the idea of work team decisions and positive top management actions. The employees of the Ministry of Interior reported the least (73 percent) satisfied with the degree of participation in decision making in their organization. Taking these two factors together, SABIC reported the highest percentage (88 percent) of satisfaction, followed by the National Guard. The lowest satisfaction rate (72 percent) of both factors of supervision was again the Ministry of Interior.

With respect to job mobility, the employees of the P.A.I. and SABIC respectively were the lowest satisfied (78 and 80 percent) with this dimension. These employees believed they could change their jobs but with difficulty, thus becoming less satisfied than those in the Education and Interior ministries who felt they could move out of their jobs easily.

Except for the Education and Interior ministries, the rest of the organizations felt satisfied with their working conditions. With regard to Discrimination in the workplace, the employees of the National Guard were the least to report there was discrimination in the workplace. However, these employees were the least satisfied with this dimension. Since discrimination was found to be negatively related to job satisfaction, the respondents of the National Guard might have reported less discrimination than there is. However, note should be taken that the measure of discrimination was not found to be strongly related to job satisfaction. Thus, the lower satisfaction levels reported by the National Guard may be attributed to variables other than discrimination.

Since the least to report fair promotion practices was found in the Ministry of Education, 69 percent of its employees were the least satisfied. The remaining organizations reported higher satisfaction levels with the employees of SABIC being the strongest (93 percent) to be satisfied with their promotional



practices.

The employees of SABIC reported the highest satisfaction levels associated with the adequacy of salary. The least satisfied with salary as compared to performed work were the employees of the National Guard and the Ministry of Interior.

Finally, with respect to the workplace size, the employees of the Ministry of Interior reported the least satisfaction with this dimension. Although this dimension was not reported to be strongly related to job satisfaction, this finding might be attributed to the fact that in offices of the Ministry of Interior employees might have crowded in a small workplace which might make those employees frustrated and become less satisfied.

It was expected that in some cases, aspects of the work situation would vary by the organization of the respondents. Thus, a descriptive picture emerges for the Saudi public employees by each organization that shows who are most satisfied with their job characteristics and job environment.

For the Ministry of Interior, skill variety, autonomy, and job feedback received the lowest job satisfaction of all organizations. With respect to job environment, considerations of subordinates by their supervisor and participation in decision making as well as the size of the workplace were again scored the lowest satisfaction of all organizations. Thus, more attention

should be paid to improve these aspects in order to enhance job satisfaction in this organization (for detail see implications for policy makers and public managers).

The Ministry of Education has to pay more attention to increasing job resources including office equipments, co workers assistance, and the information needed to carry out the assigned tasks. In addition, more variety of skills and activities are required by its employees. In terms of job environment, more supportive and democratic leadership, better promotional practices and working conditions are required for improving the performance and job satisfaction of this organization.

More attention is required to increasing task identity and job feedback for the National Guard employees in order to enhance job satisfaction. In addition, job effort and the adequacy of salary as compared to performed work need to be further investigated.

For the Public Administration Institute, task identity and job effort scored the least percentage of job satisfaction among all organizations. With respect to job environment all dimensions were satisfactory, except for job mobility which scored the least percentage of job satisfaction. Thus, three dimension of the work situation in P.A.I. need to be examined in order to improve performance and job satisfaction

With regard to SABIC, all dimension of the work situation scored the highest satisfaction levels, except for job resources, job mobility, and the personal considerations of subordinates by their supervisors.

It is of course one thing to suggest that certain dimensions need attention and quite another to suggest how to improve such matters. Studies in greater depth about the employees perceptions of the importance of these dimensions as well as their expectations relative to implementation procedures for these dimensions in the workplace may produce a fuller basis on which to design jobs that would point out both levels needed and procedures to be incorporated in tasks (for some details see implications for policy makers and public managers).

### 7.5 How Satisfied Are the Saudi Employees?

One of the interests of this study is to examine the distribution of job satisfaction and the satisfaction levels of the Saudi public employees. The distribution of job satisfaction is of particular interest if this is viewed as a social indicator of the quality of employment (Kahn, 1972; Seashore and Taber, 1975).

**Table 7.58**

**The Overall Distribution of Job Satisfaction for the Surveyed Saudi Public Employees**

Satisfaction Level	Percent
very satisfied	26.4
satisfied	55.9
not too satisfied	15.1
not at all satisfied	2.6
Total	100.0

Table 7.58 indicates the distribution of job satisfaction among Saudi public employees surveyed. The results in Table 7.58 show that 26.4 percent of surveyed employees were "very satisfied"; 55.9 percent were "satisfied; 15.1 percent were "not too satisfied"; and only 2.6 percent were "not at all satisfied". "very satisfied" meant that all needs of the individual in the job have been met. "satisfied" meant that most of the needs of the individual in the job have been met. "not too satisfied"

meant that some of the needs of the individual in the job were met, but that most of the needs were not met. "not at all satisfied" meant that only few of the needs or none at all were met by the job.

Almost all previous studies reported the distributions of job satisfaction. Reviewing job satisfaction studies in 1935. Hoppock found approximately one third of workers to be dissatisfied. In his own job satisfaction study in New Hope, Pennsylvania, Hoppock found that 15 percent of all employed persons in his survey were dissatisfied with their jobs. Writing thirty-five years later, Kahn (1972: 174), agreed with the findings of Hoppock's New Hope study in terms of numbers. However, he felt that adequate generalizations about the distribution of job satisfaction were inappropriate given differences in time, sample populations, data collection, and statistical treatment.

In one of the earliest national surveys, Robinson, Athanasious and Head (1969) reported that 89 percent of the employees surveyed were "completely" or "somewhat" satisfied. Other broad studies (Survey of Working Conditions, 1971, 1977) have found similar levels of satisfaction among employees.

Studying job satisfaction in Saudi Arabia for the first time, Nassir Al-Adaily (1981), although no overall indicator was calculated, reported that results indicated that subjects

were homogeneous in their ratings of their satisfaction or dissatisfaction with aspects of their job. Abdulwhab (1979), investigated decision making in Saudi Arabia. Part of the questionnaire of his study questionnaire was concerned with the motivation of managers and needs satisfaction. He found that managers who had training in decision making were more satisfied with self esteem and self actualization than managers who had no training in decision making. Writing about job satisfaction among middle managers in Saudi Basic Industries Corporation (SABIC), Aba-Alkhail (1988), reported that 90 percent of the Saudi Middle Managers in SABIC were "very satisfied" or "satisfied".

In addition to comparing these findings on levels of job satisfaction with other studies, it is interesting to examine job satisfaction levels between the five surveyed public organizations: Ministry of Interior, Ministry of Education, Presidency of the National Guard, Institute of Public Administration, and SABIC. The five organizations represent a variety of social, economic, and political environments. Despite these differences it seemed likely that the distribution of job satisfaction would not differ significantly between them.

Table 7.59 presents the overall distribution of job satisfaction for each organization. The results show that the largest percentage of satisfied employees were SABIC (i.e. 88.9 percent), while the lowest reporting satisfaction was the

Table 7.59

The Overall Distribution of Job Satisfaction for the Five Surveyed Public Organizations

Satisfaction Level	Education (1)	Interior (2)	N. G. (3)	P.A.I (4)	SABIC (5)
very satisfied	29.4	21.6	35.0	16.0	22.2
satisfied	54.1	54.9	46.3	66.0	66.7
not too satisfied	14.1	21.6	16.3	14.0	8.9
not at all satisfied	2.4	2.0	2.5	4.0	2.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
N =	(85)	(52)	(80)	(50)	(44)

- (1) Ministry of Education
- (2) Ministry of Interior
- (3) Presidency of the National Guard
- (4) Public Administration Institute
- (5) Saudi Basic Industries Corporation

the Ministry of Interior. The discrepancy measure of the twenty three facets of job satisfaction for the five organizations is shown in Table 7.60.

For ease of presentation the discrepancy scores were grouped into categories of "no discrepancy", "low discrepancy", and "high discrepancy". "no discrepancy" meant that various important facets to the employee have been provided by the job (i.e. the great satisfaction occurs to the degree to which the employee feels the job supplies his/her needs). "low discrepancy" meant that in some of the facets covered, the job did not fulfill all of the employee's needs, yet in other areas the employee's needs

were fulfilled. Employees with a high discrepancy report a large gap between these aspects they value in a job and the degree to which their job supplies these items. To simplify, the greater the discrepancy, the higher the level of dissatisfaction. (for more details about discrepancy score and the calculated results see the chapter concerning methodology).

**Table 7.60**

**Job Satisfaction by Organization  
(in percentages)**

Discrepancy Level	Education (1)	Interior (2)	N. G. (3)	P.A.I (4)	SABIC (5)
high discrepancy (1)	18.9	16.1	17.3	14.5	13.7
low discrepancy (2)	58.0	54.0	63.5	55.5	57.2
no discrepancy (3-4)	23.1	29.9	19.2	30.0	29.1
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
N =	(85)	(52)	(80)	(50)	(44)

- (1) Ministry of Education
- (2) Ministry of Interior
- (3) Presidency of the National Guard
- (4) Public Administration Institute
- (5) Saudi Basic Industries Corporation

Table 7.60 indicates that over 70 percent of the employees in each organization report some discrepancy between what they value in a job and what their job supplies them. Less than 20 percent, however, have high discrepancy scores, which is roughly equivalent to high levels of job dissatisfaction. There is little variation between the five organizations, except for the



Presidency of the National Guard which reported that less than 20 percent of the employees felt that their important needs have been met in their jobs. Also, SABIC and P.A.I. reported the lowest number of employees who were dissatisfied.

## CHAPTER EIGHT

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study explores the relationship between employees and their work in the public sector at the individual level. To define the relationship between employees and their work, the analysis is focused on the response of the employees to their own job as indicated by their degree of job satisfaction. Specifically, the work setting for this research involved sampling of public employees in five public corporations namely: the Ministry of Education, Ministry of Interior, Presidency of National Guard, the Institute of Public Administration, and the Saudi Basic Industries Corporation (SABIC).

Job satisfaction in the private sector has been the focus of a great deal of research. Initially those who studied job satisfaction sought to relate it to productivity. Such research tended to have industrial sponsors who sought improved productivity as a direct outgrowth of the research. In general, such research produced weak or mixed findings on the relationship between job satisfaction and productivity (Vroom, 1964, Ronan, 1970, Katzell and Yankelovich, 1975).

Despite the limited impact of this research in altering productivity, researchers were still substantially interested in the concept of job satisfaction. Studies of job satisfaction

continued to flourish as part of an increasing concern by humanistically oriented scholars with the role of the individual in organization. The more recent humanistic approach (Gibson and Teasley, 1973), instead of focusing on productivity, seeks to improve the quality of workers' lives by increasing job satisfaction. Scholarly attention to the quality of worklife may arise not only from a concern with the well-being of the individual but from one's perspective about the nature of a "good" society. A society composed of a significant minority of dissatisfied or demoralized workers is not likely to be a healthy society either economically or socially.

The earlier studies considered both the nature of the job itself and the immediate environment as important potential determinants of job satisfaction. However, as studies of job satisfaction shifted to a more humanistic focus, there was also a shift in emphasis toward an examination of job characteristics only, ignoring the potential importance of the job environment.

In the public sector, reactions to job satisfaction were justified as a promoter of the community's mental health and as an indicator of the quality of working life. However, it has only occasionally been investigated in the public sector (Kahn, 1972). Thus, this study departs from previous investigations of job satisfaction in four principle ways:

- (1) dealing with the public sector,

- (2) reincorporating the job environment,
- (3) dealing with job satisfaction in a developing country like Saudi Arabia,
- (4) incorporating important variables such as job effort, job resources, discrimination, work preference and size of the workplace in the Saudi Arabian work setting.

Thus, the aims of this thesis have been stated as the following:

- to investigate the work situation of the Saudi public organizations as reflected by the attitudes of its employees in terms of the degree of job satisfaction.
- to examine and conceptualize the components of the work situations and to identify the major dimensions that are strongly related to job satisfaction.
- to compare the work situation components and levels of satisfaction by each organization in order to shed some light on the dimensions that are considered to be affecting the job satisfaction levels of employees. From this, each organization is recommended to pay more attention to those factors in future job design considerations.

Exploration of the issues proposed in this study are believed to contribute measurably to a better understanding of the variables that play an important part in job satisfaction levels for the Saudi public sector. In addition, it is hoped that this study would encourage other researchers in Saudi Arabia to focus their research in this neglected area of work behaviour.

In terms of its relationship to previous work in this area,

this study clearly builds upon the evolving humanistic approach to work (Gibson and Teasley, 1973; Hackman and Oldham, 1980). In particular, close reference was made to the methods used in the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) by Hackman and Oldham (1975), and the Al-Adaily (1981) study of job satisfaction in Saudi Arabia.

The JDS instrument is based on a specific theory of how job design affects work motivation and satisfaction, and provides measures of (a) objective job dimensions, (b) individual psychological states resulting from these dimensions, and (c) affective reactions of employees to the job and work setting. The JDS does not cover all the components of this research and some of its methodology has been criticized. However, it was found relevant for the theoretical framework of the job characteristics component in this study.

Although Al-Adaily's study of job satisfaction is based on Herzberg's two factor theory, it was considered a welcome addition to the present study since it was aimed specifically at Saudi governmental employees (managers and workers) in order to elicit their views on important factors affecting their job satisfaction. Thus, this research setting shares that of Al-Adaily. Chapter 3 describes both studies in more detail.

In this study, three work related components were investigated for a better understanding of job satisfaction: individual orientations, job characteristics, and the job

environment. Since these components are both conceptually broad and have been examined in a variety of ways in previous research studies, a number of aspects or dimensions of these components have been operationalized in this study. Specifically, six individual attributes, seven job characteristics dimensions, in addition to seven job environment dimensions are all portrayed as potentially affecting job satisfaction.

In chapter 5, these determinants of job satisfaction have been defined conceptually, alternative definitions and measurement approaches used in previous research have been reviewed and the treatment selected for this study of job satisfaction among public employees elaborated upon. In addition, a series of relationships between the varying dimensions of the work and the extent of satisfaction have also been hypothesized.

Since a large number of relationships have been investigated, it seems appropriate to briefly summarize the major findings. This summary supports a discussion of future research as well as a consideration of the implications of these findings for policy makers in Saudi Arabia.

### Findings: Summary

At the beginning of the analysis, an exploration of the nature of the individual orientations was made. Individuals bring prior orientations and experiences to their jobs that may affect their expectations or predispositions to their work. Without attempting to uncover the antecedents for such expectations, individual orientations are identified and related to perceptions of job satisfaction. Two kinds of individual orientations were explored. Individual or personal attributes (age, marital status, and no. of children), and job orientations (occupational status, length of service, education, and attitudes toward working).

The distribution of responses regarding age showed that the majority of respondents were relatively young and that age was positively related to job satisfaction. The result showed that the satisfaction levels increased with older age groups. This finding was confirmed by that of Wright and Hamilton (1978) which showed that younger workers were systematically less satisfied with work than older workers. Their suggestions that better jobs among older workers were the source of this relationship was not believed to be valid. In this case, the young employees have entered the work force with high expectations about the amount of challenge and responsibilities they would find in their first job. This has been deduced from interviews with a sample of

Saudi employees.

Education was another important factor affecting personal orientations. Although the majority of respondents had received a university degree or some higher qualification, the relationship between education and job satisfaction was found slightly to be inversely related as progression was made from secondary to higher education levels. The inverse relationship between education and job satisfaction was also confirmed by the research of Tannenbaum (1974). In the present study, it was found that higher education levels tend to increase workers expectations particularly with respect to salary levels and hence decrease the levels of job satisfaction. The educational and training experiences have been found to have some influence on the attitudes and behaviour of the respondents toward job satisfaction.

Even though occupational status arises from the nature of the job and its environment, it was considered in this study as part of the individual orientations since it becomes, in time, a part of the individual experience and hence becomes his or her self-identification. The investigation of the occupational status showed that as movement is made from low to high managerial levels job satisfaction increased, and it was concluded that occupational status was positively related to job satisfaction. Thus, occupational status was found to be an



important factor in this study and the relationship between occupational status and job satisfaction is as expected since higher status jobs generally carry with them greater job freedom, wider responsibilities, and greater variety (Hackman and Oldham, 1980).

Job Tenure or length of service was another important factor considered in the individual orientations component. The distribution of responses showed that most of the sample spent more than five years in their work. This is an indication that most participants in this survey had relatively a lot of work experience in government and that this experience could influence their satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their jobs. The relationship between job tenure and job satisfaction was again positively related.

The final job orientation factor was work preference. If individuals prefer not to work due to financial security, this would seem to affect the employees responsiveness to the job and in turn would affect their job satisfaction. The findings, however, showed that only 8.4 percent expressed a preference for non employment and thus the distribution was not considered large enough to consider this factor as an important determinant of job satisfaction.

To summarize the analysis of the work situation components, the job characteristics dimensions and the relationships between

these dimensions and job satisfaction are first elaborated upon.

Chapter five examined theoretically the nature of the work situation from the perspective of the employee.. The nature of the job was distinguished from the environment or context within which the work takes place. Among the twenty questions utilized to tap the nature of employees' perceptions of job characteristics seven dimensions were investigated: task identity, task significance, variety, autonomy, job feedback, job effort, and job resources. As mentioned previously, these dimensions were partly based on the work of Turner and Lawrence (1965) and Hackman and Lawler (1971). Their theories suggest that work satisfaction is obtained when five job dimensions are highly present for a given employee's job: task identity, variety, autonomy, task significance, and job feedback. In addition, two dimensions namely: job effort and job resources were included as part of the measurement of the relationship between job characteristics and job satisfaction.

The compiled data shows surprisingly that most of the Saudi employees surveyed felt that they have jobs which require the acquisition of different skills and the performance of different activities whilst carrying out the work. At the same time, almost a third of these employees believed that their skills and abilities were important but their jobs did not provide enough opportunities to use them. This important finding will be

described in more detail in the section concerning implications to the policy makers in Saudi Arabia.

The second dimension of job characteristics investigated was task identity. This was measured by asking the respondents if their jobs were characterized as performing a whole task from beginning to end such as providing a complete unit of service, or writing an entire administrative report. The response pattern from Saudi employees varied on this point. This dimension, however, was considered important for the employees interviewed. For example, social workers in the Ministry of Interior and industrial researchers in SABIC felt that their jobs were more meaningful and interesting than when they used to deal with only a small portion of their jobs.

With respect to task significance, more than half the Saudi employees surveyed viewed their jobs as having little importance in the eyes of other people. The remaining respondents, however, felt their jobs were vital for the well being of other people. This dimension was not found to be strongly related to job satisfaction.

The pattern of findings for the autonomy dimension showed that most of the surveyed employees were perceived as having jobs that provided decisional discretion and freedom as to how to perform the work. Less than half the sample felt that their jobs were characterized with little or no autonomy. This result was

attributed to the fact that a large number of respondents were in professional or managerial positions. The vast majority of respondents reported that their jobs provided clear and direct information (feedback) about their performance from the job itself.

The job effort responses indicated that the jobs were characterized by greater effort in terms of speed and mental effort as well as a high degree of repetitiveness. The five job resources appeared to be in fairly adequate supply.

The perception of the Saudi employees of their job environment indicates that, on the whole the employees are fairly pleased with personal considerations provided by their supervisors, feel less involved in decision making, have some difficulty in securing another job, but have favourable views of their working conditions. They also feel their promotions are to some degree handled fairly, and believe their salary and size of workplace are adequate for the work performed. Approximately one third of the surveyed employees felt discriminated against on the basis of either seniority, qualifications, or the region which the superiors belonged to.

The relationship between the work situation dimension and job satisfaction has been investigated in the previous chapter. It was mentioned previously that each of these dimensions was related to job satisfaction separately, thus no inferences could

be made about the total impact of the work situation on job satisfaction.

As was indicated previously, virtually all relationships between the work situation indicators and job satisfaction were in the hypothesized direction. The only exception was job effort which was positively related to job satisfaction (an inverse relationship had been previously hypothesized). The findings also confirmed that three of the seven job characteristics dimensions were significantly related to job satisfaction. The strongest predictor of job satisfaction was the job resources dimension, explaining 36.0 percent of the variance. The second strongest determinant of job satisfaction was task identity followed by the autonomy dimension. Differences in public employees' perceptions of job feedback, job effort, and task significance were not found strongly related to job satisfaction.

Within the job environment, three of the seven dimensions were significantly related to job satisfaction. The two supervisory variables, namely considerations towards subordinates and the degree of subordinates participation in decision making were the strongest predictors of job satisfaction, explaining in excess of 36 percent. Fairness of promotions and job mobility were also significantly related to job satisfaction. Surprisingly, the employees perception of salary and discrimination in the workplace were not significantly related to

job satisfaction. The working conditions and size of the workplace had very little effect on job satisfaction.

On the whole, job resources and supervision dimensions were the strongest predictors of job satisfaction. When examining the two supervision variables separately, considerations of supervisors towards subordinates became the strongest predictor of job satisfaction, explaining in excess of 48 percent of the variance. The importance of this job environment factor as well as the remaining strong predictors of job satisfaction points to the substantial limit of recent studies in focusing almost exclusively on job characteristics variables.

It was expected that, in some cases, aspects of the job characteristics or job environment would vary according to the respondents organization. Differences were identified and recommendations for improving performance and job satisfaction for each organization were outlined in section 7.4 and 7.5.

### Implications for Policy makers and Public Managers

The implications of these research findings to the policy makers are believed to be more difficult to elaborate upon than the findings themselves because, by their nature, implications are inferences from findings and thus slightly removed from them. With this caution in mind, the research reported here seems to have important implications for Saudi public managers. These warrant discussion.

As pointed out previously, important differences exist as to why one might wish to increase satisfaction, i.e. humanistic values, some potential to increase productivity or to decrease turnover. However, regardless of the motivation, more positive job attitudes is often the ultimate goal. If one posits such an increase in job satisfaction as the goal, then the most important issues to address relative to the implications of this research are the ways in which job satisfaction can be enhanced.

Recent research on job satisfaction has focused on job redesign as the primary means of increasing satisfaction. The main argument is that if jobs are redesigned to provide more desirable characteristics, such as greater autonomy or variety, then an increase in job satisfaction will result. The assumption of this line of argument is by implication desired by most employees. In addition, the job environment is referred to be an unimportant factor for the enhancement of job satisfaction.

The major findings of this research are not consistent with the above assumptions. On the whole, a much broader approach to increasing job satisfaction rather than job redesign seems to be warranted. Job environment, especially, supervision, promotion practices, and job mobility are of substantial importance in predicting job satisfaction. Indeed, when the job characteristics dimensions are compared to the job environment, the job context or environment dimensions were stronger, explaining more of the variance in job satisfaction. There are also indications that individual orientations influence job satisfaction indirectly through affecting perceptions of the work situation. Thus, from the perspective of the Saudi manager or policy maker seeking to enhance job satisfaction, a number of approaches are possible.

Firstly, this research suggests that the approach most likely to impact on job satisfaction is to alter several key aspects of the work situation in Saudi Arabia. In particular, three dimensions of the job characteristics: job resources, task identity and autonomy as well as three vital dimensions of the environment in which the job takes place: supervision style, promotional procedures, and job mobility. It is of course one thing to suggest that certain dimensions need attention and quite another to suggest how to improve such matters. Studies in greater depth about both employees' perceptions of practices, as well as expectations relative to these dimensions may produce a



fuller basis on which to design jobs that would point out both levels needed and procedures to be incorporated in tasks. Nonetheless, there seem to be important points here that warrant discussion. Some of these issues have been pointed out by Steers and Porter (1987).

The decision of how the work is to be distributed among the employees is critical to any job. This decision is often based on numerous considerations such as as the level of employee training and experience, the equity of individual work loads, technological constraints, etc. The problem is that tasks distributed among employees on the basis of these factors does not include the needs of employees for personally meaningful work which in turn leads to reduction in job satisfaction. In other words, employees can not identify the completed work because they are assigned to do only a small portion of the job. Consider, for example, a division in the Ministry of Interior consisting of one manager and ten social workers who handle some of the social complaints in the Ministry. Jobs are distributed by the division manager as evenly as possible among the workers. In such circumstances complaints forms, individual letters, and reports are performed by any employee who is available. For that particular employee there is no basis for identifying with a complete job from beginning to end or for placing any personal value on it. The employee is concerned mainly with preparing a letter or filling out complaint forms from different persons,

departments, or regions. This has been deduced from interviews with the Saudi employees in different organizations. By contrast, combining tasks or units of work so that an employee handles a complete job from beginning to end or is responsible for certain individuals, regions, or tribes would improve the chances of viewing the work as meaningful and important rather than as irrelevant and boring. Thus, task identity is increased. Moreover, as more tasks are combined into a single worker's job, the individual must use a greater variety of skills and resources in performing the job, further increasing the meaningfulness of the work. By establishing direct relationships between workers and their clients (not through the direction or posting of the supervisor), jobs can be also improved in three ways. First, feedback increases since additional opportunities are created for the employees to receive direct praise or criticism of their work outputs. Second, skill variety may increase, because of the need to develop and exercise one's interpersonal skills in managing and maintaining the relationships with the clients. Finally, autonomy will increase to the degree that individuals are given real personal responsibilities for deciding how to manage their job resources and in particular their relationships with the employees within the organization as well as the people who receive the output of their work.

Another related issue that is found from this research to

greatly affect job satisfaction is the style of supervision particularly personal considerations and participations in decision making. Consideration of subordinates on the part of a supervisor results in high level of satisfaction which in turn is reflected in relatively low turnover rates, grievances, and absence. The satisfaction of subordinates is found to be positively associated with the degree to which they are permitted an opportunity to participate in decision making. The implicit managerial strategy thus for the Saudi public managers is to strike a balance using a combination of supportive and democratic leadership styles. This involves taking steps to increase employee participation in decision making at various levels within the organization. It should be noted that this does not necessary imply that employees should participate in all decision making process, rather this should depend on these decisions that have direct affect on employees attitudes and success in performance of their tasks. Employees would be encouraged to participate in problem solving activity about questions of quality of their service and for their performance in general. This should include a measure of administrative efficiency, effective resource utilization, and a measure of quality of service. For this latter, a quality of service questionnaire administered to clients may provide a useful measure of this aspect of the service.

A manger also administers rewards and punishments for

performance, both directly and indirectly. He has direct control, for example, over the giving of praise and recognition for a job well done and of criticism for a poorer job. By recommending or criticising an employee to his own superiors, a manager can indirectly affect the chances of a subordinate for pay rises, promotions, and even job mobility. Thus, it is not surprising that a strong positive relationship between fairness of promotional and job satisfaction has been found in this research, given that promotion constitutes a a major means of recognition for work done and a means of showing approval and acceptance. Therefore, promotional practices should be very closely linked to some form of performance criteria that is agreeable to both workers and management. Traditional approaches of promotions based on seniority may not help organizational effectiveness and workers productivity.

In addition, the employee must believe that other circumstances surrounding his effort are favourable to his success and satisfaction. For example, the manager must be sure that tools and office equipment are enough for the performed work, and that employees are trained and capable of being of assistance. Likewise, there must be sufficient time and information to make a successful performance possible.

Certainly some work remains to be done with respect to the relationships between age, job tenure and job satisfaction.

However, one conclusion of immediate concern to the public sector does emerge from this study. Much more attention than is presently given must be paid to the morale problems of workers during the first few years of their working lives. The decline of job satisfaction during the first period of employment has been attributed to the growing difficulties in adjustment and with the contrast between the work environment and that of school or the major previous experience. Policy makers and managers in the public sector can attempt to raise the morale of the young workers by minimizing some of the contrasts in the school and work experience. It is possible, for example, that young workers who begin as trainees, and are rotated from job to job, or from division to division until they are finally placed may keep their early enthusiasm because of the similarities of the varied orientations to their activities in school. However, this procedure has proven to be a double edged sword in practice. A very common complaint of trainees in such rotation programmes has been the lack of a job to do. Though their school life may have been varied it also required doing a task that when performed well led to some intrinsic reward. To be effective, then, rotation programmes must have enlarged content and provide responsibilities to the new trainee. Another conclusion associated with morale which is suggested is that an attempt should be made to start the rising trend of morale as early as possible in the employee's career.

The educational factor was not found in this study to be significantly affecting job satisfaction, except among the highly overeducated. However, this category expressed concern about "overeducation" or the situation in which a person has more education than his job is thought to require. This may indicate that public employment may not be meeting or satisfying those highly educated employees in terms of the content as well as the context of their jobs. If individuals are not given the scope for applying their educational or qualification skill in a particular job, as appeared to be the case with highly educated Saudi employees (university and higher education), the effect from an organizational standpoint could be inefficiency in the utilization of manpower. The major effect, however, could be in terms of the reaction of these individuals which could well be to leave the organization entirely. Therefore, it is believed that if work is designed as described earlier (combining tasks, more autonomy, and feedback linked with rewards systems based on a performance evaluation criteria) morale would increase because the needs of individuals and the goals of the organization are taken into account during the design stage.

On a more optimistic point of view, the findings and implications of the present research would suggest some government initiative in this field. First, the Saudi manpower Council or the Bureau of Civil Service may conduct a review of studies which had been undertaken to improve the quality of

working life both in Saudi Arabia and abroad, to provide an assessment of the scope for further initiatives in Saudi Arabia. Second, a steering committee on job satisfaction may be set up as part of an influential ministry or agency (i.e. Supreme Committee for Administrative Reform). Members of the steering committee may be composed of representative of private and public sector to be chaired by top official from the government (minister or president of the BCS). This committee may also need to form an advisory team to engage in a series of projects in a variety of sectors in different parts of Saudi Arabia. Their purpose is set up and monitor these projects. In addition, to give direct assistance as well as promotional activities as to increase the number of organizations successfully implementing changes in work organization which make improvements of quality of work life part of their corporate policies. To encourage the policies and practices of government and semi-government institutions to take account of needs of employees, their motivation and its relevance to organizational effectiveness.

This concludes the discussion of possible recommendations to address the most pressing specific issues identified by the present study. These recommendations are, of necessity, speculative since genuine solutions will have to be developed in the field of responses to immediate interests and direct feedback. Nevertheless, they do provide some general principles which do address the specific issues concerned.

### Recommendations For Future Research

This study of job satisfaction is an advance over previous research in this area in several ways. First, a large set of inter relationships relative to job attitudes are examined. Second, job environment factors are reintroduced as predictors of job satisfaction. Thirdly, the study of attitudes is extended to the public sector in a developing country such as Saudi Arabia. Finally, important variables such as discrimination in the workplace, job effort, and work preference are incorporated in this research.

A review of a number of limitations in this research, however, would suggest the direction of future research. This study focuses on employees attitudes with respect to the Saudi public employees in five organizations. Those surveyed employees may or may not be typical of other public sector employees, thus it would seem highly appropriate to explore some of the same questions among other ministries and public corporations. In addition, those interested in a particular ministry or public corporation may want to conduct investigations within their own organization.

Another limitation of this study relates to the reliance on perceptions of employees as measures of the nature of the work situation. It is clearly possible that an employee's perception of the work situation might differ from a more objective view



provided by an outside observer, based on some agreed upon standards of judgment. Given the time, scope, and cost limits of this study, external observation of this kind was not possible. Future research on a more objective measurement would seem likely to enrich our understanding of the difference between objective and perceptual measurement of job satisfaction especially in a developing country like Saudi Arabia.

Finally, the researcher would wish to encourage other researchers to investigate in detail specific dimensions of the work situation, especially those found to be strong predictors of job satisfaction such as supervision, task identity, and job resources as well as the addition of factors not usually studied. Although considerable care was taken in the selection of the instrument and in the design of the questionnaire, further testing and modification of the instrument to measure job satisfaction is also essential for future research.

## **APPENDICES**

## **APPENDIX A: Questionnaire**

Dear Sir,

Peace be upon you with the mercy of Allah and his blessing.

This questionnaire is part of my doctoral dissertation research at the Institute of Public Administration, University of Liverpool in the United Kingdom. It is designed to obtain information about the important and lesser important aspects of jobs as perceived by the Saudi Arabian employees. The questionnaire will explore the many aspects of public employment with particular emphasis on the similarities and differences of perception of the work situation between managers and subordinates.

More importantly, this questionnaire has been prepared to give you a chance to report how you feel about your present job. Therefore, please answer all parts of the questionnaire. All information obtained is strictly confidential and your name is not required.

Your reply to the questionnaire will be greatly appreciated.

Yours Sincerely,

Fahed Abdullah Alruhimi



First Part (continued)

7. What is your job title? -----
8. Is the work you do same as the job title's requirements?
- ( ) yes  
( ) no
9. If what you do is different than your job title, what is the work you do?
- -----  
-----
10. what is your monthly salary?
- ( ) SR 1001 to SR 3000  
( ) SR 3001 to SR 5000  
( ) SR 5001 to SR 7000  
( ) SR 7001 to SR 9000  
( ) SR 9001 to SR 12000  
( ) SR 12001 to SR 15000  
( ) SR 15001 and over
11. How many years have you worked for the government?
- ( ) 1-2 years           ( ) 11-15 years  
( ) 3-5 years           ( ) 16-20 years  
( ) 6-10 years          ( ) 21 years and over
12. How many years have you worked for this organization?
- ( ) 1-2 years           ( ) 11-15 years  
( ) 3-5 years           ( ) 16-20 years  
( ) 6-10 years          ( ) 21 years and over
13. How long have you had the job you have now?
- ( ) 1-2 years           ( ) 11-15 years  
( ) 3-5 years           ( ) 16 years and over  
( ) 6-10 years

Second Part of Questionnaire

Below are questions dealing with your work situation. Most requires that you simply tick the appropriate response. Space is provided at the end for any additional comments you may wish to add.

1. Do you think the office size in the division where you work is:

- ( ) suitable
- ( ) more than needed
- ( ) less than needed

2. How hard or easy do think it would be for you to change your job?

- ( ) very hard
- ( ) somewhat hard
- ( ) somewhat easy
- ( ) very easy

3. If your were financially able, would you prefer not to work?

- ( ) yes
- ( ) no

4. Below are a list of some resources you might receive from your employer or those people you work with. For each, do you feel you are being given enough or not enough for you to work your best?

- |  | not<br>enough                | enough                       |
|--|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| a. help or assistance from those you work with       | <input type="checkbox"/> ( ) | <input type="checkbox"/> ( ) |
| b. the authority to tell certain people what to do   | <input type="checkbox"/> ( ) | <input type="checkbox"/> ( ) |
| c. time in which to do what others expect of you     | <input type="checkbox"/> ( ) | <input type="checkbox"/> ( ) |
| d. the facts and information you need                | <input type="checkbox"/> ( ) | <input type="checkbox"/> ( ) |
| e. the machinery, tools, or other equipment you need | <input type="checkbox"/> ( ) | <input type="checkbox"/> ( ) |

5. What level of formal education do you feel is needed by a person in your job?

- ( ) no special level of education
- ( ) elementary school
- ( ) complete secondary school
- ( ) special deploma
- ( ) University degree
- ( ) graduate or professional education beyond a university degree

Second Part (continued)

6. Through your previous experience and training, do you have some skills that you would like to be using in your work but there is no opportunity to use it on your present job?

- yes
- no

7. Considering your work, are your working conditions (heating, lighting, ventilation, etc.) comfortable?

- yes
- no

8. In your division how fairly are promotions generally handled?

- completely fairly             not too fairly
- somewhat fairly             no promotions have been given

9. Below are some things which may or may not be true of your immediate supervisor. check how true you think each is of him.

	always	usually	occasionally	never
. maintain good personal relations with employees	( )	( )	( )	( )
. is understanding when mistakes were made	( )	( )	( )	( )
. delegates tasks fairly	( )	( )	( )	( )
. keeps employees posted on how well they are doing	( )	( )	( )	( )
. likes to get our ideas and tries to do something about them	( )	( )	( )	( )
. involves employees in decisions-making	( )	( )	( )	( )



Second Part (continued)

10. Here is a list of things that might describe a person's job.  
For each thing check how much this is like your job.

	a lot	somewhat	a little	not at all
. requires that you have to learn new things.	( )	( )	( )	( )
. requires that you do a variety of different things	( )	( )	( )	( )
. allows you to do a "whole" job.	( )	( )	( )	( )
. allows you to be important in the eyes of others	( )	( )	( )	( )
. gives you a feeling of accomplishment when doing the job	( )	( )	( )	( )
. allows an opportunity to develop your skills and abilities	( )	( )	( )	( )
. allows you a freedom as to how you do your work	( )	( )	( )	( )
. requires that you plan ahead for work	( )	( )	( )	( )
. requires that you work very fast	( )	( )	( )	( )
. requires that you exert a mental effort	( )	( )	( )	( )
. requires that you do things that are very repetitious	( )	( )	( )	( )
. requires a high skill level	( )	( )	( )	( )
. the effort you put in your work compared to those of similar jobs	( )	( )	( )	( )
. gives you sufficient time to be with your family	( )	( )	( )	( )
. allows you to make decisions on your own	( )	( )	( )	( )

Second Part (continued)

11. Do you feel that there is any discrimination against employees on your job?

- ( ) yes
- ( ) no

12. If your answer to question 11 is yes, what is the most important reason for this discrimination in your opinion?

- ( ) seniority
- ( ) qualifications
- ( ) the region which the person comes from
- ( ) others -----  
(please specify)

13. How likely is it that you will make a genuine effort to find a new job with another employer within the next year?

- ( ) very likely
- ( ) somewhat likely
- ( ) not too likely
- ( ) not at all likely

14. Below are two sets of questions about selected aspects of jobs. First, I would like to know how important to you each of these things are in any job you might have. Secondly, does your present job (organization) actually provide these things?

	How important to you?			Does Your Present Job Actually Provide This?		
	very important	fairly important	not important	quite a bit	in some ways	not at all
. friendliness and helpfulness of co-workers	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. chance for promotions	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. freedom to decide how to get the work done	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. recognition and evaluation of performance	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. seeing the results of my work	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. opportunities for training	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. enough time to get the job done	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. reasonable working hours	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. fair amount of assigned work	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. opportunities for new or creative things	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. authority to do my job	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. managers that are competent in doing their jobs	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. job security	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. adequate pay for job done	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. enough information to get the job done	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

Question 14 (continued)

	How important to you?			Does Your Present Job Actually Provide This?		
	very important	fairly important	not important	quite a bit	in some ways	not at all
. equipment and supplies to get the job done	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. opportunities to develop abilities/skills	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. feelings of loyalty and commitment to my organization	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. reputation and recognition by others for the work I do	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. financial rewards for good performace	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. a thank you letter for good performance	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. chance to participate in decision making	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
. clear responsibilities	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

15. All in all, how satisfied would you say you are with your job?

- |                        |                          |
|------------------------|--------------------------|
| ( ) very satisfied     | ( ) not too satisfied    |
| ( ) somewhat satisfied | ( ) not at all satisfied |

This space is provided for any remarks you might have:

**APPENDIX B: Covering letters accompanying  
questionnaire (in Arabic)**



الرقم  
التاريخ  
التابع  
الموضوع

المحترم

معالي وزير المعارف

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته.....

نفيدكم بأن الاستبيان المرفق عبارته عن بحث خاص بتعريف العناصر العامة والعناصر الغير هامة في الحوافز والدوافع للتوظيف الاداريه كما يراهـ الموظف في المملكة العربية السعودية ، والبحث مقدم من قبل الاستاذ / فهد ابن عبد الله الرحيمي والمبتعث حاليا للحصول على درجة الدكتوراه في المملكة المتحدة .

وحيث أنه يقوم باجراء البحث والدراسة على مختلف المؤلفين في عدة وزارات ومؤسسات حكوميه . لذا يسرنا أن نرفق لكم عدد من استمارات الاستبيان الخاصه ببحثه ، ولما لهذا البحث من الأهميه ، نأمل توجيهه من يلزم لتوزيع النسخ المرفقه على موظفي الوزارة لتعبئتها ومن ثم اعادتها اليه .

شاكرين لكم حسن تعاونكم .

وتفضلوا بقبول تحياتنا.....

وكيل الحرس الوطني

عبد العزيز بن علي التويجري



الرقم .....  
التاريخ .....  
التابع .....  
الموضوع .....

المحترم

معالي مدير عام معهد الاداره العامه

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته.....

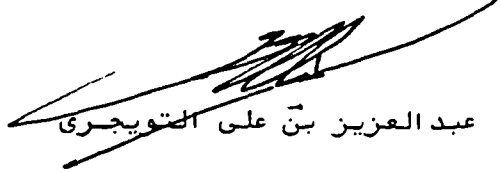
نفيدكم بأن الاستبيان المرفق عبارته عن بحث خاص بتعريف العناصر العامه والعناصر الغير هامه فى الحوافز والدوافع للتوظيفه الاداريه كما يراها الموظف فى المملكة العربيه السعوديه ، والبحث مقدم من قبل الاستاذ / فهد ابن عبد الله الرحيمى والمبتعث حاليا للحصول على درجة الدكتوراه فى المملكة المتحده .

وحيث أنه يقوم باجراء البحث والدراسة على مختلف الموظفين فى عدة وزارات ومؤسسات حكوميه . لذا يسرنا أن نرفق لكم عدد من استمارات الأستبيان الخاصه ببحثه ، ولما لهذا البحث من الأهميه ، نأمل توجيهه من يلزم لتوزيع النسخ المرفقه على موظفي المعهد لتعبئتها ومن ثم اعادتها اليه .

شاكرين لكم حسن تعاونكم .

وتفضلوا بقبول تحياتنا.....

وكيل الحرس الوطني

  
عبد العزيز بن علي التويجري





بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

المملكة العربية السعودية  
الحرس الوطني  
مكتب الوكيل



الرقم  
التاريخ  
التابع

الموضوع

المحترم

سعادة مدير عام الحرس الوطني

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته.....

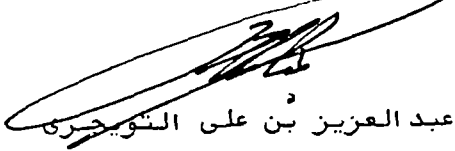
نفيدكم بأن الاستبيان المرفق عبارته عن بحث خاص بتعريف العناصر العامة والعناصر الغير هامة في الحوافز والدوافع للتوظيفه الاداريه كما يراها الموظف في المملكة العربية السعوديه ، والبحث مقدم من قبل الاستاذ / فهد ابن عبدالله الرحيمي والمبتعث حاليا للحصول على درجة الدكتوراه في المملكة المتحده .

وحيث أنه يقوم باجراء البحث والدراسة على مختلف الموظفين في عسادة وزارات ومؤسسات حكوميه ، لذا يسرنا أن نرفق لكم عدد من استمارات الاستبيان الخاصه ببحثه ، ولما لهذا البحث من الأهميه ، نأمل توجيهه من يلزم لتوزيع النسخ المرفقه على موظفي الوزارة لتعبئتها ومن ثم اعادتها اليه .

شاكرين لكم حسن تعاونكم .

وتفضلوا بقبول تحياتنا.....

وكيل الحرس الوطني

  
عبد العزيز بن علي الثويجري

ع ٥٠

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

المملكة العربية السعودية  
الحرس الوطني  
مكتب الوكيل

الرقم  
التاريخ  
التابع



الموضوع

المحترم

معالي وكيل وزارة الداخلية

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته ،،،،،،،

نفيدكم بأن الاستبيان المرفق عبارته عن بحث خاص بتعريف العناصر العامه والعناصر الغير هامه فى الحوافز والدوافع للوظيفة الاداريه كما يراها الموظف فى المملكة العربية السعوديه ، والبحث مقدم من قبل الاستاذ / فهد ابن عبد الله الرحيمى والمبتعث حالياً للحصول على درجة الدكتوراه فى المملكة المتحده .

وحيث أنه يقوم باجراء البحث والدراسة على مختلف الموظفين فى عدة وزارات ومؤسسات حكوميه . لذا يسرنا أن نرفق لكم عدد من استمارات الاستبيان الخاصه ببحثه ، ولما لهذا البحث من الأهميه ، نأمل توجيهه من يلزم لتوزيع النسخ المرفقه على موظفي الوزارة لتعبئتها ومن ثم اعادتها اليه .

شاكرين لكم حسن تعاونكم .

وتفضلوا بقبول تحياتنا ،،،،،،،

وكيل الحرس الوطني

عبد العزيز بن علي التويجري

ع ٥٠ د

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

المحترم

الأخ المشارك في هذه الدراسة

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

أفيدكم أنني مبتعث حالياً لنيل درجة الدكتوراة في المملكة المتحدة . وأقوم الآن باعداد بحث في الحوافز والدوافع للوظيفة الإدارية في المملكة العربية السعودية كجزء من متطلبات الحصول على درجة الدكتوراة .  
ولقد تم اختياركم لتكونوا أحد المشاركين المهمين في هذا البحث الخاص بتعريف العناصر الهامة والعناصر الغير هامة في الوظيفة الإدارية كما يراها الموظف . ان استجابتكم لهذا الاستبيان ستكون ذات أهمية كبيرة لتحديد هذه العناصر من أجل تطوير وتصميم الوظيفة الإدارية مستقبلاً .  
يتكون هذا الاستبيان من قسمين يرجى التفضل باتباع الارشادات الموضحة مع بداية كل قسم والاجابة على جميع الأسئلة . وأود أن أجلب انتباهكم إلى إعطاء إجابة واحدة فقط لكل سؤال وللمعلومية أنه ليس هناك جواباً صحيحاً أو خطأ في هذه الدراسة .  
آمل الاجابة على الأسئلة المرفقة لكي تتحقق النتائج المطلوبة من البحث . وأنا أؤكد لكم بأن جميع إجاباتكم ستكون سرية للغاية وسوف تستخدم فقط مع بقية الاجابات الأخرى في وضع النتائج والتوصيات لهذا البحث .  
شاكراً لك تعاونك وجميل تكرمك بالاستجابة لهذا الطلب .

الخلص

فهد عبدالله الرحيمي

## **APPENDIX C: Questionnaire (in Arabic)**

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

### القسم الأول :

يمثل القسم الأول من الاستبيان عدداً من الأسئلة تشتمل على معلومات شخصية ووظيفية لها أهمية كبيرة في المقارنة بإجمالي القسم الثاني التي سوف تساعد على تحليل ودراسة هذا الاستبيان .  
يرجى قراءة السؤال بدقة ومن ثم وضع علامة ( ✓ ) على الإجابة التي تراها مناسبة آزاء كل فقرة . يوجد في بعض الأسئلة فراغ لكتابة الإجابة التي تصف وضعك الوظيفي تماما . يرجى إعطاء إجابة واحدة فقط عن كل سؤال .

١ - ما عمرك ؟

- ( ) ١٨ - ٢٥ ( ) ٤٦ - ٥٥  
( ) ٢٦ - ٣٥ ( ) ٥٦ - ٦٥  
( ) ٣٦ - ٤٥ ( ) ٦٦ فما فوق

٢ - الحالة الاجتماعية :

( ) متزوج

( ) غير متزوج

٣ - كم عدد أطفالك ؟

- ( ) لا يوجد ( ) ١ - ٢ ( ) ٣ - ٤ ( ) ٥ أو أكثر

٤ - ما هو المستوى الدراسي الذي أكملته ؟

( ) المرحلة الابتدائية أو مايعادلها

( ) المرحلة المتوسطة أو مايعادلها

( ) المرحلة الثانوية أو مايعادلها

( ) المرحلة الجامعية أو مايعادلها

( ) درجة عالية (ماجستير ، دكتوراة أو ما يعادلها)

( ) مؤهلات أخرى ..... (أوضح من فضلك)

٥ - أين تلقيت تعليمك العالي أو تدريبك ؟

( ) في المملكة العربية السعودية فقط .

( ) في المملكة العربية السعودية وفي بلد عربي آخر .

( ) في المملكة العربية السعودية وفي بلد أجنبي .

( ) في مكان آخر ..... (أوضح من فضلك)

٦ - إذا كنت قد التحقت بجامعة أو معهد في بلد أجنبي ، فما مدى تأثير تلك التجربة على عملك ؟

( ) ليس هناك تأثير إطلاقاً .

( ) قليل جداً .

( ) تأثير بعض الشيء .

( ) تأثير كامل .

( ) لا أدري أو غير متأكد .

(تابع القسم الأول)

٧ - ما هو مسمى الوظيفة التي تشغلها ؟

٨ - هل العمل الذي تؤديه مطابق لمسمى الوظيفة ؟

( ) نعم

( ) لا

٩ - إذا كان عملك غير مطابق لمسمى الوظيفة ، ما هي طبيعة عملك الذي تؤديه ؟

١٠ - ما هو مرتبك الشهري ؟

( ) ١٠٠١ - ٣٠٠٠ ريال سعودي .

( ) ٣٠٠١ - ٥٠٠٠ ريال سعودي .

( ) ٥٠٠١ - ٧٠٠٠ ريال سعودي .

( ) ٧٠٠١ - ٩٠٠٠ ريال سعودي .

( ) ٩٠٠١ - ١٢٠٠٠ ريال سعودي .

( ) ١٢٠٠١ - ١٥٠٠٠ ريال سعودي .

( ) ١٥٠٠١ ريال سعودي فما فوق .

١١ - كم سنة أمضيتها في العمل الحكومي ؟

( ) ١١-١٥

( ) ١-٢

( ) ١٦-٢٠

( ) ٣-٥

( ) ٢١ فما فوق

( ) ٦-١٠

١٢ - كم سنة أمضيتها في العمل لدى هذا الجهاز ؟

( ) ١١-١٥

( ) ١-٢

( ) ١٦-٢٠

( ) ٣-٥

( ) ٢١ فما فوق

( ) ٦-١٠

١٣ - منذ متى وأنت تعمل في وظيفتك الحالية ؟

( ) ١١-١٥

( ) ١-٢

( ) ١٦ فما فوق

( ) ٣-٥

( ) ٦-١٠

١٤ - هل عملت في القطاع الخاص (غير الحكومي) ؟

( ) نعم

( ) لا

١٥ - إذا كان جوابك عن السؤال السابق بنعم ، فكم سنة أمضيتها في العمل في القطاع الخاص ؟

( ) ١١-١٥

( ) ١-٢

( ) ١٦ فما فوق

( ) ٣-٥

( ) ٦-١٠

## القسم الثاني :

يمثل القسم الثاني في الاستبيان عدداً من الأسئلة التي تعني بالسلوك أو الوضع الوظيفي . يرجى قراءة السؤال بدقة ومن ثم وضع العلامة ( ✓ ) على الاجابة التي تناسب وضعك الوظيفي . يرجى إعطاء إجابة واحدة فقط عن كل سؤال .

١ - هل تعتقد أن عدد الموظفين والمساحة المخصصة للقسم الذي تعمل فيه :

عدد الموظفين	المساحة المخصصة للقسم
( ) ملائم	( ) ملائم
( ) أقل من اللازم	( ) أقل من اللازم
( ) أكثر من اللازم	( ) أكثر من اللازم

٢ - ما هو السبب الرئيسي لالتحاقك بالعمل الحكومي ؟

- ( ) العائد المادي .  
( ) الاستقرار والضمان الوظيفي .  
( ) الفرص المتاحة للترقي .  
( ) ملائمة أوقات ومتطلبات العمل .  
( ) سبب آخر .....

(أوضح من فصلك)

٣ - ما مدى صعوبة أو سهولة تغيير عملك من جهاز حكومي إلى جهاز حكومي آخر ؟

- ( ) صعب جداً  
( ) صعب إلى حد ما  
( ) سهل جداً  
( ) سهل

٥ - إذا كنت ميسوراً مالياً فهل تفضل البقاء دون أي عمل إطلاقاً (سواء في القطاع العام أو الخاص) ؟

- ( ) نعم  
( ) لا

٦ - هل تتوفر الأشياء التالية في عملك بشكل كاف أو بشكل غير كاف ؟

كاف	غير كاف
( )	( )
( )	( )
( )	( )
( )	( )
( )	( )

التعاون أو المساعدة من الأشخاص الذين يعملون معك  
الوقت المتاح لأداء العمل  
الأدوات والأجهزة الأساسية لأداء العمل  
الحقائق والمعلومات التي تحتاجها  
الصلاحية للقيام بالمهام المطلوبة

٧ - في اعتقادك ما هو المستوى التعليمي الذي يحتاج إليه شخص في وظيفتك ؟

- ( ) لا يحتاج إلى مستوى تعليمي .  
( ) ابتدائي .  
( ) متوسط .  
( ) ثانوي .  
( ) دبلوم خاص .  
( ) شهادة جامعية .  
( ) درجة علمية أو تخصصية أعلى من الشهادة الجامعية .



(تابع القسم التالي)

٨ - من وجهة نظرك هل تعتقد أن القيام بمهام وظيفتك الحالية يحتاج إلى تدريب فني أو تخصصي ؟

( ) نعم .

( ) لا .

٩ - هل تتوفر دورات تدريبية للموظفين في مجال عملك ؟

( ) نعم .

( ) لا .

١٠ - إذا كان جوابك عن السؤال السابق بنعم ، فهل سبق أن التحقت بأي من تلك الدورات ؟

( ) نعم .

( ) لا .

١١ - ما مدى الاستفادة من الدورات التي سبق لك الالتحاق بها في عملك الحالي ؟

( ) الاستفادة كبيرة

( ) الاستفادة قليلة

( ) الاستفادة لا بأس بها

( ) ليس هناك استفادة إطلاقاً

١٢ - هل لديك خبرات أو مهارات تود استخدامها في عملك الحالي ولكن لم تجد الفرصة المناسبة ؟

( ) نعم .

( ) لا .

١٣ - في اعتقادك إلى أي مستوى من المساراة يتصف نظام الترقيات في القسم الذي تعمل به ؟

( ) مستوى عال

( ) مستوى مقبول

( ) مستوى ضعيف جداً

( ) مستوى ضعيف

١٤ - هل العوامل البيئية (الاضاءة ، التهوية ، التدفئة .. الخ) مريحة في عملك ؟

( ) نعم .

( ) لا .

١٥ - الأشياء التالية تتعلق بأسلوب رئيسك المباشر داخل الإدارة . من فضلك أجب عن كل الجمل من وجهة نظرك ؟

دائماً      غالباً      أحياناً      نادراً

( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

- يعطي توجيهات واضحة للموظفين

- يوزع الأعمال والمهام بانصاف

- يتيح الفرصة للموظفين للمشاركة في اتخاذ القرار

- يقدر أداءك الوظيفي

- يظهر علاقة طيبة مع جميع الموظفين

- يحافظ على العلاقات الجيدة مع المسؤولين في الإدارات الأخرى

- يعطي وقتاً كافياً لأداء العمل المطلوب

- يصر على إعطاء الموظفين أعمال باستمرار

- يعتبر مثال المدير الناجح

(تابع القسم الثاني)

١٦ - فيما يلي قائمة بالأشياء التي قد تصف وظيفة شخص ما ، ما مدى تطابق هذه الأشياء مع وظيفتك الحالية ؟

مطابق تماماً حد كبير قليلاً إطلاقاً  
مطابق مطابقتي غير مطابق

( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

- تتطلب منك تعلم أشياء جديدة

( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

تتطلب منك التخطيط المسبق للعمل

( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

تقتضي منك سرعة العمل

( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

تقتضي منك بذل مجهود عقلي (فكري)

( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

تتطلب منك تكرار المهمة باستمرار

( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

تتيح لك الحرية في كيفية أدائها

( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

تحتاج في أدائها إلى مستوى عال في المهارة

( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

تتيح لك اتخاذ القرار بنفسك

( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

تتيح لك فرصة تنوع المهام

( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

تتيح لك فرصة أداء المهمة كاملة (بجميع إجراءاتها)

( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

المجهود الذي تبذله في عملك مقارنة بالذين يمارسون أعمالاً مشابهة لعملك

( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

تتيح لك وقتاً كافياً للبقاء مع أسرتك

( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

تتيح لك الفرصة لكي تبدو مهماً في أعين الآخرين

( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

تتيح لك فرصة تنمية المهارات والقدرات اللازمة

( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

تتيح لك فرصة الشعور بالإنجاز عندما تؤدي العمل

(تابع القسم الثاني)

١٧ - هل انشغالك بالعمل ينسبك الوقت ؟

( ) غالباً .

( ) في بعض الأحيان .

( ) لم يحدث أبداً .

١٨ - هل تحس أن هنالك تمييزاً في المعاملة بين الموظفين ؟

( ) نعم .

( ) لا .

١٩ - إذا كانت الاجابة بنعم ، هل تعتقد أن السبب هو :

( ) الأقدمية في العمل .

( ) المؤهلات .

( ) المنطقة أو الاقليم الذي جاء منه الشخص .

( ) سبب آخر ..... (أوضحه من فضلك)

٢٠ - عندما تخرج من العمل يوماً ، هل تشعر بأنك أنجزت أعمالاً مهمة ؟

( ) نادراً

( ) غالباً

( ) لا أبداً

( ) أحياناً

٢١ - إذا فرض أنك لم تكن تعمل في وظيفتك الحالية وقد اتاحت لك الفرصة للتقدم لشغل هذه الوظيفة ، وأخبرك زميلك بظروف وطبيعة هذه الوظيفة إجمالاً كما تعرفها الآن ، فما هو قرارك :

( ) تتقدم إلى الوظيفة دون أي تردد .

( ) تؤجل القرار حتى التأكد من أشياء أخرى .

( ) لا تتقدم إلى هذه الوظيفة .

٢٢ - إلى أي مدى تعتقد أنك ستبذل جهداً خلال السنة القادمة للبحث عن وظيفة في جهة أخرى ؟

( ) الاحتمال ضعيف

( ) الاحتمال كبير

( ) غير محتمل إطلاقاً

( ) محتمل

٢٣ - إذا أعطيت فرصة لأختيار جهة عمل أخرى فما هي العوامل التي ترغب في تواجدها بوظيفتك ، رتبها حسب الأهمية بالنسبة لك :-

- ١

- ٢

- ٣

- ٤

- ٥

- ٦

٢٤ - السؤالان التاليان يتعلقان بوصف لوظائف معينة . أولاً أود أن أعرف ما مدى أهمية كل جملة بالنسبة لك في أي وظيفة قد تحصل عليها . ثانياً هل وظيفتك الحالية أو الإدارة تقدم هذه الأشياء بشكل كان أو غير كان أو لا تقدم أبداً ؟

هل وظيفتك الحالية تقدم بشكل كان غير كان للأبداً	ما مدى أهميتها لك ؟ مهم جداً مهم غير مهم	
( ) ( ) ( )	( ) ( ) ( )	المساعدة والمودة للموظفين
( ) ( ) ( )	( ) ( ) ( )	فرص الترقى
( ) ( ) ( )	( ) ( ) ( )	تقييم وتقدير الأداء
( ) ( ) ( )	( ) ( ) ( )	الحرية في كيفية أداء العمل
( ) ( ) ( )	( ) ( ) ( )	الاطلاع على نتائج العمل
( ) ( ) ( )	( ) ( ) ( )	الوقت الكافي لأداء العمل
( ) ( ) ( )	( ) ( ) ( )	المساواة في إعطاء مهمات العمل
( ) ( ) ( )	( ) ( ) ( )	الصلاحية للقيام بمهام العمل
( ) ( ) ( )	( ) ( ) ( )	مسئوليات واضحة
( ) ( ) ( )	( ) ( ) ( )	المعلومات والحقائق التي تحتاجها
( ) ( ) ( )	( ) ( ) ( )	التجهيزات والأدوات اللازمة
( ) ( ) ( )	( ) ( ) ( )	رؤساء أكفاء في أداء العمل
( ) ( ) ( )	( ) ( ) ( )	أوقات عمل معقولة
( ) ( ) ( )	( ) ( ) ( )	فرص لتنمية المهارات
( ) ( ) ( )	( ) ( ) ( )	الضمان أو الاستقرار الوظيفي
( ) ( ) ( )	( ) ( ) ( )	المكافأة المالية مقابل الأداء الجيد
( ) ( ) ( )	( ) ( ) ( )	خطاب شكر مقابل الأداء الجيد
( ) ( ) ( )	( ) ( ) ( )	فرص التدريب
( ) ( ) ( )	( ) ( ) ( )	فرص التجديد والابتكار
( ) ( ) ( )	( ) ( ) ( )	كفاية الراتب مقابل العمل الذي تؤديه
( ) ( ) ( )	( ) ( ) ( )	شعورك بالولاء والانتماء للجهة التي تعمل بها
( ) ( ) ( )	( ) ( ) ( )	السمعة وتقدير الغير لما تقوم به من عمل
( ) ( ) ( )	( ) ( ) ( )	اتاحة الفرصة للمساكنة في اتخاذ القرار
( ) ( ) ( )	( ) ( ) ( )	وضوح الصلح و طبيعة العمل بالنسبة لك

٢٥ - إجمالاً ما مدى رضاك عن الوظيفة التي تعمل بها ؟

- ( ) راضي جداً  
( ) راضي  
( ) غير راضي  
( ) غير راضي إطلاقاً

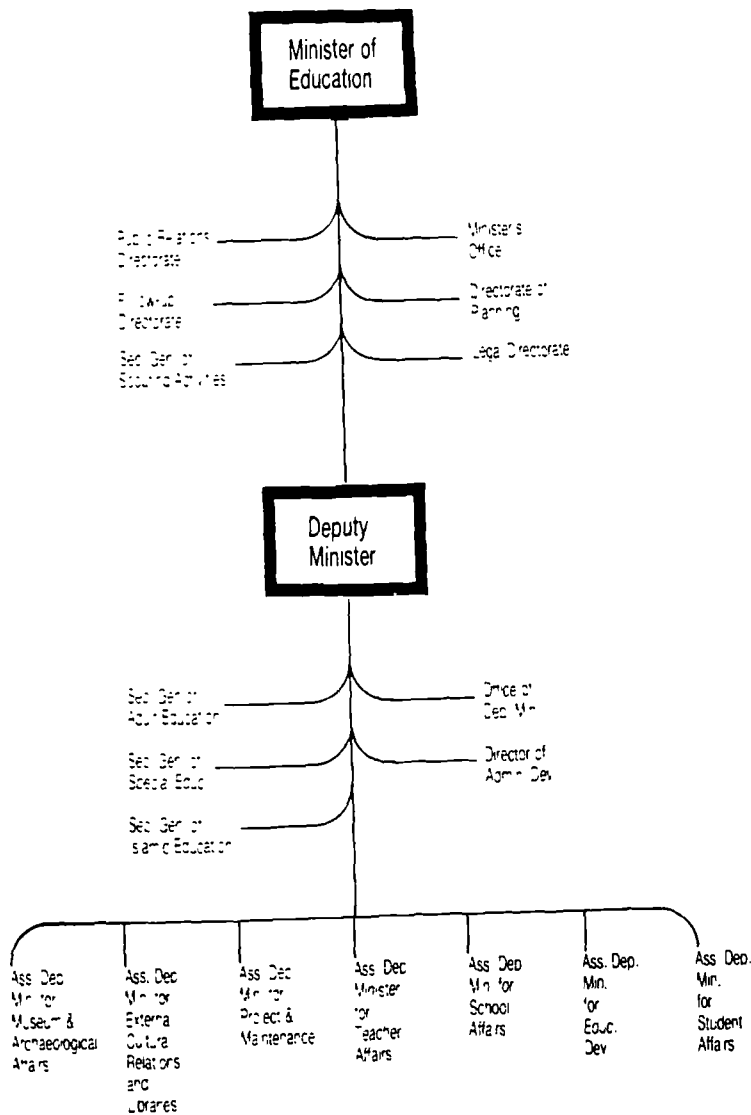
٢٦ - إذا كنت غير راضي فما الأسباب ، رتبها حسب الأهمية بحيث تعطي السبب رقم (١) ثم يليه في الأهمية رقم (٢) . . وهكذا في البقية :-

- ( ) نظام الترقيات  
( ) العلاقة مع الزملاء  
( ) مسئوليات الوظيفة غير واضحة  
( ) نوع العمل الذي تقوم به  
( ) الأدوات والأماكن اللازمة لأداء العمل  
( ) نظام تقييم الأداء  
( ) الصلاحية للقيام بمهام الوظيفة  
( ) أوقات العمل  
( ) الراتب

## **APPENDIX D: Organizational Charts**



# Ministry of Education

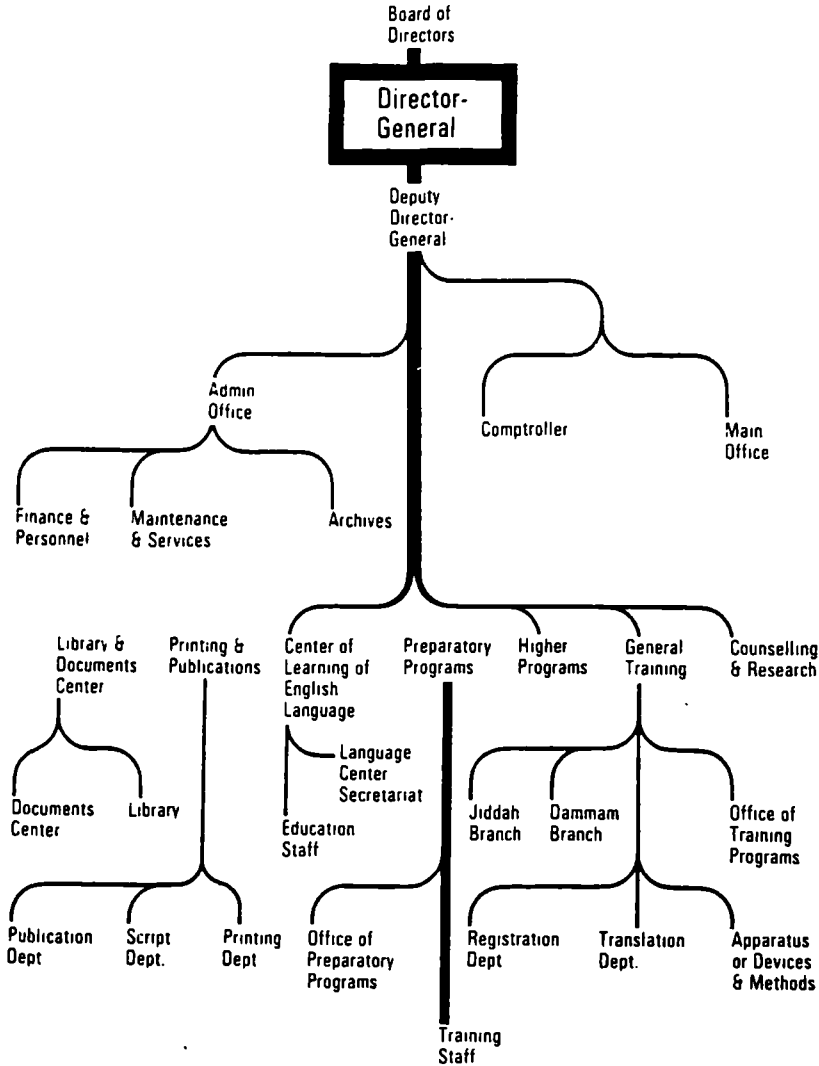


Note : Organizational Chart of the Ministry of Education.

Source: F. Al-Farsy, 1986, Saudi Arabia: A Case Study in Development, p. 112.

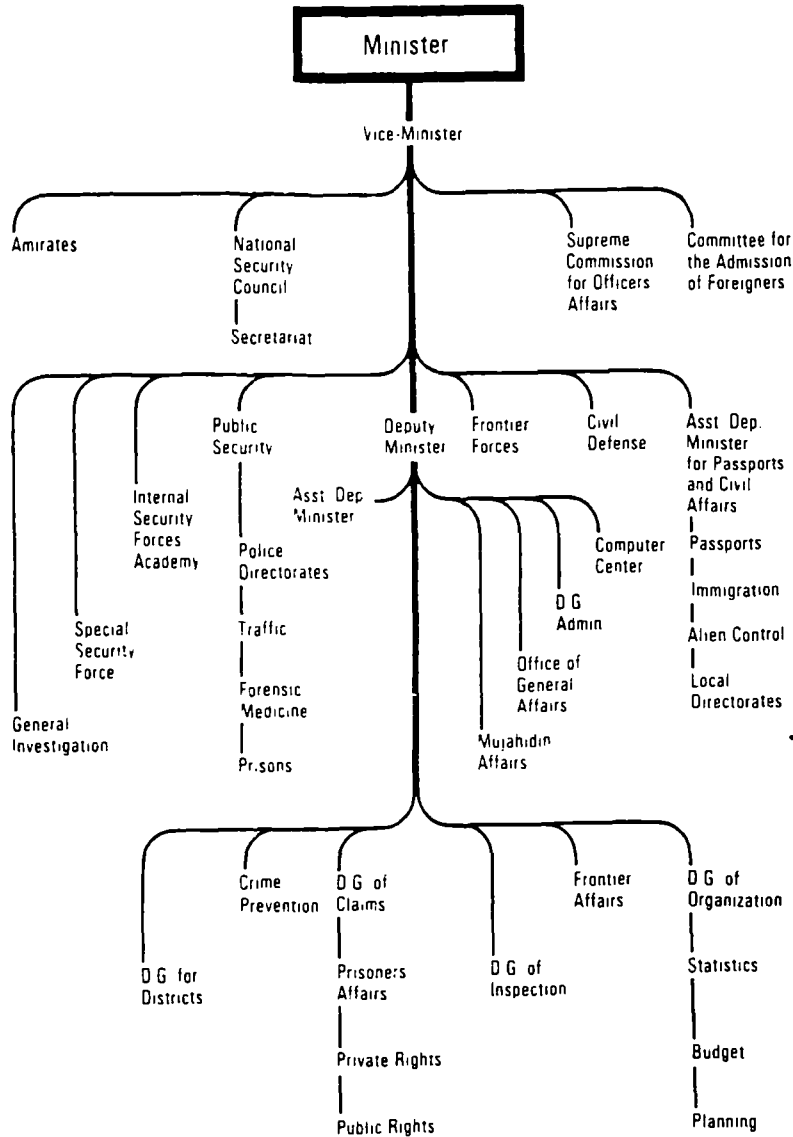


# Organization Chart of the Institute of Public Administration



Source: F. Al-Farsy, 1986, Saudi Arabia: A Case Study in Development, p. 123.

# Ministry of Interior



Note : Organizational Chart for the Ministry of Interior.

Source: F. Al-Farsy, 1986, Saudi Arabia: A Case Study in Development, p. 123.

### SABIC Project Descriptions

Project Name	Location	Feedstock	Product	Capacity in MTPA	
Saudi Iron & Steel Co. (HADEED)	Al-Jubail	Iron Ores	Rods and Bars	800.000	
		Limestone			
		Natural Gas			
		Scrap Iron			
Jiddah Steel Rolling Mill Co. (SULB)	Jiddah	Steel Billets	Rods and Bars	140.000	
Saudi Methanol Co. (ARRAZI)	Al-Jubail	Methane	Chemical Grade Methanol	600.000	
Al-Jubail Fertilizer Co. (SAMAD)	Al-Jubail	Methane	Urea	500.000	
Saudi Yanbu Petrochemical Co. (YANPET)	Yanbu	Ethane	Ethylene	455.000	
			Ethylene Glycol	200.000	
			LLDPE	205.000	
			HDPE	90.000	
Al-Jubail Petrochemical Co (KEMYA)	Al-Jubail	Ethylene	LLDPE	260.000	
Saudi Petrochemical Co. (SADAF)	Al-Jubail	Ethane	Ethylene	656.000	
			Ethylene		
			Dichloride	454.000	
			Benzene	Styrene	295.000
			Ethanol	281.000	
Caustic Soda	377.000				
National Methanol Co. (IBN SINA)	Al-Jubail	Methane	Chemical Grade Methanol	650.000	
Arabian Petrochemical Co. (PETROKEMYA)	Al-Jubail	Ethane	Ethylene	500.000	
Eastern Petrochemical Co. (SHARQ)	Al-Jubail	Ethylene	LLDPE	130.000	
			Ethylene Glycol	300.000	
National Industrial Gases Co. (GAS)	Al-Jubail	Air	Nitrogen	146.000	
			Oxygen	438.000	
National Plastic Co. (IBN HAY YAN)	Al-Jubail	Ethylene	Vinyl Chloride Monomer	300.000	
			Ethylene	Polyvinyl	
			Dichloride	Chloride	200.000

Source: F. Al-Farsy, 1986, Saudi Arabia: A Case Study in Development, p. 199

## **APPENDIX E: Map of Saudi Arabia**



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