

**Factors affecting job satisfaction: An empirical study in the public sector of
Saudi Arabia**

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Abstract

This research examines the causes and effects of job satisfaction among public sector workers in Saudi Arabia. A Job Satisfaction Model was developed based on theories supporting factors in job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and intention to leave and the research questions were tested within the scope of the model. A range of intrinsic and extrinsic factors was proposed to analyse causes affecting job satisfaction, while the effects were examined in terms of organisational commitment and intention to leave.

The sample consisted of all occupants of ranks 6-10 from five ministries selected in Jeddah that were surveyed using a questionnaire adapted from previous studies. Of the 625 surveys distributed, 364 viable questionnaires were returned. To validate the survey, five potential interviewees were contacted and four interviews were conducted with one representative from each of four of the five selected ministries to discuss the outcomes of the primary research.

To test the Job Satisfaction Model, factor reliability and consistency tests were conducted, and the model's integrity was confirmed. A series of hypotheses were derived and tested to answer the research questions. The findings from the demographic analysis confirmed that the sample was representative of the public sector. This included 12 per cent female and 88 per cent male; 58 per cent were over the age of 40 years; 62 per cent held undergraduate degrees or above.

The result indicates that the intrinsic factors with the highest effect on job satisfaction were job security (weighted means of 4.18 from 5 choices), moral values (4.12), achievement (3.92), and social service (3.72), while the least influential were using judgement (2.92), opportunity to be innovative (3), working autonomously and challenging work (3.22).

In terms of the extrinsic factors supervisor relationships (3.58), competency of supervisor (3.54), recognition (3.47), and co-workers relationships (3.46) were important, while organisational policies (2.86), advancement opportunities (3.10), and working conditions (3.11) were placed lower on the scale.

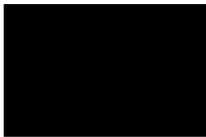
In terms of the effect of job satisfaction, there was a high level of commitment and relatively low level of intention to leave, although this was more due to pragmatic concerns of earning a livelihood rather than emotional commitment to the organisation. Of the commitment classifications (affective, continuance, normative), continuance was found to be the most important as the respondents felt that they had no other job options. The respondents appreciated their 'steady jobs' and 72.5 per cent had no intention to leave the organisation; this outcome was influenced by age and classification.

The conclusion from the research is that job satisfaction in the Saudi public services is associated with supervisor relationships, not with organisational goals (affective commitment) which were found to be least influential. Despite the high continuance level and no intention to leave, the lack of affective or normative attachment to their organisation among workers has adverse consequences on their organisational commitment. The thesis concludes with recommendations for the Ministry of Civil Services and suggestions for future research.

Declaration

I, Hamed Alsemeri, declare that the DBA thesis entitled *the factors affecting job satisfaction: an empirical study in the public sector of Saudi Arabia* is no more than 65,000 words in length including quotes and exclusive tables, figures, appendices, bibliography, references and footnotes. This thesis contains no material that has been submitted previously, in whole or in part, for the award of any other academic degree or diploma. Except where otherwise indicated, this thesis is my own work.

Signature:



Date: 11 April 2016

Hamed Ateg Alsemeri

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Chapter 1 Introduction

This research investigates factors affecting job satisfaction in employment for middle managers in public services in Jeddah, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The working conditions between the public and private sectors differ substantially due to lax labour laws for the private sector and little enforcement of workplace standards for the majority of the predominantly small firms. Up until the last decade, Saudis sought employment with the public sector, preferring its working conditions to those of the private sector.

Private sector employment policies changed in 2011 when the government strengthened Saudisation conditions (Nitaqat) to encourage youth to seek employment in firms until then relying on expatriate labour. Further, a policy of privatisation of many government enterprises affects the status of those in the public services. To counter these influences, the public sector workforce requires significant leadership and productivity measures to respond appropriately to the pace of change in the economy and to deliver public services efficiently.

This introductory chapter begins with overview to the research. This is followed by: the objectives of the research, the research questions, the contribution to knowledge, significance of the research, and definition of terms. A summary of the thesis completes the chapter.

1.1 Overview of the research

The public sector in Saudi Arabia is either the direct source of civil services, encompassing health, education, security, transport, and in some cases, accommodation; or it contracts such services through a joint venture system with the private sector. Although there is a policy of privatisation, citizen satisfaction and indeed the functioning of government requires a high standard of services for socioeconomic growth (Ramady 2013). There is therefore a need to understand the attitudes of public service managers toward their employment.

The rapid rise of Saudi Arabia as a modern nation began in the mid-20th century, with high birth rates in the last decades of the 20th century, and continuing expansion of population to its present 29 million (2014) due to the influx of expatriate labour responsible for economic development (The World Factbook 2014). In this environment, graduates from the universities were immediately absorbed into the public services; however, the educational standards of the time required continued training, not only for their jobs, but also in

workplace basics, such as office management, English, and later, technological change (AlMunajjed 2010; Al-Rasheed 2010). By 2013, some 16 per cent of the 10 million employees in the country, Saudi and non-Saudi, were in public administration or associated agencies; with education and health employees this proportion is at least one-third of the labour force (Central Department of Statistics and Information 2014).

Organisational commitment and job satisfaction are issues of concern in the public sector of Saudi Arabia (Al-Kahtani 2012; Hertog 2010). Research showed that in the public services, non-monetary benefits were of concern for employees; in the private sector, tenure (Iqbal 2010). Ramady (2013) reported that Saudi private sector pay and benefits were lower than the public government sector. This differs from other economies where private sector employment is more financially rewarding and provides a great range of benefits than the public sector and where measurable performance is rewarded more so than tenure (Ramady 2013). Iqbal, Kokash and Al-Oun (2011) studied organisational commitment and job satisfaction in Saudi universities, finding high dissatisfaction, and the authors recommended tenure, increased monitoring of the faculty staff's perceptions of their jobs, greater communication between the administration and faculty, and reduced reliance on *wasta* (nepotism).

In the private sector, Nitaqat, a government policy to employ and retain Saudis in their jobs addressed the lack of interest by Saudis to employment and their indifferent commitment to their employers. However, a trend was emerging of decreased public sector commitment, findings by researchers such as Swailes and Al Fahdi (2011) in Oman and Al-Yahya (2009) in Saudi Arabia. Commitment is of concern, given the sector's perceived highly attractive remuneration and working conditions.

There are few recent studies on job satisfaction in the Saudi public sector, and those available generally relate to nurses (Alasmari & Douglas 2012; Mitchell 2009) and academics (Al-Rubaish, Rahim, Abumadini & Wosornu 2011; Iqbal et al. 2011). In general, job satisfaction has been identified in the broader literature as a factor in both employee absenteeism and intention to leave a job (Consiglio et al. 2010; Murrells et al. 2008).

Researchers in the human resource field have long probed the relationship between job satisfaction and employee performance (Rehman & Waheed 2011; Al-Ahmadi 2009, Currall, Towler, Judge & Kohn 2005; Bhatti & Qureshi 2007) and productivity (Bataneh 2011; Brown, Kitchell, O'Neill, Locklear, Vosler, Kubek & Dale 2001). Job satisfaction can be

affected by other factors, such as culture. For example, Aldhuwaihi et al. (2012) investigated the impact of societal culture on job satisfaction, finding that Islam and tribe/family have a significant impact on Saudi employees' attitudes to work. Alsowoyegh (2012) also found these aspects affected employees' willingness to adopt organisational change. Haroon, Fakhar Zaman and Rehman (2012) and Marri Sadozai, Zaman, Yousufzai and Ramay (2012) reported similar relationships between Islam and job satisfaction in Pakistan, a largely Muslim society. On the other hand, Tsai (2011) indicated that organisational culture could influence employees' attitudes in Taiwan.

1.2 Objectives of the research

Previous generations of Saudi public servants experienced superior working conditions which attract the current generation of job-seekers. The new graduates are expected to work in entry level jobs, replacing expatriates on low wages and 'onerous' conditions, such as working as drivers and hospitality workers (Al-Hamid 2014). Changes in government employee policies may be a factor in their job satisfaction as the government continues to move the burden of citizen employment to the private sector.

The objective of this research is to identify the causes and effects of job satisfaction for line managers (middle managers) in the Saudi public services, and these concern:

- The extrinsic and intrinsic factors that affect their job satisfaction
- The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment
- The relationship between job satisfaction and turnover (intention to leave).

1.3 Research questions

The research question is *What are the causes and effects of job satisfaction within middle managers in the public sector of Saudi Arabia?* The sub-questions are:

1. What are the factors that influence job satisfaction for the managers?
2. Which factors (extrinsic or intrinsic) are more significant for middle managers in the Saudi public sector?
3. What are the effects of job satisfaction on the organisations in terms of intention to leave and organisational commitment?

1.4 Contribution to knowledge

The contribution to knowledge for this research is the application of job satisfaction theory to study empirically a long-standing issue of disassociation among higher ranked public servants (middle managers) with their organisation's goals. There is substantial research linking job satisfaction with organisational commitment (Allen & Meyer 1996; Meyer, Stanley, Jackson, McInnis, Maltin & Sheppard 2012; Williams & Anderson 1991) and intention to leave (or stay) (Chen Ployhart, Thomas, Anderson & Bliese 2011; Decker, Harris-Kojetin & Bercovitz 2009). The use of a number of extrinsic and intrinsic variables in the research instrument (as defined in the next section) also contributes strongly to this exploratory research design. Thus, through building and testing a model for job satisfaction and its varying influences on organisational commitment and intention to leave, the thesis adds to the body of knowledge. Empirically, it also contributes to the field of job satisfaction for Saudi government employees.

1.5 Significance of the research

The significance of this research, or its practical contribution, lies in identifying factors important to public servants, in this case tenured senior managers in Jeddah. As the country continues to shift employment from the public sector to the private sector, the commitment of administrative public servants to their ministries' objectives and timeframes will increase in importance as fewer people are available as group leaders, advisors, decision-makers and project managers. With this change, Saudi Arabia's increasing engagement with global practices, including performance targets, goals and technological change, impacts their job satisfaction. This research therefore assists government decision-makers to understand the factors that motivate middle managers and identifies possible outcomes in performance, and increased productivity. The study identifies issues that influence managers' job satisfaction and offers recommendations that could contribute to improving performance in client services in Saudi public sector. Further, given that other countries may emulate the Saudi experience, the findings of this study may be extended.

1.6 Methodology

To investigate job satisfaction within the Saudi public sector, a series of models (theories) were selected: job satisfaction itself, intention to leave, and employee commitment. The relationships between these theories are explored through a design recommended by Creswell

and Plano Clark (2007): mixed methods, incorporating qualitative data within a quantitative collection and analysis. The primary research is conducted in two phases: first a questionnaire distributed to a sample of the public sector employees, and second, interviews with executives of the public services to explore their reactions to the results of phase one to further inform the analysis. This will then test the model developed to map job satisfaction and its variables and relationships in senior public servants in Saudi Arabia.

1.7 Definition of terms

- Extrinsic factors: Factors that originate from the surrounding environment (social or organisational)
 - Policies: rules, regulations and practices that are applied by the organisation
 - Pay: compensation (monthly salary)
 - Advancement: career opportunities to advance including promotions and training
 - Working conditions: all facets of the work environment Physical
 - Co-workers: relationships with colleagues at work
 - Recognition: praise for work done, whether verbal, written or actions such as career rewards
 - Supervision (technical): efficiency of supervisor
 - Supervision (human relations): supervisor's relationships with employees.
- Intrinsic factors: factors that originate from inside the person (Individual differences)
 - Activity: busy at work
 - Variety: opportunity to perform different tasks from time to time
 - Ability utilisation: the chance to use skills at work
 - Creativity: opportunity to try new methods
 - Social service: the opportunity to serve society
 - Achievement: feelings of accomplishment to task done
 - Moral values: personal conscience or principles
 - Job security: confidence in job continuation
 - Social status: standing in the community
 - Authority: the chance to direct others
 - Independence: the opportunity to attend to job tasks without direction
 - Responsibility: freedom to use one's own judgement in work performance
- Job satisfaction: "the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs" (Spector, 1997, p.2).
- Turnover: intention to leave the organisation
- Organisational commitment: is intention to stay to work for the organisation, and includes the following three elements:

- Affective commitment: Commitment based on “identification with, involvement in, and emotional attachment to the organization” (Allen & Meyer 1996, p.253)
- Continuance commitment: “Commitment based on the employee’s recognition of the costs associated with leaving the organisation” (Allen & Meyer 1996, p.253)
- Normative commitment: “Commitment based on a sense of obligation to the organisation” (Allen & Meyer 1996, p.253).

1.8 Thesis structure

This introductory chapter set out the research aims and purpose of the thesis. The next chapter, the second, explores the context of the research, the Saudi people and their society, the country’s government and administration, and its economic development. The third chapter moves to the literature. It presents theories of motivation, job satisfaction, classical economics and the evolution of the employee-manager relationship. The next section moves to the effects of national culture on job satisfaction and the principles of fitting job tasks and responsibilities into the organisational objectives. This is followed by a review of job satisfaction relationships with organisational commitment and turnover, with emphasis on the public sector. The third chapter is completed with a conceptual framework and the research hypotheses. Chapter 4, Methodology, presents research theory and the selected research design is explained. Chapter 5 presents the results and chapter 6 finalises the thesis with conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further research. The next chapter therefore begins the study with a description of the physical, social, governance and economic environment of Saudi Arabia (Figure 1.1).

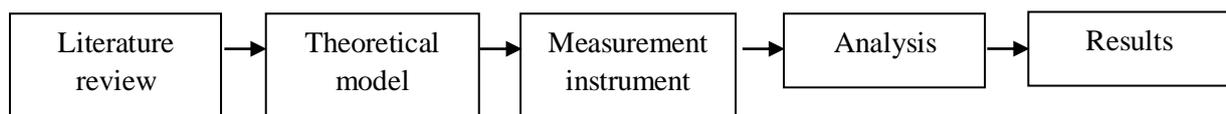


Figure 1.1 *Thesis flowchart*

Chapter 2 Research context (Saudi Arabia)

This chapter presents the context of the study, which concerns job satisfaction in the Saudi public sector. Until the last decade, Saudis sought employment with the public sector, preferring its beneficial conditions to the long hours and lower salaries of the private sector. An issue of importance to the study topic, public employees have jobs for life. Those who entered in decades past may have attained lower level educational qualifications than are now required for entry. Selecting employees with lesser qualifications over time reduced career opportunities, resulting in a concentration of these employees at key points in the hierarchy. University recruits of recent years therefore confront a barrier to career progression, particularly at level 6, blocking progress in the insular workplaces. Another issue for public service employees is privatisation of many government enterprises, either as listed corporations or participating in joint ventures between international and domestic firms. Thus, the current situation is that the public sector workforce requires significant leadership and productivity measures to respond appropriately to the pace of change in the economy and to deliver public services.

The structure of this chapter is as follows: first, the physical characteristics of the country are described, together with its demographics. This is followed by the history of the nation, its current government structure and available information on the size and structure of the public service, and social and economic information complete the chapter.

2.1 Geography

With the exception of Yemen and the states bordering the Mediterranean, the Gulf Cooperation Council countries occupy the Arabian Peninsula. The Gulf States are oil producers sited on the Arabian Gulf and comprise, north to south, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, Bahrain, Qatar, United Arab Emirates and Oman. Saudi Arabia dominates the group in size, population and economy. The capital of the Kingdom is Riyadh, and the economic capital is Jeddah, which is also the entry point for the Hajj and Umrah (Muslim pilgrimage) at Makkah and Al Madinah. This highlights the commonality of public service structures that support the status quo. Other cities of importance are Dammam on the east coast, the port of Riyadh and centre of the oil industry (Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia 2013). These larger cities are served by Ministerial and departmental offices dependent on Riyadh. Minor towns and

Bedouin settlements that are scattered in marginal land and oases throughout the country are served from these larger centres (Figure 2.1).



Source: Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia, 2013

Figure 2.1 *Map of Saudi Arabia*

Saudi Arabia is predominantly a desert, with some agriculture in the form of dairy, chickens and vegetables in the high central plains and to the south. Attempts to access artesian water for food security by growing grain foundered and led to the country importing the majority of its food (Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia 2013).

Crude oil, as noted, dominates the Saudi economy. Saudi Arabia has almost one-fifth of the world's proven oil reserves and ranks as the world's largest producer and exporter of oil. In 2013, Venezuela had the largest proven oil reserves of 297.6 billion barrels, supplying 2,489 thousand barrels per day, whilst Saudi Arabia has proven oil reserves of 267.91 billion barrels, although it supplies far more than Venezuela at 11,545 thousand barrels per day (Nagraj 2013). The Arabian Shield has other mineral deposits that form reserves for industry and construction materials: zinc, gold, iron, copper, chromium, titanium, tungsten and lithium (Harbi, EldougDoug & El-Shahawi 2011).

2.2 Demographics

The Central Department of Statistics and Information (2013) placed the 2012 population in Saudi Arabia at 29,195,895, of whom 19,838,488 are Saudis. These figures are approximate, due to the flow of Gulf citizens between the countries, and the lack of borders between Oman and Yemen to the south, and Iraq and Jordan to the north (Central Department of Statistics and Information 2013).

The presence of significant percentages of guest workers in the labour force prompted the Nitaqat reforms explained in the previous chapter and by November, 2013, tens of thousands of illegal workers left Saudi Arabia. These workers reflect the composition of the expatriate workforce and these workers returned to South Asian and other Arab countries (Trenwith 2013). Thus the population growth is arguably in the negative in 2013, although the Census Department places it at 2.21 per cent in 2012. Table 2.1 shows a population projection by the United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (circa 2008).

Table 2.1 *Indicative population growth rates*

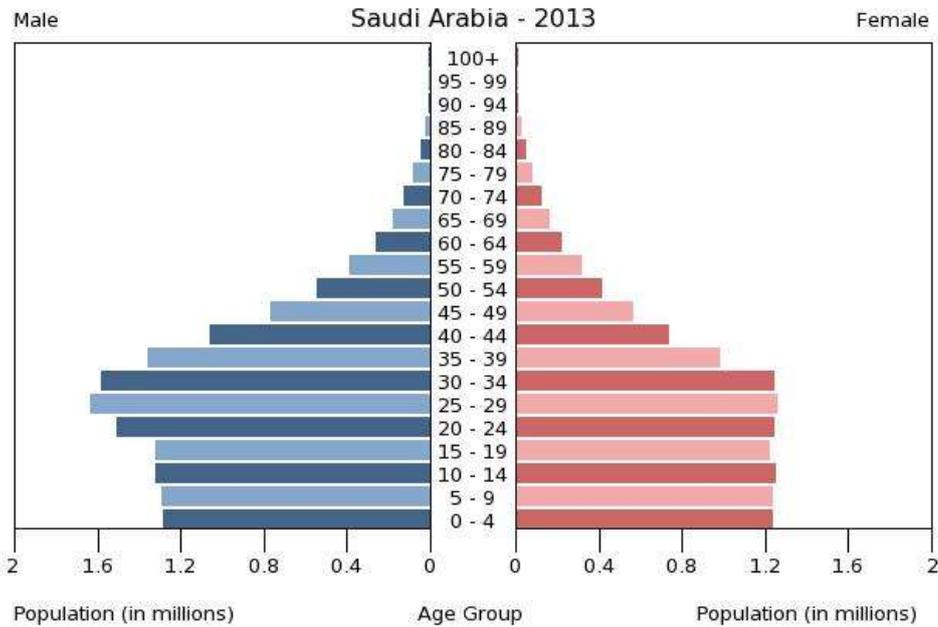
Year range	Population growth rate (%)
1980-1985	5.98
1985-1990	3.99
1990-1995	2.72
1995-2000	1.63
2000-2005	4.07
2005-2010*	1.98
2010-2015*	1.85
2015-2020*	1.57
2020-2025*	1.12
2025-2030*	0.82
2030-2035*	0.71
2035-2040*	0.68
2040-2045*	0.62
2045-2050*	0.50

* projected

Source: United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (circa 2014)

Table 2.1 illustrates a population growth rate decline that is subject to the flow of expatriate workers for very large projects. For example, the 17000ha King Abdullah Economic City in Rabigh near Jeddah required more than one million workers (Estimo 2014). Further, the table includes the drop in birth rate as the economy matures and women seek work. The World Factbook (2013) places the Kingdom's population at 26,939,583 in July 2013, with 5,576,076 non-nationals. This source also estimates the population growth rate at a reasonable 1.51 per

cent at mid-2013, with a birth rate of 19.01 per thousand population, and a death rate reflecting the predominantly young population (median age 26 years) of 3.32 per thousand population. This skewed population is illustrated at Figure 2.2.



Source: World Factbook, 2013.

Figure 2.2 Saudi population pyramid

The population pyramid clearly shows the imbalance of the expatriate workforce. Whilst the male side of the graph bulges in the prime working years of 20 to 39 years from foreign construction workers, there is a similar increase on the female side, where largely numbers of women (predominantly Pakistanis, Filipinos, Indians) supply domestic, education and health services (AlMunajjed 2010). The low numbers of people over 50 years of age reflect the high birth rates of a generation past.

The rapid urbanisation of the Arabian Peninsula resulted in the population living in large houses or multi-storey flats. The World Factbook (2013) places Saudi urbanisation at 82.3 per cent, and the rate of urbanisation at 2.4 per cent per year, as Bedouin drift into cities seeking work, accommodation, and public services. The implications for the public servants are that they must respond to these demographic pressures with efficient and effective delivery of services that can respond quickly to changing circumstances.

2.3 Saudi Kingdom and governance structures

This section explores the history of the Kingdom, and the manner by which its government developed.

2.3.1 History

There is evidence of human occupation on the Arabian Peninsula over 6 millennia, comprising signs of trading settlements in the Hijaz escarpments above the Red Sea such as Makkah and Al Madinah, and Jeddah on the coast. The Bedouin came to control the peninsula trade routes, transporting goods and people between the Mediterranean city-states, Egypt, Mesopotamia and eastern Asia (Al-Semmari 2010).

The peninsula's trading importance and its various tribal communities were subsumed into Islam in 622-632 AD (AH. 1-11) when the prophet Mohammad united the main tribes of the peninsula under Islam, and the expansion continued under the Rashidun Caliphate, 632–661 AD (AH. 11–40) and the Umayyad Caliphate, 661–750 AD (AH. 40–129). By the 8th century AD Islam stretched from the Iberian Peninsula to the Indian subcontinent, across southern Italy, North Africa and central Asia (Al-Semmari 2010). Makkah, where the prophet Mohammad was born, and Madinah where he lived, became places of pilgrimage that developed into a personal experience, Umrah, or a public expression of faith, the Hajj. The Hajj is conducted each year from the 8th to 12th of Dhu Al-Hijjah, and varies by about eleven days from year to year (Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia 2013).

The peninsula attracted dissent over the centuries. In the early 18th century AD, an influential Islamic scholar, Sheikh Muhammad bin Abd-Al wahhab formed an alliance with a local Amir, Mohammad bin Saud, to return the peninsula to a fundamentalist form of Islam. By 1788 AD, the first Saudi state had conquered the central plateau of Najd. The Al-Saud city-states fought the Ottomans, then with the Al-Rasheed family throughout the 19th century (Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia 2013). In 1902, Abd-Alaziz al-Saud captured Riyadh from the Al-Rasheed family, and went on to unite the bulk of the peninsula, aside from small emirates along the Arabian Gulf and the tribes of Yemen. Unlike other Arab countries early in the 20th century, Saudi Arabia existed independent of European influence largely due to “the military strength of the radical desert warriors organised by Abd-Alaziz and dedicated to promoting Islam” (United States, Library of Congress 2006, p.3). These past alliances are still present in the government and tribal and family affiliations represented in the public

service as *wasta*, that is, occupation of influential positions irrespective of competencies (Aldraehim 2013).

On 23 September, 1932, the country was named the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, the religion is Islam, with the Quran as its constitution. The country subsequently faced severe economic hardships in the 1930s depression; alleviated in 1938 by an international oil consortium finding enormous and easily accessible deposits of oil on the Arabian Gulf (United States, Library of Congress 2006).

2.3.2 Emergence of government

As with all public services, the Saudi public sector evolved over time. Prior to unification, its origins were administrators usually associated with the mosques along the Hijaz of Al Madinah, Jeddah and Makkah. In 1931, before the declaration of the Saudi state, a Council of Deputies was formed, and the Amir of Hijaz's main income of tithes from pilgrims during the Hajj were then collected by the new regime (Yamani, 2006). A governing structure slowly formed along the Hijaz; whilst the central plateau of the peninsula, the Najad, remained largely under traditional tribal control. With oil revenues slowly increasing after World War 2, the first ministries were established in 1951, Interior and Health. From 1953 to 1970, further ministries were either created or established from existing directorates: Education (1954), Information (1962/1963, now Culture and Information 2003), Higher Education (1975), Posts, Telegraph and Telephone (1976, now Communications and Information Technology 2003). Others were established, notably the Civil Service in 1999, with further name and function changes until 2003 when the current structure emerged (Saudi e-Government National Portal 2013). This longevity of the officers and their sometimes conflicting responsibilities affect the ability of the public services to appropriately respond to current issues, such as e-government, governance, and effective response (Aldraehim 2013).

2.3.3 National government

In 1992, the Basic Law was decreed by the King to define the system of government (Saudi e-Government National Portal 2013). The government under the King comprises an executive advisory body to the King, the Majlis al-Shura (Consultative Assembly), a judiciary council, and the Council of Ministers where the King is Prime Minister. As absolute ruler, King Abdullah (now Salman) is also the commander in chief of the military. The second in command to the King is the Crown Prince.

The Consultative Assembly cannot pass or enforce laws, only recommend actions to the King (United States, Library of Congress 2006). It is comprised of 150 members including 30 women all of whom were appointed by the King for a four-year renewable term (Al Jazeera 2013). The King, the Consultative Assembly, and leaders at the local, provincial and national levels hold weekly meetings for the public, where individuals or groups can discuss issues and raise grievances.

The Consultative Assembly can propose draft laws for the King's approval, and it has the power to interpret laws. It can also advise the King on proposed policies, international treaties and economic plans and budgets, and annual public sector reports referred to it by ministries and public agencies. The Assembly is responsible for the Kingdom's five-year development plans, from which the annual budgets are derived and for which it can summon government officials for questioning (Saudi e-Government National Portal 2013).

Saudi Arabia's jurisdiction stems from Shari'a law. The King appoints the judges on the recommendation of the Supreme Judicial Council. The independence of the judiciary is protected by law tribunals, although the King is the highest court of appeal and has the power to pardon (Saudi e-Government National Portal 2013). The Shari'a courts are courts of general jurisdiction, concerned with matters relating to land, family disputes, personal injury claims, and criminal cases. The primary statutory tribunal is the Board of Grievances, which

... includes disputes involving the Saudi Arabian government and government agencies (judicial review of administrative action and government contract disputes), most types of commercial cases, the enforcement of foreign judgments and arbitral awards. The President of the Board of Grievances holds the rank of a government minister. It is a superior court in all but name (Hatem Abbas Ghazzawi & Co. 2013, p.1).

The Board of Grievances' commercial jurisdiction is to be transferred to commercial courts within the Shari'a courts structure (Hatem Abbas Ghazzawi & Co. 2013). The Board of Grievances has jurisdiction over disputes with the government and commercial disputes and reviews all foreign arbitral awards and foreign court decisions to ensure compliance with Shari'a law (United States Department of State 2012).

The Council of Ministers, appointed and headed by the King in his role of Prime Minister, administers public sector policies and practices under 24 ministries (Ministry of Civil Service 2013):

Ministry of Defence

Ministry of Foreign Affairs
Ministry of Interior
Ministry of Guard National
Ministry of Justice
Ministry of Petroleum and Mineral Resources
Ministry of Water and Electricity
Ministry of Commerce and Industry
Ministry of Agriculture
Ministry of Economy and Planning
Ministry of Finance
Ministry of Islamic Affairs, Endowments, Da'wah and Guidance
Ministry of the Civil Service
Ministry of Education
Ministry of Hajj (Pilgrimage)
Ministry of Health
Ministry of Higher Education
Ministry of Labour
Ministry of Social Affairs
Ministry of Municipal and Rural Affairs
Ministry of Transportation
Ministry of Culture and Information
Ministry of Communications and Information Technology
Ministry of Housing.

The Council proposes new legislation and reviews government policy, subject to the Consultative Assembly's approval and the King's ultimate decision (Saudi e-Government National Portal 2013). The proliferation of ministries highlights the less than ideal state of the public services, as modern bureaucracies tend to combine disciplines to save administration, outsourcing non-policy matters such as administration, technology, accounting, and human resources (Burnham & Horton 2012).

2.3.4 Provincial government

The country is divided into 13 provinces, each with a governor and deputy governor and an advisory council (now subject to election of half the council, including women) to advise the governor on regional economic and social development. The governor has the rank of

minister and reports to the Ministry of the Interior. The provinces and their capitals are (see Figure 2.1):

Riyadh, Riyadh City (also capital of the Kingdom)

Makkah, Makkah City

Madinah, Madinah City

Eastern Province, Dammam

Asir, Abha

Al-Baha, Al-Baha City

Tabuk, Tabuk City

Qassim, Buraidah

Ha'il, Hail City

Al-Jouf, Sakakah

Northern Borders, Ar'ar

Jizan, Jizan City

Najran, Najran City

(Saudi e-Government National Portal 2013).

Thus the national government combines the judicial, legislative and executive roles through the King, the Crown Prince and the Council of Ministers (Saudi e-Government National Portal 2013). Discussion on the history and the development of the ministries and the public sector is presented later in this chapter.

2.4 Civil services

This section presents the executive government structures. These are the ministries and the departments and the employment conditions which are administered by the Civil Service Board.

2.4.1 Civil service structure

The ministries are all organised in a similar fashion, with the Minister and one or more deputies, the latter appointments approved by the Council of Ministers. The deputies act as head of the administrative structure. They advise the Ministers and are responsible for strategies and policy formulation. The ministries' executives occupy grades 11 to 15 within a

general public service remuneration band, followed by lower management and professional grades 6 and 10, the occupants of which usually have tertiary qualifications, degrees or diplomas. Grades 1 to 5 are entry level staff who do not necessarily hold tertiary qualifications. Women hold similar positions to men throughout the hierarchy in the public sector as workplaces are separated by gender (Ministry of Civil Service 2013). Saudi Arabia has a low female workforce participation rate and they tend to occupy positions in the gender-segregated fields of education and health.

The Civil Service Board responds to the Council of Ministers. The Board is the decision-making body for public sector employees, ministries, government organisations, and autonomous agencies. Its administrative agency is the Civil Service Bureau, which sets grade classifications, pay rates and working conditions, recruitment conditions for job requirements, and job performance standards.

Independent from the ministries are the General Audit Bureau, responsible for public sector audits; the Grievances Board, responsible for hearing complaints of misconduct by public employees; the Control and Investigation Board that investigates complaints against government officials; and the Organisation for Public Services and Discipline. Training is provided within each ministry and at the Institute of Public Administration, with locations in Jeddah and Dammam (United States Library of Congress 2006).

2.4.2 Civil service employment

The ministries' initial growth occurred in the 1970s and 1980s, as the population numbers climbed and the size of the public services grew. The number of agencies also expanded and although most were administered by a ministry, each had a budget and was relatively independent.

The Ministry of Civil Service reported that there were 1.15 million jobs approved in 'various government departments and public firms in 2012', with 991,000 jobs (86.2%) filled, including 79,000 expatriates. However, the actual number working in the ministry-designated public sector was 998,138, with 34.5 per cent women and 65.5 per cent men (Abdul Ghafour 2013):

The number of foreign workers in government departments rose by five percent in 2012 compared to the previous year,' the ministry said, adding that 5,589 foreigners were replaced by Saudis during the same year. Government departments recruited 6,390 foreign workers last year, including 3,277 women (Abdul Ghafour, 2013, p.1).

The Ministry of Civil Service was thus practising Saudisation by recruiting Saudis to replace expatriates whose contracts expired. Abdul Ghafour (2013) reported that the majority of these public sector employees, many women, were in the education sector (45.9%); 28.8 per cent were other departmental administrators and employees, and 14.5 per cent were in health, where hospitals and clinics are being privatised. Interestingly, 5.5 per cent were working part time, a long term aim of encouraging working mothers in the Kingdom (Abdul Ghafour 2013; AlMunajjed 2010). Abdul Ghafour (2013) also reported there were more than two million public sector employees working in defence:

... the National Guard, armed forces and security agencies as administrators, soldiers, engineers and doctors ... the security and military sectors run a large number of hospitals and health centers (Abdul Ghafour 2013 p.1).

The Saudi government tends to release jobs in the public sector during times of high unemployment, due to the preference of Saudi youth for the sector's job security and excellent working conditions (Ramady 2010). The public sector employee numbers were released on 1 January, 2014, and showed a small rise (Ministry of Civil Service 2014) (Table 2.2).

Table 2.2 *Government employees*

Location	Saudi		Non-Saudi		Total employees
	Male	Female	Male	Female	
Ministries	311341	76971	919	97	389328
Education	229255	281716	3045	426	514442
Health	62272	41111	20671	33092	157146
Higher Education	18014	16483	10529	4125	49151
Courts	1581	0	0	0	1581
Law enforcement	2010	0	0	0	2010
Diplomatic corps	963	48	0	0	1011
Technical and Vocational Training Corporation	7291	666	920	44	8921
Institutions	39530	488	18	0	40036
Servants (users)	40909	15144	89	3	56145
Total	713166	432627	36191	37787	1219771

Source: Ministry of Civil Service 2014

Table 2.2 shows that there were 1,219,771 Government employees at 1 January 2014, 61.43 per cent (n = 749,351) of whom were men and 38.57 per cent (n = 470,414) women. Of all those, six per cent (n = 73,978) were non-Saudis, most of whom were in healthcare and some held higher education positions.

There is a slow attrition of public sector jobs occupied by professional expatriates, which are being occupied by Saudis. Abdul Ghafour's (2013) 79,000 expatriates of 2013 declined to 74,000 (Ministry of Civil Service 2014), although later in 2014 (September), Ballelah (2014), noted the continuing climb of unemployment figures for educated Saudis, predominantly for women. This was despite considerable attention to women's workforce participation since 2011. Al-Ahmadi (2011) explained that policy makers set successive economic development plans (see below) to overcome obstacles for women in public life and their ability to access leadership positions in the public service. Surveying 160 Saudi women leaders in government sectors Al-Ahmadi found that gender separation, cultural and religious tenets, lack of resources and lack of empowerment were impeding women's access to influential positions in the hierarchy. These positions of influence remained occupied by expatriate male professionals.

In the healthcare sector, Al-Yami and Watson (2014) agreed with Al-Ahmadi's (2011) earlier findings. Even in a feminised profession such as nursing, Al-Yami and Watson (2014) found that Saudi women were not attracted to assisting the well-being of their fellow citizens. High turnover among both expatriates and nationals, men and women, remained an issue in producing a high standard of public sector healthcare in the Kingdom. "Nursing leaders need to work to improve the image of nurses and facilitate the recruitment of women into the nursing profession" (Al-Yami & Watson 2014, p. 10). Interestingly, they called for formation of national healthcare associations to promote the benefits and professional status of these vocations to individuals and their society. This initiative of professional associations may also be effective in other areas, such as public sector management.

2.4.3 Regional and municipal sector structures

The current provincial council system was established in 1992; setting the 13 provinces and their administrative structures, together with the responsibilities of the governors and other regional officers. In 1993, 210 citizens were appointed to the 13 provincial councils. The councils, consisting of at least five citizens, deliberate on the needs of their provinces and

administer finance, planning, health, education, agriculture, and municipalities. As with the Majlis Al-Shura, councillors sit on interest group committees that focus on various issues of interest to the province. The councils' reports are submitted to the Minister of the Interior, and from there distributed to the appropriate government ministries and agencies (Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia 2013).

The provincial system encompasses 178 Municipal (or District) Councils, comprising a mayor and deputies who are the decision-makers (within the government structure) for the city or district. The governor is advised by a consultative committee (Majlis), which is similar to the other tiers of government. The Municipal Councils comprise four to 14 members each.

The larger cities such as Riyadh, Dammam, Jeddah, Makkah and Al Madinah have 14 members. Municipal Councils in Taif, Al-Ahsa, Buraidah, Abha, Ha'il, Tabuk, Jizan, Baha, Najran, Al-Jouf and the Northern Border Province have 12 members while those in Khamis Mushait, Unaizah, Alkharj, Hafr Al-Baten and Yanbu have 10 members. The Councils in governorates (Muhafadhat) and centres (Marakiz) have six to eight members while rural centres have four members (Saudi e-Government National Portal, 2013, p.1).

Jeddah Municipality, the second largest city in Saudi Arabia, is an example of public sector employment in this three-tier government. Jeddah, as the gateway to Makkah, is the country's commercial and tourism centre with its large seaport and airport, the latter catering to the Hajj. Urbanisation stretches some 160 kilometres along the coast, from Thuwal in the north, to Mastabah in the south. A town began in 647AD when the rulers built a port for the Hajj. In 2009, Jeddah's population was 3.4 million, and the city had grown rapidly since 1980 and was expected to rise to 5 million by 2020. Due to its ancient role of hosting the Hajj and subsequent migration of Muslims drawn by Makkah, Jeddah is a cosmopolitan city. It attracts residents from other nationalities so it has a more diverse population than other regions in the Kingdom (Jeddah Municipality 2013).

Jeddah is in the Makkah province, and all ministries and many of the public sector agencies have offices in the city. The Jeddah Municipality is structured with a mayor and a deputy mayor, and second deputy mayor for services. Other executive areas are lands and property, information technology, legal affairs, audit and monitoring, projects, districts and suburbs within the Jeddah Municipality, administration, and women (Jeddah Municipality 2013).

2.5 Social and economic influences

The effect of globalisation and urbanisation on Saudi Arabia has reformed its economy and society. The results of this substantial and continuing change are briefly addressed in this section.

2.5.1 Socio-political structures

As noted, Saudi Arabia's constitution is Shari'a law, codified in the Basic Law of 1992 (Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia 2013). King Salman is a descendent of the Saudi founder, Abdulaziz, and the al-Sauds hold or influence the elite government positions with the support of the ulama (Al-Rasheed 2010). As noted, the King serves as Prime Minister, while the Crown Prince holds the positions of Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of interior (Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia 2013).

The ulama and clerics of the conservative are more influential in Saudi society. This conservatism is reflected in the King's titles which include the Guardian of the Two Holy Mosques. As noted in this chapter, the ulama are represented in government through the Ministry of the Hajj and Islamic Affairs, and the secular court has been transferred to Justice under Shar'ia law. Also, they have influence throughout the education system, particularly the curricula (Benn, Dagkas & Jawad 2011; Hamdan 2005).

Social media has impacted Saudi Arabia, opening up lines of communication (Agarwal, Lim & Wigand 2012). Agarwal, Lim and Wigand (2012) noted that technological change, particularly the freedom offered by social media, allowed new forms of collective action that can build over time. This is another issue for the public administration, as resistance to change can influence development of service delivery (Aldraehim 2013; Common 2013).

2.5.2 Socio-cultural environment

Saudis observe a family-based hierarchy where the authority belongs to the male elder. The families are part of a tribal society, although tribal norms differ (Minkov & Hofsted 2011). This is a collectivist society, where an individual is expected to act for the benefit of his/her family first, then the tribe. These obligations are central to the establishment of values, ambition and self-image of individuals. Status is therefore important and income is secondary, so that plentiful well-paid vocational work is viewed as low status (Al-Rasheed 2010). Obviously, it is this attitude that the government is trying to dislodge through its

Nitaqat programs, where it seeks to replace expatriate labour and the subsequent remittance of large sums out of the country, with Saudis who live, work and spend their money at home (Common 2013). Common argued that the long term presence of international corporate subsidiaries and their policies and practices in Saudi Arabia has not filtered through into business practices and from there to society at the rate expected. This resistance impacts the ability of the Saudi Arabian Public Service to meet international governance standards.

The Arab collectivism was explained by Hofstede's five dimensions in relation to Saudi Arabia¹:

- Power distance (individuals' status): Saudis score high (95) in this measure as they accept a hierarchy in which everybody has a place, accepting inherent inequalities, centralisation, and that management should be a benevolent autocrat.
- Individualism (an individual-collectivist continuum): Saudis show a low score (25) in individualism, reflecting their collectivist society: family, tribe, country. Loyalty is paramount and overrides rules and regulations, and employer/employee relationships are perceived in moral terms reflecting *wasta* for recruitment and promotion; thus performance management is that of the group, not the individual.
- Masculinity/femininity (dominance-related): The score is 60, showing that males are more dominant in Saudi society.
- Uncertainty avoidance (managing risk) Saudis score 80 thus prefer to avoid uncertainty with rigid codes of belief and behaviour;
- Long term orientation (long term perspective). No score available (See footnote)

Further, Mellahi (2007) supported these projections, noting that personal relationships overshadowed other work-based considerations (Al-Rasheed 2010; Minkov & Hofstede 2011). Common (2013) explained that formal planning is not well practised and Saudi managers rely on their support base of groups and family connections for the day-to-day operations of their businesses. This widespread collectivism permeates business relationships and commerce, so that a poorly performing individual is tolerated as part of the group dynamics. Common observed that the outcome is therefore that task-based performance measures 'lack relevance' in the Saudi context. Of importance to this study, Common stated that public servants were reluctant to criticise their superiors for fear of retaliation; similarly,

¹ The Hofstede Centre is an interactive website where the latest research is offered by country. It is therefore more current than the literature. The website <http://geert-hofstede.com/countries.html> was accessed on 6 October 2014.

managers used intermediaries to deliver criticism to avoid conflict. Mellahi (2007) explained that in the status-conscious hierarchy of the time, the government accepted that Saudis disdain hands-on tasks, preferring management positions. Under Nitaqat, the government is determined to remove as many service expatriates as possible to reallocate their jobs.

As noted, Islam has direct influence on all parts of life in Saudi Arabia (Ali 2008). Yousef (2001) summarised principles of the Islamic work ethic:

- to work diligently and well
- practise honesty and be just in interaction with others
- support equity in wealth
- gain knowledge and skills
- to be creative to attain satisfaction
- to be diligent in employment is an obligation.

2.5.3 Economic planning

Saudi Arabia adopted a set of five-year economic plans in 1970 which guided its socio-economic development. The Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia (2013) explained that from the mid-20th century, an objective was to diversify the economy away from oil into other fields. Originally focussed on the oil infrastructure to generate revenue and security to maintain production, over time the development plans guided social change and the current focus on youth unemployment. The first plan, 1970-1975, established an infrastructure to support a modern economic base, and this was followed in the next plan, 1976-1980, to develop the country's human resources to learn beside foreign workers and, in due course, to take over their work. This economic diversification began with the public services, and commerce and finance sectors in the beginning of Saudisation. The physical infrastructure developed during the first three development plans, i.e. 1970-1984, sought to use oil as an industrial base allowing a focus on social services. The fourth (1985-89) to seventh (2000-2004) plans maintained this focus, and whilst construction of roads, airports, communications and accommodation continued, the eighth (2005-09) plan moved toward attracting international finance and using Saudisation to curb cash outflows by foreign workers (Naufal & Genc 2012).

The current ninth development plan (2010-2014), according to the Ministry of Economy and Planning (2010, pp.26-27), had 13 objectives:

First objective:

To safeguard Islamic teachings and values, enhance national unity and security, guarantee human rights, maintain social stability, and consolidate the Arab and Islamic identity of the Kingdom.

Second objective:

To continue to develop the holy places, and improve the services provided to Hajj and Umrah performers to ensure performance of religious rites easily and conveniently.

Third objective:

To achieve sustainable economic and social development by accelerating the rate of economic growth and social welfare.

Fourth objective:

To achieve balanced development among regions of the Kingdom and enhance their role in social and economic development.

Fifth objective:

To enhance human development, expand the range of options open to individuals to enable them to acquire and use knowledge, skills and expertise, and provide appropriate healthcare services.

Sixth objective:

To raise the standard of living and improve the quality of life of all citizens.

Seventh Objective:

To diversify the economic base horizontally and vertically, expand the absorptive and productive capacities of the national economy and enhance its competitiveness, and maximize the return on competitive advantages.

Eighth objective:

To move towards a knowledge-based economy and consolidate the basis of an information society.

Ninth objective:

To enhance the role of the private sector in socioeconomic and environmental development and expand domains of private investments (domestic and foreign) and public-private partnerships.

Tenth objective:

To develop, conserve and ensure rational utilization of natural resources, particularly water, protect the environment and develop environmental systems within the context of sustainable development.

Eleventh objective:

To continue socioeconomic and institutional reform, develop regulations aimed at raising efficiency and improving performance, work towards entrenching transparency and accountability, and support civil-society institutions in advancing their developmental activities.

Twelfth objective:

To strengthen economic integration with Gulf Cooperation Council and Arab states and develop relations with Islamic and friendly countries.

Thirteenth objective:

To develop the Small and Medium Enterprises sector to increase its contribution to GDP, and create frameworks for nurturing and organising it.

The objectives of the development plans are thus moving from economic to aspirational and social values. The first and second objectives relate to the importance of Islamic values to the nation and society, given the logistics and infrastructure necessary for a fulfilling the Hajj experience by accommodating millions more pilgrims. Aspirational values are followed by the necessity for improving the Kingdom's low gross domestic product through continuing to diversify the economy, gaining meaningful work for the tens of thousands of Saudi leaving the education system each year, and encouraging women to join the workforce. These goals occupy objectives three to nine, and objective thirteen, as the government adopts stronger administrative measures, Nitaqat, to force firms to hire Saudis, and to train Saudis in workplace skills such as English, work ethic, and adapting to a workplace environment. The remaining objectives are new programs, seeking to change the legal system towards restricting environmental waste and pollution (Ministry of Economy and Planning, 2010, Saudi e-Government National Portal 2013).

However, the thirteenth objective, which seeks to improve governance and transparency, has not been addressed (Almaeena 2014). Almaeena criticised Saudi public servant practices of obfuscation and *wasta* (nepotism) calling for Gulf administrators:

... to innovate in the field of policies, public services, (and) organizational structure(s;) as well as operations and procedures that will enhance the country's competitiveness and efficiency in the public sector (Almaeena 2014, p.1).

Whilst Almeena pointed out that public service reform was long overdue in Saudi Arabia, Common (2014) argued that performance management and budgeting were lax in the Gulf States², singling out Saudi Arabia as retaining a single-line budgetary system. Joharji and Willoughby (2014) reported that expenditure on public servants' salaries doubled from the economic plans of the 1970s (16%) to today (39%). Joharji and Willoughby stated that the causes are population growth, lifetime tenure for public servants, and Saudisation of the education and healthcare sectors: "(Ministry of Finance) officials seemingly give up power to allocate resources across sectors ... to ensure the orderly maintenance of pre-existing government operations" (Joharji & Willoughby 2014, p. 1). Common (2014) also noted a lack of robust documentation in public administration, a matter addressed by this study.

2.5.4 Economic cities

The 20-year economic cities initiative to accommodate the burgeoning population and create new work opportunities for millions of unemployed Saudis is an important aspect of economic development. The Saudi Arabian General Investment Authority was established in 2000 as a vehicle for investment to sustain economic growth, and was initially the administrator of the economic cities. The Economic Cities Authority now regulates private development of the cities, although private investment was delayed by the economic crisis. The cities are themed according to industry to utilise the country's resources, natural and human to diversify the economy. There are currently four cities being developed, with other sites in planning: King Abdullah Economic City (KAEC) in Rabigh, Prince Abdul Aziz Bin Mousaed Economic City (PABMEC) in Ha'il, Knowledge Economic City (KEC) in Madinah (Al Madinah), and Jazan Economic City (JEC) in Jazan (see Figure 2.3) (Metropolitan Corporate Council 2013; Saudi e-Government National Portal 2013).

² Gulf states are members of the Gulf Cooperation Council: Kuwait, Bahrain, Oman, United Arab Emirates, Qatar and Saudi Arabia



Source: Metropolitan Corporate Council, 2013, p.1.

Figure 2.3 *Location of new economic cities*

King Abdullah Economic City (KAEC on the map, north of Jeddah) comprises the largest project, with accommodation for nearly two million people, and is planned for completion in 2025. The first development stage is currently under way, although plans were altered by the economic crisis and the results of flooding in Jeddah in 2009 and delays occurred (Construction Weekly 2013; Saudi e-Government National Portal 2013). Bowers (2013) reported that the cities, established as high performing industrial hubs, would attract substantial investment; however, the government was forced to fund the real estate developments, and dismissed Saudi Arabian General Investment Authority as “just another layer of bureaucracy, completely hostage to the rest of the government” (Bowers 2013, p. 71). Nevertheless, the news service Bloomberg (2014) stated that the private sector King Abdullah city was progressing, with 80 firms leasing properties, and an expected population of 50,000 people by 2020 (currently 3,000) (Bloomberg 2014).

2.6 Chapter summary

This chapter considered the context of the study into factors that influence the Saudi public servants in the conduct of their work. The characteristics of Saudi life were presented, with its strong Arabic and Islamic governance structures and its rapid social and economic development. Whilst the collectivist and societal-centred traditions were described as representing Saudi culture, these must be balanced against the pace of change in the country and the pressure of its youth in their numbers and their aspirations. The next chapter moves on to the primary research for this study.

Chapter 3 Literature review

This chapter moves to the theoretical context of motivation and job satisfaction in the Saudi public sector by examining the relevant literature. The review of the literature led to identifying the gaps in the current literature to be explored in this thesis. The literature review thus set the parameters for the conceptual framework, and hypotheses to be tested in this research were developed based on it.

The concept of job satisfaction is multi-dimensional and may be applicable to productivity and organisational commitment; interestingly it can be viewed from an individual or a social dimension, or from perspectives such as cost and reward, public sector and private sector, or from summed intrinsic and extrinsic factors of all these. Job satisfaction may then be taken to a different level, and be viewed as removing barriers to productivity, or as a driver towards productivity and organisational commitment. It is these conceptualisations that led to this study in the contemporary Saudi public service.

This chapter is constructed as follows. The characteristics of motivation and job satisfaction are presented. This is followed by a discussion on motivation and job design. Next, the relationship between organisational commitment, turnover and job satisfaction is described. Finally, the gap in the literature is identified, together with the conceptual framework and the hypotheses that will be tested in the primary research.

3.1 Motivation and job satisfaction overview

There have been many attempts to define the precise meaning of motivation by researchers, but there seems to be a range of perspectives on the topic. The term "motive" originally came from the Latin word (*movere*) that implies to move (Porter, Bigley & Steers 2003; Roa 2010; Mustafa 2013). In one of the earlier works on this topic, Steers and Porter (1983) defined motivation as "what energises, directs, channels, maintains and sustains an employee's actions and behaviours" as quoted by Tansuhaj, Randall and McCullough (1988, p.35). Greenberg and Baron (2000) determined the elements of motivation in the arousal, direction and maintain the behaviour towards the target. Thus they defined motivation as "the set of processes that arouse, direct and maintain human behaviour towards attaining some goals" (Greenberg & Baron 2000, p.130). Robbins (2004, p.164) defined motivation as "the

processes that accounts for an individual's intensity, direction and persistence of effort towards attaining a goal”.

Although these definitions vary, they show that motivation is a dynamic process that needs to be activated to achieve organisational objectives and satisfy employee needs. There seems to be an agreement between researchers in organisational theory that motivation energises, directs and maintains behaviour within organisations. Motivation can act as a critical element of productivity and performance. According to Rao (2010), motivation can increase productivity by directing employees' energies towards the job.

In addition, job satisfaction has emerged as a complementary concept in organisational theory alongside motivation for better understanding of employees' commitment to their job and workplace. The Hawthorne studies that were conducted by Mayo (1924-1930) were the first attempts to develop job satisfaction concept. This was a pioneering study in organisational theory linking the emotions of employees with their working behaviours. It paved the way for giving much-needed emphasis on how social relationships and psychological factors influence job satisfaction and productivity of employees (Robbins 2004; Mustafa 2013).

An early definition of job satisfaction by Hoppock (1935) as quoted by Kessuwan and Muenjohn (2010, p.169) was “any combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances that cause a person truthfully to say, I am satisfied with my job”. Later, Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences” as quoted by Judge, Parker, Colbert, Heller and Ilies (2001, p.26). Tansuhaj, Randall and McCullough (1988, p.34) defined job satisfaction as “the feelings a worker has about his or her job”. Spector (1997, p.2) defined job satisfaction as “the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs”. To conclude, the definitions of job satisfaction above can be summarised in the following phrase: ‘the attitudes and feeling of employees towards their jobs’. The discussion in the following sections further explores these concepts of motivation and job satisfaction.

3.2 Theories of motivation

Categorising the work of theorists in the field of motivation is difficult due to the different bases adopted: psychology, sociology or management. Early motivational theories may be described as needs (content) based so that another need emerged on fulfilment of a lower

need in a relatively static environment. “Process theorists view work motivation from a dynamic perspective and look for casual relationships across time and events as they relate to human behaviour in the workplace” (Steers, Mowday & Shapiro 2004, p.381). “Dualistic theories divide motivation into two types: intrinsic and extrinsic” (Reiss 2012, p.152). Reiss (2012) claimed that when tested for measurement reliability and construct validity, dualistic theories tend to fail, and advocated for validated multifaceted theories. Motivation theories in this section are presented from a dualistic perspective.

3.2.1 Content theories

Research into employee motivation continued from the mid-20th century until the present day, initially based on influential figures that posited models arguably emanating from the Hawthorne studies. The following researchers are briefly presented: Abraham Maslow, Douglas McGregor, and Frederick Herzberg.

Maslow’s hierarchy of needs As a psychologist, Abraham Maslow entered into the management behaviour and organisational development fields, concentrating on the motivational aspects of employee behaviour raised in the Hawthorne studies by Mayo (1933) and Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939). Henry Murray (1938), a psychologist, conceptualised the need for achievement as a broad, unitary construct and identified 20 needs that humans attempt to satisfy:

Abasement, achievement, affiliation, aggression, autonomy, counteraction, deference, defendance, dominance, exhibition, harm avoidance, infavoidance/inviolacy, nurturance, order, play, rejection, seclusion, sentience, sex, succorance, superiority, and understanding. (Carson, 2005, p. 455).

Maslow (1943) distilled “Murray’s list and produced five basic sets of needs: psychological, safety, love, esteem, and self-actualisation” (Carson 2005, p.455). Maslow determined that “although the ultimate goal is self-actualisation” (Carson 2005, p.455), each of the lower level needs must be first met, as shown below in Figure 3.1.

General Rewards	Need Levels	Organisational Factors
Growth Advancement Creativity	Self-Actualisation	Challenging job Achievement in work Advancement
Self-esteem Self-respect Prestige Status	Esteem	Social recognition Job title High status job Feedback
Love Affection Belongingness	Social	Cohesive work group Friendly supervision Professional associations
Safety Security Stability Protection	Safety	Safe working conditions Company benefits Job security
Food Water sex Sleep	Physiological	Pay Good working conditions

Source: Adapted from Cherrington (1994, p.130).

Figure 3.1 *Maslow's hierarchy of needs*

In a subsequent meta-study of empirical findings based on the hierarchical model, Wahba and Bridwell (1976) found only partial support for Maslow's theory. Many cross-sectional studies showed evidence only for self-actualisation, not the structure, whilst longitudinal studies testing Maslow's structure of attainment showed no support, and the authors queried the measurements of the cross-sectional studies.

There were many researchers who in the subsequent years attempted revisions of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Alderfer (1969, 1972) developed (and tested) an alternative to Maslow's theory, basing it on a construct of existence (physiological, safety), relatedness (social), and growth (ERG). Alderfer avoided lower-level satisfaction as necessary for progression through the needs hierarchy; however, the theory related the impact of higher-order frustration of needs to the effort engaged to satisfy lower-order needs. An empirical study of bank employees supported Alderfer's theory more so than differential predictions in Maslow's theory.

Despite an apparent lack of theoretical support for Maslow's hierarchical approach, Chien, Yen and Hoang (2012) found that Maslow's theory is frequently used by leisure/recreation researchers, providing a framework for determining when and under what conditions leisure decisions are made. Adiele and Abraham (2013) further used a survey on the model to argue

for increased wages for teachers whilst Thielke, Harniss, Thompson, Patel, Demiris and Johnson (2012) studied adoption of health-related technologies by older adults.

Defending the hierarchy of needs, Kenrick, Griskevicius, Neuberg and Schaller (2010) stated that by viewing motives as innate and universal predispositions Maslow anticipated future research on human motivation and cognition. They argued that:

the basic foundational structure of the pyramid is worth preserving, but that ... by adding a contemporary design feature... these connections can be strengthened by anchoring the hierarchy of human motives more firmly in the bedrock of modern evolutionary theory (Kenrick et al. 2010, p.292).

The resurrection of hierarchical theory by Kendrick et al. (2010) was supported in the literature. Researchers such as Ackerman and Bargh (2010) noted the change in perspective that the levels complement rather than compete with each other and that Kenrick et al. (2010) gave a new understanding of human behaviour.

McGregor's theory X and theory Y The term organisational development was coined by Douglas McGregor and Richard Beckhard to describe an innovative bottom-up change process. However, McGregor (1957) saw an individual's needs as a hierarchy which is continually replenished as one need is satisfied, although "a satisfied need is not a motivator of behaviour" (McGregor, 1957, p.42). The first, physiological needs refer to basic needs of life such as air, food, drink, shelter, warmth, sex and sleep. The next, security, is protection against danger, threat or deprivation, although in an organisational sense, McGregor saw security as the 'fairest possible break'. The next is social needs, needs for belonging, social acceptance and giving and receiving friendship and love. In this instance, management attempts to divide a social work group may be counter-productive if the individuals become resentful and uncooperative, although this is a consequence of the decision, not the cause. Following social needs are ego needs relating to self-esteem, self-confidence, independence, achievement and knowledge; and to reputation in the form of status, recognition and appreciation. Once these needs are satisfied, McGregor pointed to a capstone of needs, self-fulfilment, where the individual seeks continued self-development, and achievement through creativity. McGregor (1960) used the hierarchy of needs as the basis of his theory X and theory Y, again two different continua. McGregor put forward the notion that some managers regard employees in a negative sense, believing that they dislike work, attempt to avoid responsibility, they needed direction, and lacked ambition. This was termed theory X. Theory

Y, as may be expected, was the other side of the coin, with managers optimistic that employees have self-control and direction and like their work (McGregor, 1960).

Unlike recent work on Maslow's hierarchy of needs, McGregor's theories of management behaviour had research attention, generally supporting theory Y. Sahin (2012) investigated the relationship between McGregor's Theory X and Y management styles and affective commitment in Turkey, finding support for theory Y management style, but none for the paternalistic theory X style. In a contemporary assessment of McGregor's work, Kopelman, Prottas and Falk (2010) questioned the absence of a measurement of management style. They discussed the lack of empirical research on the theory, and developed a measure of 13 behaviour items on management style which may be useful as a diagnostic tool for individual and organisational development.

Herzberg's two-factor theory Fredrick Herzberg was a contemporary of Maslow and McGregor, again a psychologist, who proposed a hygiene-motivation theory of factors affecting employee performance (Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman 1959). Similar to Maslow's physiological, safety and social needs; and McGregor's physiological and social needs, Herzberg described the work environment such as the physical surroundings, supervisors and the organisation, as the hygiene component of his theory. Eliminating issues arising from the working environment may make an employee productive, but not necessarily motivated. Herzberg believed that motivation occurs through the work itself.

Under the hygiene part of the theory, Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959) posited the following elements that do not motivate; however issues regarding these lead to dissatisfaction:

- the organisation, its policies and practices
- leadership and supervision
- working environment
- social group
- job status, job security and remuneration

The second component in Herzberg's theory, motivation, involves the intrinsic nature of the job: engagement, achievement, recognition, and growth.

Critics emerged for Herzberg's hygiene-motivator theory, stating that work factors (satisfiers) produce positive but not negative job attitudes, while other variables (dissatisfiers) produce a negative, but not positive, job attitude. Ewen (1964) encapsulated the range of issues on the theory as comprising a constrained sample, a single measure for job attitudes, no validation or reliability test and no measure of overall job satisfaction. Nevertheless, the theory persisted and Smerek and Peterson (2007) in studying job satisfaction among non-academic employees at a university found mixed results although some support for the intrinsic nature of the work. Studying police retention, Monk-Turner, O'Leary and Sumter (2010) found support for the two-part theory.

In studying the hospitality industry, Lundberg, Gudmundson and Andersson (2009) encapsulated research views on Herzberg's 2-factor theory. The researchers' findings support the theory, indicating that the short-term contractors at a seasonal tourism destination were "significantly less concerned about wage level as well as significantly more concerned about meeting new people than resident workers" (Lundberg, Gudmundson, & Andersson 2009, p. 890). They posited that based on demographics, worker subgroups had different needs to be satisfied.

Summary of content theories Whilst of historical interest, the motivation theories have mixed reviews in contemporary research and appear to be used in a historical sense, such as Kenrick et al. (2010) changing Maslow's hierarchy of needs to meet the conditions established by researchers in the intervening half-century.

Despite the differences between the need theories discussed in the previous section, there are several points at which the theories intersect. Table 3.1 illustrates the similarities among Herzberg, Maslow and Alderfer's content or needs motivation theories.

Table 3.1 *Details of motivation theories*

Type of motivation	Herzberg's variables	Maslow's variables	Alderfer's ERG variables
Intrinsic ↑	Work itself Achievement Possibility of growth Responsibility Advancement Recognition	Motivators	Self-actualisation
			Esteem-self-confirmed
Extrinsic ↓	Status Relation with supervisors Peer relations Relations with subordinates Company policies Job security Working conditions Pay	Hygiene	Esteem-interpersonal
			Relatedness
			Social needs
			Safety-interpersonal
			Safety-material
			Existence
			Physiological needs

Source: Developed from Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman (1959), Maslow (1943), Alderfer (1969)

According to Steers, Bigley and Porter (1996), a comprehensive theory of employee motivation should comprise contextual elements, the characteristics of the individual, the job and the work environment. However, at the time, authors such as Bong (1996) criticised the quality of the debate, stating that varying theoretical orientations of researchers resulted in arbitrary selection of variables which rendered model comparison (or generalisation) invalid.

Another branch of motivation theory refers to cognitive and social-cognitive models, such as Locke and Latham's (2002) goal-setting theory. Focussed on motivation in work settings, social-cognitive theory measures and describes goal-setting at the individual, group, and organisational level. Through establishing the job perimeters, goal setting matches the goal to performance measures, incorporates feedback, provides task training and includes the employee's personal (career) goals.

Early motivation models include expectancy model (Vroom 1964) and Hackman and Oldham's (1976/1980) job characteristics model. Elding, Tobias and Walker (2006) combined both models towards a unified model of motivation. They explained that by renaming variables, the two theories had greater commonality; however, the unified theory was not pursued.

There is no real pathway to empirically prove the superiority of one set of theories over another, as they all stem from the same premise following the Hawthorne studies: that people receiving due attention are motivated to work even if the effect of the attention is limited. The motivation theories were examples of academic endeavours adopted by the mid-century in the U.S, France and Germany and popularised through the media and corporate policies.

3.2.2 Process theories

During the following decades, research attention fell on the notion of job satisfaction, a complex framework which appeared to consolidate all the variables under one title. Process theories of motivation were distinct from the needs or content motivation theories of Maslow and others. McSweeney and Swindell (1999) described motivation process theorists as employing actions as reinforcers, whereby approaching the aspired goal leads to decreased intensity of behaviour and losing contact with the goal has the opposite effect of intensifying goal-seeking behaviour. Other psychology-based theories on ‘productivity’ (or morale) in the mid-20th century included opponent process theory, equity theory, and expectancy theory. These are discussed below.

By the 1970s Landy (1978) posited that in the new field of industrial and organisational psychology, job satisfaction appeared as an affective component in motivation theories, thus bridging the gap between content motivation and job satisfaction theories. Landy (1978) suggested opponent process theory in the relationship between job satisfaction and work motivation: “that every excursion from hedonic neutrality is accompanied by an attempt to bring the excursion back within ‘normal’ limits” (Landy 1978, p. 533). Thus a return to normal occurs through an opposing factor (hedonic), and this opposition grows in strength with use (cognitive).

Opponent process theory was adopted by other disciplines, notably sales (Oliver 1981) and medicine (Solomon, 1980). However, Organ and Near (1985) posited that cognitive and affective systems may be independent of each other and questioned the appropriate means of measuring affect. Of interest to this study, Georgellis and Tabvuma (2010) studied public service motivation using opponent process theory. They investigated the assumption that public service has an element of altruism, thus recruiting people who indicated a degree of altruism assisted in overcoming incentive issues and may increase organisational efficiency. Georgellis and Tabvuma (2010) explained that in research conducted from a psychological

perspective, monetary rewards are thought to have a detrimental effect on intrinsic motivation. Instead, non-monetary incentives, such as verbal reinforcement and supportive feedback, can better motivate employees. For example, studies have shown that monetary rewards for blood donations did not motivate potential donors but instead undermine the social values of blood donation.

The results were that public service motivation did not rapidly return to baseline levels; and this finding was also supported with employment changes within the public sector. Georgellis and Tabvuma (2010) provided evidence for recruiting people who were intrinsically motivated to work in the public sector.

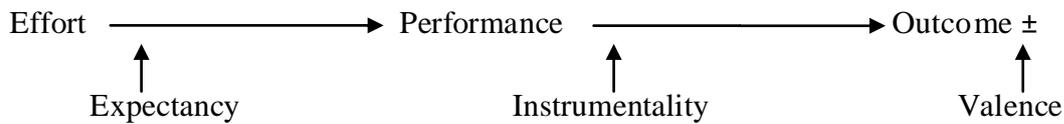
Equity theory (or inequity theory) was posited by Adams (1963) to explain organisational behaviour. Adams asserted that employees seek to balance, or maintain equity, between their skills, knowledge and effort, and perceived rewards. This could be termed process motivation; however, Adams selected equity theory to distinguish the field. If people are treated fairly they wish to maintain the status quo with their team relationships and towards the organisation. Adams' theory specified "the conditions under which inequity will arise and the means by which it may be reduced or eliminated" (Adams 1963, p.422). Equity theory was also questioned by Clark and Oswald (1996) who reported that employees' satisfaction level is influenced by the rate of wages.

Expectancy theory was proposed by Vroom (1964) to explain motivation. The theory posits that an individual's perception of an outcome influences the level of motivation. It assumes that there is a choice between behaviour that has a pleasant outcome and those with unpleasant outcomes. Simple goal-directed behaviour is insufficient; there are factors including those such as skills, knowledge and experience that influence an employee's performance, and the individual's expectations of outcomes. The theory is based on three components:

- expectancy that increased effort will yield better performance
- instrumentality; that effort leads to reward
- valence or value of the reward to the individual (Vroom, 1964).

When a desired state for these three components (expectancy, instrumentality, and valence) is met, a 'motivational force' occurs. The higher the motivational force, the more a person will be motivated to obtain the outcomes of the job. Valence, instrumentality, and expectancy

must all be high to achieve motivational force; if any one of the components is low, motivation will be negatively affected (Turcan 2010) (Figure 3.2).



Source: Cherrenghion (1994, p.149).

Figure 3.2 *Elements of expectancy theory*

Hackman and Porter (1968) contributed to the debate supplying measurement of variables identified under expectancy theory. This contributed empirical support in a study of telephone company employees, finding that expectancy elements related “significantly to ratings of job involvement and effort, company performance appraisals, and error and sales data” (Hackman & Porter 1968, p.417). They argued that management could thus diagnose the individual’s motives and by supplying appropriate rewards, change the individual’s performance. As noted in the preceding section, Carraher (2011) found support for both equity and expectancy theories in employees’ intention to leave.

Studying a petroleum distributor in two locations, Iran and Kurdistan, Abadi, Jalilvand, Sharif, Salimi and Khanzadeh (2011) identified motivating factors based on expectancy theory. Their findings revealed that location, expectancy, intrinsic instrumentality, and intrinsic valence affected employees’ motivation to attend training; however, the motivational force was insufficient to satisfy employees’ expectations regarding outcomes from training. Using determination theory, Cho and Perry (2012) found that goal directedness motivates employee satisfaction, whereas extrinsic rewards expectancy decreases the motivational leverage; both factors negatively influence turnover intention.

Process theories of motivation impact job satisfaction, which according to Bowling Beehr, Wagner and Libkuman (2005), are partially the result of disposition (individual differences) and opponent process. Bowling et al. (2005) posit that disposition influences job satisfaction, reactions to workplace events, and return to equilibrium after the event.

3.3 Job design

Job design originated during the industrial revolution and was arguably formalised by Frederick Taylor (1911) as ‘the one best way’ to undertake a task as part of ‘scientific

management'. However, oversimplification of job tasks led to monotony that resulted in low employee satisfaction, absenteeism and increased turnover (Hackman & Lawler 1971). To address these issues, theories were developed based on work practices and motivation (Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman 1959; Hackman & Lawler 1971; Hackman & Oldham 1975). The model of Hackman and Oldham is extensively cited in the work design literature. Hackman and Oldham (1976) nominated job characteristics for more satisfying work structures: autonomy in work routines, the use of different skills, amount of input into the project (item or service), the social significance of the work, and feedback from the supervisor. Hackman and Oldham's Job Diagnostic Survey, and the later Job Characteristics Model (Hackman & Oldham, 1980), were subsequently amended several times. However, Idaszak, Bottom and Drasgow (1988) found that validity of the outcome was dependent on larger samples than typically used. Similarly, Taber and Taylor (1990) found that there were issues with the survey's psychometric properties, recommending significant review. Parts of the survey are used in emerging countries but it was found that the relationship between job redesign and job satisfaction was not linear (Janssen 2001). In the Netherlands, Steijn (2008) used a dataset to study person-environment fit, finding that it was more important with public sector workers than private sector employees.

Another job design structure developed by Karasek and Theorell (1990) was the control-demand-support model. Unlike the motivational job characteristics model, the control-demand-support model was based on health, and promoting a healthy working environment in the relatively stable organisational climate in the 1970s and 1980s. Initially, the model comprised job demands and decision latitude; however it evolved over time to four parts:

- passive jobs: low on demands and low on decision latitude (e.g. a guard)
- high strain jobs: high on demands and low on decision latitude (e.g. call-centre)
- low strain jobs: low on demands and high on decision latitude (a wildlife photographer)
- active jobs: high on both demands and decision latitude (e.g. physicians) (Daniels, LeBlanc & Davis 2014).

The job design literature reached its limits in the late 20th century as technology decimated the sector and manufacturing jobs globalised. From the 1980s, increasing sophistication of highly engineered products, such as machinery, were best served through dispersed production of components and local assembly. By the early 21st century, even assembly

became redundant as quality standards rose and manufacturers were forced through competitive pressures and regulation to service their products (Block & Keller 2014).

As editors, Grant, Fried, Parker and Frese (2010) explained these organisational and workforce changes resulted in increasingly service-based and diversified jobs, and these were studied by researchers in many fields: psychology (e.g. Lawrence 2010), sociology (e.g. Davis 2010; Erez 2010) organisation (Becker & Huselid 2010) and entrepreneurship (Baron 2010).

In this debate, there have also been calls for a shift in the emphasis placed on job design. Grandey and Diamond (2010) note that the original job characteristics theory was embedded in manufacturing, and job design now needs to focus on social interactions, especially engaging with customers, that are critical to the service economy. Morgeson, Dierdorff and Hmurovic (2010) raised the need to include education and training for the occupation or profession in designing jobs for the task and the organisational situation. Piccolo, Greenbaum, Hartog and Folger (2010) advocated the need for job design to encourage team leaders with decision-making and ethical behaviour to enrich the autonomy and significance of work.

Job crafting appears to be replacing job design in the literature, as researchers find the means by which workers adjust to their job descriptions and jobs evolve in relation to the worker. In contemporary job design literature, Tims, Bakker and Derks (2012) developed and validated a job crafting scale. Job crafting occurs when an employee adapts the job characteristics to respond to changes in demand, resources, or due to intrinsic changes in organisational processes such as organisational change, technology, or customer requirements. Employees also fit their jobs to meet personal competencies, preferences and needs. Working in the Netherlands, (n = 1181), Tims, Bakker and Derks (2012) found that the scale correlated with aspects of the job characteristics survey, and as self-reports with peer-rated reports. In recognition of the structural change in job design literature, Humphrey, Nahrgang and Morgeson (2007) conducted a literature survey (n = 259 studies, 219,625 participants) to identify the relative weighting of motivational, social, and work context characteristics in work design. They found that motivation was influential (>25% of variance) on performance, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment. Social characteristics were influential only in organisational commitment, whilst work context was not influential on any variable.

Demerouti and Bakker (2014) explained that as worker concepts evolve to encompass global self-managed teams for international firms at one end of the spectrum to contractors working from home at the other, work (or job) design becomes more approximate and outcomes-led. Demerouti and Bakker (2014) stated that organisations are increasingly using ‘bottom-up’ approaches to overcome the inadequacies of job redesign. Job crafting also provides autonomy and flexibility for workers exploring different methods to achieve task objectives. The components of job crafting are seeking resources, seeking challenges, and reducing demands (Demerouti & Bakker 2014).

Using both for-profit and not-for-profit organisations in their study, Berg, Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2010) found that higher-rank participants viewed job crafting in relation to their positions of directing the work, whilst lower-ranked workers saw challenges as located in their jobs and their expected outputs. Petrou, Demerouti, Peeters, Schaufeli and Hetland (2012) used the outcome of work engagement to explore processes in task completion by workers: seeking resources, seeking challenges, and reducing demands. High work pressure and high autonomy (active jobs) were associated with more time seeking resources and seeking to reduce demands. As expected, ‘challenge-seeking’ was positively associated with work engagement, and seeking to reduce demands was negatively associated with day-level work engagement (Petrou et al. 2012).

3.4 Job satisfaction

These theories lead toward the focus of this study, job satisfaction in the Saudi public service. Early theorists developed theories of job satisfaction, for example, Wernimont (1966), who established notions of intrinsic and extrinsic factors to job satisfaction. Wernimont (1966) studied the responses of professionals to both closed and open questions in their experience of satisfying and dissatisfying job situations, finding that more ‘intrinsic’ than ‘extrinsic’ items were mentioned in describing past satisfying situations: achievement, the nature of the work, and responsibility. Wernimont (1966) concluded that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors influence satisfaction, although intrinsic factors were stronger. Again, despite criticism (King 1970), the intrinsic-extrinsic two-factor theory caught the attention of researchers who proceeded to test the theory. One such study was O'Reilly and Caldwell (1980) who found that those who made job choices on intrinsic bases were more satisfied and committed than those who used extrinsic factors (e.g. salary, work and family, location).

3.4.1 Models of job satisfaction

As well as theoreticians such as Locke (1976), early researchers into job satisfaction studied manufacturing firms, and an example was Hulin and Smith's (1965) study of job satisfaction in US electronics firms. To measure job satisfaction, they employed dependent variables of satisfaction: work type, pay, supervision, promotion opportunities and co-worker relationships; and six independent variables: age, tenure with the company and length of time on the job, job level, salary, and salary desired minus salary received. However, support was found only for male workers and this was related in linear form to satisfaction with work and pay. Job satisfaction was then linked to turnover (e.g. Mobley 1977) and organisational commitment by Williams and Anderson (1991), who posited intrinsic and extrinsic cognitive variables. Surveys for job satisfaction followed the various interests of the researchers and variables were not uniform. Lawler and Porter (1967) noted this tendency in their linking of job satisfaction to performance as an outcome of performance.

The University of Minnesota also produced a survey, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire in long and short forms, which were then regularly updated (Weiss, Hendel, Dawis & Lofquist. 1971; Weiss 2007). The Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector 1997) and the Faces scale (Kunin 1955) are also widely used to measure job satisfaction.

Developed in the mid-20th century by Weiss et al. (1971), the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire was adopted widely for its ability to measure two dimensions of job satisfaction comprising extrinsic and intrinsic factors. Due to its popularity, there has been extensive study undertaken on the questionnaire. In a meta-study analysis, Brown (1996) found support for differentiation between personality and situational variables. Brown confirmed findings by Moorman (1993), and Brown's claims were supported by Bouchard (1997). Hirschfeld (2000) noted that subscales of the short-form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire were consistent with the theoretical distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction, although there was some concern expressed by Schriesheim, Powers, Scandura, Gardiner and Lankau (1993) and Spector (1997) regarding the quality of the construct validity. To address these concerns, Hirschfeld (2000) used test variables to examine changes to the short form of the questionnaire in relation to its construct validity. The findings of the test were that there had been no change in validity through the changes to the short form of the questionnaire.

Subsequently, many researchers in a number of fields studied intrinsic and extrinsic factors of job satisfaction. For example, Kalleberg (1977) studied differences in values and job characteristics as job rewards, using six dimensions of work: relations with co-workers, task itself, financial, career opportunities, convenience, and resource adequacy. Empirical results from the study were that individuals found reward within control over their work. As contemporary researchers working in the public service, Koch and Steers (1978) compared job attachment and job satisfaction with respect to turnover among a sample of public employees, finding that attachment was a more effective predictor of turnover than overall satisfaction. More recently, Janus, Amelung, Baker, Gaitanides, Schwartz and Rundall (2008) studied job satisfaction factors in Germany and the U.S., finding that participation in decision making had common results although other factors varied between the two populations.

This mix of variables, work focus, social environment, organisational policies and practices, leading to various outcomes such as satisfaction and turnover continued (Clark, Kristensen & Westergård-Nielsen [2009] studying equity theory; Coomber & Barriball [2007] investigating intent to leave in nurses; Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter [2001] considering burnout; and Steers [1977] concerned with organisational commitment).

Using intrinsic and extrinsic factors to group variables relating to job satisfaction, intrinsic factors include opportunities to use one's skills and abilities, seeking interesting and challenging work, and being self-sufficient and accepting responsibility, displaying creativity, and receiving sufficient feedback (Spector, 1997). Extrinsic factors originate in the working environment such as support from co-workers and supervisors or are provided by the organisation as a whole, such as remuneration, promotional prospects and training (Mottaz 1985). There is evidence that intrinsic job satisfaction is a stronger predictor of job involvement than is extrinsic job satisfaction (Rich, Lepine & Crawford 2010). Further, Rich et al. suggest that intrinsic job satisfaction has an affective basis, whereas extrinsic job satisfaction does not. Furthermore, demographic factors influence intrinsic job satisfaction more so than extrinsic job satisfaction factors (Furnham, Eracleous & Chamorro-Premuzic 2009). Continuing the predominance of intrinsic factors, (Judge, Piccolo, Podsakoff, Shaw & Rich 2010) performed a meta-study of the relationships between pay scales, an extrinsic factor, and job satisfaction, finding that pay level is only marginally related to satisfaction.

Intrinsic and extrinsic factors are discussed in the context of recent studies in a non-European, U.S. or U.K. context. Intrinsic factors, as noted, have extensive attention in the

literature. Yu (2009) studied Chinese academics, finding that factors that prompted academic job satisfaction related to social work groups and the work itself; and to intrinsic factors such as self-esteem, while dissatisfaction factors were extrinsic, remuneration and prospects of pay and promotion. Employees in the public hospital in Iran were satisfied with their jobs and their social environment, however, Rad and De Moraes (2009) found that they were critical of pay and conditions. In Pakistani medical centres, Khan, Nawaz, Aleem and Hamed (2011) found extrinsic factors of pay and working conditions affected job satisfaction, following Kaya, Koc and Topcu's (2010) similar findings when studying conditions in Turkish banks. However, Kaya, Koc and Topcu (2010) found that the organisational climate as well as employment policies impacted job satisfaction. Şirca, Babnik and Breznik (2012) also found a strong relationship between job satisfaction and employment policies, especially employer support for training and further education. Lambrou, Kontodimopoulos and Niakas (2010) found that an achievement, remuneration, co-workers and job attributes had a strong relationship with job satisfaction among nursing staff of the Nicosia General Hospital in a Cyprus.

3.4.2 National cultures and job satisfaction

Social-cultural contexts can influence job satisfaction. This subsection considers cultural relevance to a debate largely situated in developed countries and business models. Moran, Abramson and Moran (2014) stated that culture impacts the work environment through behaviour, motivation, and thus productivity. Huang and Van De Vliert (2003) found that national culture influence intrinsic motivators. In an associated cultural study of internet adoption in Saudi Arabia, Alsowoyegh (2012) found that culture influences adoption of technology through tribal and family tradition, Islamic law and values, which also influence workplace behaviours and organisational relationships. Therefore, identifying the social-cultural context can assist in understanding employees' behaviour and the reward structure to influence job satisfaction.

Empirical Arabic studies are congruent with the contemporary literature of the era, and offer insight into similar professions that reflect international concern, such as nurses and teachers, often in the public sector. This reflects the frequently expatriate origins of the workforce; for example and given their proximity, there is high mobility between Saudi Arabia and Egypt for Egyptian workers (Matar 2010).

Studying job satisfaction in public hospitals in Kuwait, Al-Enezi, Chowdhury, Shah and Al-Obati (2009) found nurses expressed some satisfaction with praise and recognition, control and responsibility and duty schedules although they were dissatisfied with extrinsic rewards and professional opportunities. Among several studies in the United Arab Emirates, Barhem, Younies and Younis (2010) again showed medium satisfaction in relation to both the public and private sectors, with organisation size as a predictor, whilst Elbanna (2013) investigated the value of strategic management for job satisfaction. Suliman and Al Harethi (2013), Abdulla, Djebarni and Mellahi (2011) and Seba, Rowley and Delbridge (2012) found that intrinsic and extrinsic factors influenced job satisfaction among public sector employees, whilst Randeree and Chaudhry (2012) concurred with these findings in their investigation of the Emirates' construction industry. Studying the impact of financial incentives and morale at Jordanian universities, Al-Nsour (2012) found both financial incentives and morale influenced performance, as measured by internal business practices, employee learning and growth, and customer satisfaction. In an Egyptian business environment, Matar (2010) found dissatisfaction in senior and middle managers with extrinsic factors, and general satisfaction with factors over which the participants had some control. Ramady (2013) and Iles, Almhedie and Baruch (2012) assessed employment retention factors including satisfaction among the GCC countries. Iles, Almhedie and Baruch (2012) indicated that the management models in the region differ from any other places.

In Saudi Arabia Elamin and Alomaim (2011) examined the influence of workplace equity (organisational justice), on job satisfaction in many Saudi industries, finding that equity policies influenced job satisfaction for both Saudi and foreign employees. Al-Aameri (2000) showed nurses in Saudi public hospitals were generally satisfied with their jobs, and committed to their hospitals. Al-Ahmadi (2009) also found moderate satisfaction among employees of the Saudi Ministry of Health in measures of pay, working conditions and recognition. Hertog (2012) among others noted the attraction of secure jobs in the public services. Alasmari and Douglas (2012) found that intention to leave among nurses in Jeddah was significantly associated with demographic factors including age, family status and length of experience, and job satisfaction elements of workload, pay, and prospects for promotion. However, Mitchell (2009) studied job satisfaction and burnout among foreign-trained nurses in Saudi Arabia, finding reports of emotional exhaustion and burnout. Further, they had 'neutral feelings' regarding a professional work environment. Mitchell (2009) advocated for an improved working environment including empowerment to effect change through

collaboration, cooperation, and transformational leadership to recruit and retain qualified nurses. This was confirmed by Almalki, FitzGerald and Clark (2012) when they studied nurses in Jazan province; they found that almost 40 per cent of nurses intended to quit. They called for Saudi authorities to create and maintain a healthy work life for nurses to improve their work satisfaction and reduce turnover.

In the academic field, Al-Rubaish et al. (2011) developed a five-factor, 46-item Academic Job Satisfaction Questionnaire, which they tested on academic staff of the University of Dammam. They found that job satisfaction was difficult to measure in view of the complexity of duties and responsibilities in the academic field. Faculty commitment was also the subject of a Saudi study by Iqbal, Kokash and Al-Oun (2011) of intrinsic factors of organisational commitment that could be associated with intention to leave. To address dissatisfaction elements among the faculty, Iqbal et al. advised university administrators to undertake management training to conduct periodic satisfaction surveys, an open door policy style of management, and to revisit recruitment standards.

Moving to the private sector, recent Saudi studies include Al-Asfour and Khan (2014), Moussa (2013) and Al Zahrani, Zamil, Oraiqat and Alsalhi (2012). Alzalabani and Nair (2011) studied employee empowerment as a factor of job satisfaction in Saudi corporations, with mixed results. Aldhuwaihi, Shee and Stanton (2012) found negative and significant correlation between turnover intention and job satisfaction in the Saudi banking sector. Studying women's satisfaction in the private sector, Mansour and Achoui (2012) stated that Saudi women employees are satisfied overall with their job, which they see as both challenging and secure. They are comfortable with their teams and have adequate resources and supervision. However, they do seek career paths, promotional opportunities and access to greater remuneration and providing this may increase loyalty and reducing turnover intentions.

In summary, the Saudi studies reflect an authoritarian national culture and the lack of continuity in work life due to the presence of expatriate professionals and managers who are on short tenure (Ramady 2010). As the policy of Nitaqat drives more job openings for Saudis, both men and women, there should be more research attention paid to the workplace structures and environment, and organisational policies and practices necessary to attract Saudis and to increase the country's productivity.

Recent regional public sector literature includes the following examples. Studying public sector employees in United Arab Emirates, Alnaqbi (2011) found that satisfaction and intention to leave were influenced predominantly by job security, position, and appropriate job descriptions that enumerated responsibilities, team objectives and organisational goals. Structural issues that were affecting intention to stay included centralised leadership, and the particular responsibilities and influences on employees of line management in comparison with the recruitment policies of human resource management. Alnaqbi (2011) discussed specific elements of the Emirati public sector workplace that may be reflected in this study. These were that public sector executives should define career paths and seek an amenable working environment for staff. Emirati employees required equity in remuneration packages with expatriate workers who dominate the workplaces, for example, providing both expatriate and Emirati employees with airline tickets, housing and telephone allowances. Among Emiratis, men were more concerned with commitment and supervision than were women. Emirati staff without supervisory responsibilities were more satisfied, and this showed that national culture influenced organisational culture. Nevertheless, public sector workers sought empowerment and reported management style as an indicator for retention of employees in Emirati public organisations.

3.4.3 Job satisfaction in the public sector

Over time, public employees' commitment to the interests of their organisation and society is of interest to researchers (Brewer, Selden & Facer 2000; Brackett, Palomera, Mojsa-Kaja, Reyes & Salovey 2010; Dahlström, Lapuente & Teorell 2012; Denhardt & Denhardt 2011; Liu & Tang 2011). The concept of public sector commitment has altered since it was envisaged in the 1960s (Becker 1962) and since found to be influenced by an employee's workplace experiences and the nature of the job (Purcell & Hutchinson 2007).

Seeking job satisfaction variables in local government, Ellickson and Logsdon (2001) found that satisfaction with pay, benefits, and performance appraisals, career opportunities, resources, training, quality of supervisory relationships, and team spirit were significantly and positively related to overall job satisfaction. Brown, Hyatt and Benson (2010) found that performance appraisal influenced employee satisfaction and commitment in the public sector organisations in Australia. In the United States, Jawahar (2006) reported that satisfaction with appraisal performance was associated positively with job satisfaction and organisational commitment and negatively with intention to leave in non-profit organisations. In an Iranian

context, Kebriaei and Motaghedi (2009) found that workers in rural community health were satisfied with some factors such as the work itself and co-workers, but they were dissatisfied with pay and benefits. Kebriaei and Motaghedi (2009) recommended providing opportunities for promotion and improving pay and work conditions to increase employee satisfaction to enhance the quality of care provided. De Souza (2002) found that there is a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and promotion and expectation of promotion in the future among managers in several sectors including the public service in the US. Kostea (2010) used a United States dataset to model the effect of promotion and expectation of future promotion on job satisfaction and found that job satisfaction increased for employees who had been promoted in the past two years; similarly those who expected future promotion had a higher level of job satisfaction. Hertog (2012) found that job security is a critical factor in satisfaction of the Saudi public employee who looks forward to continuous employment until retire or resign.

There was evidence of a relationship between organisational commitment and public servants' motivation (Mobley 1977). However, Steel and Ovalle (1984) conducted a meta-analysis on public employee intent to leave and turnover, finding that intent to leave predicted attrition more so than the nature of work, overall job satisfaction, or organisational commitment. This has been shown to still be the case. Intention to leave in the public sector may also reflect aspects of job satisfaction (Giauque et al. 2012; Kanfer 2012; Taylor & Westover 2011). Taylor and Westover (2011) also found that job security is an influential motivational factor for public sector employees.

There are issues in comparing studies when researchers use different public sector workers whose working conditions and working environments differ through their socioeconomic values and practices, and indeed generations. The conservative Saudi public service differs greatly from many other countries in practicing religious observances at the workplace (Ali 2008; Jabbra & Jreisat 2009). A summary of the early literature includes Wittmer (1991) who posited that public sector employees evince different values to the private sector. Park and Rainey (2008) nevertheless studied leadership in the United States (N = 6900), finding a positive relationship between supportive leaders and greater job satisfaction. Paarlberg and Lavigna (2010) posited the benefits of transformational leadership in the public service. They argued that transformational leadership fosters public service motivation by creating “an alignment between (staff) and the organization’s ideology” (Paarlberg & Lavigna, 2010, p. 711).. Buelens and Van den Broeck (2007) also found that a small sample of Belgian public

sector employees (N = 409) were less extrinsically motivated than the private sector group (N = 3314), although this finding is questioned by the public sector's preference for work-life balance.

In the United Kingdom, Rayner, Williams, Lawton and Allinson (2011) conceptualised public service ethos in terms of belief, delivery and public interest, developing a framework to explain why individuals are motivated by a belief in the public service, and how they deliver public service practices in accord with this ethical stance, and to what they subscribe as public interest (the New Public Management model, Williams, Rayner & Allinson 2012). In testing this model, Williams et al. (2012) surveyed U.K. educators, finding variables (beliefs) were positively associated with both affective and normative organisational commitment, but not continuance organisational commitment, as expected. Thus, public service beliefs were not found to be related to perceived costs of continuing employment with the organisation.

Studying organisational change in the New Zealand Defence Force in the form of outsourcing 'uniform' (sworn officers) jobs into the private sector, Bakewell (2012) studied the impact of the 'psychological contract' on intention to leave in the Royal New Zealand Navy. The Defence Force instigated the Civilianisation Project, that is, they planned to identify jobs that were no longer required to be filled by sworn personnel. In 2011, 308 Defence Force officers were informed that they would be released from the service. Subsequently, morale and satisfaction levels dropped to the lowest point since 2004, and 10.6 per cent of the staff (1015 people) left over the ensuing year. This doubled the already high attrition rate from 10.7 per cent to 21.3 per cent per annum. Bakewell sought to examine the employment relationship of officers in the Royal New Zealand Navy through this relational/transactional orientation of the psychological contract, the mediator affective commitment, and intention to leave the organisation. The researcher found strong linkages between relational contract and intention to leave; and transactional contracts and affective commitment. "This suggests that the psychological contract orientation is both an important predictor of intention to leave, as well as providing a valuable insight into how employees view their career in the Navy" (Bakewell, 2012, abstract).

In a meta-study covering twenty years, Perry, Hondeghem and Wise (2010) surveyed motivation in national public services. They found that motivation for job performance by public servants was underpinned by serving their societies. However, the values associated

with public service differed across nations, and there was insufficient evidence to state whether, apart from serving society, other intrinsic or extrinsic rewards were more important. This fits the general results from the literature. Sell and Cleal (2011) reported remuneration and working environment were determining factors of job satisfaction in the Danish public service, whilst Van der Zee (2009) found that job satisfaction and organisational commitment were related in the South African public services. Alternative job opportunity was a predictor of organisational commitment and family commitments were linked to public service motivation (Camilleri 2006). McCarthy, Tyrrell and Lehane (2006) found that among Irish nurses, a majority cited family needs and job satisfaction when contemplating leaving their jobs.

High organisational commitment may improve performance, and decrease absenteeism and intention as well as imply job satisfaction (Loi, Hang-Yue & Foley 2006). Rose, Kumar and Pak (2009) studied organisational commitment and job satisfaction in Malaysian public service managers, finding links with organisational learning and work performance. In the Turkish public sector, Turkyilmaz, Akman, Ozkan and Pastuszak (2011), found a positive linear relationship between employee satisfaction and employee loyalty and the factors most greatly affecting job satisfaction were: training and employee development, working conditions, reward and recognition, empowerment and, participation and teamwork. For Iranian public servants, Eslami and Gharakhani (2012) found that job satisfaction influenced organisational commitment.

In Saudi Arabia, AlQurashi (2009) investigated organisational commitment in public servants (Ministry employees), finding greater commitment and job satisfaction in the higher ranked positions. People who held higher positions in the hierarchy had stronger affective and normative commitment, whereas those in lower positions had stronger continuance commitment.

Dissatisfaction could be considered as the reason for job turnover in the public sector, for example, Swailes and Fahdi (2011) investigated labour turnover among Oman public servants in the context of Islamic work values. They found that turnover was influenced by management dissatisfaction, the reward system and career progression opportunities. In Israel, Freund (2005) found that career commitment and job satisfaction significantly influenced intention to leave welfare organisations.

In summary, it appears that emerging theory, time, and the methodologies applied by the various researchers influence research outcomes. Without using more resources than are available for this study, it is difficult to fully establish the context, data collection and analysis employed by the various researchers, and if their work is in fact comparable. For the purposes of this study, the overarching commitment theory of Meyer and Allen (1991) based on affective, continuance, and normative commitments are appropriate.

3.5 Relationships between organisational commitment, turnover and job satisfaction

The synthesis of the effect of job satisfaction on commitment, and intention to stay or leave the organisation is set out in this section. A discussion on commitment is followed by a similar discourse on intention to leave (turnover).

3.5.1 Organisational commitment

The mid-20th century emphasis on job satisfaction and its corollaries widened to include other research fields such as management and organisation. Using the new discipline of human resource management, Meyer and Allen (1991) proposed an organisational commitment model based on affective, continuance, and normative commitment to explain employee behaviour, and this was successfully tested for generalisability by Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993). In this model, affective commitment is an emotional attachment to the organisation where the individual identifies with the employer and is committed to the goals of the firm. Affective commitment includes job clarity, goal clarity, job challenge, peer cohesion, equity, status and feedback. However, Beck and Wilson (2000) in measuring affective commitment found that it dissipated over time. Taylor, Levy, Boyacigiller and Beechler (2008) further state that affective commitment is conditional on equity in treatment, acknowledgement of the employee's contribution, and trustworthiness of the employer. Stazyk, Pandey and Wright (2011) found that affective commitment in public service in the United States was influenced by the organisation's human resource policies and the influence of external control on goal clarity. In Norway, Kuvaas (2006) found a relationship between performance appraisal satisfaction and affective commitment and intention to leave. Continuance commitment is defined by Meyer and Allen (1991) as the perceived costs associated with leaving an organisation. Boichuk and Menguc (2013) noted that economic benefits in the form of good pay and conditions foster this kind of commitment. The employee's level of continuance commitment will be high when the cost of leaving is perceived as high and low when the cost

is expected to be low. These costs can include superannuation, seniority and organisational competencies, and a social environment (Kuo 2013).

The third element of commitment developed by Meyer and Allen's (1991) is normative commitment, or employee's attitude relating to ethical aspects of remaining in the organisation, that it is a moral issue. People are bound by their values to remain with the organisation, unlike in the affective or continuance dimensions. A debate on a normative value to public servants' commitment to their work, (thus the organisation's values) ensued, with Perry (1996) developing a 'normative' scale to measure civic duty, public interest, self-sacrifice, social justice, and compassion. However, Meyer and Parfyonova (2010) found that normative commitment was sometimes dismissed as having similarities to affective commitment and thus does not explain work behaviours. Meyer and Parfyonova argued that, depending on the strength of an employee's commitment, normative commitment acts as a mediating variable. Normative commitment can appear either as a moral duty or a sense of indebtedness and both have implications for employee behaviour. There is some evidence of a normative component in public service commitment in India (Natarajan & Nagar 2013), Italy (Markovits et al. 2010) and Switzerland (Giauque, Ritz, Varone & Anderfuhren-Bige 2012).

There is a growing research interest in factors associated with Meyer and Allen's (1991) model, and global aspects of culture arise. Karim and Noor (2006) found it effective in predicting turnover among Malaysian librarians. Meyer et al. (2012) conducted meta-analyses of organisational commitment for affective, normative, and continuance commitment across 54 countries. The researchers correlated commitment with cultural values such as individualism and collectivism, finding that cultural values explained variance in normative commitment and affective commitment, but not continuance commitment. In a Turkish hospitality study, Gunlu, Aksarayli and Perçin (2010) investigated hotel managers' job satisfaction, finding that job satisfaction had a significant effect on both normative and affective commitment, but not on continuance commitment. Commitment at work is related to employee absenteeism and retention (Somers 2010), job performance (Colquitt, LePine & Wesson 2009), organisational citizenship (Lavelle et al. 2009), organisational change (Meyer et al. 2010), career (Weng, McElroy, Morrow and Liu 2010) and job satisfaction.

In relation to employee retention, Somers (2010) found high turnover rates for poorly socialised employees, and posited that employees who lack commitment are more likely to

leave their organisations. This point is discussed further in the following section. Similarly, Garland, Hogan, Kelley, Kim and Lambert. (2013) investigated organisational commitment continuance among prison staff, finding no significant relationship between continuance commitment and turnover intent and absenteeism. The researchers suggest that enhancing employees' affective commitment has positive effects for both employees and the organisation.

Studying commitment and corporate citizenship, Lavelle et al. (2009) investigated employees' attitudes and behaviours towards a range of factors in the workplace, including the organisation itself, supervisors, and team members. Relationships were found between commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour, and there was a mediating effect of commitment between procedural fairness and organisational citizenship behaviour. In a meta-study of commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour, Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff and Blume (2009) found that these behaviours were related to enhanced employee performance and rewards, and also to withdrawal-related criteria such as turnover and absenteeism. In addition, organisational citizenship behaviour was also related to a range of organisational-level outcomes (e.g. productivity, reduced costs, efficiency and customer satisfaction). Podsakoff et al. (2009) also found stronger relationships between citizenship behaviour and performance in longitudinal studies than in cross-sectional studies. Arguably, citizenship behaviours build over time.

Organisational change was studied by Meyer, Hecht, Gill and Toplonysky (2010) in terms of organisational commitment. This was a longitudinal study on employee-organisation fit, relating to employees' affective commitment and intention to stay during the early stages of organisational change. Findings by Meyer et al. (2010) were that both perceived culture and culture fit related positively with intention to stay after the change was completed.

When studying the influence of commitment on career, Weng et al. (2010) examined the relationship between career growth and organisational commitment using Meyer and Allen's three-component model in the People's Republic of China. The results showed that affective commitment was positively related to career growth, and more generally to both continuance and normative commitment. Their conclusions were that career growth factors influence commitment in a linear relationship, rather than in a cumulative manner. In relation between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, Froese and Xiao (2012) studied elements of job satisfaction in China, finding the intrinsic elements of job autonomy satisfaction and risk-

taking predicted organisational commitment more so than did pay satisfaction. They also found that demographic variables were significantly related to extrinsic job satisfaction and income indirectly influenced affective commitment. In a Lebanese banking context, Dirani and Kuchinke (2011) showed that satisfaction predicted commitment.

3.5.2 Turnover (intention to leave)

As part of withdrawal-related behaviour turnover, or intention to leave, may be of consequence to the organisation if it is the productive employees who are discontented. Researchers argued that a dissatisfied employee was more likely to leave the job than one who was satisfied; however, the relationship between the two variables is not strong. In a study for the U.S. Defense Department, Chen et al. (2011) studied the relationship between changes to employees' job satisfaction over time and change in turnover intentions. They found that career anticipation and the length of time in the job moderate the relationship between job satisfaction, change and future work expectations. Thus, a decrease in job satisfaction may occur if a promotion is not forthcoming, and this increases over time; intention to leave may emerge in this situation.

This complexity between job satisfaction and intention to leave is of importance to many employers who invest considerable resources, human and monetary, into their staff. Using organisational culture as the independent variable, MacIntosh and Doherty (2010, p.106) examined its effects on both job satisfaction and intention to leave in the fitness industry. "The Cultural Index for Fitness Organisations was developed" by MacIntosh and Doherty (2010, p. 106) "to measure" "the values, beliefs and basic assumptions that" assist and "guide and coordinate member behaviour" "in the fitness industry". The results were inconclusive, highlighting "the multidimensionality of organisational culture" "in the fitness industry". Studying Malaysian nurses, Alam and Mohammad (2010) tested job satisfaction and intention to leave. They found that nurses were satisfied with some factors, such as supervisors and organisational policies, and that they have no intention to leave their jobs.

However, studying staff in U.S. nursing homes, Decker, Harris-Kojetin and Bercovitz (2009) explored relationships between intrinsic job satisfaction, overall job satisfaction, and intention to leave the organisation. They found supervisor's behaviour and pay levels were strongly related to intrinsic satisfaction. On the other hand, overall satisfaction and intrinsic satisfaction, not supervisor's behaviour, were the strongest linkages to intention to leave,

suggesting that intrinsic satisfaction may be a moderating variable. Decker, Harris-Kojetin and Bercovitz (2009), Al-Kahtani (2012) and Parboteeah, Cullen and Paik (2013) posit that an organisation can improve extrinsic job factors to improve employees' intrinsic satisfaction, and contend that these matters are highly complex. In the Australian aged-care workforce, quitting is lower than the United States, but still of concern. King, Wei and Howe (2013) examined the impact of a range of factors on worker satisfaction and employment conditions on intention to leave. They found overall satisfaction on the job, however, advocate for changes to organisational policy and practices such as on-going work contracts.

International studies include Icelandic health care, where Sveinsdóttir and Blöndal (2013) studied nurses' intention to leave in relation to supervision, finding factors influencing turnover such as supervisor indifference, lower-status work and a non-competitive work climate. This finding may support the intrinsic satisfaction arguments of Chen et al. (2011), Pitts, Marvel and Fernandez (2011) and Decker, Harris-Kojetin, and Bercovitz (2009).

In summary, intention to leave appears to be generally separated from the outcomes of variables that constitute the dimension of job satisfaction. Whilst there are mediating relationships among the satisfaction factors and the intention to leave factors, cause and effect (predictors) are difficult to establish.

3.6 Theoretical framework

In general, the results of this literature review revealed little support for the content theories; whereas process theories have some support (De Klerk 2005). However, an issue with motivation and satisfaction models is that the data used, evaluated and tested differed between studies and nations, and may not similarly affect Saudi public servants (Smith & Bond 1993).

Research attention across many disciplines and different cultural contexts is depicted as a range of variables in Figure 3.3 Extrinsic factors originate from the environment, so that these variables include organisational policies and practices, relationships with supervisor and team members, working conditions including pay and promotion. On the other hand, intrinsic factors such as skills and knowledge, attitude, aspirations and individual differences form the intrinsic variables. In turn, it is posited that, clustered or individually, such variables influence job satisfaction and as a consequence productivity is impacted for the organisation; similarly if the impact on job satisfaction is negative, the individual will leave. Based on the

literature review, the factors affecting job satisfaction were clustered into two groups, extrinsic and intrinsic (Abdulla, Djebarni & Mellahi 2011; Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman 1959; Rafiq, Javed, Khan & Ahmed 2012; Randolph 2005; Rehman & Waheed 2011; Yu 2009). The outcomes from these factors are characterised as negative, that is that they lead to turnover; or positive, which leads towards organisational commitment and therefore reduces turnover (Dirani & Kuchinke 2011; Freund 2005; Gunlu, Aksarayli & Perçin 2010; Kanfer 2012; Loi, Hang-Yue & Foley 2006; McCarthy, Tyrrell & Lehane 2006). The model is depicted in Figure 3.3 shown below:

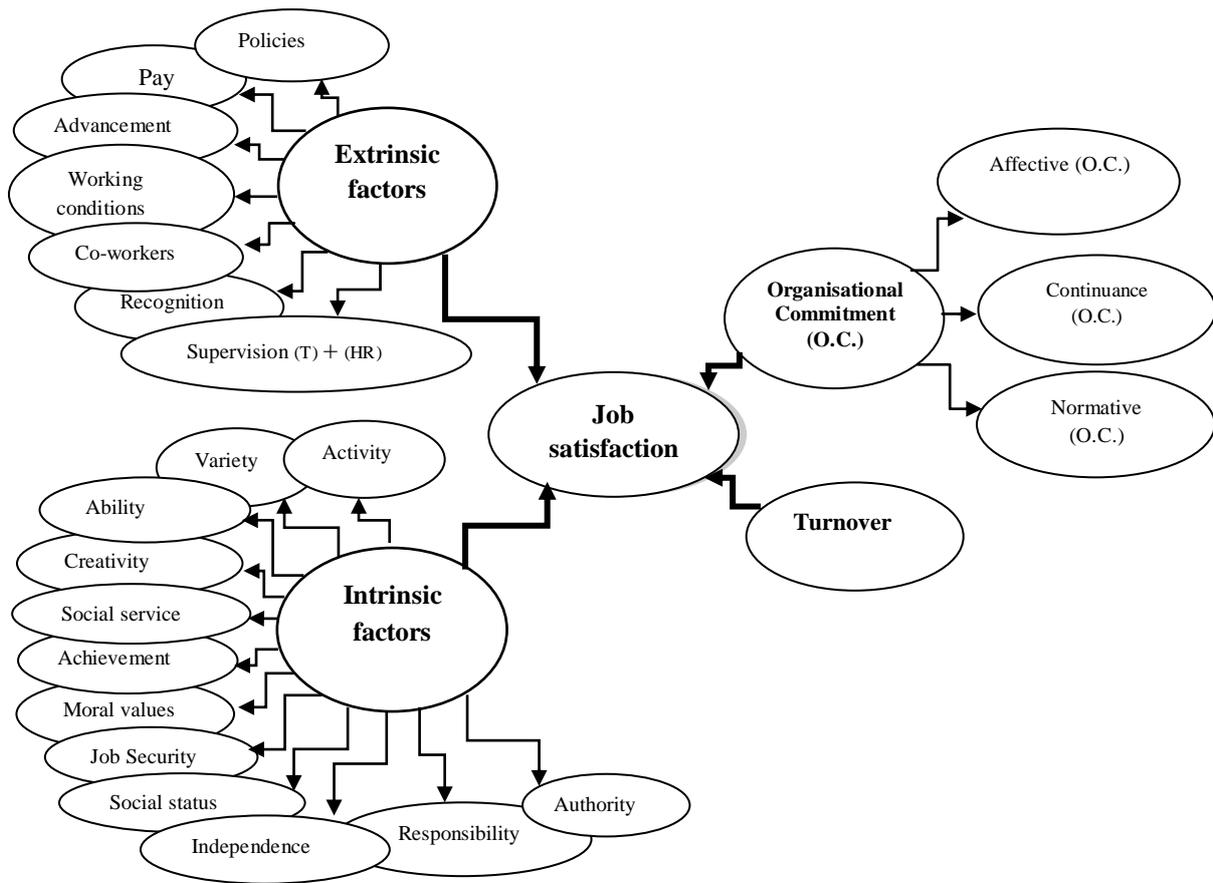


Figure 3.3 Model of job satisfaction

This research categorises intrinsic factors regarding values, competencies and beliefs, and extrinsic factors of organisational conditions and social relationships. The intention is to identify causal factors among these variables and recommend possible courses of action in response. This includes the effects of job satisfaction on organisational commitment and turnover. The relationships between these concepts are shown by Figure 3.3.

3.7 Research model

There are gaps in the literature identified and addressed by this research. The first is that researchers approach job satisfaction from different disciplines and perspectives; thus there is no accord regarding dominant variables. On the second point, there are differences in the findings that address intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Yu (2009) and Randolph (2005) suggest that intrinsic factors are more significant, whilst others such as Judge et al. (2010) and Rehman (2012) indicate that, if only marginally, extrinsic factors are related to job satisfaction.

The remaining gap is that there are many studies representing different jurisdictions and working conditions, which do not reflect the Saudi environment and there is little research on job satisfaction in the Saudi public sector, as shown in Table 3.2 below.

Table 3.2 *Research on job satisfaction in Saudi Arabia*

Author/s	Study
Iqbal et al. 2011	Saudi academics: demographic characteristics and management style influence on job satisfaction
Al-Ahmadi 2009	Riyadh nurses: job satisfaction in health Ministry
Al-Aameri 2000; Alasmari & Douglas, 2012	Saudi nurses: job satisfaction
Al-Rubaish et al. 2011	Saudi academics: created job satisfaction questionnaire
Mansour & Achoui 2011	Saudi female employees: job satisfaction
Elamin and Alomaim 2011	Job satisfaction in Saudi industries.

Organisational and societal culture can influence management decision making (Harris, Moran & Moran 2004). In this context, many researchers argue that managers with different cultural backgrounds may express different needs and different expectations (Haire, Ghiselli, & Porter 1963; Badawy 1980; Al-Meer 1996). Brown and Humphreys (1995, 2002) studied cultural differences between public sector employees in Egypt and the United Kingdom. They found that Egyptian respondents interpreted their identity through culture as apparently unique, and this nostalgia gave emotional support during organisational change. Adler and Gundersen (2007, p.186) opined that: “Human needs may well include fundamental or universal aspects, but their importance and the ways in which they express themselves vary across cultures”. Badawy (1980) and Yavas and Yasin (1999) indicated that Saudi culture is different from any other culture, thus Saudi society and its workplaces should be viewed

differently, in light of the country's culture. Alsowoyegh (2012) found that culture influences adoption of technology through tribal and family tradition, Islamic law and values, which also influence workplace behaviours and relationships within organisations.

As Figure 3.3 in the previous section shows, motivation is a driver of job satisfaction but national and organisational culture can affect the level of felt job satisfaction, as illustrated above. Thus Job satisfaction has been found to be demonstrated by the type of organisational commitment exhibited and intention to leave (or remain with) the organisation. This provides the foundation for the research presented in this thesis. This research explored the affect of national culture on job satisfaction in the public sector in Saudi Arabia, as the literature review revealed that current research was largely western-country and organisation based. This research therefore sought to close that gap by exploring job satisfaction within the public sector in Saudi Arabia and the research followed the process outlined in Figure 3.4 below.

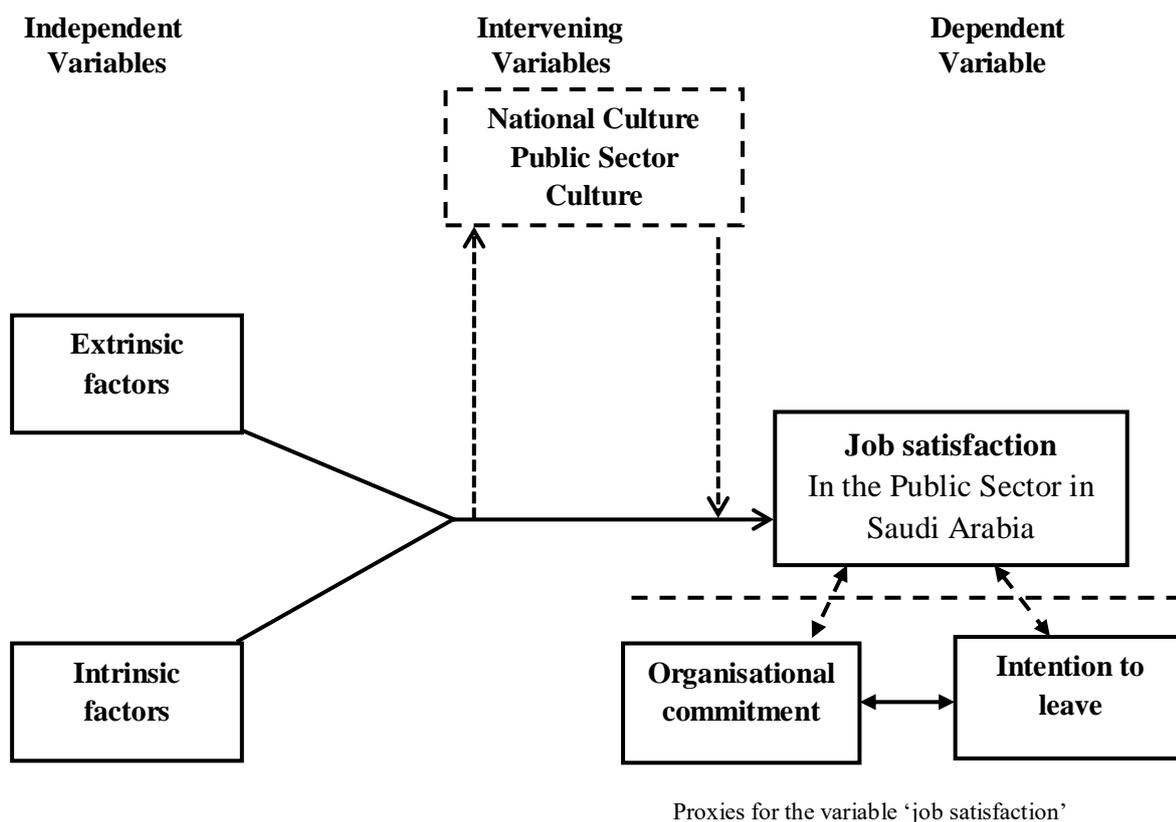


Figure 3.4: Research Model

The model in Figure 3.4 describes the relationships between the independent and dependent variables and the influence of job satisfaction on commitment and decision to quit in the

public sector. There is little research on job satisfaction in the Saudi public sector, as shown in Table 3.2. Thus this research will add to the body of knowledge in that regard.

The models, or measures, used in this study were the Arabic satisfaction commitment questionnaire (ASCQ) (Dirani & Kuchinke 2011); overall job satisfaction scale adapted from Motaz (1985) and Rafiq et al. (2012); organisational commitment questionnaire (OCQ) Meyer et al. (2012); and a scale for intention to leave the organisation (Crossley, Bennett, Jex & Burnfield 2007). Selection of these measures is discussed further in the methodology chapter.

3.8 Questions and hypotheses

The conceptual framework supports the research questions and the hypotheses to answer them:

1. What are the factors that influence job satisfaction in the Saudi public sector?

To answer this question, the following hypotheses were tested:

H1₀ There is no relationship between job satisfaction and intrinsic factors

H1₁ There is a relationship between job satisfaction and intrinsic factors

H2₀ There is no relationship between job satisfaction and extrinsic factors

H2₁ There is a relationship between job satisfaction and extrinsic factors.

Additionally, studies that address intrinsic and extrinsic factors are inconclusive regarding the significance of such factors. Randolph (2005) established that intrinsic factors such as career aspirations and a supportive working environment are of more consequence in predicting career satisfaction than are extrinsic factors such as pay and continuing education. In a Chinese study, Yu (2009) found that for academics, work-related factors that prompted job satisfaction related to work groups, the work itself and to intrinsic factors such as self-esteem, self-efficacy and self-actualisation, while the factors that contributed to dissatisfaction were mostly extrinsic factors related to pay and promotion. Other studies indicate that the extrinsic factors predominate in job satisfaction. For instance, Rafiq et al. (2012) examined the effect of intrinsic and extrinsic factors on job satisfaction in Pakistan, finding that for call centre employees, extrinsic factors led to job satisfaction more so than intrinsic factors. This leads to the second research question:

2. Which factors (extrinsic or intrinsic) are more significant for middle managers in the Saudi public sector?

To answer this question, the following hypotheses were tested:

H3₀ Extrinsic factors are more significant than intrinsic factors

H3₁ Extrinsic factors are less significant than intrinsic factors

The effects of job satisfaction may be linked to staff turnover or to employee commitment. These can be termed as negative consequences leading to intent to leave, or positive outcomes, which arguably lead to greater organisational commitment (Dirani & Kuchinke 2011; Gunlu, Aksarayli & Perçin 2010; Freund 2005; Kanfer 2012; Loi, Hang-Yue & Foley 2006; McCarthy, Tyrrell & Lehane, 2006). Thus, this leads to the following question:

3. What are the effects of job satisfaction on the organisations in terms of intention to leave and organisational commitment?

To answer this question, the following hypotheses were tested:

H4₀ Job satisfaction is positively associated with organisational commitment.

H4₁ job satisfaction is not positively associated with organisational commitment.

H5₀ job satisfaction is negatively associated with intention to leave.

H5₁ job satisfaction is not negatively associated with intention to leave.

3.9 Chapter summary

This chapter, the literature review and conceptual framework, sets out the theoretical basis for this study relating to job satisfaction in the Saudi public sector and its influences on organisational commitment and intention to leave. First, the contributions of economists and engineers to employee work structures and organisational practices were explored. It appears that these concepts were evolutionary, following the agrarian capitalist structure, then meeting the human resource needs of the industrial revolution that was layered upon capitalism.

Research fields were opened up by the Hawthorne studies and the proliferation of theories on motivation, productivity and organisational development provided by psychologists and social psychologists in the middle decades of the 20th century. Motivational theories towards productivity posited by Maslow, McGregor and Herzberg were explored; it appeared that

these were difficult to test empirically, and the different models had many common factors and processes that tended to defy comparison. They are nevertheless of historical interest, as Kenrick et al.'s (2010) changing of Maslow's hierarchy of needs to meet 21st century conditions testifies.

The research findings associated with job satisfaction, organisational commitment and the different case of public service employees were discussed and these largely empirical studies relating to the regional literature and especially that of Saudi Arabia were presented. The gap in the literature was thus defined as two-fold: that factors that influence job satisfaction were approached by researchers from different disciplines, and that these results are thus difficult to compare empirically and therefore inconclusive. The second part of the gap in the literature refers to the possible predominance of either intrinsic (individual) or extrinsic (organisational) factors that influence job satisfaction. This leads to considering a negative satisfaction result as possibly leading to intent to leave; and a positive result as possibly leading to organisational commitment. These constructs lead to the research questions and the hypotheses that tested the various assumptions. The next chapter introduces the methodology selected to test the hypotheses and thus to test the Job Satisfaction Model.

Chapter 4 Methodology

The previous chapters presented the detailed research background and the conceptual framework for this study on job satisfaction in the Saudi public sector. This chapter is concerned with the methodology used for the primary research in relation to the research paradigm, research design, and data collection methods employed in the study. The first section begins with a theoretical discussion of the importance of the research paradigm in orienting a study and argues for the selection of a critical realist paradigm in this research. The next section discusses the rationale for selecting a mixed methods approach as the research design for this study, and explains the relevance of interspersing a qualitative and quantitative method for more rigorous results. The third section explains the measures used in the quantitative questionnaire. The last section contains notes on the sampling technique and ethical procedures applied in this study before the process of data collection and the analysis applied in both the quantitative and qualitative phases of the research.

4.1 Research paradigm

This section presents the philosophies ascribed to research: the existing paradigms. The paradigms are presented as a discussion, from which the paradigm attributed to this study is drawn. The section therefore briefly considers the epistemologies and methodologies relevant to each paradigm and the evolution of these concepts.

The main research paradigms are positivism, post-positivism, social constructivism, and critical realism (Alvesson & Sköldberg 2009). Each change describes a paradigm shift (Kuhn & Hacking 1962/2012). Positivism was the dominant paradigm for much of the 20th century and concerned theory and rigour of data collection, induction and deduction, statements that appeared to be immutable, verification and generalisation of findings. From this robust debate emerged the paradigm of social constructivism. As the name suggests, Alvesson and Sköldberg (2009) describe this paradigm as a disclosure of how social phenomena are constructed. Social constructivism is associated with post-modernism, feminism, and critical theory.

Critical realism seeks to replace social constructivism and is aligned to critical theory and shares some aspects of positivism (Alvesson & Sköldberg 2009). Critical realism, introduced by Bhaskar (1989/2011), contends that “both positivism and social constructivism are too

superficial, unrealistic and anthropocentric” (Alvesson & Sköldbberg 2009, p.16). Positivism relies on one set of data for all knowledge, and theories merely link the sets of data, whereas social constructivism is derived from social constructions and should not be imbued with meaning beyond those concepts. Constructivists accept multiple realities whereas the critical realist argues that there is one reality that is interpreted differently (Kempster & Parry 2011). As constructivists and interpretivists deny knowing what is real and reject the possibility of finding causality, they can only provide their own interpretation and lack standards by which one interpretation is judged superior to another. “Critical realism asserts that there is a world independent of human beings, and also that there are deep structures in this world that can be represented by scientific theories” (Alvesson & Sköldbberg 2009, p.16). As Easton (2010, p. 119) stated: “the fundamental tenet of critical realism is that we can use causal language to describe the world”.

Critical realists have a different epistemology to the positivistic school. Easton (2010) further distinguished critical realists from other paradigm stances in their use of the term of ‘retroduction’ rather than reduction. In reduction (whether in the form of induction or deduction) events are explained by identifying the processes (mechanisms) that are capable of producing them, whereas in retroduction, the researcher enquires after the existence of processes that make an event possible. In identifying deeper mechanisms that can generate empirical data, the paradigm of critical realism shifts focus from “epistemology to ontology, and within ontology, as a shift from events to mechanisms” (Alvesson & Sköldbberg, 2009, p.40).

In critical realism, the notion of reality resides in three domains: the empirical, the actual and the real. The empirical domain is data that can be observed, the actual is the data-collecting environment, and the real concerns the underlying processes. Porter (1993) argued that Bhaskar’s (1989/2011) critical realism was a more effective paradigm for ethnographic research as it helped to overcome epistemological criticisms of the interpretive method usually employed in ethnography. Porter (1993) used observation to study racism affecting occupational relationships between nurses and doctors and the effects of mediation through professional ideology. Later, Kontos and Poland (2009) posited what they called a critical realism and arts research utilisation model, combining critical realism and arts-based methodologies, to nurture empathy in clinical practice, notably Alzheimer’s Disease. They used the model to address the complexities of practice settings and to encourage reflection on existing and proposed practices, and change mechanisms.

Critical realism is generating methodological implications and is used to explore dynamic mixed-methods research design. Zachariadis, Scott and Barrett (2013) examined ontological assumptions of critical realism in relation to epistemological issues such as causation and validity. They demonstrated the value of a critical realism-led mixed-methods research approach in the financial services sector, finding value in this research design, particularly in addressing issues of validity and development of more robust processes and inferences. Other recent applications of using critical realism include Ryan, Tähtinen, Vanharanta and Mainela (2012) studying business relationship processes and providing a model to guide researchers in relation to process changes. In the public service, Mutiganda (2013) analysed the effects of governance and budgetary policies on accountability from a critical realism perspective in Finland, finding more widespread effects than the budgetary information alone showed.

To sum up, critical realism is useful for social research with ethnographic content, offering an empirical research design; that is, using a theoretical model to collect and analyse data relevant to the attitudes and opinions of the study participants. As a paradigm, critical research is therefore selected for this study.

4.2 Research design

In this section, research design approaches are discussed and assessed in relation to selecting data collection and analysis and validation techniques for this research. These are presented below and the selection of the appropriate design is explained at section 4.2.4.

The research designs relevant for critical realism, according to Robson (2011), include case studies, ethnographic studies and grounded theory studies. According to Easton (2010), selecting a case study creates issues of insufficient data in a positivistic approach. A case study is less suited to research on individuals' behaviour, or the investigation of phenomena characterised in quantitative terms such as perceptions and attitudes. Porter (1993) advocated the use of ethnography in a critical realism paradigm. The predominant forms of data collection and analyses include quantitative and qualitative designs, and mixed-methods as discussed below in separate sub-sections.

Public sector research, according to McNabb (2013), is a diverse and constantly changing field of enquiry, applicable to this study on the Saudi public service. The purpose of this study is to investigate the behaviour and attitudes of individuals and groups involved in administrative, professional and leadership activities and processes. Despite the emergence of eclectic analysis methods and structured pluralism, the focus is still on applied or empirical

research for the resolution of practical problems (McNabb 2013). This study seeks information on the retention of public servants in Saudi Arabia. In seeking motivation in the public services, Wright and Grant (2010) note studies on a range of topics, including job satisfaction, absenteeism, intention to leave, organisational commitment, job performance, and organisational performance. The current public sector research reported in the literature is generally derived from cross-sectional survey research so that understanding remains limited in ways such as causal questions about the emergence and effects of public service motivation.

4.2.1 Quantitative design

In quantitative design, Mujis (2011) suggests the use of a survey to collect numerical data that can be systematically analysed, generally with the use of statistics. The data to be collected for this study concerned models previously presented in the literature, such as job satisfaction surveys used by Abdulla, Djebarni and Mellahi (2011), Al-Rubaish et al. (2012), Clark and Oswald (1996), and Ellickson and Logsdon (2001) among many others. These surveys are presented quantitatively, where data may be collected in numerical form through Likert scales or similar quantitative data gathering. Collection of data for descriptive statistics, according to Mujis (2011), concerns numbers and totals, and changes within numeric data. Inferential data collection is explanatory in nature and refers to numerical data concerning factors involved in intentions and relationships between variables tested through hypotheses.

Quantitative collections of data may fail to fully answer research questions. Quantitative data explore breadth-gathering data from a large number of respondents, records, or events (Bryman 2012). Whilst quantitative data are used to test theories and events, such analyses are not beneficial to forming theories or hypotheses. Qualitative data collection is superior at addressing complex situations with multiple variables, where interviewing, focus groups and ethnographic data collection enable in-depth analysis and understanding. Thus, quantitative data collection is preferable for establishing causality and qualitative data collection for meaning (Mujis, 2011).

Numerical data are susceptible to issues of reliability and validity. Wagner, Halley, and Zaino (2011, p.16) state that

reliability refers to the quality of a measuring instrument that would cause it to report the same value in successive observations of a given case provided the phenomenon being measured has not changed.

Mujis (2011) explained that there are at least two types of reliability in quantitative research; repeated measurement and internal consistency. The first type, identified by Wagner, Halley and Zaino (2011), can be retested by asking the same questions of same participants over a period of time, to identify whether the answers concur. Next is assessing the strength of the relationship between the two tests, using a correlation coefficient, which needs to be as high as possible, at least over .70. Another form of repeated reliability testing is inter-rater reliability. In this case, several researchers may observe the same event, and report on it (Mujis 2011).

The second form of reliability is internal consistency, which is calculated by split-half reliability and coefficient (Cronbach's) alpha (McNab 2013). In split-half reliability, the scores from the descriptive analysis are randomly halved and the results compared for consistency. A strong relationship requires a coefficient above .80 (Nunnally, Bernstein & Berge 1994). The coefficient alpha, again measuring reliability, should be more than .70. In cases of lower reliability than required, the scores should be examined and those weakly related to the test removed. Lastly, reliability can be improved when the respondent's patience is not tested through repetitive questions and a lengthy questionnaire. This leads to boredom and inattention among respondents completing the survey (Mujis 2011).

Validity is achieved when the researcher measures the intended variable, and the questions on a survey are a true reflection of the concept embodied in the research question (Wagner, Halley & Zaino 2011). There are three types of validity: content validity, criterion validity, and construct validity. McNab (2013) describes content validity as the condition in which the factors in the questionnaire actually measure the concept under study. Content validity requires a comprehensive assessment of the literature on the topic to ensure that the survey questions are comparable. Further, the questionnaire should be meaningful to the respondents, or at a minimum, it should be available in the native language, and perhaps English for non-native speakers in the sample. Thus, face validity is important, so that the content of the survey is understandable and not open to misinterpretation; for this purpose, a pilot study is often used for feedback (McNab 2013).

Criterion validity is also closely related to theory, and refers to the expectation of relationships with the theory and the ability to predict certain outcomes. Mujis (2011) refers

to two forms of criterion validity: predictive validity and concurrent validity. Predictive ability refers to the ability of the instrument to predict the type of outcomes expected, for example, a screening test for employees produces employees who are capable and motivated to undertake the work. Concurrent validity is the relationship between scores from the questionnaire and those from similar surveys on the same topic. Criterion validity, thus, establishes the researcher's knowledge regarding the subject and the relationships with other surveys through correlation coefficient analysis.

Construct validity is achieved when the measurement technique in fact measures what is intended, and the measures relate to the required outcome. Construct validity is, thus, the overall validity of the instrument and its processes (Mujis 2011). However, Messick (1995, p.741) depicts this as unified validity:

... unified validity integrates considerations of content, criteria, and consequences into a construct framework for the empirical testing of rational hypotheses about score meaning and theoretically relevant relationships, including those of an applied and a scientific nature.

There are, thus, quite a few interpretations of the meaning of construct validity, but whichever explanation is used construct validity is tied to the instrument and the process of the data collection and analysis.

4.2.2 Qualitative design

In the mid-20th century, as noted by Alvesson and Sköldbberg (2009), theorists such as Kuhn began to reject positivism in a paradigm shift towards post-positivism and constructivism (Kuhn & Hacking 1962/2012). This departure from positivism with its rigorous attention to reliability and validity led towards a qualitative research approach that attended to rigorous scholarship in its design and execution (Creswell 2003). Creswell explained that, by the 1990s, researchers were presenting a range of qualitative designs, including the narrative approach and the interpretive phenomenological method, and these endured. According to Makkonen, Aarikka-Stenroos and Olkkonen (2012), there has been an increase in the use of a narrative research approach by researchers seeking to explore interconnections among organisations and interest groups. Makkonen et al. (2012, p.287) stated "The narrative approach allows capturing the relevant actors, their multiple motives, interests and activities, and the mutual interplay of these elements with the contextual levels". Phenomenological design is explained by Palmer, Larkin, de Visser and Fadden (2010) as an interpretive approach to qualitative research concerned with understanding people's experiences. Whilst

data collection for interpretive phenomenological studies is usually based on one-on-one interviews, the researcher may advocate for focus groups to gather rich experiential data. Other forms of qualitative design, as mentioned previously, are grounded theory, case studies and ethnographic procedures (Creswell 2003). Creswell also observed that qualitative designs at the turn of the century also became more reflexive, and that they involved more interchange between the researcher and the subject. Qualitative data collection is also used for action research or actor-network theory (Pollack, Costello & Sankaran 2013).

Data collection methods for qualitative research include interviews, group discussions and focus groups, observation and reflective field notes, and secondary data sources such as documentation, and media reports (Creswell & Plano Clark 2007). Interviews may be unstructured: a topic is introduced and any response is recorded. However, this may lead to the interviewees introducing material unrelated to the research matter and does not maximise the time and resources for either party. Semi-structured interviews are guided by a series of questions so that responses can be linked and compared with those of other study participants. Supporting questions from the interviewer can be used to draw inferences from the respondent, or to pursue interesting lines of enquiry. Fully structured interviews are akin to a questionnaire; the answers are restricted and no other questions are used so that the data are fully comparable, and there is no need for interpretation. Several methods of data analysis may be applied after transcription and translation of qualitative data. This usually involves content analysis where significant words or phrases are identified and grouped by context using codes and grouping the contexts by codes. Codes are collected into categories, and transcriptions reassessed to ensure that the reference meets the parameters of the category. The categories are then grouped by themes to answer the research questions or test a hypothesis (Creswell & Plano Clark 2007).

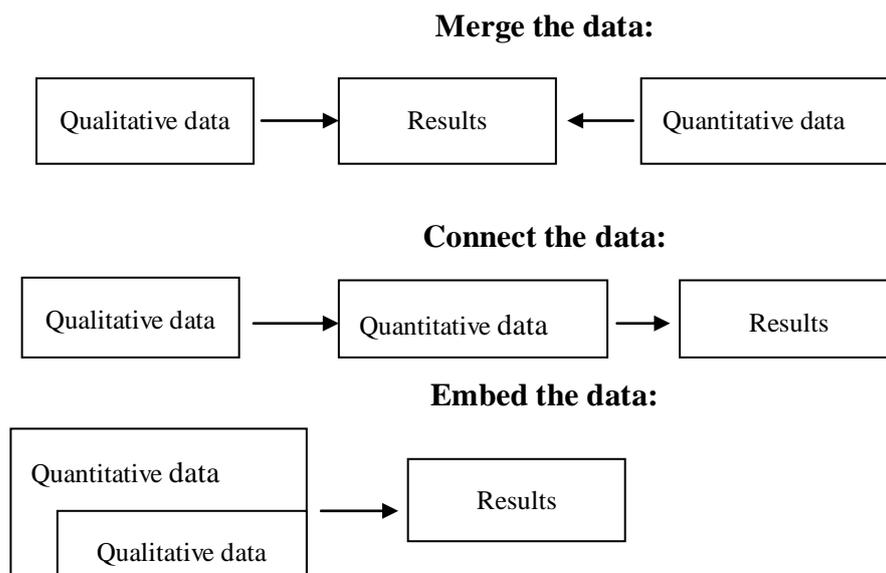
Systematic text condensation was developed from traditional analytic techniques for qualitative data (Malterud 2012). Systematic text condensation may be considered a pragmatic analytical approach that consists first of an overview of discernible themes followed by identification and classification of textual elements from the themes into codes; then, condensation, that is, eliciting meaning from the codes; and finally, synthesising descriptions and concepts to answer the research questions (Malterud 2012).

As data is now largely placed online, several coding programs have emerged to guide the researcher in coding and extracting higher-level evidence from qualitative data. Saldaña (2013) noted that several qualitative approaches, such as phenomenology and ethnography,

are incompatible with interpretivism as the coding and categorisation process loses rich data. However, for interviews and focus groups with a considerable amount of transcription, resource and time limitations may be such that coding is the only feasible means of analysis. Saldaña (2013) explained that the analysis must follow the paradigm and epistemological stances to determine the type of knowledge that is generated. Similarly, the selection of computer program may catalogue and better reveal the ontology. First cycle coding seeks research elements as codes, using filters to delete extraneous material (Saldaña 2013). NVivo coding is the practice of assigning a word or phrase to a concept to begin the process. Versus coding identifies conflict in statements or with other codes. Magnitude coding can be used to weight the codes as important, useful or subsidiary. Simultaneous coding is used to connect two elements that are related (e.g. cause and effect, which may not be validated in qualitative research). Second cycle coding seeks causes and consequences, and patterns in the data. The themes or patterns that emerge link to the research statement.

4.2.3 Mixed methods

The use of mixed methods research using qualitative and quantitative design in combination enables the researcher to draw on the strengths of both these methods. Whilst mixed methods approaches by definition might incorporate many methods of data collection and analysis in research design, the predominant approach by researchers is to incorporate quantitative and qualitative data. Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) nominate three approaches of a qualitative-quantitative mixed methods design (Figure 4.1).



Source: Creswell & Plano Clark (2007, p.7).

Figure 4.1 *Mixed methods research design approaches*

Figure 4.1 illustrates Creswell and Plano Clark's explanation of the various uses of mixed methods design in answering research questions or testing hypotheses. To merge the data, independent data collection methods are used and brought together. Connecting the data uses one set of data to build on the other, as in the case of a qualitative pilot study that gathers results that are tested through a quantitative approach (or vice versa). The third design is to embed one set of data in the other, so that one approach predominates and the second supports the results (Creswell & Plano Clark 2007). A mixed design maximises the strength of the research that cannot be achieved by the use of either approach as a single design (Alvesson & Sköldbberg 2009; Mutiganda, 2013; Ryan et al. 2012; Zachariadis Scott & Barrett 2013). The next section explains the selection of the design in full.

4.2.4 Selection of design

The selection of a critical reality paradigm leads to the use of a mixed methods design (Alvesson & Sköldbberg 2009). In the financial sector, Zachariadis, Scott and Barrett (2013) used a mixed-methods design within a critical realism paradigm. Ryan et al. (2012) used this design to study business relationship processes; and Mutiganda (2013) also addressed public sector matters using the paradigm and associated research designs. Of interest to this study, Zachariadis, Scott and Barrett (2013) examined ontological assumptions of critical realism in relation to epistemological issues such as causation and validity. They demonstrated the value of a critical realism-led mixed-methods research approach in the financial services sector, finding value in this research design, particularly in addressing issues of validity and development of more robust processes and inferences.

The objective of this research was to investigate job satisfaction within the Saudi public sector. Variables to study the research problem include job satisfaction itself, intention to leave, and employee commitment. To explore the relationships between those factors, the research design was based on Creswell and Plano Clark's (2007) third design in Figure 4.1, (embedded data), that is, qualitative data collection embedded in the overall quantitative data collection. This is appropriate as it begins with a pre-established theoretical concept of job satisfaction and seeks to measure the extent and effects of the phenomena by collecting numerical data that can be analysed using statistical methods. Therefore, the research design is conducted in two phases. In the first stage, a questionnaire is distributed to a sample of the public sector employees. This is followed by a small qualitative sample to address the depth of analysis required.

4.3 Quantitative survey

Questionnaires to collect data are usually self-administered because of time and resource constraints. Data are collected and analysed online or by entry into a computer program, such as Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (IBM SPSS Statistics). McNab (2013) explained that the two forms of analysis generally employed for quantitative data are descriptive and statistical. Descriptive analyses comprise totals, measures of central tendency and measures of spread, and comparisons between sets of data. Statistical techniques often include hypothesis testing by using statistical measures, such as correlation analysis and regression analysis.

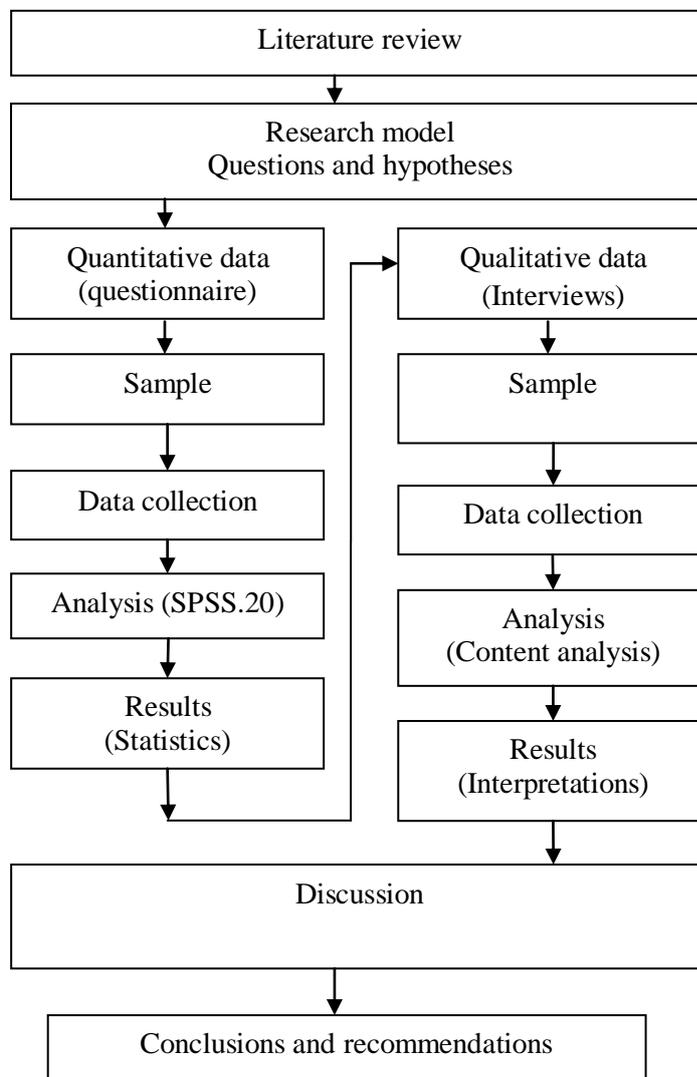


Figure 4.2 *Research design*

4.3.1 Questionnaire design

As discussed, this study utilises extant models of research to gauge the experiences, attitudes and expectations of public employees' job satisfaction and organisational commitment in Saudi Arabia. Four questionnaires were adapted from published studies within copyright constraints to be used as measures in this study. The first scale was the Arabic Satisfaction Commitment Questionnaire (ASCQ) (Dirani & Kuchinke 2011). The second was overall job satisfaction scale of three items adapted from Mottaz (1985), and was followed by the Meyer and Allen's (1991) organisational commitment questionnaire used by Karim and Noor (2006) and Meyer et al. (2012). Last was a voluntary turnover measurement scale to measure intention to leave (Crossley et al. 2007). Likert scales were used for the questionnaire, with the exception of the demographic data. The questionnaire was available in Arabic as Arabic is the native language for all participants. The measures are discussed in more detail in the following sections.

➤ **Intrinsic and extrinsic factors**

The Arabic Satisfaction Commitment Questionnaire was developed by Dirani and Kuchinke (2011) to assess the construct validity and reliability of satisfaction in the banking sector in Lebanon, and they found that the results indicated high reliability of the instrument in the Arab context. The Arabic version was derived from the Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire.

The Minnesota Studies in Vocational Rehabilitation were a series of monographs from 1957 that explored adjustment to work. The measures for empirical research for the theory are the Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire (MSQ), either in the long form with 20 facets including five questions each, or the short form of 20 facets with one question each (Gay, Weiss, Hendel, Dawis & Lofquist 1971).

The MSQ 20-item form revised by Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist (1967) suits the objectives of this research to identify extrinsic and intrinsic factors affecting job satisfaction. In the MSQ short form, twelve of the items measure intrinsic affective satisfaction and eight items measure extrinsic cognitive satisfaction (Spector 1997).

In United Arab Emirates, Abdulla, Djebarni and Mellahi (2011) explored job satisfaction among the Dubai police workers using the MSQ, and found relationships among the intrinsic and extrinsic variables. In Saudi Arabia, Al-Ahmadi (2009) used the MSQ to study nurses in the Riyadh, finding that performance was related to organisational commitment, job

satisfaction and demographic factors. Finally, the MSQ was used in the construction of an academic instrument in Dammam (KSA) by Al-Rubaish et al. (2011). The Arabic version is therefore appropriate to use in this study.

➤ **Overall job satisfaction**

The questions used for this section were adapted from Mottaz (1985) to investigate the nature and source of overall work satisfaction in several occupational groups. Rafiq et al. (2012) used this instrument to study the effect of rewards on job satisfaction on call centre employees in Pakistan. Although a review of the literature was unable to find many empirical studies using this scale, the items remained useful and capable of capturing overall job satisfaction. Mottaz (1985) indicated that this instrument is suitable for use in contexts around the world. Thus, this instrument was used to measure overall job satisfaction of employees working in the public sector in Saudi Arabia.

➤ **Organisational commitment**

As described in the literature review, Meyer and Allen (1991) proposed a model of organisational commitment that comprised a desire (affective commitment), a need (continuance commitment), and an obligation (normative commitment) regarding employment in an organisation. These three components were further developed in Allen and Meyer's (1997) revised questionnaire (OCQ); 18 questions with 6 statements for each dimension. Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky (2002) subsequently conducted tests on the model, finding relationships among affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organisation. Vandenberghe, Stinglhamber, Bentein and Delhaise (2001) tested the validity of Meyer and Allen's (1997) questionnaire in Europe, adapting it and others into a new model in 2004 (Meyer, Becker & Vandenberghe 2004).

Subsequent studies with findings supporting the model were carried out in Portugal (Eisenberger, Karagonlar, Stinglhamber, Neves, Becker, Gonzalez-Morales & Steiger-Mueller 2010), Korea (Gill, Meyer, Lee, Shin & Yoon 2011) and the Greek private and public sectors (Markovits et al. 2010). Studying the effects of organisational politics on organisational commitment in Pakistan, Atta, Ahmad, Mangla and Farrell (2012) found that organisational politics change to a strong positive effect when employees perceive empowerment, also validating the measure in a Pakistani context. A study by Suliman and Iles (2000) on industrial firms in Jordan found that organisational commitment and its three

dimensions were related to demographic variables and intention to remain with the organisation. The Meyer et al. (2004) questionnaire was used recently in the Arab context for banking sector in Lebanon, where Dirani and Kuchinke (2011) assessed the reliability and the construct validity of job satisfaction and organisational commitment, finding high reliability of the instrument in the Arab context. Mohamad (2012) used the OCQ to study organisational commitment among post-graduate business students in Cairo (Egypt), and found a positive relationship between transformational leadership and organisational commitment. Aldhuwaihi, Shee and Stanton (2012) used the measure in a study on the banking sector in Saudi Arabia. As discussed below, this instrument was adapted to measure the organisational commitment of Saudi employees in the public sector.

➤ **Turnover intention**

In a study of job embeddedness, Crossley et al. (2007) developed survey questions in response to previous assessment of instruments in this dimension and in intention to leave the organisation (Crossley, Grauer, Lin & Stanton 2002). In a recent study of the banking sector in Saudi Arabia, Aldhuwaihi, Shee and Stanton (2012) adapted the survey questions formulated by Crossley et al. and found that the instrument was highly reliable. Given this positive empirical evidence for the instrument in the Arabic context, questions from Crossley et al.'s (2002, 2007) 'intention to quit' instrument were adapted to measure employee turnover in the public sector in Saudi Arabia. This study's questionnaire is attached at appendix 1.

4.3.2 Questionnaire translation

As the primary research was conducted in Saudi Arabia the questionnaire was translated into Arabic. The responses were recorded in Arabic, then translated into English during the analysis process. The interviews were conducted in Arabic, transcribed, and the answers translated into English during analysis. Translation of the interviews was performed by the researcher, then the originals and translations were reviewed by an accredited translator (Appendix 2).

4.3.3 Pilot study

After translation, an Arabic version of the questionnaire was distributed to 30 employees in the target population to ensure that the wording was clear and unambiguous and to measure

the Reliability and Internal Consistency. Cronbach's alpha was (0.96). For Details see analysis chapter.

4.4 Study sample

This study aims to identify factors affecting job satisfaction in the Saudi public sector. As the government of Saudi Arabia is an absolute monarchy, the public sector includes a number of different organisations under the ministries. To refine the focus of the study, the target population consisted of ranks 6 to 10 (under the rank of executive) in the various ministries of the public service. These individuals report to their executive and have some staff responsibilities. They are employed under broadly similar salaries and conditions, with similar rights and responsibilities (Al-Rasheed 2010). Their collective attitude to their work and commitment to their organisations are therefore important to the productivity and governance of the country. The sampling technique adopted for the current study continues this topic.

In discussing research design in critical realism, Ackroyd (2010) advocated for institutional investigations to understand processes, noting that organisations are identifiable with a set of formal roles and relationships, and that people tend to relate with relatively predictable behaviour patterns. With their parameters, institutions can produce environments where “research can produce insights into latent causal processes” (Ackroyd 2010, p. 64). At the beginning of the research, generative processes other than those formalised by the nature of the organisation are unknown. By studying the behaviour and attitudes of the organisational members, and collecting data and reports on the institution, inferences on processes can be inferred and constructed by the researcher (Ackroyd 2010).

Selecting a sample from the population can be undertaken from the basis of probability or non-probability samples. Probability samples include four types: simple random sample, stratified sample, cluster sample and systematic sample. Lohr (2010) explained that in a simple random sample all individuals in the population are equally likely to be selected. In cluster sampling the entire population is divided into groups, or clusters and a random sample of these clusters are selected, then all individuals in the selected clusters are included in the sample. In this study, each ministry is classified as a cluster. A stratified random sample uses primary groups first, then, a simple random sample is selected from each group. In a systematic sample, the researcher selects an arbitrary number from a list, and selects every

member of the selected group. In all, if the sampling technique is repeated, then similar results are achieved. In contrast, in non-probability sampling, the selection of the study units, data or respondents, is not determined by probability and results may be severely biased (Lohr 2010).

A non-probability sample, according to Raschke, Krishen, Kachroo and Maheshwari (2012), is frequently used when there are time and resource constraints for the researcher, raising issues of validity and precision. This is especially true in the case of comparison studies, where, for example, researchers need to minimise demographic differences between diverse groups of people to ensure homogeneity of the different groups. Lohr (2010) explained that non-probability sampling includes convenience sampling, for example, those at a certain location at a certain time of day, or those who self-select for a survey; and quota sampling, where specified numbers of certain groups are included. Quota sampling differs from stratified probability sampling, as the researcher uses convenience sampling to select respondents or data, not random sampling. Judgemental sampling is frequently used in public sector research - a researcher must approach a public authority for approval to interview or gather data from an agency, and the decision of whom to 'volunteer' for the study is conducted in-house (Agarwal, Lim & Wigand 2012). 'Snowballing' is another method among other sampling techniques, where existing participants volunteer contacts (Goodman 2011).

A cluster sampling technique was used for the quantitative phase of this study. Saudi ministries have standardised organisational structures, and the working conditions, policies, and practices of their employees are subject to the Civil Service Board. Jeddah's population is diverse, given its position and attraction as the nation's commercial centre, and is therefore representative of public sector employees. Thus, a random sample of employees from rank 6-10 from 20 branches of five civil (not military) ministries in Jeddah was included in the survey. Veal (2005) advised that the minimum sample size for confidence level of .05 should be 380 when the size of the study population is above 100,000 or if the population is infinite. Hence the sample size of 625 respondents is sufficient for the study. For the qualitative part of the study, a sample of one person from each of the Ministries was sought for comment on the outcome of the questionnaire results obtained from that Ministry. This sample was the initial contact in the Human Resources group in each Ministry.

4.5 Ethical procedures

Ethical issues are addressed as part of the university's protocols. In the case of a mixed methods study, ethical issues primarily concern agreement of the individuals to participants in the study, their agreement to the conditions of the study which concern use of their responses, and the guarantee that their identities are protected and that responses cannot be attributed to a particular person (Creswell & Plano Clark 2007). In this case, approval was sought from the university's ethics committee, and was granted on 24 October 2013. Requests for approval to survey public servants were also submitted to the various ministries, which were accepted.

In social research the ethical matters traditionally considered are informed consent and confidentiality (Mujis 2011). Informed consent occurs by informing the participant about the purpose of the research and its primary features. Confidentiality includes data that could identify the participant; names and private details were not recorded. The raw data will be held by the university in a secure place for five years.

4.6 Data collection and analysis

Data were collected under a mixed methods design. Quantitative data were collected by questionnaire and qualitative data by individual interview. These are presented in turn.

4.6.1 Quantitative data

Sufficient numbers of printed questionnaires were distributed on 1 November 2012 to contact administrators in the Human Resources divisions in the five Ministries in Jeddah, together with explanatory and ethics information. The responses were deposited in boxes and collected two weeks later by the researcher. Responses to the questionnaire are illustrated in (Table 4.1) below.

Table 4.1 *Responses to questionnaire*

Ministries	Jeddah: All civil servants, rank 6-10	Returned
1. Ministry of Petroleum and Mineral Resources	225	144
2. Ministry of Finance	182	90
3. Ministry of Civil Service	81	53
4. Ministry of Social Affairs	64	40
5. Ministry of Transportation	73	37
Total	625	364

Of the 625 questionnaires distributed, there were 364 complete and returned questionnaires after excluding 39 questionnaires that were invalid for analysis. The return rate of 58.2 per cent was considered adequate for this type of survey.

Using IBM SPSS Statistics version (21), frequency and relative frequency distribution analyses were conducted for the descriptive statistics of the demographic and personal variables in the first part of this research. In the second part, the main body of the instrument, the weighted mean, frequency distribution, and standard deviation was applied to determine the importance of each variable and its priority in each factor. The Pearson correlation coefficient was used to measure the relationships between the variables, and for testing hypotheses. The following guidelines were used to interpret and comment upon the correlations.

Table 4.2 classification of correlation

Correlation Range	Classification
0-0.2	Very low correlation
0.2- 0.4	Low correlation
0.4-0.6	Reasonable or moderate correlation
0.6-0.8	High correlation
0.8-1	Very high correlation

Source: Harris, Taylor & Taylor (2005, p.158).

4.6.2 Qualitative data

The sample selection for this phase of the study consisted of five representatives, one from each of the Ministries, who held the position of a human resources manager. The purpose for the qualitative data collection was to gain insight into the quantitative data, and to identify any differences in socio-economic factors influencing job satisfaction from the opinions of the personnel managers. Individual interviews were chosen over focus groups for this part of the research. Of the forms of interview explained above, semi-structured interviews were used as they provide the most efficient means for collecting data to enrich the quantitative data and fully answer the research questions. The questions for the interviews were conceptualised in line with the research questions and derived from the results of the first phase of the study. Questions relevant to previous findings on the various models of job satisfaction were also posed as a means of comparison for the discussion chapter. The first part of the interview contained questions related to the interviewee's background, such as

position, qualifications, and experience. The second section contained the interview questions that related to different research variables (see appendix 3).

During January 2013, three interviews were held at a time and place suitable to both parties, and lasted from 30 to 45 minutes. At the start of each interview, the researcher repeated the reasons behind the research, its value to the organisation, and the ethical considerations. This verbal information was then presented as a document to be signed by each interviewee. The participants were asked if the interviews could be audio-recorded and all agreed. During the course of the interviews, the managers were asked the same questions, and subsidiary questions were added to pursue interesting responses, or to clarify points of view. The researcher took care not to interrupt an observation, or influence the respondent during the discussion (Silverman 2013). The managers discussed different issues freely and without restriction. Notes were taken during the interview as prompts during the transcription and analysis of the data. One interviewee responded by email, the fifth remained unavailable. Interviews were held and transcribed in Arabic, and then were translated into English.

4.7 Chapter summary

This chapter has described the processes and methods used in the primary research on job satisfaction and allied measures for Saudi public servants in Jeddah. First, a critical realism paradigm was selected to allow greater rigour to the research than was possible under a constructionist or a positivist paradigm. This paradigm supported the research design of a mixed methods approach. The selection of the sample was explained as a cluster sample, and the selection of interviewees from the various organisations supported the quantitative data collection from their colleagues. Finally, the ethical considerations and the forms of analyses were explained. The next chapter moves on to report the results from these procedures.

Chapter 5 Analysis results

This chapter presents the results from the primary research examining the factors that motivate job satisfaction among Saudi public sector employees. The data were collected in two phases: first, the quantitative data were collected from public servants in management ranks (6-10) from government ministries in Jeddah. In the second phase, interviews were conducted with four human resource managers who represented the participating organisations. The purpose of the interviews was to acquire further insight into the results from the quantitative data analysis. The chapter is divided into three main parts – the first part discusses the results of the preliminary test of the quantitative data, including the demographic analysis, the reliability test and descriptive statistics for the factors examined in the survey; the second part of the quantitative analysis turns to the results from the testing of hypotheses; and finally, the third part presents the results for the qualitative analysis of interviews.

5.1 Quantitative analysis

For the quantitative research data were collected by means of a questionnaire using closed questions and a Likert scale for the main questions. The quantitative analysis of the questionnaire data comprised descriptive statistics for the demographics and personal variables of the Saudi public service middle managers. This is followed by reliability and validation testing and then descriptive statistics for factors that include intrinsic factors, extrinsic factors, overall job satisfaction, intention to leave and organisational commitment who comprised of three factors: affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. Finally, hypotheses were tested.

5.1.1 Demographic analysis

The following table, Table 5.1, shows the gender for the study participants.

Table 5.1 *Gender of study participants*

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	322	88.5
Female	42	11.5
Total	364	100.0

The above table shows that the sample was predominantly male (88%). This reflects the low participation rate for women in the workforce in Saudi Arabia. Table 5.2, displays the age range.

Table 5.2 *Age cohorts of study participants*

Age range	Frequency	Percentage
< 29 years	27	7.4
30-39 years	127	34.9
40-49 years	151	41.5
≥ 50 years	59	16.2
Total	364	100.0

Table 5.2 shows that the sample was predominantly aged between 30 and 50 years (76.4%), with the highest number in the older cohort (151 respondents, 41.5%). Table 5.3 provides details of length of work experience for the study sample.

Table 5.3 *Work experience of study participants*

Work experience	Frequency	Percentage
< 10 years	106	29.1
10 - 19 years	133	36.5
20 - 29 years	89	24.5
≥ 30 years)	36	9.9
Total	364	100.0

The work experience of the participants shows that the majority of the participants had less than 20 years' work experience (n = 239, 65.6%), with 106 (29.1%) with less than 10 years. The level of education attained by the study participants is shown in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4 *Qualifications of study participants*

Qualification	Frequency	Percentage
≤ Secondary school	84	23.1
Diploma	47	12.8
Undergraduate degree	191	52.5
Postgraduate degree	37	10.2
Other	5	1.4
Total	364	100.0

Table 5.4 shows that at recruitment the majority had a bachelor's degree, whilst a third were recruited without university degrees.

The Saudi public service is hierarchical and contains many levels. The participants for this study were selected from ranks 6 - 10 inclusive, and the sample was distributed as shown in Table 5.5 below

Table 5.5 *Status of study participants*

Rank	Frequency	Percentage
Level 6	108	29.7
Level 7	78	21.4
Level 8	92	25.3
Level 9	44	12.1
Level 10	42	11.5
Total	364	100.0

Until level 8, there are similarities in the percentages of participants in each rank, with Level 6 predominating (n = 108, 29.7%).

In summary, the participants' personal characteristics reflect expectations for the Saudi public service managers: male, in their thirties and forties, with a bachelor's degree and work experience up to 20 years. There could also be some linkage between the proportion of the respondents with more than 20 years' experience (36.4%) and the three highest levels (48.9%). There were few women in the survey, due to the inability of Saudi men and women to mingle in public spaces.

5.1.2 Reliability

In the previous chapter measures of reliability and internal consistency were discussed. In this research, such measures were tested on the questionnaire during the pilot study. Cronbach's alpha (α) is a percentage of variance in an observed variable that is accounted for by the true scores on the underlying construct (McNabb 2013). The test was used with the following results (Table 5.6):

Table 5.6 *Factor reliability*

Category	Statements n	Cronbach's alpha
1- Intrinsic factors	12	0.962
2- Extrinsic factors	8	0.898
3- Job satisfaction	3	0.931
4- Turnover	4	0.886
5- Affective commitment	6	0.710
6- Continuance commitment	6	0.838
7- Normative commitment	5	0.904
Scale	44	0.966

The scale value for α was high at 0.966 and all categories tested above 0.7, indicating reliability. Next, the internal consistency of each factor (statement) in the categories was tested. To remove any inconsistency in statements, one statement was removed and α calculated for the remaining statements; if the new result was higher than the category's α , the reliability increased and the statement was removed; if less, the statement remained. This procedure was repeated for each statement for all categories (Tables 5.7 to 5.13 below).

Table 5.7 *Consistency and reliability: Intrinsic factors*

Statements	r•	If item deleted α
1- I am satisfied with being busy at work most of the time.	0.828**	0.957
2- I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it gives me the chance to do different things from time to time.	0.687**	0.961
3- I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it gives me the chance to do tasks that make use of my abilities.	0.800**	0.958
4- I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it gives me the chance to try new methods to do my work.	0.745**	0.960
5- I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it gives me the chance to do things for others.	0.869**	0.956
6- I am satisfied with the feeling of accomplishment I get from completing tasks at work.	0.834**	0.957
7- I am satisfied with working in this organisation, as the tasks that I perform don't go against my conscience or principles.	0.832**	0.958
8- I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it provides me with a steady job.	0.907**	0.955
9- I am satisfied with working in the public sector as it gives me chance to be somebody in the community.	0.844**	0.957
10- I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it gives me the chance to direct others.	0.855**	0.957
11- I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it gives me the chance to work autonomously most of the time.	0.795**	0.958
12- I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it gives me the freedom to use my own judgment in the work I perform.	0.678**	0.962
Total		0.962

•correlation between item and total

** the correlation is significant at 0.01 level.

The value of α for each statement (if the statement was removed) was less than the total value that indicated internal consistency. The correlation was significant at 0.01, which indicated the validity of the items.

Table 5.8 *Consistency and reliability: Extrinsic factors*

Statements	r	If item deleted α
13- I am satisfied with the way the organisation's policies are put into practice.	0.624**	0.890
14- I am satisfied with the pay that I get for the work I do.	0.521**	0.898
15- I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it gives me the chance for advancement.	0.605**	0.892
16- I am satisfied with the working conditions.	0.718**	0.882
17- I am satisfied with the way my colleagues interact with each other.	0.752**	0.879
18- I am satisfied with the praise I get for doing a task well.	0.816**	0.873
19- I am satisfied with the competence of my supervisor in making decisions.	0.708**	0.883
20- I am satisfied with the way my supervisor deals with his employees.	0.731**	0.880
Total		0.898

** the correlation is significant at 0.01 level

Again α indicates internal consistency of the extrinsic items; and validity at 0.01.

Table 5.9 *Consistency and reliability: Job satisfaction*

Statements	r	If item deleted α
21- Generally speaking, I am satisfied with this job.	0.908**	0.863
22- If I had the opportunity to start over again, I would choose the same type of work I presently do	0.829**	0.924
23-Taking into consideration all things about my job, I am very satisfied	0.850**	0.909
Total		0.931

** the correlation is significant at 0.01 level

Internal consistency of the job satisfaction statements indicated reliability, and validity at 0.01 was shown.

Table 5.10 *Consistency and reliability: Intention to leave*

Statements	r	If item deleted α
24-I intend to leave this organisation soon	0.733**	0.870
25-I plan to leave this organisation in the next little while	0.863**	0.810
26-I will quit this organisation as soon as possible	0.740**	0.859
28-I may leave this organisation before too long	0.701**	0.873
Total		0.886

** the correlation is significant at 0.01 level

The value of α for each statement (if the statement was removed) was less than the total value, indicating internal consistency for intention to leave; however, item 27 *I do not plan on leaving this organisation soon* was removed due to inconsistency. The correlation was significant at 0.01, which indicated the validity of the items.

Table 5.11 *Consistency and reliability: Affective commitment*

Statements	r	If item deleted α
29- I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation	0.616**	0.613
30- I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own.	0.327**	0.710
31- I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to this organisation.	0.489**	0.659
32- I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organisation.	0.395**	0.686
33- I do not feel like "part of the family" at this organisation	0.315**	0.706
34- This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	0.545**	0.635
Total		0.710

** the correlation is significant at 0.01 level

In Table 5.11, the α value indicated internal consistency of the affective commitment items; and validity at 0.01.

Table 5.12 *Consistency and reliability: Continuance commitment*

Statements	r	If item deleted α
35- Right now, staying with this organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	0.667**	0.801
36- It would be very hard for me to leave this organisation right now, even if I wanted to.	0.485**	0.838
37- Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave this organisation now.	0.732**	0.787
38- I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation	0.553**	0.824
39- If I had not already put so much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere.	0.638**	0.809
40- One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	0.624**	0.810
Total		0.838

** the correlation is significant at 0.01 level

Internal consistency of the continuance commitment statements indicated reliability, with validity at 0.01 was shown.

Table 5.13 *Consistency and reliability: Normative commitment*

Statements	r	If item deleted α
42- Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave this organisation now.	0.778**	0.879
43- I would feel guilty if I left this organisation now.	0.801**	0.874
44- This organisation deserves my loyalty.	0.701**	0.898
45- I would not leave this organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	0.738**	0.887
46- I owe a great deal to this organisation.	0.792**	0.876
Total		0.904

** the correlation is significant at 0.01 level

The value of α for each statement (if the statement was removed) was less than the total value, which indicated internal consistency for normative commitment; however, item 41 *I do*

not feel any obligation to remain with this organisation was removed due to inconsistency. The correlation was significant at 0.01, which indicated the validity of the items.

5.1.3 Descriptive statistics for factors

The questionnaire responses for the seven scales were recorded on a five point Likert scale (intrinsic and extrinsic factors, job satisfaction, intent to leave, and affective, continuance, and normative commitment). The responses were: 1 strongly disagree, 2 disagree, 3 neutral, 4 agree, and 5 strongly agree. These ranking numbers were used to calculate the weighted mean for each value and this is shown in Table 5.14 (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007).

Table 5.14 *Weighted means results for Likert scale*

Response	Weighted means
Strongly disagree	1.0 - 1.79
Disagree	1.8 - 2.59
Neutral	2.6 - 3.39
Agree	3.4 - 4.19
Strongly agree	4.2 - 5.00

The following tables, Table 5.15 to 5.22, show frequency of response for each value, percentages, weighted means, and standard deviations. The results are ranked for each group: intrinsic and extrinsic factors; overall job satisfaction; intent to leave; and affective, continuance, and normative commitment.

Table 5.15 presents the analysis ranking the items for intrinsic factors. Of note, the result for each statement is on the ‘agree’ side of neutral. The ranking of the weighted means shows that item 7: *I am satisfied with working in this organisation as the tasks that I perform don’t go against my conscience or principles*; item 8: *I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it provides me with a steady job*; and item 5: *I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it gives me the chance to do things for others* were the primary intrinsic factors. Of interest, given the hierarchical nature of Saudi organisations, the lowest-ranked item was 12: *I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it gives me the freedom to use my own judgment in the work I perform*. The weighted means result for the intrinsic factor items is 3.5, which signifies ‘agree’.

Table 5.15 *Statistical analysis and ranking: Intrinsic factors*

Statement	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly agree		Weighted means	Std. dev.	Result	Rank
	f	%	f	%	f	%	F	%	f	%				
1- I am satisfied with being busy at work most of the time.	25	6.9	66	18.1	32	8.8	184	50.5	57	15.7	3.50	1.16	Agree	6
2- I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it gives me the chance to do different things from time to time.	33	9.1	82	22.5	39	10.7	176	48.4	34	9.3	3.26	1.17	Neutral	8
3- I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it gives me the chance to do tasks that make use of my abilities.	42	11.5	74	20.3	50	13.7	157	43.1	41	11.3	3.22	1.23	Neutral	9
4- I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it gives me the chance to try new methods to do my work.	46	12.6	108	29.7	41	11.3	138	37.9	31	8.5	3.00	1.24	Neutral	11
5- I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it gives me the chance to do things for others.	25	6.9	21	5.8	19	5.2	177	48.6	122	33.5	3.96	1.11	Agree	3
6- I am satisfied with the feeling of accomplishment I get from completing tasks at work.	16	4.4	33	9.1	21	5.8	174	47.8	120	33.0	3.96	1.07	Agree	3
7- I am satisfied with working in this organisation, as the tasks that I perform don't go against my conscience or principles.	19	5.2	16	4.4	18	4.9	153	42.0	158	43.4	4.14	1.05	Agree	1
8- I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it provides me with a steady job.	21	5.8	12	3.3	26	7.1	152	41.8	153	42.0	4.11	1.06	Agree	2
9- I am satisfied with working in the public sector as it gives me chance to be somebody in the community.	28	7.7	49	13.5	63	17.3	151	41.5	73	20.1	3.53	1.18	Agree	5
10- I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it gives me the chance to direct others.	23	6.3	54	14.8	70	19.2	162	44.5	55	15.1	3.47	1.11	Agree	7
11- I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it gives me the chance to work autonomously most of the time.	31	8.5	75	20.6	71	19.5	158	43.4	29	8.0	3.22	1.12	Neutral	9
12- I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it gives me the freedom to use my own judgment in the work I perform.	43	11.8	116	31.9	62	17.0	112	30.8	31	8.5	2.92	1.20	Neutral	12
Total	352	8.16	706	16.2	512	11.7	1894	43.4	904	20.7	3.52	1.21	Agree	

Table 5.16 presents the analysis ranking the items for extrinsic factors. Again, the result for each statement is on the ‘agree’ side of neutral. The ranking of the weighted means resulted in item 20: *I am satisfied with the way my supervisor deals with his/her staff*, item 19: *I am satisfied with the competence of my supervisor* and item 18: *I am satisfied with praise for doing a task well*. However, the organisation-wide elements of policies, advancement, working conditions, and pay ranked lowest (in that order). The result for the factor was neutral.

Table 5.16 *Statistical analysis and ranking: Extrinsic factors*

Statements	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly agree		Weighted means	Std. dev.	Result	Rank
	f	%	f	%	f	%	F	%	f	%				
13- I am satisfied with the way the organisation policies are put into practice.	53	14.6	110	30.2	66	18.1	104	28.6	31	8.5	2.86	1.22	Neutral	8
14- I am satisfied with the pay that I get	56	15.4	67	18.4	39	10.7	136	37.4	66	18.1	3.24	1.36	Neutral	5
15- I am satisfied with working in this organisation and the chance for advancement.	49	13.5	89	24.5	48	13.2	131	36.0	47	12.9	3.10	1.29	Neutral	7
16- I am satisfied with the working conditions.	42	11.5	88	24.2	58	15.9	141	38.7	35	9.6	3.11	1.21	Neutral	6
17- I am satisfied with the way my colleagues interact	25	6.9	58	15.9	61	16.8	166	45.6	54	14.8	3.46	1.13	Agree	4
18- I am satisfied with praise for doing a task well.	27	7.4	57	15.7	53	14.6	172	47.3	55	15.1	3.47	1.15	Agree	3
19- I am satisfied with the competence of my supervisor	29	8.0	59	16.2	48	13.2	143	39.3	85	23.4	3.54	1.23	Agree	2
20- I am satisfied with the way my supervisor deals with his/her staff	28	7.7	47	12.9	54	14.8	156	42.9	79	21.7	3.58	1.18	Agree	1
Total	309	10.61	575	19.75	427	14.66	1149	39.46	452	15.52	3.30	1.25	Neutral	

Table 5.17 shows the outcome of the analysis for job satisfaction. Again, the result for each statement is on the ‘agree’ side of neutral. The ranking of the weighted means resulted in item 21: *Generally speaking, I am satisfied with this job*, whilst the lowest item related to ambivalence in career selection (item 22). The result for the factor was ‘agree’; overall, respondents were satisfied with their positions.

Table 5.17 *Statistical analysis and ranking: Job satisfaction*

Statements	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly agree		Weigh ted means	Std. dev.	Result	Rank
	f	%	F	%	f	%	F	%	f	%				
21- Generally speaking, I am satisfied with this job	19	5.2	28	7.7	33	9.1	205	56.3	79	21.7	3.82	1.03	Agree	1
22- If I had the opportunity to start over again, I would choose the same type of work I presently do	51	14.0	59	16.2	85	23.4	110	30.2	59	16.2	3.18	1.28	Neutral	3
23-Taking into consideration all things about my job, I am very satisfied	28	7.7	41	11.3	52	14.3	184	50.5	59	16.2	3.56	1.12	Agree	2
Total	98	8.97	128	11.72	170	15.57	499	45.70	197	18.04	3.52	1.18	Agree	

Table 5.18 (on the next page) presents the analysis for intent to leave responses from the study participants. This result is presented in the negative, that is, the strongest response was that 72.5 per cent of respondents denied that they intended to leave the organisation as soon as possible (item 26). The result for the group in relation to intent to leave was, however, that the respondents did not agree with the statements.

Table 5.18 *Statistical analysis and ranking: Intent to leave*

Statements	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly agree		Weighted means	Std. dev.	Result	Rank
	f	%	F	%	f	%	f	%	F	%				
24- I intend to leave this organisation soon	112	30.8	88	24.2	108	29.7	30	8.2	26	7.1	2.37	1.20	Neutral	1
25- I plan to leave this organisation in the next little while.	136	37.4	98	26.9	90	24.7	24	6.6	16	4.4	2.14	1.12	Disagree	3
26- I will quit this organisation as soon as possible	169	46.4	95	26.1	68	18.7	21	5.8	11	3.0	1.93	1.07	Disagree	4
27- I may leave this organisation before too long.	149	40.9	99	27.2	78	21.4	14	3.8	24	6.6	2.08	1.17	Neutral	2
Total	566	38.9	380	26.1	344	23.6	89	6.1	77	5.3	2.1	1.15	Disagree	

The outcome of the analysis for affective commitment is shown in Table 5.19. These items are a mix of positive and negative statements. The sole ‘agree’ statement was item 34: *This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me*. The negative statements relating to affective commitment, on the other hand, rated the lowest of the group. Despite of these mixed responses, the average of the responses for this factor was rated as neutral.

Table 5.19 *Statistical analysis and ranking: Affective commitment*

Statements	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly agree		Weighted means	Std. dev.	Result	Rank
	f	%	f	%	f	%	F	%	f	%				
29- I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation	33	9.1	52	14.3	90	24.7	131	36.0	58	15.9	3.35	1.18	Neutral	2
30- I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own.	40	11.0	59	16.2	86	23.6	146	40.1	33	9.1	3.20	1.15	Neutral	3
31- I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to this organisation.	117	32.1	130	35.7	49	13.5	52	14.3	16	4.4	2.23	1.17	Disagree	6
32- I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organisation.	100	27.5	135	37.1	52	14.3	60	16.5	17	4.7	2.34	1.18	Disagree	4
33- I do not feel like "part of the family" at this organisation	99	27.2	136	37.4	53	14.6	59	16.2	17	4.7	2.34	1.17	Disagree	4
34- This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	21	5.8	54	14.8	61	16.8	157	43.1	71	19.5	3.56	1.13	Agree	1
Total	410	18.77	566	25.92	391	17.90	605	27.70	212	9.71	2.84	1.28	Neutral	

Table 5.20 presents the analysis for continuance responses from the study participants. The first two statements were ranked first and second: item 35: *Right now, staying with this organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire* with 60.7 per cent agreeing, and item 36: *It would be very hard for me to leave this organisation right now, even if I wanted to* with 58.2 per cent agreeing. The lowest ranked items were statements on lack of choice for a career change or transfer to a new job. The result for the group for continuance commitment was neutral.

Table 5.20 *Statistical analysis and ranking: Continuance commitment*

Statements	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly agree		Weighted means	Std. dev	Result	Rank
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%				
35-Right now, staying with this organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	22	6.0	50	13.7	71	19.5	158	43.4	63	17.3	3.52	1.11	Agree	1
36- It would be very hard for me to leave this organisation right now, even if I wanted to.	35	9.6	34	9.3	83	22.8	145	39.8	67	18.4	3.48	1.18	Agree	2
37- Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave this organisation now.	38	10.4	59	16.2	77	21.2	113	31.0	77	21.2	3.36	1.27	Neutral	3
38- I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation	37	10.2	61	16.8	97	26.6	110	30.2	59	16.2	3.26	1.21	Neutral	5
39- If I had not already put so much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere.	48	13.2	79	21.7	100	27.5	110	30.2	27	7.4	2.97	1.16	Neutral	6
40- One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	41	11.3	63	17.3	68	18.7	125	34.3	67	18.4	3.34	1.33	Neutral	4
Total	221	10.1	346	15.8	496	22.7	761	34.8	360	16.5	3.3	1.21	Neutral	

The final table in this series, Table 5.21, again shows a neutral response. Loyalty (item 44) received a high positive rating, at 62.1 per cent, followed by item 46, a sense of debt (55.3%) to the organisation. Nevertheless, fewer (37.4%) would feel guilty about leaving and deserting their team members and the overriding result was neutral.

Table 5.21 *Statistical analysis and ranking: Normative commitment*

Statements	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly agree		Weighted means	Std. dev.	Result	Rank
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	F	%				
42- Even if to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave this organisation now.	39	10.7	61	16.8	84	23.1	124	34.1	56	15.4	3.27	1.22	Neutral	3
43- I would feel guilty if I left this organisation now.	57	15.7	77	21.2	94	25.8	95	26.1	41	11.3	2.96	1.25	Neutral	5
44- This organisation deserves my loyalty.	33	9.1	37	10.2	68	18.7	147	40.4	79	21.7	3.55	1.20	Agree	1
45- I would not leave this organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	37	10.2	70	19.2	73	20.1	127	34.9	57	15.7	3.27	1.23	Neutral	3
46- I owe a great deal to this organisation.	50	13.7	43	11.8	70	19.2	136	37.4	65	17.9	3.34	1.28	Neutral	2
Total	216	11.9	288	15.8	389	21.4	629	34.6	298	16.4	3.28	1.25	Neutral	

Table 5.22 shows that continuance commitment predominates; that the cost of leaving the organisation ranks high. The next commitment ranking is normative: an ethical consideration of serving one's community. Last are the affective considerations of a challenging position and an emotional attachment to the organisation. However, these sentiments are not strong; only continuance commitment is agreed by half the sample. The result for organisational commitment is neutral.

Table 5.22 *Statistical analysis and ranking: Components of organisational commitment*

Statements	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly agree		Weighted means	Std. dev.	Result	Rank
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%				
Affective commitment	410	18.8	566	25.9	391	17.9	605	27.7	212	9.7	2.84	1.28	Neutral	3
Continuance commitment	221	10.1	346	15.8	496	22.7	761	34.8	360	16.5	3.32	1.21	Neutral	1
Normative commitment	216	11.9	288	15.8	389	21.4	629	34.6	298	16.4	3.28	1.25	Neutral	2
Overall Commitment	847	13.7	1200	19.4	1276	20.6	1995	32.2	870	14.1	3.14	1.27	Neutral	

In summary, the descriptive analysis for Tables 5.15 to 5.22 resulted in the following:

- Intrinsic factors: agree (first ranked item 7, 8, 5).
- Extrinsic factors: agree (ranking items 20, 19, 18).
- Job satisfaction: agree: (items ranked 21, 22).
- Intent to leave: disagree (item 26).
- Affective commitment: neutral (items 34, 29, 30).
- Continuance commitment: neutral (items 35, 36, 37).
- Normative commitment: neutral (items 44, 46).
- Overall organisational commitment (affective, continuance, normative).

5.2 Hypothesis testing

To test the relationships between the items, Pearson's correlation coefficient was conducted for job satisfaction, and intrinsic and extrinsic variables. These are individually addressed and then ranked.

5.2.1 H1: Job satisfaction and intrinsic factors

The hypotheses tested are:

H₁₀: There is no relationship between job satisfaction and intrinsic factors.

H₁₁: There is a relationship between job satisfaction and intrinsic factors.

The following Table, 5.23 shows the results in testing the links between job satisfaction and intrinsic factors.

Table 5.23 *Relationship testing between job satisfaction and intrinsic factors*

Intrinsic factors	Job satisfaction	
	n = 364	
1- Activity	Pearson correlation (r)	0.400**
	Sig. (p-value)	0.000
2 Variety	Pearson correlation (r)	0.401**
	Sig. (p-value)	0.000
3 Ability utilisation	Pearson correlation (r)	0.472**
	Sig. (p-value)	0.000
4 Creativity	Pearson correlation (r)	0.469**
	Sig. (p-value)	0.000
5 Social service	Pearson correlation (r)	0.513**
	Sig. (p-value)	0.000
6 Achievement	Pearson correlation (r)	0.440**
	Sig. (p-value)	0.000
7 Moral values	Pearson correlation (r)	0.441**
	Sig. (p-value)	0.000
8 Security	Pearson correlation (r)	0.422**
	Sig. (p-value)	0.000
9 Social status	Pearson correlation (r)	0.497**
	Sig. (p-value)	0.000
10 Authority	Pearson correlation (r)	0.434**
	Sig. (p-value)	0.000
11 Independence	Pearson correlation (r)	0.383**
	Sig. (p-value)	0.000
12 Responsibility	Pearson correlation (r)	0.433**
	Sig. (p-value)	0.000

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 5.23 shows that the p-value is less than 0.01 for all intrinsic factors. There are significant relationships at level 0.01 between job satisfaction and each of the intrinsic factors. The correlations between most of the intrinsic factors (except for 'Independence') and job satisfaction are between the range of 0.4 to 0.6, that can be considered as moderate correlations. While the correlation between 'Independence' and job satisfaction is between the range of 0.2 to 0.4, that indicate to low or weak correlation. The null hypothesis H_{10} is rejected.

As job satisfaction is the dependent variable and the intrinsic factors are independent variables, a multiple correlation was conducted, $R = 0.670$. The coefficient of determination

is $R^2 = 0.449$. The intrinsic factors therefore explain 45 per cent of the variation in job satisfaction.

5.2.2 H2: Job satisfaction and extrinsic factors

The hypotheses are:

H2₀: There is no relationship between job satisfaction and extrinsic factors

H2₁: There is a relationship between job satisfaction and extrinsic factors

Results in the following table, Table 5.24, show the correlation between job satisfaction and extrinsic factors.

Table 5.24 *Relationship testing between job satisfaction and extrinsic factors*

Intrinsic factors	Job satisfaction n = 364	
1 Policies	Pearson correlation (r)	0.470**
	Sig. (p-value)	0.000
2 Pay	Pearson correlation (r)	0.495**
	Sig. (p-value)	0.000
3 Advancement	Pearson correlation (r)	0.517**
	Sig. (p-value)	0.000
4 Working conditions	Pearson correlation (r)	0.501**
	Sig. (p-value)	0.000
5 Co-workers	Pearson correlation (r)	0.295**
	Sig. (p-value)	0.000
6 Recognition	Pearson correlation (r)	0.432**
	Sig. (p-value)	0.000
7 Supervision (Technical)	Pearson correlation (r)	0.475**
	Sig. (p-value)	0.00
8 Supervision (HR)	Pearson correlation (r)	0.478**
	Sig. (p-value)	0.000

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 5.24 shows that, as the p-value is less than 0.01 for all extrinsic factors, there are significant relationships between job satisfaction and each of the extrinsic factors. The correlations between most of the extrinsic factors (except for ‘Co-workers’) and job satisfaction range between 0.4 to 0.6, and thus can be considered moderate correlations. While the correlation between ‘Co-workers’ and job satisfaction is between the range of 0.2 to 0.4, indicating a low or weak correlation. The null hypothesis H2₀ is rejected.

The multiple correlation between job satisfaction and extrinsic factors was $R = 0.697$, $R^2 = 0.486$, thus the extrinsic factors explain 49 per cent of the variation in job satisfaction.

5.2.3 H3: Testing job satisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic factors

The hypotheses are:

H3₀: Extrinsic factors are more significant than intrinsic factors

H3₁: Extrinsic factors are less significant than intrinsic factors

Table 5.25, shows the test results for the hypotheses.

Table 5.25 *Testing job satisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic factors*

Group		Job satisfaction n = 364
1 Intrinsic group	Pearson correlation (r)	0.659**
	Sig. (p-value)	0.000
2 Extrinsic group	Pearson correlation (r)	0.685**
	Sig. (p-value)	0.000

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 5.25 shows that as the p-value is less than 0.001, the relationships are highly significant. The correlation coefficient between job satisfaction and the intrinsic factor group is less than that between job satisfaction and extrinsic factors group; the relationship between job satisfaction and the extrinsic factor is higher than that between job satisfaction and the intrinsic factors. Both these sets of correlations are between 0.6 and 0.8, indicating high or strong correlations. Thus H3₀ is accepted.

The multiple correlation between job satisfaction and all 20 intrinsic and extrinsic factors was $R = 0.756$, $R^2 = 0.546$, thus intrinsic and extrinsic factors together explain 55 per cent of the variation.

5.2.4 H4: Job satisfaction and organisational commitment

For this test, the hypothesis is expressed as:

H4₀: Job satisfaction is positively associated with organisational commitment.

H4₁: job satisfaction is not positively associated with organisational commitment.

The following Table 5.26 shows test results for the correlation between job satisfaction and the organisation commitment factors.

Table 5.26 *Testing job satisfaction with organisational commitment*

Commitment factors	Job satisfaction n = 364	
5 Affective commitment	Pearson correlation (r)	0.140**
	Sig. (p-value)	0.007
6 Continuance commitment	Pearson correlation (r)	0.152**
	Sig. (p-value)	0.004
7 Normative commitment	Pearson correlation (r)	0.502**
	Sig. (p-value)	0.000
Overall commitment	Pearson correlation (r)	0.364**
	Sig. (p-value)	0.000

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

As the p-value is less than, 0.01, Table 5.26 shows positive correlations between job satisfaction and all the factors, thus there is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and employee commitment. The correlations between ‘Affective commitment’ and job satisfaction and ‘Continuance commitment’ can be considered very low, while the correlation between ‘Normative commitment’ and job satisfaction indicates a moderate correlation. Overall, the correlation between ‘Overall commitment’ and job satisfaction is low or weak correlation. Therefore, hypothesis H₄₀ is accepted.

5.2.5 H₅: Job satisfaction and intention to leave

For the final test, the hypothesis is expressed as:

H₅₀: job satisfaction is negatively associated with intention to leave.

H₅₁: job satisfaction is not negatively associated with intention to leave.

Table 5.27 shows the results of testing for job satisfaction and intention to leave the organisation.

Table 5.27 *Testing job satisfaction with intention to leave*

Factor		Job satisfaction n = 364
4 Intention to leave	Pearson correlation (r)	-0.322**
	Sig. (p-value)	0.000

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

With a p-value less than 0.01, Table 5.27 shows a negative correlation between job satisfaction and intention to leave, thus there is a negative relationship between job satisfaction and intention to leave. The correlation between 'Intention to leave' and job satisfaction is between the range -0.2 and -0.4, therefore, this correlation can be considered low or weak. Thus, hypothesis H5₀ is accepted.

5.2.6 Summary of hypotheses

The hypotheses selected as the results for the statistical analyses are:

H1₁: There is a relationship between job satisfaction and intrinsic factors

H2₁: There is a relationship between job satisfaction and extrinsic factors

H3₀: Extrinsic factors are more significant than intrinsic factors in influencing job satisfaction

H4₀: Job satisfaction is positively associated with organisational commitment

H5₀: Job satisfaction is negatively associated with intention to leave

Analysis showed that extrinsic and intrinsic factors explained only 55 per cent of the variation of job satisfaction, therefore there are other factors that affect job satisfaction external to the scope of this study. As calculated, the level of job satisfaction in the Saudi public service is 63.74 per cent, with weighted means of 3.52.

The results for these tests are that a relationship exists between job satisfaction and intrinsic and extrinsic variables; however, extrinsic factors are more important to the study participants than intrinsic factors, and there are factors external to this study that explains 36.26 per cent of the variation. Job satisfaction is positively associated with organisational commitment while it is negatively associated with intention to leave the organisation.

5.3 Qualitative analysis

This section shows the results of the analysis of the data obtained from managers who were interviewed in the second part of the research. The purpose was to gain some more insight into the quantitative findings, and acquire more contextual information about the Saudi public sector environment and socio-economic factors influencing job satisfaction that may not have been revealed through the quantitative surveys. The target sample was five representatives (personnel managers) from the five organisations surveyed in the quantitative research. From the five agreed interviews, four were successfully conducted. One manager was unable to attend the interview.

As explained in the previous chapter, these were semi-structured interviews held in the managers' offices, with one email response. First, the interview protocols were established (permission to record, confidentiality, ability to finish the interview at any time). Next, questions regarding the respondent's position and qualifications for that position were asked, and this was followed by the questions regarding the research focus: job satisfaction for employees within the management structure of the Saudi public services. The first general question asked for the interviewee's response to the survey results on intrinsic factors in terms of the three most effective factors for influencing job satisfaction and three least effective factors that prompted employees to stay on the job. The second question asked for the interviewees to rate what they perceived to be the most important and least important extrinsic factors for job satisfaction. The third question solicited the interviewee's opinion on the generalisability of the results in relation to the middle management employees in the Saudi ministries, to make sure that the quantitative findings could logically be applied from the sample to the population.

Given that the respondents' preference for extrinsic rewards contradicted previous research in the literature that find intrinsic factors to be more important, the interviewees were asked to further clarify their views on this outcome (question 4). The respondents were further asked their opinion on whether this study's findings could be extended to management in the private sector (question 5). The sixth question asked the interviewee to comment on the research, whether it was sufficiently comprehensive, or whether there were some other factors that might be influence job satisfaction among Saudi managers. The final question (7th) asked for the interviewee's thoughts on government policies that could change public sector employment to enhance the working environment and productivity.

5.3.1 Response to survey outcomes

The four managers' demographics and positions were as follows:

Manager 1: position level 12 (highest), held a Master's degree, with 28 years' experience

Manager 2, position level 10, Bachelor's degree, 15 years' experience

Manager 3, position level 8, Bachelor's degree, 11 years' experience

Manager 4, position level 8, Bachelor's degree, 14 years' experience

The participants' responses to the questions on the survey outcomes are presented in Table 5.28.

Table 5.28 *Interviewee responses to survey outcomes*

Questions	Manager 1	Manager 2	Manager 3	Manager 4
Q 1. The results of this study showed that the most effective intrinsic motivators to stay on the job, and the most satisfying factors were: moral values, job security, and social service. The less satisfying factors for participants were: responsibility, innovation, and independence.	Disagree	Disagree	Disagree	Disagree
Q 2. Extrinsic factors of higher job satisfaction were: efficiency of supervisor and his/her way of dealing with employees, good relationships with colleagues, recognition. Factors of less importance to satisfaction were the organisation policies, opportunities for promotion, pay, and working conditions.	Disagree	Agree	Agree	Disagree
Q 3. It is possible to generalise this result for middle management (6 - 10) in other ministries	Disagree	Agree	Agree	Agree
Q 4. Results of this study reveal that extrinsic factors are more important than intrinsic factors in influencing job satisfaction. However, previous studies in other countries revealed the opposite.	Agree	Agree	Agree	Agree
Q 5. The responses of private sector employees might differ in the order of these factors.	Agree	Agree	Disagree	Agree

The response to question 1 in Table 5.28 was unanimous: in contrast to the order in which the public sector middle managers (n = 364) in the quantitative survey ranked their priorities, the interviewees placed job security above all factors. This outcome prompted another selective analysis of the quantitative data. For this analysis, survey respondents were selected on the basis of their similarity to the interviewees' profiles (experience 10 - <30 years, similar education - bachelor and master degree) to assess whether there were group norms at play that had not been captured by the survey data. This selective analysis is shown in Table 5.29.

Table 5.29 Ranking selected intrinsic factors: full and limited sample

Statements	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly agree		Weighted means	Std. dev.	Result	Rank
	f	%	f	%	F	%	f	%	f	%				
<i>Full sample (n = 364)</i>														
5- I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it gives me the chance to do things for others.	25	6.9	21	5.8	19	5.2	177	48.6	122	33.5	3.96	1.11	Agree	3
6- I am satisfied with the feeling of accomplishment I get from completing tasks at work.	16	4.4	33	9.1	21	5.8	174	47.8	120	33.0	3.96	1.07	Agree	3
7- I am satisfied with working in this organisation as the tasks that I perform don't go against my conscience or principles.	19	5.2	16	4.4	18	4.9	153	42.0	158	43.4	4.14	1.05	Agree	1
8- I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it provides me with a steady job.	21	5.8	12	3.3	26	7.1	152	41.8	153	42.0	4.11	1.06	Agree	2
<i>Limited sample (more than 10 years' experience, less than 30 years, similar education) n = 65</i>														
5- I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it gives me the chance to do things for others.	6	9.2	7	10.8	2	3.1	34	52.3	16	24.6	3.72	1.22	Agree	4
6- I am satisfied with the feeling of accomplishment I get from completing tasks at work.	3	4.6	5	7.7	5	7.7	33	50.8	19	29.2	3.92	1.05	Agree	3
7- I am satisfied with working in this organisation as the tasks that I perform don't go against my conscience or principles.	5	7.7	1	1.5	1	1.5	32	49.2	26	40.0	4.12	1.08	Agree	2
8- I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it provides me with a steady job.	3	4.6	2	3.1	3	4.6	29	44.6	28	43.1	4.18	1.18	Agree	1

The results transferred from descriptive statistics results in Table 5.15 show that 83.8 per cent agreed or strongly agreed that they preferred job security; whereas the limited sample results were higher, at 87.7 per cent. Thus those with more experience viewed job security more highly, and the ranking order of intrinsic factors changed to job security (Q8), moral values (Q7), achievement (Q6), and social service (Q5). Extracts from the transcripts emphasise the values of intrinsic factors:

Interviewee 1: I disagree somewhat with this result and I think that job security is the highest factor in the public sector, then ethical values and then community service.

Interviewee 2: In my opinion job security is the important factor for choosing to work in the public sector, so it is ranked highest, followed by community service, and then standing in community.

Interviewee 3: I would rank the factors differently. The highest satisfaction factor for the managers should be job security, followed by ethical values and then responsibility.

Interviewee 4: I disagree somewhat with this ranking. I think that job security would be the highest satisfaction factor among employees in the public sector because job security is the most important factor in choosing to work in the public sector. Second highest factor is standing in community, then community service, and then ethics values.

The interviewees were thus in agreement that the respondents were circumspect in their responses to the questionnaire, an unforeseen occurrence. They were also in accord with the following factors, even in different order: community service, ethics and status.

Next, two of the interviewed managers agreed while the other two disagreed with the statement relating to priorities on extrinsic factors (interviewee Q2), as shown in Table 5.28, resulting in a neutral response. A similar selected sample analysis of the survey respondents was conducted and the results are shown in Table 5.30.

Table 5.30 Ranking selected extrinsic factors: full and limited sample

Statements	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly agree		Weighted means	Std. dev.	Result	Rank
	f	%	f	%	F	%	F	%	f	%				
<i>Full sample (n = 364)</i>														
14- I am satisfied with the pay that I get for the work I do.	56	15.4	67	18.4	39	10.7	136	37.4	66	18.1	3.24	1.36	Neutral	5
17- I am satisfied with the way my colleagues interact with each other.	25	6.9	58	15.9	61	16.8	166	45.6	54	14.8	3.46	1.13	Agree	4
18- I am satisfied with the praise I get for doing a task well.	27	7.4	57	15.7	53	14.6	172	47.3	55	15.1	3.47	1.15	Agree	3
19- I am satisfied with the competence of my supervisor in making decisions.	29	8.0	59	16.2	48	13.2	143	39.3	85	23.4	3.54	1.23	Agree	2
20- I am satisfied with the way my supervisor deals with his employees.	28	7.7	47	12.9	54	14.8	156	42.9	79	21.7	3.58	1.18	Agree	1
<i>Limited sample (more than 10 years' experience, less than 30 years, similar education) n = 65</i>														
14- I am satisfied with the pay that I get for the work I do.	10	15.4	14	21.5	7	10.8	25	38.5	9	13.8	3.14	1.33	Neutral	3
17- I am satisfied with the way my colleagues interact with each other.	4	6.2	17	26.2	11	16.9	32	49.2	1	1.5	3.14	1.03	Neutral	3
18- I am satisfied with the praise I get for doing a task well.	5	7.7	14	21.5	10	15.4	29	44.6	7	10.8	3.29	1.16	Neutral	1
19- I am satisfied with the competence of my supervisor in making decisions.	7	10.8	17	26.2	8	12.3	26	40.0	7	10.8	3.14	1.24	Neutral	3
20- I am satisfied with the way my supervisor deals with his employees.	7	10.8	11	16.9	11	16.9	28	43.1	8	12.3	3.29	1.21	Neutral	1

In ranking selected extrinsic factors, Table 5.30 shows that the limited sample of senior managers ranked their supervisory relationships first, then praise. The rankings made by the full sample differed and expressed slightly stronger support for supervisor's decision making competence (question 19).

For question 3, the majority (75%) of interviewees agreed that the survey results on job satisfaction outcomes could be applicable to public servant classifications in the various government organisations (see Table 5.28). However, the notion that the results might differ for the private sector (question 5, 75% agreement) was debated. The private sector comprises

large, medium and small companies, and their policies differ for employment conditions. Therefore, according to the interviewees, high employee satisfaction with working conditions in one company may rate lower, as interviewee 3 noted:

Private sector organisations cannot be put in one basket. There are large companies, medium companies and small companies. They differ in their features and abilities, so employees' responses are different depend on the company type he or she works for. Therefore, some satisfaction factors may be ranked highest by employees in one company and lowest in another. For example, *standing in the community* can be considered as the highest satisfaction factor in a large well-regarded company and lowest in a small company no one knows.

Nevertheless, the interviewees expected that senior private sector managers would rate intrinsic factors creativity, resource utilisation, and using their skills highest for satisfaction, and job security as lowest. Interviewee 4 said that the job satisfaction factors could easily be reversed between the private and the public sectors:

Yes, in my opinion, the responses of in private sector employees would different. From public employees . . . If we focus on the companies that people prefer to work for, the highest intrinsic factors could be creativity, using abilities and skills, and variety; the lowest satisfaction factors could be job security, standing in community, and community service. For extrinsic factors, the highest would be opportunity for promotions, pay, organisation polices (as these are more flexible and can be updated or changes by the Board of Directors, not like the government sector) and finally working conditions. Supervisor's management skills wouldn't count (Interviewee 4).

For extrinsic factors the interviewees hypothesised that pay, opportunities for promotion, and working conditions would be rated as high satisfaction items, with the supervisor relationship (dealing with subordinates) ranked low in the private sector.

The interviewees were asked their views on the relative importance of intrinsic and extrinsic factors in job satisfaction in question 4 (Table 5.28). The interviewed managers agreed with the full sample results that extrinsic factors were more important than intrinsic factors in relation to job satisfaction among middle managers in the Saudi public sector. Further investigation revealed that the interviewees attribute the difference between the literature findings and the outcome from the first phase of this research to economic and environmental differences in the Saudi public sector. They explained that the employees in the other countries may have greater material satisfaction and good working conditions including organisation policies, so they would perhaps not be concerned about extrinsic factors and place greater value on intrinsic factors. One manager supported these justifications by employing Maslow's hierarchy of needs; arguing that once the extrinsic factors were satisfied, then the higher-order intrinsic factors could emerge as an interviewee explained:

The findings from the literature often apply to country samples that have excellent working conditions. They have comprehensive legislation that is regularly updated to respond to the current labour force environment, so they do not have problems with extrinsic factors, therefore intrinsic factors appear as more important. This does not happen with Jeddah's public managers, who work under very old regulations and working conditions and neither legislation nor policies are updated. If we applied the Maslow hierarchy, extrinsic factors could be placed in the lowest levels so their needs should be fulfilled from the bottom up. I don't think the basic needs are yet fulfilled for Saudi public sector. Once extrinsic factors have been fulfilled, the intrinsic factors will emerge (Interviewee 2).

The interviewees thus saw differences between empirical studies bound by differing national employment conditions regarding the job satisfaction factors. Saudi public sector employment conditions also differed, so that extrinsic factors were predominant in this study, where intrinsic factors may be more valued by employees in a different jurisdiction.

5.3.2 Results of open discussions

The interview questions, 6 and 7, were designed to elicit further information from the interview with the senior managers. These are presented below.

Question 6: What are the other factors that affect job satisfaction, which have not been mentioned in this study?

Interviewee 1: "working hours and leave".

Interviewee 2: performance appraisals and working hours; work and family issues such as attending to children's needs, health care, and transport for women employees; organisational policies because these might improve job satisfaction and thus employee's performance.

Interviewee 3: "working hours and leave; other matters are included".

Interviewee 4: I believe that factors dealt with include most factors of job satisfaction. Each factor may include subsidiary factors, and sometimes they may interact.

Question 7: What policies should be adopted by the government to improve performance in the public sector?

Interviewee 1: motivational policies for innovators; faster promotion for employees; an accurate and fair system for performance appraisal, and correlating pay to performance; updating regulations to meet emerging social norms; using technology to connect government circles with each other, employee benefits such as allowances and health insurance.

Interviewee 2: employee incentives; work and family policies to assist employees meet family needs; better services and resources for the working environment; introduce policies that reward innovation and skills acquisition.

Interviewee 3: increased pay and incentives; better services and resources for the working environment.

The interviewee added:

We in the public services need a review of all policies, regulations, and systems. Most of the policies and bylaws have been in force for a long time without updating and they no longer meet current needs . . . reconsidering careers and promotion system which are not encouraging people to stay with their organisations.

Interviewee 4: pay and incentives, careers and promotion, review of regulations and laws concerning employment; improving the working environment.

5.3.3 Summary of interviews

The interviewee managers agreed that organisational policies on pay and conditions were fundamental to job satisfaction. They showed little regard for public service leadership or productivity and concentrated on what appeared to be self-interest. Intrinsic factors appeared to be dismissed as irrelevant to job satisfaction, although satisfaction with social ideals appeared to be higher in the results from the full sample. The managers' 'demands' are clear: change through the public service structure is needed in all areas, its regulatory systems, its employee reward and career systems, new modern policies on work and family which would be acceptable and not subject to fringe benefits tax in Saudi Arabia, benefits such as private health insurance for families, new technology systems, and organisational restructure.

5.4 Chapter summary

This chapter summarised the results of data collected in a mixed methods research design that was aimed at understanding the views and experiences of middle management, professionals, and executives in the Saudi public services in relation to job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was premised on the expectation that, once achieved, it could be employed to retain people in their jobs and to improve the very low productivity of the sector.

The results of the quantitative analysis, through the hypotheses, showed relationships between job satisfaction and both intrinsic and extrinsic items in the survey, although extrinsic factors of organisational policies predominated. Increased job satisfaction was found to lead to increased organisational commitment, and decreased intention to leave. However, the results of the qualitative phase of the research did not support these findings, with the exception of the importance of the extrinsic factors.

Chapter 6 Discussion, conclusions and recommendations

The previous chapter reported the results of the analysis, and this chapter moves to discuss the findings of the analysis conducted against the frame provided by the previous studies in the literature. This chapter begins with an overview of the results of the survey on the demographic characteristics of the participants, and then moves on to an explanation of the findings in relation to the intrinsic and extrinsic factors evaluated in the survey. This is followed by a discussion of significant factors that arose during the analysis, and then of organisational commitment and respondents' intention to leave and the relationship of these factors to job satisfaction. After that, a conclusion that includes a summary of major findings is provided, followed by suggested recommendations to improve job satisfaction in public service in Saudi Arabia. Finally, the limitations of study are stated and recommendations provided for future studies.

6.1 Overview

The results of the quantitative survey analysis showed that 63.7 per cent of the surveyed sample of Saudi public sector employees with graduate or above education level reported mild satisfaction with their job and their employer (weighted mean 3.52, neutral at 2.6-3.39). The data showed that both intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction factors were influential, and this is consistent with an Emirati study on police by Abdulla, Djebarni and Mellahi (2011). In Oman, Swailes and Al-Fahdi (2011) found minor turnover due to job dissatisfaction, however, these losses could occur in key technical and management roles. Extrinsic factors involved in Swailes and Al-Fahdi's study were pay, career, and management style. The following sections discuss the various aspects of the results.

6.2 Demographic analysis

The first set of variables discussed is the demographic analysis of the respondent group. To explain results in relation to job satisfaction, these variables explain characteristics of the respondents in the context of the Saudi public service. The ministries concerned were Petroleum and Mineral Resources, Finance, Civil Service, Social Affairs, and Transport.

The sample comprised 88 per cent male respondents and 12 per cent female. These figures differ from the proportions of men and women in the Saudi public sector, where Al-Humaidi (2014) reported that of 1.13m Saudi public servants, 38 per cent were women. This was

confirmed by an Arab News report (2014, 23 April) that also indicated that 87 per cent of women were employed in education. Further, there is no accessible record of the gender proportions in the classification range for the sample, level 6-10 that includes line managers under the executive classifications (level 11-15). The gender representation within the grades appears reasonable, given the high proportion of women in education and the balance of their representation of some 12.6 per cent spread over the remaining ministries including those in which this research was conducted.

A majority of the respondents (57.7%) were aged over 40 years with 35 per cent 30-39 years of age. This differs from the youthful profile for the country of 26 years (The World Factbook 2013, 2014). Saudis seek employment in the public service and tend not to leave, benefiting from promotion over time (Ramady, 2013). The age variable can be put in a broader context through work experience, where 29 per cent of the sample had less than 10 years' experience and the majority (61%) had 10 to 29 years' experience. As the entry level is class 6 for those with bachelor degrees, it may be assumed that the sample is a reflection of the public service population, and this is further supported by 62.7 per cent of the respondents reporting that they had bachelor's or higher degree (Ministry of Civil Service 2013, 2014). Given the current entry level, 37.1 per cent of the sample reported other accreditation (23% at secondary school level or below); this could reflect either lower previous entry qualifications, or the influence of Wasta (nepotism). Wasta is widely believed to be influential in acquiring public sector jobs (Iles, Almhedie & Baruch 2012, Ramady 2010).

The final demographic variable, job level, showed fairly average progression through the ranks. Level 6 was the majority among the study sample at 29.7 per cent. This may be because the entry level for class 6 is a bachelor degree. The level of experience for employees at level 6 confirmed this explanation with 29.1 per cent reporting 10 years or less experience. Therefore the sample is a reflection of the public service population, as the last statistic revealed that the employees who have the bachelor degree represent the highest percentage among government employees in Saudi Arabia (Ministry of Civil Service 2014). Employee numbers at other levels in the hierarchy were within the normal range in the hierarchy where that the number of employees decreases gradually towards the top of the hierarchy.

6.3 Intrinsic factors

The components of job satisfaction may be considered from the perspective of intrinsic and extrinsic factors. In this view, intrinsic factors are internalised such as seeking interesting and challenging work and opportunities to use one's skills and abilities, being self-sufficient and accepting responsibility and displaying creativity. Extrinsic factors, on the other hand, are derived from the social environment such as supportive co-workers and supervisors, or those provided by the organisation for the purpose of facilitating or motivating task performance such as pay, career, and working conditions (Smith, Kendall & Hulin 1969). However, the classification of job satisfaction factors is highly varied in the literature, as researchers tend to rate them differently. For example, Rich, Lepine and Crawford (2010) found that intrinsic job satisfaction variables as a stronger predictor of job involvement than extrinsic job satisfaction; whilst Judge et al (2010) studied the extrinsic factor of pay and job satisfaction, finding that pay levels were mildly related to satisfaction. Analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data of this study shows that the four intrinsic factors that recorded highest satisfaction were: job security (w.m. 4.18), moral values (w.m. 4.12), achievement (w.m. 3.92), and social service (w.m. 3.72).

6.3.1 Job security

Saudi public employees have a high level of job security and can look forward to continuous employment until they retire or resign (Hertog 2012). The quantitative data revealed a high degree of satisfaction with job security (w.m. 4.11) the second most influential factor to levels of job satisfaction; this was also found to be the primary aspect for those interviewed for the qualitative component of this study. The interviewees also indicated that they had observed job security to be highly attractive both for job seekers and in retaining people in the sector.

The literature review revealed no studies investigating job security in the public service in Saudi Arabia, but this has been found to be an issue in the private sector where jobs are contracted (Ramady 2013). In the United Arab Emirates, Alnaqbi (2011) studied intention to leave in the public service and found that job security and status were strong influences on employees' satisfaction. In a meta-analysis of public sector studies on job satisfaction, Taylor and Westover (2011) explored public service motivation using job security as an extrinsic factor, finding that security was influential in organisational motivation. In this study,

aligning the demographics of interviewees with similar survey respondents found that they also considered job security as a factor in job satisfaction.

6.3.2 Moral values

The influence of Islam on the public service was apparent in relation to the primary intrinsic value of conscience (w.m. 4.14) and principles or moral values in the responses to survey questions. Although the qualitative data analysis revealed a slight difference in relation to the importance placed on the two most highly related elements, for both groups moral values and job security were the two elements of greatest importance. This result was expected, as the law and its administration are based on the Qur'an and Shari'a law, and there were only minor differences between the quantitative and qualitative responses. Ali (2008) mentioned that Islam has a direct influence on all parts of life in Saudi Arabia.

Many studies around the world in other Islamic countries have also shown the influence of religion on the moral dimension of job satisfaction. In Pakistan, Haroon, Fakhar Zaman and Rehman (2012) found that Islamic values influenced job satisfaction for Islamic nurses. Also in Pakistan, Marri et al. (2012) investigated the effect of Islamic work ethics on job satisfaction and organisational commitment finding that Islamic work ethics influence job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Alsowoyegh (2012) found that cultural influences included Islamic law and values, tribal and family tradition, and also influenced workplace behaviours and organisational relationships. Thus the conclusion is that job satisfaction of Saudi public servants is significantly influenced by moral values filtered by Islamic faith.

6.3.3 Personal accomplishment and social service

Personal achievement in client or organisation service tends to be a job satisfaction motivator attributed to the human services, such as education, health and child protection services and professions (Brackett et al. 2010; Kim 2011; Lambrou, Kontodimopoulos & Niakas 2010). In Saudi Arabia, Al-Asfour and Khan (2014) mentioned issues in Saudisation/Nitaqat where there are significant differences in access to career paths and job security between the public and private sectors. Analysis of the quantitative data in this study shows that personal accomplishment is an influential factor in job satisfaction, ranking third (w.m. 3.96) among intrinsic factors. Interviewees endorsed this outcome as an important element in job satisfaction in the higher echelons of the Saudi public service.

In relation to personal accomplishment, Perry, Hondeghem and Wise (2010) conducted a meta-analysis of job motivation for public servants, finding that service values differed across nations. In Saudi Arabia, the value of attending to the public and administering to their needs was ranked fourth (w.m. 3.72) of the 12 intrinsic factors. The importance of social service is derived from Islamic principles that encourage social service and fruitful work (Yousef 2001).

Whilst personal accomplishment is an important variable for senior public servants in Saudi Arabia, there is a lack of corroborating evidence in the literature, which is overwhelmingly aligned to direct human services rather than administration. Nevertheless, it can be concluded from above discussion that personal achievement and social service can be accepted as important factors influencing job satisfaction.

6.3.4 Career-enhancements

The analysis showed that the lowest level of employee satisfaction related to the work itself. Questions relating to use of judgement, skills or knowledge were rated at the lowest among the intrinsic factors. But even the lower values recorded for these questions were not rejected by respondents but marked in the neutral region. The lowest values, at s.d. 2.92 and 3.0, were recorded for questions that related to the ability or preference to use initiative.

Early researchers extolled the benefits of work in an American context (Hackman & Oldman 1976), however, Moran, Abramson and Moran (2014) and Alsowoyegh (2012) noted the impact of culture on work attitudes, behaviour, motivation, and productivity. Whilst many of the researchers in Arab and similar collectivist societies used standard job satisfaction surveys, for example Rafiq et al. (2012), Meyer and Allen (1991) and Crossley et al. (2007), these were frequently compiled for direct human services, and their findings are not directly comparable to this study, given the varying research designs and population contexts.

In a study in Kuwait, Al-Enezi et al. (2009) found that nurses expressed some satisfaction with praise and recognition, and control and responsibility; whilst Barhem, Younies and Younis (2010) in the United Arab Emirates showed moderate job satisfaction in the public sector, and Abdulla, Djebarni and Mellahi (2011) found that intrinsic factors influenced job satisfaction for police. Al-Nsour (2012), in Jordan universities, found that both pay and morale influenced performance, whilst in Egypt, Matar (2010) found that while managers

were dissatisfied with their working conditions, they expressed general satisfaction with factors over which they had some control.

In the United Arab Emirates, Alnaqbi (2011) advised that public sector organisations should seek to improve career aspects related to skills development, challenges and responsibility. Extrinsic elements such as rewards that were equal to those of expatriates were important. Emirati staff, unlike the respondents in this study, did not seek supervisory responsibilities and sought control over their work flow. Further, the Emirati workers were not satisfied with management style, as the management was largely comprised of expatriates. However, these outcomes were not evident in the findings of this study, where the defensive factors of job security and adherence to Islamic values resulted in a range of neutral responses where initiative, empowerment and commitment to the organisation were not evident.

Some Arab studies advocate for the implementation of proactive intrinsic factors that lead to organisational commitment, improved performance and intention to stay (Alnaqbi 2011, Al-Nsour 2012). These were not evident in the analysis of the quantitative intrinsic variables of this study. This also has implications for recent research initiatives such as job crafting, where Demerouti and Bakker (2014) seek a collective approach to job satisfaction by building new relevant job descriptions that rely on individual and team responsibility to achieve tasks and targets. This notion of job review follows from Steijn (2008), who used a dataset to study person-environment fit among public sector employees. However, job reviews require frequent changes to task allocation to meet the job demands. This means that this intrinsic factor of career enhancement while being relevant for job satisfaction in the Saudi public service sector might perhaps be quite difficult to implement in reality.

6.4 Extrinsic factors

Extrinsic factors relate to elements in the working environment external to the individuals that affect their level of job satisfaction and relate to the 'fit' between individual and organisation (Steijn 2008). Extrinsic factors for the purpose of this study refer to pay and conditions, organisational policies and practices especially regarding career, supervision and team relationships. As these conditions vary greatly across organisations and countries, findings are necessarily empirical, localised and cannot be generalised. For example, Rad and De Moraes (2009) found that hospital workers in Iran were critical of pay and conditions; in Pakistani medical centres, Khan et al. (2011) found extrinsic factors of pay and working

conditions affected job satisfaction, as did Kaya, Koc and Topcu (2010) in Turkish banks. Širca, Babnik and Breznik (2012) also found a strong relationship between job satisfaction and career opportunities.

In this study, the primary variables concerned relationships with the supervisor. In fact, the four variables ranked 'agree' were all associated with a range of personal relationships but not the organisation (1: satisfied with supervisor, weighted mean 3.58; 2: competency of supervisor, w.m. 3.54; 3: supervisor feedback (recognition) w.m. 3.47; 4: team membership, w.m. 3.46). Pay, working conditions, career and organisational policies followed at varying levels of neutral values but did not drop lower to the category of 'disagree'.

6.4.1 Supervisor relationships

Investigating existing and past Omani public servants, Swailes and Al Fahdi (2011) explained that members of Islamic workplaces expect consultation with supervisors, and decision-making needs to be open and made to the satisfaction of God:

(organisational) control mechanisms are shaped by two values; the importance of self-control since God is omnipresent and the importance of structures to ensure proper supervision and conduct. The higher a person is in a bureaucracy, the greater the responsibility upon them for demonstrating competence as judged by others and by God (Swailes & Al Fahdi 2011, p.690).

As Saudi Arabia is arguably more conservative than other GCC countries, Swailes and Al Fahdi's findings explain the culture of regard for supervisors reported in this study. Further, Iles, Almhedie and Baruch (2012) stated that human resource management in the GCC countries is highly influenced by Islam, culture and political and regional associations. Iles, Almhedie and Baruch (2012) determined that the management models in the region are unique, and this view is supported by the outcomes of this study.

However, this study's findings do not agree with the job satisfaction results reported by many researchers. Affective commitment (to the organisation) is absent except through the leadership of the supervisor/line manager. This result accords with the findings of Alnaqbi (2011) in the Emirates, where job satisfaction and intention to leave were influenced by supervision and management style. Other Emirati public sector studies include Seba, Rowley and Delbridge (2012), who stated that leadership and trust (associated with respect) are paramount in Arab workplaces. Supervisor trust, and its relationship to job satisfaction, was also confirmed in the Emirati private sector (construction) by Randeree and Chaudhry (2012).

Nevertheless, Elbanna (2013) pointed out that Emirati federal and local government managers understood and practised principles of strategic human resource management. Therefore, the view of Iles, Almhedie and Baruch (2012) that there are distinct Arabic management models is certainly relevant to this research as current human resource management principles are practised in a modified form within the Arab management model.

The survey participants also expressed agreement to supervisor feedback and peer group/team relationships. In Saudi Arabia's private sector, Mansour and Achoui (2012) found that women employees were comfortable with their teams, resources and supervision. Al-Enezi et al. (2009) found that nurses in Kuwait expressed satisfaction with praise and recognition. Similarly, Suliman and Al Harethi (2013) found that elements relating to the working environment of Emirati public sector employees, including supervision, influenced their productivity. These previous findings are supported in this research, and the dense relationships of trust and obligation through family and Wasta (nepotism) are evident here.

6.4.2 Organisation-related variables

If Iles, Almhedie and Baruch's (2012) optional management models were adopted then organisational reform could be pursued. In this study, pay, working conditions, career and organisational policies were neutral, ranging from weighted means 3.24 (pay) to 2.86 (organisational policies) on a 5-point Likert scale. As noted, pay and conditions are non-quantifiable and localised and are not readily generalised; however, career and organisational policies should be regarded as part of an organisation's vision, aspirations, or policies, that is, a principle.

Careers are generally relevant only to bureaucracies. In a study on political corruption in Europe, Dahlström, Lapuente and Teorell (2012) explained that meritocratic recruitment and promotion in public sector bureaucracies reduce corruption, and that competitive salaries, career stability, or internal promotion do not have a significant impact. In this case, career structures are important, given the pressures of Saudisation in public services.

Perhaps the major work in the region on career paths is that of Alnaqbi (2011) who found that satisfaction and intention to leave for public servants in the Emirates were influenced predominantly by job security, status of their position, and appropriate job descriptions. It was necessary for the job descriptions to extend beyond tasks and responsibilities and provide indicators for team objectives and organisational goals.

There is significant research on desire for training and career development and planning among employees in the public service sector, for example, Mansour and Achoui (2012) in Saudi Arabia, Weng et al. (2010) in China, Chen et al. (2011) in the United States, and Bakewell (2012) in New Zealand. Interestingly, career was placed second last on the list of extrinsic variables, arguably because there were few opportunities of promotion or career enhancement in the public sector where jobs are more structured around stability and longevity. As a result, public sector employees, on the whole, showed little interest in pursuing a course of action that would expose the individual to risk of failure and loss of face. This general trait noticed in previous studies was supported in this research as career-enhancing behaviours of initiative, using skills and taking risks were placed last by respondents in the Saudi public service sector.

The final variable was organisational policies, and organisational policies are developed for each ministry's responsibilities under its charter. As Saudi Arabia is an absolute monarchy, the ministries were developed in their current forms under several rulers and any changes necessitated by new systems, such as human resources management or technology, tend to be adopted without changes to law or perhaps regulation (AlMunajjed 2010, Ramady 2010). A new organisation may be developed to implement a new system in the Kingdom that would be placed under an existing Ministry. When ministries and departments expand, jurisdictions between departments are blurred and duplicated. In this situation, it becomes more important for the individual to protect job and status rather than seek advancement. Hertog (2010) characterised this situation by explaining that the fragmentation of the middle bureaucratic levels means loss of capability to coordinate and integrate policies and initiatives between the different organisations and networks. Conversely, reform policies that involve only a few organisational representatives (such as Nitaqat) are managed more successfully, given that implementation occurs through lower-middle bureaucrats who must be identified and trained. Hertog (2010) argued that comprehensive middle-level inclusion and planning for implementation at lower levels are crucial to success.

These arguments are indirectly supported by this research as evident in a quote from an interviewee:

We in the public services need a review of all policies, regulations, and systems. Most of the policies and bylaws have been in force for a long time without having been updated and they no longer meet current needs . . . (we should be)

reconsidering careers and promotion systems that are not encouraging people to stay with their organisations.

6.5 Significant factors (extrinsic or intrinsic)

The analysis of results from the quantitative data collected from the line managers in the public sector organisations showed significant relationships between both the extrinsic and intrinsic factors, and job satisfaction. However, extrinsic factors were deemed more important than intrinsic factors. The results of the qualitative analysis from interviews with senior managers confirmed these findings. Thus the findings from this study align with the study of Rafiq et al. (2012) who found that extrinsic factors were more important for job satisfaction than intrinsic factors for call centre employees in Pakistan. However, there is also extensive evidence in the literature that shows that intrinsic factors are greater determinants of job satisfaction than extrinsic factors, especially in the public sector. These include Yu (2009) who found that intrinsic factors associated with job satisfaction for Chinese academics included teamwork, the nature of the work, self-esteem, self-efficacy and self-actualisation. Another study conducted by Randolph (2005) in the United States established that intrinsic factors, such as career aspirations and supportive working environment, influenced healthcare staff to a greater extent than extrinsic factors such as pay and continuing education.

The interviewees emphasised the impact of working conditions on job satisfaction; they suggested that the value survey participants placed on their security and social status outweighed their distaste for pay and conditions. One manager mentioned Maslow's hierarchy of needs to argue that higher-order intrinsic factors could emerge once the extrinsic factors were satisfied. The senior manager's observation was supported by an earlier international review of the literature by Huang and van de Vliert (2003) who found a stronger relationship between intrinsic job characteristics and job satisfaction in countries with well-formed social welfare structures; given that Saudi Arabia has generous social security. This point was supported by the influence of Liu and Tang's (2011) theory of 'iron rice bowl' (satisfactory remuneration) in motivating Chinese public servants. In a more recent meta study, Parboteeah, Cullen and Paik (2013) reviewed research results for cross-cultural work values, and found evidence supporting the effects of national social institutions (welfare structures), but showing limited influence of either intrinsic or extrinsic factors in post-industrial employment.

Whilst definitions of extrinsic (objective) and intrinsic (subjective) variables differ among researchers, the conclusion for this research is that intrinsic workplace values are less influential than the effects of reward values for line managers in the Saudi public organisations. As this discussion highlighted, this has been supported in the literature (Huang & van de Vliert 2003, Liu & Tang, 2011, Rafiq et al. 2012).

6.5.1 Organisational commitment

Organisational commitment may be considered as an emotional attachment to the organisation (affective commitment) or be perceived as a cost associated with leaving an organisation (continuance commitment) or based on attitudes relating to ethical aspects of remaining in the organisation (normative commitment). Continuance commitment was ranked as the highest among the organisational commitment variables for line managers surveyed in the quantitative phase of this study. However, due to lack of employment options this was found to be a matter of necessity rather than choice. This finding is consistent with AlQurashi's (2009) observations that higher levels of public service managers displayed stronger affective and normative commitment than their subordinates who expressed stronger continuance commitment. Many public sector studies have focussed on intention to stay or leave (continuance commitment), such as Iqbal et al. (2011) in management style influence on Saudi academics, and Turkyilmaz et al. (2011) regarding job satisfaction in the Turkish public sector. The majority of public sector commitment studies in Saudi Arabia concerned the different working environment of nurses and other healthcare workers (Al-Ahmadi 2009, Almalki, FitzGerald & Clark 2012) or private sector employees (Aldhuwaihi, Shee & Stanton 2012, Moussa 2013).

To an extent, the results of this study support Meyer et al.'s (2012) findings that collective and individualistic cultures influence commitment; that is, as a collectivist society Arabs tend to align commitment to a trusted leader, rather than an intangible entity such as an organisation (also Randeree & Chaudhry 2012, Seba, Rowley & Delbridge 2012). However, continuance commitment as 'intention to stay' could be site-specific. Williams, Rayner and Allinson (2012) found that educators in the U.K. displayed a greater degree of affective and normative organisational commitment but not continuance commitment. In a study on the Turkish hospitality sector (collectivist society, perhaps international staff), Gunlu, Aksarayli and Perçin (2010) found evidence of job satisfaction from both normative and affective organisational commitment but not continuance commitment.

The next variable in commitment rankings was normative commitment: an ethical consideration of serving one's community. However, there is some argument regarding the strength of this variable on intention to stay, or commitment to the organisation. Meyer and Parfyonova (2010) posited that normative commitment only acted as a mediating variable, whilst Giauque et al. (2012) in Switzerland found that 'commitment to public interest/civic duty' decreased resignation, whereas 'compassion' and 'self-sacrifice' increased intention to stay. Thus the findings of this research are that normative commitment lies between Meyer and Parfyonova's (2010) 'mediating variable' argument, and the findings of Giauque et al. (2012), Natarajan and Nagar (2013), and Markovits et al. (2010) that there were relationships between normative commitment (or altruism) and intention to stay.

Finally, in this research, affective commitment to the organisation encompassed both intrinsic and extrinsic variables due to the inclusion of social relationships (included in affective commitment, but placed in extrinsic variables in this research). Interestingly, Stazyk, Pandey and Wright (2011) found that affective commitment in public service in the United States was influenced by working conditions and changes in organisational goals due to external control. In the current study, human resource policies as extrinsic variables significantly affected commitment. Whilst there is some evidence that affective commitment may be influential in this research, Rose, Kumar and Pak's (2011) view that affective commitment is a mediating variable in organisational commitment is found to be more appropriate.

Overall, the findings of this study reveal a positive relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction. This finding is consistent with the public sector literature (Eslami & Gharakhani 2012; Natarajan & Nagar 2013). However, as Perry, Hondeghem and Wise (2010) point out, the relationship between the mediating variables and public service motivation and commitment to performance for the individuals has not been determined. They note that the meanings of the variables used in these public service motivational models vary: "as the internationalization of research proceeds, scholars and professionals need to be attentive to linguistic, contextual, and cultural considerations" (Perry, Hondeghem & Wise 2010, p. 687).

The factors for which the survey participants showed the least interest were performance-related. To rank these performance-related variables in reverse sequence, the least regarded one concerned using judgement, followed by chance to be innovative, working

autonomously, and challenging work. The absence of these qualities in staff leads to adverse consequences for organisational commitment (Al Zahrani et al. 2012).

In addressing issues of work commitment, Sidani and Thornberry (2010) viewed the Arab work ethic as incapable of change under the current circumstances. They argued for a potential role for religion in developing a value system for growth and social development. There are also family-related positive factors that may positively influence personal and social development; and they noted the influence of education, particularly curricula that could be developed to meet workplace needs. In this study, interviewees expected that senior managers in the private sector would rate the survey questions differently for satisfaction, with creativity, resource utilisation, and using their skills ranked highest, and job security as lowest. Similarly, the interviewees ranked working conditions for the private sector managers in a reverse sequence, with pay and opportunities for promotion ranked the highest, and supervisor relationships lowest. It should be noted that a high proportion of private sector managers in Saudi Arabia are expatriates (Ramady, 2013).

6.5.2 Intention to leave

The results from the quantitative findings was that the respondents appreciated their 'steady jobs' (ranking 2 in the intrinsic variables list) and did not intend to leave the organisation; 72.5 per cent of respondents stated that they did not intend to leave the organisation as soon as possible. The majority of the literature on intention to leave, intention to stay, and turnover was found in the healthcare field, particularly involving a worldwide shortage of nurses (Alam & Mohammad 2010; Decker, Harris-Kojetin, & Bercovitz 2009; King, Wei, & Howe 2013).

Chen et al. (2011) and Pitts, Marvel and Fernandez (2011) found that age was influential on public employees' intention to leave. In the current study, 57 per cent of the respondents were aged over 39 years, and 34 per cent had work experience of over 20 years. At a more advanced age, employees would prefer to stay on within their organisation, as it would be harder for them to consider new avenues outside their current job. Thus, the conclusion is that Saudi public servants are committed to keeping their jobs, that is, they intend to remain in the organisation until retirement.

6.6 Discussion summary

The discussion of the study results commenced with findings from the quantitative analysis, commencing with experience, age and qualifications of the study sample. The sample appeared to reflect overall public sector employment. The intrinsic factors involved satisfaction with individual accomplishments and workplace relationships. There was high regard for moral aspects of their jobs, security, and mutual regard between supervisor and respondent. Apart from personal status and relationships, there was no indication that employees considered organisational commitment or taking responsibility for their work. There was no sign of competition or need to excel; career aspirations were low, and intention to remain with the employer high. These characteristics were found to be consistent with the literature.

6.7 Conclusions

The outcome of this thesis is the finding that senior Saudi public servants are satisfied with aspects of their employment that relate to security, moral values, mutual regard from and for their supervisors, and that this led to a moderate amount of job satisfaction overall. The findings of this study showed that extrinsic factors were more important than intrinsic factors. There is some evidence that senior public servants may be more satisfied with improved salary packaging, but this is not directly related with the question of turnover.

There is no evidence in these findings that intention to stay with the organisation results in commitment to the organisational goals. In fact, the intention to stay on in the organisation is due to practical needs rather than any commitment to ideals. This is further supported by the fact that the respondents showed no enthusiasm for their work or intention to improve their performance, which was contrary to the expectations of the senior interviewees. The conclusion is therefore that for this study, commitment to keeping one's job in the Saudi public service does not necessarily equate to commitment to the organisation.

The twenty factors that related to job satisfaction tested in this study were: job security, moral values, social service, achievement, recognition, relationship with supervisor, supervisor efficiency, co-worker relationships, creativity, ability utilisation, variety, activity, independence, responsibility, social status, authority, organisational policies, advancement, working conditions and pay. These twenty factors represent only 65 per cent of factors that affect job satisfaction in the public sector in Saudi Arabia, and that means there are other

factors that have not been discussed here because they are beyond the scope of this study. Thus the model at Figure 3.4, whilst complex, does not fully encompass variables relating to job satisfaction in the context of the Saudi public service.

The analysis showed that the highest intrinsic satisfaction factors were job security, feeling of achievement, moral values and serving society. The lowest ranked job characteristics related to performance: the work itself (creativity, ability utilisation, and variety), lack of autonomy (independence), and responsibility. The highest ranked extrinsic factors were relationships with supervisors, recognition by the supervisor, and supervisors' abilities. The lowest ranked extrinsic satisfaction factors were organisational policies, advancement, working conditions and pay. However, extrinsic factors were more important than intrinsic factors for middle management employees. The intrinsic factors were mostly dismissed as irrelevant to job satisfaction in the interviews with senior managers.

Finally, the analysis revealed that organisational commitment has a positive relationship with job satisfaction and it was continuance commitment that was ranked the highest among the three components of organisational commitment for middle management employees. Intention to leave has a negative relationship with job satisfaction. On the other hand, intention to leave has a negative relationship with job satisfaction.

6.8 Recommendations

Human resource management plays a major role in the success of any organization (Gould-Williams 2003), and job satisfaction is an important issue for improving performance in the public service (Rehman & Waheed 2011; Al-Ahmadi 2009, Currall et al. 2005; Locke 1976). The result of this study showed that extrinsic factors are more significant than intrinsic factors, and the literature indicated that improving extrinsic factors could lead to improved satisfaction with intrinsic factors. Thus, human resource management strategy should focus on improving extrinsic factors, particularly the factors that recorded low satisfaction. This issue may be addressed, as recommended:

1. The quantitative phase results indicate a low level of satisfaction regarding the policies of organisation and the qualitative phase also confirms this. In the interviews, the senior managers indicated that they were not satisfied with the policies of their organisations in matters such as the performance appraisal and promotion systems. They also indicated that most of these policies were introduced a long time ago and had not been updated, so

they no longer meet current needs. The review of the literature revealed that employee satisfaction and commitment are influenced by organisation's policies (Ellickson & Logsdon 2001; Kaya, Koc & Topcu 2010; Širca, Babnik & Breznik 2012; Elamin & Alomaim 2011; Stazyk, Pandey & Wright 2011) and performance appraisal (Kuvaas 2006; Brown, Hyatt & Benson 2010; Jawahar 2006). Therefore, it is recommended that policies undergo a review and update from time to time to ensure consistency with new developments and changes in the organisations and surrounding environment.

2. The result of the analyses conducted in this study showed that there was a low level of satisfaction with the current system for promotion in the government ministries. The concentration of many employees in the middle of the hierarchy, at level 6, may create barriers in career progression for some employees at this level and may affect career progression in other administrative levels of the hierarchy. The literature review established that promotion opportunities positively impact job satisfaction (Yu 2009; De Souza 2002; Kebriaei & Motaghedi 2009; Kosteas 2010; Ellickson & Logsdon 2001) and negatively impact intention to leave (Alasmari & Douglas 2012; Swailes & Fahdi 2011). Thus, it is recommended that the current system for promotion undergo a comprehensive review and assessment to ensure a distribution of employees at all administrative levels within the hierarchy that will enhance promotion opportunities for employees in all administrative level.
3. Despite Saudis' preferences for the security and status of public employment, salary is still of concern to them. According to the literature, pay has a positive impact on job satisfaction (Rad & De Moraes 2009, Khan et al. 2011; Ellickson & Logsdon 2001; Kebriaei & Motaghedi 2009) and a negative impact on intention to leave (Alasmari & Douglas 2012), and rewards have been found to influence performance (Al-Nsour 2012). If pay is inadequate it may negatively impact performance. Therefore, some financial recalculations should be done to ensure that public sector salaries are able to fulfil the needs of employees that improve their satisfaction, which in turn, improve their performance.
4. The literature indicates that working conditions are related to job satisfaction (Khan et al. 2011; Al-Ahmadi 2009; Turkyilmaz et al. 2011) and employees' commitment (Stazyk, Pandey & Wright 2011). Findings of this study show that employees' satisfaction with their working conditions is low. Thus, decision makers in the Ministry of civil service

need to pay more attention to the physical aspect of the working environment, such as buildings, equipment, furniture, lighting and air conditioning.

6.9 Limitations and recommendations for future research

The limitations to this study relate to the sample selection, survey question selection, and classification of intrinsic and extrinsic factors. However, the limitations of the survey questions and their classification are relatively minor limitations. These limitations are noted and point to some recommendations for future studies :

1. This study surveyed employees working at the middle management level in the Saudi public sector. It may be useful to conduct a study on employees working in lower management (1-5) and higher management (11-15) to compare these findings on the factors affecting job satisfaction based on the administrative level.
2. There is also research potential for a comparative study using the same questions on employees in both the public and private sectors. The findings could not only point out the differences between the two sectors but also help in understanding the reasons behind lower satisfaction in some factors among employees in the public sector.

This study revealed that the factors affecting job satisfaction tested in this study represent only 65 per cent of the factors discovered by extant research. A future study could take up this initiative to explore these remaining factors.

6.10 Thesis summary

This study examined the factors affecting job satisfaction and relationships between job satisfaction and turnover and organisational commitment in the public sector of Saudi Arabia. This was based on a thorough review of the gap in the literature on factors affecting job satisfaction in the public sector. Jeddah was selected as the research locale because of its primary position as the country's commercial capital.

The thesis consisted of an introduction followed by the context of the study, chapter 2 elaborating on the demographic factors, political and economic circumstances, government and society in Saudi Arabia, next, Chapter 3 is the literature review on research fields relevant to the factors affecting job satisfaction. These fields included current productivity expectations, commitment and motivation theories as they relate to the public sector. This

was followed by a statement of the gap in the literature, and the conceptual framework was presented, then the hypotheses to address that gap were provided.

The primary research commenced at Chapter 4 with the research methodology advocating the use of mixed methods design comprising a survey and an interview. The survey was conducted on public service managers' perceptions in relation to aspects of their jobs, their workplace relationships, and the conditions under which they worked. The survey was followed by interviews with senior managers, requesting comments on their views of the survey results, and their opinions on whether public sector managers differed in their attitude to their work to managers at similar levels in the private sector. This led to chapter 5 which detailed the results of the quantitative analysis and the views of the interviewees. Chapter 6 then discussed the results, both in relation to previous studies in the literature, and within the framework of the current research model, with a conclusion that summarised major findings of study and presented relevant recommendations based on the findings.

6.11 Policy implications

At the time of writing, the Saudi government was experiencing a moribund public sector of entrenched policies and practices and an aversion to change. There is however, opportunity for policy change in technology where many administrative tasks such as human resources, paper-based activities and repetitive tasks are disappearing. As people retire, on currently a very generous public superannuation scheme for retirees with modest years of service, jobs can be removed. This action reduces the size of the public service without sacrificing its capability.

Of greater concern is the proliferation of quasi-autonomous government organisations. Very few such organisations have ever been disbanded, rather they have been absorbed into the structure of a larger Ministry or group, retaining structure and population. Again, it would be beneficial if these smaller organisations that had lost their purpose were disbanded and their populations either used elsewhere or retired.

Subsequently in 2015, King Salman disbanded many advisory councils and replaced them with two authoritative committees; one on the economy and the other on security. In October 2015, a National Centre for Measuring the Performance of Government Agencies was proclaimed to replace non-performing committees (TradeArabia 2015). This was viewed as a means to improve public sector efficiency and performance. The issues raised in this study should therefore be thus addressed.

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Appendix 1 Quantitative questionnaire

Dear participant

This survey relates to the thesis component of a Doctor of Business Administration which I am completing at Victoria University in Melbourne, Australia. The survey is designed to explore the factors you believe that may influence job satisfaction in the public sector of Saudi Arabia in regard to your job, your work conditions, work relationships and career.

Your opinions and experiences are important and provide valuable input to achieve the objectives of this research. If you choose to assist in this study, your confidentiality will be protected and your responses will be secure. The information provided will be used only for this research and for no other objective.

Thank you in advance for your time and co-operation.

Yours sincerely

Hamed Ateg Alsemeri

Firstly: Personal data

1) **Gender :** Male Female

2) **Age :** 20 – 29 years 30 – 39 years 40 – 49 years
 50 – 60 years

3) **Years of experience :**

1 – less than 10 years 10 – less than 20 years
 20 – less than 30 years 30 and over

4) **Education level**

Secondary School or less Diploma Bachelor
 Master Degree Doctorate Other

5) **Managerial rank**

Sixth Seventh Eighth
 Ninth Tenth

Secondly: Statements of survey

Please circle the number that best expresses your opinion in each statement from the following, using the scale below:

1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Nature 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly Agree

N	Statement	Scale				
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	I am satisfied with being busy at work most of the time.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it gives me the chance to do different things from time to time.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it gives me the chance to do tasks that make use of my abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it gives me the chance to try new methods to do my work.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it gives me the chance to do things for others.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I am satisfied with the feeling of accomplishment I get from completing tasks at work.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I am satisfied with working in this organisation as the tasks that I perform don't go against my conscience or principles.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it provides me with a steady job.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I am satisfied with working in the public sector as it gives me chance to be somebody in the community.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it gives me the chance to direct others.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it gives me the chance to work autonomously most of the time.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it gives me the freedom to use my own judgment in the work I perform.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I am satisfied with the way the organisation policies are put into practice.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I am satisfied with the pay that I get for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I am satisfied with working in this organisation as it gives me the chance for advancement.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I am satisfied with the working conditions.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	I am satisfied with the way my colleagues interact with each other.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	I am satisfied with the praise I get for doing a task well.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	I am satisfied with the competence of my supervisor in making decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	I am satisfied with the way my supervisor deals with his employees.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	Generally speaking, I am satisfied with this job.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	If I had the opportunity to start over again, I would choose the same type of work I presently do.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	Taking into consideration all things about my job, I am very satisfied.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	I intend to leave this organisation soon.	1	2	3	4	5

25.	I plan to leave this organisation in the next little while.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	I will quit this organisation as soon as possible.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	I do not plan on leaving this organisation soon.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	I may leave this organisation before too long.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	1	2	3	4	5
31.	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
32.	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
33.	I do not feel like "part of the family" at this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
34.	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	1	2	3	4	5
35.	Right now, staying with this organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	1	2	3	4	5
36.	It would be very hard for me to leave this organization right now, even if I wanted to.	1	2	3	4	5
37.	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave this organization now.	1	2	3	4	5
38.	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
39.	If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.	1	2	3	4	5
40.	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	1	2	3	4	5
41.	I do not feel any obligation to remain with this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
42.	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave this organization now.	1	2	3	4	5
43.	I would feel guilty if I left this organization now.	1	2	3	4	5
44.	This organization deserves my loyalty.	1	2	3	4	5
45.	I would not leave this organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	1	2	3	4	5
46.	I owe a great deal to this organization.	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for completing this questionnaire

Appendix 2 Translator's certifications

Ibrahim Mohamed Translation Services
Accredited NAATI Arabic-English, English-Arabic Translator
5 Loraine Avenue, Box Hill North 3129 Melbourne, Australia
Tel: 9849 1277

TRANSLATOR'S STATEMENT

I, the undersigned Ibrahim Mohamed, accredited NAATI Arabic-English, English-Arabic translator, hereby certify that the Arabic questionnaire attached hereto is, to the best of my ability, knowledge and belief, a true, complete and correct translation of the original English questionnaire.

Dated on: 09/04/2013

Translator Name: Ibrahim Mohamed

NAATI Registration Number: 50366

Translator Signature:



Ibrahim Mohamed

Appendix 3 Questionnaire in Arabic

عزيزي المشارك

هذا الاستقصاء يتعلق بالجانب التطبيقي لاطروحة الدكتوراة التي اقوم باعدادها حاليا بجامعة فكتوريا بمدينة ملبورن في استراليا . الاستقصاء صمم لاكتشاف العوامل التي يعتقد انها قد تؤثر على الرضا الوظيفي في القطاع العام فيما يتعلق بالوظيفة وظروف العمل والعلاقات مع المرؤوسين والزملاء.

ارائكم وخبراتكم مهمة وتزودنا بمعلومات قيمة لتحقيق اهداف هذا البحث , اذا اخترتم المساعدة في ذلك. علما بان البيانات التي ستقدمونها سوف تكون سرية ولن تستخدم الا لاجراض البحث العلمي فقط.

شكرا لكم مقدما على اعطائنا جزء من وقتكم وتعاونكم

حامد بن عاتق السميري

اولا : البيانات الشخصية

الجنس (1)	<input type="checkbox"/>	ذكر	<input type="checkbox"/>	انثى	<input type="checkbox"/>
العمر (2)	<input type="checkbox"/>	20 – 29 سنة	<input type="checkbox"/>	30 - 39 سنة	<input type="checkbox"/>
	<input type="checkbox"/>	40 – 49 سنة	<input type="checkbox"/>	50 – 60 سنة	<input type="checkbox"/>
سنوات الخدمة (3)	<input type="checkbox"/>	1 – أقل من 10 سنوات	<input type="checkbox"/>	10 – أقل من 20 سنة	<input type="checkbox"/>
	<input type="checkbox"/>	20 – أقل من 30 سنة	<input type="checkbox"/>	30 فاكثر	<input type="checkbox"/>
المستوى التعليمي (4)	<input type="checkbox"/>	الثانوية العامة او اقل	<input type="checkbox"/>	دبلوم بعد الثانوي	<input type="checkbox"/>
	<input type="checkbox"/>	البكالوريوس	<input type="checkbox"/>	ماجستير	<input type="checkbox"/>
	<input type="checkbox"/>	دكتورة	<input type="checkbox"/>	اخرى	<input type="checkbox"/>
المرتبة الادارية (5)	<input type="checkbox"/>	السادسة	<input type="checkbox"/>	السابعة	<input type="checkbox"/>
	<input type="checkbox"/>	الثامنة	<input type="checkbox"/>	التاسعة	<input type="checkbox"/>
	<input type="checkbox"/>	العاشرة	<input type="checkbox"/>		<input type="checkbox"/>

ثانيا : عبارات الاستبانة

فضلا ضع دائرة حول الرقم الذي يعبر عن رأيك في كل عبارة من العبارات التالية مستخدما المقياس ادناه :

1= غير موافق بشدة	2= غير موافق	3= لا ادري	4= موافق	5 = موافق بشدة
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الرقم	العبارات					المقياس
	1	2	3	4	5	
1.	انا راض بكوني مشغولا في العمل معظم الوقت					5 4 3 2 1
2.	انا راض عن العمل في هذه المنظمة لانها تتيح لي الفرصة للقيام باعمال مختلفة من فترة لآخرى					5 4 3 2 1
3.	انا راض عن العمل في هذه المنظمة لانها تتيح لي الفرصة للقيام بمهام تجعلني استخدم قدراتي					5 4 3 2 1
4.	انا راض عن العمل في هذه المنظمة لانها تتيح لي الفرصة لتجربة طرق جديدة في اداء العمل					5 4 3 2 1
5.	انا راض عن العمل في هذه المنظمة لانها تتيح لي الفرصة لخدمة الاخرين					5 4 3 2 1
6.	انا راض عن الشعور بالانجاز الذي احصل عليه من اكمال المهام المكلف بها في العمل					5 4 3 2 1
7.	انا راض عن العمل في هذه المنظمة لان المهام التي اؤديها لاتتعارض مع ضميري ومبادئ					5 4 3 2 1
8.	انا راض عن العمل في هذه المنظمة لانها توفر لي وظيفة ثابتة (دائمة)					5 4 3 2 1
9.	انا راض عن العمل في هذه المنظمة لانها تتيح لي الفرصة ان اكون مهما في المجتمع					5 4 3 2 1
10.	انا راض عن العمل في هذه المنظمة لانها تتيح لي الفرصة لتوجيه الاخرين					5 4 3 2 1
11.	انا راض عن العمل في هذه المنظمة لانها تتيح لي الفرصة للعمل باستقلالية في اغلب الاوقات					5 4 3 2 1
12.	انا راض عن العمل في هذه المنظمة لانها تمنحني الحرية في استخدام حكمي الخاص في اداء عملي					5 4 3 2 1
13.	انا راض عن الطريقة التي تطبق فيها سياسات المنظمة					5 4 3 2 1
14.	انا راض عن الراتب الذي احصل عليه مقابل العمل المكلف به					5 4 3 2 1
15.	انا راض عن العمل في هذه المنظمة لانها تتيح لي الفرصة في التقدم الوظيفي					5 4 3 2 1
16.	انا راض عن ظروف واحوال العمل					5 4 3 2 1
17.	انا راض عن الطريقة التي يتعامل بها زملائي مع بعضهم البعض					5 4 3 2 1
18.	ان راض عن الثناء الذي المسه من الاخرين عند القيام بعمل جيد					5 4 3 2 1
19.	انا راض عن كفاءة رئيسي المباشر في اتخاذ القرارات					5 4 3 2 1
20.	انا راض عن الطريقة التي يتعامل بها رئيسي المباشر مع رؤوسيه					5 4 3 2 1
21.	بصفة عامة , انا راض عن هذه الوظيفة					5 4 3 2 1
22.	لو اتيححت لي الفرصة للبدء مرة اخرى لاخترت نفس نوع الوظيفة التي اؤديها حاليا					5 4 3 2 1
23.	باخذ جميع الاعتبارات حول وظيفتي, انا راض جدا					5 4 3 2 1
24.	انا انوي مغادرة المنظمة قريبا					5 4 3 2 1
25.	انا اخطط لمغادرة المنظمة في الايام القليلة القادمة					5 4 3 2 1

5	4	3	2	1	26. انا سوف اترك الوظيفة باسرع وقت ممكن
5	4	3	2	1	27. انا لا اخطط لمغادرة المنظمة قريبا
5	4	3	2	1	28. قد اغادر المنظمة بعد ايام قليلة
5	4	3	2	1	29. سوف اكون سعيدا جدا بقضاء بقية حياتي المهنية في هذه المنظمة
5	4	3	2	1	30. انا اشعر في الحقيقة كما لو ان مشكلات هذه المنظمة هي مشكلاتي الخاصة
5	4	3	2	1	31. انا لا اشعر بانتماء قوي لهذه المنظمة
5	4	3	2	1	32. انا لا اشعر بارتباط عاطفي بهذه المنظمة
5	4	3	2	1	33. انا لا اشعر كأني جزء من عائلة في هذه المنظمة
5	4	3	2	1	34. هذه المنظمة تعني لي الشيء الكثير بصفة شخصية
5	4	3	2	1	35. حتى الان البقاء في هذه المنظمة يعتبر ضرورة اكثر منه رغبة
5	4	3	2	1	36. سوف يكون من الصعب جدا علي مغادرة هذه المنظمة الان حتى وان كنت ارغب في ذلك
5	4	3	2	1	37. سوف تتعطل الكثير من امور حياتي اذا استجبت لرغبتني في مغادرة هذه المنظمة الان
5	4	3	2	1	38. اشعر ان لدي خيارات قليلة جدا لو فكرت في مغادرة هذه المنظمة
5	4	3	2	1	39. لو اني لم اقضي مدة طويلة في هذه المنظمة لربما فكرت بالعمل في مكان اخر
5	4	3	2	1	40. احد النتائج السلبية لمغادرة هذه المنظمة هي ندرة البدائل المتاحة
5	4	3	2	1	41. انا لا اشعر باي التزام للبقاء في هذه المنظمة
5	4	3	2	1	42. اشعر انه من الخطأ مغادرة هذه المنظمة الان حتى وان كانت ايجابية بالنسبة لي
5	4	3	2	1	43. سوف اشعر اني مدان اذا تركت هذه المنظمة الان
5	4	3	2	1	44. هذه المنظمة تستحق ولائي
5	4	3	2	1	45. لن اغادر المنظمة في الوقت الحاضر لاني اشعر بالالتزام للاشخاص فيها
5	4	3	2	1	46. انا مدين كثيرا لهذه المنظمة

شكرا لكم لاتمام تعبئة الاستبانة

Appendix 4 Qualitative survey instrument

Semi structured interview format

(Personnel managers in five ministries in Jeddah)

- 1- Interview No:
- 2- Years of experience:
- 3- Education level:
- 4- Managerial rank:

Interview questions:

- Q.1** The results of this study showed that the most effective intrinsic motivators to stay on the job, and the most satisfying factors were: ethical values, job security, and community service. The less satisfying factors for participants were: responsibility, innovation, and independence. Do you agree with this ranking? Please explain.
- Q.2** Extrinsic factors leading to higher satisfaction were: efficiency of supervisor, supervisor way dealing with employees, colleagues' relationships, recognition. Factors of less satisfaction were the organization policies, chances of advancement, pay, and work environment. To what extent do you agree with this ranking? Please explain.
- Q.3** Do you think that it is possible to generalise this result for middle management from level 6 to level 10 in other ministries?
- Q.4** Results of this study reveal that extrinsic factors are more important than intrinsic factors. However, previous studies in other countries revealed the opposite. In your opinion, what are the reasons for this difference?
- Q.5** Do you believe that the responses of the private sector employees might differ in the order of these factors? If so, how do you expect their order would be?
- Q.6** From your point of view, what are the other factors that affect job satisfaction, and that have not been mentioned in this study?
- Q.7** In your opinion, what are the policies that should be taken by the government to improve performance in the public sector?

Appendix 5 Sample of interview

- 1- Interview No: 2
- 2- Years of experience: 15
- 3- Education level: Bachelor's degree
- 4- Managerial rank: 10

Interview questions:

Q.1 The results of this study showed that the most effective intrinsic motivators to stay on the job, and the most satisfying factors were: ethical values, job security, and community service. The less satisfying factors for participants were: responsibility, innovation, and independence. Do you agree with this ranking? Please explain.

A.1: *I disagree with this ranking. In my opinion job security is the important factor for choosing to work in the public sector, so it is ranked highest followed by community service and then standing in the community. The lowest satisfaction factors are creativity, responsibility and independence.*

Q.2 Extrinsic factors leading to higher satisfaction were: efficiency of supervisor, supervisor way dealing with employees, colleagues' relationships, recognition. Factors of less satisfaction were the organization policies, chances of advancement, pay, and work environment. To what extent do you agree with this ranking? Please explain.

A.2 *I agree with this ranking as I think this what I noticed through my position being a personnel manager who close to employees and dealing with them and live their problems every day.*

Q.3 Do you think that it is possible to generalise this result for middle management from level 6 to level 10 in other ministries?

A.3 *Yes to somewhat it can be generalised to employees in the public sector as the environment is similar except materialistic working environment such as building and equipment that differ from ministry to another.*

Q.4 Results of this study reveal that extrinsic factors are more important than intrinsic factors. However, previous studies in other countries revealed the opposite. In your opinion, what are the reasons for this difference?

A.4 *These studies may be applied on the sample that saturated materialistic. Working environment is good in these organisations. Legislation is good and updated regularly to response with development that happened in surrounding environment, so they do not have problem in extrinsic factors, therefore intrinsic factors appear as more*

important than extrinsic factors. While employees in the middle management in ministries in Jeddah, materialistic has not saturated completely in addition working conditions and legislation and policies are not good. If we applied Maslow hierarchy, Extrinsic factors could be placed in the lowest hierarchy, so they needs should be fulfil in order from down to up. In the public sector I think extrinsic factors that mention in this study is not fulfilled yet for Saudi managers in the public sector. Once extrinsic factors have been fulfilled, the intrinsic factors will emerge.

Q.5 Do you believe that the responses of the private sector employees might differ in the order of these factors? If so, how do you expect their order would be?

A.5 *In my opinion the environment differ completely, thus the ranking of these factors is different. For example, the highest factors in intrinsic factors are creativity, using ability and skills and feeling of achievement. While the lowest factors are ethical values as they seek to get benefits as the main goals. Job security and standing in community are missing, particularly in the small companies. For extrinsic factors, the highest satisfaction factors are pay, opportunity to promotions and recognition. While the lowest factors are supervisor way dealing with employees being most of supervisors from other countries, co-workers relationships and organisation policies*

Q.6 From your point of view, what are the other factors that affect job satisfaction, and that have not been mentioned in this study?

A.6 *Performance appraisals and working hours; work and family issues such as attending to children's needs, health care, and transport for women employees; organisational policies because these might improve job satisfaction and thus employee's performance.*

Q.7 In your opinion, what are the policies that should be taken by the government to improve performance in the public sector?

A.7 *Employee incentives; work and family policies to assist employees meet family needs; better services and resources for the working environment; introduce policies that reward innovation and skills acquisition.*