CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Chapter Overview

This chapter reviews the related literature on the concept, theory, model and assessment of job satisfaction in order to understand these concepts in policing setting as a foundation for developing a theoretical framework to be tested in this research. This chapter is organizing into six part namely job satisfaction, related theories of job satisfaction, assessment of job satisfaction, antecedents of job satisfaction, consequences of job satisfaction and summary.

2.1 Concept of Job Satisfaction

There is no one definition that sums up job satisfaction. Crudely defined, job satisfaction refers to “the degree to which people like their jobs” (Spector, 1997, p. 7). As defined by Greenberg (2011, p. 220), job satisfaction as a “positive or negative attitudes held by individuals toward their job”. Another definition job satisfaction is a contribution of cognitive and affective reactions to the differential perceptions of what an employee wants to receive compared with what he or she actually receives (Cranny et al., 1992). Scholars use the concept to show a combination of employee feelings towards the different facets of job satisfaction such as the nature of the work itself, level of pay, promotion opportunities, and satisfaction with co-workers (Schermerhorn et al., 2005, p. 158).
The importance of studying job satisfaction stems from two important sets of findings. First, job satisfaction is associated with increased productivity and organisational commitment, lower absenteeism and turnover, and ultimately, with increased organisational effectiveness (Ellickson & Logsdon, 2001). According to Wright and Davis (2003), the benefits that employees receive from their organisations influence the effort, skill, creativity and productivity that they are willing to give in return. Organisational interest in job satisfaction has been also motivated by humanitarian interests, namely the notion that employees deserve to be treated with respect and have their psychological and physical well-being maximised (Spector, 1997; Ellickson & Logsdon, 2001).

The second important finding is that low job satisfaction has negative outcomes, such as withdrawal behaviour, increasing costs, decreasing profits and, eventually, customer dissatisfaction (Zeffane et al., 2008). According to Spector (1997), employees experiencing dissatisfaction may develop disruptive behaviors that negatively impact upon their productivity and performance, as well as affecting those around them. Low job satisfaction can be an important indicator of counterproductive employee behavior and can result in behavior such as absenteeism (Spector, 1985) and turnover intentions (Spector, 1985; Dupre & Day, 2007).

There are several reasons why job satisfaction is important to police organizations. First, negative attitudes toward work can adversely affect job performance in both the quantity and quality of services provided. Thus, poor performance can impact police-community relations by adversely affecting public attitudes toward the police (Buzawa et al., 1994). In addition to a moral obligation to demonstrate concern for its employees
and promote positive work-related attitudes, job satisfaction promotes lower stress levels and, accordingly, fewer symptoms of stress (e.g., absenteeism, burnout, and alcoholism) (Hoath et al., 1998, p. 338). Police officers can experience high rates of employee turnover due to their low job satisfaction (Zhao et al., 1999). Loo (2004, p. 162) determined that a substantial portion of the respondents fit the profile of high burnout “distressed police managers” that warranted some significant type of organizational intervention. As a result of high employee turnover, increased recruitment and training expenses for new police applicants may harm the limited budgets of law enforcement agencies, thus endangering the effectiveness of public safety. Consequently, research on job satisfaction among police officers may provide valuable information that can improve the quality of police services.

According to Herzberg (1959), different factors combine to create job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among employees. He identified these as either motivators or hygiene factors. Motivators promote job satisfaction. They include: (a) achievement, (b) responsibility, (c) the work itself, (d) recognition, and (e) advancement/promotion. Hygiene factors do not directly lead to job satisfaction among employees. However, their absence may lead to job dissatisfaction. They consist of: (a) organizational policies, (b) supervision and leadership, (c) pay or salary, (d) work conditions, (e) communication with supervisors/work partners. Herzberg contended that employees need to reach an acceptable level of hygiene factors to feel neutral about their jobs. Therefore, employers should seek ways of eliminating dissatisfaction resulting from hygiene factors and focus on improving the motivators in the work environment to increase job satisfaction. Zhao and his colleagues (1999, p. 154) stated that Herzberg’s (1959) two-factor theory of job satisfaction “provides a useful theoretical framework
for empirically assessing officers’ job satisfaction.” They further suggested that a comprehensive examination of job satisfaction not only should cover organizational (work environment) variables but also certain job characteristics and employees’ demographic characteristics.

2.2 Determinants of Job Satisfaction

For several decades, numerous studies have attempted to classify and determine factors influencing job satisfaction. The literature on determinants of job satisfaction can be divided into two camps: the content perspective which approaches job satisfaction from the perspective of needs fulfilment, and the process perspective which emphasises the cognitive process leading to job satisfaction (Foster, 2000; Spector, 1997, p. 6). The content perspective assumes that all individuals possess the same set of needs and therefore prescribes the characteristics that ought to be present in jobs. Content theories include Maslow’s (1954) need hierarchy theory and the motivator-hygiene theory proposed by Herzberg et al. (1959). Scholars of the process theories, on the other hand, de-emphasise the role of needs, and focus on the cognitive processes leading to job (dis)satisfaction. Process theories include Vroom’s (1964) expectancy theory, and Adams’ (1963) equity theory. Recent literature (Rollinson, 2008), however, posits that the two perspectives are complementary and advocates that scholars incorporate both of these in the study of those factors that determine job satisfaction.

Research from both needs and content perspectives has reported a plethora of factors in relation to job satisfaction, which can be grouped into two broad categories: demographic factors that focus on individual attributes and characteristics such as sex,
age and job level; and environmental factors which pertain to factors associated with the work itself or work environment such as salary, promotion and supervision (Zeffane, 1994; Reiner & Zhao, 1999; Ellickson & Logsdon, 2001). Literature focusing on environmental factors is underpinned by the assumption that job satisfaction is positively correlated with the extent to which individuals’ work fulfils their needs (Ellickson & Logsdon, 2001). According to Zhao et al. (1999) pointed out that there has been very limited research on the relationship between the work environment and job satisfaction levels in policing.

2.2.1 Demographic Characteristic

Demographic characteristics include factors that define individuals even before their entry into the work situation, such as sex, age and education level as well as other factors related to their work experience, such as job level, shift work, and years of experience. Previous research suggests a strong association between demographic factors and job satisfaction (Crossman & Abou-Zaki, 2003; Suliman, 2006). Therefore, it is proposed that:

H1: There are significant differences/correlations between each of the demographic variables and GJS among police officers.

2.2.1.1 Gender

The relationship between gender and job satisfaction has been extensively researched. However, the results have been mixed and inconsistent findings with this variable. For instant, previous studies reported no relationship or no significant relationship between gender and overall job satisfaction (Abdulla et al., 2011; Ercikti et al., 2011; Abdulla, 2009; Ercikti, 2008; Ting, 1997; Oshagbemi, 2000; Donohue & Heywood, 2004) or
female police officers were less satisfied with their jobs compared to their male counterparts (Burke & Mikkelsen, 2004; Dantzker, 1994). In contrast, another studies found that sex was significantly related to job satisfaction (Brough & Frame, 2004). Therefore, it is proposed that:

H1a: There is a significant difference in the mean of GJS between male and female police officers’.

2.2.1.2 Age.

One of the most commonly used demographic variables in job satisfaction research among police officers is their age. Although many studies have examined the relationship between age and job satisfaction, the results are contradictory. For instance, numerous studies have reported a positive relationship between age and job satisfaction (Al-Otaibi, 1992; Buzawa, 1984; Okpara, 2004; Ellickson & Logsdon, 2001; Dantzker, 1994; Abdulla, 2009; Abdulla et al., 2011). Others scholar have identified either no relationship (Ting, 1997; Reiner & Zhao, 1999; Ercikti, 2008; Ercikti et al., 2011) or even a significant negative relationship (Ganzach, 1998). Thus, it is proposed that:

H1b: There is a significant correlation between employees’ age and GJS among police officers’.

2.2.1.3 Race / Ethnicity

The literature reports mixed results with regard to the relationship between race and job satisfaction among police officers. While some studies demonstrated that black officers had lower job satisfaction levels than their white colleagues (Buzawa et al., 1994); others reported the opposite (Dantzker, 1994). In a recent study of a medium-sized police department in the Northwestern United States, ethnicity was not significantly
associated with job satisfaction (Zhao et al., 1999). This results in line with others study such as Ercikti (2008), Ercikti et al., (2011), and Bennett (1997). In Singapore Police Force, according to Lim and Teo (1998) found that ethnicity, job tenure and locus of control had significant effects on job satisfaction. Thus, it is proposed that:

H1c: There is a significant difference in the mean of GJS between Malay and Non-Malay police officers’.

2.2.1.4 Marital Status

Another personal factor that has been studied in relation to job satisfaction is marital status. Although previous research has indicated possible differences in job satisfaction between groups with different marital status, studies have yielded contradictory findings (Robbins et al., 2003). For example, researchers such as Ercikti et al., (2011), Ercikti (2008), Koustelios (2001) and Bilgic (1998) reported that marital status had no effect on job satisfaction. Similarly, a study by Al-Fadley (1996), found that police officers’ marital status had no significant or direct effect on the overall level of job satisfaction. However, recent study by Abdulla (2009) and Abdulla et al., (2011) found that mean score for general job satisfaction of married group was significantly higher than that of single group. Thus, this study has proposed that:

H1d: There is a significant difference in the means of GJS between single and married employees group.

2.2.1.5 Educational Level

Another common personal factor that has been investigated is educational level. Indeed, research to examine the relationship between the level of education and job satisfaction has shown different findings. Several studies have reported that relationships between
educational levels and job satisfaction are positive (Al-Ajmi, 2001; Martin & Sheehan, 1989; and Okpara, 2004). Griffin et al. (1978) point out those employees with a higher educational level would tend to be more satisfied with their job than would employees with a lower educational level. Thus, it is proposed that:
H1e: There is a significant difference in the means of GJS and employees’ level of education.

2.2.1.6 Years of Experience
Years of experience refers to the time or number of years an employee has spent working for a specific organization. Researchers suggest that employees' years of experience are related to their job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Dawal et al., 2008). Employees' levels of job satisfaction would then increase after a number of years of service. Previous research report mixed results with regard to the relationship between educational level, years of experience and job satisfaction among police officers either positive or negative relationship. According to Ercikti et al. (2011) and Abdulla et al. (2011), years of experience has a significant positive contribution to job satisfaction. Therefore, it is proposed that:
H1f: There is a significant correlation between employees’ years of experience and general job satisfaction.

2.2.1.7 Rank
Rank was also an important predictor of job satisfaction (Hwang, 2008). Officers in a supervisory position were generally more satisfied than line-level officers (Bennett, 1997; Burke, 1989; Perrott & Taylor, 1995). Recent study conducted by Abdulla et al. (2011) found job level has a significant relationship with job satisfaction. He found the
managerial / supervisory has more satisfied compare with non-supervisory level. In the Korean context, one study reported that rank was significantly associated with job satisfaction (Hwang, 2008). The author found that line officers (patrolmen) showed higher levels of job satisfaction than directly higher-ranking officers (senior patrolman and sergeants) and supervisory officers (lieutenants and higher ranking holders. Thus, it is proposed that:
H1g: There is a significant difference in the means of GJS among different rank level police officers’.

2.2.1.8 Current Department and Organization Hierarchy Level
In the Malaysia context, police organization hierarchy is referring to the three types of hierarchy such as contingent level, district level and police station level. According to previous study in Korean Police show that regardless of the location of department, department hierarchy such as such as police sub-station, police station, and police agency was positively associated with the job satisfaction of officers (Hwang, 2008). That is, officers in police substations were likely to be less satisfied than those in police stations and police agencies. Thus in this study, the following hypotheses are proposed:
H1h: There is a significant difference in the means of GJS among the six departments in police organization.
H1i: There is a significant difference in the means of GJS among the three organizational hierarchy levels.

2.2.1.9 Type of work / Job Duty
Previous studies show that type of work was significantly associated with job satisfaction among police officer in Korea (Hwang, 2008). That is, officers in
enforcement-type outside duties were more likely to be satisfied with their work than those who performing in office work. This may also be related to the rigid structure of the police organization, where officers enjoy freedom and discretion when they work away from their supervisors, while those who work in offices feel pressure from supervisors close to their desks. It is proposed that:

H1j: There is a significant difference in the means of GJS among the three type of job duty.

2.2.2 Environmental Factors

Environmental factors can be defined as the factors associated with the work itself or work environment such as salary, promotion and supervision (Zeffane, 1994; Reiner & Zhao, 1999; Ellickson & Logsdon, 2001). Previous research found that work environment has a significant effect on the level of (dis)satisfaction of employees (Herzberg, 1968; Spector, 2008). However, Abdulla et al. (2011) found environmental factors have a significant positive relationship on general job satisfaction among police officers. They also identified a number of important environmental factors that are highest impact on job satisfaction. These include salary and incentives, a positive perception of nature of the work, public perception, organizational policy and strategy, supervision, satisfaction with co-workers and promotion opportunities. Although recent researchers advocate that the work environment is a better predictor of job satisfaction (Abdulla et al., 2011; Reiner & Zhao, 1999; Carlan, 2007; Ellickson & Logsdon, 2001; Forsyth & Copes, 1994). Therefore, it is proposed that:

H2: There are significant relationship between each of the environmental variables and general job satisfaction (GJS) among police officers.
2.2.2.1 Salary and Incentives

Salary and incentives is one of the extrinsic rewards. According to Daft (2010, p. 506), extrinsic rewards defined as a reward given by another person, typically manager and include basic pay, pay increase, allowances, bonuses, fringe benefits and other forms of incentive that have monetary value. According to Sharma and Bajpai (2011) salary is a form of periodic payment from an employer to an employee, which is specified in an employment contract. It is contrasted with piece wages, where each job, hour or other unit is paid separately, rather than on a periodic basis. Pay has been considered an important reward to motivate the behaviour of employees (Taylor & Vest, 1992). Pay can be seen by one worker as a symbol of achievement, as a source of recognition and much more than that (Locke, 1976), while for another worker, it can mean security, as is the case in third world countries (Al-Saadi, 1996). According to Aksu and Aktas (2005), employees are very sensitive to salary issues because of impact on living standards and its importance in providing a sense of security.

Salary has been investigated by several researchers who have tried to explore its effects on job satisfaction. This attention was due to the old belief that to satisfy workers, one should pay them more. According to Luthan (2005), salary is a tool for achieving both people’s lower and higher needs. Herzberg and his associates (1959) considered the pay factor to be a 'hygiene factor' that prevents the employee from being satisfied. There seems to be a connection between salary and satisfaction when an employee perceives their salary to be equitable with respect to what others receive (Rollinson, 2008). Previous studies have found that salary is correlated to job satisfaction when employees realize the fairness or equity of their salary (Ting, 1997; Ellickson & Logsdon, 2001). Williams et al. (2006) reported that fairness and equity is a more important determinant
of pay satisfaction than the actual level of pay. Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) carried out a meta-analysis and found that justice was strongly associated with pay satisfaction.

Fringe benefits are benefits that employers give an employee in addition to salary. According to Aswathappa (2005), fringe benefits can be monetary and/or non-monetary, such as health insurance, vehicle, travel tickets, accommodation and retirement benefits. Most current studies on job satisfaction consider fringe benefits as an important element in determining job satisfaction. For instance, Ellickson and Logsdon (2001) found fringe benefits and pay to be determinants of job satisfaction. Further, Barber et al. (1992) reported that fringe benefits lead to positive job satisfaction. They found that highly educated employees attach great importance to fringe benefits and facilities despite receiving a good salary.

Another important element under salary and incentives is rewards and recognitions. Recognition programs are one of several types of nonfinancial incentives (Dessler, 2011). Spector (1997) defines recognition as contingent rewards that are not necessarily monetary. Contingent rewards are commonly given for good performance. Recognition can, for example, be a monthly and/or annual employee of distinction award, an official letter of thanks or gifts. Studies show that recognition has a positive impact on performance, either alone or in conjunction with financial rewards (Peterson & Luthans, 2006). Most employers combine financial and nonfinancial rewards. One survey of 235 managers found that the most-used rewards to motivate employees (from most used to least) were: employee recognition, gift certificates, special events, cash rewards, merchandise incentives, e-mail/print communications, training programs, work/life
benefits, variable pay, group travel, individual travel and sweepstakes (Huff, 2006). Previous studies show that recognition factor as one of the satisfied factors and have a positive effect on their job satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959; Spector, 1997). Mitchell (2000) maintains that the lack of proper recognition for a job well done by an employee seems to be a major problem for many organisations. For example, employees who experience little recognition are more likely to experience dissatisfaction and frustration.

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

Another important element under salary and incentives is benefits. Benefits can be defined as indirect financial and nonfinancial payments employees receive for continuing their employment with the company (Dessler, 2011, p. 492). They include things like health and life insurance, pensions, time off with pay, and child-care assistance. Common time-off-with-pay periods include holidays leave, annual leave, vacations, funeral leave, sick leave, and maternity leave. Recent study found there is a significant positive relationship between salary and incentives, and job satisfaction (Abdulla et al., 2011). Thus, it is proposed that:
H2a: There is a significant relationship between salary and incentives, and general job satisfaction.

2.2.2.2 Supervision

Heery and Noon (2001, p. 355) define a supervisor as a front-line manager who is responsible for the supervision of employees. The direct supervisor or line manager has an important role in the creation and completion of the employee’s development plan (Aguinis, 2009). This will help the supervisor understand the process from the employee’s perspective, anticipate potential roadblocks and defensive attitudes, and create a plan in a collaborative fashion (Dunning, 2004). According to Aguinis (2009), supervisor roles are:

1. The supervisor needs to explain what would be required for the employee to achieve the desired performance level, including the steps that an employee must take to improve performance.

2. The supervisor has a primary role in referring the employee to appropriate developmental activities that can assist the employee in achieving her goals.

3. The supervisors reviews and makes suggestions about the developmental objectives.

4. The supervisor has primary responsibility for checking on the employee’s progress toward achieving the developmental goals.

5. The supervisor needs to provide reinforcements so the employee will be motivated to achieve the developmental goals. Reinforcements can be extrinsic and include rewards such as bonuses and additional benefits, but reinforcements can also include the assignment of more challenging and interesting work that takes advantage of the new skills learned.
Previous study found that workers who enjoy a supportive relationship with their immediate supervisor experience higher levels of job satisfaction than those who do not Ting (1997). However, when trust and communication with the leader are poor, employees may feel stressed with this relationship and this may eventually lead to dissatisfaction (Wech, 2002). According to Abdulla (2009), the supervision factor contains several important elements that have a positive influence on the level of employee job satisfaction. There are involving employees in the decision making process (Miller & Monge, 1986), provide useful feedback for employees (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Riley, 1996; Robbins, 2003; Dale et al., 1997; Evans & Lindsay, 1996) and conducting fairness performance appraisal system.

Recent study found that supervision has a significant positive relationship on job satisfaction (Abdulla, 2009; Abdulla et al., 2011). Thus, it is proposed that:

H2b: There is a significant relationship between supervision and general job satisfaction.

2.2.2.3 Public perception

The term ‘public’ refers to an organization's users in the community (that is, customers or clients). Interest in measuring public satisfaction in the services provided by an organization has recently increased. Organizations promote the use of public satisfaction to achieve service quality. To this effect, several studies have examined the role of customer satisfaction within the service quality framework (for example, Parasuraman et al., 1988; Adcock, 2000).
Achieving high levels of employee satisfaction has also been found to be the best way of caring for the customers for whom an organization wishes to provide the best quality service (Adcock, 2000; Jamieson and Richards, 1996). According to Rust et al. (1996) found that satisfied customers may well result in satisfied employees. This is particularly applicable in organizations where employees have direct contact with customers, as is the case in police forces. Fosam et al. (1998) state that when employees are satisfied with their jobs and work environment, they take pride in their work and are motivated to provide a high quality service to their customers, who are members of the public.

Policing studies, such as those by Fosam et al. (1998) and Lim et al. (2000), have concluded that public perception affects job satisfaction. For instance, Fosam et al. (1998) indicated that the perceived public view and the perceived quality of service to the public, and some involvement in quality improvement and staffing resource issues have been found to be some of the key predictors of job satisfaction among police force workers. However, Yim and Schafer (2008) state that police officers’ perception of how they are viewed by the public is indeed a complex issue and only limited research has been conducted in this area. They indicate that police officers believed that they were viewed negatively by the public. Lim et al. (2000) carried out a study in Singapore and found that police officers believed that they were viewed less favorably. They pointed out that the public’s lack of knowledge of police work could contribute to the police having a poor public image. Recent study in policing found there is a significant positive relationship between public perception and job satisfaction (Abdulla et al., 2011). Thus, it is proposed that:
H2c: There is a significant relationship between public perception and general job satisfaction.

2.2.2.4 Promotion opportunity

According to Abdulla (2009) promotion refers to the act of moving an employee up the organizational hierarchy, usually leading to an increase in responsibility and status and a better remuneration package. With regard to expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), which states that people will be motivated if they can expect to gain from a certain situation, the converse is also true. Vroom (1982) argued that promotional opportunity is a goal most workers desire and that an individual’s performance is related to the degree to which the individual believes that being promoted is related to performance on the job and how strongly the individual desires the promotion. Studies of employee satisfaction have identified promotional opportunities as an environmental antecedent to job satisfaction (Ting, 1997; Fosam et al., 1998; Ellickson & Logsdon, 2001). According to Schneider et al. (1992), employees who perceive few opportunities for advancement have negative attitudes toward their work and their organizations.

Previous studies found that there is a positive relationship between promotion opportunity and job satisfaction (Abdulla, 2009; Abdulla et al., 2011). However, according to Kreitner and Kinicki (2006) found that there is a positive association between promotional opportunities and job satisfaction, but this relationship is dependent on employees’ perception of fairness and equity. Thus, if employees are receiving unfair and unequal promotional opportunities in comparison with other workers in the workplace who have similar qualifications and years of experience, then this leads to a prediction of job dissatisfaction. Therefore, it is important for the
organization to take into account cases where promotion policies are designed to enhance employee satisfaction. Thus, it is proposed that:

H2d: There is a significant relationship between promotion opportunity and general job satisfaction.

### 2.2.2.5 Organizational policy and strategy

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

(i) Decentralization. Abdulla (2009) describes decentralization which is when the power to make decisions resides in several people or departments as opposed to one or just a handful. According to Willem et al. (2005) found the centralization policy had a negative effect of nursing staff job satisfaction.

(ii) Moral value. Weiss et al. (1967) describes moral value as being able to do things that do not go against one’s conscience.

(iii) Job security. Herzberg (1968) describes job security as the extent to which an organization is perceived to provide steady employment for employees. Indeed,
people are happier with work that provides them with state health care, stability of employment, insurance and pensions.

(iv) Organizational constraints. Spector (2008) defines organizational constraints as aspects of the work environment that interfere with or prevent good job performance. Indeed, individuals prefer organizations that take proper precautions to ensure a safe and healthy workplace.

Recent studies found that the organizational policy and strategy has a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction (Abdulla, 2009; Abdulla et al., 2011). Thus, it is proposed that:

H2e: There is a significant relationship between organizational policy and strategy, and general job satisfaction.

2.2.2.6 Relationship with co-workers

The factor of relationship with co-workers reflects the extent to which members of an individual's workgroup are perceived to be socially supportive and competent in their own tasks (Rollinson, 2008, p. 143). That individual often help others at work is clear; but in fact, another pattern—one in which helping is mutual and both sides benefit—is even more common. According to Greenberg (2011), this pattern is known as cooperation and involves situations in which individuals, groups, or even entire organizations work together to attain shared goals. However, in contrast, competitions among co-workers or peers were exists within organizations. Competition can be defined as a pattern of behavior in which each person, group, or organization seeks to maximize its own gains at the expense of others (Greenberg, 2011).
Indeed, the social context of work is likely to have a significant impact on a worker’s attitude and behavior. For instance, if workers in a group are cohesive and cooperative, their degree of job satisfaction is high; however, if this group is not cohesive, then their degree of job satisfaction will be low (Purohit, 2004). According to Ellickson and Logsdon (2001), the relationship with co-workers factor was found to be one of the most important factors of job satisfaction.

Previous studies found that there is strong positive relationship between relationship with co-workers and job satisfaction (Abdulla, 2009; Abdulla et al., 2011; Ting, 1997). Thus, it is proposed that:

H2f: There is a significant relationship between relationship with co-workers and general job satisfaction.

2.2.2.7 Professional development

Professional or personal development plans can be defined as specify courses of action to be taken to improve performance (Aguinis, 2009). According to Aguinis (2009), development plan focus on both the short term and the long term. Specifically, development plans address how to improve performance in the current job, how to sustain good levels of performance in the current job, and how to prepare employees for future advancement. In addition, development plans provide employees with growth opportunities so that, even if advancement within the organization is not clear, employees are able to enrich their daily work experiences. Developmental objectives can be achieved by one or more of the following activities: (1) on-the-job training, (2) courses, (3) self-guided reading, (4) mentoring, (5) attending a conference, (6) getting a
degree, (7) job rotation, (8) temporary assignments, and (9) membership or leadership role in professional or trade organization.

Indeed, individuals need these kinds of programs as they increase their knowledge, which positively affects their enjoyment of work. Previous studies showed that professional development has a positive effect on employees in the workplace (Novick et al., 2008; Herrbach & Mignonac, 2004). For instance, Novick et al. (2008, p. 272) maintain that “Professional development of employees pays off in two key ways. First, such development leads to greater job satisfaction by the employees, improved morale, reduced turnover, and enhanced performance. Second, the organization benefits from a staff with a breadth of skills, knowledge, and attitudes”.

Recent studies found that the professional development has a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction (Abdulla, 2009; Abdulla et al., 2011). Thus, it is proposed that:

H2g: There is a significant relationship between professional development and general job satisfaction.

2.2.2.8 Nature of the work or Job Characteristics

The term job characteristics refer to the content and the nature of the job tasks (Abdulla, 2009). According to Greenberg (2011, p. 268), the job characteristics model can be defined an approach to job enrichment specifying that five core job dimensions (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and job feedback) produce critical psychological states that lead to beneficial outcomes for individuals (e.g., high job satisfaction) and the organization (e.g., reduced turnover). A more effective approach,
job enrichment, gives employees not only more tasks to perform, but also ones requiring higher levels of skill and responsibility (Greenberg, 2011). According to Hackman and Oldham (1980), the job characteristics model has five core job dimensions are:

1) **Skill variety** refers to the extent to which a job requires doing different activities using several of the employee’s skills and talents.

2) **Task identity** refers to the extent to which a job requires completing a whole piece of work from beginning to end.

3) **Task significance** refers to the degree of impact the job is believed to have on others. According to Ting (1997), if workers perceive task attributes positively they are more likely to find their work meaningful and, consequently, be satisfied with their job. To this effect, various studies have suggested that employees’ job satisfaction can be enhanced if they perceive a high degree of job significance (Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Dale et al., 1997; Evans & Lindsay, 1996).

4) **Autonomy** refers to the extent to which employees have the freedom and discretion to plan, schedule, and carry out their jobs as desired. Culpin and Wright (2002) concluded that increased task responsibilities are related to overall job satisfaction.

5) **Feedback** refers to the extent to which the job allows people to have information about the effectiveness of their performance.

Specifically, the job characteristics model help create three critical psychological states, leading, in turn, to several beneficial personal and work outcomes—namely, people’s feeling of motivation, the quality of work performed, satisfaction with work,
absenteeism, and turnover (Greenberg, 2011). The higher the experienced meaningfulness or work, responsibility for the work performed, and knowledge of results, the more positive the personal and work benefits will be. When they perform jobs that incorporate high levels of the five core job dimensions, people should feel highly motivated, perform high-quality work, be highly satisfied with their jobs, be absent infrequently, and be unlikely to resign from their jobs.

Previous studies found that nature of work has a significant impact and positive relationship on the level of job satisfaction (Luthans, 2005; Abdulla et al., 2011). Thus, it is proposed that:

H2h: There is a significant relationship between nature of the work and general job satisfaction.

2.2.2.9 Communication

Communication can be defined as the process by which a person, group, or organization (the sender) transmits some type of information (the message) to another person, group, or organization (the receiver) (Greenberg, 2011, p. 323). In facts, communication serves at least eight critical functions in organization (Greenberg, 2011). These are direction action, linking and coordination, building relationships, explaining organizational culture, interorganizational linking, presenting an organization’s image, generating ideas and promoting ideal and values. Examples of mechanisms for communicating among employees or organizational units are telephone, fax, email, internet, postal mail and face-to-face. The development in communication and its tools is having a direct impact on the lifestyle of people and organizations. It is anticipated that changes and enhancements in effective communications will result in improved efficiency and
productivity of both individuals and organizations. According to Buchanan and Huczynski (2004) communication plays a key role in trying to motivate all employees to strive towards the same organizational goals.

Previous studies found that communication has a significant positive relationship with employee job satisfaction (Johlke & Duhan, 2000; Abdulla, 2009; Abdulla et al., 2011; Spector, 1997). For instance, Johlke and Duhan (2000) found communication is not associated with job performance, but it can influence the level of job satisfaction, which, in turn, can result in a lower turnover amongst employees. Thus, effective communication within the workplace contributes significantly towards enhancing job satisfaction (Javed et al., 2004). Therefore, it is proposed that:

H2i: There is a significant relationship between communication and general job satisfaction.

2.2.2.10 Job stress

Stress can be defined as “the pattern of emotional and physiological reactions occurring in response to demands from within or outside organizations” (Greenberg, 2011, p. 186). Put simply, with regard to job satisfaction, stress is the inability to cope with one’s job pressure (Ganster & Schaubroeck, 1991), which is associated with impaired individual functioning in the workplace (Fairbrother & Warn, 2003). Stress is caused by many different factors. For example, stress may be caused by personal factors such as problems with family members, financial problems, and illness. Stress also may be caused by societal factors, such as concerns over crime, terrorism, and downturns in the economy (Greenberg, 2011). However, stress in the workplace setting or job-related stress have many different factors play a role in a creating stress in the workplace such
as occupational demands, conflict between work and nonwork, sexual harassment, role ambiguity, overload and underload, and lack of social support (Greenberg, 2011).

Stress can deeply affect individuals, groups and organizations. According to Djebarni (1996), the impact of stress or the stressor affects not just the stressee, but each and every level of living systems, such as organization, community and society. Researchers like Djebarni (1996) and Cooper and Cartwright (1994) indicate that stress or unfavorable job conditions can affect employee health and performance. Therefore, this can result in serious losses to the organization in terms of valuable human resources and, consequently, financial resources.

Previous studies found that their findings of relationship between job stress and job satisfaction is inconsistent. According to Deborah et al. (1993) and Fairbrother & Warn (2003) found that work stress is associated with low levels of job satisfaction. This findings was supported by Kreitner et al. (2002) based on a meta-analysis of seven studies covering 2,659 individuals it was found that perceived stress has a strong negative relationship with job satisfaction. However, contradict findings were found from others researchers. For instance, Abdulla (2009) and Abdulla et al. (2011) in their study found that job stress has a significant positive correlation with job satisfaction. Greenberg and Baron (1997) and Matteson and Ivancevich (1982) demonstrated that job stress has negative effects on the work place in the following ways: (1) a reduced performance efficiency, (2) a decreased capacity to perform the job well, (3) a dampened initiative and reduced interest in working, (4) a lack of concern for the organization and colleagues, and (5) a loss of responsibility.
Nonetheless, stress is not always harmful, and a limited amount of stress can act as a stimulus, making the work more challenging, interesting, satisfying, and worthwhile (Abdulla, 2009). Stress begins to have a negative effect on an individual’s social, emotional, and work life only when it is at a high level over a relatively prolonged time. Therefore, when measuring job stress, an investigator should quantify the amount and duration of the stress in order to study the level of satisfaction at different levels of stress. Thus it is proposed that:

H2j: There is a significant relationship between job stress and general job satisfaction.

2.2.2.11 Performance appraisal

Performance appraisal can be defined as an evaluating an employee’s current and/or past performance relative to his or her performance standards (Dessler, 2011, p. 332). Stripped to its essentials, performance appraisal always involves (1) setting work standards, (2) assessing the employee’s actual performance relative to those standards, and (3) providing feedback to the employee with the aim of motivating him or her to eliminate performance deficiencies or to continue to perform above par (Dessler, 2011). There are four reasons to appraise subordinates’ performance. First, most employers’ still base pay and promotional decisions on the employee’s appraisal (Poon, 2004). Second, the appraisal lets the boss and subordinate develop a plan for correcting any deficiencies, and to reinforce the things the subordinate does right. Third, appraisals should serve a useful career planning purpose. Fourth, appraisals play an integral role in the employer’s performance management process (Dessler, 2011). By using an appraisal system, managers can make sure that feedback actually takes place and that staff are clear about the terms of the organizational goals. Thus, if managers succeed in implementing a clear appraisal system, this will lead to increased job performance,
higher levels of job satisfaction and greater commitment to the organization (Pettijohn et al., 2001).

Previous studies found that there is a significant positive relationship between the outcome of employee performance appraisal and job satisfaction (Ellickson & Logsdon, 2001; Poon, 2004; Abdulla et al., 2011). Thus, it is proposed that:

H2k: There is a significant positive relationship between performance appraisal and general job satisfaction.

2.2.3 Implementation of Community-Policing (COP)/NKRA programs

Innovations in policing, such as community policing and NKRA programs, have contributed to job satisfaction (Ercikti et al., 2011). The relationship between the two, however, is complex. According to Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux (1994, p. 401), "Community oriented policing is a philosophy of full service policing, where the same officer patrols and works in the same area on a permanent basis from a decentralized place, working in a proactive partnership with citizens to identify and solve problems". Also, Walsh (2001, p. 351) stated that “Ideally, community policing is a bottom-up strategy that places emphasis on the police officer's ability to use information, judgment, wisdom, and expertise in working with neighborhood residents to fashion solutions to community problems. Community policing encourages police departments to use a variety of directed patrol tactics that are designed to meet the security and safety needs of specific neighborhoods”.

Not many studies have examine the impact of community oriented policing upon job satisfaction. Recent study found the community oriented policing (COP) has a significant positive correlation with job satisfaction (Ercikti et al., 2011). This finding is consistent with previous research that COP officers had higher levels of job satisfaction and perceptions of autonomy than traditional officers (Adams et al., 2002). For instance, Adams et al. (2002) found that community police officers were more positive about their assignments, more accepting of different policing strategies, more optimistic about the impact of COP on police-community relations, and were more satisfied with their jobs compared to traditional police officers. Halsted et al. (2000) reported that deputies with strong orientations for community service had higher job satisfaction levels than deputies with strong crime control orientations. Ford and his colleagues (2003) determined that a sample of Midwestern police officers’ job satisfaction was directly related to their commitment to their organization. Yet, their level of commitment to a community policing strategy was unrelated to their job satisfaction but strongly related to their behaviors in support of the strategy. Based on the review of literature in this section, it is proposed that:

H3: There is a significant difference between level of job satisfaction and employee involvement with the COP/NKRA programs.
2.3 Consequences of Job Satisfaction

Researchers have identified a number of potential consequences of job satisfaction including, organisational commitment (Meyer et al., 1993), organisational citizenship behaviour (Organ and Konovsky, 1989), job performance (Iaaffaldano and Muchinsky, 1985), job involvement (Freund, 2005), withdrawal behaviour, namely, absenteeism (Lambert et al., 2005), actual turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000) and intention-to-quit (Campbell and Campbell, 2003). However, for this study we only focus on job performance as a consequence of job satisfaction.

2.3.1 Job Performance

As defined by Aguinis (2009, p. 78) “the definition of performance does not include the results of an employee’s behaviours, but only the behaviours themselves. Performance is about behaviour or what employees do, not about what employees produce or the outcomes of their work”. Performance management systems typically include the measurement of both behaviours (how the work is done) and the results (the outcomes of one’s work). Also, there are two additional characteristics of the behaviours we label performance (Motowildo et al., 1997). First, they are evaluative. This means that such behaviours can be judged as negative, neutral, or positive for individual and organizational effectiveness. In other words, the value of these behaviours can vary based on whether they make a contribution toward the accomplishment of individual, unit, and organizational goals. Second, performance is multidimensional (Murphy & Shiarella, 1997). This means that there are many different kinds of behaviours that have the capacity to advance (or hinder) organizational goals.
According to McCloy et al. (1994), performance is determined by a combination of declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge, and motivation. Declarative knowledge is information about facts and things, including information regarding a given task’s requirement, labels, principles, and goals. Procedural knowledge is a combination of knowing what to do and how to do it and includes cognitive, physical, perceptual, motor, and interpersonal skills. Finally, motivation involves three types of choice behaviours: 1) choice to expend effort (i.e., “I will go to work today”), 2) choice of level of effort (i.e., “I will put in my best effort at work”), and 3) choice to persist in the expenditure of that level of effort (e.g., “I will persist no matter what”). All three determinants of performance must be present for performance to reach high levels. In other words, the three determinants have a multiplicative relationship, such that:

\[
\text{Performance} = \text{Declarative Knowledge} \times \text{Procedural Knowledge} \times \text{Motivation}
\]

Employees’ performance, according to Borman et al. (2001), consists of their task performance or in-role behaviour and their contextual performance or extra-role behaviour. Some authors also use the labels prosocial behaviours and organizational citizenship behaviours (OCB) in referring to contextual performance (Borman, 2004). Contextual and task performance must be considered separately because they do not necessarily occur in tandem. An employee can be highly proficient at her task, but be an underperformer regarding contextual performance (Borman et al., 1997). Cascio and Aguinis (2001) defined task performance as:

- activities that transform raw material into the goods and services that are produced by the organization
- activities that help with the transformation process by replenishing the supply of raw materials, distributing its finished products, or providing important
planning, coordination, supervising, or staff functions that enable the organization to function effectively and efficiently.

Contextual performance is defined as those behaviours’ that contribute to the organization’s effectiveness by providing a good environment in which task performance can occur. Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is another popular behavior in referring to contextual performance. Organ (1988) defined organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) as behaviors that go beyond the call of duty and can be described as an extra-role behavior. He also proposes five behavior dimensions of OCB such as altruism, conscientiousness, civic virtue, sportsmanship and courtesy. Altruism is helping colleagues with their tasks or problems. Conscientiousness is efficiently used of time and goes beyond their role and expectation. Civic virtue is willingness to participate in the activities of organization while sportsmanship is demonstrating high tolerance without complaining. Last one courtesy is the work efforts to prevent work related problem with others. All these five dimensions have been used by large number of researchers to explain OCB.

Research shows that happier workers, in fact, more productive and willing to go beyond what is required of them (Judge et al., 2001). Recent studies found that there were highly significant relationship between job satisfaction and job performance (Muhammad & Ajmal, 2011; Jaafar et al., 2006; Judge et al., 2001, Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985). Thus, it is proposed that:

H5: There is a significant relationship between general job satisfaction and job performance.