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HR performance within Saudi Arabian organisations: Is the relationship between ‘job security and ill-treatment’ and job satisfaction moderated by organisational support?

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Abstract

HR performance, particularly employees' performance, has been well researched in Western countries. However, many Asian countries, including the region of the Arabic Gulf, are still under-researched in relation to this subject. This present study quantitatively investigated employees' performance in one of the Gulf countries, Saudi Arabia. In addition, it took into consideration the religion (Islam) as well as the cultural characteristics that may affect performance in the workplace. Particularly, the type of society (collectivistic), losing face issue and power distance are the cultural characteristics discussed in this study. Furthermore, the study used four variables, which are considered important in relation to employees' performance in the Saudi context: job security, ill-treatment (independent variables), perceived organisational support (POS) as a moderating variable and job satisfaction (dependent/outcome variable). The research question for this study is "Is the relationship between job security and ill-treatment, and job satisfaction, moderated by organisational support?"

Previous research indicates that relationships between these variables vary in terms of how much they impact employees' job satisfaction and, therefore, their performance. Some studies suggest that job security increases employees' job satisfaction which can result in better performance. Others claim that ill-treatment can be a source of job dissatisfaction and lower the quality of job performance as ill-treatment impacts employees physically and psychologically. In addition, POS was found to have positive effects on job satisfaction as a higher level of support from organisations can lead to higher job satisfaction and performance.

This cross-sectional, quantitative study used a questionnaire as the data collection method. Measurement scales used in the study were previously used in other studies, which strengthens the internal validity of this study. The 424 participants who completed the survey were Saudi employees who were required to have worked for at least six months for the same employer as full-time employees in Saudi Arabia. Results from this study suggest that, on an individual level, all three variables (job security, ill-treatment, POS) predicted job satisfaction in Saudi organisations. However, the regression analysis showed that job security had the biggest effect on job satisfaction followed by ill-treatment. Also, the moderation analysis revealed that the relationship between job security and job satisfaction was partially moderated by POS. However, POS did not appear to moderate the relationship between ill-treatment and job satisfaction.

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List of Abbreviations

HR	Human Resources
POS	Perceived Organisational Support
SET	Social Exchange Theory
LMX	Leader-Member Exchange
JSI	Job Security Index
JSS	Job Security Satisfaction
FARE	Fairness and Respect
SPOS	Survey of Perceived Organisational Support
GHQ 12	The General Health Questionnaire

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Study Overview

Human resource (HR) performance can be an ongoing concern for many organisations because it is mostly related to the people who are the main element in organisations (Guest, 1997; Purcell, 1999). That is why the HR performance level is considered one of the crucial factors for the success of organisations (Kazlauskaite & Buciuniene, 2008). The reason for this is that HR contributes to the overall organisational performance (Huselid, Jackson, & Schuler, 1997) and provides long-term competitive advantages (Wright, McMahan, & McWilliams, 1994). This study intends to investigate HR performance, particularly employee's performance, in a part of the world that has not been researched as thoroughly as Western countries, that is Saudi Arabia (Al-Hamadi, Budhwar, & Shipton, 2007; Rowley & Warner, 2007). It looks at different factors – for example, religion and culture – that can help explain how HR in Saudi Arabia is different from Western countries. Because measuring employee's performance was not feasible in this study employees' job satisfaction level was used as an indication of their performance.

The concept of HR in Western countries, especially in Europe and the US, has been given a considerable amount of attention since the late 1970s (Fombrun, Tichy, & Devanna, 1984; Legge, 1995; Mayrhofer & Brewster, 2005). However, there are some parts of the world, such as many developing countries in Asia, that get less attention in relation to HR issues (Rowley

& Warner, 2007). Even though those countries have had remarkable growth in their economies because of globalisation and other reasons (Archibugi & Michie, 1997), they are still considered under-researched. According to Al-Hamadi et al. (2007), the Middle East in general and the Gulf Region in particular – including Saudi Arabia – have not been extensively researched in relation to HR and business environments. Reasons for this scarcity of research include a shortage of research resources, and difficulties in collecting data due to cultural limitations – such as the difficulty of getting access to female participants (Robertson, Al-Khatib, Al-Habib, & Lanoue, 2001) – and research funding issues (Tuncalp, 1988). Therefore, these countries are worth studying because they are different from many Western countries with respect to culture, religion and organisational settings.

There are particular some reasons why the Saudi Arabian context was investigated in this study. One reason was the age of Saudi Arabia. Saudi Arabia was designated a country in September 1932 ("The History of Saudi Arabia," 2015). Even though it may seem a long time (83 years), the development of real businesses did not begin until the discovery of the oil in 1938 ("About Saudi Arabia, Oil," 2015). Two further reasons were the religion of the country and the cultural characteristics of Saudi Arabian society. These two reasons are outlined in the following sections.

1.1.1 The Role of Islam in Saudi Arabian Organisations

As Islam is the religion of Saudi Arabia, businesses, and particularly HR practices, are based on the Islamic view which establishes the policies that should be followed in organisations (Al Hwaish, 2013; Alsharif, 2014). The Islamic view of HR says that there are some principles that HR must apply to achieve fair and stable work environments (Mohiuddin & Amin, 2007). In addition, according to Al Hwaish (2013), the Islamic view of HR states that people in organisations must be considered the top priority: the right people must be selected to work in the right positions, training must be provided for employees and workers, employees must be paid sufficiently (Tayeb, 1997), share decision-making processes and be motivated (Khan, Farooq, & Hussain, 2010; Tayeb, 1997). Overall, justice must be applied in the workplace (Mohiuddin & Amin, 2007).

In fact, Islamic HR principles do not seem very different from the Western view of HR which regards employees as important for organisations: employees should receive what they expect in terms of rights and perform what they are obligated to do (Beatty & Schneier, 1997; Bowen & Lawler, 1995; Snell, Youndt, & Wright, 1996). The Western view considers HR is responsible for selecting, hiring, training and developing employees for jobs (Miles & Snow, 1985). Also, HR deals with the process of organisational planning and building employee commitment (Bhatnagar, 2007).

Even though Islam establishes the principles and policies of HR practices in Saudi Arabian organisations, people do not always follow them or do exactly what these principles require

(Alsharif, 2014; Mohiuddin & Amin, 2007). Surprisingly, some people seem to practice almost the opposite of these principles mainly because of longstanding cultural characteristics which may not always serve an organisation's interests. An example of these practices is *favouritism* (Loewe, Blume, & Speer, 2008), which will be explained further in next section (1.1.2.1). The cultural characteristics (differences) that will be discussed in this study include the type of society which characterises Saudi Arabia – it is a collectivistic society – the fear of losing face and power distance effects.

1.1.2 Cultural Differences

The cultural characteristics of Saudi Arabian society influence people's behaviours at work slightly differently to the cultures of Western countries (Hofstede & Bond, 1988). First, Saudi Arabian society is categorised as collectivistic ("What about Saudi Arabia?," 2015), whereas Western countries are individualistic (Hofstede & Bond, 1988). Second, people in Saudi Arabia seem to be concerned about the issue of losing face – their own, or their family's – in front of others (Yau-fai Ho, 1976) which is not the case in many Western countries. Lastly, unlike Western countries, people in Saudi Arabia seem to accept the fact that power in organisations is divided unequally (Hofstede, 2007).

1.1.2.1 Society Type

Saudi Arabian society is collectivistic ("What about Saudi Arabia?," 2015). This means that, when making decisions, people tend to care about their wider relationships (in-groups) such

as their extended families or, even further, their whole tribe (Hofstede, 1984; Hofstede & Bond, 1988). This characteristic can also be found in many Asian countries such as China and Japan where people prefer in-group members rather than out-group ones (Beaupré & Hess, 2003). This action is called favouritism, or *wasta* in Arabic. This can be an issue for organisations as people may make biased decisions which favour their relatives regardless of the consequences for the organisation (Loewe et al., 2008). For example, this issue can clearly be seen when it comes to recruitment processes as some HR managers may select the people they know rather than selecting those who are competent for the job (Lewis & Sherman, 2003). Another example occurs with performance evaluations (Steele, 1988): better evaluations may be given to certain people depending on their relationships with their supervisors or managers. This issue can be a source of frustration and disappointment for many co-workers as there is no assurance of fair treatment (Akande, 1992) this can have a serious effect on employees' overall performance at work (Lewis & Sherman, 2003).

1.1.2.2 Losing Face

As in many Asian countries, in Saudi Arabian society, people take extra care not to lose face in front of others ("What about Saudi Arabia?," 2015; Yau-fai Ho, 1976); it is considered a serious social issue (Oh, 1991). This can be an issue for organisations because, since people care about losing face front of others, they tend not to report any problem that could bring shame on them in front of their co-workers. Rather, they believe that they are responsible for solving those issues by themselves (Taylor et al., 2004). Losing face issue can negatively affect people's concentration at work and their overall performance (Redding & Ng, 1983).

For example, in a case of uncivil or violent behaviour at work, it is most likely that people will not report the incident because they fear the shame that may come with reporting it and how others may interpret and talk about the incident. Rather, they will take the pain themselves and prefer not to tell others about it. Furthermore, in Saudi Arabia, this issue can clearly be seen in the female workplace as they tend to be more sensitive about reporting such incidents (Yau-fai Ho, 1976).

1.1.2.3 Power Distance

The power distance effect basically means that people tend to accept the fact that power in organisations is divided unequally (Hofstede, 1984; Hofstede & Bond, 1988) which is the case in many Asian countries (Hofstede, 2007) including Saudi Arabia ("What about Saudi Arabia?," 2015). This means that people in the lower levels of the organisation have less voice in the decision-making process, which may make them feel worthless in the workplace (Brockner et al., 2001). This can be a very stressful issue for employees, because they do not have the power to question any rules, policies and decisions that are made by the top management, and this can negatively affect their performance.

When looking at the above cultural characteristics, it can be seen that they affect people's behaviours at work in a way that does not seem to follow the Islamic view of HR and may have negative consequences on organisational performance. For instance, the Islamic view supports the idea of justice and fair treatment in organisations (Mohiuddin & Amin, 2007). However, favouritism seems to exist in workplaces (Loewe et al., 2008). Also, the Islamic

view encourages the decentralisation of decision-making processes and urges the top level managers to engage employees in lower positions in these processes (Khan et al., 2010). But this does not occur in most Saudi organisations as Saudi Arabia has a high score on power distance ("What about Saudi Arabia?," 2015).

This study intends to investigate the HR performance – employee' performance in particular – in Saudi Arabian organisations. However, achieving this goal was not feasible in this study. Alternatively, the job satisfaction variable (dependent/outcome) has been chosen as a proxy to measure employees' performance. In addition, three variables which, it will be argued, are important in relation to performance in the Saudi Arabian environment, are analysed in this research. These variables are job security and ill-treatment as independent variables, and perceived organisational support (POS) as a moderating variable. The reasons for choosing these variables will be explained in the next section.

1.2 Study Variables

The first independent variable in this study is job security. Job security in this context means how secure people feel in maintaining their jobs (Meltz, 1989). In other words, how much job security is provided to people so that they can overcome the continuous fear of losing their jobs at any time without sufficient reason (Kuhnert & Palmer, 1991). This assurance can be provided by different parties. For example, it can be provided by the government's policies and legislation (public sector) or, in the private sector, an organisation's policies (Clark & Postel-Vinay, 2009). The reason for choosing this variable is the Saudi government's

movement towards the Saudisation of employment in the country, which means that organisations are encouraged to provide secure jobs to local people instead of foreigners ("Ministry of Labour ", 2015). Another reason is that the level of job security is considered an important element in how satisfied people are in their jobs (Ashford, Lee, & Bobko, 1989; Davy, Kinicki, & Scheck, 1991), which can reflect on their overall performance at work (Arnold & Feldman, 1982).

The second independent variable is workplace ill-treatment. The concept of workplace ill-treatment refers to any negative action performed by someone in the workplace with respect to another person or group of people (Fevre, Lewis, Robinson, & Jones, 2012b). Although there are a variety of such actions, this study covers only two types: workplace incivility and violence (Fevre et al., 2012b). These forms will be explored further in the literature review and it will be shown how they affect people's performance at work. This variable was selected because of its sensitivity in terms of affecting people's emotions (Sidle, 2009) which may also affect their overall performance at work. The aspect of ill-treatment can contribute effectively to measuring performance at work as many studies have indicated that it is closely related to reducing employees' creativity (Sidle, 2009), well-being (Sakurai, Jex, & Gillespie, 2011), physical and psychological performance (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001) as well as the level of depression (Wieclaw et al., 2006). All of these effects can impact people's overall performance.

The third variable is POS. POS in this context refers to the degree that organisations care about their employees' well-being and commitment (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990). It also refers to what an organisation provides to ensure that employees receive the necessary support so that they are able to perform at the best possible level (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). It has been found that when an organisation is supportive of its employees, they experience increased satisfaction at work (Lynch, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 1999). This can be achieved by providing the socio-emotional support required to meet the employees' needs (Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Lynch, 1998). For example, showing care and providing extra benefits such as medical benefits that may reflect upon people's level of work quality and well-being. POS was chosen in this study because it provides important features of support for employees which can, as a result, influence their performance at work (Eisenberger et al., 1990). This variable was used in this study to function as a moderator for the other variables in order to see whether the existence of POS in Saudi Arabian organisations would affect the relationships between the other independent and dependent/outcome variables.

This study intends to investigate and measure the level of HR (employees') performance in Saudi Arabian organisations. However, because it does not seem feasible to measure employees' performance in this study, employees' job satisfaction was measured instead as an outcome variable. This is because, generally, when people are satisfied in their job, they produce a high quality performance (Saari & Judge, 2004). Job satisfaction in this context is when an employee feels emotionally positive as a result of their job situation (Locke, 1976).

Further, job satisfaction can be a very crucial matter for organisations because it has a variety of effects on their employees, such as increasing employee commitment (Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993) and reducing the possibility of employees leaving their jobs (Mobley, 1977).

1.3 Research Question and Structure

The research question in this study is “Is the relationship between job security and ill-treatment, and job satisfaction, moderated by organisational support within Saudi Arabian organisations?”

This report begins by introducing the problem of the study and explaining the reasons why the study was conducted in the Saudi Arabian context. Next, it reviews the existing literature about the study’s related elements such as the religion and culture effects followed by the four variables used in this study and why they have been chosen. Then, the methodology used in this study is described. The data analysis chapter comes next. Then the results chapter follows, which outlines the important findings of this study. The final chapter is a discussion which outlines the implications of this study’s results followed by the conclusion.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.1 Literature Review – Overview

This chapter contains the literature review of all the elements covered in this research in order to gain a better understanding of the study. It begins by covering the Islamic view of HR which is the basis of HR rules and policies in Saudi Arabia (Al Hwaish, 2013) compared to the Western view of HR (Beatty & Schneier, 1997; Bowen & Lawler, 1995; Miles & Snow, 1985; Snell et al., 1996). Then, Saudi cultural characteristics are also covered in order to emphasise their effects on people's behaviours in organisations. This is viewed chiefly from the perspective of Hofstede's cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 1984). Explanations of the study's four variables (independent, dependent and moderator) are described as well as an outline of the reasons these variables were selected.

2.2 The Islamic View of HR Compared to the Western View

Most Saudi Arabian policies are based on the Islamic perspective (Mellahi, 2007). HR in organisations is one of the areas where Islam establishes policies with which people need to comply (Alsharif, 2014). These policies focus mainly on ensuring that people complete the jobs as expected and the organisations, in turn, do what they are obligated to do for the employees (Al Hwaish, 2013). Ideally, applying these principles can lead to relatively satisfied employees and employers and a stable and healthy work environment (Mohiuddin &

Amin, 2007). However, before discussing how strictly these rules are followed in Saudi organisations, explanations of these rules are provided to enable the understanding of the Islamic view of HR.

The Islamic principles of HR can be described in several ways as follows. According to Al Hwaish (2013), the first principle is that people are the most important element in any workplace. This puts the responsibility on organisations in terms of providing all the needs of their employees in order to create an environment that is convenient for the people to work in although workplaces may differ depending on the type of industry. The second principle involves the selection process (Mohiuddin & Amin, 2007). The Islamic view encourages HR departments in organisations to select the most suitable person to work in a particular job because the right people in the right positions achieve the best possible outcomes. This principle could limit job options for those who may otherwise get jobs because of their wide network with people in organisations. The third principle is that HR departments in organisations should ensure employees receive the necessary training for a particular job which will help achieve the planned organisational goals and objectives (Mohiuddin & Amin, 2007; Tayeb, 1997).

The fourth principle in the Islamic view is making sure that employees receive sufficient payment (salaries) which can provide them with comfortable living standards. These payments must not be delayed or canceled for no reason which would create negative consequences for employees as most of them are fully dependent on their work income

(Tayeb, 1997). Fifthly, in the Islamic view, motivation is one of the main tasks of HR. This is because it is believed that motivation can be a very effective tool and can come in many different forms such as job benefits, advancement opportunities and promotions. These motivators are also believed to encourage other employees and make for a more efficient work environment (Al Hwaish, 2013). The sixth principle relates to decentralised decision-making (Khan et al., 2010; Tayeb, 1997). The Islamic view encourages HR managers to engage the employees in decision-making processes; this leads to a higher level of confidence and commitment for the employees. The final principle arising from the Islamic view of HR is justice (Mohiuddin & Amin, 2007). This applies to all aspects of the workplace including any type of opportunity, payment, promotion and benefit. This can create a peaceful work environment where all the people are treated equally and fairly. Ensuring just and fair treatment in the workplace makes people more relaxed and more focused on their work which reflects upon their overall work performance. This practice can also create better and healthier employee relations as all the employees get what they expect.

The Western view of HR does not differ significantly from the Islamic view in many ways. This is because the Western view supports the idea that HR departments in any organisation are responsible for making sure that employees get what they expect in terms of rights and perform what they are obligated to do in order to create a stable work environment and to gain competitive advantages for organisations (Beatty & Schneier, 1997; Bowen & Lawler, 1995; Snell et al., 1996). In addition, there are other aspects of the Western view of HR which are also similar to the Islamic view. According to Bhatnagar (2007), HR plays a major role in

building employee commitment and loyalty especially in a fast-changing business environment. He also stated that strategic organisational planning is another major HR involvement for Western organisations. Other points include employee selection, hiring, training and skill development that enhance the possibility of achieving strategic organisational goals (Miles & Snow, 1985).

From the description of the Islamic view of HR, it appears that Saudi Arabia has good HR principles in place which can create healthy work environments (Mohiuddin & Amin, 2007). However, in Saudi Arabia some people do not implement these principles fully which can create different types of conflict in the workplace (Alsharif, 2014; Mohiuddin & Amin, 2007). This may be because of some cultural characteristics that affect people's behaviours in organisations. For example, the Saudi Arabian society is categorised as collectivistic ("What about Saudi Arabia?," 2015) which may give rise to the issue of favouritism (Loewe et al., 2008). Another example is that people have the fear of losing face in their surrounding environment which may affect their performance at work (Redding & Ng, 1983). These cultural characteristics will be explained in more detail in the next section.

2.3 Cultural Characteristics

It has been pointed out that people in Saudi Arabia do not seem to follow Islamic HR principles in organisations because of particular cultural characteristics that influence people's behaviours in the workplace ("What about Saudi Arabia?," 2015). These cultural characteristics include the type of the society (collectivistic), losing face and power distance.

In addition, these cultural characteristics in Saudi Arabia are different from many Western countries where the culture does not seem to have a strong effect on people in organisations (Hofstede & Bond, 1988).

2.3.1 Type of Society – Collectivistic

Saudi Arabia is categorised as a collectivistic society. ("What about Saudi Arabia?," 2015). According to Hofstede and Bond (1988), a collectivistic society is a society where people tend account for their extended relationships when it comes to decision-making processes. This includes their extended families and in some cases it may include the whole tribe or in-group members (Beaupré & Hess, 2003). In other words, people take extra care to benefit the whole group rather than an individual (Hofstede, 1984). This social structure gives rise to a number of issues for people in the workplace. For example, this behaviour can create the issue of favouritism or wasta where people make unfair decisions in their workplace because the person who is going to benefit from their decisions is actually related to them in some way (Loewe et al., 2008). This issue can be a great source of dissatisfaction and frustration for other employees in the organisation (Akande, 1992).

Generally, the strong connection between people in Saudi Arabian society can have a powerful effect on people in many of their decisions. This can be noticed more in the workplace where it is very common to have some relatives work for the same organisation but in different positions (Abdalla, Maghrabi, & Raggad, 1998). This situation gives some employees an unearned advantage over others in the workplace. It occurs because an

employee can influence their relatives who work in higher positions to make certain decisions which will be in their favour (Jones, 2013). For example, this can be seen with respect to promotions (Lewis & Sherman, 2003) or performance evaluations (Steele, 1988) where managers may prefer their relatives or in-group members (Beaupré & Hess, 2003) over other employees.

2.3.2 Losing Face

Saudi Arabia is a society where the culture has strong effects on how people behave. As in many Asian countries, people in Saudi Arabia are concerned about losing face – their own or their family's – in front of others ("What about Saudi Arabia?," 2015; Yau-fai Ho, 1976). Losing face is known as when people avoid the shame that can be brought by any member of the family which may affect the image of other members (Hofstede, 1984).

The issue of losing face can affect people's performance in organisations (Redding & Ng, 1983). For example, people avoid reporting any negative incidents that may affect their image in front of other people in the organisation, such as any issue that may show up their weaknesses. Consequently, people believe they should solve the issue by themselves rather than seeking help from the organisation (Taylor et al., 2004). This can be a great source of stress for many employees as they will be culturally forced to take the pain themselves. Moreover, in Saudi Arabia, this issue appears more in females' work environments as they tend to be more sensitive to losing face front of other people (Yau-fai Ho, 1976).

2.3.3 Power Distance

The hierarchical structure of organisations in Saudi Arabia creates some issues for the people who work in those organisations. Particularly when it comes to how power is divided between people in higher positions compared to those in lower positions (Hofstede, 1984). The fact is, as in many Asian countries, people in Saudi organisations seem to accept the unequal distribution of power, technically known as high power distance (Hofstede, 2007; "What about Saudi Arabia?," 2015). A possible reason of this phenomenon can be that as Saudi Arabia is a kingdom that is ruled by a royal family (Mellahi, 2007), people are used to the idea that rules and policies that are established by the top people must be accepted and not questioned. As a result, people seem apply the same concept in organisations where those in top management make the decisions and people tend to accept them.

The issue of power distance can be stressful for many employees, especially those who are willing to share and discuss their views and for whom not sharing in this way can make them feel worthless in the organisation. Further, some of the decisions made by the top management may not always be in the interests of some employees who can be affected negatively (Brockner et al., 2001). For example, in some organisations, there are opportunities for employees to go abroad to attend different kinds of job-related courses for training. However, there are not always clear policies on who is eligible for these courses. Rather, people in top management decide, based on their personal views, which employees will take up these opportunities. This practice can lead to biased decisions evidenced by opportunities being given to people who have connections with the decision-makers – an example of wasta

(Loewe et al., 2008). This can be a negative experience for those who are qualified for these opportunities but are denied (Brockner et al., 2001). However, such decisions are not negotiable.

From this explanation of cultural characteristics, it can be seen that Saudi Arabia is different from many Western countries. Therefore, it appears warranted to investigate HR (employees' performance) and related variables within the Saudi Arabian context.

2.4 Study Variables

This study aims to investigate HR/ employee's performance in Saudi Arabian organisations. However, achieving this objective proved not to be feasible. Instead, job satisfaction (dependent/outcome variable) was selected in order to measure employee's performance. This variable was selected because it is believed that the higher level of satisfaction people have in their jobs the better performance they produce (Saari & Judge, 2004). This then can be used as a measure for employees' performance in Saudi Arabian organisations. Two further variables were chosen to function as independent variables and a third variable was chosen as a moderator. The first independent variable is job security. It was selected because of the government's movement towards Saudisation meaning that organisations in Saudi Arabia are urged to employ more local people instead of foreigners ("Ministry of Labour ", 2015). Another reason is that job security is important and related to job satisfaction (Ashford et al., 1989; Davy et al., 1991) which itself is strongly connected to people's performance in organisations (Arnold & Feldman, 1982).

The second independent variable is workplace ill-treatment. This variable was chosen because of its connection to people's emotions, which can affect their overall performance at work (Sidle, 2009). In addition, ill-treatment is also connected to the level of creativity people express, their well-being (Sakurai et al., 2011) as well as their level of physical and psychological performance (Cortina et al., 2001).

The third variable is POS which was selected to function as a moderating variable to see how the addition of POS in organisations may enhance the relationship between the independent and dependent (outcome) variables. This variable was chosen because of the important elements attached to organisational support such as caring about employees' well-being which can have an effect on their work performance (Eisenberger et al., 1990).

2.4.1 Job Security

At any point in time, some employees may be concerned or fearful about their job security. This can be common in the current, intense competition where everyone is looking for the best possible job (Meltz, 1989). Another reason for this concern among employees is that many organisations restructure jobs and downsize their operations in order to cut costs and increase profits (Fried et al., 2003; Kuhnert & Palmer, 1991). Therefore, the level of job security can be a key point for many employees who see losing their jobs as losing part of their own identity (Kuhnert & Palmer, 1991).

In order to gain a better understanding of the concept of job security, it is important to define it. Meltz (1989) defined job security in a variety of ways: narrow, broad and broadest. The narrow definition is that a person is guaranteed to keep the same job at the same pay in the organisation they work for. The broad definition is that a person is kept in a similar job (the same category or department) but not exactly the same job they were doing in the past. However, the broadest definition is that a person is guaranteed to work for the same organisation but with no guarantee of which department or job category they will work in. With the last definition, there must be no reductions in the employee's pay, job status or retirement benefits.

In addition to the above definitions, Davy, Kinicki, and Scheck (1997) defined job security as an individual's continued fear of losing a current, desired job including its benefits such as promotions, favourable working conditions and future career opportunities. Moreover, Kuhnert and Palmer (1991) defined job security as an employee's continued fear or concern of losing their job which could lead to negative consequences.

From the definitions above, it can be seen that job security is an ongoing concern for the employees as they fear the uncertainty of the future (Sverke, Hellgren, & Näswall, 2002). This is why organisations should consider the importance of this issue seriously; when it is addressed it can lead to stable employees who are able to perform in a less stressful environment. In addition, the issue of job security can affect employees' health levels. Kuhnert, Sims, and Lahey (1989) found that the level of job security may cause several health

effects for employees such as anxiety, depression, irritation, and other mental issues. Moreover, the level of job security may impact employees' physical health and psychological well-being. Burke (1991) and Kuhnert and Palmer (1991) found that employees who consider their jobs an important part of their lives are more likely to suffer from physical or psychological issues when their jobs are threatened.

Another point in relation to the importance of job security is its effects on employee turnover. Arnold and Feldman (1982) showed that there is a relationship between the level of job security and employee turnover. That is, the higher the level of job security in organisations, the less likelihood there will be a high turnover (negatively related). Furthermore, the level of job security appeared to be important in relation to the level of employee job satisfaction. Conversely, the lower the level of job security organisations provide, the less satisfied employees become (Ashford et al., 1989; Davy et al., 1991; Lim, 1996; London, Crandall, & Seals, 1977). There is also a positive relationship between the level of job security and employee commitment. Ashford et al. (1989) showed that when the level of job security is high, employee commitment to organisational goals is high, and the possibility those employees will look for alternative jobs is reduced (Bhuiyan & Islam, 1996; Iverson, 1996).

2.4.1.1 Job Security in Saudi Arabia

2.4.1.1.1 Overview of Job Security in Saudi Arabia

The Saudi Arabian government always tries to improve its policies in order to make jobs more secure and stress-free for the Saudi people. To this end, a plan has recently been developed and is divided into three stages: short-term plan, middle-term plan and long-term plan. It is hoped it will achieve its objectives in twenty five years ("Ministry of Labour ", 2015).

According to "Ministry of Labour " 2015), one of the main objectives of this plan is to provide Saudi people (both females and males) with more new jobs with a high level of security. In addition, this plan tries to direct these secure jobs to those under twenty-five years old as they are viewed as the future of the country. Another objective is to aim for a reduction of the number of migrants who work, particularly in the private sector, and try to replace them with competent local employees. This issue has always been an ongoing concern for the government and it has been prioritised as one of the most important objectives for this plan as the number of foreigners has been increasing. De Bel-Air (2014) has shown that between 2005 and 2011 alone, about 2.5 million jobs were created for foreign workers by organisations, mostly private sector. In addition, the economy in general is also affected by the large amount of money that is remitted overseas every year. For example, over 10 years ago it was estimated that foreigners transferred 60 billion Saudi Riyal (US\$15 billion) to other countries per year (Divya, 2004); the current figure is likely to be much higher.

Moreover, this plan urges independent organisations – those organisations which are not partially or fully controlled by the government – to increase the number of Saudi people working for them and to provide a high degree of job security. Another goal of this plan is to provide secure jobs for those who live in rural areas in order to prevent domestic migration. Domestic migration in this context refers to people moving from rural areas to the main cities in order to find better economic opportunities such as better jobs, housing and an increased availability of life's necessities (Franklin, 2003; P. Johnson, 2000).

2.4.1.1.2 Government Programmes to Improve Job Security

The Saudi government has established several programmes in order to achieve a satisfactory level of job security for its people. One of these programmes is NETAGAT, or 'Categories' in English. This programme aims to place organisations into different categories depending on the number of local employees each organisation has. These categories are known as red, yellow, green and platinum where the red colour is the lowest and platinum is the highest. This helps provide more jobs for Saudi people and at the same time these jobs must have a reasonable level of job security which enables employees to focus on the job rather than being concerned about the continued existence of their jobs. As a result of this programme, the percentage of organisations that were in the red category decreased from 50% to 14%. The incentives that encourage organisations to employ more competent local people and provide a satisfactory level of job security are the different services these organisations receive from the Ministry of Labour. In other words, the better category the organisation is in, the better

services it receives. Examples of these services include lower fees for organisations' registration renewals, easier expansion processes and a shorter time frame to finalise enquiries ("Ministry of Labour ", 2015).

The other programme that the government has launched for the local people is HAFEZ which, in English, means 'Incentive'. This programme tries to find jobs that have a reasonable level of security which can fit one's skills and education level. This can ease the process of connecting people to organisations and achieves one of the government's aims which is to make sure people get stable jobs with a good level of job security so that they can live to a comfortable standard. What is more, while people wait for the jobs, the government pays a certain amount of money which can be seen as a small compensation for people to assist them with some of their basic expenses ("Ministry of Labour ", 2015).

2.4.1.1.3 Studies on Job Security in Saudi Arabia

Job security in Saudi Arabia has not been given a great deal of attention in the literature. Hence, there are few studies and reports which have investigated this topic and those that do exist are not very recent. According to Al Surie (2002), job security in Saudi Arabia is considered as important for Saudi employees because they have a fear of losing their jobs because some organisations have ambiguous policies or they take sudden decisions to downsize. Therefore, the Saudi government, in an effort to help workers to feel more secure in the workplace, has put some rules and policies in place which organisations need to comply with. Al Surie's study was conducted on a private sector company, the biggest

telecommunications company in Saudi Arabia. The results showed that some employees feel less secure in their jobs as they believe that working in the public sector has a higher level of job security because the government has more control over it and can enforce policies more effectively. On the other hand, some employees said that they have a satisfactory level of job security. This is because, even though their company is in the private sector, they still believed that it was more secure since the company was well organised and put the right employee in the right position. This means the company will keep its employees as long as they do their work effectively.

A report on Saudi Arabian levels of job security reveals another view on this issue (*Saudi Arabia addressing jobs, housing as economy rebounds*, 2011). Even though the government tries to create a high level of job security for people, the issue of low skills and lack of education makes this challenging for the government. As a result, more and more foreigners take the opportunity to work in those jobs, which makes the situation even more difficult to deal with. The government has sought to overcome this problem by improving the education system in the country as well as by giving opportunity for local people to study overseas so that they can become qualified for those jobs.

2.4.2 Workplace Ill-treatment

The concept of workplace ill-treatment refers to a variety of negative actions such as incivility or violence against another person or group of people in the workplace (Fevre et al., 2012b). Even though any employee could experience ill-treatment at work, it has been found that

minority groups such as the disabled, lesbians and homosexuals are more likely to be ill-treated than other groups (Fevre, Lewis, Robinson, & Jones, 2012a). In addition, Fevre et al. (2012a) have shown that most of these actions come from bosses and supervisors but some may also come from other co-workers, clients and customers. These actions may occur because people act differently according to a variety of characteristics resulting from their background, gender or ethnicity (Fevre et al., 2012b). The concept of workplace ill-treatment consists of different sub-factors. In this present study, only incivility and violence at work will be covered.

2.4.2.1 Incivility

Incivility in the workplace can be an issue that many organisations face. Andersson and Pearson (1999, p. 457) defined incivility as “low-intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect. Uncivil behaviors are characteristically rude and discourteous, displaying a lack of regard for others”. Further, Johnson and Indvik (2001) described incivility as rude behaviour which falls short of violence or harassment. In almost all cases, incivility does not cause or involve any physical impact (Cortina et al., 2001). Examples of incivility at work can be swearing and shouting at employees by bosses (Sidle, 2009) or accusing employees of lack of knowledge (Johnson & Indvik, 2001). Moreover, this issue can be a serious threat for many organisations as it has been growing widely in the 1990s and early 2000s (Pearson, Andersson, & Wegner, 2001). It has become a concern that should be dealt with (Johnson & Indvik, 2001).

Uncivil behaviours at work can affect employees negatively in different ways. Sidle (2009) has shown that employees who are targeted by uncivil behaviours and actions are more likely to experience low job satisfaction, low creativity, high stress and negative emotions. What is more, employees who experience uncivil behaviours are more likely to have a low level of well-being (Sakurai et al., 2011) and put less effort into their work (Burnes & Pope, 2007). Also, these employees are subject to other effects such as negative mood, cognitive distraction and fear which can negatively affect employees' organisational, psychological and physical performance (Cortina et al., 2001). Another study showed that employees may experience a loss of productivity as a result of facing uncivil behaviours in the workplace which can cause negative consequences for organisations (Lewis & Malecha, 2011). The same study also emphasised the importance of effective leaders in the workplace who can stabilise the work environment and handle uncivil incidents properly. An emphasis on providing experienced managers who have leadership skills has been growing recently. This is because those managers can provide essential formal and informal support to the affected staff which can help deal with such situations (Paterson, Leadbetter, & Bowie, 1999)

Incivility at work can be very costly for organisations. Johnson and Indvik (2001) reported that many employees who suffer from uncivil behaviours at work tend to leave their jobs, lose some work time, feel worried and put less effort into tasks, which can all cost organisations millions of dollars. A recent estimation of uncivil behaviours in workplaces revealed that each employee can cost their organisations US\$14,000 per year because of distractions, delays in finalising projects and the loss of employee work time (Pearson & Porath, 2009). Another

estimation of the cost of uncivil behaviour amongst nurses indicated that a cost of US\$11,581 per year per nurse can result as a consequence of this issue (Lewis & Malecha, 2011).

Another study (Porath & Pearson, 2013) investigated 800 managers and employees in an attempt to measure the cost of uncivil behaviours in the workplace; the authors found that there was a 48% decrease of effort and a 47% decrease in the time spent on work tasks. The study also reported that there was a 38% reduction in output quality among the participants and 80% of their work time was lost because they had been worried about the incident. In addition, the affected employees reported that they lost some of their work time trying to avoid the offenders; some reported their performance and commitment declined; some said they took their anger out on customers and, finally, some reported they had left the job due to the uncivil behaviours.

2.4.2.2 Violence

The other sub-factor of workplace ill-treatment is violence in the workplace. This can be crucial for organisations because, in a case of violence, there are usually physical impacts on the parties involved (Waddington, Badger, & Bull, 2005). In order understand the issue of violence, it is important to define it. However, there is no definition on which most researchers agree. Rogers and Kelloway (1997, p. 63) defined workplace violence as “being hit, pushed, kicked, sworn at, or threatened while at work”. In turn, Sofield and Salmond (2003), and Merecz, Rymaszewska, Mościcka, Kiejna, and Jarosz-Nowak (2006) defined

violence in the workplace as any kind of abuse, threat or assault in relation to work which may affect the target's health or well-being either directly or indirectly.

Baron and Neuman (1996) categorised violence at work; the categories comprised direct or indirect verbal-passive violence, direct or indirect verbal-active violence, direct or indirect physical-passive violence and direct or indirect physical-active violence. This study also found that verbal, indirect and passive violence occurred in the workplace more than physical, direct and active violence.

Workplace violence can impact employees significantly because it involves physical effects (Barling, 1996). Therefore, a good deal of attention has been given to this issue by both the media (Barling, Dupré, & Kelloway, 2009; Mullgn, 1997) and organisational researchers in order to understand its dimensions and the ways in which it affects employees (Cooper & Swanson, 2002). In their study Fernandes et al. (1999) demonstrated that employees who suffer from physical violence in the workplace report that their performance is impaired for the rest of the day or even the whole week in which the violent incident occurred. Further, as a result of violent incidents, other employees reported that they experience low job satisfaction, others take some days off work to recover from violent incidents, some change their department to another one trying to escape from the situation and some even decide to leave their jobs. Moreover, Wieclaw et al. (2006) have shown that there is a connection between workplace violence and job dissatisfaction, anxiety, depression, psychological disorder, and tiredness regardless of the victim's gender.

Statistics on workplace violence show the seriousness of the issue in many organisations around the world. According to Rogers and Kelloway (1997, p. 63), “in the period 1980–1989 homicide was the third leading cause of death in American workplaces, accounting for 7,600 or 12% of all workplace deaths.” They also stated that, in the same period, there were 36 cases of employees who were killed and more than 20 wounded in the post offices alone in the United States. In more recent studies, homicide has been ranked as the second cause of female deaths in the workplace (Gerberich et al., 2004). In Sweden, it was reported that 34% of police officers and 35% of nurses say that they have been subjected to workplace violence (Åkerström, 2002).

2.4.2.3 Ill-treatment in Saudi Arabia

There have not been many studies which have investigated this issue in Saudi Arabia. However, there have been a few studies and reports on some acts of ill-treatment at work. El-Gilany, El-Wehady, and Amr (2010), in their study on primary healthcare workers in Saudi Arabia, found that 28% of the workers who participated in the study – 1091 workers in total – had experienced at least one incident of workplace violence in the previous year. In addition, the same study revealed that 27% experienced physical and emotional violence in the previous year. Based on the victims’ answers, there were a number of factors which were associated with workplace violence. They include “Unmet service demand, lack of penalty for perpetrators, impatience, lack of security, lack of mutual understanding, lack of

knowledge/illiteracy, noncompliance to work system, lack of protective measures, bad flow of work, deficient staff, poor administration” (p. 724).

Another study on the issue of violence at work focused on physicians and nurses in Saudi Arabia. It showed that 67.4% of the 383 participants had been the victims of violent incidents in the workplace. The study also reported that males seem to experience violence less than females and younger workers are more likely to suffer from workplace violence than older ones. Furthermore, there are some reasons behind these violent actions. First, the shortage of staff creates issues and conflicts between the workers and their managers at work. Second, not meeting patients' demands is another cause of violence between workers and patients. Lastly, long waiting times that patients experience can also spark violence in the workplace. The study also showed that workers do not always report violent incidents in the workplace because some fear possible negative consequences. Other staff do not report because of previous experiences where they did not receive a sufficient response from the organisation, and some think that putting up with violence is part of the job (Algwaiz & Alghanim, 2012).

2.4.3 Perceived Organisational Support (POS)

Perceived organizational support (POS) is one of the factors that affects employees directly as it relates to the extent to which employees believe they are valued by their organisations (R. Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002). Bearing that in mind, it is important to emphasise the root concept in order to have a clearer understanding of it. To begin with, the concept of POS originates from Social Exchange Theory or SET

(Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996). SET is divided into two types. First there is the exchange between employees and employers (organisations) which is the concept of POS. Second is the exchange between the leaders (supervisors) and the employees which is the leader-member exchange or LMX (Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2002). However, our focus in this present study will be on POS.

Earlier studies in the literature have defined POS in a variety of ways. According to Eisenberger et al. (1990), POS can be defined as the degree to which employees feel they belong to an organisation and how much their contributions are valued and their well-being is cared for. It also includes how much they feel that they are united with the organisation in terms of sharing the same goals and expectations. O'Driscoll and Randall (1999) defined POS as the recognition by an organisation of its employees' contributions and the fulfillment of the promises it gives to its employees.

Another definition of POS refers to how much an organisation cares about its employees' well-being and values their contributions, particularly, in the areas of fair treatment, work conditions, rewards, and supervisors' help and support (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Moreover, Moideenkutty, Blau, Kumar, and Nalakath (2001) have defined POS as the employees' perceptions of an organisation's commitment to show positive actions as an evidence of how much they value their employees and care about their well-being. Wayne, Shore, and Liden (1997) defined POS as the employees' expectations of a return from their organisations that they believe they deserve for their work contribution. As a result, POS

benefits both parties as it creates the feeling that employees need to give even more to their organisations in terms of engaging in achieving the planned goals.

The importance of POS is that its effects are directly linked to employees and therefore to their performance and satisfaction at work. In their research, Eisenberger et al. (1990) showed that POS is positively correlated with the high quality of tasks performed by employees. The same study also showed that providing POS to employees increases their trust and belief in their organisation and enhances the employees' expectation that the organisation will fulfill their obligations and reward the employees. Rewards can be in the form of increased salaries or offers of promotion (O'Driscoll & Randall, 1999). Another study whose findings were consistent with those of Eisenberger was conducted by Wayne et al. (1997) and showed that employees who receive a higher level of POS are found to have better engagement in the required tasks and have a stronger commitment to achieving their organisation's goals.

A further study found that providing POS strengthens relationships between the employees and the organisations they work for. It also found that POS can enhance employee commitment, overall performance and satisfaction (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001). Moreover, Eisenberger et al. (1990) found that there is a negative relationship between a high level of POS and the level of employee turnover. The same study also found that employees are more likely to reject job offers from other organisations if their contributions are valued and their well-being is cared about.

2.4.3.1 Perceived Organisational Support in Saudi Arabia

Generally speaking, POS has not been researched much in Saudi Arabia or in any of the Gulf countries. This may be because of the short experience of these countries with HR matters compared to other developed countries. However, Butler (2009) investigated this issue in the United Arab Emirates (UAE), which has a very similar organisational setting to Saudi Arabia. His study found that there is a relationship between employees' work efforts and the amount and quality of support they receive from their supervisors in the organisation. This study also found that younger employees are more likely to do more than is required for their organisation's success in return for the support they get from the managers. Interestingly, employees showed more effort and commitment in response to organisational support than in response to monetary incentives. Furthermore, the fact that employees showed greater job satisfaction as the amount of organisational support increased demonstrates the benefit of providing care for the employees. Butler also showed that the longer the employees worked for the organisation, the more confident they became regarding the level of support they would get from the organisation.

Barhem, Younies, and Younis (2010), who investigated the issue of organisational support have shown that organisational support contributes significantly to the level of employees' job satisfaction. They also showed that there are differences in employees' perceptions of organisational support between the private and public sectors. Employees felt that public sector organisations provide the support that increased their overall satisfaction at work, whereas staff in private sector organisations reported that the support they receive is not high

enough (medium level). In addition, Naithani (2013) has stated that men report that they get higher organisational support from their organisations compared to female employees. However, in general sense, most employees feel they need more support from their organisation especially in difficult work times and situations.

2.4.4 Job Satisfaction

Earlier studies in the literature gave the issue of job satisfaction a great deal of attention for a long time in terms of discussing its importance and effects on organisations. However, before looking into its effects, it is crucial to define the concept of job satisfaction. Different studies in the literature define job satisfaction in different ways. Cranny, Smith, and Stone (1992) defined job satisfaction as the actual emotional reaction that results from one's job situation compared to their desired and expected outcome. Further, they concluded their definition of job satisfaction by dividing it into affective or emotional reaction of an employee towards their job. Moreover, Locke (1969, p. 317) has stated that job satisfaction is "[a] pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating one's job values. Job dissatisfaction is the unpleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as frustrating or blocking the attainment of one's values". In addition to the above definitions, Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as the positive feeling that a person has which results from their experience at their job. What is more, Miner (1992, p. 116) said that "it seems desirable ... to treat job satisfaction as generally equivalent to job attitudes." Miner's definition is consistent with that of Brief (1998) who stated that job satisfaction is one's attitude towards their job.

It can be seen from these definitions that some studies in the literature see job satisfaction as an effect and some see it as an attitude. However, many organisational researchers do not see any difference between these categories (Weiss, 2002). For example, Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) stated that job satisfaction is the reaction, either as feelings or affective responses, to the surrounding situation whereas previously they had stated that “problems associated with measurement of [job] satisfaction are but specific examples of those encountered in the measurement of any attitude” (p. 1). In addition, the conclusions of Locke (1976), Hulin (1991) and Vroom (1964) are in agreement: considering job satisfaction as an effect or attitude has the same meaning and features. However, some other researchers think that effect and attitude are totally different concepts. Weiss (2002) personally believes that job satisfaction is an attitude and an attitude is defined as one’s evaluation of a situation which is not the same as an effect. Others share the same view and definition. For example, Petty, Wegener, and Fabrigar (1997) defined an attitude as the negative or positive evaluation of someone to a situation that can be themselves, an issue or another person or people. Another view states that “attitudes are assumed to be evaluative judgments that can be derived from qualitatively different types of information” (Crites, Fabrigar, & Petty, 1994, p. 621).

After describing the definitions of job satisfaction, it is crucial to know the importance of this concept to organisations because job satisfaction can be a key factor that affects employees in many different ways. For example, the happier employees are in their jobs the more productive they become (Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985). Organ and Ryan (1995) supported

that view by showing there is a relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviours, which is a category of performance (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). In addition, it has been found that in more complex jobs – such as professional jobs – the relationship between job satisfaction and performance becomes higher and job satisfaction can be used as a strong predictor of job performance (Saari & Judge, 2004).

Another point regarding the importance of job satisfaction is that job satisfaction is directly related to life satisfaction. Saari and Judge (2004), in their study, described how researchers classify the effects of job satisfaction on life satisfaction into three types. First is spillover, where job satisfaction and experience have great effects on personal lives and vice versa. Second is segmentation, where there is little effect of job satisfaction on personal lives. Lastly is compensation, where one compensates themselves for their unsatisfying jobs by filling their personal lives with happiness and vice versa. In relation to the above categories, Saari and Judge (2004) applied them in the United States and found that 68% of US employees are in the spillover group, 20% are in the segmentation group and 12% are in the compensation group. Their study showed how important job satisfaction is in terms of the effects on employees' personal lives. Moreover, Tait, Padgett, and Baldwin (1989) shared the same view that since jobs are big parts of people's lives, job experience must impact personal lives. Therefore, there is a crucial need to consider the effects of job satisfaction on life satisfaction. On the other hand, some researchers have suggested that this relationship could go the other way. Judge and Watanabe (1994) have suggested that as job satisfaction affects life satisfaction, the opposite is also true.

A low level of job satisfaction can lead to some health issues such as depression, which is a serious problem. Thomas and Ganster (1995) found that there is a consistent correlation between job satisfaction and depression. Also, Wheaton (1990) stated there is enough evidence to show that job satisfaction is definitely correlated with depression. As a result, this issue can have consequences on one's well-being (Saari & Judge, 2004). Another study conducted in Canada found there is a significant correlation between job satisfaction and depression and that the level of depression decreases remarkably when the number of holiday weeks increases each year – a factor which produces higher job satisfaction (Lloyd, Streiner, & Shannon, 1994). What is more, (Faragher, Cass, & Cooper, 2005) in their study found that depression levels increase for employees who have lower job satisfaction. The reason for their dissatisfaction was that they work most of their working hours but do not get the expected return from their jobs which causes them to feel depressed and unhappy. In addition, women have a higher level of depression than men when experiencing low job satisfaction (Hagan & Kay, 2007).

The last point regarding the importance of job satisfaction is that earlier studies in the literature suggest that job satisfaction is the key reason for increasing or decreasing an employee's intention to quit or take absence from their job (Hackett & Guion, 1985; Hulin, Roznowski, & Hachiya, 1985; Kohler & Mathieu, 1993). Job satisfaction has also been found to correlate with what is called 'withdrawal behaviours'. Withdrawal behaviours include turnover, complaints, retirement decisions, lateness and absenteeism (Saari & Judge, 2004).

Researchers argue that these withdrawal behaviours do not usually occur individually; this requires organisations to look at these behaviours in groups in order to ease the process of identifying them and finding the relationships between them and job satisfaction (Hulin, 1991; Hulin et al., 1985). Moreover, withdrawal behaviours decrease employee productivity and performance which reflects on the organisation's overall outcomes (Cascio, 1986; Mirvis & Lawler, 1977).

2.4.4.1 Job Satisfaction in Saudi Arabia

Several studies on job satisfaction have been conducted in the Saudi Arabian context, and have shown that there are different levels of job satisfaction among employees in different types of jobs. Al-Ahmadi (2002) conducted a study on 500 nurses, 80 of whom were Saudis, who worked for Ministry of Health hospitals in Saudi Arabia and found that job satisfaction was moderate among the nurses. The main drivers of job satisfaction were supervision, advancement opportunities, job security, treatment between nurses, salaries and benefits, work environment and balanced workload. Another study conducted in the Saudi Arabian context found that there was a high level of job satisfaction among the participants (233 nurses). The satisfaction rate was 87.6% regarding the work location and 92.3% in terms of the role assigned (El Gilany & Al Wehady, 2001). Moreover, Al-Dossary, Vail, and Macfarlane (2012) conducted a study in Saudi Arabia and found that nurses are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with their work. Also, there was a positive relationship between job satisfaction and salaries, communication methods, rewards, supervision, the nature of the work, and nurses' relationships. However, moderate correlations were found between job

satisfaction and work conditions, other benefits and promotions. A similar study showed that nurses in public hospitals are relatively satisfied with their jobs except for a small number who do not find working as satisfactory for reasons such as personal preferences that are not met (Al-Aameri, 2000).

In addition to the above, Alzaidi (2008) conducted a study on another type of work environment, namely secondary school teaching. The study found that different levels of job satisfaction could be observed. For example, teachers were satisfied with some elements in the work environment such as head teachers' authority, their relationships with parents and students, head teachers' practices and their relationships with educational supervisors. They were also moderately satisfied with their relationships with other teachers and the morale in the schools. However, there was a degree of job dissatisfaction because of their relationships with the educational administration and the schools' environments. The overall result was a moderate level of job satisfaction among the teachers.

In 2014, Al Kazailah (2014) conducted a study focusing on lecturers at King Faisal University in Saudi Arabia. He found that there was a moderate level of job satisfaction among the lecturers but for different reasons. They appeared to be satisfied with the salaries they received and the other benefits that were attached to the job such as the possibility of having accommodation on campus and retirement benefits. However some lecturers appeared to be dissatisfied in their jobs. One reason was the lack of transparency in the university's policies which made it difficult for the lecturers to know exactly what rights they had and this led to

frustration. Another reason was the inequality between lecturers in terms advancement opportunities such as workshops or overseas courses. The final reason was the inequality in promoting lecturers to the next level. This was a very critical issue – because the promotions can enhance their salaries, job status and retirement benefits – and negatively impacted lecturers' teaching concentration.

Finally, Al Subaie (2013) conducted a study on the safety and security of employees at King Fahad Medical City in Riyadh. This showed that there is a moderate level of job satisfaction among the employees. Cooperation from top level management, fast responses to employees' enquiries, clear policies and efforts to produce a good working environment were the chief reasons for employee satisfaction. On the other hand, employees showed a degree of dissatisfaction on account of such factors as long working hours, routine tasks, poor advancement opportunities and occasional irrelevant assignments.

2.5 Summary

HR is an area that concerns most organisations because it is related to people who are one of the main pillars of those organisations (Guest, 1997; Purcell, 1999) as well as being related to overall organisational performance (Huselid et al., 1997). HR also contributes to organisational success (Kazlauskaitė & Buciuniene, 2008) and helps achieve competitive advantages (Wright et al., 1994). HR has been given a great deal of attention in Western countries (Fombrun et al., 1984; Legge, 1995; Mayrhofer & Brewster, 2005). However, there are other countries which are under-researched in HR subjects such as those in Asia (Rowley

& Warner, 2007) and including the Gulf region (Al-Hamadi et al., 2007). Saudi Arabia, which is the country under investigation in this present study, has been selected for those reasons which make it different from other Western countries such as the influence of religion and culture on HR practices in Saudi organisations.

Organisational practices, including HR, in Saudi Arabia are driven by religious teachings (Alsharif, 2014). However, when looking at both the Islamic view (Al Hwaish, 2013; Mohiuddin & Amin, 2007; Tayeb, 1997) and the Western view (Beatty & Schneier, 1997; Bhatnagar, 2007; Bowen & Lawler, 1995; Miles & Snow, 1985; Snell et al., 1996) of HR, no significant difference between the two views can be seen. This can be accounted for by Saudi Arabian people not following those practices fully (Alsharif, 2014; Mohiuddin & Amin, 2007) because of certain cultural characteristics such as the type of society (collectivistic), issues of losing face and power distance. These cultural characteristics seem to create conflicts in the workplaces. For instance, because Saudi society is collectivistic, this create the problem of favouritism or *wasta* (Loewe et al., 2008) where people make decisions that benefit their own people or in-group members (Beaupré & Hess, 2003) rather than considering the overall organisational benefits. This action does not seem to follow the Islamic view where justice in organisations must be applied to the decision making process (Mohiuddin & Amin, 2007).

This present study intends to measure HR (employees') performance in Saudi Arabian organisations. However, this objective was not feasible which led to the use of job satisfaction

as a proxy for employees' performance (dependent/outcome variable). Job satisfaction was selected as a measure for employees' performance because it is believed that the higher the level of job satisfaction, the higher the performance in organisations (Saari & Judge, 2004). In addition, three other important variables in the Saudi Arabian context were analysed. The first variable was job security as an independent variable. This variable was selected mainly because of the importance of the government movement towards Saudisation of employment in the country ("Ministry of Labour ", 2015). The second independent variable was ill-treatment. The reason for choosing this variable was that ill-treatment is highly related to people's emotions which can reflect on their physical as well as psychological performance in the workplace (Cortina et al., 2001; Sakurai et al., 2011; Sidle, 2009). The last variable was POS which takes the role of a moderating variable. This variable was selected because of the features attached to it, such as caring about people's well-being, which can enhance people's performance in the workplace (Eisenberger et al., 1990). The research question in this present study is "Is the relationship between job security and ill-treatment, and job satisfaction, moderated by organisational support within Saudi Arabian organisations?"

Chapter 3

Methodology

The method in this present research is quantitative, which uses a deductive reasoning approach meaning that the research is testing a particular research question (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2005). The research question that is being investigated in this study is “Is the relationship between job security and ill-treatment, and job satisfaction, moderated by organisational support?”

3.1 Research Design

The research design that is employed in this study is cross-sectional, which uses a questionnaire to collect the required data. This method was used because it helps generalise the results with the least social desirability effects as well as discover and compare any relationships between the tested variables (Bryman & Bell, 2011). This design was also used because a large number of respondents had been required to participate in the study at a single point in time (Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2005; Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2013).

3.2 Justifications for the Choosing this Research Design.

There are some reasons for using a cross-sectional research design in this study. Firstly, a cross sectional design reduces social desirability bias (Zikmund et al., 2013) which has always been a concern for the validity of research findings. Social desirability is the term used

to describe the situation where questionnaires are answered in a way that is favourable to others (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Secondly, a cross-sectional design allows the researcher to compare different variables in order to discover any relationships which can enhance the generalisability of the findings to the wider population (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Thirdly, a cross-sectional design can be cost and time effective (Cameron & Price, 2009; Zikmund et al., 2013) because it does not require the researcher to meet or phone every respondent, a process which can incur a significant amount of cost. Instead, surveys can be distributed and returned using cheaper and faster methods (electronic methods), especially when a large number of participants are involved (Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2005). Finally, a cross-sectional design can be more convenient for participants as they are able to complete and return the survey in the time and at the speed that suits them (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

On the other hand, there are also some weaknesses that should be taken into consideration. Firstly, using a cross-sectional research design can sometimes create a level of uncertainty for the participants in understanding the questions, because of the way they are written or structured (Cooper & Schindler, 2011). Secondly, questionnaires usually use scales that do not allow participants to elaborate on their answers when they feel they would prefer to provide more details (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Thirdly, as the questionnaires are distributed electronically via the Internet, there is no certainty that a participant actually meets the criteria of the study. Finally, when using questionnaires, questions may not be answered in the order preferred, meaning that participants may complete the questions in a random order which can affect the consistency of their answers (Bryman & Bell, 2011). However, this issue can be

overcome by using electronic surveys where participants are forced to answer the questions in a particular order (Zikmund et al., 2013).

3.3 Reliability

In terms of the reliability (consistency) of this study, it follows similar methodology and measurement scales as previous studies. This means that this research can be conducted by other researchers in similar circumstances. The measurement scales used in this study are described in detail in the materials section (see Section 3.7.2) and Cronbach's alpha test was also utilised to test the internal reliability for the scales (see Section 5.2).

3.4 Validity

All the scales employed in this research have been validated and used widely by other researchers in previous studies (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986; Fevre et al., 2012a; Kalleberg, 1974; Probst, 1998). This is a point of assurance for the validity of these measures, meaning that they measure what they are designed to measure (Bryman & Bell, 2011). In addition, with respect to the representativeness of the sample (external validity), the number of the participants involved in this study – 424 in total – was considered representative of the wider population.

3.5 Sample Type

The sample type that was considered ideal to use was the random sample. However, because a random sample means that every person in the population must have an equal chance to participate in the study (Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2005), this can be a difficult sample type to employ. Therefore, other sample types were used in this study.

The sample types used in this study were the convenient sample and snowball sample. The convenient sample is made up of people who meet the criteria of the study and are easily accessible (Bryman & Bell, 2011). A snowball sample occurs when there is a group of participants – for example, participants from the convenient sample – who can be the channel to connect with other groups that meet the criteria and are willing to participate in the study (Cameron & Price, 2009).

3.6 Participants

Four hundred and twenty-four participants completed the survey. They were all Saudi employees working full-time in the kingdom of Saudi Arabia and who had been with same employer for a period of at least six months. Moreover, before starting the questionnaires, all participants were provided with a confidentiality clause as an assurance of their privacy.

3.6.1 Ethical Considerations

It is important to consider ethical issues in research to ensure that participation in a study does not harm any party involved (Bryman & Bell, 2011). In this particular study, all Massey University ethical procedures were followed and the study was categorised as a low risk for the following reasons. First, the questionnaire does not ask for any personal details that could expose the identity of participants once the findings were published. Second, it did not involve sensitive questions which may affect participants emotionally. Third, it did not ask for private information which shows that there was no risk of breaching participants' privacy. Finally, an informed consent form was given to the participants which they agreed to before participating in the study. The informed consent form explained the purpose of the study and emphasised that all the data that was collected would be used for research purposes only. Consequently, a low risk notification was lodged by the researcher with the Massey University ethics committee.

3.7 Materials

The materials used in this study were the software package which developed the electronic version of the questionnaires (rather than the traditional paper and pencil method) as well as the scales that were employed to measure the variables. Specifically, Qualtrics was used to develop the electronic version of the questionnaire which made the distribution process much more efficient and confidential, and made the data exporting process to SPSS highly accurate.

3.7.1 Questionnaire

The questionnaire used in this research consisted of five parts. It started with the demographic questions followed by the questions for each variable (job security, ill-treatment, POS and job satisfaction) respectively (see appendix A for full versions). Further, Arabic was used in the questionnaire as all participants were Saudis working in Saudi Arabia. All the translations (from English to Arabic) were checked by a Saudi doctoral student to confirm the accuracy of the translation.

3.7.2 Measurement Scales

3.7.2.1 Job Security

The validated scale used for job security in this study consisted of two factors: the Job Security Index (JSI) and Job Security Satisfaction (JSS) devised by Tahira Probst (Probst, 1998). This scale was also used in other studies (Heckman, 2000; Probst, 2003, 2008; Probst & Brubaker, 2001). The first factor of this scale asks about the level of current job security and the second looks at employee satisfaction with perceived job security. Each factor consists of six questions and each question requires the participants to answer Yes, No or ‘?’ where the question mark means “I do not know or I cannot decide”. An example of the scale questions is “Q: What is the future of your job with this organisation like? Unpredictable?”

The scoring system for this scale uses the values (3, 1, 0) assigned for each answer as follows. The value 3 is assigned to all positive responses that is, Yes to a positively-worded item, or

No to a negatively worded item. The value 0 is assigned to all negative responses that is, No to a positively-worded item, or Yes to negatively worded item. The value 1 is assigned to the ‘?’ responses. After applying all the above codes, the values attached to each answer are then summed up – that is, the score for the whole scale – and the mean is calculated for each participant. The higher the mean, the higher the level of job security and satisfaction a person has in their job (Probst, 2003).

3.7.2.2 Ill-treatment

The measurement scale that is used to measure workplace ill-treatment is the Fairness and Respect score or FARE (Fevre et al., 2012a). The scale asks the participants ten questions that require Yes or No answers. For instance, one question reads “where you work, [do] you have to compromise your principles?” The answers are given the values 1 or 2 respectively. These values are then added up to sum each participant’s score that must fall within a range of a maximum of 20 and a minimum of 10. After calculating the final score, the level of ill-treatment at work can be found. This scale is calculated in reverse meaning that the higher score a participant receives the lower the level of ill-treatment actions at their workplace (Fevre et al., 2012a).

3.7.2.3 POS

The measurement scale for POS used in this present study, the Survey of Perceived Organisational Support (SPOS), was developed by Eisenberger (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

SPOS was also used in other studies such as those by (Armeli et al., 1998; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Eisenberger et al., 1990; Erdogan & Enders, 2007; Shore & Tetrick, 1991; Wayne et al., 2002; Wayne et al., 1997). It uses a 7-point scale where (1=strongly disagree and 7=strongly agree). An example of the questions is, “my organisation really cares about my well-being?” Scoring this scale involves adding the value of each answer (1–7) respectively then calculating the mean for all the answers. The higher the mean, the higher the level of organisational support in the workplace (Shore & Tetrick, 1991).

3.7.2.4 Job Satisfaction

The ‘Is Now’ scale was employed to measure job satisfaction and was developed by Kalleberg (Kalleberg, 1974). It consists of 14 items and each item is answered by choosing one of these three choices: 1. not much; 2. some; 3. [a] great deal. An example of the questions is “[does] your present job give you an opportunity for regular advancement?” The scores fall within a range of 14–42 as each answer is given a particular value (1 is assigned to ‘not much’, 2 is assigned to ‘some’ and 3 is assigned to ‘a great deal’). After adding all the values attached to each answer, the closer the score is to the minimum (14) indicates a low level of job satisfaction and the closer the score is to the maximum (42) shows a high level of job satisfaction (Wanous & Lawler, 1972).

3.8 Procedure

3.8.1 Distribution of Questionnaires and Communication

In order to obtain permission for recruiting participants and distributing surveys in Saudi Arabian organisations for the purpose of this research, certain steps had to be taken. For example, a written request from the researcher's university or scholarship provider explaining the objectives of the study must be provided as well as a copy of the questionnaire. Organisations then process the request and decide whether to allow the study to proceed.

In this present study, it was first thought that the method of questionnaire distribution would be through official organisations in Saudi Arabia. Four well-known organisations were selected. Two were from the private sector (Sabic and Saudi Aramco) and the two were from the public sector (the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Social Affairs). In order to obtain permission from those organisations, an official letter (written request) was obtained from the researcher's scholarship provider (the Ministry of Higher Education) and was submitted. Unfortunately, however, none of the organisations showed any inclination to participate in the study. In fact, a clear refusal was given to distribute the surveys. After investigating the reason for the refusal, it appears that those organisations have their own research and development departments and, therefore, do not usually allow external researchers to recruit their employees for research purposes.

Because of the unsuccessful attempts to recruit participants from formal organisations, an alternative method of survey distribution was employed and that was via the Internet. As the

questionnaire was in an electronic format, the link was sent via email and smart phone applications to trusted participants who met the criteria and showed a willingness to forward it to others. For example, the survey link was sent to a group of employees via 'WhatsApp' who answered the questions, and then each of them resent the link to their friends who also met the study criteria. However, there are some cities in Saudi Arabia which do not have home Internet available to receive the questionnaire via email. To overcome this problem, a link to the questionnaire was sent to those areas via cellular networks as the electronic version is compatible with smart phones which can be used to complete the survey. The process of collecting all the data from all 424 participants took about ten weeks. Moreover, a trip to Saudi Arabia was necessary which helped to ease the communication process with the participants. All costs incurred in collecting the data, including the trip to Saudi Arabia, were covered by the researcher's sponsor.

Chapter 4

Data Analysis

4.1 Data Analysis Overview

This present study used SPSS software to perform all necessary tests and data analysis. The data analysis section is structured as follows. Firstly, missing data were checked in order to make sure all the data were complete. Secondly, outliers among the participants were investigated closely and the proper procedure was followed in dealing with them. What is more, a collinearity test was performed on this study in order to check for any multicollinearity issues (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). Finally, because of the need to create the moderators (interaction variables) – job security x POS and ill-treatment x POS – for the moderation analysis, the standardisation of variables using ‘Z score scaling’ was explained.

4.2 Data Entry

As Qualtrics was employed to develop the electronic version of the questionnaire, this made data entry much more accurate because of the compatibility between Qualtrics and SPSS. As a result, the data were transferred electronically from Qualtrics into SPSS with no human effort which gave 100% accuracy to the data entry. This result was higher than the 95% minimum accepted accuracy of data entry (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). In addition, data were also automatically coded by SPSS but some code changes were made. For instance, some

questions designed by the scales as negatively worded questions needed to have their codes reversed to fit the composite measure and to take the same direction as the rest of the questions' codes.

4.3 Missing Data

There was no missing data in this research because Qualtrics uses a feature to compel participants to answer all the questions; in other words, a participant cannot move to the next page unless they answer all the questions in the displayed page. This produced complete data; when a participant submitted the survey, it was guaranteed that they had answered all the four scales as well as the demographic questions.

4.4 Outliers

Outliers can be problematic and may affect a study's findings (Wilson, 1993). According to Cook and Weisberg (1982), however, it is neither ethical nor logical to remove those outliers just because they do not fit the model or because they may affect the results as they can be important and interesting findings. Therefore, a decision should be made after inspecting the outliers to see what procedure should be followed. In this present study, three outliers were found. Details of the decision made to deal with these outliers are provided below.

Out of the 424 participants who completed the survey, three outliers were discovered that had a standard deviation greater than three (Field, 2009). Before making a decision on the

procedure that should be taken, the data of these three participants were inspected closely in order to understand why they were different from the rest of the participants. As a result, one of these respondents was found to have answered the survey without paying attention to the questions. This was found to be the case in the ill-treatment, POS and job satisfaction scales as the answers contradicted each other and were not logical. For example, in the POS scale, both the questions ‘my organisation really cares about my well-being’ and ‘my organisation shows very little concern for me’ were answered by choosing ‘strongly disagree’. However, they are opposing questions. In relation to the other two outliers, it was found that they had answered some scales with the same answers for all the questions whereas it is not possible to have one answer for all the questions. For example, they both answered all the questions in the job satisfaction scale with one answer and that was ‘a great deal’. As a result of the evidence mentioned above, the three outliers were removed from the data set.

4.5 Collinearity Test

As the independent variables in this present study are continuous, it is a requirement for the analysis interpretation to perform a collinearity test on the moderation analysis (Aiken & West, 1991; Cohen et al., 2003). The collinearity test was performed using SPSS to make sure there were no multicollinearity issues. Table C8 shows the figures for this test which confirmed that there was no evidence of multicollinearity issues as all the tolerance values were higher than 0.1 (Cohen et al., 2003) and the lowest was 0.884.

4.6 Standardisation of Variables

When combining variables for the purposes of data analysis, it is important that variables are measured in the same score weights in order to avoid the issue of the unequal contribution of variables to the data analysis (Jajuga & Walesiak, 2000). To avoid this issue, the scores of the variables should be standardised in order to be comparable with the other variables (van Iersel, Rikkert, & Borm, 2007). To perform the moderation analysis in this present study, it was necessary to create two moderators (interaction variables) – job security x POS and ill-treatment x POS – which means that the scores of the variables must be equal. To achieve this, scores were transformed to ‘Z score scaling’ using SPSS, which means that the three variables (job security, ill-treatment and POS) had a mean of zero and standard deviation of 1 (Sauro & Kindlund, 2005).

Chapter 5

Results

5.1 Results Overview and Structure

This chapter includes the results for all the tests performed using SPSS. The structure of the results will be as follows. Firstly, the measurement scales for the internal reliability tests are shown as Cronbach's alpha was used to perform these tests (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). In addition, the descriptive statistics explaining the primary information about the tested variables – such as the mean, standard deviation as well as the direct relationships between the variables (predictors) and the outcome variable – are described. The multiple regression analysis will follow; this was performed to discover the effects of the independent variables – job security and ill-treatment – on the model. The multiple regression analysis included the regression model summary and the ANOVA analysis. Next, the moderation analysis will follow where all three predictors (job security, ill-treatment and POS) and two moderators/interaction variables (job security x POS) and (ill-treatment x POS) were tested in order to see how they affected the model. In relation to the results tables, the most important ones are shown in this chapter, that is the correlation estimation, regression and moderation model summary, and ANOVA. Other tables and charts can be found in Appendix C.

5.2 Internal Reliability Tests for Measurement Scales

In this particular study, Cronbach's alpha was applied to test the internal reliability scores for the measurement scales. In terms of the acceptability of Cronbach's alpha results, a score that is equal to or greater than 0.7 is considered satisfactory (Bland & Altman, 1997; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The results of the tests were as follows: the job security scale (JSI and JSS) which consists of twelve items scored 0.853 where $\alpha > 0.7$. In addition, the POS measurement scale (SPOS) which consists of 8 items scored 0.803 where $\alpha > 0.7$. Finally, the score for the job satisfaction scale (Is Now), consisting of 14 items scored 0.750 or $\alpha > 0.7$.

5.3 Descriptive Statistics

This section summarises the descriptive statistics for the tested variables. To begin with, the overall mean for job security was 1.92 with a standard deviation of 0.80. This score indicates that participants had a good level of job security because the scale has been devised such that the higher the mean the better the job security at work. The maximum score is 3 (Probst, 2003). Further, the ill-treatment variable scored an overall mean of 14.68 with a standard deviation of 2.22. This figure shows that there was a medium level of ill-treatment actions in the participants' workplaces as this scale has been devised such that the higher the score the lower the level of ill-treatment at work. The minimum score is 10 and the maximum is 20 (Fevre et al., 2012a).

The overall mean for the third variable (POS) was 3.6 with a standard deviation of 0.86. This score indicates that participants received a medium level of organisational support from their

organisations because this scale is calculated in such a way that the higher the mean the better the organisational support in the workplace. The maximum score on this scale is 7 (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Finally, the overall job satisfaction mean was 30.57 with a standard deviation of 4.51. This shows that there was a medium to high level of job satisfaction among the participants as a higher score on this scale indicates a higher level of job satisfaction at work. For this scale the minimum score is 14 and the maximum is 42 (Kalleberg, 1974).

5.3.1 Correlation Estimation

Table 1 shows the *individual* correlations (Pearson Correlation) between each variable – ill-treatment, job security and POS – and the dependent/outcome variable (job satisfaction). These figures describe the strength, direction and significance of the relationships.

Table 1 *Pearson Correlations ‘All Variables/Predictors’*

		Job Satisfaction	Job Security	ill-Treatment	POS
Pearson Correlation	Job Satisfaction	1.000	.437**	.300**	.394**
	Job Security	.437**	1.000	.340	.349
	ill-Treatment	.300**	.340	1.000	.335
	POS	.394**	.349	.335	1.000

Note. ** indicates correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

The table shows that there was a weak positive correlation coefficient between ill-treatment and job satisfaction, $r=0.300$, which was statistically significant ($p<0.01$). This means that a statistically significant linear relationship existed between these two variables. Also, this figure indicates that ill-treatment can predict the level of job satisfaction in the workplace in

Saudi organisations. In addition, the table shows that there was a moderate positive correlation coefficient between job security and job satisfaction, $r=0.437$, which was also statistically significant ($p<0.01$). In other words, this means that job security is a predictor for the level of job satisfaction as there was a statistically significant linear relationship between these two variables. Furthermore, there was a weak positive correlation coefficient between POS and job satisfaction, $r=0.394$. This was also statistically significant ($p<0.01$). The existence of the linear relationship between the variables indicates that, on an individual level, POS can predict the level of job satisfaction.

5.4 Multiple Regression – Job Security and Ill-treatment Correlate with Job Satisfaction

5.4.1 Multiple Regression Model Summary

Table 2 is used to show the effects of the independent variables/predictors (job security and ill-treatment) on the regression model in order to discover the strength and direction of the multiple relationships. A stepwise variable entry method was used to place the significant variables/predictors according to how strongly they would affect the model.

Table 2 *Model Summary 'Multiple Regression'*

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics	
					R Square Change	F Change
1	.437 ^a	.191	.189	4.063	.191	98.778
2	.466 ^b	.217	.213	4.002	.026	13.902

Note. a. Predictors: (Constant), Job Security

b. Predictors: (Constant), Job Security, ill-Treatment

c. Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

Model 1 shows the effects of the first independent variable (job security). The fact that job security was placed in Model 1 indicates that it had the biggest effect on the regression model. The *R* value was 0.437 which shows the correlation coefficient between job security and job satisfaction. Moreover, the *R square* in Model 1 was 0.191 which measures how much variability was accounted for by job security. This means that job security accounted for 19.1% of the variance in the whole model. Further, the *Adjusted R square* was 0.189 which refers to how well the model generalises results to the wider population. The *Adjusted R square* value is usually preferred to be close to the *R square* value (Field, 2009). In this model the difference between the *R square* and the *Adjusted R square* was 0.002 or 0.2% which indicates that if these results were to be generalised to the wider population, job security would account for 18.9% of variance instead of 19.1%.

Model 2, which included the effects of both independent variables (job security and ill-treatment), shows that ill-treatment was the second biggest predictor in the model. The *R* value was 0.466 which shows a stronger multiple correlation coefficient between ‘job security and ill-treatment’ and the outcome variable (Field, 2009). In addition, the *R square* value in Model 2 was 0.217 which indicates more variability that is accounted for by the independent variables/predictors. This means that the independent variables accounted for 21.7% of variance in the model which was an increase of 0.026 or 2.6% compared to Model 1. Furthermore, the *Adjusted R square* value in Model 2 was 0.213 and the difference between it and the *R square* value was 0.004 or 0.4%. This means that if these figures were to be generalised to the wider population rather than a sample, these predictors would account for 0.4% less variance in the outcome variable, that is 21.3% instead of 21.7%.

5.4.2 ANOVA

Table 3 ANOVA ‘Multiple Regression’

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1630.923	1	1630.923	98.778	.000 ^b
	Residual	6918.117	419	16.511		
	Total	8549.040	420			
2	Regression	1853.598	2	926.799	57.861	.000 ^c
	Residual	6695.442	418	16.018		
	Total	8549.040	420			

Note. a. Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

b. Predictors: (Constant), Job Security

c. Predictors: (Constant), Job Security, ill-Treatment

Table 3 shows whether there is statistical significance in the whole regression model (Field, 2009). In this multiple regression test, the ANOVA test shows that Model 1, which included job security (independent variable) and job satisfaction (outcome variable), was statistically significant ($p < 0.01$). In addition, the table shows the Regression Sum of Squares that represents the prediction value of fitting the regression line to this set of data which was 1630.92. Moreover, Model 2, which included both 'job security and ill-treatment' and job satisfaction, also appeared as statistically significant at ($p < 0.01$).

5.5 Moderation Analysis

5.5.1 Moderation Analysis Model Summary

Table 4 shows the effects of the variables (predictors) on the model. Specifically, it shows the changes which occurred in the *R*, *R Square* and *Adjusted R Square* values which help to track and understand the effects of each predictor on the model. Therefore, the stepwise variables entry method was used as this method puts the significant predictors in order according to the effect they have on the model (biggest to smallest predictor). This moderation analysis included all three predictors used in this study (job security, ill-treatment, POS) and the two moderators/interaction variables (job security x POS) and (ill-treatment x POS).

Table 4 Model Summary 'Moderation Analysis'

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics	
					R Square Change	F Change
1	.437 ^a	.191	.189	4.063	.191	98.778
2	.507 ^b	.257	.254	3.898	.066	37.424
3	.517 ^c	.268	.262	3.875	.010	5.839
4	.525 ^d	.275	.268	3.859	.008	4.458

Note. a. Predictors: (Constant), Job Security

b. Predictors: (Constant), Job Security, POS

c. Predictors: (Constant), Job Security, POS, ill-Treatment

d. Predictors: (Constant), Job Security, POS, ill-Treatment, moderator_jobsecurity_x_POS

e. Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

Model 1 shows that job security had the biggest effect on the model as the relationship between job security and job satisfaction (*R* value) was 0.437. In addition, the *R square* value was 0.191 which means that job security accounted for 19.1% of the variance of the whole model. Moreover, the *Adjusted R square* in this model was 0.189 which indicates that if these results were to be generalised to the whole population, there should be 0.002 or 0.2% less variance to be accounted for by job security. This means that job security would account for 18.9% rather than 19.1%.

Model 2 which included job security and POS shows that POS had the second biggest effect on the model. The *R* value shows stronger multiple correlation coefficients between the predictors and the outcome variable which was 0.507 and which was an increase of 0.070 compared to Model 1. The *R square* value in Model 2 was 0.257 which means that these predictors (job security and POS) accounted for 25.7% of the variance of the whole model. This was an increase by 0.066 or 6.6%. Moreover, the *Adjusted R square* was 0.254 which

indicates that, when generalising these figures to the wider population, job security and POS would account for 25.4% of variance instead of 25.7%.

In relation to Model 3, job security, POS and ill-treatment were included as ill-treatment was found to have the third largest effect on the model. This part of the analysis revealed that these three variables show better results for the overall model. The *R* value was 0.517 which shows an improvement by 0.010 in the multiple correlation coefficients between the predictors and the outcome variable. Furthermore, the *R square* value increased by 0.011 which became 0.268 or 26.8% which means that these three predictors accounted for more variance in the whole model compared to the previous model. Further, the *Adjusted R square* in Model 3 was 0.262 or 26.2% which indicates that the percentage of variance has to be decreased by 0.006 or 0.6% if these results are to be applied to the general population.

Finally, Model 4 included job security, POS, ill-treatment and one moderator/interaction variable (job security x POS) and it indicates that the moderator had the fourth largest effect on the model. Therefore, it can be said that, although job security can directly predict the outcome variable (job satisfaction), the relationship between job security and job satisfaction is partially moderated by POS. The table shows that the moderator enhanced the model figures as it increased the multiple correlation coefficients (*R value*) between the predictors and the outcome variable that became 0.525, an increase of 0.008. Also, the Table 4 shows that the *R square* value was 0.275 which means that the predictors in Model 4 accounted for 27.5% of the whole model which was an increase of 0.7% compared to the previous model.

Furthermore, the *Adjusted R square* was 0.268 which explains a reduction by 0.007 or 0.7% in the *R square* value if these results are to be generalised to the wider population. As a result, it can be seen that the *R square* value in the model improved as the predictors were entered into the analysis, from 19.1% in Model 1 to 27.5% in Model 4.

The second moderator/interaction variable (ill-treatment x POS) has been excluded from the analysis as the model appeared non-significant. This result indicates that the moderator did not have any effect on the model. Therefore, it can be concluded that although ill-treatment can directly predict the outcome variable (job satisfaction), the relationship between ill-treatment and job satisfaction is not moderated by POS. Table C13 shows the exclusion of this interaction variable.

5.5.2 ANOVA

Table 5 ANOVA ‘Moderation Analysis’

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1630.923	1	1630.923	98.778	.000 ^b
	Residual	6918.117	419	16.511		
	Total	8549.040	420			
2	Regression	2199.408	2	1099.704	72.394	.000 ^c
	Residual	6349.632	418	15.191		
	Total	8549.040	420			
3	Regression	2287.097	3	762.366	50.768	.000 ^d
	Residual	6261.944	417	15.017		
	Total	8549.040	420			
4	Regression	2353.490	4	588.372	39.506	.000 ^e
	Residual	6195.551	416	14.893		
	Total	8549.040	420			

Note. a. Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

b. Predictors: (Constant), Job Security

c. Predictors: (Constant), Job Security, POS

d. Predictors: (Constant), Job Security, POS, ill-Treatment

e. Predictors: (Constant), Job Security, POS, ill-Treatment, moderator_jobsecurity_x_POS

Table 5 shows whether or not there is a statistical significance in the whole moderation model (Field, 2009). In Table 5 models are shown individually in order to see the significance of each one. Model 1 which included the biggest predictor (job security) of the outcome variable was statistically significant at ($p < 0.01$). In addition, Model 2 which has job security and the second biggest predictor (POS) appeared as statistically significant ($p < 0.01$). Moreover, the figures of the third model which included ill-treatment and the other predictors (job security and POS) show that the model was statistically significant ($p < 0.01$). Finally, Model 4 in Table

5 shows that the inclusion of the moderator/interaction variable (job security x POS) results in statistically significant model as ($p < 0.01$).

5.6 Results Summary

These results show that, on an individual level, there was a moderate positive correlation coefficient between job security and job satisfaction, $r = 0.437$. Further, there was a weak positive correlation coefficient between ill-treatment and job satisfaction, $r = 0.300$, as well as a weak positive correlation coefficient between POS and job satisfaction, $r = 0.394$. Moreover, in relation to the regression model (job security, ill-treatment) and job satisfaction, Model 1 shows that job security appeared to be the biggest predictor for job satisfaction as the R value was 0.437 and the R square value was 0.191 or 19.1%. Model 2, which included ill-treatment as the second biggest predictor as well as job security, shows that the R value was 0.466 and the R square value was 0.217 or 21.7% which both indicate an increase in their values compared to Model 1. In addition, as the ANOVA test showed, both models were statistically significant ($p < 0.01$).

The moderation analysis included all three predictors/variables used in the study (job security, ill-treatment, POS) and the two interaction variables (job security x POS) and (ill-treatment x POS). As these variables were entered into the model according to how much they affected the model, the figures show that there was an improvement in the R and R square values in each model. To begin with, Model 1 showed that job security was the biggest predictor for job satisfaction with an R value of 0.437 and an R square value of 0.191 which means that job

security alone accounted for 19.1% of variance in the model. Also, Model 2 shows that POS had the second biggest effect on the model as the *R* value was 0.507 and the *R square* was 0.257. This result indicates that job security and POS accounted for 25.7% of variance in the whole model, which was an increase of 6.6%. Moreover, Model 3 included the third biggest predictor (ill-treatment). The *R* value increased to 0.517 and the *R square* value also increased to 0.268. This means that the inclusion of ill-treatment, along with job security and POS, accounted for 26.8% of variance in the whole model. Finally, the moderator/interaction variable (job security x POS) was added to the analysis as it showed an effect on the model. The *R* value increased to 0.525 and the *R square* was 0.275. These figures mean that the moderator and the other three predictors (job security, ill-treatment and POS) accounted for 27.5% of variance in the model. This result also indicates that the relationship between job security and job satisfaction was partially moderated by POS. However, it was not the case with the other moderator (ill-treatment x POS) as it was excluded from the analysis because the model was not significant which means that the relationship between ill-treatment and job satisfaction was not moderated by POS.

Chapter 6

Discussion

6.1 Discussion Overview

It has been claimed that job security affects employee performance and is related to their overall job satisfaction (Ashford et al., 1989; Davy et al., 1991; Lim, 1996). Also, previous research found that ill-treatment can affect employee performance mainly because it produces physical and psychological effects (Barling, 1996; Cortina et al., 2001; Sidle, 2009). Moreover, POS has been found to contribute to the level of employee job satisfaction and therefore their work performance, as past studies have shown that the more support provided by organisations the more satisfied employees are (Barhem et al., 2010; Butler, 2009; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Eisenberger et al., 1990). The aim of the present study was to investigate these variables in Saudi Arabian organisations in order to see whether the relationship between ‘job security and ill-treatment’ and job satisfaction is moderated by POS.

6.2 Job Security

As mentioned earlier, job security is the fear that an employee may lose their job without sufficient reason (Meltz, 1989). Previous studies have shown that the level of job security affects employees in different ways. Kuhnert et al. (1989) suggested that the level of job security affects employees’ stability and consistency at work and lack of job security has

health consequences including depression, mental issues and anxiety. In addition, any threat to an employee's job security may cause physical and psychological issues, especially for anyone who considers their job as part of their life (Burke, 1991; Kuhnert & Palmer, 1991).

Earlier studies found that there is a relationship between the level of job security and employee turnover in organisations. This relationship was found to be a negative relationship as the higher the level of job security, the less employees leave their jobs (Arnold & Feldman, 1982). Moreover, the level of job security contributes to the level of employee job satisfaction. Lim (1996), Davy et al. (1991) and Ashford et al. (1989) found there was a positive relationship between job security and job satisfaction: that is, the higher job security the more satisfied employees are. According to a study that was conducted in a Saudi Arabian organisation in the private sector, employees had a medium level of job satisfaction based on their level of job security at work. Some believed that working in a large company within the private sector provided a high level of job security. However, others preferred to work in government organisations in the public sector for a higher level of job security (Al Surie, 2002).

In this present study, the relationship between job security and job satisfaction showed that there was a statistically significant moderate correlation which scored $r=0.437$. Furthermore, this relationship appeared as a positive relationship meaning that organisations with the higher levels of job security have the more satisfied employees. This result confirms the view of (Ashford et al., 1989; Davy et al., 1991; Lim, 1996; London et al., 1977).

6.3 Ill-treatment

Ill-treatment in this context means any negative action done by a person in the workplace which causes another person or group to suffer as a result (Fevre et al., 2012b). There are different forms of ill-treatment actions in the workplace but this present study discussed two forms: incivility and violence. Previous studies have shown that employees can be affected by ill-treatment actions in a variety of ways. Sidle (2009) found that employees who are the object of incivility at work are more likely to face low job satisfaction. In addition, employees who are targeted with uncivil behaviours at work have been found to suffer from low levels of well-being (Sakurai et al., 2011), and loss of productivity (Lewis & Malecha, 2011). Moreover, Burnes and Pope (2007) stated that there is a relationship between uncivil actions at work and a reduction of effort during working hours.

In relation to violence at work, earlier studies have shown that there is a relationship between violence at work and employee performance, because violence produces physical effects (Barling, 1996). Fernandes et al. (1999) found that employees who suffer from physical violence at work showed a greatly reduced level of performance at work. They also found that there is a negative relationship between violence at work and job satisfaction meaning that the more violence is experienced at work the less satisfied employees are. In addition, these authors pointed to another form of job dissatisfaction as a result of violence at work and that was a positive correlation between violence at work and intention to leave the job. El-Gilany et al. (2010) investigated primary healthcare workers in Saudi Arabia and found that there is

a relationship between workplace violence and emotional effects for workers which impact their overall performance. Algwaiz and Alghanim (2012) also found similar results in their study which was conducted on physicians and nurses in Saudi Arabia.

In this present study, the relationship between ill-treatment and job satisfaction shows that there is a positive correlation between these two variables that scored $r=0.300$, which is statistically significant. The obvious interpretation of the positive relationship is that the more ill-treatment actions in the workplace, the higher the job satisfaction. However, this is not the case here because the ill-treatment measurement scale is coded in reverse meaning that the higher the score the less ill-treatment actions occur at work (negative scale). As a result, this allows the positive relationship to play a role of a negative relationship. Therefore, this correlation can be interpreted as the fewer ill-treatment actions at work, the higher the level of job satisfaction. This result confirms the findings of previous studies such as (Fernandes et al., 1999; Sidle, 2009; Wieclaw et al., 2006).

6.4 POS

The concept of POS in this present study refers to whether employees feel their well-being is a matter of concern to the organisation they belong to and whether they are looked after (Eisenberger et al., 1990). Previous studies found that POS is highly related to employee work performance in organisations. Eisenberger et al. (1990) found that there is a correlation between the level of employee work performance and the support provided by organisations. This occurs because POS enhances employee expectations which reflects on their work

outcomes. Further, Wayne et al. (1997) showed that employees who receive support from their organisations have better engagement in the work and stronger commitment. Moreover, providing the required support to employees can result in stronger relationships between employees and organisations which can lead to better performance and higher job satisfaction (Eisenberger et al., 2001). Also, Eisenberger et al. (1990) found that there is a negative relationship between POS and employee withdrawal meaning that the higher the support provided by organisations the less likely employees are to leave their jobs.

In this present study, the correlation between POS and the level of job satisfaction within Saudi organisations scored $r=0.394$ which is statistically significant. This score indicates that there was a moderate relationship between POS and the level of job satisfaction. In addition, this relationship was found to be positive which means that the higher the level of support employees receive from organisations, the higher the level of job satisfaction they have. This finding is consistent with the findings in previous studies such as (Barhem et al., 2010; Butler, 2009; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Naithani, 2013) whose results show a similar relationship between these two variables.

6.5 Job Satisfaction

As mentioned earlier, job satisfaction in this present study is used as an outcome (dependent) variable. Initially, job satisfaction was tested using multiple regression analysis to see whether the independent variables (job security and ill-treatment) could predict the outcome variable. Also, the model was again tested using moderation analysis in order to investigate whether

POS could moderate the relationships between the independent variables and outcome variable.

The multiple regression analysis indicates that job security had the biggest effect on the model as it accounted for 19.1% of the variance. This indicates that job security predicts job satisfaction and contributes the most in terms of understanding the relationships in the regression model. In addition, this result shows that, in Saudi organisations, the level of job security can be an effective element for estimating the level of employee job satisfaction. This finding is consistent with those of (Ashford et al., 1989; Davy et al., 1991; Lim, 1996; London et al., 1977) who support the idea that job security can predict and impact employee job satisfaction. Moreover, the regression analysis revealed that ill-treatment was the second biggest predictor of job satisfaction. This suggests that ill-treatment actions in the workplace can impact the level of job satisfaction in Saudi organisations which confirms the view of previous studies such as (Fernandes et al., 1999; Sidle, 2009; Wieclaw et al., 2006).

The moderation analysis included the three variables/predictors in this study (job security, ill-treatment, and POS) and the two moderators/interaction variables – job security x POS and ill-treatment x POS – in order to discover whether POS moderates the relationships between the independent variables and job satisfaction. The predictors were entered into the analysis according to how much they affect the model. The results indicate that job security was the biggest predictor of job satisfaction as it had the greatest effect on the model. This result is in agreement with other studies on the impact job security has on job satisfaction (Ashford et al.,

1989; Davy et al., 1991; Lim, 1996). Further, POS was found to be the second biggest predictor of job satisfaction. This result suggests that the level of support provided by organisations can contribute to the level of employee job satisfaction (Barhem et al., 2010; Butler, 2009; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Naithani, 2013).

The moderation analysis also revealed that ill-treatment came third in terms of the size of the effect it has on job satisfaction. This finding indicates that, in Saudi organisations, decreasing the level of ill-treatment actions in the workplace can enhance the level of job satisfaction among employees (Fernandes et al., 1999; Sidle, 2009; Wieclaw et al., 2006). Furthermore, the interaction variable (job security x POS) was the fourth biggest predictor of job satisfaction. This indicates that the relationship between job security and job satisfaction can be explained in two ways. First, it can be explained by the direct prediction of job security to the level of job satisfaction, since job security has a large effect on job satisfaction. Second, the relationship can be explained by the moderating effect of POS. This means that the relationship between job security and job satisfaction was partially moderated by POS. In addition, the second interaction variable (ill-treatment x POS) did not appear to have any effect on the model; it was non-significant. This result suggests that even though POS was directly related to job satisfaction, it did not moderate the relationship between ill-treatment and job satisfaction.

6.6 Theoretical and Managerial Implications

This present study, which investigates whether the relationship between 'job security, ill-treatment' and job satisfaction is moderated by POS, has revealed some findings that are worth noting in relation to the Saudi work environment.

First, the literature indicates that job security is related to the level of job satisfaction at work and can be considered a predictor for job satisfaction (Ashford et al., 1989; Davy et al., 1991; Lim, 1996). The present study agrees with this view as it found that there is a moderate positive correlation between job security and job satisfaction at work, $r=0.437$. In addition, job security was found to have the biggest effect on both the regression and moderation models.

Second, earlier studies have shown that ill-treatment actions have a negative relationship with job satisfaction, productivity, well-being and work performance (Barling, 1996; Fernandes et al., 1999; Lewis & Malecha, 2011; Sakurai et al., 2011; Sidle, 2009). This present study is consistent with the above findings. This study found that the relationship between ill-treatment and job satisfaction was 0.300. This correlation appears positive because the ill-treatment measurement scale is scored negatively (see Section 6.3), so consequently this relationship should be seen as a negative one.

Third, previous research supports the idea that job security and ill-treatment can be predictors for the outcome variable of job satisfaction. (Ashford et al., 1989; Davy et al., 1991;

Fernandes et al., 1999; Sidle, 2009). This study shares the same view as the above studies because the multiple correlations in the regression analysis between the independent variables and job satisfaction demonstrate a moderate positive correlation of $r=0.466$. Moreover, the model suggests that both variables accounted for 21.7% of the variance in the outcome variable.

Fourth, based on the results of this present study, it can be stated that POS moderates the relationship between job security and job satisfaction as the moderation analysis shows that the moderator/interaction variable (job security x POS) had an effect on the model. However, the second moderator/interaction variable (ill-treatment x POS) did not show any effect on the outcome variable which indicates that POS does not moderate the relationship between ill-treatment and job satisfaction.

7 Conclusion and Limitations

There has always been a concern about HR performance in organisations since HR focuses on a main organisational asset, namely people (Guest, 1997; Purcell, 1999). A considerable amount of research has been conducted with respect to HR in order to understand those matters that can directly or indirectly affect employee performance and which could lead to better organisational outcomes (Barney, 1995; Whitfield & Poole, 1997). It is important to consider the cultural influences on people's actions at work (Hofstede & Bond, 1988). This is because in many cases, negative behaviours in the workplace, which may be caused by cultural factors, can lead to serious consequences for employee performance (Duxbury, 2005).

HR matters have been given a great deal of attention in Western countries (Fombrun et al., 1984; Legge, 1995; Mayrhofer & Brewster, 2005). However, the subject has been under-researched in the Gulf region including Saudi Arabia (Al-Hamadi et al., 2007). Therefore, the focus of the present study was to investigate Saudi organisations quantitatively and evaluate the effects of the Islamic view of HR as well as cultural characteristics. The cultural characteristics that have been discussed are the collectivistic nature of the society, the effects of losing face and power distance. In addition, this study used four variables that are important for the Saudi context. They are job security and ill-treatment as independent variables, and POS as a moderating variable. It also used job satisfaction as an outcome variable because measuring employee performance was not feasible for this study; therefore, job satisfaction was used instead. The present study investigated whether the relationship

between 'job security and ill-treatment' and job satisfaction is moderated by POS in Saudi organisations.

Previous studies have shown that these variables affect employees in different ways. The level of job security has been found to affect employees' levels of stability and consistency as well as causing some health issues which, in turn, may further affect their work performance (Kuhnert et al., 1989). Also, a high level of job security has been found to decrease employee turnover in organisations (Arnold & Feldman, 1982) and increase their job satisfaction (Ashford et al., 1989; Davy et al., 1991; Lim, 1996). In relation to ill-treatment at work, past research found that in workplaces where ill-treatment actions occur, employees are more likely to have low job satisfaction (Fernandes et al., 1999; Sidle, 2009), a low level of productivity (Lewis & Malecha, 2011) and a considerably reduced work performance (Fernandes et al., 1999). In addition, POS has been found to have a positive relationship with work performance meaning that the higher the level of support provided by organisations the better the work performance produced and, therefore, the higher the level of job satisfaction (Eisenberger et al., 2001; Eisenberger et al., 1990).

The existing literature does not include many studies that have been conducted in the Saudi Arabian context (Al-Hamadi et al., 2007). This provides an opportunity for the present study to contribute its findings to the literature. The findings of the present study show that, on an individual level, there is a significant positive relationship between job security and job satisfaction in Saudi organisations. This means that the higher the level of job security

provided by organisations, the higher the level of employee job satisfaction. Furthermore, the results show that ill-treatment had a positive statistically significant relationship with job satisfaction. The reason there was a positive relationship is that the ill-treatment measurement scale is coded reversely, which means that this relationship should be seen as a negative relationship (see Section 6.3). Also, the relationship between POS and job satisfaction in this present study was a significant positive relationship which means that the higher the level of support provided by organisations the higher the level of employee job satisfaction.

When testing the multiple relationships between ‘job security and ill-treatment’ and job satisfaction using regression analysis, variables were entered into the model depending on how much they would affect the model. As a result, job security appeared as the biggest predictor of job satisfaction as the *R square* value was 0.191 which means that job security accounted for 19.1% of variance in the regression model. Moreover, ill-treatment was found to have the second biggest effect on the model as the *R square* value increased to 0.217 which indicates that both job security and ill-treatment accounted for 21.7% of variance in the model.

The moderation analysis – which included the three predictors ‘job security, ill-treatment and POS and the interaction variables (job security x POS) and (ill-treatment x POS) – revealed that all three predictors and the interaction variable (job security x POS) had effects on the model. This means that all variables predicted the level of job satisfaction. In addition, the relationship between job security and job satisfaction was partially moderated by POS which

was not the case with the relationship between ill-treatment and job satisfaction as the other interaction variable (ill-treatment x POS) did not affect the model.

The limitations in this study can be summarised as follows: firstly, this study was conducted in the Saudi context which may limit the application of its findings to other countries which are essentially different culturally and organisationally. Secondly, the survey was designed and distributed using electronic media and may have not covered all the cities in Saudi Arabia as some cities do not have Internet available, either home internet or cellular networks. Thirdly, the sample was not random; this led to the use of convenient and the snowball sampling instead and this may affect the generalisability of the results (Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2005). Given the fact that HR matters have not been well researched in many Asian countries including the Gulf region, further research may be needed in order to gain a better understanding of HR operations in those countries.

8 Reference List

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Appendix A: Survey Questions

1. Job Security

The future of your job.

What is the future of your job with this organisation like? Circle Yes if the item describes the future of your job. Circle No if the item does not describe the future of your job. Circle ? if you cannot decide. Please choose a response for each item.

Unpredictable	Yes	No	?
Stable	Yes	No	?
Unknown	Yes	No	?
My job is almost guaranteed	Yes	No	?
Uncertain	Yes	No	?
Can depend on being here	Yes	No	?

Your job security

What is your job security like? Circle Yes if the item describes your job security. Circle No if the item does not describe your job security. Circle ? if you cannot decide. Please choose a response for each item.

Sufficient amount of security	Yes	No	?
Upsetting how little job security I have	Yes	No	?
Excellent amount of security	Yes	No	?
Stressful	Yes	No	?
Positive	Yes	No	?
Unacceptably low	Yes	No	?

SCORING KEY FOR THE JSI AND JSS

Note: All *positively worded items* are highlighted above in yellow.

- All responses are scored either a 3, 1, or 0
- All positive responses (i.e., “yes” to a positively-worded item, or “no” to a negatively-worded item) are scored a 3.
- All negative responses (i.e., “no” to a positively-worded item, or “yes” to a negatively-worded item) are scored a 0.

All ?-mark responses are scored a 1

2. Ill-treatment – FARE score

Thinking about your “current workplace during the last year that you spent in your most recent job”, which of the following statements apply?

Where I work, the needs of the organisation always come before the needs of people	Yes	No
Where I work, you have to compromise your principles	Yes	No
Where I work, people are treated as individuals	Yes	No
I decide how much work I do or how fast I work during the day	Yes	No
My manager decides the specific tasks I will do from day to day	Yes	No
I decide the quality standards by which I work	Yes	No
I now have less control over my work than I did a year ago	Yes	No
The pace of work in my present job is too intense	Yes	No
The nature of my work has changed over the past year or so	Yes	No
The pace of work in my job has increased over the past year or so	Yes	No

3. Perceived Organisational Support – POS

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by filling in the circle on your answer sheet that best represents your point of view. Please choose from the following answers:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

1. My organisation values my contribution to its well-being.
2. My organisation fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.
3. My organisation disregards my best interests when it makes decisions that affect me.
4. My organisation really cares about my well-being.
5. Even if I did the best job possible, my organisation would fail to notice.
6. My organisation cares about my general satisfaction at work.
7. My organisation shows very little concern for me.
8. My organisation takes pride in my accomplishments at work.

4. Job Satisfaction

The Is Now scale was obtained by asking the respondent the following set of questions:

We would like your ideas on the kinds of satisfactions your job now gives you. I'll read some things your job could give you. For each one, please tell me whether you now get a great deal of this on your job, some, or not much. For example, 1) would you say that your present job now gives you a great deal of opportunity to make friends and work with congenial people, some chance to do this, or not much chance?

- 2) A way to keep busy: something to pass the time.
- 3) A source of self-respect: a job I'm proud of.
- 4) Interesting work: work that I enjoy.
- 5) A job highly regarded by others.
- 6) A way to be of help and service to others.
- 7) A chance to be creative, to use my own ideas, and do things my own way.
- 8) A chance to be a leader, to influence others.
- 9) How much of a challenge to your skill and ability, a feeling of solving difficult problems, does your present job give you?
- 10) Continuous work and a secure job.
- 11) Opportunity for regular advancement.
- 12) A chance to do what I'm best at, a feeling of accomplishment.
- 13) A way to earn a living and produce a paycheck.
- 14) A feeling of being needed, a source of responsibility.

Appendix B: Low Risk Notification



MASSEY UNIVERSITY
ALBANY

21 October 2014

Abdullah Al Muhanna
8/548 Albany Highway
Auckland 0632

Dear Abdullah

Re: The relationships between job security, healthy workplace 'ill treatment', perceived organisational support, stress at work and employees' performance and satisfaction in both private and public sectors in Saudi Arabia

Thank you for your Low Risk Notification which was received on 7 October 2014.

Your project has been recorded on the Low Risk Database which is reported in the Annual Report of the Massey University Human Ethics Committees.

You are reminded that staff researchers and supervisors are fully responsible for ensuring that the information in the low risk notification has met the requirements and guidelines for submission of a low risk notification.

The low risk notification for this project is valid for a maximum of three years.

Please notify me if situations subsequently occur which cause you to reconsider your initial ethical analysis that it is safe to proceed without approval by one of the University's Human Ethics Committees.

Please note that travel undertaken by students must be approved by the supervisor and the relevant Pro Vice-Chancellor and be in accordance with the Policy and Procedures for Course-Related Student Travel Overseas. In addition, the supervisor must advise the University's Insurance Officer.

A reminder to include the following statement on all public documents:

"This project has been evaluated by peer review and judged to be low risk. Consequently, it has not been reviewed by one of the University's Human Ethics Committees. The researcher(s) named above are responsible for the ethical conduct of this research.

If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research that you wish to raise with someone other than the researcher(s), please contact Professor John O'Neill, Director (Research Ethics), telephone 06 350 5249, e-mail humanethics@massey.ac.nz".

Please note that if a sponsoring organisation, funding authority or a journal in which you wish to publish requires evidence of committee approval (with an approval number), you will have to provide a full application to one of the University's Human Ethics Committees. You should also note that such an approval can only be provided prior to the commencement of the research.

Yours sincerely

John G O'Neill (Professor)
**Chair, Human Ethics Chairs' Committee and
Director (Research Ethics)**

cc Dr Darryl Forsyth
School of Management
ALBANY

Prof Sarah Leberman, HoS
School of Management
PN214

Massey University Human Ethics Committee
Accredited by the Health Research Council

Appendix C: Tables and Charts

Table 6 *Descriptive Statistics for All Variables*

Descriptive Statistics			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Job Satisfaction	30.57	4.512	421
Job Security	1.9220	.80435	421
Ill-Treatment	14.68	2.215	421
POS	3.6384	.85896	421

Regression Analysis Tables and Charts

Table 7 *Coefficients 'Multiple Regression Analysis'*

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	25.864	.514		50.368	.000
	Job Security	2.450	.247	.437	9.939	.000
2	(Constant)	21.360	1.309		16.313	.000
	Job Security	2.122	.258	.378	8.221	.000
	ill-Treatment	.350	.094	.172	3.729	.000

Model		95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations		
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	24.854	26.873			
	Job Security	1.965	2.934	.437	.437	.437
2	(Constant)	18.787	23.934			
	Job Security	1.615	2.630	.437	.373	.356
	ill-Treatment	.165	.534	.300	.179	.161

Table 8 *Collinearity Statistics 'Multiple Regression Analysis'*

Collinearity Statistics	
Tolerance	VIF
1.000	1.000
.884	1.131
.884	1.131

Note. Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

Table 9 *Collinearity Diagnostics 'Multiple Regression Analysis'*

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions		
				(Constant)	Job Security	ill-Treatment
1	1	1.923	1.000	.04	.04	
	2	.077	4.985	.96	.96	
2	1	2.896	1.000	.00	.01	.00
	2	.093	5.571	.05	.95	.03
	3	.011	16.371	.95	.04	.97

Note. Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

Table 10 *Casewise Diagnostics 'Multiple Regression Analysis'*

Case Number	Std. Residual	Job Satisfaction	Predicted Value	Residual
159	3.856	42	26.33	15.666
399	-3.821	17	32.53	-15.526
422	3.267	42	28.73	13.273

Note. Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

Table 11 *Residuals Statistics* 'Multiple Regression Analysis'

Residuals Statistics					
	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	25.38	34.72	30.57	2.101	421
Std. Predicted Value	-2.470	1.975	.000	1.000	421
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.197	.662	.324	.095	421
Adjusted Predicted Value	25.34	34.72	30.57	2.101	421
Residual	-11.430	11.679	.000	3.993	421
Std. Residual	-2.856	2.918	.000	.998	421
Stud. Residual	-2.867	2.930	.000	1.001	421
Deleted Residual	-11.519	11.777	.000	4.020	421
Stud. Deleted Residual	-2.892	2.957	.000	1.003	421
Mahal. Distance	.024	10.493	1.995	1.813	421
Cook's Distance	.000	.037	.002	.004	421
Centred Leverage Value	.000	.025	.005	.004	421

Note. Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

Charts

Chart 1 *Histogram 'Multiple Regression Analysis'*

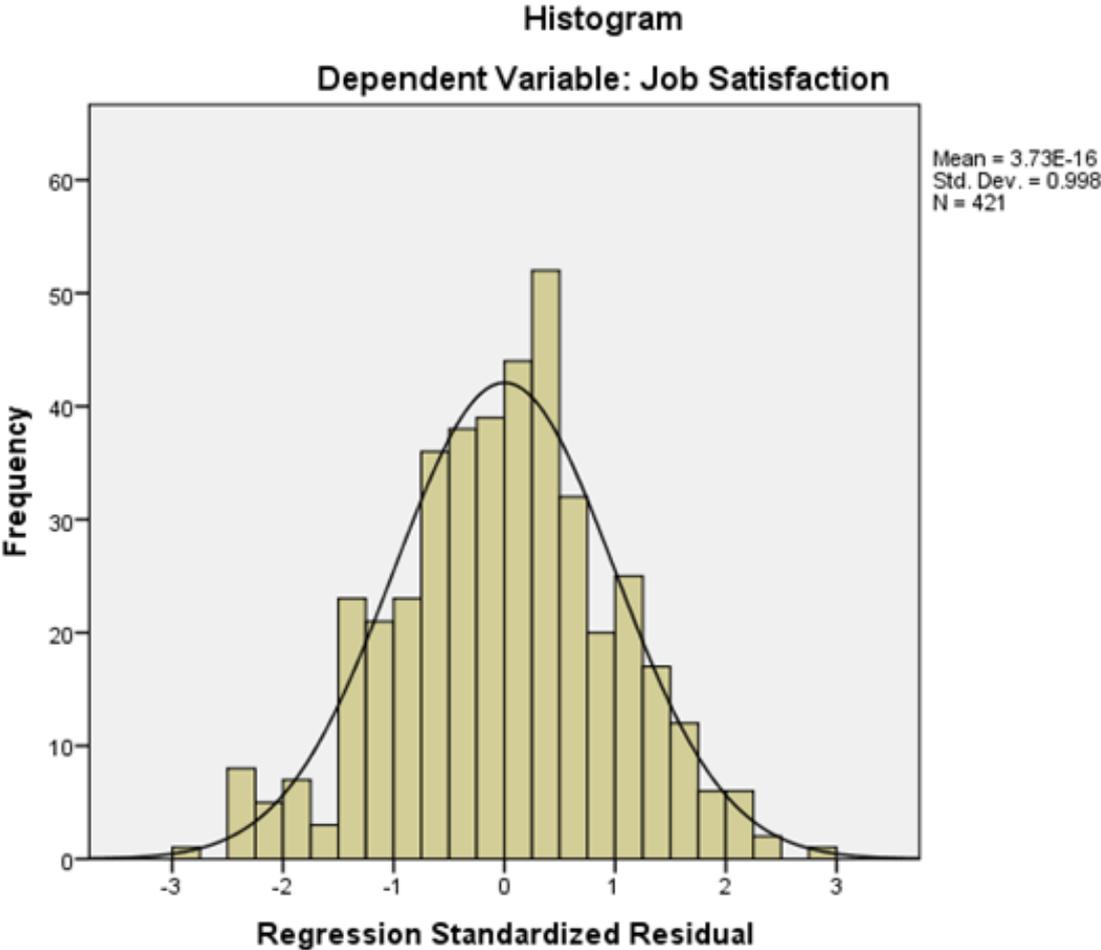


Chart 2 Normal P-P Plot of Regression ‘Multiple Regression Analysis’

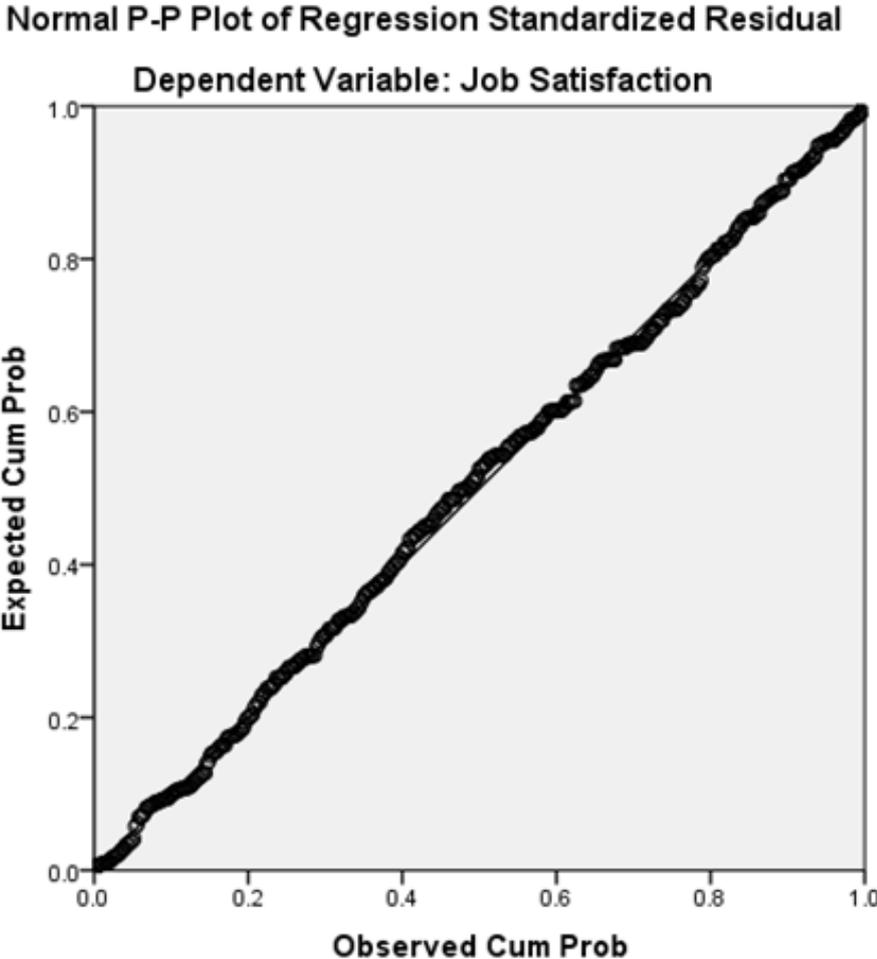
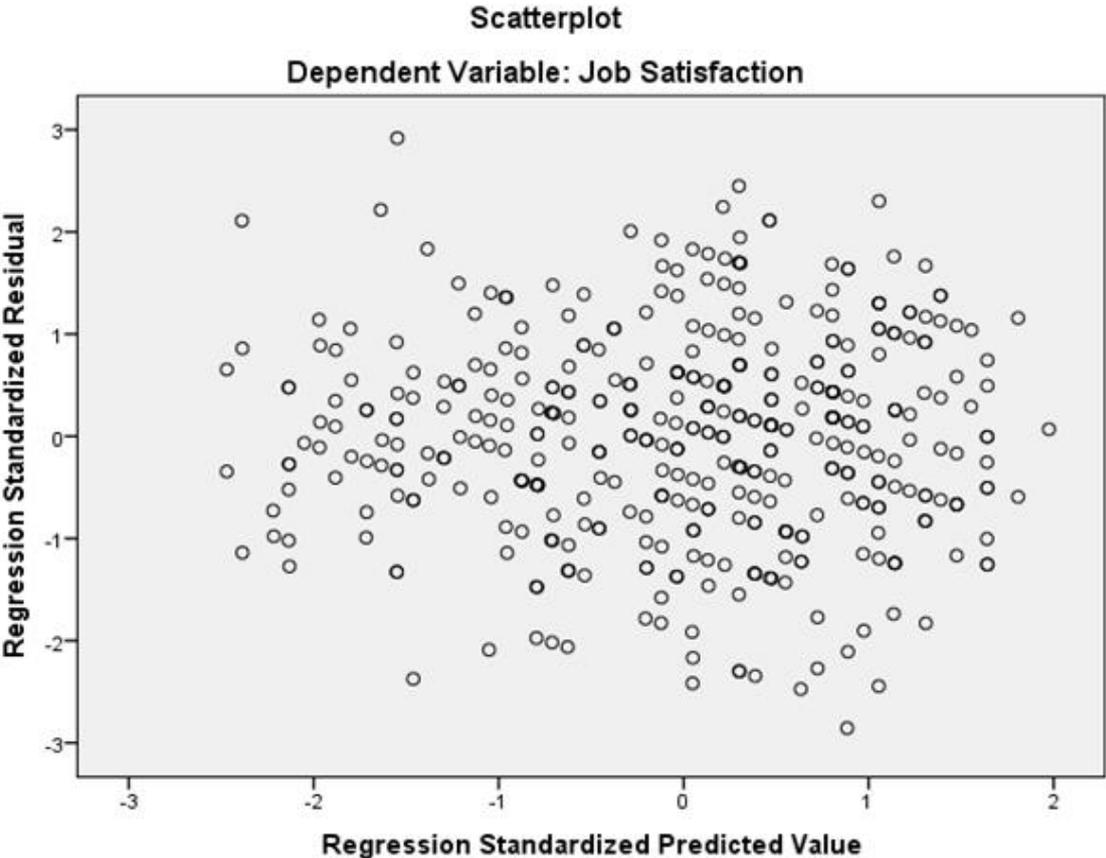


Chart 3 Scatterplot 'Multiple Regression Analysis'



Moderation Analysis Tables and Charts

Table 12 *Coefficients 'Moderation Analysis'*

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t
		B	Std. Error	Beta	
1	(Constant)	25.864	.514		50.368
	Job Security	2.450	.247	.437	9.939
2	(Constant)	21.641	.848		25.519
	Job Security	1.911	.252	.341	7.573
	POS	1.445	.236	.275	6.117
3	(Constant)	19.145	1.333		14.360
	Job Security	1.752	.259	.312	6.759
	POS	1.302	.242	.248	5.373
	ill-Treatment	.226	.094	.111	2.416
4	(Constant)	18.820	1.337		14.080
	Job Security	1.905	.268	.340	7.104
	POS	1.283	.241	.244	5.311
	ill-Treatment	.224	.093	.110	2.396
	moderator_jobsecurity_x_P	.413	.196	.092	2.111
	OS				

Model		Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order
1	(Constant)	.000	24.854	26.873	
	Job Security	.000	1.965	2.934	.437
2	(Constant)	.000	19.974	23.308	
	Job Security	.000	1.415	2.407	.437
	POS	.000	.981	1.910	.394
3	(Constant)	.000	16.524	21.766	
	Job Security	.000	1.243	2.262	.437
	POS	.000	.826	1.778	.394
	ill-Treatment	.016	.042	.410	.300
4	(Constant)	.000	16.192	21.447	
	Job Security	.000	1.378	2.432	.437
	POS	.000	.808	1.757	.394
	ill-Treatment	.017	.040	.407	.300
	moderator_jobsecurity_x_POS	.035	.028	.797	-.025

Coefficients

Model		Correlations			
		Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)				
	Job Security	.437	.437	1.000	1.000
2	(Constant)				
	Job Security	.347	.319	.878	1.139
	POS	.287	.258	.878	1.139
3	(Constant)				
	Job Security	.314	.283	.822	1.217
	POS	.254	.225	.825	1.212
	ill-Treatment	.118	.101	.831	1.203
4	(Constant)				
	Job Security	.329	.297	.762	1.312
	POS	.252	.222	.824	1.213
	ill-Treatment	.117	.100	.831	1.203
	moderator_jobsecurity_x_POS	.103	.088	.921	1.085

Note. Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

Table 13 *Excluded Variables 'Moderation Analysis'*

Model	Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics	
					Tolerance	
1	ill-Treatment	.172 ^b	3.729	.000	.179	.884
	POS	.275 ^b	6.117	.000	.287	.878
	moderator_jobsecurity_x_P OS	.105 ^b	2.299	.022	.112	.923
	moderator_illtreatment_x_P OS	.060 ^b	1.371	.171	.067	.995
2	ill-Treatment	.111 ^c	2.416	.016	.118	.831
	moderator_jobsecurity_x_P OS	.093 ^c	2.134	.033	.104	.921
	moderator_illtreatment_x_P OS	.066 ^c	1.552	.121	.076	.994
3	moderator_jobsecurity_x_P OS	.092 ^d	2.111	.035	.103	.921
	moderator_illtreatment_x_P OS	.077 ^d	1.837	.067	.090	.982
4	moderator_illtreatment_x_P OS	.056 ^e	1.258	.209	.062	.892

Table 14 *Collinearity Diagnostics 'Moderation Analysis'*

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions		
				(Constant)	Job Security	POS
1	1	1.923	1.000	.04	.04	
	2	.077	4.985	.96	.96	
2	1	2.883	1.000	.01	.01	.01
	2	.090	5.657	.11	.97	.07
	3	.026	10.435	.88	.01	.93
3	1	3.860	1.000	.00	.01	.00
	2	.098	6.283	.03	.94	.02
	3	.031	11.134	.10	.01	.97
	4	.011	18.908	.88	.04	.00
4	1	3.972	1.000	.00	.01	.00
	2	.899	2.103	.00	.00	.00
	3	.087	6.750	.03	.95	.03
	4	.031	11.299	.10	.01	.97
	5	.011	19.201	.87	.03	.00

Table 15 *Residuals Statistics 'Moderation Analysis'*

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	25.85	36.54	30.57	2.367	421
Std. Predicted Value	-1.996	2.519	.000	1.000	421
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.203	.917	.400	.130	421
Adjusted Predicted Value	25.68	36.59	30.57	2.371	421
Residual	-11.515	11.878	.000	3.841	421
Std. Residual	-2.984	3.078	.000	.995	421
Stud. Residual	-2.996	3.097	.000	1.001	421
Deleted Residual	-11.606	12.026	.003	3.886	421
Stud. Deleted Residual	-3.025	3.129	.000	1.003	421
Mahal. Distance	.161	22.730	3.990	3.486	421
Cook's Distance	.000	.041	.002	.004	421
Centered Leverage Value	.000	.054	.010	.008	421

Charts (cont.)

Chart 4 *Histogram 'Moderation Analysis'*

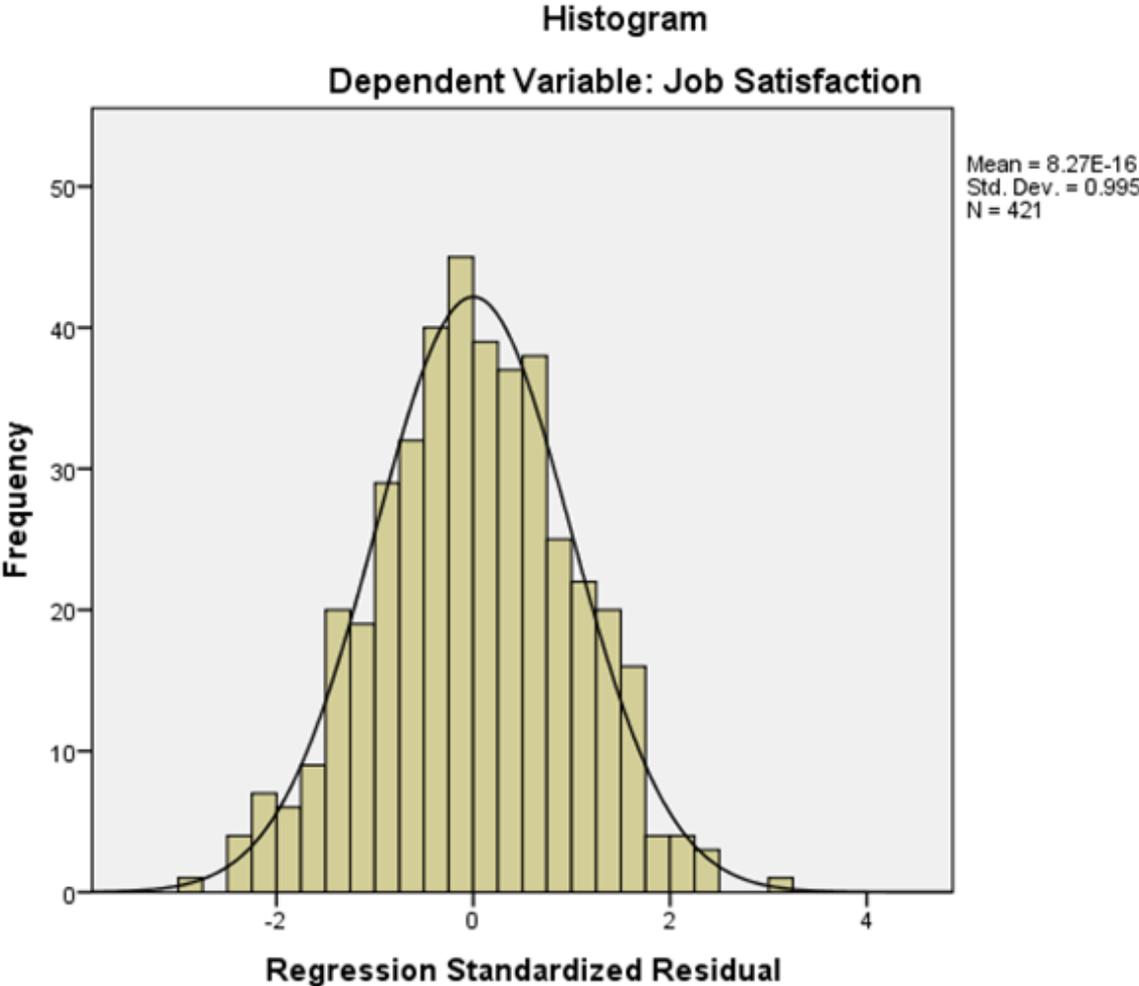


Chart 5 Normal P-P Plot 'Moderation Analysis'

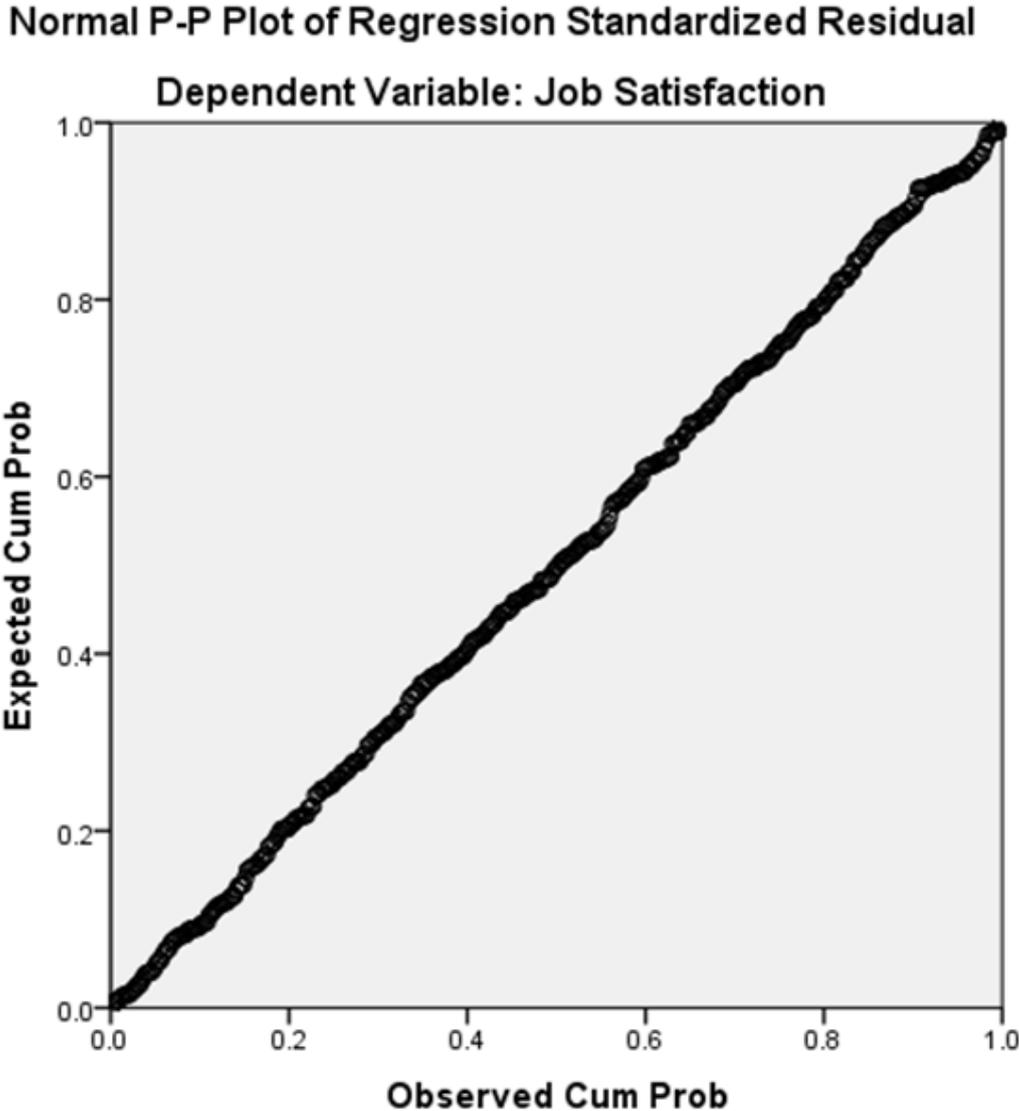


Chart 6 Scatterplot 'Moderation Analysis'

