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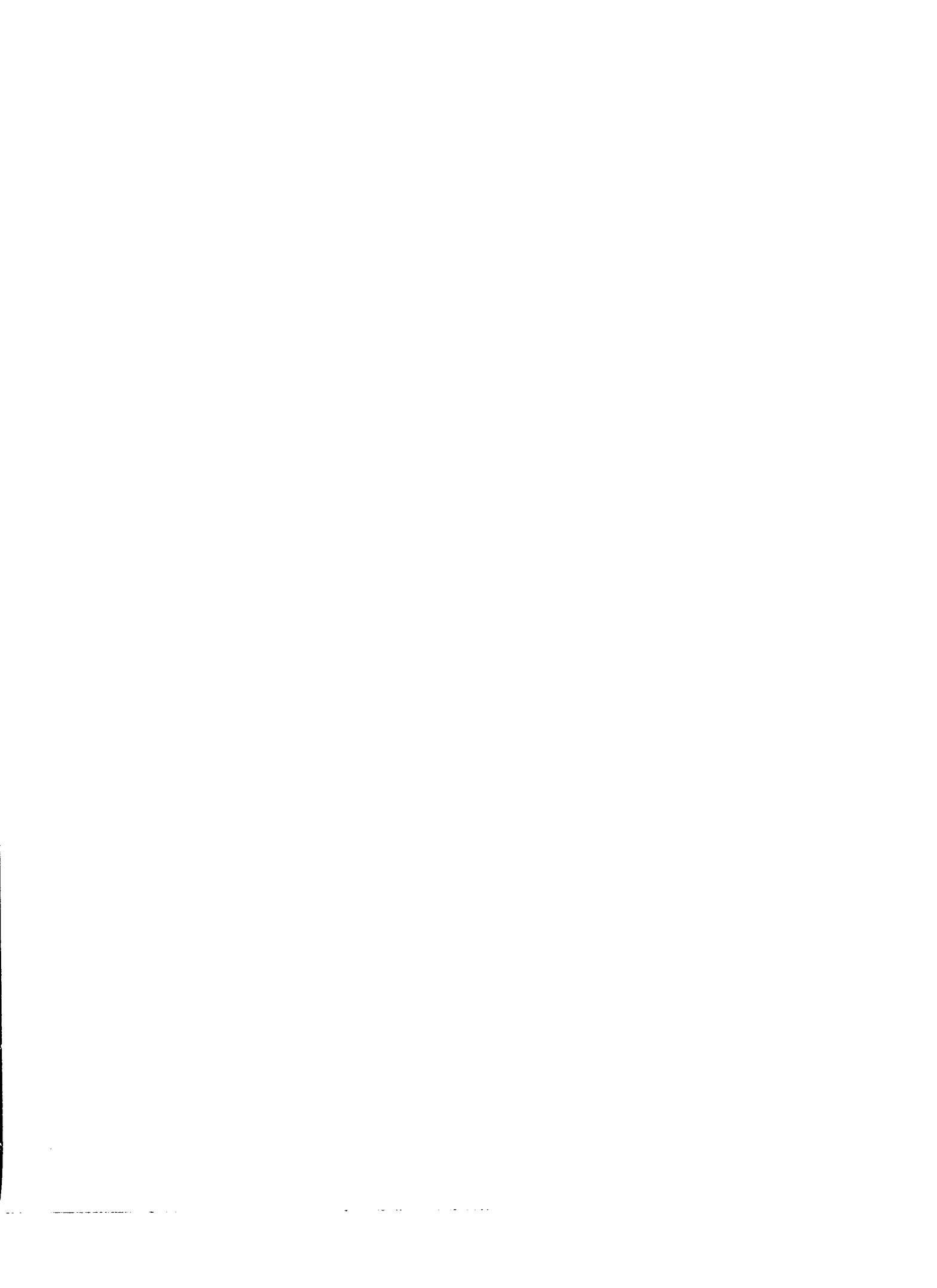
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**The relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction
among Saudi Airline employees in the Jeddah area of the
Kingdom of Saudi Arabia**

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Iowa State University, 1994

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The relationship between job satisfaction and
life satisfaction among Saudi Airline employees in the
Jeddah area of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

by

Abeid Abdullah A. Al-Amri

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CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION

Satisfaction is a concept that has attracted the attention of researchers since the early 1900s. General satisfaction has two major components: life and job satisfaction (Boardman, 1985). The researchers started to study the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction from the late 1950s (Brayfield and Wells, 1957).

There are three models which try to explain the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction: spillover model, compensatory model, and segmentation model. These models will be discussed in more detail in the literature review.

Because this study deals primarily with job-life satisfaction among airline employees in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, brief descriptions of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and its airline organization are in order.

Saudi Arabia is an Islamic Arab country covering 865,000 square miles. It borders the Red Sea to the west; Jordan, Iraq, and Kuwait to the north; the Arabian Gulf, Qatar, the United Arab Emirates, and Oman to the east; and Yemen to the south. The most recent national population census, conducted in 1974, indicated a population of 7,012,642, including resident aliens (Al-Khelaifi, 1984). In 1983, the Saudi government estimated the population at

approximately 10.6 million and the population growth rate at 2.9 percent (Nyrop, 1984).

His Majesty King Abdul Aziz Ibn Saud met with U.S. president Franklin D. Roosevelt, who presented a Douglas DC-3 as a gift to His Majesty in 1945. The King was quick to realize that great potential aviation holds for connecting the vastly separate regions of his kingdom and its commercial possibilities. The aircraft was used on ad hoc services carrying passengers and mail between Jeddah, Riyadh, and Dhahran. The number of airplanes has increased from three in 1945 to over 100 airplanes in 1993. Moreover, the number of airports has increased from 18 in 1975 to 23 in 1984, with three modern international airports in Riyadh, Jeddah, and Dhahran.

Finally, Table 1 indicates the total number of employees of Saudi Airline. It shows that 15,655 Saudi workers and 4,999 non-Saudi workers in Kingdom, and 3,236 non-Saudi workers out of Kingdom (Saudi Airline, 1994).

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study is to explore the importance of certain factors to job satisfaction, life satisfaction, and the relationship between the two for Saudi Airline workers and managers. The relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction has been studied extensively in western countries. However, little research

Table 1. Total of employees of Saudi Airline in 1993

	<u>In Kingdom</u>			<u>Out of Kingdom</u>		
	Saudi	Non Saudi	Total IK	Saudi	Non Saudi	Total OOK
Management	4365	1391	5756	56	422	478
Nonmanagement	9483	2635	12118	0	1327	1327
Flight crew	656	241	897	0	0	0
Cabin crew	1003	698	1701	0	1277	1277
Laborer	148	34	182	0	210	210
Total	15655	4999	20654	56	3236	3292

Source: Saudi Airline Organization.

has been done on the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction in the Middle East and not among workers in Saudi Arabia. Moreover, Saudi Arabia, like many other countries, is trying to improve working conditions for its people so that employee job-life satisfaction is becoming an important topic. Research, therefore, is needed to determine the factors promoting or inhibiting the job-life satisfaction relation.

Research on the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction among workers is potentially valuable from both theoretical and practical standpoints. Even though a great deal of research has been conducted on the

relationship between job-life satisfaction, there are few general statements that can be made about this relation. Thus, further research on the determinants of job-life satisfaction relationship would expand the existing body of knowledge.

Chacko (1983) indicated a need for studies examining the functional relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction and offered reasons why the relationship between the two should be studied. He concluded that from both theoretical and practical standpoints it is important to identify the direction of the relationship between job-life satisfaction, especially given the concern for improving the quality of life in the workplace. If work satisfaction affects nonwork attitudes, then programs such as job redesign that attempt to enhance job satisfaction will improve not only the quality of work life but also the overall quality of life of workers in general. On the other hand, if nonwork activities, experience, and satisfaction influence work satisfaction, then attempts at improving quality of work life through job redesign or other work innovations will be less meaningful. This also may suggest that nonwork satisfaction can be an important determinant of work withdrawal responses such as absenteeism and turnover (Chacko, 1983).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to determine:

1. the level of job satisfaction and that of life satisfaction among employees.
2. the relation between job satisfaction and life satisfaction.
3. the relation between life satisfaction and marital status, self-esteem, and religiosity.
4. the relation between job satisfaction and job characteristics--autonomy, skill variety, task identity, feedback from the job, and task significance.

CHAPTER II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The literature review will focus on research concerning job satisfaction, life satisfaction and the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction.

In the job satisfaction section I will focus on Maslow's theory of human needs, equity theory, expectancy theory, and Herzberg's two factors theory of job satisfaction. In the life satisfaction section I will focus on research concerning factors that determined and effected well-being and life satisfaction in general. Thus, findings relevant to the subgroups of age, gender, marital status, income, community type, social support, and religious commitment will be represented as appropriate to the study of satisfaction.

Finally, in the relationship between job satisfaction and life section I will present spillover, compensatory and segmentation theories.

Job Satisfaction

Maslow's theory

Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of human needs may be related to job satisfaction (Maslow, 1970, p. 3). This hierarchy consists of five levels:

1. self-actualization needs,
2. esteem needs,
3. social needs,
4. safety needs, and
5. physiological needs,

each of which will be described in some detail.

Commenting on the theory, Grady states that according to Maslow

. . . the organism's behavior is dominated by unsatisfied needs and its behavior organized only by unsatisfied needs. When one need is satisfied, the following prepotent need in the hierarchy surfaces and tends to command the individual's attention. Consequently, gratified needs are no longer considered active motivators of behavior since the individual has gone on to striving to fulfill the next unfulfilled need in the hierarchy (Grady, pp. 12-13).

It is important to describe these five levels of human needs as stated by Maslow:

1. Physiological needs

Physiological needs are at the bottom of the hierarchy and include the basic human needs of food, sleep, shelter, and clothing. They are the most compelling needs until satisfied.

2. Safety needs

When physiological needs are met or satisfied, the next type of need, i.e., safety needs, emerges. To be fulfilled, such needs require a secure environment: one

that is stable, free from fear, structured, regulated, and limited.

3. Social needs

If physiological needs and safety needs are fairly well satisfied, the social needs of belonging and love emerge. This category concerns the human desire to be accepted by peers and to develop friendships, in other words, to belong to groups and to "be with people with whom [one feels] accepted" (Hersey and Blanchard, pp. 30-43).

4. Self-esteem needs

Self-esteem needs are rarely satisfied and emerge only when basic needs are met. Self-esteem needs are either

- a. internal, such as the needs for self-confidence, independence, achievement, importance, competence, and knowledge; or
- b. external, such as the needs for status, recognition, and respect from others.

5. Self-actualization needs

The final level of the hierarchy refers to the desire for self-fulfillment, for realizing one's potential, for continued self-development, and for creativity. In Maslow's terminology, this is the desire to become.

According to Mumford (1973), then, Maslow's theory is dynamic in that humans are seen as inherently unfulfilled

beings constantly striving to fulfill needs in an ever-expanding needs system (p. 66).

Like the other levels, this level of the need hierarchy is instinctual, for such needs are universally felt.

Equity theory

As formulated by Adams (1963), this theory deals with the fairness of the exchange whereby a person gives something and gains something in return (Grady, 1984). Equity theory states that of ultimate concern is the "comparison of two ratios": inequity exists for a person whenever he perceives that the ratio of his outcomes to inputs and the ratio of the other's outcomes to inputs are unequal (Rosenberg and Turner, 1990, p. 88).

Adams (1963) identified alternative means by which a person can reduce employment inequity:

1. increase or decrease inputs;
2. increase or decrease outcomes;
3. avoid the job by resignation, transfer, or absenteeism;
4. psychologically distort inputs and outcomes;
5. distort inputs and outcomes of the referent or force the referent to leave the field; and

6. identify a new referent.¹

Lester (1983) reviewed related theories and provided a context in which to understand job satisfaction. She pointed out that according to Schaffer (1953) "fulfillment theory views job satisfaction as the degree to which a job provides the employee with outcomes that are valued by the employee." She also pointed out that according to Lock (1969) "discrepancy theory views job satisfaction as the difference between actual rewards and expected rewards." In contrast, job satisfaction is viewed by equity theory as "the ratio between what the employee puts into the job and what he/she receives from it" (p.9).

Expectancy theory

In his study of work and motivation, Vroom (1964) formulated what has come to be known as expectancy theory. He proposed that individual job performance will improve if the individual can reach a personal target. Vroom thus defined motivation as a response by individual needs to a specific target sought. The concepts of valence, expectancy, and instrumentality are fundamental to Vroom's theory, as can be seen in this excerpt from his work:

¹Pritchard (1969) suggests that feelings of inequity may arise from disparity one feels about one's own inputs and outcomes without comparing oneself with a reference source. In such an instance, the individual compares herself with herself (Grady, 1984, p. 25).

We can specify the expected functional relationship between the valence of outcomes and their expected consequences in the following propositions.

Proposition 1. The valence of an outcome to a person is a monotonically increasing function of the algebraic sum of the products of the valences of all other outcomes and his conceptions of its instrumentality for the attainment of these other outcomes.

Proposition 2. The force of a person to perform an act is a monotonically increasing function of the algebraic sum of the products of the valences of all outcomes and the strength of his expectancies that the act will be followed by the attainment of these outcomes (pp. 16-18).

According to Miskel (1982), Vroom defines valence as "the perceived positive or negative worth or attractiveness of potential outcomes, rewards or incentives for working in an organization"; expectancy as "the subjective probability that a given effort will yield a specified performance level"; and Instrumentality as "the perceived probability that an incentive with a valence will be forthcoming after a given level of performance or achievement" (p. 73).

One of the most interesting implications of Vroom's work is that job satisfaction results from the operation of situational as well as personality variables. Moreover, only by means of simultaneous study of these variables may the true nature of their relation be revealed.

Herzberg's theory

One of the most discussed theories of job satisfaction was developed by Frederick Herzberg (1966), who identified factors related to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among 200 accountants and engineers in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. He found that job dissatisfaction is related to job environment but that job satisfaction is related to work itself. He characterized the first category as hygienes, or extrinsic factors, and the second category as motivators, or intrinsic factors. The former involve salary, organizational policies, supervision, physical working conditions, relationships, status, and job security. The latter involve achievement, recognition, work itself, advancement, and responsibility. In other words, motivators could produce job satisfaction, whereas hygienes could produce job dissatisfaction.

According to Herzberg (1959), "The factors that lead to positive job attitudes do so because they satisfy the individual's need for self-actualization in his work."

Man tends to actualize himself in every area of his life, and his job is one of the most important areas. The conditions that surround the doing of the job cannot give him the basic satisfaction, they do not have this potentiality. It is only from the performance of a task that the individual can get the rewards that will reinforce his aspirations. It is clear that although the factors defining the job context serve as goals for the employee, the nature of the motivating qualities of the two kinds of factors are essentially different. Factors in

the job context meet the needs of the individual for avoiding unpleasant situations. In contrast to this motivation by meeting avoidance needs, the job factors reward the needs of the individual to reach his aspirations. These effects on the individual can be conceptualized as actuating approach rather than avoidance behavior. Since it is in the approach sense that the term motivation is commonly used, we designate the job factors as the motivators as opposed to the extra job factors which we have labeled the factors of hygiene (Herzberg, 1959, p. 14).

Numerous studies testing Herzberg's two-factor theory of job satisfaction and motivation were reviewed by Hous and Wigdor (1976). They reported that "achievement is seen by most respondents more of a dissatisfier than relations with supervisors or working conditions." They also reported that "recognition is more of a dissatisfier than both working conditions and relations with superiors" (p. 363).

Testing Herzberg's theory, Sergiovanni (1967) conducted a study of 71 teachers in Monroe County, New York. He found that Herzberg's satisfiers and motivators were exclusive of each other; moreover, he confirmed that motivators promoted positive feelings about job satisfaction (pp. 67-82).

In his 1980 study of job satisfaction determinants among faculty and administrators, Openshaw reported that although "studies in education tended to support the Herzberg theory regardless of methodology employed,

. . . studies outside the field of education consistently supported the Herzberg theory only when the critical incident method was employed.

When the studies were stratified by education level, only studies in elementary or secondary education which utilized the Herzberg methodology consistently supported the Herzberg theory. Studies in higher education which used the critical incident technique resulted in equivocal findings vis-a-vis the Herzberg theory. No significant differences were found in the outcomes of studies in elementary or secondary education compared to studies in higher education when a methodology other than critical incident technique was used (1980, p. 42-43).

Studies on the relation between personal and nonpersonal characteristics and job satisfaction In this subsection, the researcher will discuss the factors influencing job satisfaction. The literature indicates that many variables are related to job satisfaction and these factors can be classified according to two categories: personal characteristics and nonpersonal characteristics.

Several researchers have found that certain personal characteristics are related to job satisfaction: age (Sheppard and Herrick, 1973; Weaver, 1980; Herzberg et al., 1957); gender (Semapakdi, 1987; Al-Duaij, 1986; Weaver, 1980; Sciacca, 1987); experience in job (Al-Duaij, 1986; Wisniewski, 1990; Al-Megil, 1988); level of education (Hoagland, 1968; Sempakdi, 1987; Vollmer and Kinney, 1955); marital status (Anschutz, 1987; Al Dossary, 1993; Al-Amri,

1992); nationality (Al-Amri, 1992; Al-Dossary, 1993; Al-Duaij, 1986).

By using the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, Al-Megil (1988) studied job satisfaction and job performance among officers at King Fahad Security College in Saudi Arabia. He reported that several personal characteristics (age, marital status, experience, educational level) had significant influences on job satisfaction.

In 1980, Fraser studied administrator and teacher satisfaction in Montana. He found that teacher attitudes were related to personal factors and recommended that administrators learn which teacher attitudes were related to job satisfaction.

Not only do personal characteristics effect job satisfaction, but also there are other factors which influence job satisfaction. In the past decade a great deal of research has been conducted in an attempt to clarify these factors that effect job satisfaction: organizational characteristics such as size, location and so on (Wu, 1984; Cole, 1977); organizational commitment (Curry et al., 1986; William and Anderson, 1990); organizational climate (Ghonaim, 1986; Pritchard and Karasick, 1973; Chitton, 1990); job commitment (Farrell and Rushult, 1981; Morrow, 1993); occupational level (Starcench, 1972); type of organization public vs. private

(Cacioppe and Mock, 1984; Cherniss and Kan, 1987; Smith and Nock, 1980; Al-Hajri, 1990); job content and context factors (Armstrong, 1971); motivator and hygiene factors (Halpern, 1966); and intrinsic and extrinsic job motivation (Centers and Bugental, 1966; Godshall, 1988).

Herzberg (1966) classified the motivational factors related to the content of the job, e.g., "achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement" (pp. 72-73). Hygiene factors related to the context of the job, e.g., "company policy and administration, supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relations and salary" (p. 74). Lock (1976) classified job satisfaction studies according to emphases: physical working conditions; human relations at work; and work itself, that is, pay, opportunity for promotion, recognition, company, supervision, coworkers, benefits, management, and working conditions.

By using the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), Godshall (1988) studied job satisfaction of New York state school business officials. He found that respondents linked greater job satisfaction to the intrinsic elements (activity, variety, ability, utilization, and security) rather than to the extrinsic elements (compensation, advancement, authority, and district policies). In 1988, Al-Megil found that job satisfaction decreased

significantly as respondents' tasks and duties became less challenging and motivating.

In their study of job satisfaction, work incentives and disincentives, and leadership style, Bordieri, Reagle, and Coker (1988) studied 163 workers in vocational rehabilitation facilities. These researchers found that the motivating factors of achievement, responsibility, and work itself were related to job satisfaction significantly more than were other factors. The motivating factors were thus labeled job incentives. In contrast, facility support for training, advancement, and salary had relatively low ratings and were thus designated job disincentives. Bordieri, Reagle and Coker also explored differences in job satisfaction and leadership type as a function of the duties and the responsibilities of workers (p. 149).

In his study of job satisfaction among Saudi government employees, Al-Adaily (1981) found that employees were satisfied with the responsibility, supervisory techniques and working conditions. However, the employees were less satisfied with salary, organizational policies, security, and time demands and requirements of the job. Al-Hajri (1990) found that the private sector employees in Saudi Arabia were less satisfied with the supervisory technique than their counterparts in the public sector.

Life Satisfaction

The "quality of life" is a vague and ethereal entity, something that many people talk about, but which nobody knows very clearly what to do about (Campbell et al., 1976, p. 471). According to Andrews (1986),

The quality of life is central in the work of many professionals: social indicator researchers, sociologists, psychologists, psychiatrists, anthropologists, economists, gerontologists, political scientists, politicians, lawyers, philosophers, and many others. The terms used to invoke notions of life quality differ depending on one's profession, but include "well-being," "ill-being," "happiness," "dissatisfaction," "mental health," "adaptive functioning," "moral," "physical and mental anguish," "pain and suffering," and "affect balance." These terms are not all comparable, but each has important links to life quality, and nobody has yet succeeded in dividing up the conceptual territory in an elegant, uncontested way (p. ix).

There are three classifications of the quality of life measurement: (1) global evaluation of life, (2) reports of overall satisfaction with more specific domain of life, and (3) assessments of more concrete facets of these domains of life (Campbell et al., 1976).

According to Morris and Winter (1978), the measurement of satisfaction can be based on two levels.

Satisfaction with the global preferred state (overall life satisfaction) can be assessed either directly or by a summation or other weighted combination of satisfactions with the various partial preferred states. Within the global level and each partial level, well-being can be assessed either objectively or subjectively. Objective measurements are in

terms of the actual levels of well-being achieved. Satisfaction with the level achieved is the subjective measurement. Both are equally important for it is the subjective reaction to the achieved states that serve as motivation to improve well-being (p. 153).

It is very important to clarify the distinction between happiness and satisfaction. According to Campbell (1981), happiness is more susceptible to one's mood which varies from day to day, whereas satisfaction tends to be a more stable assessment of quality of experience over time. He concluded that while reports of life satisfaction had remained very consistent from the 1950s to the early 1970s, but the level of happiness had declined. Boardman (1985) concluded the most common and reliable measurement of life satisfaction was a one-item global question regarding, on the whole, how satisfied the individual is with life in general. (For examples see Medly, 1976; and Hadaway and Roof, 1978).

In the past decade a tremendous amount of research has been conducted in an attempt to clarify the variables or factors that affect life satisfaction. In their project, *The Quality of American Life*, Campbell, Converse and Rodgers (1976) studied 2,164 persons in the United States. They ended up with 18 variables or factors that affect life satisfaction and the quality of life in general: (1) marriage, (2) family life, (3) health, (4) neighborhood, (5) friendship, (6) housework for women only, (7) job, (8)

life in the United States, (9) city or county, (10) nonwork time, (11) housing, (12) usefulness of education, (13) standard of living, (14) amount of education, and (15) savings, (16) religion, (17) national government, and (18) membership in organizations.

In their study of social indicators of well-being, Andrews and Whitney (1976) identified 16 major factors. These were (1) the nation, (2) the national government, (3) the local government, (4) one's economic situation, (5) the community, (6) services and facilities, (7) education, (8) the job, (9) neighborhood, (10) friends and associates, (11) home or living residence, (12) leisure, (13) family, (14) self, (15) interpersonal relations, and (16) seasonal changes. They concluded that these are major factors or variables of life domains.

Boardman (1985) cited 10 domains of life including (1) community, (2) dwelling, (3) life in the United States, (4) health, (5) work, (6) spare time, (7) friendships, (8) marriage, (9) family life, and (10) standard of living. According to him, family life was cited as the most important determinant of life satisfaction and the best predictor of life satisfaction for participants.

One of the most consistent findings on research about factors that are used as predictors of aspects of life satisfaction or psychological well-being in general are:

education (Glenn and Weaver, 1981); social class/
socioeconomic status (Haring, Stoke and Okun, 1984; Larson,
1978); race (Campbell, 1981; Campbell, Converse and
Rodgers, 1976; Mookherjee, 1987); marital status (Gove,
Hughes and Style, 1983; Mookherjee, 1987; Bell, 1983;
Campbell et al., 1976); gender (Haring, Stock and Okun,
1984; Hickson, Hously and Boyle, 1988); social support
(Rice, 1989; Williams, Ware and Donald, 1981; McFarlan et
al., 1983; Cohen and Wills, 1985); religious commitment
(Ellison, Gay, and Glass, 1989; Ellison and Gay, 1990;
Campbell, Converse, and Rodgers, 1976; Reed, 1991; Moberg,
1972); and community type rural vs. urban residence (Liang
and Warfel, 1983).

Studies on the general population of the United States
have shown that other variables such as income, education,
age, social participation, and health can have a strong
impact on subjective well-being (Ball, 1984, p. 401).

In his study of perception of life satisfaction in the
United States, Mookherjee (1987) reported that overall life
satisfaction increased with age and education. He
indicated that race, marital status, and education
influenced perceptions of life satisfaction significantly.
White, married, and better educated persons were more
satisfied with their lives than the black, unmarried, and
less well educated. However, among the better educated

respondents, younger persons were remarkably more dissatisfied than the older persons.

Hickson, Housley and Boyle (1988) examined Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control concept in relation to life satisfaction and death anxiety in an aged population. Their findings suggested that there is a relationship between gender and both life satisfaction and death anxiety. Females had lower life satisfaction and higher death anxiety.

One of the most consistent findings about the overall or solely the white population of the United States is that married people living with their spouses report the highest levels of subjective well-being. Widowed and single people report intermediate level, while separated and divorced persons indicate the lowest level of happiness or life satisfaction (Ball, 1983, p. 401).

Ball (1983) examined the relationship between marital status, household structure, and life satisfaction in a probability sample of 373 black women. He found that married, widowed, and divorced women had the highest life satisfaction. Single and separated women were less satisfied.

In order to study the effect of marriage on black men and black women, Zollar and Williams (1987) examined pooled data from national surveys conducted between 1972 and 1984.

They found that married black persons, regardless of gender, tend to be happier than unmarried black persons. They concluded that the data show that among married black persons, men do tend to report greater marital happiness than women.

Studies of social support among adults have found that both the quantity and the quality of social contacts and social network have positive effects on life satisfaction (Williams, Ware and Donald, 1981; McFarlan et al., 1983; Cohen and Will, 1985).

Rice (1989) studied the relationship between life satisfaction and social support for a group of women who were single (never-married and widowed), elderly (over 65), and childless. She found that never-married and widowed women significantly differed in their life satisfaction scores; never-married women had higher life satisfaction scores. Finally, she concluded that social support affected life satisfaction.

Cockrum and White (1985) reported the factors related to the quality and quantity of human relations were important to the life satisfaction of the single adults. They also said that good health, friends, and opportunities for personal growth were reported as important for happiness of unmarried in a study by Cargan and Melko in 1982.

In their study of socio-cognitive skills as a determinant of life satisfaction in aged persons, Gray, Ventis and Hayslip (1992) gathered data from 60 community-living aged individuals. They indicated several variables (e.g., subjective/objective health, education, financial satisfaction, role participation, and subjective integration) significantly correlated with life satisfaction.

Community type rural versus urban residence is another factor which affects life satisfaction. Liang and Warfel (1983) examined urban-rural differences in the causal mechanism by which life satisfaction is determined. They reported that urbanism has indirect main effects as well as interaction effects on life satisfaction.

In addition to demographic factors such as income, marital status, gender, age, and education, religious commitment has a strong effect on life satisfaction.

In their project on quality of American life, Campbell, Converse and Rodgers (1976) have found that there is a negative relationship between religion and psychological or subjective well-being among black population. However, Ellison, Gay and Glass (1989) suggested that religion may contribute to subjective well-being in at least three ways: (1) as a source of ideational coherence and meaning, (2) as a force social

cohesion, and (3) as the basis of distinctive religious subcultures within black population (p. 124).

In a review of the role of religion, Roberts (1990) underscores its importance in providing meaning and understanding for the individual. If religion does offer meaning and understanding, it should enhance the individual's subjective sense of well-being (Reed, 1991, p. 205).

Reed (1991) studied the strength of religious affiliation and life satisfaction. He concluded that persons with strong religious affiliations are happier and more satisfied than persons with weak ones. He cited that Moberg (1972) found that religious activity is positively related to life satisfaction and morale.

Teachers in Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, and Nebraska were surveyed by Boardman (1985) concerning significant aspects of their nonwork life and work life. The data were analyzed for 830 respondents by the variables of age, gender, marital status, teaching assignment, and income. He concluded that the highest level of life satisfaction was reported for moral standards and beliefs, health, and family life. Moreover, the significant difference in the mean level of life satisfaction was found for the variables of age, marital status, and teaching assignment.

One of the most interesting studies in the Middle East was done by Shebani, Wass and Guertin (1986). They studied 215 Libyans, 106 young males and females and 109 aged males and female relatives. They predicted that current culture and social changes associated with the industrialization of Libya would result in significant differences in responses between young and old men and women. They found that young Libyan men rated close ties with their children, social relationships with individuals outside the family, and having basic physical needs met as more important than did the old Libyan men who considered social prestige, living with spouse, and independence as more important for satisfaction in old age. Moreover, the young Libyan women also consider social relationships outside the family and having basic physical needs met in old age as more important than did their older counterparts. In addition, health and adequate living conditions were rated more highly by the young Libyan women than the old.

Finally, all participants rated social prestige equally high, but the old women rated it higher than any other aspect except belief in God and self-understanding.

The Relationship Between Job Satisfaction and Life Satisfaction

There are three models in literature which try to explain the relationship between job satisfaction and life

satisfaction: (a) the spillover model, (b) the compensatory model, and (c) the segmentation model (Kresh, 1982; Schmitt and Bedeian, 1982; Schmitt and Mellon, 1980; Staines, 1980; Loscocco and Roschelle, 1991).

The first model predicts that there is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. It suggests that satisfaction with one domain of an individual's life would spillover into the other. This model suggests that the causal influence would be either from job satisfaction to life satisfaction or from life satisfaction to job satisfaction, but not both simultaneously (Schmitt and Bedeian, 1982; Schmitt and Mellon, 1980; Kresh, 1982).

In contrast, the second model predicts a negative relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. A person with a boring job would seek out an interesting nonwork life to compensate. Also, an individual with boring life activities would seek out challenge and fulfillment through his job (Schmitt and Bedeian, 1982; Schmitt and Mellon, 1980; Kresh, 1982).

Finally, the third model argues that there is zero correlation between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. That is, people try to segment or compartmentalize their life into work and nonwork activities with no relationship or interdependence between the two activities (Schmitt and

Bedeian, 1982; Kresh, 1982). In the next section I will review the literature that supports these models.

In their study of interrelationship among measures of job satisfaction and general satisfaction, Brayfield and Wells (1957) used two different measurement approaches to discover the relationship between the attitude toward the job and the attitude toward life in general among city government office employees. The subjects were 41 males and 52 females. The data supported the spillover model. However, job satisfaction and general satisfaction were positively and significantly related among the males but no significant relationships were obtained among the females.

Kornhauser (1965) reported that job satisfaction positively correlated to life satisfaction ($r = .58$), family satisfaction ($r = .34$), community satisfaction ($r = .32$), and leisure ($r = .26$). Therefore, he concluded that the spillover model was supported.

Bamundo (1977) conducted an empirical test of three models on national sample of 911 workers. In this study he reviewed 17 studies that tested the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. Eleven of these studies supported the spillover model; two studies tended to support the compensatory model; two studies supported the segmentation model; and two studies reported moderating effects between job satisfaction and life satisfaction.

Finally, he reported that there was a positive relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. A stronger correlation was found among men ($r = .40$) than among women ($r = .29$).

Rosseau (1979) studied the relationship between work and nonwork among 139 employees from an electronics firm and a broadcasting company. The data suggested that there was support for the spillover rather than the compensatory model regarding the relationship between work and nonwork. He argued that the spillover model appeared to be more strongly supported than the compensatory model. According to him, this support came from studies in diverse occupations such as logging, manufacturing, and professional work.

Staines (1980) reviewed the literature on the relationship between work and nonwork. He found that all the three models were supported. However, the most frequently supported model was the spillover model.

Most of the studies on the spillover model predict that job satisfaction affects nonwork satisfaction. Unfortunately, much of the early results and evidence come from proportional and correlational analysis which cannot address adequately the issue of causality (Loscocco and Roschelle, 1991, p. 202). Therefore, most of the recent studies try to address the causality issues in the

relationship between job-life satisfaction. For example, Schmitt and Mellon (1982) studied the nature of the causal relationship between job and life satisfaction. Their study results suggest that life satisfaction leads to (causes) job satisfaction but not vice versa.

Rice, Near, and Hunt (1980) reviewed an empirical research that relates satisfaction with work to satisfaction with life. Their study covers more than 350 job satisfaction-life satisfaction relationships reported in 23 studies. They concluded that for more than 90% of the cases, the direction of this relationship was positive. Finally, they suggested that job satisfaction was more strongly related to life satisfaction for males than for females.

Schmitt and Bedeian (1982) investigated the nature of the relationship between life satisfaction and job satisfaction by using both two-stage least squares and the analysis of linear structural equations by LISREL. They suggested the possibility of reciprocal relationship (causation) between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. Finally, they concluded that their results supported the spillover model. Thus they suggested that additional empirical work is needed.

Near and Smith (1983) examined the relationship between job and nonwork satisfaction as components of life

satisfaction. They found that there was a fairly substantial correlation between job satisfaction and nonwork satisfaction and that indicates a generalized or spillover effect consistent with earlier findings.

Tait, Padgett and Baldwin (1989) reviewed published literature in many different disciplines (e.g., management, industrial psychology, sociology, leisure, and vocational behavior). A total of 57 relationships were derived from the 34 studies in the review of the literature. They found that the best estimate of the population correlation between job and life satisfaction was .44. Therefore, they concluded that there was a strong positive relationship and concur with other researchers that work should not be studied in isolation from extra-work concerns. Moreover, they found that the relationship was much stronger for men than for women in studies conducted prior to 1974; but when only the more recent researches were examined, the gender difference disappeared. Finally, they suggested that job and life satisfaction are significantly related to one another. It is also clear that there is much that is still unknown. They suggested that the direction of causality between job and life satisfaction needs to be explored as should be the possibility that some third variable may be affecting both.

The conceptual model tested in this study is developed by Schmitt and Bedeian in 1982. This is represented in Figure 1. This model indicates that life satisfaction is determined by marital status, self-esteem, and the locus of control and by job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is hypothesized to be the result of the job characteristic variable (Hackman and Oldham, 1976): autonomy, skill variety, feedback from the job, task identity, and task significance and life satisfaction.

Since this model will be applied in different culture other than the original one, the researcher believes that the religious factor is a more important determinant of life satisfaction than the locus of control in a country such as Saudi Arabia which is characterized as a very religious country. Therefore, the revised model in this study is represented in Figure 2. This model indicates that life satisfaction is determined by marital status, self-esteem and religiosity as well as by job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is hypothesized to be the result of the job characteristic factors such as autonomy, skill variety, feedback from the job, task identity, and task significance and life satisfaction.

The spillover hypothesis will be supported when we have positive relationship between life and job satisfaction in either direction or on both directions.

The compensation hypothesis will be supported when we have negative correlation between job-life satisfaction, and segmentation hypothesis will be supported when we have null or zero correlation between life-job satisfaction.

The determinants of job satisfaction

Hackman and Oldham's Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) is the most influential specification of the core dimension of the job (Loscocco and Roschelle, 1991). Hackman and Oldham (1975) have designed the Job Diagnostic Survey Instrument to assess the degree to which particular jobs possess the conceptually independent task characteristics of skill variety, task identity (the degree to which the job requires completion of a whole piece of work), task significance, autonomy, and feedback from job (Loscocco and Roschelle, 1991; Katz, 1978).

The first three components contribute to the meaningfulness of the work, autonomy taps responsibility for work outcomes, and feedback reflects knowledge about the results of job activities (Loscocco and Roschelle, 1991).

Previous studies' results suggest that, in general, these job characteristics, especially autonomy and skill variety, correlate strongly with overall job satisfaction (Katz, 1978). Therefore, as a job provides intrinsic rewards such as autonomy, challenge, meaning, variety,

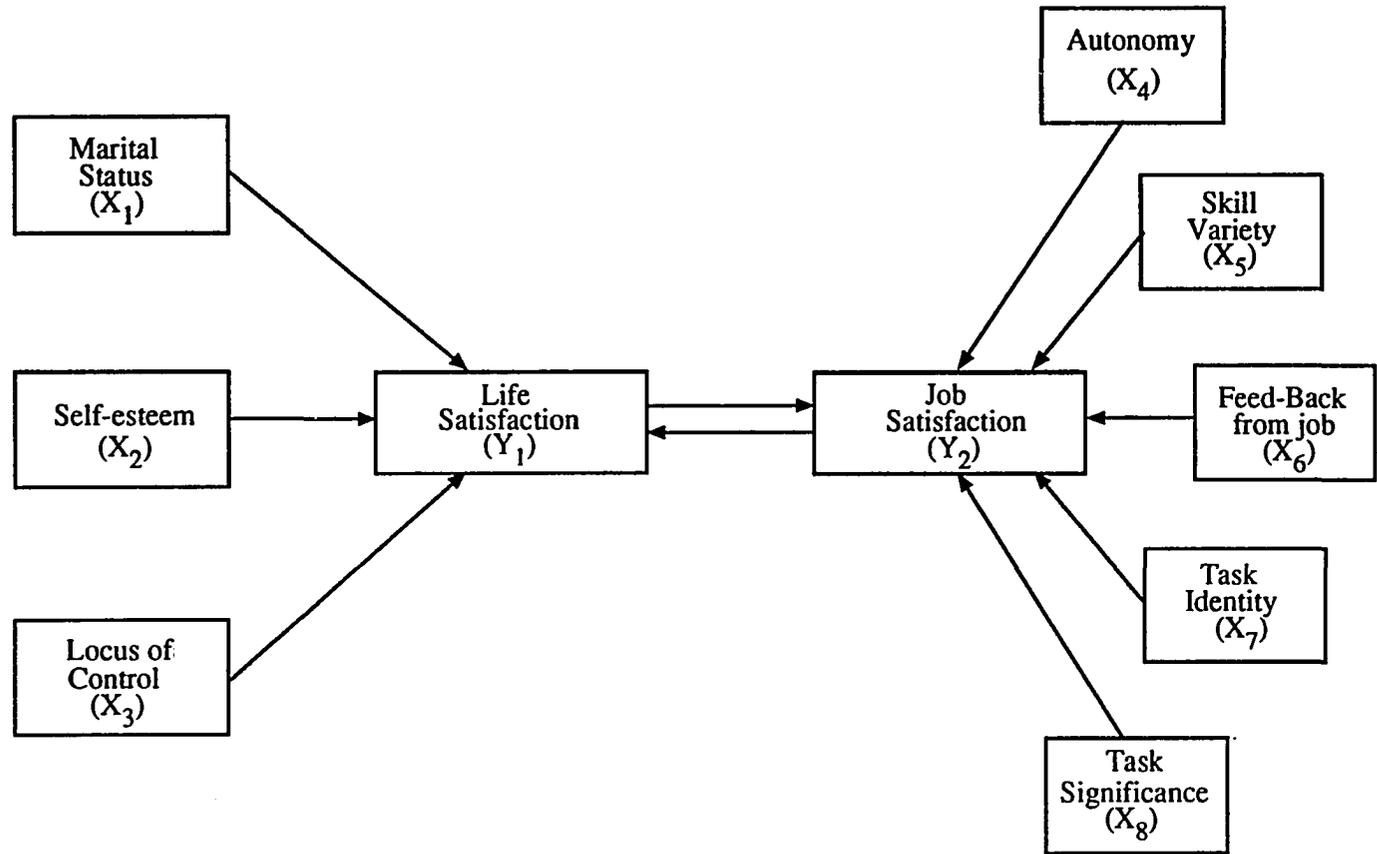


Figure 1. Structural model of the determinants of job and life satisfaction (Schmitt and Bedeian's model)

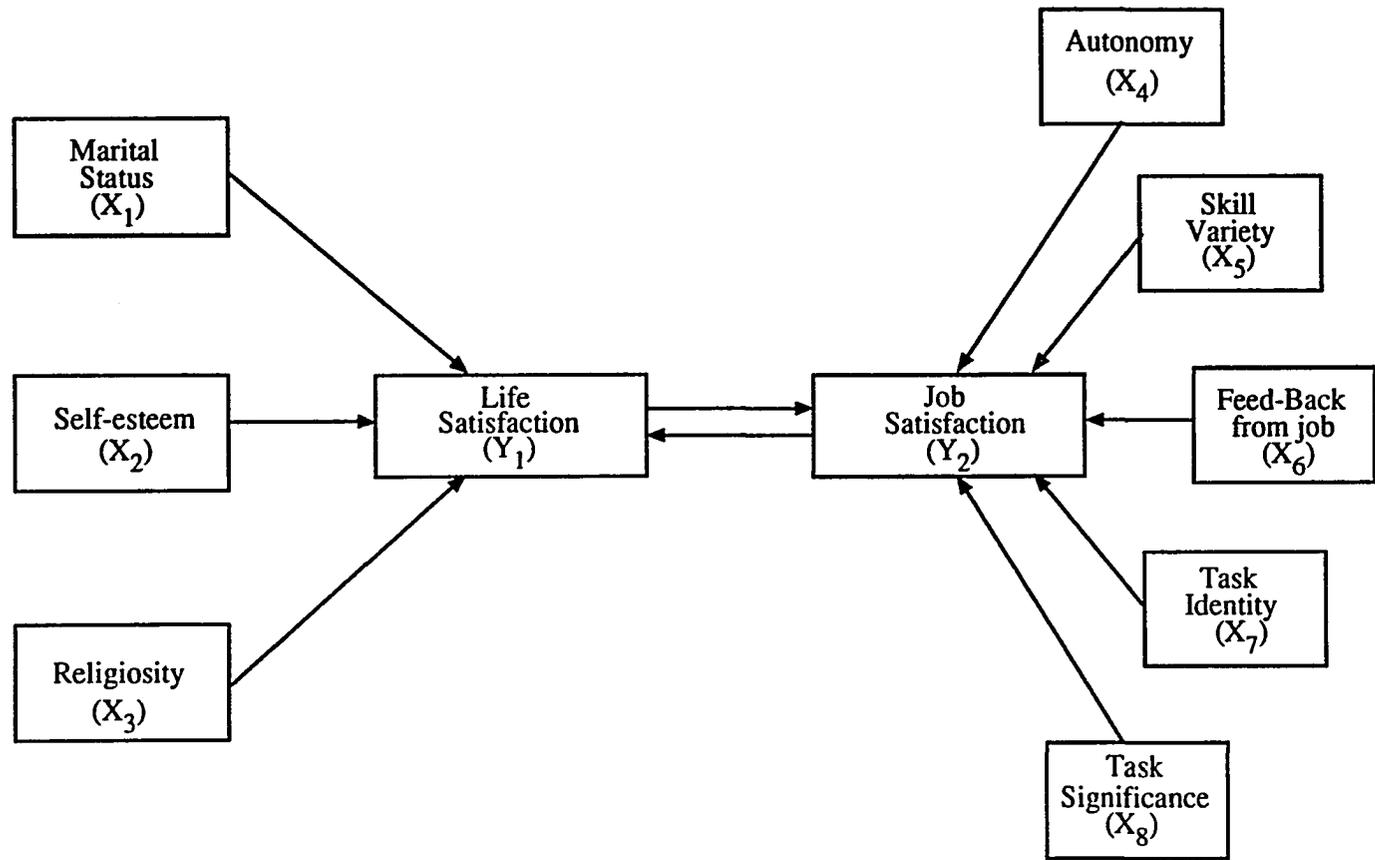


Figure 2. Structural model of the determinants of job and life satisfaction (the revised model)

importance, and complexity, it will be more satisfying to the job incumbents (Hackman and Oldham, 1975; Katz, 1978; Kalleberg, 1977; Schmitt and Bedeian, 1982; Gerhart, 1987; Glisson and Durick, 1988; Loscocco and Roschelle, 1991).

Katz (1978) examined the relationships between overall job satisfaction and the five task dimensions of skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback from job for employees at different stages of their jobs, as measured by their length of employment on their current jobs, as well as in their current organization. He concluded that the correlation between job satisfaction and each of the task dimensions depends on both the job longevity and organizational longevity.

Hackman and Oldham (1975) assumed that the causal flow is unidirectional, where job perceptions affect job satisfaction. However, James and Jones (1980) examined the relationship between job satisfaction and job characteristics. They argued that job satisfaction and job perceptions are directly, as well as reciprocally, related to each other. Therefore, the model presented in Figure 2 indicates that as a job is perceived more autonomous, challenging, and important, it will also be more satisfying (Schmitt and Bedeian, 1982).

The determinants of life satisfaction

1. Marital status

Ball and Robbins (1986) studied the relationship between marital status and life satisfaction among black Americans. The study consists of 373 black women and 253 black men. They concluded that the married, widowed, and divorced women are more satisfied with their lives than are the separated or single women. On the other hand, the married men are the least satisfied persons of any category.

Marital status has been most frequently correlated with life satisfaction (Schmitt and Bedeian, 1982; Rice, et al., (1980). Most studies report that being married is usually related to higher levels of life satisfaction (Campbell, Converse, and Rodgers, 1976; Glenn and Weaver, 1979; Gove, Hughes, and Style, 1983).

In his book, The Sense of Well-Being in America, Campbell (1981) identified marital status as an important factor in life satisfaction. He reported that a successful marriage appears to enhance the quality of individual's lives.

2. Self-esteem

Tharenou and Harker (1982) studied the relationship between the organizational variables of job complexity, job level, job satisfaction, and job performance, and employee

global self-esteem and sense of task competence in a multivariate study. The sample consisted of 116 male electrical apprentices. They concluded that global self-esteem and sense of competence could be predicted by the four variables, with job level most associated with global self-esteem, and job satisfaction and complexity most associated with competence. They concluded that the nonorganizational variables of defensiveness, age, and urbanicity were most associated with global self-esteem.

Tharenou (1979) has suggested that self-esteem might more appropriately be treated as an independent variable than as an outcome of work. Therefore, Schmitt and Bedeian (1982) argued that it seemed reasonable that persons who viewed themselves in a positive way would be happy with their current life status and that persons of low self-esteem would be dissatisfied. Their argument was supported by their data.

3. Religiosity

Most studies suggest that there is a positive relationship between religiosity and life satisfaction (Hadaway, 1978). In their study on the church and the old persons, Gray and Moberg (1977) reported that religious behavior and beliefs were causal factors that contribute to life satisfaction among older people.

Hunsberger (1985) studied eighty-five persons to determine the relationship between religiosity and life satisfaction. He concluded that there was an evidence of a positive relationship between religiosity and life satisfaction.

Hadaway (1980) reexamined the findings of Campbell et al. in The Quality of American Life, suggesting that religious people tend to be somewhat less satisfied with their lives than the nonreligious people. By using the same data source and variables, he showed that the interpretation of Campbell et al. is in error and that, to the contrary, religion functions more as a resource of life satisfaction than a compensation.

Gee and Veevers (1990) examined the relationship between religious involvement and self-reported satisfaction with life in general in Canada. The sample consisted of 6,621 persons aged 25-59 surveyed in 1985 in the first Canadian General Social Survey. He concluded that there is a positive correlation between religious involvement and satisfaction for both men and women.

Hypotheses

Based on the literature review, the following hypotheses were formulated and will be tested in this study:

1. There is a positive relationship between religiosity and life satisfaction.
2. There is a positive relationship between self-esteem and life satisfaction.
3. Married employees are more satisfied in their lives than other employees.
4. There is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and autonomy in the job.
5. There is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and the extent of skill variety in the job.
6. There is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and the extent of feedback from the job.
7. There is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and the extent of task identity in the job.
8. There is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and task significance in the job.
9. There is a reciprocal positive relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction.

CHAPTER III. METHODOLOGY

Population and Sample

The target population for this study was all Saudi Airline employees in Jeddah during 1994. The study was approved by the Iowa State University Human Subjects Committee. The sample was selected by means of simple random sampling (Sproull, 1988); 550 employees were randomly selected.

On January 20, 1994, the public relations department and the researcher distributed the questionnaires among the sample. After four weeks, the public relations department collected the completed questionnaires and gave them to the researcher. The returned questionnaires were 372. Of these questionnaires, 359 were usable.

Operational Measurement

Job satisfaction

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) In 1963 the University of Minnesota developed its satisfaction questionnaire according to Work Adjustment Theory. This theory holds that job satisfaction is a function of individual vocational needs and of work environment reinforcement (Weiss et al., 1967).

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) consists of three scales: a general job satisfaction

scale, an intrinsic job satisfaction scale, and an extrinsic job satisfaction scale.

This study used the short form of the MSQ, whose twenty items are listed:

1. Ability utilization. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.
2. Achievement. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.
3. Activity. Being able to keep busy all the time.
4. Advancement. The chances for advancement on this job.
5. Authority. The chance to tell other people what to do.
6. Company policy and practices. The way the company policies are put into practice.
7. Compensation. My pay and the amount of work I do.
8. Co-workers. The way co-workers get along with each other.
9. Creativity. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.
10. Independence. The chance to work alone on the job.
11. Moral values. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience.
12. Recognition. The praise I get for doing a good job.
13. Responsibility. The freedom to use my own judgement.
14. Security. The way my job provides for steady employment.
15. Social service. The chance to do things for other people.

16. Social status. The chance to be "somebody" in the community.
17. Supervision--human relations. The way my boss handles his employees.
18. Supervision--technical. The competency of my supervisor in making decisions.
19. Variety. The chance to do different things from time to time.
20. Working conditions (Weiss, pp. 1-2).

Each item or statement requires that the respondent indicate satisfaction with a work reinforcer by means of a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = very dissatisfied to 7 = very satisfied. Items concerning the intrinsic scale are 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 15, 16, and 20; items concerning the extrinsic scale are 5, 6, 12, 13, 14, and 19. (Item 17 and item 18 were not included in the above scales.) A general satisfaction score was obtained by summing responses to all twenty items.

Weiss et al. (1967) reported that "since the short form of MSQ is based on a subset of the long form items, validity for the short form may in part be inferred from validity of the long form" (p. 24). Reliability coefficients for general job satisfaction range from .87 to .92.

By using Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, Al-Amri (1992) studied job satisfaction among teachers. He reported that the reliability coefficients (Cronbach's

alphas) of his sample were .81 for the intrinsic scale, .73 for the extrinsic scale, and .88 for the general job satisfaction scale. The reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alphas) of the present sample were .88 for the intrinsic scale, .81 for the extrinsic scale, and .93 for the general job satisfaction scale. The study also used an alternative job satisfaction measure recently developed by Charles Mueller (1991), which asks employees to respond to a number of statements:

I find enjoyment in my job.

Most days, I am enthusiastic about my job.

I am often bored with my job.

I feel dissatisfied with my job.

Each statement requires the respondent to indicate opinions about the job by means of a seven-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 7 = strongly agree). Job satisfaction score was obtained by summing responses to all four items. The reliability coefficient was .78 (Al-Amri, 1992).

Life satisfaction

The Gurin, Veroff, and Feld (1960) scale will be used in this study to measure general life satisfaction. Respondents were asked to indicate their satisfaction or dissatisfaction on three five-point Likert format items:

1. I generally feel in good spirits.

2. I am very satisfied with life.

3. I find a good deal of happiness in life.

In addition, life satisfaction was indexed by questions concerning satisfaction with community, family, and friends.

4. I am very satisfied with my own family.

5. I am very satisfied with the community where I live.

6. I am very satisfied with my friends.

Each statement required the respondent to indicate opinions about the job by means of a seven-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, ..., 4 = neither agree nor disagree, ..., 7 = strongly agree). The reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alphas) of the present sample were .70 for the life satisfaction scale.

Job characteristics

Job perceptions were measured by five subclasses of the Job Diagnostic Survey that was developed by Hackman and Oldham (1976): autonomy, skill variety, feedback from the job, task identity, and task significance.

The Job Diagnostic Survey contains five three-item scales to measure employees' perceptions of each job characteristic. Items are split between two sections of the questionnaire. In the first section, respondents will indicate directly on a seven-point continuum the amount of

each job characteristic they perceive to be present in their job, and in the second section respondent will be asked to assess the accuracy of a number of statements about features of their job.

Section 1

1. How much autonomy is there in your job? That is, to what extent does your job permit you to decide on your own how to go about the work?

Response scores: 1 = very little, the job gives me almost no personal "say" about how and when the work is done. 4 = moderate autonomy, many things are standardized and not under my control, but I can make some decisions about the work. 7 = very much, the job gives me almost complete responsibility for deciding how and when the work is done. Intermediate numbers (2, 3, 5, 6) are included in the response continuum.

2. To what extent does your job involve doing a "whole" and identifiable piece of work? That is, is the job a complete piece of work that has an obvious beginning and end? Or, is it only a small part of the overall piece of work, which is finished by other people or by automatic machines?

Response scores: 1 = my job is only a tiny part of the overall piece of work, the results of

my activities cannot be seen in the final product or service. 4 = my job is a moderate sized "chunk" of the overall piece of work, my own contribution can be seen in the final outcome.

7 = my job involves doing the whole piece of work from start to finish, the result of my activities are easily seen in the final product or service.

Intermediate numbers (2, 3, 5, 6) are included in the response continuum.

3. How much variety is there in your job? That is, to what extent does the job require you to do many different things at work, using a variety of your skills and talents?

Response scores: 1 = very little, the job requires me to do the same routine things over and over again. 4 = moderate variety. 7 = very much, the job requires me to do many different things, using a number of different skills and talents. Intermediate numbers (2, 3, 5, 6) are included in the response continuum.

4. In general, how significant or important is your job? That is, are the results of your work likely to significantly affect the lives or well-being of other people?

Response scores: 1 = not very significant, the outcomes of my work are not likely to have important effects on other people. 4 = moderately significant. 7 = highly significant, the outcomes of my work can affect other people in very important ways. Intermediate numbers (2, 3, 5, 6) are included in the response continuum.

5. To what extent does doing the job itself provide you with information about your work performance? That is, does the actual work itself provide clues about how well you are doing, aside from any "feedback" co-workers or supervisors may provide?

Response scores: 1 = very little, the job itself is set up so I could work forever without finding out how well I am doing. 4 = moderately, sometimes doing the job provides "feedback" to me, sometimes it does not. 7 = very much, the job is set up so that I get almost constant "feedback" as I work about how well I am doing. Intermediate numbers (2, 3, 5, 6) are included in the response continuum.

Section 2

Items 6 to 15 will be scored as: 1 = very inaccurate; 2 = mostly inaccurate; 3 = slightly inaccurate; 4 =

uncertain; 5 = slightly accurate; 6 = mostly accurate;
7 = very accurate.

6. The job requires me to use a number of complex or high-level skills.
7. The job is arranged so that I do not have the chance to do an entire piece of work from beginning to end.
8. Just doing the work required by the job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing.
9. The job is quite simple and repetitive.
10. This job is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well the work gets done.
11. The job denies me any chance to use my personal initiative or judgement in carrying out the work.
12. The job provides me the chance to completely finish the piece of work I begin.
13. The job itself provides very few clues about whether or not I am performing well.
14. The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.
15. The job itself is not very significant or important in the broader scheme of things.

Items in each sub-scale are as follows: skill variety, 3, 6, 9; task identity, 2, 7, 12; task

significance, 4, 10, 15; autonomy, 1, 11, 14; feedback from the job, 5, 8, 13. The reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alphas) of the present sample were .62 for the skill variety scale, .46 for the task identity scale, .50 for the task significance scale, .60 for the autonomy scale, and .63 for the feedback scale. These scales are also known to have low reliability in the studies conducted in the United States in general.

Self-esteem

Self-esteem will be measured by Rosenberg's (1965) scale. The original scale allowed subjects only five-point alternatives. In this study, respondents will be asked to indicate their agreement or disagreement with the following items on a seven-point scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = slightly disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = slightly agree, 6 = agree, and 7 = strongly agree.

1. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.
2. At times I think I am no good at all.
3. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.
4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.
5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.
6. I certainly feel useless at times.

7. I feel that I am a person of worth at least on an equal plane with others.
8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.
9. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.
10. I take a positive attitude toward myself.

Self-esteem score was obtained by summing responses to all 10 items. The reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) of the present sample was .66 for the self-esteem scale.

Religiosity factors

The researcher developed a measurement to assess the influence of religion on respondent's life using the following statements:

1. I find my religious beliefs are important in directing my everyday behaviors. Subjects responded to this question on a seven-point scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = slightly disagree, 4 = neither agree or disagree, 5 = slightly agree, 6 = agree, and 7 = strongly agree.
2. To what extent do you practice your religion rituals?
 - 1 = very extensively
 - 2 = most of the time
 - 3 = some of the time
 - 4 = hardly ever

3. In addition, the respondent will be asked to provide the following information:
 - A. Frequency of watching or listening to religious lectures on television, radio, or tapes.
 - B. Frequency of going to religious lectures at different places.
 - C. Frequency of attendance at worship services at the mosque.

For Moslems, religiosity scale score was obtained by taking the mean of responses to all five items. For nonMoslems, religiosity scale score was obtained by taking the mean of responses to item 1 and item 2. The reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) of the present sample was .62 for the religiosity scale.

Respondents were asked also to provide information about which is more important to them: life satisfaction or job satisfaction; what they do in their leisure time; educational level; age; salary; nationality; religion; marital status; job title.

Data Treatment

The statistical methods chosen for data analysis were the mean, standard deviation, and frequency distributions to describe the characteristics of respondents and their social environments.

LISREL-7 procedures within the SPSS statistical package were used to test the model hypotheses. There are

some assumptions implied when LISREL is used: (a) the errors in the equations are assumed to be uncorrelated with the exogenous latent variables, (b) the measurement errors are assumed to be independent from the exogenous latent variables, and (c) the observed indicators are assumed to be multinormally distributed (Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1978).

Because we are collecting data at a single point in time, we assumed that both job-life satisfaction occurred at the same time. Moreover, we assumed that the causal effects have occurred rapidly. Therefore, the system of relationships among the variables was assumed to be stable at the time of data collection, and that the direction of causal flow was correctly specified (Schmitt and Bedeian, 1982).

Respondents to life satisfaction scale indicated their satisfaction on six seven-point Likert format items (y_1 to y_6). Job satisfaction was measured by Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire which yields an intrinsic satisfaction subscale and extrinsic satisfaction subscale (y_7 and y_8).

Variables exogenous to life satisfaction included marital status, self-esteem, and religiosity. Marital status was dichotomous; married persons were coded 2; all others were coded 1 (x_1 to x_3).

Variables exogenous to job satisfaction included autonomy, skill variety, feedback from the job, task identity and task significance (x_4 to x_{18}). The full model evaluated by LISREL is presented in Figure 3.

Because a single indicator existed for marital status, self-esteem, and religiosity, the observed-underlying construct relationship was set equal to 1.00. The model shown in Figure 3 was estimated using LISREL-7 on the correlation matrix for the observed variables. This program facilitates the analysis of proposed model. The researcher specifies the structure of eight matrices based upon the model to be tested. Thus, using the correlation matrix among the variables, the program estimates the element of the eight matrices using the method of maximum likelihood. Moreover, the LISREL-7 program yields Chi-square test of significance of the difference between the observed and reproduced correlation matrix. The larger the difference, the poorer the model fits the data.

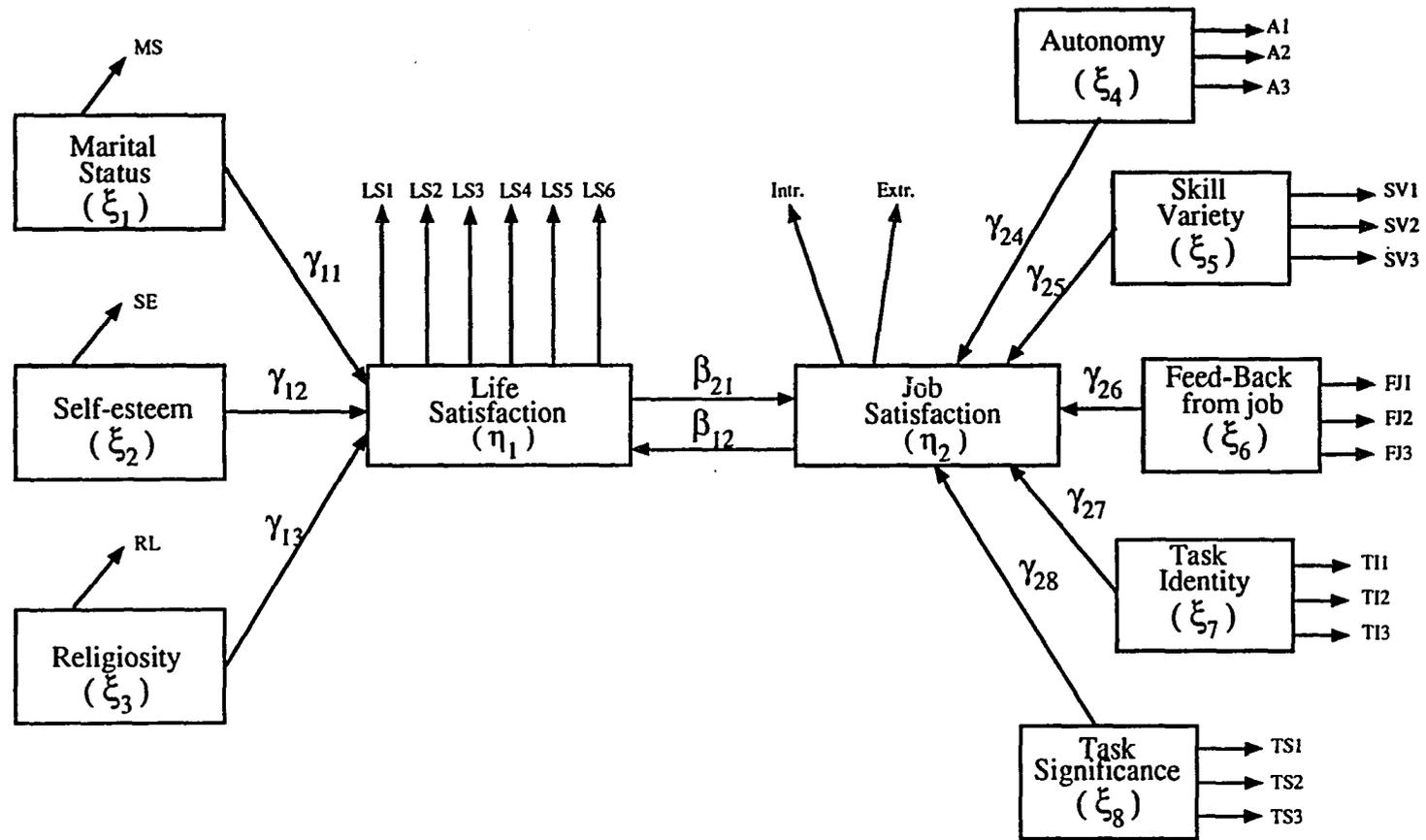


Figure 3. Structural and measurement model evaluated by LISEREL 7.
 (γ_i =Gamma , β_i =Beta)

CHAPTER IV. FINDINGS

Findings in this study will be discussed in two sections. The first section presents the means, standard deviations, and frequency distributions of respondents. The second section reports results pertaining to hypotheses and testing the model.

Descriptive Findings

Most respondents (51.3 percent) were younger than 39 years (Table 2). The smallest age group was the group (9.6 percent) of 29 years or younger, and the group (11.5 percent) of 50 years or older. Only 27.6 percent of respondents were in the group of 40-49 years.

Table 3 shows respondent frequencies according to marital status. Greater than 90 percent of participants were married, whereas approximately 26 participants (7.2

Table 2. Age of the respondents

Age	Frequency	Percent
Less than 29	34	9.6
30-39	182	51.3
40-49	98	27.6
50 or more	<u>41</u>	<u>11.5</u>
Total ^a	355	100.0

^aMissing cases = 4.

Table 3. Marital status of the respondents

Marital Status	Frequency	Percent
Single	26	7.2
Married	326	90.8
Divorced	6	1.7
Widowed	<u>1</u>	<u>.3</u>
Total ^a	359	100.0

^aMissing cases = 0.

percent) were single. Only 1.7 and .3 percent were divorced and widowed.

Table 4 shows respondent frequencies according to educational background. About 49 percent of participants had bachelor's degree. Only 4.5 percent had master's degree. Finally, the second largest category (37.4 percent) is those who had high school degree.

Table 4. Educational background of the respondents

Educational degree	Frequency	Percent
Pre-high school degree	24	6.7
High school degree	134	37.4
Bachelor's degree	175	48.9
Master's degree	16	4.5
Beyond master's degree	1	.3
Others	<u>8</u>	<u>2.2</u>
Total ^a	358	100.0

^aMissing cases = 1.

Table 5 indicates that more than half the respondents had worked for 11 to 20 years, 15.2 percent for 5 years or fewer, 16 percent for 6-10 years, 6.5 percent for 20-25 years, and 5.1 percent for more than 26 years.

Table 6 shows respondent frequencies according to salary. About 40 percent of employees had monthly salaries of SR 7,000-9,999 (1 U.S. dollar = 3.75 SR); 26.5 percent

Table 5. Working experience of the respondents

Working Experience	Frequency	Percent
Less than 5 years	54	15.2
6 years-10 years	57	16.0
11 years-15 years	125	35.1
16 years-20 years	77	21.6
21 years-25 years	23	6.5
26 years or more	<u>20</u>	<u>5.6</u>
Total ^a	356	100.0

^aMissing cases = 3.

Table 6. Salary of the respondents

Salary	Frequency	Percent
Less than SR 3,999	14	3.9
4,000-6,999	54	15.0
7,000-9,999	141	39.3
10,000-12,999	95	26.5
13,000 or more	<u>50</u>	<u>15.3</u>
Total ^a	354	100.0

^aMissing cases = 5.

had salaries of SR 10,000-12,999; 3.9 percent had salaries of less than SR 3,999; about 15 percent had salaries of SR 4,000-6,999; and 15 percent had salaries of SR 13,000 or more.

Table 7 shows respondent frequencies according to nationality. More than 80 percent of employees were Saudi nationals, and nearly 20 percent of employees were nonSaudi nationals whose nationality varied.

Table 7. Nationality of the respondents

Nationality	Frequency	Percent
Saudi	287	80.2
NonSaudi	<u>71</u>	<u>19.8</u>
Total ^a	358	100.0

^aMissing cases = 1.

Table 8 represents respondent frequencies according to job title. 27.1 percent of subjects in this study were middle level managers, about 27 percent were clerks, 14 percent were high level managers, 14.3 percent were specialists, 11.1 and 5.3 percent were engineers and technical workers, respectively.

Table 9 shows respondent frequencies according to their religion. More than 90 percent (91.1) of employees were Moslem, and only 8.9 percent were nonMoslem, which included only Christian people.

Table 8. Job titles of the respondents

Job Title	Frequency	Percent
Clerk	92	26.8
Specialist	49	14.3
Technical	17	5.3
Engineering	38	11.1
Middle level managers	93	27.1
High level managers	48	14.0
Others	<u>6</u>	<u>1.7</u>
Total ^a	343	100.0

^aMissing cases = 16.

Table 9. Religion of the respondents

Religion	Frequency	Percent
Moslem	326	91.1
NonMoslem	<u>32</u>	<u>8.9</u>
Total ^a	358	100.0

^aMissing cases = 1.

Table 10. House location of the respondents

House Location	Frequency	Percent
High level class	158	46.1
Middle level class	122	35.6
Low level class	<u>63</u>	<u>18.4</u>
Total ^a	343	100.0

^aMissing cases = 16.

Table 10 indicates respondent frequencies according to the house location where they live. Approximately 46 percent of the participants were living in the high-level class location, 35.6 percent were in the middle-level class location, and 18.4 percent were in the low-level class location.

Table 11 shows respondent frequencies according to home town location. Most of the employees (78.2 percent) had grown up in the city, 15 percent were in small towns, and 6.8 percent were in villages.

Table 11. Home town location of the respondents

Home town	Frequency	Percent
City	277	78.2
Small town	53	15.0
Village	<u>24</u>	<u>6.8</u>
Total ^a	354	100.0

^aMissing cases = 5.

Table 12 shows respondent frequencies according to the distance from residence to work. More than half (52.1 percent) of the respondents were located between 16-30 minutes from work; 35.3 percent were located less than 15 minutes from work, and few employees were located more than 45 minutes from work by car.

Table 12. Distance of the respondent's residence from work

Distance minutes	Frequency	Percent
Less than 15	124	35.3
16-30	183	52.1
31-45	38	10.8
46-60	3	.9
more than 60	<u>3</u>	<u>.9</u>
Total ^a	351	100.0

^aMissing cases = 8.

Table 13 indicates respondent frequencies according to the family size. More than half of the employees had less than 5 members in their family; 43.0 percent had 6-10 members, and 3.4 percent had 11 or more.

Table 14 shows respondent frequencies according to the number of wives they had. About 87 percent of the respondents had only one wife, whereas 3.1 percent had two wives.

Table 15 indicates respondent frequencies according to practicing religious rituals. More than 57 percent of the employees were practicing religious rituals most of the time; 26.5 percent were very extensively; 10.8 were some of the time; and only 5 percent were hardly ever practicing religious rituals.

Table 16 shows respondent frequencies according to leisure time. Sixty percent of the respondents were reading in their leisure time; 38.7 percent were visiting

Table 13. Family size of the respondents

Family size	Frequency	Percent
Less than 5 members	184	53.5
6-10	151	43.0
11 or more	<u>12</u>	<u>3.4</u>
Total ^a	351	100.0

^aMissing cases = 8.

Table 14. Wives of the respondents

Wives	Frequency	Percent
None	34	9.6
One wife	309	87.3
Two wives	<u>11</u>	<u>3.1</u>
Total ^a	354	100.0

^aMissing cases = 5.

Table 15. Practicing religious rituals

Religious practice	Frequency	Percent
Very extensively	91	26.5
Most of the time	198	57.7
Some of the time	37	10.8
Hardly ever	<u>17</u>	<u>5.0</u>
Total ^a	343	100.0

^aMissing cases = 16.

Table 16. Leisure time of the respondents

Leisure time	Frequency		Percent		Total ^a	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	# of cases	Percent
Reading	196	130	60.1	39.9	326	100.0
Sports	84	242	25.8	74.2	326	100.0
Personal computer	33	293	10.1	89.9	326	100.0
Home maintenance	31	295	9.5	90.5	326	100.0
Shopping	26	300	8.0	92.0	326	100.0
Go out	55	271	16.9	83.1	326	100.0
Visiting	126	200	38.7	61.3	326	100.0
Teaching their children	47	279	14.4	85.6	326	100.0
Television	116	210	35.6	64.4	326	100.0
Other	79	247	24.2	75.8	326	100.0

^aMissing cases = 33.

other family or friends; 35.6 percent were watching television; and about 26 percent were doing sports.

Table 17 shows respondent frequencies according to importance of life-job satisfaction. More than half (61.4 percent) of the employees believed that both life and job satisfaction are equally important; 34.6 percent believed that life satisfaction is more important than job satisfaction; and only a few employees (4.0 percent) believed job satisfaction is more important than life satisfaction.

Table 18 presents means, standard deviations, and numbers of respondents for the general job satisfaction scale and for the 20 MSQ subscores. Ability utilization, achievement, activity, authority, compensation, coworker, creativity, independence, moral values, security, social service, social status, supervision/human relation, supervision/technical, and variety scores were high,

Table 17. Which is important to the respondents: life or job satisfaction

Which is important	Frequency	Percent
Life satisfaction than job satisfaction	120	34.6
Job satisfaction than life satisfaction	14	4.0
Both life and job satisfaction	<u>213</u>	<u>61.4</u>
Total ^a	347	100.0

^aMissing cases = 12.

ranging from 4.52 to 5.30. Organization policies and practices, recognition, responsibility, and working conditions scores were moderate, ranging from 4.0 to 4.34. Advancement scores were low (3.45). General job satisfaction scores were high. The intrinsic job satisfaction item average was higher (4.76) than the extrinsic job satisfaction item average (4.52).

Table 19 shows response frequencies regarding feelings about the job. Nearly 80 percent of employees both considered themselves enthusiastic about and found enjoyment in their job. On the other hand, 42.1 percent of employees were bored with their jobs, and 22 percent were dissatisfied.

Table 20 shows response frequencies regarding feelings about life satisfaction. More than three-fourths of the employees considered themselves very satisfied with their

Table 18. Ratings for the general job satisfaction scale and for the 20 MSQ subscores

Variables	Means	Standard Deviations	Number of cases
Intrinsic satisfaction	57.13 (4.76) ^c	13.17	304
Extrinsic satisfaction	27.10 (4.52)	7.21	326
General satisfaction	94.20 (4.71)	22.15	286
Ability utilization ^a	4.52	1.76	350
Achievement ^a	4.86	1.73	354
Activity ^a	5.14	1.66	350
Advancement ^a	3.45	1.89	350
Authority ^b	4.66	1.70	352
Organization policies and practices ^b	4.04	1.67	355
Compensation ^a	4.62	1.76	354
Coworkers ^a	4.74	1.49	353
Creativity ^a	4.65	1.62	351
Independence ^a	5.07	1.59	353
Moral values ^a	5.30	1.62	347
Recognition ^b	4.29	1.82	354
Responsibility ^b	4.35	1.75	350
Security ^b	4.91	1.65	347
Social services ^a	5.23	1.55	349
Social status ^a	4.80	1.72	349
Supervision/human relation	4.65	1.82	353
Supervision/technical	4.82	1.76	350
Variety ^b	4.82	1.62	351
Working conditions ^a	4.32	1.76	350

^aIntrinsic satisfaction items (12 items).

^bExtrinsic satisfaction items (6 items).

^cScale item average.

family, and 60 percent considered themselves very satisfied with their life in general. Nearly 50 percent of the employees considered themselves in good spirits, good deal of happiness in life, very satisfied with their friends, and very satisfied with their community.

Table 21 presents crosstabulation between life satisfaction and job satisfaction. It shows that there is

Table 19. Feelings about their job

Variables	Frequency	Percent
I am enthusiastic about my job		
Strongly disagree	10	2.9
Disagree	15	4.3
Slightly disagree	16	4.6
Neither agree nor disagree	28	8.1
Slightly agree	100	28.9
Agree	91	26.3
Strongly agree	86	24.9
I am bored with my job		
Strongly disagree	53	15.1
Disagree	42	11.9
Slightly disagree	54	15.3
Neither agree nor disagree	55	15.6
Slightly agree	94	26.7
Agree	33	9.4
Strongly agree	21	6.0
I find enjoyment in my job		
Strongly disagree	18	5.1
Disagree	12	3.4
Slightly disagree	21	5.9
Neither agree nor disagree	39	11.0
Slightly agree	95	26.7
Agree	100	28.1
Strongly agree	71	19.9
I feel dissatisfied with my job		
Strongly disagree	107	30.1
Disagree	79	22.2
Slightly disagree	59	16.6
Neither agree nor disagree	32	9.0
Slightly agree	39	11.0
Agree	21	5.9
Strongly agree	19	5.3

Table 20. Ratings for life satisfaction scale

Variables	Frequency	Percent
I generally feel in good spirits		
Strongly disagree	9	2.5
Disagree	7	2.0
Slightly disagree	24	6.8
Neither agree nor disagree	35	9.9
Slightly agree	98	27.6
Agree	106	29.9
Strongly agree	76	21.4
I find a good deal of happiness in life		
Strongly disagree	3	.8
Disagree	2	.6
Slightly disagree	5	1.4
Neither agree nor disagree	42	11.9
Slightly agree	116	32.9
Agree	106	30.0
Strongly agree	79	22.4
I am very satisfied with my life		
Strongly disagree	3	.9
Disagree	3	.9
Slightly disagree	10	2.8
Neither agree nor disagree	30	8.2
Slightly agree	92	26.2
Agree	109	31.1
Strongly agree	104	29.6
I am very satisfied with my own family		
Strongly disagree	3	.8
Disagree	5	1.4
Slightly disagree	7	2.0
Neither agree nor disagree	11	3.1
Slightly agree	49	13.8
Agree	86	24.2
Strongly agree	194	54.6

Table 20. Continued

Variables	Frequency	Percent
I am very satisfied with the community where I live		
Strongly disagree	5	1.4
Disagree	15	4.2
Slightly disagree	27	7.6
Neither agree nor disagree	39	10.9
Slightly agree	94	26.3
Agree	108	30.3
Strongly agree	69	19.3
I am very satisfied with my friends in general		
Strongly disagree	2	.6
Disagree	6	1.7
Slightly disagree	11	3.1
Neither agree nor disagree	31	8.8
Slightly agree	117	33.3
Agree	129	36.8
Strongly agree	55	15.7

Table 21. Crosstabulation between life satisfaction and job satisfaction

Life Satisfaction	Job Satisfaction		
	Low	Middle	High
Low	4.5	0.0	0.0
Middle	54.5	28.9	10.7
High	40.9	71.1	89.3
Total	100.0 (22)	100.0 (128)	100.0 (128)

a positive relationship between life satisfaction and job satisfaction. Over 89% of those with high job satisfaction also indicated high life satisfaction, while lower percentages of those in other job satisfaction categories expressed high life satisfaction.

Results

Hypothesis testing was conducted using the path model presented in Figure 3. This simplified interpretation of the results because the use of latent variables with multiple indicators allowed the inclusion of many variables, yet kept the number of relationships to be tested at a minimum. It also tested the relationships while holding other variables in the model constant (Linneman, 1985).

The full model was tested and the parameter estimates (coefficient) and model fit were examined. The standardized values of the maximum likelihood estimate of coefficients for the model are shown on the model path in Figure 4. Statistically significant gamma and beta estimates are denoted by asterisks. The criterion for statistical significance of the parameters at the .05 level was a t-value of two or greater (Lewis-Beck, 1980). According to Jöreskog and Sörbom (1983), the "parameter whose t-values are larger than two in magnitude are

normally judged to be [significantly] different from zero" (p. 12).

The following hypothesized relationships were confirmed by the presence of a statistically significant relationship in the predicted direction:

1. Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between religiosity and life satisfaction.

2. Hypothesis 2: There is a positive relationship between self-esteem and life satisfaction.

3. Hypothesis 4: There is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and autonomy in the job.

The following hypothesized relationships were not confirmed:

1. Hypothesis 3: Married employees are more satisfied in their lives than other employees.

2. Hypothesis 5: There is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and skill variety in the job.

3. Hypothesis 6: There is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and feedback from the job.

4. Hypothesis 7: There is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and task identity in the job.

Finally, the hypothesized positive relationship between task significance and job satisfaction was disconfirmed by the presence of negative relationship instead.

The squared multiple correlations for the structural equation represent the amount of variance in the latent endogenous variables explained by the exogenous variables. These coefficients can be interpreted as R-square values for each endogenous variable. The squared multiple correlation for job and life satisfaction, respectively, were .62 and .54. The squared multiple correlation for the overall model equalled .75.

The LISREL-7 solution for this model indicates a poor fit to the data. The Chi-square with 265 degrees of freedom was 560.29 ($p = .000$). A low Chi-square is associated with good model fit, because it measures the difference between the sample variance-covariance matrix (S) and the one reproduced through model estimation (σ). Whereas a low Chi-square value generally is viewed as disconfirmatory evidence, several authors have warned that Chi-square test is affected by the sample size (Jöreskog, 1978; Log, 1983; Pedhazur, 1982). Carmines and McIver (1981) suggested that a proposed model fits the data adequately when the ratio of Chi-square to the associated degree of freedom (the relative Chi-square) ranges from 2 to 3. Wheaton et al. (1977) suggested that the relative Chi-square must be less than 5. The relative Chi-square statistic of the model in this study was 2.11. This figure

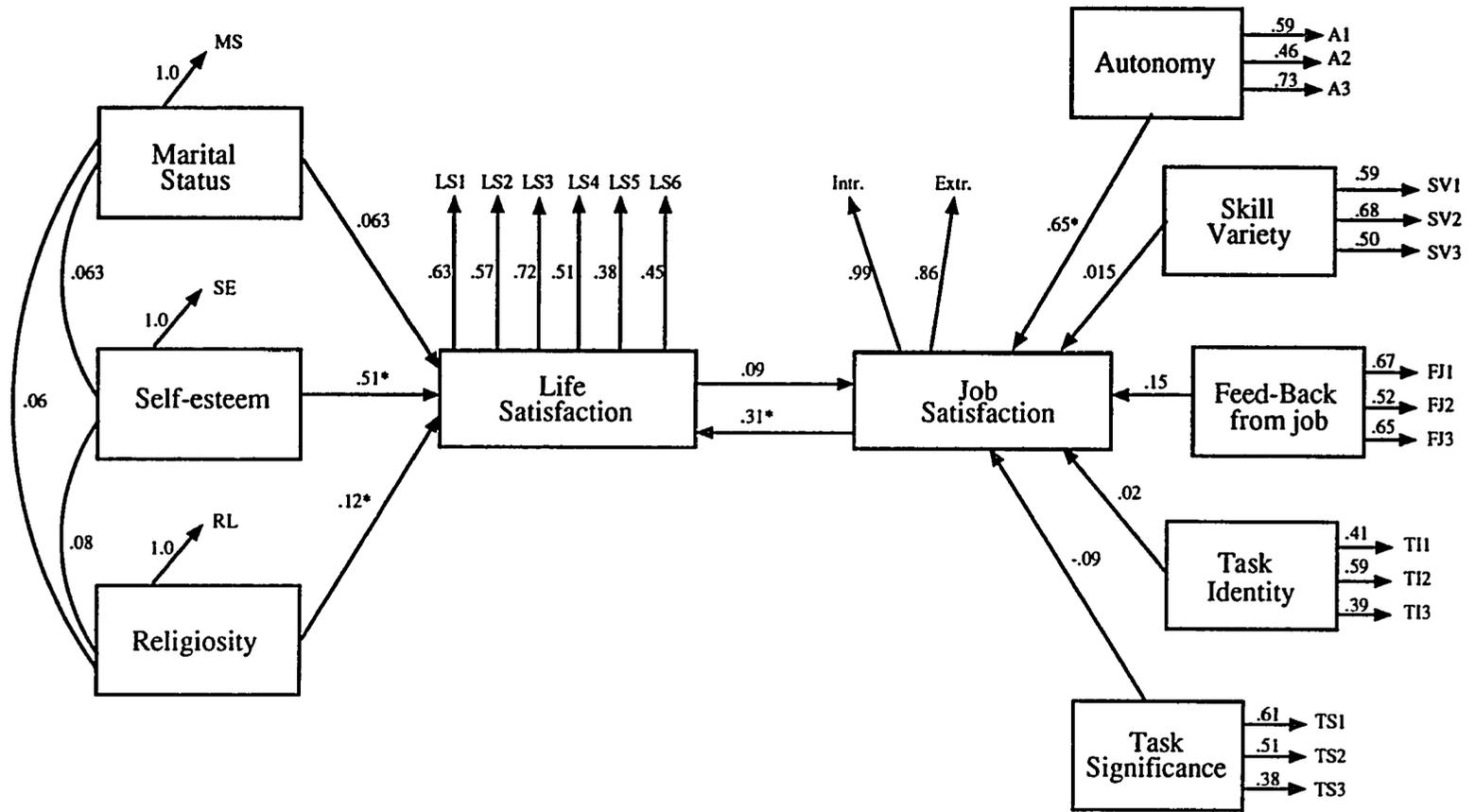


Figure 4. Standardized results of LISEREL analysis

suggests an adequate fit for the model using the Carmines and McIver (1981) and Wheaton et al. (1977) criterion.

Model Revision

Evaluation of the full model leads to the conclusion that there is substantial lack of fit. Therefore, in order to detect the sources of poor model fit, the LISREL procedure generates several powerful tools. One of the most useful mechanisms for locating lack of fit is the t-value for specified paths. A t-value of two or more indicates statistical significance at the .05 level, while a t-value of less than two indicates that a parameter is not significantly different from zero.

The t-values for paths in full model were examined. Six parameters with t-values substantially less than two were dropped from the model. These were the parameters representing the relationship between: (1) life satisfaction and job satisfaction (beta 2, 1) (see Figure 3); (2) task significance and job satisfaction (gamma 8, 2); (3) task identity and job satisfaction (gamma 7, 2); (4) feedback from job and job satisfaction (gamma 6, 2); (5) skill variety and job satisfaction (gamma 5, 2); and (6) marital status and life satisfaction (gamma 1, 1). The fit of the model improved slightly as a result of fixing these nonsignificant parameters to equal zero.

The Chi-square and its degrees of freedom statistic can be used to provide useful information when comparing models for relative improvement in fit when freeing, or constraining, model parameters. According to Jöreskog and Sörbom (1989), one reasonable way to use Chi-square test in comparative model fitting is to use Chi-square differences in the following way. A large drop in Chi-square, compared to the difference in degrees of freedom, indicates that the changes made in the model represent a real improvement. On the other hand, a drop in Chi-square close to the difference in number of degrees of freedom indicates that the improvement in fit is obtained by "capitalizing on chance," and the added parameters may not have real significance and meaning (p. 44).

Table 22 shows Chi-square and degree of freedom of these models (Model 1 to Model 7). From this table we can see the improvement of model 3 over model 4, also model 4 over model 5. Model 6 appears to be an improvement over model 5, while model 7 does not seem to be substantially better than model 6. The standardized value of path coefficient for the final model (model 6) shown in Figure 5 indicates that marital status self-esteem, religiosity, and job satisfaction have positive relationship with life satisfaction.

After the fit of the model was evaluated, the model structure across the managers and nonmanagers was tested. The two groups have been analyzed independently of one another. In order to examine structural differences across the groups, they were analyzed simultaneously using LISREL.

Tables 23 and 24 represent the improvement of Chi-square for model 1 to model 7 for both groups--managers and nonmanagers. Therefore, we can conclude that model 6 is the best model for both groups.

This model was tested individually for each of the two groups and the parameter estimates (coefficients) and model fit for each of the two subgroups were examined separately. The standardized estimates are reported in Figures 6 and 7.

After examining the structural differences for both groups--managers and nonmanagers--the similarity of model structure across the groups was tested for each group. Table 25 evaluates model 6, whether it is identical or not for both groups. From this table we can see the improvement of Chi-square and degree of freedom, thus, we can conclude that model 6 is identical for both groups--managers and nonmanagers.

Because we used different scales for Moslem and non-Moslem groups, the path coefficient between religiosity and life satisfaction was tested. Table 26 evaluated the path coefficient between religiosity and life satisfaction

in the reduced model, whether it is identical or not for both groups. From this table we can see the improvement of Chi-square and degree of freedom, thus, we can conclude that the path coefficient between religiosity and life

Table 22. Examining the structural differences for model 1 to model 7

Model	Chi ²	(df)	p	Chi ² difference	(df) difference
Model 1	560.29	(265)	(.000)		
Model 2	561.19	(266)	(.000)	-.90	-1
Model 3	448.41	(205)	(.000)	113.05	61
Model 4	330.54	(152)	(.000)	117.87	53
Model 5	234.67	(107)	(.000)	95.87	45
Model 6	155.17	(70)	(.000)	79.50	37
Model 7	146.38	(61)	(.000)	8.79	9

Model 1	Theoretically interesting model in Figure 3
Model 2	$B_{12} = 0$
Model 3	Deleting gamma (2,8)
Model 4	Deleting gamma (2,8 2,7)
Model 5	Deleting gamma (2,8 2,7 2,5)
Model 6	Deleting gamma (2,8 2,7 2,5 2,3)
Model 7	Deleting gamma (2,8 2,7 2,5 2,3 1,1)

satisfaction is significantly different across groups.

However, we have no way to know whether this improvement is due to the group differences or scale differences.

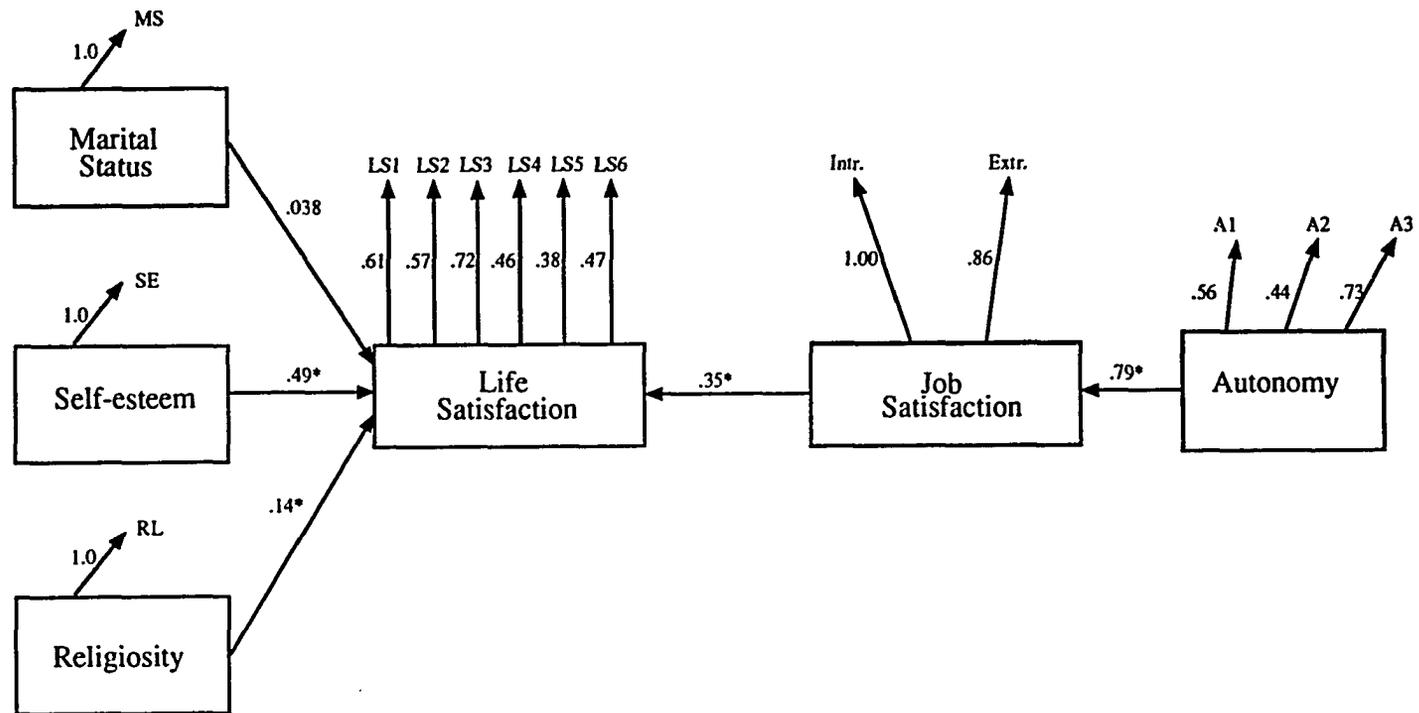


Figure 5. Standardized coefficients for model 6.

Table 23. Examining the structural differences for model 1 to model 7 for nonmanagers

Model	Chi-square	(df)	Chi-square difference	(df)
Model 1	490.65	(265)		
Model 2	491.41	(266)	-.76	-1
Model 3	366.28	(205)	125.13	61
Model 4	264.88	(152)	101.40	53
Model 5	203.91	(107)	60.97	45
Model 6	132.59	(70)	71.32	37
Model 7	115.20	(61)	17.39	9

Model 1	Theoretically interesting model in Figure 3
Model 2	$B_{12} = 0$
Model 3	Dropping gamma (2, 8)
Model 4	Dropping gamma (2,8; 2,6)
Model 5	Dropping gamma (2,8; 2,6; 2,5)
Model 6	Dropping gamma (2,8; 2,6; 2,5; 2,3)
Model 7	Dropping gamma (2,8; 2,6; 2,5; 2,3; 1,1)

Table 24. Examining the structural differences for model 1 to model 7 for manager

Model	Chi-square	(df)	Chi-square difference	(df)
Model 1	490.69	(265)		
Model 2	492.09	(266)	-1.40	-1
Model 3	398.38	(205)	91.71	61
Model 4	281.14	(152)	117.24	53
Model 5	185.35	(107)	95.79	45
Model 6	124.33	(70)	61.02	37
Model 7	121.66	(61)	2.67	9

Model 1	Theoretically interesting model in Figure 3
Model 2	$B_{12} = 0$
Model 3	Dropping gamma (2, 8)
Model 4	Dropping gamma (2,8; 2,6)
Model 5	Dropping gamma (2,8; 2,6; 2,5)
Model 6	Dropping gamma (2,8; 2,6; 2,5; 2,3)
Model 7	Dropping gamma (2,8; 2,6; 2,5; 2,3; 1,1)

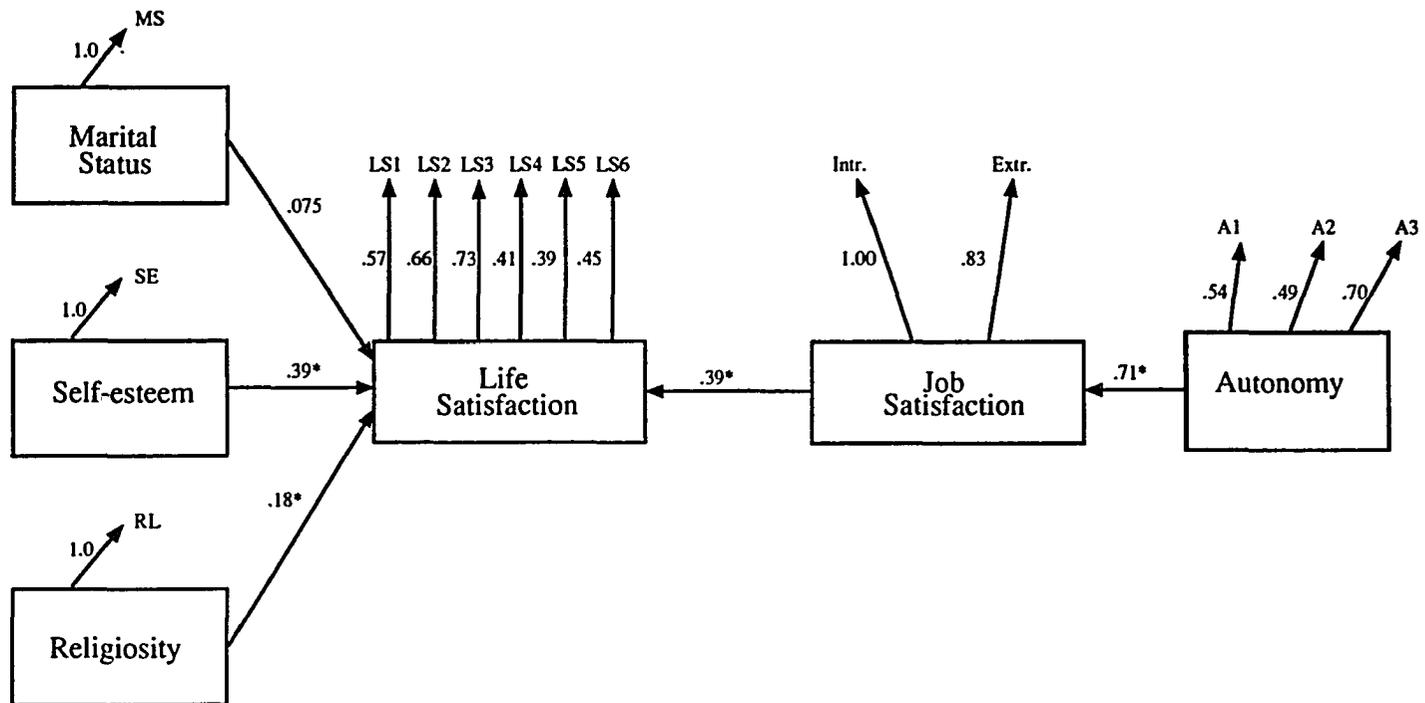


Figure 6. Standardized coefficients for manager employees.

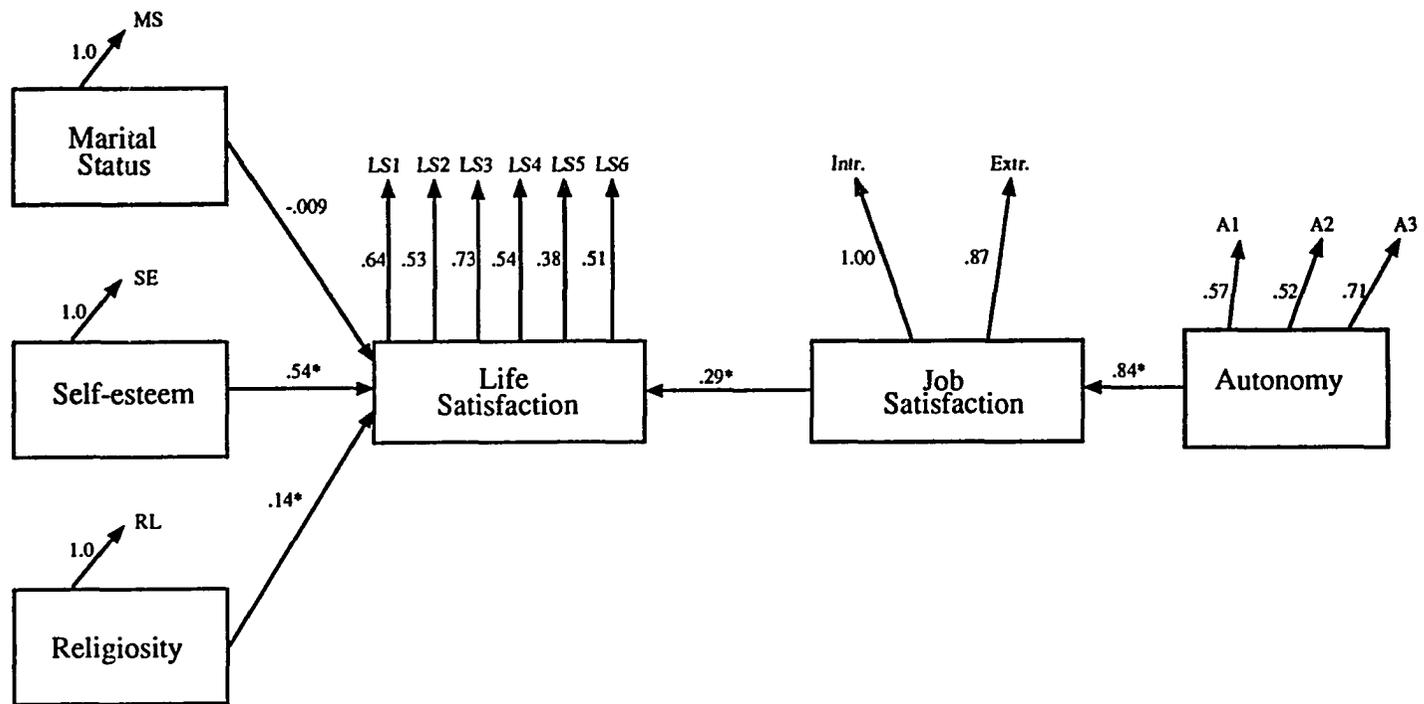


Figure 7. Standardized coefficients for nonmanager employees.

Table 25. Examining the factors loading differences across the groups

Model	Chi-square	df
Independent samples	261.82	140
Lx, Ly identical across groups	269.68	148
Lx, Ly, PH identical across groups	283.38	158
Lx, Ly, PH, GA, identical across groups	286.69	162
Lx, Ly, PH, GA and BE, identical across groups	287.04	163
Lx, Ly, PH, GA, B, and errors terms identical across groups	295.03	175

Table 26. Examining the path coefficient between religiosity and life satisfaction differences across the groups (Moslem and non-Moslem)

Model	Chi-square	(df)	Chi-square difference	(df)
Model 6 ^a	351.19	141		
Model 6 ^b	346.63	140	4.56	1

^aWith different path coefficient for both groups.

^bWith same path coefficient for both groups.

CHAPTER V. SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS,
AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE
RESEARCH

Summary

The objectives of this study were to determine (1) the level of job satisfaction and that of life satisfaction among employees, (2) the relation between job satisfaction and life satisfaction, (3) the relation between life satisfaction and marital status, self-esteem, and religiosity, (4) the relation between job satisfaction and job characteristics--autonomy, skill variety, task identity, feedback from the job, and task significance.

The subjects of this study were 359 managers and nonmanagers employees in Saudi Airline organization. The sample was selected by means of simple random sampling.

This study was conducted during the spring of 1994 in Jeddah City, the second largest city in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The headquarters of Saudi Airline organization is located here.

The questionnaire consisted of four parts. The first part, or Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS), elicited information about job characteristics--autonomy, skill variety, task identity, feedback from job, and task significance.

The second part, or the short-form Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, elicited information about job satisfaction. The third part elicited information about

life satisfaction, self-esteem, and religiosity. The final part elicited information about employee characteristics such as marital status, educational background, age, job title, nationality, religion, and salary.

Findings were described in two sections. The first concerned descriptive findings such as means, standard deviations, and frequency distributions of the survey variables, all of which were used to describe the characteristics of employees and their social environments. In the second section, LISREL-7 procedures (Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1983) were used to test the hypotheses and the proposed model.

Overall general job satisfaction was high. Intrinsic job satisfaction was greater than extrinsic job satisfaction. Life satisfaction as well as self-esteem was high among employees, and finally, job satisfaction has a positive relationship with life satisfaction.

Discussion

In this section, findings presented in the previous chapter will be considered. Figure 8 summarizes the results of the proposed model. Statistically significant gamma and beta estimates are denoted by asterisks. The exogenous variables of task significance, task identity, feedback and skill variety were found to be generally less

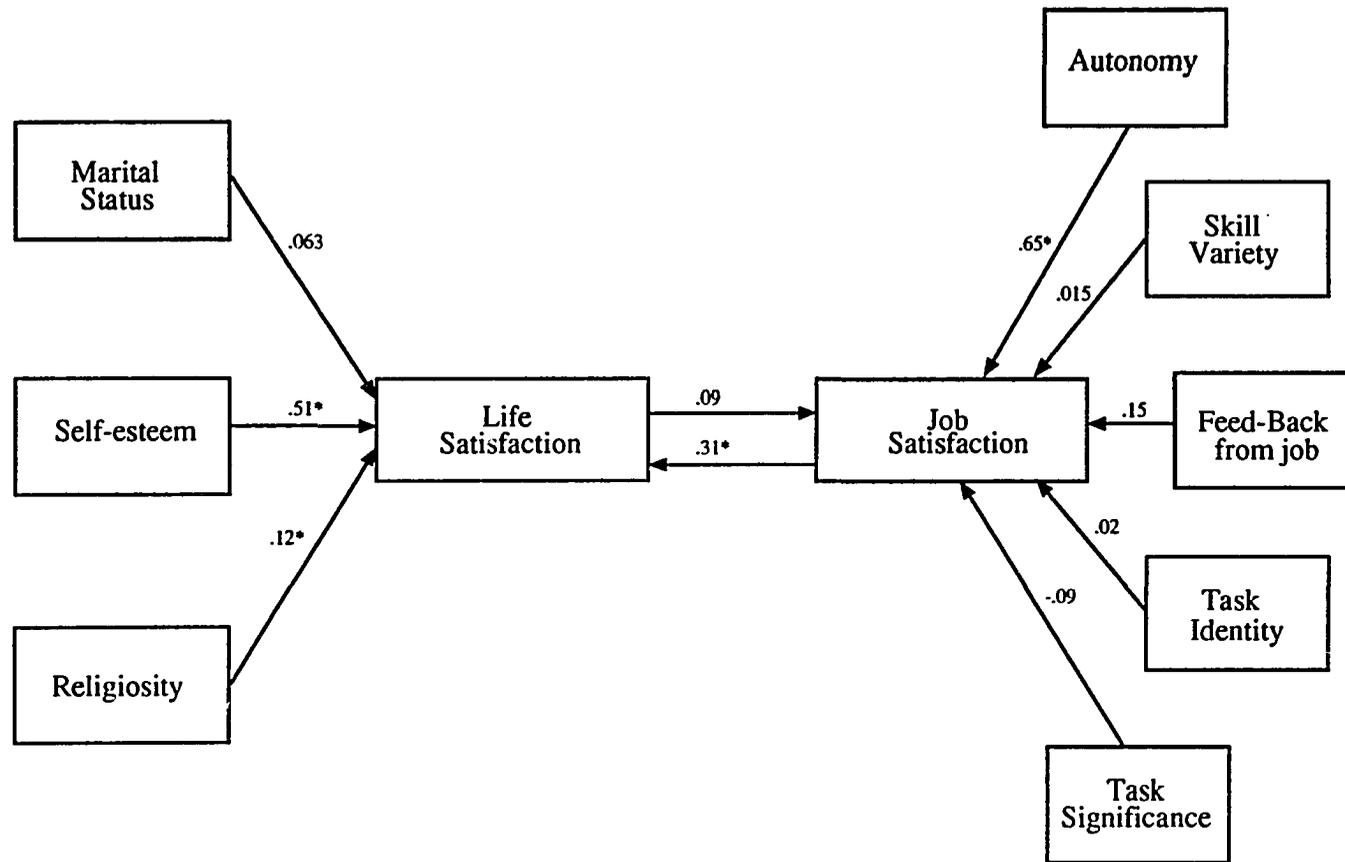


Figure 8. The Standardized results of LISEREL analysis

less important in the prediction of job satisfaction than has been predicted. Also, marital status was found to be generally less important in the prediction of life satisfaction than had been predicted. Finally, the reduced model indicated that autonomy is a very important factor for the prediction of job satisfaction for both groups of managers and nonmanagers.

Hypothesis testing was conducted within the context of a LISREL model. The first hypothesis was that there is a positive relationship between religiosity and life satisfaction. The data supported this hypothesis, and results agree with those of previous studies (Reed, 1991; Hadaway, 1978; Gray and Moberg, 1977; Hunsberger, 1985; Gee and Veevers, 1990).

Data also supported the hypothesis that there is a positive relationship between self-esteem and life satisfaction. This finding agrees with that of Tharenou and Harker (1982), Schmitt and Bodeian (1982), and Tharenou (1979).

Data did not support the hypothesis that married employees are more satisfied in their lives than other categories. There was no statistically significant difference between the two groups, possibly because in Saudi Arabian culture, single, widowed, and divorced employees are expected to live with their large family and

thus have responsibilities quite similar to those of married employees.

The data supported the hypothesis that there is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and autonomy in the job. These results agree with those of previous studies (Katz, 1978; James and Jones, 1980; Hackman and Oldham, 1975; Schmitt and Bedeian, 1982; Loscocco and Roschelle, 1991).

Data did not support the following hypothesized relationships: (1) between skill variety and job satisfaction, (2) between feedback from job and job satisfaction, and (3) between task identity and job satisfaction. Finally the hypothesized positive relationship between task significance and job satisfaction was disconfirmed by the presence of negative relationship instead. These results disagree with that of previous studies' results which suggest that as a job provides intrinsic rewards such as challenge, meaning, variety, importance, and complexity, it will be more satisfying to the job incumbents (Hackman and Oldham, 1975; Katz, 1978; Kalleberg, 1977; Glisson and Durick, 1988; Loscocco and Roschelle, 1991).

Data also did not support the hypothesis that there is a reciprocal positive relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction by the presence of only positive

causal influence from job satisfaction to life satisfaction instead. This result agrees with the spillover theory which predicts that there is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. It suggests that satisfaction with one domain of an individual's life would spillover into the other. This model suggests that the causal influence would be either from job satisfaction to life satisfaction or from life satisfaction to job satisfaction, but not both simultaneously (Schmitt and Bedeian, 1982; Schmitt and Mellon, 1980; Kresh, 1982). Also the results in this study agree with that of Kornhauser (1965), who found that job satisfaction positively correlated to life satisfaction.

There was substantial lack of fit in the proposed model. Little variance in job satisfaction was explained by its relationship with the latent exogenous variables such as task significance, task identity, feedback and skill variety, a situation that was probably aggravated by poor measurement. Perhaps some of the concepts were not measured properly due to the respondents' unwillingness to give explicit answers and inability to recall the needed information. Marital status, self-esteem, and religiosity were the only latent exogenous variables with a single indicator for each. The model explained little variance in life satisfaction, perhaps as a result of reliance upon

indicators. This could also have contributed to poor measurement of those latent variables.

Another reason for the lack of fit in the proposed model is probably that the relationship between job satisfaction and job characteristic variables--skill variety, feedback from job, task identity, and task significance--have reciprocal relationship. Recall that James and Jones (1980) examined the relationship between job satisfaction and job characteristics variables. They also argued that job satisfaction and job perceptions are directly, as well as reciprocally, related to each other.

Although the role of measurement error should not be overlooked as a cause of poor model fit, considerable specification error also exists. A number of variables relevant to job satisfaction were not included in the model such as commitment to the organization and work commitment. Organization characteristics such as size, location, organizational climate, and type of organization were not included, since this study dealt with one large organization.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are based on the findings of this study. The results of this study indicate that employees are quite satisfied with their lives and jobs. A significant positive relationship was established

between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. Thus, positive and negative experiences within the work life of employees have an impact on behavior and attitude within their nonwork life.

This direction of the relationship between job and life satisfaction was identified. Thus, improving the quality of life in the workplace affects not only job satisfaction but also nonwork attitude and life satisfaction in general. Therefore, programs such as job redesign that attempt to enhance job satisfaction will improve not only the quality of work life but also the overall quality of life of workers in general.

Therefore administrators of Saudi Airline should examine a summary of this study to become aware of the factors influencing job and life satisfaction in order to improve employees' satisfaction and organization effectiveness. In order to enhance job satisfaction in this organization, they need to improve advancement, recognition, responsibility, and working conditions. Finally, students preparing for careers as airline workers should examine a summary of this study to become aware of the factors influencing employees' job and life satisfaction.

Recommendations for Future Research

As previously discussed, the model tested in this study excluded a number of important variables. The effects of these variables need to be incorporated into attempts to explain the job satisfaction and life satisfaction.

Replication of the study with various groups or various regions of the country may provide additional insights on job-life satisfaction. What other job or personal factors may affect the job satisfaction and life satisfaction of employees? And what would be found if different measures of job satisfaction and life satisfaction were used? Future research should attempt to answer these questions. Longitudinal studies of job-life satisfaction among employees would help determine changes in both levels and components of both job satisfaction and life satisfaction over time.

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