CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Review of related literature is an important step in undertaking research. It helps in clarifying and defining the problem, stating objectives, formulating hypotheses, selecting appropriate design and methodology of research as well as interpreting the results in the light of the research work already undertaken. In this chapter, an endeavor has been made to provide an overview of various aspects of this study through the review of existing literature. The sources referred include various journals, books, doctoral theses, working papers, reports, magazines related to human resource, internet sites, newspapers etc.

Workload stress can be defined as reluctance to come to work and a feeling of constant pressure (i.e. no effort is enough) accompanied by the general physiological, psychological, and behavioral stress symptoms (Division of Human Resource, 2000).

2.1 STRESS

Al-Aameri AS. (2003) has mentioned in his studies that one of the six factors of occupational stress is pressure originating from workload. Alexandros-Stamatos G.A. et al. (2003) also argued that “factors intrinsic to the job” means explore workload, variety of tasks and rates of pay. Rapidly changing global scene is increasing the pressure of workforce
to perform maximum output and enhance competitiveness. Indeed, to perform better to their job, there is a requirement for workers to perform multiple tasks in the workplace to keep abreast of changing technologies (Cascio, 1995; Quick, 1997). The ultimate results of this pressure have been found to one of the important factors influencing job stress in their work (Cahn et al., 2000). A study in UK indicated that the majority of the workers were unhappy with the current culture where they were required to work extended hours and cope with large workloads while simultaneously meeting production targets and deadlines (Townley, 2000). Role ambiguity is another aspect that affects job stress in the workplace. According to Beehr et al. (1976), Cordes & Dougherty (1993), Cooper (1991), Dyer & Quine (1998) and Ursprung (1986) role ambiguiy exists when an individual lacks information about the requirements of his or her role, how those role requirements are to be met, and the evaluative procedures available to ensure that the role is being performed successfully. Jackson & Schuler (1985) studies found role ambiguity to lead to such negative outcomes as reduces confidence, a sense of hopelessness, anxiety, and depression.

2.1.1 Workplace problems and stress

Workplace problems include those related to how the organization functions, for example, the promotion process, and climate issues like hostility or isolation of workers. Other studies have documented that workplace problems are the strongest if not the only predictors of occupational stress for police (Crank
et al., 1995; Hurrell, 1995; Kirkcaldy et al., 1995; Brown et al., 1996. Morash and Hurrell (1995) found that for women, 39 percent, and for men, 28 percent of the variance in stress could be explained by workplace problems. For women, lack of influence on policing, language harassment, problems with racial and ethnic group bias, being treated like they were “invisible,” and overestimates of physical abilities were the significant predictors. For men, the strongest predictors were lack of influence and being ridiculed and set up for failure by other officers.

Ellison and Genz (1983) identified women’s unique stressors as lack of acceptance by the male subculture and the related denial of needed information, alliances, protection, and sponsorship from supervisors and colleagues. Wexler and Logan (1983) identified the woman-specific stressors of sexist, negative attitudes of male officers, group blame, responses by male officers, and lack of role models. Finally, Goolkasian et al. (1985) identified women’s special stressors as disapproval from fellow officers in the academy and in first jobs, coworkers’ demands that the women prove themselves, and lack of informal tutoring and mentoring. The literature specific to police women suggested the hypothesis that predictors of stress would be unique to gender groups of police officers. Support networks Work-related stress occurs not only because of workplace problems, but also because these stressors are not counteracted by family and coworker support for work activities (Bannerman, 1996; Cullen et al., 1985; Ganster et al., 1986; Graf, 1986; Anne Morris et al., 1999; LaRocco et al., 1980). For
police, important support networks include family, friends and colleagues.

2.1.2 Community conditions and organizational features

Police organizations typically have wide variations in local settings where they have jurisdiction. For instance, there is considerable variation in the percent of poor people in a jurisdiction, the amount of violent and property crime, whether the area is rural or urban, and so on. These contextual characteristics are highly correlated with the structure and the size of the police department. Police officers who work in urban areas may face greater danger at work due to the higher levels of violent crimes, calls for service, and social disorder than their counterparts, and these contextual could contribute to their levels of stress (Oliver and Meier, 2004). It also might be that the more militaristic, bureaucratic, discipline-oriented nature of large urban departments results in stressors beyond what can be explained by workplace problems (Kroes, 1986).

Some researchers have focused on the effect of organizational characteristics of the police department, especially the size and location of the police department (Brooks and Piquero, 1998; Crank and Caldero, 1991; Gaines et al., 1991; Oliver and Meier, 2004; Regoli et al., 1989), on stress. Regoli et al. (1989), for example, found that in large departments, officers might lose control, and this could contribute to stress. They also found that, in smaller agencies, more informal relationships between community members and officers and between superiors and subordinates might lead to less stress. Similarly, Gaines et al.
(1991) argued that police officers in large departments were especially stressed because they thought the agency was self-serving and unresponsive. More recently, Oliver and Meier (2004) found that the larger the department, the higher the levels of stress. Therefore, the level of crime and disorder and the characteristics of departments might predict stress. Because female and male police work in different types of police organizations and different types of communities, these features of the work context must be considered in the examination of gender differences in predictors of police stress.

Research has shown that women consistently report higher levels of psychological and physical stress than their male co-workers (see Derogatis and Savitz, 1999). It is certainly plausible that the organizational environment in the law enforcement field may have a similar effect on levels of work-related stress reported by male and female officers. Additionally, research involving women working in other non-traditional occupations, like steel mills and mailrooms, has shown that females working in these environments may experience hostility that may elevate reported levels of stress (Walshok, 1981). Furthermore, research has also shown that males and females have different viewpoints on what is stressful (Stotland, 1991) and how to cope with stress when it becomes problematic (Barnett et al., 1987). These differences may also exist among law enforcement officers.
2.2 WORK-LIFE BALANCE

The literature of work–life balance is full of discussion about the lack of effective policies, under utilization of work–life balance programs, job satisfaction, performance management, organizational commitment, productivity and other related concepts.

The most important form of flexible work arrangement used in organization is four days a week. It supports mothers, but at a cost because of gendered assumptions. The gendered construction of the ideal worker and ideas of competence conflated with hegemonic masculinity, remain powerful. Indian organizations have to do a lot to treat work-life balance practices as strategic aspect of organizational performance and effectively communicate about the availability of different work-life balance practices; further family contributes extensively to work in terms of enhancing performance and positive emotions at workplace. Firms that adopt better work life balance policies can improve the level of job satisfaction and increase organizational commitment among their employees, Bloom and Van Reenen (2006). Professionals viewed flexible workplace schedules as a key to employee retention and placed this working condition at the top in order to control employee attrition Burke & Collinson (2004). These are some causes for work-life imbalance. Employees seem to be more effective when they are engaged and encouraged to participate and given an opportunity to speak hoping their work-life balance concerns can be expressed and hopefully addressed Pyman, Cooper, Teicher & Holland, (2006).
Officers who support and encourage employees’ attempts to coordinate work and family demands reported several positive outcomes. Such employees felt less work/family conflict and at the same time reported less turnover, burnout, absenteeism and increased organizational commitment. Ray & Miller (1994), and Thomas & Ganster (1995).

**Studies on work–life balance**

Bloom and Van Reenen (2006) found that work family conflict can also have negative impact on the organization, both financial and non-financial-wise. Organizations which offer better work life balance practices enjoyed higher productivity. As far as non-financial aspects of organizational performance is concerned, research shows that firms that adopt more better work life balance policies can improve the level of job satisfaction and increase organizational commitment among their employees.

Payman, Cooper, Teicher & Holland, (2006) employees seem to be more effective when a combination of different form is present. The better the employee is engaged and encouraged to participate is associated with better organizational commitment and job satisfaction. When employees are given an opportunity to speak they feel more satisfied, hoping their work-life balance concerns can be expressed and hopefully addressed.

Perrons (2003) examines that emergence of new technologies and patterns of working will possibly reduce
gender inequality by allowing more people with caring responsibilities to get involved in paid work.

White et al (2003) suggested a conflict between high performance practices and work-life balance. Surprisingly, the study indicates that dual-earner couples are not accountable to negative job-to-home spillover. Further, the presence of young children has become less important over time.

Hill et al (2001) A study showed that individuals with the same workload and with perceived job flexibility enjoy good work-life balance and are capable of working longer hours before workload negatively impacts their work-life balance.

Bachmann (2000) found that work arrangements such as flexi time, telework etc is depicted as an important factor of an individual work preference towards work time. There is a suggestion that such work arrangements will help the employee attain a better blend between their work and non-work activities. This will help the organizations recruit, retain and motivate their work force.

Research findings show that work-life balance practices help employees manage their work and family better (Thomas and Ganster, 1995) and enhance their approach and behaviors such as organizational attachment (Grover and Crooker, 1995), job satisfaction (Koseek and Ozeki, 1998). Availability of work-life balance practices reduces employee absenteeism (Dex and Scheibl, 1999). These practices are increasingly being considered as strategic, innovative, crucial and progressive (Perry-Smith and Blum, 2000) worldwide. Ray & Miller (1994), Thomas & Ganster (1995) found that there is an association between family-friendly work environments and others factors
of interest including turnover, absenteeism, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Such employees felt less work/family conflict and at the same time reported less turnover, burnout, absenteeism and increased organizational commitment.

Frone and colleagues found that work-family conflict was positively related to both job and family dissatisfaction, which were positively related to general psychological distress (i.e., combined symptoms of depression and anxiety), that was in turn positively related to heavy drinking. Frone and colleagues found that work-family conflict was positively related to alcohol problems only among people with strong tension-reduction expectancies (e.g., people who believe that drinking leads to relaxation and alleviates negative emotions).

Bardoel et al. The identified themes were grouped in eight categories, i.e., organization approaches to work life and work family issues, work characteristics, occupations/industries, government policy and legislation, health outcome issues related to work life, family structure and children, gender and other additional themes. In order to have a justified and in-depth review of the literature, the studies have been classified under the following headings:

• Work family conflict/work life balance studies
• Individual related variables and Work life balance/work family conflict
• Family related variables and Work life balance/work family conflict
• Work related variables and Work life balance/work family conflict
• Family and Work related variables and Work life balance / work family conflict
• Outcomes of work family conflict/work life balance

1. Work family conflict / work life balance studies
Some researchers like Gutek et al. (1991), Frone et al. (1992a), Williams and Alliger (1994), Eagle et al. (1997), Frone et al. (1997), Hammer et al. (1997), Hsieh et al. (2005), Wesley and Muthuswamy (2005), Kinnunen and Mauno (2007) and Rajadhyaksha and Ramadoss (2010) have focused on assessing work family conflict/ work life balance among employees in various settings and also identified the direction of spillovers. Gutek et al. (1991) conducted a study using two separate samples of employed people with families, a systematically selected sample of psychologists and a volunteer sample of managers. The findings indicated that the two types of perceived work family conflict (work interference with family and family interference with work) were clearly separable and relatively independent of each other. The people perceived less family interference with work than work interference with family.

Frone et al. (1992a) also found that work to family conflict is more prevalent than family to work conflict, suggesting that family boundaries are more permeable to work demands than are work boundaries to family demands. Williams and Alliger (1994) also found that work interfered with family more than family interfered with work in a study of 41 full time working
parents (13 men and 28 women). Eagle et al. (1997) found that work and family boundaries were asymmetrically permeable with work to family conflict being significantly more prevalent than family to work conflict.

2. Work-life balance/work family conflict

A number of individual variables, viz. gender, age, marital status, emotional intelligence, etc. affecting/related to work life balance/work family conflict have been studied.

Studies by Gutek et al. (1991), Williams and Alliger (1994), Higgins et al. (1994), Loscocoo (1997), Aryee et al. (1999b), Grzywacz et al. (2007), Rajadhyaksha and Velgach (2009) reported gender differences with respect to work family conflict. Gutek et al. (1991) indicated that women reported more work interference in family than men, despite spending about the same number of hours in paid work as men. Although women spent more hours in family work than men, they reported the same level of family interference in work. Williams and Alliger (1994) found that spillover of unpleasant moods occur both from work to family settings and from family to work though evidence for the spillover of pleasant moods was weak. Both family to work and work to family spillovers were stronger for women than men. Further, it was found that extent to which work interfered with family for a given day was found to be positively related to self reported job involvement for that day. Extent to which family interfered with work on a given day was found to be positively related to distress in family roles during the day, family intrusion into work during the day and self reported family involvement for that day.
Rajadhyaksha and Velgach (2009) also found that women experienced significantly higher family interference with work as compared to men. However there were no significant differences between men and women in the experience of work interference with family.

A number of studies reported relationship between work centrality/ work salience / job involvement and work life balance/work family conflict. Greenhaus et al. (1989) found work salience to be a strong predictor of work family conflict for the women, but found it to be unrelated in the case of men. Williams and Alliger (1994) also found that extent to which work interfered with family for a given day was found to be positively related to self reported job involvement for that day.

Aryee and Luk (1996) in a study of 207 dual earner couples in Hong Kong found that men significantly identified more with the work role, had more experience in the workforce, and perceived more spouse support. In contrast, women significantly, identified more with the family role, had main responsibility for childcare, spent more time per week with the children and perceived more need for family responsive policies. In addition, the results revealed that women balance their work and family identity by trading off one for the other. In contrast, men are able to simultaneously identify with work and family roles. Hammer et al. (1997) found that higher levels of work involvement were related to higher levels of work family conflict (WFC).
3. Family related variables and work life balance/ work family conflict

Family related variables such as spouse support, spouse work hours, couple’s employment status, number of children, parental responsibilities, and home responsibilities have been studied in relation to work life balance/conflict. Suchet and Barling (1986) in a study of inter role conflict, spouse support and marital functioning found that support from one’s husband may assist employed mothers cope with their own inter role conflict, as husbands’ supportive behaviour and attitude might help in reducing the opposing role demands on, and unrealistic role expectations of employed mothers.

Loerch et al. (1989) examined the relationships among family domain variables and three sources of work family conflict (time, strain and behaviour based) for both men and women. Family domain variables examined included time based (number of children, spouse work hours per week, couple’s employment status) strain based (conflict within family, spouse support, quality of experience in spouse or parent role) and behaviour based antecedents, family intrusions (parental, marital, home responsibilities) and role involvement. The results indicated that the time based antecedents (number of children, spouse work hours, couple’s employment status) were not significantly related to any form of work family conflict for men or women. Strain based antecedent, conflict within family, was found to have a positive relationship with work family conflict. However, the negative relationship of other strain based antecedents (spouse support, quality of spouse and parental
experiences) and work family conflict was not supported. The behaviour based antecedent, role congruity, was not significantly related to any form of work family conflict. The variable of role involvement significantly predicted only the time based conflict for men.

From the studies reported above, it can be concluded that higher the parental demands higher is the work family conflict and higher the spouse support, lower is the work family conflict.

4. Work related variables and work life balance /work family conflict

Relationship between work related variables, viz. task variety, task autonomy, task complexity, role conflict, work schedule flexibility, number of hours worked and work life balance/work family conflict have been studied.

The studies by Greenhaus et al. (1989), Voydanoff (2004), Butler et al. (2005) found task autonomy to be associated with work family conflict. Greenhaus et al. (1989) examined different types of work domain pressures as sources of work family conflict among two career couples. The results showed that work role stressors (role conflict and role ambiguity) accounted for a significant portion of the variance in time based and strain based conflict for both men and women. The task characteristics (autonomy and complexity) were found to be associated with work family conflict and were somewhat stronger for women than for men. Work schedule characteristics were found to be generally unrelated to work family conflict. Among women, it did not explain significant
portion of variance in either time based or strain based conflict and among men, it was related to only strain based conflict.

Work schedule flexibility has been found to be negatively associated /related with work life balance / work family conflict. Higher the flexibility lower is the work family conflict. In other words, higher the work schedule flexibility, higher is the work life balance. Hill et al. (2001) examined the perceived influence of job flexibility in the timing (flex time) and location of work (flexplace) on work family balance. The results indicated that paid work hours were strongly and negatively correlated and perceived flexibility was strongly and positively correlated with work family balance. It was also found that employees with perceived flexibility in timing and location of work could work longer hours before work family balance became difficult.

Schieman and Glavin (2008) examined the effects of schedule control and job autonomy on two forms of work home role blurring: receiving work related contact outside of normal work hours and bringing work home. It was found that schedule control and job autonomy were associated more positively with work home role blurring in the form receiving work related contact, and these patterns were much stronger for men. Schedule control was associated positively with bringing work home among men only, whereas job autonomy was associated positively with bringing work home, similarly for men and women. It was also found that schedule control and job autonomy are negatively associated with work to home conflict. However, the negative effects of schedule control and job autonomy were slightly correlated by their positive associations with work home role blurring. In analysis of interaction effects, it
was observed that positive association between receiving work related contact and work to home conflict was positive and significant among workers who had lower levels of job autonomy. Further, bringing work home was associated positively with work to home conflict among individuals who reported more schedule control.

A number of studies reported negative correlation between the work hours and work family conflict. White et al. (2003) analyzed the effect of selected high performance practices (appraisal systems, group-working practices, performance related pay) and working hours on work-life balance. The results showed that negative job-to-home spillover increased with additional hours worked and to a similar degree for both men and women. High performance practices were also found to be a source of negative spillover. It was further found that taking part in a flexible hour system significantly reduced negative spillover for women but not for men. Working from financial necessity was found to be significantly linked to negative spillover for women. Dual earners reported less negative spillover than those in single earner situations. Frye and Breaugh (2004) found that the number of work hours, the use of family- friendly policies, and reporting to a supportive supervisors were predictive of work-family conflict. Family friendly policies and reporting to a supportive supervisor were found to have negative correlation with work-family conflict whereas hours worked was positively related. With regard to family- work conflict, reporting to a supportive supervisor was predictive of such conflict and was negatively related to such conflict.
Macky and Boxall (2008) reported that employees working longer hours are slightly more likely to report a greater imbalance in the work life relationship. The five high involvement variables (i.e. power to make decision and act autonomously, information provision, rewards, knowledge of the job and team working) were found to be negatively correlated to work life imbalance. It was also found that increasing the availability of work life balance policies for employees did not improve the relationships when pressure to work longer hours was higher, and employees felt greater work life imbalance. Steiber (2009) found that time-based work demands were strongly associated with the experience of work-family conflict both among women and men. Long working hours, working non-day schedules or at weekends and having to work overtime at short notice (‘unpredictable work hours’) showed an aggravating effect on conflict, with long and unsocial hours being more strongly related to time based conflict than to strain based conflict. Strain-based work demands were also found to be instrumental in the creation of conflict. The more people felt that they have to work hard in their jobs (‘work pressure’), the higher was their perceived level of conflict. It was also found that a high degree of control over how one’s daily work is organised (‘job autonomy’) helped people to better co-ordinate the time demands of their work and family roles, though such an effect was found only for women. Further, a higher level of job skill was found to increase women’s and men’s feeling that their job prevented them from giving more time to their partners and families (time based conflict), and was also related to strain based conflict, i.e., the feeling that one is often too tired after
work to engage in non-work activities. Fuß et al. (2008) investigated predictors for work interfering with family conflict (WIF) which are located within the psychological work environment or work organization of hospital physicians (N=296). The results indicated that the positive predictors of WIF conflicts were the scales of quantitative demands (p<.01), number of days gone to work despite own illness (p<.01) and the frequency of postponing planned vacations and due to changes on the duty roster (p<.01). The results also indicated that high values of WIF were significantly correlated with high value of intention to leave, personal burnout and behavioural and cognitive stress symptoms. Negative relationships were found between WIF and life satisfaction, general health status and work ability.

Alam et al. (2009) explored the correlation between working hours and work family imbalance, for three focused groups, namely, teaching professionals and two groups from corporate houses. It was found that respondents working for 5-7 hours a day did not consider working hours as a factor to affect work and family balance. On the other hand, women managers in corporate sector, having long working hours (9-10 hours a day) agreed that time was a crucial factor for work family imbalance. The study approved the association between working hour and work family conflict. 99 per cent of women managers reported to have work family conflict because of 9 - 10 hours work every day, while only 20 per cent were involved in teaching reported so.

Further, Crosbie and Moore (2004) studied working from home and work life balance. Data was collected through
interviews and focus group discussions. 70% of those who took part were females. All of them carried out paid work at home for 20 hours or more per week. The study concluded that home working was not panacea for modern working life. Personality skills and aspirations should be given careful consideration by those who are thinking of working from home. Those who have tendency to work long hours outside the home might find that home life is even further marginalized by work life.

5. Family and work related variables and work life balance / work family conflict


Aryee (1992) examined the impact of five antecedent sets of work and family domain variables on three types of work-family conflict (job-spouse, job-parent and job-homemaker) and the impact of these types of work family conflict on well being and work outcome measures. Antecedents studied included life role salience, family stressors (parental demands, responsibility for household chores, lack of spouse support), work stressors (task variety, task complexity, task autonomy, role conflict, role overload, role ambiguity) and work schedule stressors (hours worked per week, work schedule inflexibility). Results indicated that married professional women in the study experienced
moderate amounts of each type of work-family conflict. It was found that number of hours worked per week rather than work schedule flexibility affects work family conflict. Role stressors explained the most variance in job spouse and job-homemaker conflicts while task characteristics explained the most variance in job-parent conflict. Task autonomy emerged as a negative and significant predictor of all three types of conflict. Task variety was positively and significantly related to job-parent and job-homemaker conflicts. Spouse support showed a significant negative relation with job-spouse conflict and parental demands were significantly positively related to job parent conflict. However, household responsibility was not found to be related to any type of conflict. The three types of work-family conflict explained only modest amount of the variance in the well-being and work outcome measures.

Saltzstein et al. (2001) used 1991 surveys of Federal Government Employees to test a theoretical framework regarding the relationships between work and family demands, family friendly policies, satisfaction with work family balance and job satisfaction for diverse groups of employees with different personal and family needs. The findings indicated that a variety of family friendly policies and practices were used to varying degrees by these diverse groups of employees. Further, the job related factors (job demands, job involvement) were found to be the most significant determinants of satisfaction with work family balance and job satisfaction. In addition, it was found that organizational understanding had more impact on both satisfaction with work family balance and job satisfaction than all family friendly policies. Reliance on
flexible scheduling was found to have no significant impact on work family balance or job satisfaction for most of sub population groups.

Kim and Ling (2001) studied the sources and types of work family conflict among 102 married Singapore women entrepreneurs. The antecedents studied included work hours, work schedule inflexibility, work stressors, number and age of children and family support. The outcomes studied included job satisfaction, life satisfaction and marital satisfaction. Results indicated that number of hours worked, work stressors (role conflict and worries about financial health of business) and work schedule inflexibility were positively related to work-family conflict. Spouse emotional and attitude support was found to have a significant negative relation with work family conflict. The outcome variables job satisfaction, marital satisfaction and life satisfaction were found to be negatively correlated to work-family conflict. Frye and Breaugh (2004) tested a model of antecedents (use of family friendly policies, supervisors support, number of hours worked, having child care responsibility) and consequences (job and family satisfaction) of work-family conflict and family work conflict. It was found that the number of work hours, the use of family-friendly policies and reporting to a supportive supervisor were predictive of work-family conflict. Family friendly policies and reporting to a supportive supervisor were found to have negative correlation with work-family conflict whereas hours worked was positively related. With regard to family-work conflict, having child care responsibility and reporting to a supportive supervisor were predictive of such conflict. Child care responsibility showed a
positive relation, while reporting to a supportive supervisor was negatively related to such conflict. The study also found that work family conflict was predictive of job satisfaction and family satisfaction. However, family work conflict predicted neither job satisfaction nor family satisfaction.

Kinnunen and Mauno (2007) examined the prevalence, antecedents and consequences of work family conflict. Family domain variables (presence of children and employment status of spouse) mainly explained the family to work conflict and explained 9% of variance for men and 22% for women. Work domain variables (full time job, poor leadership relations and low levels of job security) were found to be the best predictors of work to family conflict, but only for women. Family to work conflict was found to have negative consequences on family well being, and work to family conflict on the well being at home as well as at work. Studies by Higgins and Duxbury (1992), Aryee et al. (1999a), Milkie and Peltola (1999), Keene and Quadagno (2004) and Grzywacz et al. (2007) found that antecedents may differ with spouse employment status, culture or gender. Higgins and Duxbury (1992) examined the differences in the antecedents and consequences of work family conflict - for two groups of career oriented men: those with a homemaker wife (137, traditional career men) and those with a spouse in a career oriented job (136, dual career men). It was found that maternal career employment status had a significant effect on the antecedents of work-family conflict. Dual career men experienced greater work-family conflict due to conflict within the work domain as compared to traditional career men. As the work environment did not provide the
increased flexibility needed by dual career men to balance the increased role demands, these men were less able to cope up with work conflict as compared to traditional career men. However, the maternal career employment status was not found to have any impact on the extent to which work family conflict lowered quality of work life or quality of family life.

Aryee et al. (1999a) examined the cross cultural generalizability of model of work family interface given by Frone et al (1992b). The sample comprised of 320 respondents (91 women, 229 men) from six organizations in Hong Kong. The results showed a positive reciprocal relationship and a negative covariation between workfamily and family-work conflict in both the samples. However, it was found that as compared to US employees, work-family conflict more strongly influenced family-work conflict in the case of Hong Kong employees. Again, in the case of US sample, employee’s family involvement significantly influenced family-work conflict, while this relationship was not significant in the case of Hong Kong sample.

Milkie and Peltola (1999) found that women and men report similar levels of success in balancing work and family and kinds of work family tradeoffs. However, the tradeoffs reported by respondents were gendered. Longer working hours – negatively affected men’s sense of balance, but did so only marginally for women. For women who worked full time, work hours did not affect balance. It was also found that young children in the household had a negative impact on success in balancing paid work and family life for employed women but not for employed men. Again, sacrifices made at work affected men
more than women whereas scarifies made in the family affected women more than men.

Keene and Quadagno (2004) examined two issues, the relationships of work characteristics, family characteristics, and work family spillover to perception of work family balance and models of ‘gender difference’ vs. ‘gender similarity’ using 1996 General Social Survey (GSS), and 1992 National Study of the Changing Work Force (NSCW). The GSS analysis demonstrated that work demands such as the number of hours worked per week and work spillover into family life were the most salient predictors of feelings of imbalance for women and men, lending support to gender similarity model. The NSCW results supported gender difference model and indicated that when family demands reduced work quality, there was a decreased likelihood of perceived balance. However, men and women balance in gendered ways. Women reported more balance when they gave priority to family, men reported less balance when they had no personal time for themselves due to work and more balance when they made scheduling changes due to family.

Grzywacz et al. (2007) found that both the level and the antecedents of work to family conflict differed by gender. Greater physical workload as well as more frequent awkward postures and repetitive movements were correlated with greater work to family conflict among women. For men, greater skill variety and greater psychological demands were correlated with more work to family conflict.
6. Outcomes of work family conflict/ work life balance

A number of researchers like Adams et al. (1996), Duxbury and Higgins (2001), Martins et al. (2002), Fisher-McAuley et al. (2003), Schieman et al. (2003), Ezzedeen and Swiercz (2002), Grzywacz and Bass (2003), Sandhu and Mehta (2006), Pal and Saksvik (2007), and Haar and Bardoel (2008) found that work life balance/work family conflict affects job satisfaction, family satisfaction, life satisfaction, career satisfaction and job stress. Adams et al. (1996) found that relationships between work and family can have an important effect on job and life satisfaction and the level of involvement the worker assigns to work and family roles is associated with this relationship. Duxbury and Higgins (2001) examined the effects of three types of work family conflict – role overload (having too much to do), work to family interference and family to work interference on the organizational performance and quality of life of employees. It was found that work-life conflict had a negative impact on organizational performance and on employees. Employees who are overloaded or whose work interfered with family (vice-versa) were highly stressed, experienced burnout, expressed dissatisfaction with life, and were in poor mental/physical health.

Martins et al. (2002) examined the moderating effects of individual differences (gender, age, marital status, parental status) and sources of support (coworkers, community, financial resources) on the negative relationship between work-family conflict and career satisfaction. The results indicated that career satisfaction of women and that of elder individuals of
both genders was most adversely affected by work-family conflict. Whereas women’s career satisfaction was negatively affected by work-family conflict throughout their lives, men showed such adverse effects only later in career. It was also found that relationship was stronger for individuals who were in the minority gender in their work groups, but it was weaker for those who had strong community ties.

Fisher-McAuley et al. (2003) examined the relation between employees’ beliefs about having a balance between work and personal life, and the feeling of job stress, job satisfaction, and reasons why one might quit his/her job. The findings indicated that having a lack of work/life balance was an occupational stressor that leads to strains, including feeling of overall work strain, job dissatisfaction, non work related reasons for leaving and turnover intentions.

Schieman et al. (2003) undertook a study with three aims: (a) to test if home to work conflict is associated with symptoms of anxiety and depression among women and men (b) to determine if those effects are moderated by work qualities such as autonomy, routinization and nexiousness; and (c) to explore variation among those patterns by gender. The results showed that positive relationship between home to work conflict and both anxiety and depression were stronger when job autonomy was higher, although the effects were somewhat stronger for men. It was further found that positive relationship between home to work conflict and anxiety was significantly stronger when women occupied jobs with greater routinization. Ezzedeen and Swiercz (2002) found that cognitive intrusion of work results in lower job satisfaction, less happiness, a greater
incidence of work/life conflict, and more frequent burnout. It was also found that the experience of intrusion transcends demographics and personality, and is rooted instead in the design of the job and the organization culture of the employer.

Grzywacz and Bass (2003) studied the effects of work family conflict and work family facilitation on mental health among working adults. The higher levels of both work to family and family to work conflict were found to be associated with poor mental health. The results also showed the repeated protective effects of work family facilitation, particularly family to work facilitation. The work family facilitation contributed to “work family fit” by eliminating or offsetting the negative potential of work family conflict. Hence it was suggested that work family fit is more than the absence of conflict.

Sandhu and Mehta (2006) found that gender role attitude and spillover between work and family roles was the most important factor that affected the career of these women. It was also found that nature of organization and education had a significant impact on work family conflict.

Haar and Bardoel (2008) used structural equation modelling to test positive spillover. They found work family positive spillover was negatively associated with psychological distress and turnover intentions, while family work positive spillover was negatively associated with psychological distress, and positively associated with family satisfaction. The domain specific positive spillover was found to have the strongest effects on outcomes associated with the same domain (e.g. work family spillover to turnover intentions and family work spillover to family satisfaction). Bagger et al. (2008) examined
the interactive effects of family identity salience, family interference with work and gender on two outcome variables—job satisfaction and job distress. The results suggested that family identity salience acts as a buffer between family interference with work and job satisfaction and job distress. It was found that increase in family interference with work was related to more job distress and less job satisfaction, but only for those who were low on family identity salience. It was further seen that the buffering effect of family identity salience on the negative aspect of family interference with work on job satisfaction was stronger for women than for men.

Bhargava and Baral (2009) examined the antecedents and outcomes of work family enrichment. It was found that core self evaluations, family support and supervisor support were positively related to family-to-work enrichment whereas job characteristics (autonomy, skill variety, task identity, task significance) were positively related to work-to-family enrichment. Further, both family-to-work enrichment and work-to-family enrichment were found to be positively related to job satisfaction, affective commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. However, only family-to-work enrichment was found to be related to family satisfaction.

2.3 COPING STRATEGIES

Individuals who are affluent, healthy, capable, and optimistic are seen as resourceful and, thus, are less vulnerable toward the stress of life. It is of most importance to be competent to handle a stressful situation. But actual competence is not a
sufficient prerequisite. If the individual underestimates his potential for action, no adaptive strategies will be developed. Therefore, perceived competence is crucial. This has been labelled 'perceived self-efficacy' or 'optimistic self-beliefs' by Bandura (1992, 1995).

Behavioural change is facilitated by a personal sense of control. If people believe that they can take action to solve a problem instrumentally, they become more inclined to do so and feel more committed to this decision. While outcome expectancies refer to the perception of the possible consequences of one's action, perceived self-efficacy pertains to personal action control or agency (Bandura, 1992; Maddux, 1995; Wallston, 1994). A person who believes in being able to cause an event can conduct a more active and self-determined life course. This "can do"-cognition mirrors a sense of control over one's environment. It reflects the belief of being able to master challenging demands by means of adaptive action. It can also be regarded as an optimistic view of one's capacity to deal with stress.

Self-efficacy makes a difference in how people feel, think and act. In terms of feeling, a low sense of self-efficacy is associated with depression, anxiety, and helplessness. Such individuals also have low self-esteem and harbor pessimistic thoughts about their accomplishments and personal development. In terms of thinking, a strong sense of competence facilitates cognitive processes and academic performance. Self-efficacy levels can enhance or impede the motivation to act. Individuals with high self-efficacy choose to perform more challenging tasks. They set themselves higher
goals and stick to them (Locke & Latham, 1990). Actions are pre-shaped in thought, and people anticipate either optimistic or pessimistic scenarios in line with their level of self-efficacy. Once an action has been taken, high self-efficacious persons invest more effort and persist longer than those with low self-efficacy. When setbacks occur, the former recover more quickly and maintain the commitment to their goals. Self-efficacy also allows people to select challenging settings, explore their environments, or create new situations. A sense of competence can be acquired by mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, or physiological feedback (Bandura, 1992). Self-efficacy, however, is not the same as positive illusions or unrealistic optimism, since it is based on experience and does not lead to unreasonable risk taking. Instead, it leads to venturesome behaviour that is within reach of one's capabilities.

Ursin & Eriksen’s cognitive arousal theory of stress states that a person’s feelings of hopelessness, helplessness and inability to cope in stressful situations can trigger lower emotional health, which can potentially lead to feelings of frustration, deprivation or discontentment (Ursin & Eriksen, 2002). For example, if a person feels that he/she is not able to cope with stressful conditions this may invoke his/her feelings of dissatisfaction with job.

Bandura’s (1977) self-efficacy theory proposes that if a person has high self-efficacy (i.e. belief to his/her ability in executing a course of action) this will not invoke his/her negative cognitive thoughts. Application of this theory in a occupational stress model shows that if a person has high self-efficacy (i.e. belief to his/her ability to manage emotions) this
will effectively decrease his/her job stressors, and increase his/her emotional health and lower level of psychological stress. This situation can potentially result in higher job satisfaction (Antoniou et al., 2003; Mansor et al., 2003; Zhong et al., 2006).

Positive coping mechanisms are viewed to be the most appropriate way to decrease stress and avoid feelings of burnout. Additionally, it has been suggested that destructive coping strategies may further exacerbate levels of stress (Lazarus, 1990). Officers that use negative coping strategies face an increased likelihood of experiencing chronic stress that may ultimately result in loss of motivation, burnout, and an eventual withdrawal from police work (Hurrel, 1986; Maslach, 1976; Zhao et al., 2003). It has also been found that male and female officers may use different types of coping mechanisms (Haarr and Morash, 1999).

### 2.4 JOB SATISFACTION

Various researchers have defined the Job satisfaction construct differently. The term was brought to limelight by Hoppock (1935) who reviewed 32 studies on job satisfaction conducted prior to 1933 and observed that job satisfaction is a combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that cause a person to say, "I am satisfied with my job". Such a description indicates the variety of variables that influence job satisfaction but tell us nothing about its nature. Locke (1969, 1976) defined job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences".
In simple terms, job satisfaction explains what makes people want to come to work. What makes them happy about their job or not to quit their job? Nash (1985) has extensively reviewed the nature of job satisfaction in the industrial world and found that job satisfaction is attributed not only to one but many factors and varies in its impact on individuals satisfaction with life because work varies in importance from individual to individual. He also found that people who take their job as prime interest experience high level of job satisfaction. Their job satisfaction will be further enhanced if they are doing work that is utilizing their skills. He also found that job satisfaction is an indicator of employees’ motivation to come to work and it changes with age and employment cycle. He also concluded that certain organizational characteristics influence job satisfaction, and one of the major factors is the intrinsic nature of the job itself. An individual who genuinely likes the content of the job will be more satisfied with the job. In terms of preferences, he said that industrial workers want job with high pay, high security, promotional opportunities, fewer hours of work and friendly supervision. Finally, he found that if it demands considerable effort to get a job (through education, experience or achievement), if one can make a lot of money at it, if one cannot think of an alternative, then one should be highly satisfied with the job. He also stated in his findings that factors that influence job satisfaction differ from men to women in terms of importance of ranks. Generally, men rank security first, followed by advancement, type of work, company, pay, co-worker, supervision, benefits, and duration of work and then working condition. Whereas women rank type of work first,
followed by company, security, co-workers, advancement, supervision, pay, working condition, duration of work and then benefits.

2.4.1 The Relationship between Personal Factors and Job Satisfaction

Personal factors are divided into two subsections, namely, personal demographics, such as sex, age, and marital status, and work demographics, such as job level and years of experience.

A. Personal Demographics

i) Sex

The relationship between sex and job satisfaction has been extensively researched. However, the results have been mixed. Historically, it has generally been assumed that females express lower levels of job satisfaction than males (Hulin and Smith, 1976). Spector (2008) offered some reasons for this: (1) females were not likely to have managerial/professional jobs, (2) females may be happier with lower pay and less responsibility than men, and (3) females have lower expectations about what they will receive or because they compare themselves to other women who are in similar circumstances. However, some studies reported no relationship at all between sex and overall job satisfaction (for example, Ting, 1997; Oshagbemi, 2000; Donohue and Heywood, 2004). In police research, Brough and Frame (2004) found that neither sex nor rank was significantly related to job satisfaction among 400 New Zealand police officers.
Moreover, meta-analyses conducted by Witt and Nye (1992) found no differences between males and females.

With the increase in the number of women entering the work force, statistics around the world have shown that women have become increasingly economically active, and this trend is expected to continue (Clark, 1997). The past view of men as the main providers of family income no longer exists since the high cost of living means that men can no longer be the only source of financial support. As a consequence, it is important to examine the relationship between sex and job satisfaction afresh (Oshagbemi, 2000). More recent studies on job satisfaction have shown that women workers are more satisfied with their job than men (for example, Bender et al., 2005 and Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza, 2003). Likewise, the most common findings in the United States and Britain were that women reported greater job satisfaction than men (Clark, 1997).

In spite of some findings that, as discussed earlier, indicate that there are no differences in job satisfaction between men and women, a more in-depth analysis of the factors that constitute job satisfaction reveals differences in the impact that they have on the level of satisfaction according to sex (Robbins et al., 2003). The 'interpersonal relations' factor, for instance, was shown to influence job satisfaction in men, whereas this dimension was shown to be not significant in determining levels of job satisfaction in female workers. Contrarily, the 'work conditions' dimension was found to affect the level of job satisfaction in women, but had no impact in
men (García-Bernal et al., 2005). This may be explained by the notion of value-percept proposed by Locke (1976). That is, the important job facets for women are different from those for men, and the discrepancies between what is desired and received in the important job facets for men are bigger than those in the important job facets for women (Zeffane et al., 2008). Human resources policies, according to García-Bernal et al. (2005), should consider these differences in the determinants of job satisfaction between men and women in the workplace since the levels of job satisfaction in facets differ between these two groups. Indeed, studies are needed to re-test the effect of sex on work values, especially because of the differences between Middle Eastern and Western cultures in relation to work values of working women.

ii) Age

Studies based on life cycles and work stages suggest that determinants of job satisfaction change depending on the particular stage of the career. Although many studies have examined the relationship between age and job satisfaction, the results are contradictory. For instance, while numerous studies have reported a positive relationship between age and job satisfaction (for example, Al-Otaibi, 1992; Okpara, 2004; Ellickson and Logsdon, 2001), others have identified either no relationship (for example, Ting, 1997 and Reiner and Zhao, 1999) or even a significant negative relationship (Ganzach, 1998).

The question is, ‘Does job satisfaction change over the career lifespan?’ Researchers like Clark et al. (1996) refer to a U-
shaped relationship between age and job satisfaction. That is, the U-shaped curve results when the relation between job satisfaction and age starts high, declines and then starts to improve again. More specifically, when a worker joins an organisation, he may have some unrealistic assumptions about what he is going to derive from his work. These assumptions make him more satisfied. However, when these assumptions fall short of reality, job satisfaction goes down. It starts rising again as he starts to assess the job in the right perspective and corrects his assumptions.

Two large studies, one conducted in England (Clark et al., 1996) and the other in nine countries including the United States (Birdi et al., 1995), found a curvilinear relation between age and job satisfaction. Although it would seem tenable to suggest that there is consistent empirical evidence to show that there is a positive association between age and job satisfaction, Oshagbemi (2003) stated that the trend of this association, whether it is linear or curvilinear, remains unsettled.

iii) Marital Status

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

Other researchers like Dawal et al. (2008) and Leung et al. (2000) found that married employees were more satisfied with their jobs than were single or divorced or widowed employees. More specifically, Dawal et al. (2008) found married workers had higher levels of job satisfaction and were more committed and cooperative than were single workers. They suggested that the single workers might still be deciding on their career and this might impede job satisfaction.

iv) Educational Level

Another common personal factor that has been investigated is educational level. Indeed, research to examine the relationship between the level of education and job satisfaction has shown different findings. Some researchers found a positive relationship between education level and job satisfaction while others identified a negative connection. Other studies have shown little or no relationship between education and job satisfaction.

Several studies have reported that relationships between educational levels and job satisfaction are positive (for example, Al-Ajmi, 2001; Martin and Sheehan, 1989 and Okpara, 2004). Griffin et al. (1978) pointed out that employees with a higher educational level would tend to be more satisfied with their job than would employees with a lower educational level. For instance, workers who held a school certificate reported the lowest level of overall job satisfaction, whereas
workers with a college certificate reported the highest level of overall job satisfaction. Researchers have given various reasons, such as a lack of pay, fringe benefits and less favourable treatment by management, as contributing to lower satisfaction levels among those who hold a school certificate.

On the other hand, the findings of other studies have been that no significant relationship exists between job satisfaction and educational level (for example, Crossman and Abou-Zaki, 2003 and Scott et al., 2005). A study by Yim and Schafer (2008) into educational levels among police workers in a metropolitan police department in the Midwest of the USA did not detect any statistically significant differences in terms of lower and higher levels of education.

With regard to the negative relationship, a study by Al-Utaibi (1992) compared the job satisfaction of 222 Kuwaitis with that of 156 Arabs employed in eight government institutions and found that the relationship between job satisfaction and education was negative among the Kuwaiti employees. It also found that in both groups, the better educated employees were the least satisfied with their jobs. Researchers like Janssen (2001) and Johnson and Johnson (2000) argue that one possible reason why more highly educated employees show less satisfaction might be that highly educated people have very high expectations from their jobs, which usually remain unmet. Based on Maslow’s (1970) hierarchy of needs theory, those people are likely to have higher-order needs and the deprivation of these higher-order needs, such as esteem needs and self actualization needs, can seriously affect their satisfaction level. Another investigation into how education
affects job satisfaction found that average job satisfaction scores declined with education, although indirectly, education did have beneficial effects upon job satisfaction because of the greater pay involved.

B. Work Demographics

i) Job Level

Job level refers to various levels of organisational hierarchy. It includes supervisory/managerial levels, such as senior managers and top occupational levels (for example, the rank of medical consultant, academic professor and colonel) or non-supervisory/non-managerial levels, such as junior staff and assistant technicians.

It appears that job level is positively correlated with job satisfaction; that is, those at the higher end of the occupational scale reported higher satisfaction with various aspects of their work (Cranny et al., 1992; Bodur, 2002). Higher level jobs provide more satisfaction compared to lower level jobs. A meta-analysis examining the relationship between job level and job satisfaction using data from 35 independent samples and over 18,000 respondents concluded that as the job level increased so did job satisfaction (Robie et al., 1998). They stated that the positive correlation between rank and job satisfaction may be attributed to the fact that higher-level jobs tend to have better working conditions, pay, autonomy and prestige. This also can be applied for higher rank position. Oshagbemi (2000), in his study on United Kingdom academics’ job satisfaction, found a statistically significant association between pay and rank of employees and their level of job satisfaction.
Although job satisfaction is positively linked to an employee’s position within the company, a study by Mossholder et al. (1981) found that job satisfaction decreases with an increase in the job level. In contrast, Aronson et al. (2005) reported no relationship between job level and job satisfaction.

ii) Years of Experience

Years of experience refers to the time or number of years an employee has spent working for a specific organisation. The terms ‘job tenure’ and ‘years of experience’ are used interchangeably in the literature. Researchers suggest that employees’ years of experience are related to their job satisfaction and organisational commitment (for example, Dawal et al., 2008; Fosam et al., 1998). Employees' levels of job satisfaction would then increase after a number of years of service. According to some researchers, such as Clark et al. (1996) and Oshagbemi (2000), individuals with longer service may experience greater satisfaction since they have found a job that matches their needs. Similarly, a study by Al-Ajmi (2001) among 153 managers in the Kuwaiti oil industry from three different oil companies reported that the number of years of experience has a positive effect on job satisfaction. He found that managers with more than ten years' experience were more satisfied than managers with less experience.

Nevertheless, Clark et al. (1996) indicated that, in some cases, a longer tenure does not necessarily lead to increased levels of job satisfaction. For example, studies by Bedeian et al. (1992), and Nestor and Leary (2000), found no relationship between job satisfaction and years of experience. However, research conducted by Savery (1996) found a negative
relationship between longer tenure in a job and levels of job satisfaction. Researchers like Hom and Kinicki (2001) and Trevor (2001) highlighted possible factors, such as low job mobility and external labour market conditions, contributing to lower levels of job satisfaction.

As discussed with regards to the age factor, the years of experience factor was found to have a U-shaped relationship with job satisfaction in some studies. For example, Ronen (1978) highlighted that employees’ expectations are high at the time of appointment, but when these expectations are not met, the resultant effect leads to a drop in job satisfaction. As employees become more mature and experienced, their expectations will be more attainable, which results in increased job satisfaction. Oshagbemi (2000) attributed the increase in job satisfaction over the length of time to factors such as job stability and responsibility, autonomy and opportunities for promotion.

2.4.2 Job stress and satisfaction

The literature supports the view that work stress is associated with low levels of job satisfaction (Deborah et al., 1993; Fairbrother and Warn, 2003). Fletcher and Payne (1980) indicate that since a lack of satisfaction can be a source of stress, high levels of satisfaction can alleviate the effects of stress. Based on a meta-analysis of seven studies covering 2,659 individuals it was found that perceived stress has a strong negative relationship with job satisfaction (Kreitner et al., 2002). Stress can differ between occupations. Miner (1992) pointed out that job satisfaction is relatively low in stressful professions, such as the police and health-care workers.
Many researchers link work-related stress with the outcome of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and employee withdrawal behaviour (for example, Naumann, 1993; Sullivan and Bhagat, 1992). In addition, several studies have found that job stress is related to organisational change and have pointed out that a stressful work environment is negatively associated with a worker's level of job satisfaction (Spector, 1997; Terry et al., 1993). Moreover, job stressors were found to be predictive of job dissatisfaction and turnover (Cummins, 1990). Greenberg and Baron (1997) and Matteson and Ivancevich (1982) demonstrated that job stress has negative effects on the work place in the following ways: (1) a reduced performance efficiency, (2) a decreased capacity to perform the job well, (3) a dampened initiative and reduced interest in working, (4) a lack of concern for the organisation and colleagues, and (5) a loss of responsibility.

Nonetheless, stress is not always harmful, and a limited amount of stress can act as a stimulus, making the work more challenging, interesting, satisfying, and worthwhile. Stress begins to have a negative effect on an individual’s social, emotional, and work life only when it is at a high level over a relatively prolonged time. Therefore, when measuring job stress, an investigator should quantify the amount and duration of the stress in order to study the level of satisfaction at different levels of stress.

Spector (2008) states that role ambiguity and role conflict, usually referred to as role stressors, are the most studied stressors in occupational stress research. Researchers have shown that workers who have a clear understanding of their job
role feel less uncertain about the nature of their job and accommodate themselves with more ease and less error to their workplace (Spector, 1997). Role theory, as formulated by Katz and Kahn (1966), is composed of at least two parts: role ambiguity and role conflict.

(a) Role Ambiguity

Role ambiguity refers to individuals who are unclear about their job functions and responsibility (Spector, 2008). So as they grow older, they may become insecure or lose confidence in themselves (Armstrong, 2004). Examples of role ambiguity are a lack of clarity about the scope and responsibilities of the job and a lack of understanding of the correct role behaviour and performance evaluation. Role clarity is just the other face of the coin of role ambiguity. Spector (2008) stated that many supervisors fail to give their subordinates clear guidelines and directions, which in turn leads to a lack of clarity about what employees are supposed to do. Thus, clarifying the tasks of employees, and defining their job and place in the organisation in terms of authority and responsibility can reduce role ambiguity and eventually lead to increased job satisfaction (Drafke and Kossen, 1998).

(b) Role Conflict

Role conflict exists when people experience incompatible demands about their functions and responsibilities (Spector, 1997). Role consistency is the opposite of role conflict, where employees operate quite consistently. Role conflict consists of two components, namely, intra-role and extra-role conflict (Spector, 2008). Intra-role conflict arises from the number of demands on the employee. For instance, the employee may be
told two or three different things by two or three different supervisors, causing confusion and uncertainty about the job role (Eys and Carron, 2001). Extra-role conflict occurs due to demands from work and non-work domains. For example, conflict commonly occurs when employees have work-family conflicts along with the demands of the job (for example, if employees stay at work more than at home and a sick child requires the employee to be absent from work). As with role ambiguity, role conflict also has been associated with decreased job satisfaction (Spector, 2008; Rizzo et al., 1970).

Several studies have found that both role conflict and ambiguity are positively correlated with job dissatisfaction (for example, Jackson and Schuller, 1985; Kou sterilios et al., 2004). A meta-analysis, carried out by Jackson and Schuler (1985), revealed that higher levels of role ambiguity and role conflict are associated with lower levels of job satisfaction and higher levels of anxiety, tension and intention to quit the job.

Numerous studies found that job stress influences the employees' job satisfaction and their overall performance in their work. Because most of the organizations now are more demanding for the better job outcomes. In fact, modern times have been called as the “age of anxiety and stress” (Coleman, 1976). The stress itself will be affected by number of stressors. Nevertheless, Beehr and Newman (1978) had defined stress as a situation which will force a person to deviate from normal functioning due to the change (i.e. disrupt or enhance) in his/her psychological and/or physiological condition, such that the person is forced to deviate from normal functioning. From the definition that has been identified by researchers, we can
conclude that it is truly important for an individual to recognize the stresses that are facing by them in their career. Some demographic factor may influence the way a university academic staff act in their workplace.

Management role of an organization is one of the aspects that affect work-related stress among workers (Alexandros-Stamatios et. al., 2003). Workers in an organization can face occupational stress through the role stress that the management gave. Role stress means anything about an organizational role that produces adverse consequences for the individual (Kahn and Quinn, 1970). Management will have their own role that stands as their related. Role related are concerned with how individuals perceive the expectations other have of them and includes role ambiguity and role conflict (Alexandros-Stamatios et. al., 2003). Family and work are interrelated and interdependent to the extent that experiences in one area affect the quality of life in the other (Sarantakos, 1996). Home-work interface can be known as the overlap between work and home; the two way relationship involves the source of stress at work affecting home life and vice versa affects of seafaring on home life, demands from work at home, no support from home, absent of stability in home life. It asks about whether home problems are brought to work and work has a negative impact on home life (Alexandros-Stamatios G.A et al., 2003). For example, it questions whether the workers have to take work home, or inability to forget about work when the individual is at home. Home-work interface is important for the workers to reduce the level of work-related stress. According to Lasky (1995) demands associated with family and
finances can be a major source of ‘extra-organisational’ stress that can complicate, or even precipitate, work-place stress. Russo & Vitaliano (1995) argued that the occurrence of stressors in the workplace either immediately following a period of chronic stress at home, or in conjunction with other major life stressors, is likely to have a marked impact on outcome.

Several studies have highlighted the deleterious consequences of high workloads or work overload. According to Wilkes et al. (1998) work overloads and time constraints were significant contributors to work stress among community nurses. Halsted, Bromley, and Cochran (2000) assessed the effects of work orientations, namely community service vs. crime control functions, on police officer job satisfaction. Their findings suggest that officers with strong community service orientations are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs than are those officers more oriented toward crime control functions, while organizational characteristics are the best predictors of organizational commitment. According to Glisson and Durick (1988), it is important to understand certain job characteristics and how they affect behavioral outcomes. The characteristics of the job workers perform, the characteristics of organizations where they perform the job, and the characteristics of the workers performing the job all play a crucial role in job performance. Glisson and Durick define job task as the actual job performed and include characteristics such as skill variety, task significance, task ambiguity, and conflict. Organization characteristics include the work group size, budget, type of leadership, and the age of the organization. Worker characteristics refer to the individual’s years within the
organization, age, gender, education, and salary. Their findings indicate that the characteristics of job tasks are the best indicators of job satisfaction while organizational characteristics are the best predictors of organizational commitment (Glisson and Durick, 1988).

Finlay, Martin, Roman, and Blum (1995) suggest that some standardization measurements in job satisfaction studies do not differentiate between job characteristics such as job ambiguity, variety, and autonomy and organizational characteristics such as rule enforcement, openness of information flow, standardization procedures, and authority structure. To further understand the relationship between organizational structure and job satisfaction, the authors argue that it is important to separate measures of job characteristics from measures of organizational characteristics. Based on their efforts to do so, Finlay et al. (1995) found that organizational structure, with informal communication and loose chains of command, coupled with a management style that promotes teamwork as well as participatory decision-making, results in more productive and satisfied employees.

2.4.3 Job satisfaction among police officers

Research on job satisfaction among criminal justice personnel is relatively new compared with similar research conducted among employees in other occupations (Brough & Frame, 2004). These studies in general are inconclusive with variable results (Blau et al., 1986; Brough & Frame, 2004; Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2003; Cullen et al., 1993; Lambert, 2004; Lambert et al., 1999; Zhao et al., 2002; and Zhao et al., 1999). Job satisfaction associated with policing, for example,
has been examined within several different theoretical frameworks. Issues related to gender and race, are prominent in this body of literature. Female officers have been found to view their administrators and supervisors as unfair and less supportive of their efforts (Butler, Winfree, & Newbold, 2003). Dowler (2005) found that Black/African-American police officers were more likely to believe that they are perceived as militant by their fellow officers when they speak out about perceived racial problems, thus causing some reduction in overall job satisfaction.

Other job satisfaction studies associated with police officers reveal several interesting findings. Brough and Frame (2004) found that the amount of leave taken, along with no opportunity for advancement, were both negatively associated with job satisfaction. Zhao et al. (1999) found that police officers who rated higher on job dimensions such as skill variety, task significance, and autonomy viewed their work positively. Most officers believe that they perform a significant work and that they possess the necessary skills to accomplish their tasks. According to Zhao et al. (1999), supervision plays an essential role in improving the working environment of police officers, thus enhancing job satisfaction. Brough and Frame (2004) report the influence of insufficient supervisory support and a lack of ongoing training programs on job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Brough & Frame, 2004). Finlay et al. (1995) found that officers express a higher level of job satisfaction when their professionalism is recognized and when bureaucratic formalities do not impede their autonomy. Changes in the structural contexts and management practices
of police organizations are also believed to affect job satisfaction (Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2003).

Since the police have a considerable effect on society, police forces are now required to be multidimensional in terms of functions and structure in order to address the variants across the state (Clark, 2005). However, sometimes the nature of police work itself can produce stress and tension among police workers because they deal with unpredictable situations, such as daily hazards and global terrorism. Police workers are also constantly in the public eye and might be vulnerable to criticism whether from members of the public or from the media (Al Fadley, 1996). These challenges and difficulties tend to create various kinds of discomfort among police workers, which in turn affect their job satisfaction, performance and productivity. According to Al Fadley (1996), there could easily be a low level of satisfaction within police work since it involves unpopular activities such as crime prevention, apprehending criminals and law enforcement.

Miner (1992) indicates that police work is commonly classified as a high stress occupation because of the physical danger, conflict, and shift work involved. However, Malloy and Mays (1984) conducted a large meta-analysis and found that although law enforcement is a stressful occupation, it is no more stressful than many other occupations. Chandler (1990) does not agree that police work is one of the most stressful occupations, but he admits that there is a stress problem in police work, such as weak management, low motivation and low morale. Chandler (1990) concluded, after reviewing many studies, that the way police forces manage their officers is less
competent than management found in industry. Similarly, Davey et al. (2001) argue that the police sector is one of the most stressful occupations not only because of the nature of police work, but also as a result of many other influences associated with the work environment; for example, stress can be caused by poor management, poor supervision, low pay and so on. Likewise, Territo and Vetter (1981), in reviewing previous studies, found many sources of police stress, such as pay, supervision and recognition, which have been found to be major factors in constructing the overall level of job satisfaction. Furthermore, Hart et al. (1995) carried out a study in Australia among 527 police officers to evaluate the idea that police work is a highly stressful occupation. It indicated that organisational experience or management practice, which includes factors such as supervision, participation in management, and recognition for work well done, is the key factor in determining the overall level of job satisfaction.

Over the past few decades, particularly in democratic countries, police forces have experienced significant change and innovation in terms of management and technological issues (Bayley, 1994; Weisburd and Braga, 2006). Like other public sector entities, police forces have implemented management reform including policies and strategies aimed at improving organisational performance overall (Cope et al., 1997; O'Connell and Straub, 2007). Such policies and procedures include incentive and rewards policies, hiring professional staff in many fields, training for new recruits, implementing staff diversity, effective communication, developing performance appraisals, providing career paths and
job descriptions for all job levels, and dealing with staff complaints and grievances (O'Connell and Straub, 2007). These management reforms have shifted the organizational focus onto employees’ needs (that is, if the job does not meet the employee's expectations or values or fulfill their needs, job dissatisfaction may result). Jones et al. (2005: 52), for instance, maintain that the attitudes of police officers will decline if a job “does not live up to the employee's expectations, and if the organisational characteristics and values do not reflect that of the individuals”. It is important to recognise that the majority of police officers who resign “experienced conflict and a state of dissonance when their experiences…were contradictory to their sense of self and their cognitions about what police work should be” (Haarr, 2005:449). Thus, achieving employees' job satisfaction is one of the new strategies that can build a healthy organisation and improve the psychological well-being of police officers (Violanti and Aron, 1994).

Human resources are an important asset in police sectors, in their aim to have effective crime prevention and control, are highly dependent on the performance efficiency of their employees. The drive for efficiency has resulted in police forces making improvements in many areas to increase the satisfaction among their employees since employee satisfaction is an important driver of customer satisfaction. It is believed that improving levels of job satisfaction leads not only to an improvement in police workers' performance, but also to an improvement in the ability of the police force to achieve its goals.
2.4.3 Theoretical evidence supporting the relationship between occupational stress and job satisfaction

The notion of these theories is consistent with the notion of occupational stress theory. For example, Harrison’s (1978) person environment (P-E) fit model, and Karasek and Theorell’s (1990) job demand-control model state that individuals who have experienced high work demands with low work-control will have difficulties to meet the job demands, this may lead to increased occupational strains.

Lazarus’s (1994) transactional stress model explains that inability of individuals’ cognitive processes and emotional reactions to manage strain environments may lead to increased occupational tensions. Spector and Goh’s (2001) emotion-centered model of occupational stress posits that individuals who feel stressful when exposing with an event in particular environments may experience occupational strains. Cannon-bard theory of emotion (Cannon, 1927) states that, a person who experiences physiological stress (e.g., heart attack), may simultaneously experience psychological stress (e.g., mental illness). Then, the concept has been expanded by Mueller and Maluf (2002) to establish a physical stress theory, which posits that the level of one’s physical stress will determine the person’s predictable biological response. For instance, a person who can habitually reduce his/her level of physical stress will be more experience a positive biological response compared to a person who often has high level of physical stress. This situation may lead to higher job satisfaction (Swanson et al., 1998’ Stacciarini et al., 2004).