A Study of Motivation and Job Satisfaction in the Brunei Civil Service

Thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the University of Leicester

by

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Dedicated to

My father, Haji Basir bin Abd Rahman

and

My late mother, Hajah Tijah binti Durahman
Abstract

This thesis examines the inadequacies of the theories of motivation and job satisfaction. It argues that the current motivation and job satisfaction theories are culturally biased and more suitable for individualist than collectivist cultures. In addition, they tend to downplay the effects of organisational structure on motivation and job satisfaction. Through a literature review, the author illustrates how and why the application of the need, process, intrinsic and extrinsic theories of motivation in the collectivist cultures is problematic. In addition, she examines the roles of organisational structure and design in influencing motivation and job satisfaction and argues that the way an organisation is structured can have an impact on employee’s motivation and job satisfaction. To strengthen her arguments, she has used empirical evidence from the study of motivation and job satisfaction among the Brunei Civil Servants. The thesis also assesses the suitability of Western measurements of motivation and job satisfaction more specifically the Job Diagnostic Survey and Job Design Index, and their possible applicability in Brunei. The findings suggest that the applicability of these instruments in the Bruneian cultural context is very limited.
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Chapter 1 - INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

INTRODUCTION

The literature on motivation and job satisfaction is abundant. Cooper and Robertson (1986) stated that probably no other subject has received more attention in the journal and textbook of organisational behaviour, and twenty four years ago, Locke reported that there were at least 3,000 different studies on Job Satisfaction alone. Despite their popularity, the theories of motivation and job satisfaction are not flawless. This study examines the deficiency of these theories. The central argument in this study is that the current motivation and job satisfaction theories are culturally biased and more suitable for individualist than collectivist cultures. In addition they overlook the impact that an organisational structure and design could have on employees' motivation and job satisfaction.

THE AIMS OF THE STUDY

1. To examine and highlight the inadequacies of motivation and job satisfaction theories in the light of cultural environments. This is achieved through a critical review of literature including past and current research on the application of motivation and job satisfaction theories across cultures. A study on the Brunei Civil Servants is used to demonstrate the limitations of the theories.

2. To explore the influence of organisation design and structure on employees' motivation.
By examining organisation theories and structure, the author intends to (a) identify how organisations that are designed on the basis of the Scientific Management, Bureaucracy, and the Human Relation theories facilitate motivation and job satisfaction (b) explore the possible impacts of tall and flat structure on motivation and job satisfaction, and (c) examine the influence of socio-cultural factors on organisation structure. A case study on Brunei is used as an example of how culture and the way the society is structured shapes people’s need and behaviour.

3. To explore the Bruneian socio-cultural environments and their impact on the behaviour and work attitudes of the Brunei Civil Servants.

Brunei is situated in South East Asia. The Bruneians are likely to share most of the cultures and values with their Asian counterparts. This study attempts to identify the characteristics that are perceived as important in shaping employees’ behaviour in Brunei and how the process takes place.

4. To provide a qualitative assessment on the suitability of the Job Diagnostic Survey and the Job Design Index as measurements of motivation and job satisfaction in Brunei.

Job Diagnostic Survey and Job Design Index are two well established and widely used instruments in measuring motivation and job satisfaction. They have been tested and in principle they have proven to be valid and reliable. However, like the theories of motivation and job satisfaction, these instruments were designed in America. Thus, there is a tendency that the questions in the questionnaires are more suitable for American audiences or respondents than those in other cultures. This
study assesses the extent to which these instruments can reveal the motivation and job satisfaction of the Bruneian employees. The proposal on the (un) suitability of these instruments in Brunei will be based on this assessment.

BACKGROUND

Culture

A review of literature suggests that socio-cultural environments could influence motivation and job satisfaction. They determine what specific need would be salient at work, what would people expect from work, and what behaviours are culturally approved or disapproved in specific work situations (Kanungo and Mendoca, 1994).

Culture has been defined in a number of ways depending on the context in which it is studied. For instance, Kroeber and Kluckholm (1952) studied 165 different definitions of culture but none of them are regarded as "the standard definition". This study uses the definition proposed by Hofstede because it provides a useful guideline in the attempt to understand why employees behave the way they do in an organisation. Hofstede (1980) defined culture as the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group from another...the interactive aggregate of common characteristics that influence a human group’s responses to its environment. The implications of this definition are:

(1) Culture is formed collectively and normally passed from older to younger generation or members.
(2) It distinguishes one society from another.

(3) It shapes the values, perception, attitudes, and behaviour of people in organisations. Thus the interaction among perceptions, attitudes, values and behaviour of people gives a reflection of the cultural orientation of the society.

Moreover, Hofstede (1980) classified national culture into individualism/collectivism\textsuperscript{1}, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity/femininity.

\textbf{Individualism/collectivism} dimension measures the extent to which people prefer to remain emotionally independent from others. In cultures where individualism predominates, such as in the West, people belong to loose social frameworks. In such a culture, the primary concern of people is for themselves and their immediate families. An individual makes his or her own decision. Even children are taught to make their own choices, form their own opinions and solve their own problems. In the culture where individualism predominates, self realisation is given precedence over group well being, and self advancement is encouraged over group harmony (Blum, 1997). Social behaviour is largely determined by personal goals that overlap only slightly with the goals of collectives, such as the family and work groups (Triandis, 1994). When a conflict arises between personal

\textsuperscript{1} Among these dimensions, individualism and collectivism are the most popular topics in cross-cultural studies. This could be due to the fact that by using such a categorisation, one could see the difference between two cultures (ie Western and Eastern) clearly. Following Hofstede’s findings, other researchers such as Triandis (1981, 1986, 1989,1990); Hui (1986), Markus and Kitayama (1991, 1994), Trompenaars (1993) and Smith and Bond (1993), helped to enrich the development of this cultural dimension.
and group goals, it is acceptable for a person in an individualist culture to place personal goals ahead of collective goals. In such cultures, it is seen as hypocritical to fail to act according to personal desires and attitudes, and accommodating others is perceived as giving in to the external pressures and failing to be one’s true self. Pleasure, winning the competition, individual achievement, freedom, and autonomy are parts of the individualist’s values. In summary, people in the individualistic national cultures tend to have the following attitudes:

- “I” is more important than “we”.
- People are identified by their personal traits.
- Success is associated with personal achievement. People tend to be more productive when working alone than in groups.
- People have the freedom to seek autonomy, pleasure and security through their own efforts.
- People should do their own things, and take care of their personal well being.

The opposite of individualism is collectivism. In collectivist cultures, social frameworks are tightly knitted. An individual depends strongly on extended family and group. Collectivism is dominant in Asia and the East. In such countries, the expectation is that people should put the group ahead of their own interest and needs for the benefit of the group. In other words, group welfare is more important than personal interest. A great emphasis is put on maintaining harmony in the relationship
with others. Such values as security, obedience, reciprocity, duty, in-group harmony, hierarchy and personalised relationship are important to collectivists. Social behaviour is determined by group goals to a large extent. Thus, decisions are normally made collectively rather than individually. The most distressful experience for a collectivist is being excluded from the in-group. Triandis (1989) found that people in such cultures are associated with homogeneity of affects. How a group member feels would affect the feelings of other members. In the collectivist cultures, the following attitudes are common.

- "We" is more important than "I".
- People are identified by the characteristics of the group they represent.
- Success is a group achievement. People give their contributions to the group, and group efforts lead to high productivity.
- Everyone should belong to a group that secures members wellbeing in exchange for loyalty.

**Power distance** indicates the extent to which a society is willing to accept unequal distribution of power between leaders and followers in organisation.

Americans tend to be low on power distance cultural orientation. Asian cultures, on the contrary, are associated with great power distance. Based on Hofstede's findings, collectivism is positively linked to high power distance while individualism is related to low power distance. In a culture with a high power distance, leaders earn respect and power for being 'leaders'.

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2 The term "group" refers to "ingroup" (for instance extended family, co-workers, social organisations) rather than "outgroup" (for example people from different organisation).
Titles are normally used, and power holders are considered to be entitled to their privileges. Organisation structure tends to be tall, highly centralised with a relatively large population of white collar employees. In such cultures, people believe the following:

- Superiors and subordinates should recognise the status difference.
- Power is one of the basic facts of society.
- Power holders are entitled to special rights and privileges

In cultures with low power distance, people believe strongly in equality and try to minimise inequality in society. In such a culture, a leader is not respected for his or her position as “the boss” but for his or her technical abilities. Organisational structures tend to be less centralised, relatively flatter with a smaller number of supervisory personnel. People tend to hold the following beliefs:

- Superiors should perceive subordinates as “people just like me” and vice versa.
- Power could be good or evil depending on the purposes for, and consequences of, its use.
- Every individual in the society has equal rights and these rights should be enforced.

**Uncertainty avoidance** measures the extent to which people are uncomfortable with uncertainty and prefer predictability and stability. In a culture where there is high uncertainty avoidance, people tend to be concerned with security and avoid conflict. Rule and regulations are not only accepted but expected. Job security is placed high on an employee’s priority
list. In brief, the attitudes of people in countries with high uncertainty avoidance are:

- The uncertainty inherent in life is threatening and therefore it should be avoided at all cost.
- Having a stable and secure life is important.
- Deviant persons or ideas are dangerous.
- Conflicts and competition should be avoided.
- Written rules and regulations are needed to ensure predictability.

In contrast, a culture with low uncertainty avoidance is more tolerant of ambiguity, uncertainty, and conflict. People are willing to take risk. Payment by results or performance related pay is suitable for an organisation operating in such a culture. The common beliefs in a country with low uncertainty cultural orientation are:

- Life is inherently uncertain, therefore people should deal with it one day at a time.
- An individual should be prepared to take risks in life.
- Deviation from the norms is acceptable and not threatening.
- There should be as few rules as possible.

**Masculinity/femininity** indicates whether the society is biased towards "masculine" values of assertiveness and materialism, and competitiveness or "feminine" values of nurturing. In a masculine culture, material gain and achievement are emphasised. In such cultures, people tend to believe the following:
- Roles between men and women should be differentiated; men are intended to lead and women to follow.
- People live in order to work.
- Ambitions and assertiveness provide the motivation behind behaviour.
- People admire an achiever.

A feminine culture emphasises on relationships and concern for others. In such cultures, people believe the following:

- The role of gender in the society should be fluid.
- The quality of life is more important than personal performance.
- People work in order to live.
- Helping other people provides the motivation behind the behaviour.

Following Hofsetede’s individualism/collectivism model, Markus and Kitayama (1991) developed the concept of “Independent” and “Interdependent” self. They asserted that in the United States and most Western countries where individualism predominates, people see themselves as independent, distinct, autonomous, and separate from others both physically and psychologically. The imperative norm in such countries is to discover, express, and develop one’s unique attributes. An American proverb says “the squeaky wheel gets the grease”. It suggests that success is measured on the basis of one’s ability to perform better than others. In addition, an individual is expected to feel free to do his or her own thing. In America, children were taught to be independent and be able to look after themselves even at an early stage of their lives. As for instance, babies sleep in
their own rooms. In Asia, such as Japan, young children sleep with their parents. In organisational context, "self regulation" and "self control" practices reflect the independent concept of self.

In the East, interdependent self concept is dominant. People see themselves as interdependent and interconnected. This view of self stresses that a person is not separated from others. In such cultures, people are motivated to find a way to fit in and to fulfil obligations to the significant others. They are principally oriented towards maintaining harmonious functioning of the social entities. In such a culture, an assertive, autonomous and self centred person is considered as "immature" and "uncultivated." In Asia, the importance of conforming to the norm is reflected in a Japanese proverb which says "the nail that sticks out should be hammered down" and in Brunei, a deviant is regarded as "a drop of indigo that spoils a bucket of milk".

In 1993 Trompenaars identified five cultural dimensions namely universalism/particularism, individualism/collectivism, neutral/affective relationship, specific/diffuse, and achievement/ascription. The findings of his research on managers from 28 different countries, he found that people in Eastern and Asian countries were high on particularism and collectivism, have a tendency to view relationships as neutral and diffused, and put a great emphasis on ascription rather than achievement.

*Universalism/particularism* shows the extent to which people are prepared to choose friendship or relationship over rules and facts. In the Eastern cultures, where particularism predominates, relationships are considered to be more important
in considering what is right and good than abstract rules. In America, people tend to believe that rules can be applied universally and that following such rules is more important than maintaining the relationships.

Individualism/collectivism index measures the extent to which people are willing to pursue personal goals over group goals. This cultural dimension is similar to individualism/collectivism index in Hofstede’s model.

Neutral/specific relationship continuum is concerned with the different ways that cultures choose to express emotions. People in neutral cultures are less likely to show emotions in the workplace because doing so is considered as “unprofessional.” However, in affective cultures, showing emotions are viewed as “natural” and acceptable.

Specific/diffuse relationship index shows the extent to which people are prepared to share their private spaces with others. In specific cultures, for example, the American, work is kept apart from personal affairs. In the diffuse cultures, such as the Chinese, everything is interconnected and there is no difference between how people behave in the community and how they react in the workplace.

Achievement/ascription index shows how status and power are obtained. In high achievement cultures, status and power are obtained through work achievements. However, in ascriptive cultures, status is attributed to those who are admired for their personality, good family background, and loyalty to the organisation. In such cultures, status has little to do with task achievements.
These cultural dimensions are used as a theoretical framework in explaining the sources of differences in assumptions about human motives across cultures.

**Organisational Theory and Structure**

There are two reasons for discussing organisation theory in this thesis. First, organisation theory or theories, particularly the earlier theories, provide a foundation upon which motivation theories are based. Second, it is a body of knowledge that attempts to explain variations in the structure and operating processes of organisations. In the Organisation Behaviour literature, organisation theory is regarded as a Macro subject whereas topics such as motivation and job satisfaction come under Micro Organisational Behaviour. These two sets of disciplines are normally discussed separately. Part of the objectives of this study is to explore the relationship between macro and micro organisational behaviour. More specifically, it is intended to examine the impact of organisational structure and design on motivation and job satisfaction.

The earlier research on motivation was focused on the role of money as a motivator. Under the influence of Scientific Management concept, it was assumed that employees would be prepared to maximise their incomes. Therefore, managers should use financial incentives as the main tool to motivate employees and use punishment to ensure that they conform to the rules and regulations. Work was viewed as a drudgery (Beach, 1975) and inherently boring. Hence, the organisation has to pay the workers wages for doing the uninteresting job. With the emergence of the Human Relations School of Thought, behavioural scientists argued that money only partially satisfied people's need. They suggested that other needs of psychological and
social origin are also important. Therefore, in order to ensure the success of the organisation, managers need to satisfy the economical as well as psychological and social needs. These ideas were further developed by Neo Human Relations writers such as Maslow, Agyris, Aldefer, McGregor, McClelland, and Herzberg. The work of these writers focused on the "Need or Content" theories of motivation. The latter research dealt with the development of process theories. Examples of these theories are Goal Setting, Expectancy, Equity, and Reinforcement theories. The process theories are more in line with the Contingency theory. For instance, the expectancy theory, suggests that the probability of an employee to be motivated in his or her job is contingent upon the value of the reward and the expectancy that the goals could be achieved.

There is some empirical evidence to show that the way an organisation is structured has implications for employees' behaviour and attitudes (Indik, 1965; Porter and Lawler, 1964; Berger and Cumming, 1989; Child, 1984; and Keen and Scase, 1998). For example, in a study on managerial attitudes conducted by Porter and Lawler (1964), it was concluded that a tall structure was better in producing security and satisfaction of social needs, while a flat structure was better for self-actualisation. In addition, Child (1987) listed the following motivation problems caused by structural deficiencies:

(a) Decision appears to be inconsistent and arbitrary in the absence of standard rules.

(b) People perceived that they have little responsibility, opportunity for achievement and recognition of their worth because there is insufficient delegation of decision making. This may be caused by narrow spans of control.
(c) There is a lack of clarity as to what is expected of people and how their performance is assessed. This could be due to inadequate job definition.

(d) People are subject to competing pressures from different parts of the organisation due to an absence of clearly defined priorities, decision rules or work programmes.

(e) People are overloaded because their support systems are not adequate. For instance, supervisors have to leave the job to chase up materials, parts and tools as there is no adequate system for communicating forthcoming requirements to stores.

The more recent event, which shows the effect of organisation structure on motivation and job satisfaction, is the delayering of the organisation structure in local government in the UK. Keen and Scase, (1998) stated that the delayering posed threat to middle managers conception of a career as "a meaningful progression through a series of related jobs". Hence, managers who gain their sense of personal identity and related ideas of success or failure through such an orderly career progression, can feel threatened by actual or possible reduction in promotion and job security; especially those managers 'anchored' to their careers through desires for career stability and security or through 'vertical' career growth by climbing the corporate ladder to more senior positions.

The argument in this thesis is that an organisational structure could affect employee's work behaviour and attitudes. However, this is not suggesting that the relationship between these variables is simple and straightforward. Indeed, past research indicate that such a relationship could be influenced by
contextual factors particularly national culture (Hofstede, 1980; and Child, 1981).

**Why Brunei?**

Brunei is located in South East Asia. Eastern culture and traditions play important roles in the lives of Bruneians. On the other hand, most motivation theories were developed in the USA by Americans for Americans (Adler, 1998). Thus, part of goals of the study is to examine the extent to which the theories of motivation and job satisfaction explain the behaviour of Bruneian employees.

Furthermore, most of the cross-cultural studies on motivation and job satisfaction in Asia took place in the Chinese and Japanese cultures. None (with exception Abdullah, 1993) of such studies were conducted in the Malay culture. Brunei is one of the South East Asian countries where the majority of the population are Malays.

This is the first major study on motivation and job satisfaction in Brunei.

**Why The Civil Service?**

Most of the cross-cultural studies of motivation and job satisfaction were conducted in the private sector particularly multi-national companies. However, the need for efficiency and effectiveness is critical to the survival of Public Sector or the Civil Service as it is in the private Sector. Like their counterparts in the private sector, managers or supervisors in the public sector have to allocate resources, decide on
priorities, review progress and plans for future needs of the organisation. In fact, the purpose of public sector management is to go beyond these tasks. It is also concerned with the prosperity of the whole nation.

In Brunei, the Government is the major employer. According to the recent statistics, employment in the Public Sector in Brunei contributed to 50.7% of the total work force. Despite their prominent role in the society, there is some concern about the quality of service rendered by the government agencies. The concern for the possibly 'low' and 'declining' quality service illustrates the need for better understanding about human behaviour and motivation. Why do the employees behave the way they do?

ORGANISATION OF THE CHAPTERS

Chapter one is the introduction to the study. It contains the aims of the study, the background to the study, and organisation of the chapters.

Chapter two contains a review of literature on motivation and job satisfaction. The chapter gives a critical evaluation of the applicability of the theories of motivation and job satisfaction outside America.

Chapter three discusses the main organisation theories, namely Scientific Management, Human Relations, and Bureaucracy. The aim is to highlight the assumptions put forward in these theories about motivation and the strategies used by organisations that are based on these models in enhancing work motivation and job satisfaction. The chapter also explains how
organisation structural dimensions, for instance the height of the pyramid, could affect attitudes and motivation of employees.

Chapter four explains how the study was conducted and why the researcher chose certain strategies and not the others. The chapter also highlights problems encountered during data collection.

Chapter five is a case study on Brunei. The first part of the chapter gives a general introduction to the country and its political systems, Brunei culture and tradition, and the characteristics of Bruneians. These contextual environments are seen to be very important in determining the behaviour and attitudes of employees in Brunei. In this section, an assessment is made on the suitability of the Western theories of motivation and job satisfaction in Brunei based on the qualitative research. The second part of chapter describes the human resource management in the Brunei Civil Service.

Chapter six contains the findings of the survey of motivation and job satisfaction among the Division II officers in the Brunei Civil Service. The main aim of the survey is to reinforce the findings of the qualitative research, using quantitative evidence.

Chapter seven contains conclusions of the study.
Chapter 2 - Literature Review: Theories of Motivation and Job Satisfaction

INTRODUCTION

The theories of motivation and job satisfaction have evolved for more than fifty years, however, there are some indications that none of them are comprehensive enough to be able to explain the need, behaviour, and attitude of people outside the American culture. A review of literature suggests that the theories are masculinised, individually oriented and, are only suitable for individualistic, masculine and Western cultures in general, and American society in particular.

In this chapter we shall examine the major theories of motivation, their limitations from a cultural viewpoint, and past research on the application of such theories across cultures. Motivation theories come under the following headings; process, content, and intrinsic versus extrinsic theories. In the discussion on job satisfaction, the author focuses on the approaches to the study of job satisfaction, theories of job satisfaction and the criticisms, job satisfaction and individual differences, and culture and homogeneity. This will be followed by a conclusion.
MOTIVATION AND JOB SATISFACTION

Motivation and job satisfaction are closely related and often not clearly distinguished in the literature. Moreover, most of the theories of job satisfaction come from motivation theories. Herzberg's two-factor theory, Equity theory, Expectancy theory, and Job Characteristic theory are among those theories which serve to explain employee motivation and job satisfaction at the same time. One possible reason why most writers and theorists put these two subjects under the same theory is that both motivation and job satisfaction theories are linked to hedonistic responses to an object or a work factor. It is often assumed that people try to approach those things they are satisfied with and avoid things with which they are dissatisfied. Similarly, it is assumed that people are motivated to seek things that are pleasant to them. Because of their close link and to avoid confusion, the author thinks that it is necessary to highlight the difference between the two. The main difference between motivation and job satisfaction is that the latter is more of an attitude whereas the former is a process which leads to that attitude.

MOTIVATION THEORIES

The most common way of categorising motivation theories is by grouping them into Content (Need) and Process theories. Content theories refer to those theories which are associated with the force within a person (desire, drives, and needs). These theories focus on what motivates a person. Examples of content theories are; Maslow's Hierarchy of Need, Aldefer's ERG theory, Herzberg's Two-Factor theory, and McClelland's theory.
Process theories refer to those theories which explain how to motivate a person. The major theories which fall under this category are Expectancy theory, Path-Goal theory, Reinforcement theory, and Job Characteristics theory.

**Content Theories**

**Hierarchy of Needs**

Maslow (1954) proposed that human needs were divided into five categories of need. They are; Physiological Need, Safety Need, Affiliation Need, Esteem Need, and Self Actualisation Need. Figure 2.1 shows Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. It starts with Physiological or basic needs and ends at Self-actualisation needs. Physiological needs refer to the basic needs for food, sleep, air, and water, etc. which are the most important determinant of the behaviour when they are not being satisfied. In practice, an organisation offers wages and good working conditions to satisfy such needs.

Figure 2.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs
According to Maslow, once the needs have been relatively satisfied, they no longer influence people’s behaviour but another type of need (Safety Needs) will emerge. The new need will then act as a motivator.

Safety needs deal with the achievement of control over someone’s life uncertainties which subsequently reduce anxiety, for example the need to get job security. In order to satisfy such needs an organisation may offer a permanent post and welfare pension etc.

Social or affiliation needs are prompted by the strong social nature of humans. Most people like feelings of belonging, friendship, and being loved. Organisational factors which could help to satisfy these needs include membership of a supportive and cohesive work-group and a positive relationship with superiors, co-workers and subordinates.

Esteem or ego needs refer to human desire for internal and external esteem. Self or internal esteem includes the development of positiveness, self-confidence, and self-respect and self-adequacy; external esteem are derived from recognition, respect, attention and appreciation shown by others. The organisation could satisfy such needs by offering organisational status, social recognition, and positive feedback from others etc.

Finally, people develop higher needs for fulfilment of potentiality of their intellectual, aesthetic and spiritual capacities. According to Maslow this is the highest and the last class of need in the hierarchy. Self actualisation is a personal process of becoming what a person is capable of
becoming. The organisation could help to satisfy these needs by offering opportunity for creativity, achievement, and advancement in challenging work environments.

According to Maslow, the five needs are arranged in a hierarchy starting from the most fundamental (physiological need) up to the most advance needs for personal growth development (self actualisation need). He called the bottom three (physiological, safety, and social needs) basic needs and the top two (esteem and self-actualisation needs) higher order needs.

The underlying assumption is that people are motivated to engage in behaviour that will result in the satisfaction of the lowest level of need currently not fulfilled. However, once the need has been satisfied, the next need upward in the hierarchy will emerge and become dominant. Motivational problems arise when the need that is dominant in a person is not satisfied. For instance, if the current dominating need is the need to belong, problems may arise if the person feels alienated by other members of the organisation. However, satisfaction of needs in the context of this theory means sufficient or partial satisfaction rather than full satisfaction. In other words, a need does not have to be 100 per cent satisfied before the next level of need could emerge.

In his later work, Maslow (1965) argued that gratification of the self-actualisation needs, unlike the other needs, increases rather than decreases the importance of the need.

Maslow’s theory of Hierarchical Needs was further developed by Aldefefer (1972) in ERG theory. Aldefefer suggested that the five categories of needs could be divided into three sub-categories.
They are (a) Existence Needs, (b) Relatedness Needs, and (c) Growth Needs.

Existence Needs correspond to basic or Physiological Needs proposed by Maslow. Relatedness Needs are comparable to the Safety Needs, Social Needs, and Esteem Needs. Growth Needs are similar with the Self Actualisation Needs. Aldefer’s ERG theory is different from Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs in two main respects. First, Aldefer suggested that although needs are arranged in hierarchy, it is possible for more than one need to be activated at the same time. People can move up and down the three-step hierarchy of needs. Secondly, he believed that frustration to fulfil needs at one level could lead to an increase in the importance for lower level needs to be satisfied (frustration leads to regression).

Aldefer received more empirical support for his version of the Needs theory than Maslow’s formulation, but there is a need for further independent evidence to validate the theory (Rollinson, Broadfield and Edwards, 1998; Luthans, 1995; and Petzeall, Selvarajah and Willis, 1991).

The main problem with both Maslow’s and Aldefer’s hierarchy of needs is that they may be biased toward an individualistic culture. This is reflected in the concept of self-actualisation (Maslow) and Growth Need (Aldefer) which suggest the importance of personal and individual success in the American individualistic society. Through these theories, Maslow and Aldefer give an indication that in America, both individualism and self containment are the ideal. As for instance, the Declaration of Independence emphasises the importance to protect the liberty of an individual. However, in other cultures, particularly in Asia where collectivism is dominant, such a
notion may not be appropriate. In collectivist cultures, people tend to be group rather than individual centred. The group's interest is perceived to be more important than the individual's. In an organisational context, it means that employees would try their best to maintain harmony in their relationships with co-workers and superiors and are willing to sacrifice their personal interest for the sake of the group unity.

The concept of self-actualisation also indicates that it is always possible to distinguish personal and group attributes. In the American culture, there is a tendency to view an individual as separate and independent from each other. In a collectivist culture, the common understanding is that people are interconnected and are interdependent with others. Thus if a person is successful in a job, in Maslow's terms, the person should and will claim such achievements as personally and righteously his or hers and that the person should be proud of himself or herself. In a collectivist culture, the concept of self tends to be more diffused. Based on interdependent as opposed to independent self (Markus and Kitayama, 1991), a person sees himself or herself in relation to others. Thus a person would consider his or her achievement as others' achievement and vice versa. The person would not experience the joy of the success if his or her achievement is not recognised or accepted by his group or family.

Although Maslow (1970) asserted that his motivation theory was based on a concept of personality, his argument has not helped to clarify the theory nor has it improved its universality. The word "personality" itself is not always translatable. According to Hsu (1971), in China, such a concept does not exist. In the Chinese culture the closest translation of the
word "personality" is jen which means "person" or "human constant", which includes not only an individual but also his or her intimate societal and cultural environment which makes his or her existence meaningful.

The third major obstacle in applying the Hierarchy of Need theories across cultures is that the ranking of the needs is fixed. It starts with basic needs and ends at self-actualisation needs. The decision on the ranking order was based on a number of experiments conducted in America. However, people's needs and priorities vary across culture. This has been proven by a number of researches for example, the studies conducted by Hofstede and Trompenaars in 1980 and 1993 respectively suggest that the importance or ranking of needs varies from culture to culture. For instance, in countries where the culture is higher on uncertainty avoidance (such as Greece and Japan) as compared with those lower on uncertainty avoidance (such as the United States), security motivates employees more strongly than does self-actualisation. In another study, Nevis (1983) found that the Chinese ranked Maslow's hierarchy, from most basic to highest as follows: (1) belong (social); (2) physiological; (3) safety, and (4) actualisation to serve the society. These findings suggest that the way the needs are arranged as dictated by the theory is culturally bound and that social and cultural environments have a great influence on needs and priorities as they do on perceptions, attitudes and behaviours of people.

**Two-Factor/Hygiene Theory**

Herzberg's two-factor theory which is based on the Maslow's Hierarchy of Need, is composed of two largely unrelated
dimensions; dissatisfiers and satisfiers. Dissatisfiers correspond to Maslow’s lower order needs and satisfiers are equivalent to the higher order needs. According to Herzberg (1959), dissatisfiers or hygiene factors refer to the aspects and activities of a job which can prevent dissatisfaction but do not influence employees to grow and develop. These are the extrinsic aspects of the job such as salary and wages, working conditions, company policy, supervision and interpersonal relationships. Satisfiers or motivators on the other hand are those factors related to the job and the activities which encourage growth rate. They are the intrinsic aspects of the job such as the job itself, achievement, recognition, and advancement.

The assumption behind this theory is that providing a high standard of service on the hygiene factors side would not only prevent people from being dissatisfied; it will help to prevent the employees from leaving the organisation. Nevertheless in order to enhance employee motivation and encourage them to perform above minimum standards, significant attention needs to be given to the satisfiers or motivators.

In the literature, the common criticism of the theory in the literature is linked to the methodology upon which this theory is based. In his studies, Herzberg used the “incident recall” method. The subjects were asked to “think of a bad experience”. With this method there is a tendency for a person to attribute good experience to himself when he performs well, and bad experience to others or the work context. Studies using other methods, such as questionnaires, reached different conclusions (House and Wigdor 1967).
With respect to culture, like in Maslow's Hierarchy of Need, Herzberg's way of categorising factors into motivators and dissatisfiers is not necessarily valid in all cultures. For instance, in a relationship oriented (collectivist) culture relationship with supervisor and co-workers is seen as an important source of motivation. A person may not be able to do his or her job with great enthusiasm if his or her relationship with the supervisor and colleagues is bad. There is an indication that Herzberg's view on the importance of achievement as a motivator is not valid in some cultures. This issue will be discussed later in a different section.

The role of money as a maintenance factor rather than motivator may or may not be acceptable outside America. In economically disadvantaged countries, such as India, people need to work to survive. Thus money is seen as an important motivator. In America, generally basic needs could be satisfied through the government's welfare programme. Thus, some people do not view money as the main motivator at work. On the other hand, in some developing countries, such as Mexico, or Malaysia where people are high on "being" rather than "doing" cultural orientation, people do not see money as the prime motivator but for different reasons. They prefer spending time with the family rather than to work. Based on the results of cross-cultural research on the role of money as a motivator, Adler (1997) concluded that while salary increases motivate "doers"\(^3\) to work harder because rewards are greater, they make "beirs" to work fewer hours because they can earn enough money in less time and still enjoy life with their family and friends.

\(^3\)Doers refer to people who are active in planning and making things happen, for example Americans. Beirs are spontaneous and living and working for the moment for example Mexicans and Asians.
The concept of extrinsic and intrinsic adds more complications to the application of Herzberg's ideas. According to Herzberg, dissatisfiers are related to extrinsic factors while satisfiers or motivators are linked to intrinsic factors. A collectivist society has been identified with homogeneity (Triandis, 1990). Such a homogeneity in perception, attitude, thoughts and behaviour seems to be linked to the interdependent self-concept (Markus and Kitayama, 1991 and 1994). The fact that people act to fit into the requirements of others makes the distinction between what is internal to and what is outside an individual less clear. In such circumstances it is hard to distinguish external sources from internal sources of motivation. The issues related to intrinsic versus intrinsic motivation will be dealt with in more detail later in a separate heading.

**McClelland's Need Theory**

In addition to the Hierarchy of Need and Two-factor theories, a new approach of categorising human needs was proposed by McClelland (1967). Based on this theory, a human need is divided into three groups according. They are Achievement, Affiliation, and Power Needs. McClelland suggested that these needs are not hereditary but as a result of environmental influences and that people could be trained to develop a greater motivation to achieve.

Most of the studies in this area were focused on needs for achievement (N.Ach). Apart from McClelland, there were other researchers, for example Meyer, (1968); Stahl, (1983); Cassidy and Lynn, (1989); and Parker and Chusmir, (1992), whose studies were devoted to identifying characteristics of people, particularly managers and entrepreneurs, with a high need for
achievement. The findings of these studies suggested that people with a strong need for achievement tend to set moderately difficult goals for themselves, to engage in activities with moderate degree of risk that they may not succeed, to seek out feedback on the quantity and quality of their performance, and to wish to be responsible for their actions. This group of people need jobs which are challenging. When these characteristics are prevalent, high achievers will be strongly motivated. There is evidence that high achievers are successful in entrepreneurial activities (McClelland and Winter 1969).

The second need in McClelland’s scheme is the need for Power (N.Pow). The need for power refers to a desire to influence others and to exert a high degree of control over one’s physical and social environment. According to McClelland, people who are dominated by the need for power tend to influence people directly through personal appeal or argument. They frequently seek out position of leadership in groups to which they belong. Such individuals may find it motivating to be in a situation that permits them to exert influence and control over others. McClelland and Boyatzis (1982) claimed that successful managers tend to have a moderately high level of need for power compared with low level need for affiliation.

The third type of need is called Affiliation Need (N.Aff). Individuals with a high need for affiliation tend to put greater value upon human companionship and opportunities for obtaining personal reassurance from others. People with a high need for affiliation would be motivated to seek out personal approval, to conform to the wishes and the expectation of the people they admire, and demonstrate a strong and sincere interest in the feeling of others. As a result such individuals may find
opportunities of meaningful relationships with others to be highly motivating.

McClelland used a series of projective tests on American subjects in his investigations of a person’s need profile. Respondents were shown a number of pictures in which some activities were depicted. They were asked to look briefly (9-15 seconds) at the pictures and then to describe what they thought was happening, what the people in the picture were thinking, and what events had led to the situation depicted.

In addition other researchers Schermerhorn, Hunt, and Osborn (1982) attempted to identify work preferences and job example for each category of need. For instance, they proposed that a individual with high N.Ach who prefers responsibility, challenging but achievable goals, and feedback would be suitable for a job as a sales person; those with high N.Aff who are interested in interpersonal relationships and good communication would be ideal customer service representatives, and individuals who seek control over other people and have a strong desire for recognition would be suitable to take up supervisory posts.

There are a number of difficulties in applying McClelland’s theory in different cultures. The main difficulty lies in the application of the Thematic Appreciation Test (using pictures) to determine people’s needs. People’s perceptions vary from one culture to another. The same picture may be interpreted in many different ways depending on the cultural context. In some cultures, it takes much more than “one look at a picture” to identify human needs.

McClelland’s theory also dictates that human behaviour and personality could be changed through intensive training.
According to him, through this training, the organisation could convert its members to be “achievement seekers”. Our concern is that some cultures are more flexible to change than others. A review of literature suggests that when a change programme is introduced in an organisation, employees in the West tend to be more willing to “have a go” than those in the East. Easterners, particularly in a country with high uncertainty avoidance, tend to be reluctant to change with a common response that “such things won’t work here!”. Even if people are willing to change, the new behaviour may not last unless it suits the requirements of the importing culture. This has been proven in a number of studies in India. When McClelland conducted a training programme to improve the achievement motivation of Indian businessmen he found that the rate of the achievement-oriented activities among this group almost doubled. However, a follow-up study showed that the effects were temporary as the businessmen were under pressure by the Indian culture to choose social and group affiliation instead of economic success. Later, it was also revealed that instead of increasing the need to achieve, the training programme generated the participants’ needs for status, which is greatly important in India.

McClelland’s achievement motivation seems to be more suited to individualistic cultures. Yu (1995) and Yang (1994) asserted that individually centred achievement motivation, at least in East Asia, is not applicable. In a study conducted by Hofstede (1980) it is found in a society where there is a high need for achievement, such as America, Canada, and Great Britain, people are willing to take risks as compared to those in the culture with a low need for achievement, for example Chile and Portugal. This may explain why people in the collectivist society with high uncertainty avoidance cultural orientation, prefer job
security and interpersonal relationships to personal achievement.

Most of the points mentioned here are related to achievement need and motivation. The reason is that the studies on McClelland’s theory focused on achievement. McClelland (1961) seems to suggest that among the three needs, need for achievement is most critical for the organisational success because according to him an individualistic entrepreneurialism (based on individual achievement orientation) is a prerequisite for economic development. This might be the reason why he devoted most of his time researching achievement (individual achievement) motivation rather than the other two. However, one could argue that depending on cultural circumstances, affiliation need could be an equally important motivator. As for example, Malaysians in general are usually motivated when they are able to develop and cultivate good relationships among their bosses and subordinates (Abdullah, 1996). In Japan, people see the need for group affiliation as essential in enhancing their motivation to work, and yet evidence shows that Japanese organisations are as successful as those in America.

An alternative view on achievement motivation was proposed by Yang and Lieung (1973). According to them, there are two types of achievement motivation; individually oriented and socially oriented. Individually oriented achievement motivation is a functionally autonomous desire in which individuals strive to achieve some internalised standard of excellence. According to them, this type of motivation is common in individualistic cultures.
In contrast, socially oriented achievement motivation is not autonomous, rather, people presume to fulfil the expectation of significant others, such as the family.

**Process Theories**

**Expectancy Theory**

Vroom (1964) proposed Expectancy theory of motivation. This theory was later developed by Porter and Lawler (1968), and Lawler (1973). These three ideas will be dealt with one by one.

The first version of expectancy is Vroom's Valence Instrumental and Expectancy (VIE) theory. The theory assumes that "...the choice made by a person among alternative courses of action are lawfully related to psychological events occurring contemporaneously with the behaviour" (Vroom, 1964, pg 14 and 15). It indicates that people base their acts on perceptions and beliefs, although we need not anticipate any one-to-one relationships between particular beliefs and specific behaviours.

There are three key mental components that are seen as influencing and directing behaviour. They are; Valence, Instrumentality, and Expectancy.

**Valence** refers to the feeling about specific outcomes or results. It is the attractiveness or preference, for a particular outcome to the individual. The difference between valence and value is that the former is the anticipated satisfaction from an outcome while the latter is the actual satisfaction from the outcome itself. Valence could be negative
or positive. As for instance, when a person prefers achieving the outcome to not achieving it, valence is positive, and vice versa.

**Instrumentality** is a probability belief linking one outcome (performance level) to other outcomes. For example, when employees achieve a certain level of performance, it will lead to a second level of outcome such as a bonus payment for them. If the attainment of the second level outcome is certain if the first level outcome is achieved, the instrumentality is positive. However, if it is expected that there is no link between the second outcome and the first one, the instrumentality may be zero. Furthermore, when the attainment of the second outcome is impossible after the first outcome, the instrumentality will be negative, that is less than zero.

**Expectancy** refers to the strength of a person’s belief whether a particular outcome will take place or not. For instance, when an employee is asked to complete a task in one day, which is normally completed in one week, he would place very little expectancy on the prospect of completing the job on time. This is because based on experience, he knows that with his limited human capability, there is no way he can complete the job in one day.

**The Motivation Force** is a person’s belief that expectancies, instrumentalities, and valences interact psychologically to create a motivational force to act in those ways that seem most likely to bring the pleasure of avoiding pain. It represents the strength of a person’s intention to act in a certain way which is expressed as an equation; motivation (M) is the sum of the products of the valences of all outcomes (V) and the strength of expectancies that action will result in these
outcomes (E). If either V or E is zero, then motivation (M) will be zero.

Vroom's Expectancy theory has been developed by Porter and Lawler (1968). They suggested that motivational force does not lead to performance directly. It is mediated by individual abilities, traits, and the person's role perceptions. Reward is perceived as an intervening variable. Porter and Lawler also see motivation, job satisfaction, and performance as separate variables. The complex relationship among these variables is shown in the diagram below:

![Figure 2.2](image_url)

(Adapted from Mullins, *Management and Organisational Behaviour; 1995*)

The variables shown in the above diagram are value of reward, effort, abilities and traits, role perceptions, performance, rewards, perceived equitable rewards, and satisfaction.
Value of reward corresponds to “value” in Vroom’s model. People expect outcomes (rewards) which they wish to achieve from work. The strength of the desirability of the reward determines its value.

Effort refers to the extent to which a person tries or the amount of energy spent on a given activity. Effort is similar to “motivation force” in Vroom’s model. The interaction of input variables of value of reward and perception of the effort-reward relationship, influence the amount of effort put into a task.

Abilities and traits or individual characteristics are the determinants of performance, in addition to effort.

Role perceptions refer to the way people perceive their work and their roles in performing the job. According to Porter and Lawler, role perceptions influence the direction and level of action which is seen necessary for effective performance.

Performance is determined by various factors such as effort, abilities and traits and role perceptions.

Rewards refer to double outcomes. Intrinsic rewards refer to individual sense of achievement and feeling of responsibility by doing the job itself. Extrinsic rewards are obtained from the organisation. Examples of extrinsic rewards are salary, good supervision, paid leave etc.

Although Porter and Lawler saw the importance of both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, they suggested that intrinsic rewards are more likely to produce job satisfaction that is related to performance, rather than extrinsic rewards.
**Perceived equitable rewards** refer to the level of rewards that the employees perceive as fair for a given standard of performance. Self-rating of performance links directly with the perceived equitable reward variable.

**Job Satisfaction** is an individual’s internal state. It is determined by the actual rewards received and the perceived rewards from the organisation for a given standard of performance. According to Porter and Lawler, if the perceived rewards are equal to or less than the actual rewards, employees will experience satisfaction. On the other hand, if the perceived rewards are greater than the actual rewards then they will experience a feeling of dissatisfaction. Porter and Lawler proposed that job satisfaction is more dependent on performance than performance is on job satisfaction. Satisfaction only affects performance through the feedback loop to the value of reward. When performance leads to reward, the effort-reward relationship tends to become greater.

Porter and Lawler’s model was further developed by Lawler (1973). He suggested that when an individual has to decide on alternative behaviours, the following types of expectancies need to be considered.

(a) Expectancies that effort leads to performance (E ➔ P)
It refers to the person’s perception of the probability that effort will lead to performance. The score varies from 0 to 1. The closer the perceived relationship between effort and performance, the higher the expectancy score.

(b) Expectancy that performance leads to outcomes (P ➔ O)
It refers to the person's perception of the probability that performance will lead to need related outcomes (rewards). As in the perceived relationship between effort and performance, the closer the relationship between performance and rewards, the higher the expectancy score.

The theory draws attention to the importance or intrinsic and extrinsic rewards in the organisation. It also emphasises that apart from effort, there are other variables such as the skills and abilities of a person that could influence level of performance. In addition it shows that incentives for good performance would work only if such incentives are valued by employees.

To what extent could expectancy theory explain people's behaviour outside the American culture? Research on the application of expectancy theory across cultures is still scarce. However, conceptually, there is an indication that this theory is focused on the behaviour of people in America and the West. For instance, the theory assumes that people could control not only their behaviour but also their destiny. The theory dictates that employees will work hard provided that they can achieve both their rewards (which is determined by the organisation) and the organisational objectives (which is dependent on the employee's ability to complete the job). Once these two requirements have been met, nothing will stop the employees and the organisation achieving their objectives. This idea seems to reflect the American and Western cultures where people have a high internal locus of control, as pointed out by Adler (1997)

"Expectancy theories were best in explaining cultures that emphasise internal attribution. When people in a culture believe that they can control the work
environments and their own behaviour, such as in the USA, England, and Canada, Expectancy theory can explain motivation. In the cultures where people believe that their work environments and behaviour are not completely under their control, such as Saudi Arabia and China, an expectancy model might not be totally applicable”.


In most Eastern countries, people tend to believe that the consequences of their behaviour are controlled by external forces. For instance, the Chinese have a strong belief in luck and fate. In the Middle-east and Muslim countries people tend to believe that things will only happen by God’s will.

The theory also suggests that an individual will perform the job well provided that the reward is of great value to him. It assumes that human beings are calculative by nature and will only do a task to maximise personal gain. It seems to overlook the fact that people, particularly in collectivist societies, see the ties between the individual and organisation to have moral components (Allen, 1988).

In addition, the relationships among effort, reward, and performance suggested in the expectancy model (Porter’s and Lawler’s model) are too simplistic. Porter and Lawler proposed that when performance leads to reward, the effort-reward relationship becomes greater. However, the relationship between effort and performance could be moderated by valence and valence varies across cultures. In Masculine cultures such as America, people tend to value financial and personal gains above all. In the East, positive valence is likely to be in the form of social and psychological rewards, such as gaining acceptance from the group and organisational members.
Finally, as in Herzberg’s theory, the concept of Intrinsic and Extrinsic motivation may be difficult to distinguish in collectivist cultures.

**Path-Goal Theory**

Path-Goal theory is often referred to as a Leadership Theory. Nevertheless, the theory is equally useful in explaining employee motivation. The main focus of this theory is on the examination of motivation and the way in which such diagnosis can influence the management of performance (Bowditch and Buono, 1997).

The theory, which was developed by House (1971), is an extension of expectancy theory of motivation. The underlying assumption is that people make choices, which reflect their preferences in terms of the relative valence of outcomes. It suggests that people will be motivated to do the job if they perceive that such efforts will lead to successful performance and the attainments of expected rewards to satisfy needs. The role of the manager or leader is to clarify which ‘path’ to take to attain the desired goal. Where a task is ambiguous, the manager could help the subordinates by defining and structuring the task which lays out the path to goal accomplishment.

Path-goal theory postulates that a leader’s behaviour is motivational to the degree that it (a) makes subordinate satisfaction contingent on effective performance, and (b) provides, the coaching, guidance and support, and rewards that are necessary for effective performance. In order to support these statements, House (1971) identified four main types of leadership behaviour.
**Directive leadership** involves informing subordinates what is expected of them and giving specific directions. In return, subordinates are expected to conform to rules and regulations.

**Supportive leadership** requires a leader to be friendly and approachable and show concern for the needs and welfare of the subordinates.

**Participative leadership** involves consultation with subordinates and evaluation of their opinions and suggestions before making any decision.

**Achievement-oriented leadership** involves setting challenging goals for subordinates, seeking improvement of their performance and showing confidence in their ability to do well.

Behaviours in this context are not related to the leader’s personality. The same leader can display any or all of the behaviours depending on the situation. House proposed two classes of situational or contingency variables that influence the leadership behaviour-outcome relationship. First, environmental characteristics, which are outside the control of the subordinate such as, task structure, the formal authority system, and the work group. Second, personal characteristics of the subordinate namely locus of control, experience, and perceived ability.

The role of environmental characteristics is that it determines the type of leader behaviour required for maximising performance and satisfaction of the subordinate. Personal characteristics on the other hand determine how the environment and leader behaviour are interpreted. The leader behaviour is seen to be ineffective when it is redundant with source of environmental
structure or incongruent with subordinate characteristics. For instance, when the task is already highly structured and clearly defined, giving direction to the subordinates on how to perform the job seems pointless and is perceived to be redundant. Such actions will not help to upgrade or maximise performance. Instead, it will be more effective if the leader plays a supportive role as a facilitator does. Baron (1986) stated that leaders will be perceived most favourably by subordinates when they behave in ways that closely match (a) the needs and the values of the subordinates and (b) the requirements of specific situations.

The following hypotheses have been developed in the Path-goal theory help to identify some the contingencies.

(1) Directive leadership leads to greater satisfaction when tasks are ambiguous or stressful than when they are highly structured and clearly defined.

(2) Supportive leadership results in high employee performance and satisfaction when subordinates are performing structured tasks.

(3) Directive leadership is likely to be perceived as redundant among subordinates with high-perceived ability or with considerable experience.

(4) The more clear and bureaucratic the formal authority relationships, the more it is for the leader to exhibit supportive behaviour and de-emphasise directive behaviour.
(5) Directive leadership will lead to higher employee’s satisfaction when there is a substantive conflict within a work group.

(6) Subordinates with an internal locus of control (those who believe that they control their own destiny) will be more satisfied with participative style.

(7) Subordinate with external locus of control will be more satisfied with a directive style.

(8) Achievement-oriented leadership will increase subordinates’ expectancies that effort will lead to high performance when tasks are ambiguously structured.

Figure 2.3 below shows the path-goal relationships.
The main contribution of this theory is that it offers an alternative tool, that is leadership style, to enhance motivation, job satisfaction, and performance. It offers contingency or situational variables as determinants of motivational strategies. Nevertheless, the idea that motivation and job satisfaction are the product of a complex interaction between subordinate's characteristics, leadership styles, and environmental characteristics may not be necessarily true in the eastern cultures. In the East, motivation and job satisfaction are more likely to be the result of reciprocity in the relationship between the leader and the subordinates. The other criticisms of the theory are similar with those of expectancy theory.

**Equity Theory**

Another widely used theory under this category is Equity theory. The theory which was proposed by Adam Smith (1965) hypothesises that an individual's motivation to work is influenced by the extent to which a person feels that he or she is being treated (un) fairly, and that these feelings can have a variety of adverse affects on the person's motivation and performance on-the-job.

The basic assumption of the theory is that employees want an equitable return for the contributions they make. The return or compensation they get from the organisation could be in the form of financial rewards, promotion, paid-leave and so on. The theory also suggests that social comparisons do take place in an organisation. When such a comparison is made and a person (say Miss X) feels unjustly treated by comparing her status with another colleague (say Miss Y), Miss X feels inequity which manifests itself in the form of anger. As a result she may
decide to make a formal complaint to the superior, decrease her work contributions, or in some cases leave the organisation. However, on the other hand, if the individual feels that his or her colleague is being inequitably treated as compared to him or herself, the act of inequity is likely to make him or her feel guilty, and may decide to increase his or her work contribution. Thus, either way, inequity causes a problem to an employee.

The feeling of (in) equity could exist in any organisation regardless of the cultural environment. An employee in Japan may feel as frustrated as an employee in America if he or she feels that he or she is treated unfairly. However, the difference could exist in the degree of tolerance that an employee has in different cultures. Americans and Westerners tend to be more assertive and are likely to voice their frustration and dissatisfaction directly. On the other hand, people in the East tend to be more tolerant and are prepared to keep silence for the sake of peace and harmony with others. However, the management should deal with the problems and not take for granted that such a feeling of discontent would fade away automatically. It may be the case where people take time to determine whether differential is important enough to merit a response (Westwood, 1992). This is particularly true. In the East people do not normally show their feeling of discontent unless they are dealing with things that really matter to them. This is because such behaviour as demonstrating discontentment could cause conflicts, and people dislike conflicts as they could threaten the harmony in their social relationships. However, in America, where people are generally assertive, an individual may feel that it is a matter of principle that one should fight for his or her right. In American culture a great emphasis is put on the importance of personal desires and goals. In such cultures it is seen as hypocritical to fail to act
according to personal desires and attitudes, and accommodating others is perceived as giving in to the external pressures and failing to be one’s true self. Thus, there is a tendency that Americans are less tolerant to inequity treatment than their Asian counterparts.

Reinforcement Theory

The equity theory assumes that employees make judgement on how (un) fairly they are treated. The Reinforcement theory, which is also known in Organisational Behaviour as “Behaviour Modification” theory, dictates that the management could use positive or negative inducement to ensure that employees perform well in their jobs.

The reinforcement theory started from the psychology of learning and conditioning to the process of influencing motivation and performance of people on the job (initially developed by Skinner in 1963). Based on the operant conditioning, the theory identifies which means of behaviour is conditioned or learnt as a result of consequences flowing from it. People’s learnt behaviours result from their experience in seeing certain desired outcomes and avoiding others. If they discover that one type of behaviour is consistently associated with achieving a desired outcome, reinforcement is said to take place. It means that similar behaviours are likely to be repeated under similar circumstances in the future. Skinner also studied the effects of the different types of reinforcement schedules on people’s learning behaviour such as continuous reinforcement and intermittent reinforcement. The former involves provision of rewards every time the desirable behaviour occurs. The latter involves the use of reward and punishment on a more intermittent basis. Intermittent schedules could be further divided into
fixed or variable ratio schedules, and fixed or variable interval schedules.

The central focus of reinforcement theory is on the effects of the environment on the individual, and how changes in the environment can be used to change the behaviour of the individual. The underlying assumption is that people are conditioned to react in a particular way to stimuli that they receive from their environments.

The theory argues that the behaviour of people is determined by its consequences. Those actions that tend to have positive or pleasant consequences will be likely to be repeated more often in the future, while those actions that tend to have negative consequences will be less likely to be repeated (Arnold H.J, 1986).

According to the theory, there are four types of reinforcement as follows:

(a) Positive Reinforcement occurs when a pleasant event, for instance praise, is supplied to a person following some behaviour.

(b) Negative Reinforcement occurs when an unpleasant situation, for example harassment, is removed as a consequence of positive behaviour, such as effective work performance.

(c) Punishment refers to an unpleasant event, for instance, a salary cut, and occurs following some behaviour to make the behaviour less likely to occur in the future.
(d) Extinction is withdrawal of a pleasant event, for example, demotion, to ensure that current behaviour will be less likely to happen in the future.

Although to a certain extent (for example, the emphasis on the role of managers in reinforcing employee’s motivation) reinforcement theory could be applied in cultures outside America, some reinforcement methods may be more effective than others. The importance of “face preserving” in Asia suggests that direct negative reinforcement such as “demotion” and “public admonishment” would not solve the motivation problem but might make it worse. On the other hand, positive reinforcements such as praise and recognition would be appreciated provided that the management show their sincerity in offering such rewards.

**Job Design (Job Characteristics Theory)**

Job Characteristics theory proposed by Hackman and Oldham (1976) was based on the need fulfilment theories of motivation (Maslow’s Self-Actualisation Need; Aldefer’s Growth Need). The assumption of the Job Characteristic theory is that through job design (job enrichment) people could develop self efficacy and competence which would lead to high levels of motivation and job satisfaction.

According to them, three psychological states are crucial to both motivation and satisfaction on the job:

1. The person must experience the work as meaningful. Experiencing meaningfulness consists of three elements. They are:

   (a) Skill variety - a person with a job in which he needs to use a number of different skills and talent to carry out different activities, is likely to get motivated and feel his job is worthwhile.

   (b) Task identity - doing a job which requires completion of a whole and identifiable piece of work with visible outcome is more satisfying than being responsible for a small part of the job.

   (c) Task Significance - a person would feel his job worthwhile if it has a significant effect on the lives of other people.

2. The person must experience responsibility for the results of his work, so that he knows his accountability for work outcomes. This has one element, namely, autonomy. Autonomy is linked to freedom, independence and discretion in scheduling one’s own work and determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out. As autonomy increases, people would feel more responsible to the success and failures that occur on their job, and are more willing to accept personal accountability for the outcomes of the work.
3. The person must have knowledge of the results of his work. Knowledge of results of work activities consists of two elements:

(a) Feedback from the job (by carrying out the work activities, a person gets direct information about the effectiveness of his performance).

(b) Feedback from others, for example supervisor, co-workers etc. gives a worker information on how well he is performing.

These three critical psychological states produce positive outcomes. The positive outcomes are; high intrinsic motivation, high job performance, high job satisfaction, low absenteeism and turnover (see figure 2.4)
Figure 2.4 : THE JOB CHARACTERISTICS MODEL

Core dimensions → Psychological states → Work and personal outcomes

- Skill variety
- Task identity
- Task significance

Autonomy

Feedback

Experienced meaningfulness of the work

Experienced responsibility for work outcomes

Knowledge of results

High intrinsic motivation

High job performance

High job satisfaction

Low absenteeism and turnover

Individual differences that affect the relationships proposed in the model:

- Growth-need strength
Figure 2.4 shows that when jobs are high on the five core dimensions (skills variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback), workers experience the three psychological states (meaningfulness of work, responsibility for work outcomes, and knowledge of results) and are intrinsically motivated. When people are intrinsically motivated, they enjoy doing the job for its own sake. Jobs high on the core dimensions also encourage people to perform at a high level. As workers have more opportunities for personal growth and development on the job due to the existence of the five core dimensions, job satisfaction will be high. In addition, according to Oldham and Hackman when people have positive psychological states, they are less likely to be absent or leave the job.

Nevertheless, there are conditions under which the positive outcomes could be achieved. These conditions or moderators consist of individual differences namely growth-need strength, knowledge and skills, and satisfaction with work context. Thus, based on this model, positive outcomes could only be achieved if the person has a high growth-need, is knowledgeable and skilful in the job, and satisfied with the work context.

Hackman and Oldham developed a series of questions that determine the extent to which a worker views his job as possessing each of the job characteristics. They developed the Job Diagnostic Survey to complement the Job Characteristic Model. The assumption is that a job holder could give an objective description of his or her job and that perception on job characteristic is related to the nature of the job. For this reason, responses to the job diagnostic survey are combined and
a job’s overall potential for motivating an individual is assessed using the following formula:

$$MPS = \frac{\text{Variety} \times \text{Identity} + \text{Significance} \times \text{Autonomy} \times \text{Feedback}}{3}$$

The MPS formula is particularly useful for comparing different jobs and for assessing the same job over time (as might be done in a study of the effects of job enrichment effort). In 1979 Hackman, Oldham and Stepina conducted a survey on 6930 employees who worked on various jobs in 56 different organisations in the United States. The data they obtained from the survey became the basis for the Job Diagnostic Survey norms.

Hackman and Oldham have incorporated the notion of individual differences moderator variables into the model. Hackman and Oldham stated that the growth need strength (GNS) is the important individual factor. GNS is the extent to which a person desires to advance, to be in a challenging position, and to achieve. Hence, an individual with high growth strength, and who experiences the three psychological states, would experience intrinsic motivation (motivation based on doing the job rather than external reward), high work performance, high satisfaction and low absenteeism and turnover.

There are some indications to show that the concept of the job (re) design in the job characteristics model is culturally biased toward the Western and individualistic cultures. First, it focuses on “self” (self competency, self-efficacy, and self-actualisation). Secondly, because it is designed to fulfil a need of an individual, it only provides a framework encompassing the factors relevant to the design of an individual’s work. Thirdly, it assumes that work is an end itself rather than a
means to an end. Fourth, it suggests that an individual’s perception is free from outside influence. Thus it assumes that intrinsic or internal motivation and extrinsic motivation can be identified clearly.

However, the needs for individual competence and growth may vary from one culture to another. As discussed earlier, past research shows that in the collectivist culture, group is more important than individual achievement and that people are encouraged and have a tendency to work interdependently rather than independently. In such cultures, the “self” oriented motivation may be less important. In collectivist societies, motivation is likely to be influenced by task interdependence and affiliation needs (Morishima and Minami, 1983) and the nature of attachment to the organisation and to a job may be influenced by culturally determined frameworks of meaning (Redding, Norman, and Schlander, 1993).

Secondly, in some cultures, a job is a means rather than an end itself. For example (Hills, 1997) found that in Asian culture, women managers work to support their families. Thus, the content of work itself may not be as important as the external reward for doing the job.

In addition, people’s perception could be affected by outside influences. Salancik and Pfeffer (1978; 1981) through the Social processing Model, asserted that what others tell us about our job is important. In other words, people’s perceptions and reactions to their jobs are shaped by information from other people in the work environment. This argument is particularly valid in a Collectivist culture where people tend to seek each other’s approval for their thoughts and actions. Moreover, the “interdependent-self” concept (Markus and Kitayama, 1991) which
is dominant in the East, means that people see oneself part of an encompassing social relationship and recognise that one’s behaviour is determined, contingent on, and to a large extent organised by what the actor perceives to be the thoughts, feelings, and actions of others in the relationship. Thus, in a collectivist culture, the assumption that each job holder’s perceptions of his or her job characteristics is unique to the person may be misleading. The problems also arise in the attempt to distinguish intrinsic from extrinsic motivation. This will be discussed in the following section.

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

Internal motivation or intrinsic motivation has been defined in a number of ways. Woodworth (1918) was the first to advocate a line of thought that is similar to the term “intrinsic motivation”. He saw sensory, motor, and cognitive abilities as being energised by drives like curiosity and self-preservation, activities which may be rewarding in themselves. In 1937, Alport introduced the concept of “functional autonomy” which is an activity or drive, instrumental in nature, which may require autonomous properties to act on its behalf. Heckhausen (1980) stated that in the 1950s, there were researchers who focused on the concept of “self-reinforcement” in contrast to “external reinforcement” proposed by Skinner and Hull. The concept of intrinsic motivation has been used in a number of motivation theories for example self-actualisation (Maslow, 1943); growth needs (Aldefer, 1972); Theory Y (McGregor, 1960); Achievement Motivation (McClelland, 1961); Internal Motivation (Oldham and Hackman, 1976;1980), and many others.
One of the most popular definitions of intrinsic motivation was offered by Deci (1972). According to Deci, a person is intrinsically motivated if he performs an activity for no apparent reward except the activity itself.

Opposite to intrinsic or internal motivation is extrinsic or external motivation. Extrinsic motivation is seen to originate from external factors. Extrinsic motivation implies an instrumental relationship between behavioural results and desired outcomes. Thus, a person is not interested in his or her behaviour as such, but only in the outcome that results from it. Employees are externally motivated when they want recognition from their colleagues and supervisors for the job they are doing more than the enjoyment of the job itself.

Due to the distinctive definition between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in the literature, there is a tendency to conceive motivation as originating either from ‘within’ the person or from ‘without’ (Thierry, 1990). From another perspective, intrinsic motivation are associated with higher-order needs such as self actualisation, while extrinsic motivation can be related to many different needs such as physiological needs, esteem needs and so on.

In the East, the “interdependent” self concept discussed earlier proposed that behaviour is not completely self-determined or self-chosen. As Fiske et al (1998) stated;

"Given an interdependent view of the self, relationships with others may be seen as necessary context in which one’s behaviour is made meaningful. As a consequence, the distinction between the internal and the external tends to be blurred, and what appears to be an external
inducement from the independent perspective may not be identified as such. Behaviour may be made meaningful not in reference to one's internal attributes, but in reference to a relationship or the pertinent action field in which the behaviour is embedded” (page: 936).

With reference to the above statement, the difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation may not be clear in the collectivist and Eastern cultures. For this reason, the concept of intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation may not be a useful way of categorising motivation in these cultures.

**JOB SATISFACTION**

Job satisfaction is one of the most confusing topics in Organisational Behaviour. The main source of the confusion is its close link with motivation, as mentioned in the introduction to this chapter. Writers, such as Herzberg (1945) made the problem worse by using the terms ‘job satisfaction’ and ‘motivation’ interchangeably as if they were identical. On the other hand, there is a general assumption in the literature concerning the Need theories of Motivation that when needs are satisfied, job satisfaction occurs at the same time. There is no explanation as to how and why it takes place. There is also an endless debate on whether or not job satisfaction should be linked to productivity. While this thesis is not intended to answer those questions, for the sake of clarity it is necessary to define job satisfaction again in this chapter.

The most widely used definition of job satisfaction was proposed by Locke (1976). Locke defined job satisfaction as a 'pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences'.
Approaches to the Study of Job Satisfaction

A study on job satisfaction could be divided into two types; global and facet. Global job satisfaction refers to an individual's overall attitudes towards his or her job. On the other hand, facet job satisfaction refers to attitudes and feeling towards certain aspects or facets of a job such as pay, promotion and so on. This allows people to express their feelings about different aspects of their jobs. For instance, a person may be happy with his or her pay but is disappointed with his or her relationship with the supervisor. The Job design Index (Smith, Hulin and Kendall, 1969) is one of the most widely used instruments to measure facets job satisfaction.

Whether a study should be directed to examine the global or facet job satisfaction would very much depend on the objective of conducting the study in the first place. For an example, if the organisation or researcher is only interested in the overall attitudes of the employees towards their jobs, a global measure is sufficient. Nevertheless, if there is a concern about specific job facets, then facet job satisfaction study is more appropriate.

Job Satisfaction Theories

Most of the job satisfaction theories are derived from motivation theories. Herzberg's two-factor theory, Maslow's Hierarchy of needs, Equity theory, Job Characteristic theory, and Expectancy theory are among the theories that were used to provide theoretical explanation on employee's attitudes toward
their jobs. Fincham and Rhodes (1992) stated;

"by borrowing motivation theory, some researchers can specify in advance the variations in work satisfaction that employees report in their jobs."

Because of the close link between the two subjects, there is a tendency to repeat the theories of motivation when discussing the job satisfaction topic. In order to avoid it, the author has decided to use a slightly distinctive way of categorising job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction theories could be categorised into five orientations namely, comparison process, instrumentality theory, social influence, equity theory and two-factor theory (McCormick and Ilgen, 1989).

**Comparison Process Theory**

Comparison theory assumes that the degree of affect experienced results from some comparison between the individual’s standard and his or her perception of the extent to which the standard is met. Thus the amount of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction that results is dependent on the size of discrepancy between the expected reward and what the person believes he or she is getting from the job. A discrepancy takes place as a result of getting less than one needs and will lead to dissatisfaction. In addition, it also suggests that in some cases dissatisfaction may occur not only when there is not enough but when there is too much of a particular factor. As for instance, when employees can be dissatisfied and bored when they have very little work to do or when they are overworked. Such a
prediction seems to have received support. For instance, Rice, McFarlin, and Bennett (1989) stated that (a) Satisfaction is greater when discrepancies are smaller – or when you get what you expect; (b) Negative discrepancies or getting less than desired are associated with dissatisfaction on any job factor; (c) A positive discrepancy can lead to dissatisfaction on some job factors.

There are two different views of what is used as the standard to which the job is compared in this theory. One is based on the needs of the individual (Morse, 1953, Maslow 1954, Porter, 1962, 1963). Based on this viewpoint, satisfaction is more likely to take place as a result of fulfilment of wants or desires than from the fulfilment of deprived needs.

The other viewpoint was proposed by Locke (1969, 1976). He suggested that the individual’s values, rather than needs, serve as a standard. He added that things which a person perceives as important or valuable have stronger impact on his or her satisfaction than those which are not. Value can be described in terms of content and intensity.

Content refers to what is needed while intensity describes how much is needed or wanted. Locke’s basic assumption is that satisfaction with some factors or aspects of the job is the result of dual judgement. First, a person judges the job factor in terms of its importance. The judgement reflects the intensity of the value relating to the job factor. Second, the person estimates the discrepancy between what is desired and how much is received. Therefore satisfaction with a job aspect is dependent on the importance of the factor and on the difference between what is desired of it and what is received. When a job
factor is very important, a discrepancy matters more and leads to greater dissatisfaction than when it is not important.

**Instrumentality Theory**

This theory suggests that an individual calculates the degree to which his or her job is satisfying by considering the extent to which the job leads to the expected outcome. As explained in the Expectancy theory of motivation it assumes that each employee first has to decide on how much he or she values certain outcomes or rewards such as pay, and promotion. Having done that, he or she has to estimate the probability of getting each of the valued outcomes by doing the job. Finally, by weighting the perceived attractiveness of the rewards and considering all outcomes, the person will be able to predict the amount of satisfaction he or she will be getting from the job. The results of an experiment conducted by Pulakos and Schmitt (1983) suggest, although job satisfaction was significantly related to the product of the instrumentalities and valences, when the measure was explored individually, it was concluded that the instrumentalities were more predictive than valences.

**Social Influence (Social Processing Theory)**

Social processing theorists argue that people's attitudes toward their job are obtained by observing others on similar jobs and making inferences about other's satisfaction (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1977; Weiss and Shaw, 1979). According to this theory, when an individual first joins an organisation he or she has no idea whether or not the job will be satisfying. Through social interaction, the person will observe whether others have positive or negative attitudes towards their jobs. The job (dis)
satisfaction will then develop within the person based on such observations.

**Equity Theory**

Equity theory assumes that an employee compares his or her inputs and outcomes to those of others. A person feels that he or she is treated with inequity if they have less rewards than colleagues in the same job have from their contributions. Thus a dissatisfaction occurs as a result of cognitive dissonant. This dissatisfaction causes tension. Such tension could be reduced by different methods, for instance by reducing or increasing the output depending on the nature of inequity. The role of satisfaction in equity theory is not clear however, and its existence simply means no dissatisfaction.

**Two-factor Theory**

According to Herzberg (Herzberg, 1966; Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman, 1959) job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are measured in two different continuums. Job related factors such as recognition, autonomy, the work itself, and responsibility are on the job satisfaction continuum. Job context such as supervision, pay, working conditions, and co-workers are on the job dissatisfaction continuum. Thus, job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are not in contrast. The opposite of job satisfaction is no job satisfaction and the opposite of job dissatisfaction is no job dissatisfaction. In simple terms, it means that when factors related to job dissatisfaction are present, an employee will stay in the organisation but will not necessarily be motivated or satisfied. In order to motivate him or her to work harder, he or she needs satisfiers or factors related to satisfaction cum motivation. Based on this theory,
one may have a tendency to interpret factors which lead to motivation, also give satisfaction.

**Job Satisfaction Theories and National Culture**

Job satisfaction theories face the same problems as motivation theories, particularly because they were derived from motivation theories. Most job satisfaction theories are designed to explain the needs of an individual and how such needs could be satisfied. The comparison process theory, for instance, focuses on a discrepancy as a result of getting less than one needs which leads to dissatisfaction. Our concern is that in a collectivist culture, societal expectation plays a more important role than individual interest in determining what people want from the job and what job factor is important to the person. Putting one's interest ahead of the group's interest is not acceptable in such a society.

Thus, the extent to which the discrepancy (too little or too much of any thing), affects job satisfaction may be dependent on collective rather than individual expectations.

In addition, the way people deal with the feeling of job dissatisfaction also varies from one culture to another. As discussed in the previous section, Asians tend to be more tolerant when dealing with inequity and always give priority to the group rather than individual needs.

As far as the Social Processing theory is concerned, the main limitation is that it assumes that when an employee first joins an organisation, he or she is in a neutral and objective state of mind, is free from social influence, and has no expectation in the job at all. Although it may be the case in the United
States, in a collectivist culture, there is a tendency that through personal contacts, people already know what to expect from the job even before they start working in the organisation. In addition, although this theory recognises the role of the social nature of work, it does not fully explain the reasons why people need to conform to others.

As discussed in the previous section, the applicability of Herzberg’s two-factor theory has been tested in many cultures. The results in most of the studies did not seem to support Herzberg’s list of satisfiers and dissatisfiers. Due to different needs, values and preferences, what is seen as a motivator in one culture is perceived as a dissatisfier in another.

**Job Satisfaction and Personal Characteristics**

Past studies show that job satisfaction is related to personal characteristics such as age, gender, tenure, ability, job congruence and personality.

Research evidence concerning the influence of gender on job satisfaction show that generally female employees are more satisfied than their male counterparts with exception (De Vaus and McAllister, 1991). In a study on 5,000 British employees, Clarke (1996) found that job satisfaction is higher for women than men. In another study Robertson et al (1994) found that although the pattern of satisfaction is similar for both sexes, females tend to be more satisfied with supervision and colleagues and less satisfied with promotion and pay than males. The reasons why most female employees were not satisfied with these aspects of the job is that they believe that they have to
work much harder than male employees before they receive comparable rewards (Schultz and Shultz, 1998).

In a study conducted by Clark (1996), it was found that satisfaction with work increased with age. The results of a survey conducted at the Manchester Business School (Robertson et al, 1994) show a similar trend. Nevertheless, there is a dip in satisfaction in the 40-50 years age group to the lowest level but then it rises again.

Job tenure refers to the length of time an employee has worked in a specific job in the organisation. The impact of tenure on job satisfaction has been confirmed by Tsui and O'Reilly, 1989; Wesolowski and Mossholder, 1997). A person who has been on the job for a long time, is likely to be more satisfied with and committed to the job (Arnold and Feldman, 1982; Miller and Wheeler, 1992).

**Collectivist Culture and Individual Differences**

Individualism is normally associated with individuality and uniqueness within a person. In an individualist culture, people are encouraged to project their personal attributes. Success is normally achieved by being outstanding and different from others. This is reflected in the American proverb which says "stand up and be counted". Due to the individual cultural orientation, individual (psychological) differences are expected to be higher than those in a collectivist culture.

Because people define the self in their 'in-group membership', collectivists are more attached than individualists to their 'in-group'. They (collectivists) are associated with homogeneity of affects. It means that when members in the in-
group are happy, one is happy, when the members are sad, one is sad. There is unquestioned acceptance of homogeneity of norms, attitudes, and values. While children in an individualistic culture are encouraged and trained to be different and unique, the collectivists' children are asked to perceive themselves as similar to others. In a collectivist culture, there is no place for personal uniqueness. As the famous Japanese proverb says "the nail that sticks out must be hammered down!"

These factors indicate that differences in age, gender, tenure and other personal characteristics are less likely to cause variation in job satisfaction of the employees in collectivist as compared to individualist societies.

**Conclusion**

This chapter discuss the theories of motivation and job satisfaction. It highlights the fact that although the theories were aimed at explaining and predicting behaviour of people in general, they might be culturally biased because they were developed, experimented, and tested in America. Moreover, evidence from cross-cultural studies showed that they could not fully explain the behaviour particularly in collectivist cultures.
Chapter 3 - Literature Review: Organisational Theory, Design and Structure

INTRODUCTION

Although some empirical evidence (for example, Berger and Cumming, 1976; and Child, 1984) suggest that organisational structure affects employees’ attitudes and behaviour, none of the motivation theorists incorporate the elements of organisational structure into their theories. This chapter examines the link between organisational design and structure, and motivation and job satisfaction.

The chapter is divided into the following headings; Introduction, Early Management Theories and Organisational Design Approaches, Organisational Structure, Tall and Flat Structure, Contingency theory, and Cultural Contingency.
ORGANISATIONAL THEORIES AND EARLY ORGANISATIONAL DESIGN APPROACHES

As mentioned in the introductory chapter, the reason for discussing organisation theories is that they, particularly the earlier theories, provide a foundation upon which motivation and job satisfaction theories are based. In addition, they provide theoretical framework for organisational design.

There are a number of theories of organisation in the literature. During the course of the investigation, the author focuses on the theories of Scientific Management, Human Relations, and Bureaucracy. These theories were chosen for two main reasons. First, they are the most common theories in the Organisational Behaviour literature. Second, each theory provides a distinctive way of viewing human and organisational behaviour.

The Scientific Management

The leading exponent of the scientific management approach is F.W Taylor (1911). Taylor was an engineer by training. His studies were focused on the management of the shopfloor level in organisations. He examined the traditional working methods of individual workers in a number of studies covering such simple tasks as bricklaying. He believed that it was possible to apply scientific principles to each tasks which would replace the rule-of-thumb method of working that he thought was inefficient. He focused on the problems of how the individual’s working capacity can be utilised in the most efficient way possible. He
proposed that time and motion study be conducted to determine the best way to maximise production in a given day. One of the most successful experiments he did was when he supervised the loading of pig-iron on to the railway carriage by hand at the Bethlehem Steel Corporation. The initial average capacity per man was twelve-and-a-half tons of pig-iron. Following his observation on how the job was conducted, he concluded that the capacity could be increased by four times. He selected a man whom he knew would work hard for money as the first subject of the experiment. As he predicted, the man managed to increase his capacity up to forty-seven-and-a-half tons a day. The experiment was then tested on other workers as well. The results were consistent to that of the first experiment. While the productivity was almost quadrupled, the workers received an increase of sixty-per-cent in their wages.

Taylor developed his Scientific Management system around the thought that efficient labour would pay off in the long run by making larger profit for the management and providing more pay and better satisfaction for the workers.

The main ideas of Scientific Management could be summarised as follows:

1. An organisation is divided into two main hierarchical levels; the shop floor workers at the lower level and the management at the upper level.

2. The management task should be removed from the shop floor. Thus, workers should not get involved in decision making, planning and other management tasks.
(3) Managers should compile all the traditional knowledge possessed by the workers and reduce it to rules, laws and formulae in order to enable them to develop more efficient methods of performing tasks.

(4) Workers should be controlled in such a way that they will only do their work according to the rules specified by the management.

(5) There is no potential for career development or promotion. The management rely on financial rewards to motivate workers.

The assumption behind the Scientific Management approach is that the fundamental desire of a worker is to obtain the highest possible wage. Thus, human beings are perceived to be "rational-economic" and primarily motivated by economic reward. Money is the main motivator. Job satisfaction would be achieved if the job could provide the workers with substantial financial reward.

In addition, it is also assumed that human beings by nature are lazy, aggressive, self centred, hedonistic and calculative and manipulative. This is in line with Hobbesian approach. Due to these inherent propensities, if it was not for the controls provided by society, "common wealth" or "state" would be a "war of all against all" (Hobbes, 1964). Thus, the problems of low productivity and inefficiency in the organisations are caused by lack of control or inappropriate control.

The combination of the "rational-economic" and Hobbesian assumptions suggest that the Scientific Management approach promotes the carrot and stick approach to motivation. An organisation offers financial rewards to the workers or
employees for the job well done. On the other hand, punishment would be enforced on those who fail to perform or do not comply with the rules set by the organisation.

The Strengths of the Scientific Management

1) Pay varies according to output. Workers might be motivated to produce more output because by doing so they could increase their earnings. This idea may be valid in a culture where money plays an important role as a motivator, such as in countries with “doers” and “masculine” cultural orientation.

2) The relationship between the employees and the organisation seems straightforward and may produce mutual benefit. If the employees improve their productivity, the organisation gets more profit and the employees get more wages in return for their hard work.

Taylor(1947) stated:

"The great revolution that takes place in the mental attitude of the two parties under scientific management is that both sides take their eyes off the division of surplus as an all-important matter, and together turn their attention toward increasing the size of surplus until this surplus becomes so large....that this is the ample room for large increase in wages for the workers and equally large increase in profit for the manufacturers (organisation)" (p.131).

3) Workers only focus on their jobs. Other tasks such as decision making, planning, budgeting and so on are handled by management. Such an arrangement particularly suits those workers who come to work merely to earn a living.
The Weaknesses of the Scientific Management

(1) Taylor and his followers approached the work situation from a purely mechanistic basis. In their analysis, they focused on the standard procedures and instrumental aspect of human behaviour as commented by March and Simon (1958).

"The Scientific Management group was concerned with describing the characteristic of human organisation as one might describe as relatively simple machine for performing a comparatively simple task. The goal was to use the rather inefficient human organisation in the best way possible. This was accompanied by specifying a detailed programme of behaviour that would transform a several purpose mechanism, such as a person into a more efficient specified purpose mechanism" (p.13).

(3) It attempts to elicit improved efficiency and increased productivity exclusively on the basis of economic rewards and punishment. In reality, a man may be motivated by a number of things beside money, including the need to be in a social group and the need for self respect. In addition a man is unlikely to think of himself as a machine nor does he like being treated as one. The human being occupying any position provides additional dimensions to that position (Rice and Bishoprick, 1971).

(4) The division of labour could make a job repetitive, boring and less meaningful. Scott and Mitchell, and Birnbaum (1972) stated:

"It depersonalises work activities so that individual finds little meaning in them much less meaning in the complex organisational system which is created to sustain advanced form of specialisation" (p.35).

This indicates that organisational structure or aspects of it (work design and reward structure) can influence motivation.
The Human Relations Approach

The Scientific Management approach focuses on formal characteristics of organisation. Little attention was given to individuals within the organisation in terms of their beliefs, values, attitudes, and their relations with each other. Human Relations, on the other hand focus on the informal aspect of organisations.

The Human Relations School of thought was founded by Mayo as a result of the Hawthorne studies at the Western Electric plant in Chicago between 1927 and 1932.

The Hawthorne studies were conducted with aims to study specific effects of physical conditions such as lighting, temperature, and physical layout on productivity of the workers. When the experiment which was largely predicted on the principle of Scientific Management failed to explain the changes in workers' productivity, the researchers sought explanation for such changes. They hypothesised that, if changes in physical conditions did not affect levels of productivity, the variations were attributable to "the changed social conditions of the workers - in particular changes in their motivation, satisfaction, and patterns of supervision" (Dessler, 1976). The findings from the Hawthorne studies provide the conceptual framework upon which the Human Relations theory is based.

In summary, the main assumptions of the Human Relations theory are as follows:

(a) An organisation is a social system made up of people, with all their hopes, desire, fears, envy and needs
(b) Non economic rewards have as much bearing on productivity as economic rewards. Friendship and collegiality are an important part of the job.

(c) Productivity is achieved through the direction of management but it also requires concurrence by the worker group in the form of social norms.

(d) Groups have major influence on decision making about jobs and these group decisions may or may not be consistent with the formal organisation. The role of the leader is to influence the group to be productive and give all the support they need to achieve the organisational as well as the individual objectives.

The main assumption underlying the Human Relations school of thought is that human beings are regarded as "social beings" and not merely as a factor of production. As social beings, employees value stable relationships in their work groups, in addition to economic reward. Mescon et al (1973) stated:

"Human Relations involves the realisation that work is a social as well as economic activity. It is the recognition that worker satisfaction means more than high wages and pleasant physical surroundings. It also implies the working with, rather than on, people and the leading of individuals and groups, rather than the manipulation of others to satisfy one's own personal needs and desire. It is understanding the other person's point of view. Human relations also involves morale, motivation, satisfaction, recognition, and security. It considers the worker as an individual rather than a cost of production and recognises that high production and employee satisfaction tend to be interdependent. Human relations is scientific management with conscience and therefore, considers the worker as the physical person, an individual, an essential element in the group. Human relations is aware of the influence and power of the working group..."
and the fact that the group can determine individual output "(p.121-122).

Based on this theory, the traditional control system which focuses on the formal organisational structure and the reward system based purely on the economic incentives were wrongly conceived. Instead, an alternative control based on informal structure and interpersonal relationship is more appropriate. Effort should be made to ensure that the social needs of the employees are satisfied. It is believed that when the employees were satisfied, they would be motivated to perform efficiently.

In addition, attitudes, values and traditions of the work group formed the social system at the work place. This social system is perceived to be more influential in determining the level of output than the physical environments. Based on the events at the Hawthorne studies Dessler(1976) stated:

"The informal work group established production norms and quotas which were frequently in conflict with those of management; these findings underscored the effect of the social organisation upon the individuals. The researchers found that the social organisation of which the individual was a member was based upon attitudes and sentiments which often were not related at all to formal organisational policies" (p.36).

The Strengths of the Human Relations

(1) It recognises the fact employees, unlike other factors of production, are human and social beings with all their hopes, desires, fears, envy and needs, thus they should be treated as one.
(2) It opens up a whole new dimension for management. Writers on the Human Relations, such as Roethsliberger and Dickson (1939), suggested that management should emphasise the importance of non-economic incentives such as appropriate leadership styles and good social climate, to improve motivation and job satisfaction.

The Weaknesses of the Human Relations

(1) The Human Relations writers and the Hawthorne studies in particular was criticised for being too preoccupied with the “social person”.

"The only weakness which seems fundamental.... is that human relations theory has tried to solve the major organisational problems in drawing attention to the individual and the group level and not paying attention to the organisation as a whole" (Mouzelis 1968).

(2) The Human Relations put too much emphasis on the informal organisation and neglect the fact that formal organisation is also vital to ensure that an organisation achieves its economic goals.

(3) Based on the Hawthorne experiments, the production norms were decided by the employees rather than the employer. Employees could not produce more than what was specified by the work group. Positive and negative inducements were used by co-workers to ensure that all employees conform to the norms. There is a tendency that motivation of an individual is suppressed by group pressure to conform. However, the reasons for a sudden shift of power from the management, based on the classical models, to the employees have not been fully explained by the Human Relations writers.
(4) It tends to assume that a satisfied and happy worker is a productive worker. However, some critics (for example Mulin, 1995) commented that such a contention was not always found to be valid.

(5) The most common criticism is directed to the methodology employed by the researchers and the conclusion made on the basis of their findings. It is argued that the study was too limited in scope and the techniques used by the researchers were not scientific (London, 1976), and that it failed to take sufficient account of environmental factors (Silverman, 1970). Sykes (1965), based on his examination on the methodology used in the Hawthorne studies, concluded that the researchers did not disprove the significance of economic incentive as a primary determinant of worker productivity and that the assumptions made by the researchers in those studies are oversimplified, illogical, and incredibly naive.

The ideas proposed as a result of the Hawthorne studies on motivation were further developed by the Neo-Human Relations writers such as Maslow, Aldefer, and McClelland. They argued that social needs, like economic incentives were only part of the picture. There are many other needs that a person desires to fulfil. The organisation could motivate an employee by offering to fulfil such needs. Based on Job Characteristic theory proposed by Oldham and Hackman (1980) the need for competence, growth and self-fulfilment could be satisfied through restructuring the job contents in terms of the skills variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback.
Weberian Approach (Bureaucracy)

The bureaucratic approach proposed by Max Weber (1947) puts forward the problems of how the organisation can be protected against internal and external disturbances. Control and coordination of organisational operations is realised by means of a hierarchical structure and a system of rules. Bureaucracy emphasised predictability of behaviour and results and showed greater stability over time. Weber believed that rational-legal authority, which is possessed by incumbents in positions within the formal hierarchy and accepted by subordinates who acknowledge its legitimacy because of its sources, integrates bureaucracy. According to him, power is the ability to induce the acceptance of orders; legitimisation is acceptance of such power because it is in accordance with the values of subordinate; and finally, authority is the legitimisation of power. Subordinates are prepared to comply with authority in the bureaucratic model because to do so is consistent with the rules and the authority, which govern them. In this sense, such authority is seen to be rational and legal. Weber claimed that an ideally rational organisation is one that performs its task with maximum efficiency and that bureaucracy is an ideal type of formal organisation. A bureaucratic organisation is a formal organisation. The model is applicable both in private and public sectors. The Public sector in particular has always been associated with bureaucracy. Lawton and Rose (1994) pointed out:

"A cursory examination on many modern public sector organisation may lead one to conclude that they often approximate to the Weberian ideal type" (p.34).
The mechanistic or bureaucratic structure is common in the public sector organisations due to three main reasons. First, the environments are less turbulent as compared to the private sector. Second, the public sector is normally large in size, therefore mechanistic structure provide a systematic mechanism to make control and co-ordination possible. Third, public sector’s effectiveness affects a large number of people and in some countries it affects the whole nation. What such an organisation need is a structure, which ensures formality, predictability of rules and procedures. Mechanistic structure facilitates such requirements.

There are six major features of a bureaucratic organisation as follows:

1. The employment relationship is contractual. Individuals are recruited, selected and employed on the basis of formal criteria relating to qualifications and experiences.

2. Division of labour is strongly emphasised. The division of labour may take a number of forms, for example (a) the division between line and staff (b) professional specialisation.

3. Decision making is centralised and yet delegated. It means that broad strategic decisions are taken at the top level while decision on operational and routine matters are dispersed down the hierarchy.

4. Information and communication flows vertically. Decisions on roles are communicated down and feedback information flows upward. The communication between managers and subordinates are formal and impersonal.
(5) Co-ordination and the control system is exercised vertically and impersonally. The control system is translated into rules, regulations, and procedures. Perrow (1972) distinguished three basic rules in organisations. First, organisational regulations, aimed mainly at disciplining employees and specifying standard behaviour at work. Second, the organisational 'constitution', which clarifies employee rights. The third type is the administrative procedures, which seek to clarify how work should be done, indicating when and how events, people, and materials are to be dealt with, in the context of a particular work role.

(6) A bureaucratic organisation put great emphasis on regularity, predictability, and control. Written records and files of past actions are used as a reference point by which present actions are guided to ensure regularity, routine and continuity.

Although the main concern of bureaucracy is to improve technical efficiency, it has its own device to influence an employee’s motivation to work. Such devices are job security through permanent employment, status through job title, salaries and other fringe benefits. The existence of hierarchy in the pyramid gives employees opportunities for vertical promotion in the organisational hierarchy.

The Strengths and weaknesses of Bureaucracy

(1) The employment relationship in a bureaucratic organisation is contractual. Individuals are recruited, selected and employed on the basis of formal criteria relating to qualifications and experiences. Once they are employed, the duties and responsibilities are defined in formal job
descriptions, and the relationship with other work-roles is clarified in reporting relationships and organisational charts. Promotion is based on regulated criteria, which usually is a combination of qualification and experience or seniority. Impersonality could have both good and bad implications on employee’s motivation. The problem with the impersonality principle is that it undermines the importance of social interactions and informal relationship. Some employees may feel more enthusiastic in an informal rather than formal work atmosphere.

However, impersonality means that employees, regardless of their social background, receive fair treatment from the organisation. If the employees feel that they are fairly treated, they are likely to have a positive attitude toward their work and the organisation.

(2) Division of labour and explicit job descriptions help to avoid role ambiguity. Role ambiguity has been associated with job dissatisfaction (Katz and Khan, 1978).

(3) In bureaucratic organisations decision making is centralised and yet delegated. The key decisions can be divided into two categories. One is decision about policy and the other is related to rule making. Policy is decided by senior or top management and is imposed ‘top-down’ through the hierarchy. Rule making on the other hand is undertaken by specialist departments.

The systematic delegation of authority provides employees with opportunities to get involved in the running of the organisation according to their own expertise and capacity. Such an
involvement could enhance their work motivation and commitment to the organisation.

(4) The control system is translated into rules, regulations, and procedures. Rules and regulations offer predictability and protection to the employees. The employees would feel secure when management protects their rights and this in turn could help to boost their (employees) morale. A sense of job security is particularly important in cultures where uncertainty avoidance is high.

(5) In accordance with bureaucracy, employees should be rewarded for their effort and dedication. In addition to fixed salary, they receive periodical increments, annual bonus and promotion. These positive reinforcements are used to enhance employees’ motivation.

Employees who do not perform within a specified standard are negatively punished, for instance, by withholding of rewards, or getting transferred. Similarly, disciplinary actions are imposed upon those employees who break workplace regulations. The negative reinforcements work as a control mechanism to put those uncommitted employees back on track. However, as discussed in the previous chapter, the effectiveness of negative reinforcements may vary from one cultural or organisational context to another.

(6) Employees may receive a wide range of fringe benefits. Formal training is given from time to time to improve employee performance both in technical and administrative skills, and knowledge in organisational procedures. Although such reward packages could be available in any organisation, in bureaucratic organisations they are normally made explicit.
The combination of various motivational tools would help to cater for the different needs of employees in the organisation. This would help to improve employee job satisfaction.

(7) Because of rigidity and inflexibility the bureaucratic model tends to have difficulties in coping with changes and accepting new ideas. Kohn (1971) stated that the model is alleged to be inflexible and resistance to change, largely because of adherence to rules and regulations and the vested intentions that exist in its highly differentiated structure.

Employees might be demotivated because they are unable to fully utilise their ideas and creativity at work due to the rigidity of the prescribed rules. As for instance, a customer service officer may like to propose a new method which he or she believes could improve the quality service offered by the organisation, but is constrained by the rules and regulations imposed by the organisation. Sherman and Smith (1984) based on the findings of their research conducted in American church organisations, concluded that a mechanistic organisational structure has an adverse impact on intrinsic motivation because it weakens a sense of self-determination as a result of the low level of autonomy, freedom, and high level of standardisation.

Nevertheless, employees' responses to rules and regulations vary from one cultural context to another. For instance, in Asia, to show loyalty to their leaders and conform to the expectation of others, shows a tendency that people are willing to comply with the rules and regulations. On the other hand, in the West where personal freedom is greatly emphasised, people have a tendency to seek a sense of autonomy, independence and self-growth from their jobs. Thus, too many rules and regulations would make the
employees uneasy and are likely to have a negative impact on their motivation and job satisfaction.

Despite the weaknesses and criticisms, the main point is that hierarchy provides a career, and individuals are motivated by the prospect of career advancement. This is a significant contribution of the Weberian concept of bureaucracy to work motivation.

THE SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES AMONG THE THEORIES

The difference between the Scientific Management and the Human Relations view on human nature is similar to that of theory X and Y (Douglas McGregor 1960). Using theory X assumptions, human beings are lazy, dislike work and try to avoid it whenever possible. Therefore, in order to motivate the employees, leaders and managers should either use punishment, threats and coercion on one extreme or coaxing and rewarding on the other. Theory Y, like the Human Relations, assumes that human beings are basically creative, enjoy work, and seek self-actualisation. What the management need to do in order to motivate the employees is to create conducive environments, and provide a sense of achievement and growth.

The similarity between the Scientific Management and Bureaucracy is that both theories view people as "rational beings'. Employees would perform the job well if they thought that by doing so they could achieve their objectives. The main difference between a Scientific Management and Bureaucratic organisation is that the former only focuses on the financial
reward to meet the basic needs of the employees whereas the latter provides job security and a chance to move upward in the organisational hierarchy through vertical promotion as well as the basic salary. In addition, although the Scientific Management and Bureaucracy focus on the formal structure of an organisation, the former was intended to deal with the problems at the shop-floor level whereas the latter focuses on the whole organisation.

The difference between the Human Relations and the other organisational theories, is that it focuses on the informal rather than formal aspect of organisation. It also puts a great emphasis on the social and psychological needs of employees whereas the other two focus on the economic interest. The Human Relations theory also emphasises the important role of a leader in providing moral support and direction to the employees. The assumption is that employees are more responsive to a 'soft' approach to motivation, such as praise and social recognition, than material rewards and punishment.

ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE AND STRUCTURAL DIMENSIONS

Organisational structure is the pattern of relationships among positions in the organisation and among members of the organisation (Mulin, 1998). The purpose of structure is to divide work among members of the organisation and co-ordinate their activities so that they are directed towards the achievement of organisational goals and objectives. The structure defines tasks and responsibilities, work roles, relationships, and channels of communication. The basic structural element is the position of organisational members
Organisational structure is normally illustrated in the form of an organisational chart. The organisational chart gives a pictorial representation of the structural framework of an organisation. It shows, as at a given period of time, the work divisions, the grouping together of activities, the level of authority and formal organisation relationship. However, organisational chart has a number of limitations, for instance, it does not show the comparative authority and responsibility of positions on the same level nor informal communications. Examples of the organisational structure are simple, functional, matrix and hybrid.

All formal organisations have some elements of bureaucracy. The difference between the structure of one formal organisation and another lies in the bureaucratic variations on the dimensions. Based on the literature review (James and Jones, 1976; Hage, 1965; Evan, 1963; Pugh, Hickson, Hinnings, MacDonald, Turner, and Lupton, 1963) structural dimensions could be grouped into the following headings: centralisation, standardisation, formalisation, specialisation, and the shape of the structure including span of control and height. These dimensions show the differences among units within an organisation or among organisations. Each structural dimension may be conceptualised as a continuum; organisational structures may be compared and contrasted based on their degree of centralisation, formalisation, and complexity and height.

Centralisation is refers to the location of decision-making authority in the organisation. A centralised is one in which decisions are made by one or a few top members of the
organisation; in a decentralised structure, authority for making
decisions is dispersed throughout the organisation.

**Standardisation** is the degree to which the procedure and
regulations are standardised.

**Formalisation** refers to the extent to which expectations
concerning job activities are standardised and explicit. The
clearer and the more detailed these specifications are for
particular role or task, the greater the degree of
formalisation. Thus formalisation reflect the amount of
discretion that is build into a particular role or position.
Formalisation may vary from one organisation function to
another. For instance, people in accounting and production
functions have much more standardisation in their activities
(standard procedures and methods of work accomplishment) than
members of marketing, human resources, or research and
development departments (with less stable and less repetitive
activities).

**Specialisation** could be divided into two types; vertical and
horizontal specialisation. Vertical specialisation takes place
through hierarchical level, for instance Financial Supervisor
and Financial Clerk. Horizontal specialisation occurs through
division of labour, for example, Bricklayer, Painter and so on.

**Configuration** refers to the shape of the structure. It includes
the height of the pyramid and the average span of control. These
two components are interrelated. Where the average span of
control is narrow normally there are many levels in the
hierarchy which gives a tall organisational configuration. On
the other hand, wide span of control usually result in a small
number of levels and make a flat structure. Most of these dimensions have already been discussed under Bureaucracy.

Most of the studies on the relationship between organisation structure and job behaviour and attitudes were conducted in 1960s and throughout the 70s. The following are some of the results of the studies.

(1) In a study on managerial attitudes conducted by Porter and Lawler (1964), it was concluded that a tall structure was better in producing security and satisfaction of social needs, while a flat structure was better for self-actualisation.

(2) In 1965, Porter and Lawler also found that both organisational and sub-system size were significantly related attitudes and behaviour. They postulated that increasing sub-unit size led to low group cohesiveness, high task specialisation, and poor communication which in turn led to need dissatisfaction, high absenteeism and labour strife. In the same year a study conducted by Indik also showed organisational size was related to attitudes and behaviour. Increasing organisational size is positively to absenteeism. Ingram (1970) found that larger organisations tended to have more absenteeism but he stated that the relationship between organisational size and absenteeism might be mediated by culture.

(3) A review of eighteen studies on the relationship between the height of the pyramid and satisfaction, Cummings and Berger (1976) concluded that the top managers in tall organisations were more satisfied than were top managers in flat organisations. On the other hand, middle and lower level management in flat organisations were more satisfied than their counterparts in flat organisations.
Child (1973) found that the centralisation and formalisation operated as complementary organisational devices, which restricted behavioural discretion of the employees. This could have an adverse effect on motivation. Aiken and Hage (1967) found that decentralisation of authority was negatively related to alienation from work, however, formalisation helped to reduce role ambiguity by making the expectation about role performance clearer.

Scott et al (1981) stated that the relationship between specialisation and standardisation, and job satisfaction was curvilinear. A moderate amount of specialisation and standardisation was perceived to be more satisfying than either very low or very high levels. As for instance, increased specialisation through division of labour could reduce skills variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback from the job (Oldham and Hackman, 1976; 1980).

**Tall versus Flat Structure**

The existence of a hierarchy of job grades together with relatively secure employment would mean that employees could look forward to career progression.

Child (1984) in his argument for tall hierarchy, stated:

"They (employees) can experience some degree of advancement up the many steps of a tall hierarchy ladder, perhaps at a more frequent intervals, whereas those in a flat structure are likely to be stuck at the same level for many years and advance up very few steps. This will help to enhance work motivation among the employees" (pg.61).
On the other hand, the negative affects of a flat structure on promotion opportunities have been stressed by former ICI boss, Sir John Harvey Jones (1991). He stated,

"If the company/organisation structures are severely flattened it will remove one of the incentives for achievement, that of an increase in status. If promotion prospects are removed, it can act as a disincentive, can lead to disillusionment, possibly disenchantment and probably disaffection" (pg. 29).

Thus, the existence of a hierarchy in an organisation gives the employees opportunities to move upward in the career ladder. The taller the organisational structure, the greater the chance and expectation for promotion. Such an expectation could act as a driving force to work harder. On the other hand, a relatively flat organisational structure limits the opportunity to progress through the organisational hierarchy. The adverse impact of a flat structure on employees' motivation likely to more serious in a culture where hierarchy is perceived to be very important to the society.

A flat structural design focuses on horizontal development and psychological growth through job redesign programmes. It is an effort to use the insight derived from a knowledge of organisational design to improve and modify motivation. The delayering of organisational structure is normally followed by job redesign programmes such as job enlargement and job enrichment. The following section describes the link between job design and organisational structure.
Job Design and Organisational Structure

The history of job design started with the development of the Scientific Management. Time and motion studies were conducted to find the most efficient way to do a particular job using specialisation and division of labour. In the 1950s the developments of job design continued with the introduction of job rotation and job enlargement with an intention to minimise boredom due to specialisation. Job enlargement or horizontal loading programme provides an employee with opportunities to do more than one task at the same job level while job rotation switches people around the job with the similar objectives. Following the development of the Two-factor theory, Herzberg introduced “job enrichment” into the existing job design approach. His work was further developed by Hackman and Oldham using the Job Characteristic Model (discussed in the previous chapter). The current job design approach is aimed at enhancing employees’ motivation and reducing job dissatisfaction by providing skills variety, task identity, task significance, feedback and a sense of autonomy. It is an alternative approach in rewarding employees.

The job enlargement and enrichment programmes need a flat and decentralised structure where authority, power and decision making are delegated. In a tall and highly centralised structure, it may not be possible to enrich or enlarge one’s job. For instance, although job enrichment increases an employee’s level of autonomy, if the current structure gives him no formal authority to do the job, the exercise becomes meaningless. Thus, to a large extent, structural support determines the success and failure of a job design programme.
The Contingency Approach to Organisational Structure

The main pitfall of the earlier approaches to organisation such as the Scientific Management, Human Relations, and Bureaucracy is that they suggest that there is only one best way to manage and structure an organisation. For example, Weber (1947) stated that bureaucracy is an ideal form of organisation, however, according to him the ideal form of organisation did not take the realities of the environments within which it operates. Thus, what is "ideal" may not be realistic. The Human Relations approach proposed that a flat organisation structure with a high degree of decentralisation, which allows employees to participate in decision making, is the best structure.

However, organisations do not operate in a vacuum. There are internal and external environments which produce forces impinging on an organisation with which it must deal effectively if it is to survive (Duncan, 1979). For this reason, Contingency theory or Structural Contingency (Donaldson (1987) was developed. Contingency theorists reject the notion that there is one best model for an organisational structure. Instead, they suggest that for any particular organisation, the most appropriate structure is that which best fits the particular organisation, depending upon a number of variables such as size, technology, people, and external environments.

Based on the concept of the Contingency, a development of an organisation structure may take three steps. First, the management has to define performance criteria, for instance, profitability, market share, and labour turnover etc. The second step is to analyse the economic and market or technological
environments of the organisation. Finally, an organisation structure is designed to fit to the requirements of both organisational objectives (based on performance criteria), and the environments. The main assumption is that the organisation performance is dependent on the goodness of fit between the organisation structure and its environments. Figure 3.1 shows this process.

Fig.3.1

Context → Structure

Goodness of fit is the major influence on Performance

(Adapted from Lee and Lawerence, 1980)

Three main contributors to this field of studies are Lawrence and Lorch (1969), Joan Woodward (1958), and Burns and Stalker (1961). Lawrence and Lorch (1969) used the terms 'congruence' and 'determinism'. Congruence refers to the extent to which technology and structure are well matched. Congruence is achieved when there is a good 'fit' between the technology used and the structure of the organisation. The concept of 'determinism' argues that various organisational characteristics are determined by contextual factors. Lawrence and Lorch studied a highly effective and a less effective organisation in three different environments, which differed with respect to rate of technological change for the products they produced, the production methods, and environmental uncertainty. They
concluded that organisations in a stable environment are more effective if they have more detailed procedures and a more centralised decision making process, while organisations in unstable environment should be decentralised, have more participation and put less emphasis on rules and standard procedures to be effective.

Woodward (1958; 1965) conducted a study on the relationship between organisation structure, technology, and performance. The study involved 100 firms employing over 100 employees in South-East Essex. Woodward was concerned to know whether the most successful firms would be those whose structure most complied with the classical ideas. She obtained a great deal of background information about each company; its size, its industry, and its performance. Structure was measured in terms of the level of authority in the management hierarchy, the span of control, the ratio of managers and supervisory staff to administrative staff. Technology, on the other hand, was divided into unit and small production, large batch, and process production. The results of her research showed that most successful firms have certain (limited) number of people reporting to one supervisor, level of authority, and the right ratio of supervisory staff to administrative staff. For instance, where unit production technology is applied, most successful firms had between 21 to 30 employees reporting to one supervisor, the level of authority in the hierarchy is limited to three, and there was one manager in every twenty two employees. Woodward concluded that technology determines structure. At the low and the high ends of the technology, a flatter structure is the best, while in the middle of the technology (mass production), a relatively tall structure is appropriate. She believed that the most successful firms using a
particular technology were those which approximated to the right structure.

Burns and Stalker (1961) made one of the major contributions in the Contingency theory. They conducted a study on 20 industrial organisations in the United Kingdom to examine the relationship between managerial actions and the external environments of the organisation. They suggested that to ensure success, congruence between organisational structure and economic and social environment is needed. They proposed two types of organisation, Mechanistic and Organic.

**Mechanistic** is a very formal structure with rigid rules and regulations and would not be congruent with a rapidly changing technologically based market determined by contextual factors. In such organisations, roles are clearly defined, tasks allocation within a hierarchical system of control and co-ordination and there is strict adherence to rules and procedures. The structure tends to be relatively taller. It is suitable for stable environments, and where employees have a low expectation of discretion and autonomy. A stable environment refers to a situation where there is no or very little change in production systems, market demand, technology, and the like. Mechanistic structures represent Weber’s ideal types of bureaucracy.

**Organic structures**, on the other hand, have more fluid definition of roles and responsibilities, centred on expertise rather than on hierarchical positions, with extensive horizontal and interdepartmental information flows and maximum flexibility of structure to encourage innovation and problem solving by individuals. It is more appropriate for organisations operating
in complex environments with highly qualified, trained, and 'discretionary' staff. This suggests another way in which motivation and job satisfaction can be influenced by organisational structure.

Child (1981) proposed that the effectiveness of either organic or mechanistic structure be moderated by national culture.

**National Culture and Structure (Culture as a contingency)**

A major development in the study of structural contingency is an attempt to relate cultural components to organisational structure. The main contributor to this field of studies is Hofstede (1980). Using the survey data, he examined the variations in structure and processes in subsidiaries of a multi-national corporation in thirty-nine countries to differences in values in their respective societal environments. He found that the power distance could influence the degree of centralisation and decentralisation, the relative number of hierarchical levels in an organisation, the average span of control, the relation between the number of managers, experts, specialists and subordinates, and the reward structure. A flat structure is suited to countries with a culture in which hierarchical distances are small and vice versa.

In a culture where uncertainty avoidance is high, Hofstede proposed that there is a need for a clear structure, clear procedures, and a clear hierarchy. Organisations in such countries tend to have a large (uncertainty reducing) number of staff and a sizeable middle management layer which inform the top in detail and to realise plans.
Hofstede also stressed that in countries such as Japan, the Latin-American, Islamic and some Asian countries where there are great power distances and high tendency of uncertainty avoidance, organisations are characterised by 'pyramid' (full bureaucracy). The relationships around and between individuals on one hand and the labour process on the other hand are strictly defined in formal rules, laws or traditions. The hierarchy within the organisation is also greatly emphasised.

However, in some countries in South-east Asia (low level of uncertainty avoidance, relatively large power distance), rules, hierarchy, and tradition determine the relationship between people, but the labour process is not strictly structured. The dominant organisational model in these countries is traditional family (personal bureaucracy).

Hofstede’s findings are consistent with those of Crozier’s in his pioneer study regarding cultural influence on bureaucracy in France. Crozier (1964) stated that the process by which bureaucratic organisations control their members and employees are related to their personalities, social values and patterns of social relationships that exist in their surrounding societies. Although these studies did not discuss the direct impact of using the right structure on motivation and job satisfaction one could conclude that the goodness of fit between culture and structure would result in positive attitudes and behaviour.
The Strength and Weaknesses of the Structural Contingency

The main problem associated with the structural contingency is that most of the research focused too much on profitability and productivity and less on employee motivation and job satisfaction. Performance and success criteria are normally linked with economic benefit. It is assumed that a structure is considered to be effective if it can improve the business performance of the organisation. The “culture free” contingency, in particular, does not take the direct impact of structure on employee motivation into consideration.

In addition, in identifying which variables are critical for the survival of the organisation and which are not, managers could make mistakes. Hales (1995) commented, as a result of human agency rather than the abstract forces, contingency factors are not only susceptible to varying interpretation but are also, in many instances the chosen constraints or deliberate creations of organisations themselves. Another criticism is related to the concept of ‘environmental determinism’. The contingency approach has been criticised for being reactive and passive (for example Child, 1972). According to this viewpoint, a great degree of discretion is available to power holders and decision makers within the dominant coalition in the choice of their environment. Thus, the structural contingency neglects the role of policy formulation and intervention, or sees it only in terms of adaptation to the environments. Scott et al (1981) suggested that organisational structure is developed from an interplay of the organisational context and management decisions.
Despite the criticisms, it provides a further insight into our understanding of relationship among factors influencing organisational structure. The basic principle of contingency approach is valid in a sense that an organisation does not operate in vacuum. The interdependence nature of the relationship between an organisation and its environments means that the organisation has to be responsive to its environments to ensure it survives. The influence of organisational context on structure has been further developed by other related theories such Population Ecology (Hannan and Freeman, 1977) and Institutional Theory (DiMaggio and Powel, 1983, Rowan and Meyer, 1977).

CONCLUSIONS

This chapter began with a discussion on early approaches to organisational design and theories. It revolved around a framework based on the Scientific Management, Human Relations, and Bureaucracy. A bureaucratic and tall organisational structure provides an employee with opportunities for vertical promotion while a flat structure allows horizontal promotion and personal development by increasing responsibility and autonomy of employees. The Contingency theory suggests that there is no one best way to structure an organisation.

Finally, the relationship between organisational structure and behaviour and attitudes may be complex as it may be influenced or mediated by contextual factors particularly national culture (Hofstede, 1980; and Child, 1981). However, the point that this chapter intends to highlight is that is that the way an organisation is structured and designed could affect employee's motivation and job satisfaction.
Chapter 4 - Methodology

INTRODUCTION

The study is concerned with the motivation and job satisfaction of employees at the Brunei Civil Service. It examines the applicability of the current motivation theories in the Eastern culture and the influence of organisational design and structure on motivation and job satisfaction. The aim of this chapter is to discuss the methodology and methods used in the study. This includes the rationale behind the choice of methodology, research strategies, and data collection. It also highlights the strengths and limitations of each approach and the problems encountered during the course of the investigation.

Methodology refers to both general philosophies upon which the collection and analysis of data are based as well as the research methods through which the data is collected (Billot, 1995). Research methods are related principally to tools of data collection.

Social research methodology could be divided into two types; the quantitative, and qualitative methodologies.

Quantitative methodology is concerned with the collection and analysis of information in numerical form. It tends to emphasise relatively on large scale data in order to bring about the gathering of facts and generalisation. An example of a quantitative methodology is a sample survey. Qualitative methodology is dealing with the collection and analysis of information in non-numerical form. It focuses on
explaining in detail smaller number of instances and tends to emphasise the depth rather than breadth of a study.

Qualitative research can establish regularities in social life while quantitative evidence allows the process which links the variables identified to be reassessed. Qualitative research can establish the structural features of social life in many instances, but the use of quantitative research such as a sample survey can help to establish the connections and show underlying patterns, which may take a long time to produce if one is to rely solely on qualitative research.

Bryman (1988) proposed that the choice of methodology is primarily a practical matter of deciding what approach is more suited to the research question or problem at hand. Indeed, it is possible to use both quantitative and qualitative methodologies.

**RESEARCH STRATEGIES**

The research strategies adopted in this study are a combination of a case study and a sample survey. They are combined to produce a general picture of the organisation (Brunei Civil Service), and its cultural contextual conditions. Thus the purpose of combining the two approaches is to fill the "gap" (Bryman, 1988) caused by the inadequacies of each strategy. These strategies will be dealt with one by one.
**Case Study**

Case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon with its real life context especially when boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident (Yin, 1994). In case study method, evidence is collected systematically, and the relationship between variables is studied and planned methodologically. A variety of methods can be used for the data collection process. As far as the study of motivation and job satisfaction of Brunei Civil Servants are concerned, the author used a combination of participant observation, and documents.

In this research, the most significant benefit for using case study is that it covers a lot of issues which could not be addressed using a survey alone and yet they are important to the functioning and survival of the organisation. For instance, it could explain the cultural environments and how the society operates in Brunei and the Brunei government’s organisational structure and systems. As we have seen, these factors affect the motivation and job satisfaction in particular, and work behaviour of employees in general.

In addition, there are other advantages in using case study as follows:

1. In most cases generalisation could be obtained because case study covers the events or behavioural patterns of the whole population in the organisation comprehensively.

2. It uses a systematic approach of data collection, and presentation. In this respect, it offers scientific value to the research.
(3) It can put flesh on the bone of a survey. A case study can be used as a means of identifying the issues which require further investigations, although in some instances, it is carried out as a free-standing exercise.

(4) Due to its holistic approach, case study offers flexibility and can have a wide variety of uses.

The limitations of case studies are:

(1) Case study relies too much on the researcher’s own perception of the events or situations. This makes it subjected to the researcher’s personal prejudice. The author tries to minimise this problem by using as much printed documentation as possible in data collection.

(2) The process of producing a case study takes a longer period than other types of research due to its comprehensive nature. A lot of time is needed in data collection, selection of materials, organising relevant materials or information, and conceptualising such information into meaningful patterns. In fact, in some instances, the content of the case study itself could be more than the results of the investigation.

(3) Unlike most research methods, there is no hiding behind sophisticated techniques. The quality of a case study is dependent on the capability of the researcher. For this reason, Mintzberg (1998) commented that case study tends to produce the best and the worst of results.
As far as this study is concerned, the author thought that case study is suitable because it enables her to present the data she obtained from participant observation in a comprehensive manner.

**Survey Approach**

This study used survey both in the research design and data collection. Survey design refers to a research design or strategy employed by empirical investigators to contribute knowledge to a field of inquiry.

A survey design can be divided into two categories. One is longitudinal or repeated survey and the other is cross-sectional or one-shot survey. The decision on the choice of a strategy is greatly dependent on the purposes of the survey. For instance, if a survey is aimed at evaluating the effectiveness of a new working practice in an organisation, it is appropriate to conduct a survey at least twice (before and after the implementation of the new system). However, if the purpose, like this study, is to assess the attitudes of the employees towards their work in general, a cross-sectional survey would be sufficient.

The main contribution of the survey in this study is that it provides invaluable first hand information on how the employees perceive their jobs. Based on these perceptions their attitudes and motivation were inferred. In addition, bearing in mind the objective nature of the questionnaire, the results are useful as a cross-check mechanism to the qualitative case study. Survey also allows the collection of a large amount of data from a sizeable population in a highly economical way. Generally, the bigger the sample size, the more representative it becomes. In this study, the sample size is 712; the survey took two and a
half months to complete. It may take three times longer to use in-depth interviews.

In addition there are other advantages as follows:

(1) It does not intervene in naturally occurring events, nor does it control them (Arnold, Cooper, and Robertson, 1995. In this sense, it can provide accurate and objective information about major organisational issues.

(2) It can capture people’s impressions of themselves, their environments, and their response to changing conditions.

(3) Using a survey approach gives a researcher more control over the research process. Saunders et al (1997) stated:

“Much time will be spent in designing and piloting the questionnaire. Analysing the results, even with the aid of an appropriate computer package, will also be time consuming. But it will be your time - you will be independent. Many researchers complain that their progress is delayed by their dependence on others for information” (p.76).

(4) It can be used for diverse purposes, including in the study of human perception, behaviour, attitudes, and preferences. For this reason, surveys are extensively used in the Organisational Behaviour field.

Nevertheless, there are a number of limitations of a survey approach. For examples:

(1) Control over variables is not high, many unknown factors may affect results.
(2) Premature closure of questions would mean that people are often forced to give an approximation of their feeling; the answer they want may not be available.

(3) In a case of a cross-sectional survey, data are only collected on one occasion. People’s attitudes and perceptions on the other hand may change over time.

(4) It is largely descriptive and correlational and the nature of the produced data make it difficult to identify causal relationships among variables.

An alternative to a survey is an in-depth interview. However, such an approach can not be applied in this study due to cultural sensitivities. This will be discussed in the next section.

**CULTURAL ISSUES IN DATA COLLECTION**

Although there are many data collection methods in the literature, in practice, the application of such methods may be constrained by cultural environments in the country where the study is conducted. In the case of Brunei, the interview, particularly the in-depth interview, is not feasible. This is because people are simply reluctant to be interviewed. Such behaviours may be linked to the Malay “polite” culture and “indirectness”. Bruneians, particularly the Malays, are not used to discussing their opinions publicly, particularly if they feel that such actions would offend others. This is because such behaviours could create conflict and harm good relationships. Moreover, some people may consider such a topic as job satisfaction and dissatisfaction as “sensitive” and discussing it with other people could affect their loyalty to the
organisation. In some extreme cases the interviewer may be treated with suspicion and could be accused of trying to jeopardise harmony in the group or organisation. However, a survey method using self-administered questionnaires that allow the respondents to give their feedback without being identified seems more acceptable. One possible explanation is that such a method suits the Malay’s "indirect" approach.
DATA COLLECTION METHODS

Given the limited choice of data collection, a combination of participant observation, survey questionnaire, documentary research, and informal discussions were used to reveal the motivation and job satisfaction of employees in the Brunei Civil Service.

Participation Observation

The author drew from her experience working in the Public Affairs department (government and community relations section) of Brunei Shell between 1983 and 1986, and in the Brunei Civil Service since 1989. However, the research based observation only started four years ago. The events observed include meetings, official functions and ceremonies, and day-to-day social interactions among organisational members. At the national or cultural level of investigation, the author used her observation and personal experiences as a member of the community.

An observation approach is normally taken if the research requires an understanding on how people in a social setting live, work and experience the setting. Observation is widely used in cultural research (Hsu, 1971). In this method of data collection, the task of the researcher is to observe everything of the setting itself, patterns of personal relationships, people's reactions to events that take place and so on. An observation involves a number of activities including the description of the setting and events, analysis of what was observed, and interpretation of events to explain data or to generate hypothesis. The participant observation approach
allows the researcher to be an active observer and to observe the setting from the "inside". The researcher can experience events in the same way as other participants or members in the organisation. The problem is that because of her direct involvement in the organisational activities, the researcher may lose the objectivity necessary in scientific observation. However, the main advantage of this method is that the subjects of the investigation tend to behave naturally, as they are not aware of their behaviour being observed.

**Survey Data Collection**

A survey is one of the most common methods of data collection. Hutton (1990), defined a survey as a method of collecting information by asking a set of preformatted questions in a predetermined sequence in a structured questionnaire to a sample of individuals drawn so as to be representative of a defined population. In organisations, it involves the collection of information from employees, managers or anyone associated with the organisational process to illuminate important issues.

As indicated earlier in this chapter, the survey method employed in this study provides invaluable information about the employees’ perceptions. As far as this study is concerned, the inability of the in-depth interview method to operate in the situation makes a survey the best alternative of getting first hand information in a systematic way about the employees’ perceptions and attitudes.

A survey has a number of advantages. The researcher is unlikely to be biased to any particular participant because the questions are preformatted and predetermined. Moreover using questionnaires particularly mail-questionnaires, the problem of
interviewer bias is minimised since the researcher is not present when the respondents are completing the questionnaires. In addition, the questions are the same for all respondents, therefore the answers from individual respondents can be added together to produce results. This simplifies the process of data analysis. Other advantages of a survey include; simplicity and relative ease of administration, and the opportunity to analyse data through a variety of standard statistical procedures.

However, it has a number of limitations. The main limitation particularly in using mail-questionnaire is that the rates of return are typically not as high as might be desired; sometimes they are very low (Sekaran, 1984). Secondly, even when respondents do fill in the questionnaires, the answers may be incomplete or incorrect. Adding to this is the problem caused by lack of face-to-face communication between the researcher and the respondents. For instance, using self-administrative questionnaire technique, any doubt the respondents might have could be clarified on the spot by the researcher. This may not be possible in a mail-questionnaire method. As far as this study is concerned, the author tried to minimise such problems by appointing a co-ordinator who was internal to the organisation. It was the role of the co-ordinator to answer any question related to the questionnaire on behalf of the author.
The Survey Instruments

The Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS)

The author used the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) as a tool to measure motivation. The JDS has been widely used by researchers (Robert and Glick, 1981). This instrument was first developed by Hackman and Oldham in 1974. The Job Diagnostic Survey is a questionnaire which attempts to measure how motivating a job is in the following dimensions: its variety, autonomy, identity, significance, and feedback. It is mainly used as a diagnostic aid for job redesign programmes. Nevertheless, in this case, it is used to assess the current level of internal motivation of the employees. Since its development, a number of revisions have been suggested. Many of the suggestions have called for the inclusion of additional factors (Zoccaro and Stone, 1988) such as job related danger and intellectual demand. Others, such as Cambell and Gerhart (1988) have called for better measures of key terms such as job complexity. However, Oldham and Hackman argued that the suggestions on the modifications of the components of JDS did not alter the validity and reliability of the JDS. For this reason, this study employs the original version of the instrument.

Strengths and Limitations of the Job Diagnostic Survey

The main strength of JDS is that it is an established and accepted instrument. In the author’s opinion, bearing in mind that the time to complete the research project is limited, it is practical to use instruments which are readily available than experimenting with new or original measurements. If a new instrument is used, a lot of time would be spent not only in the
design of the questionnaire, but also in testing the validity and reliability of the instrument.

Measuring motivation is not an easy task to do. JDS is one of few instruments which measure motivation directly. Most instruments available in the literature are designed to measure job satisfaction rather than motivation. Additionally, the JDS focuses on specific factors, that is the job characteristics. Hackman and Oldham (1975) proposed that factors such as autonomy, variety, feedback from the job, and task significance should be strongly correlated with work outcomes such as intrinsic motivation particularly workers with strong needs for intrinsic fulfilment. Previous research has shown that high status employees in the public sector do have a particularly strong need for intrinsic fulfilment (Reif and Menczke, 1976; Cacioppe and Mock, 1984).

However, there are limitations in the use of the JDS scale. First, the growth needs strength, measured by the JDS, could affect the success and failure of a job redesigning programme. People with strong growth need are likely to be prepared to have their job enriched. On the other hand, people with little needs for growth may find job enrichment too stressful and difficult to handle. Secondly, the instrument is readily fakable and should not be used in selection and placement purposes unless there is a high degree of trust between respondents and the individual who will be using the results (Oldham and Hackman, 1980). Employees should be convinced that providing accurate information on their job characteristics and their personal reaction to these characteristics would be for their own benefit. It is preferable to take the JDS under conditions of anonymity. In addition, the language used is quite complicated. Therefore the respondents of the JDS who are not literate may
have problems in understanding the questions. When used in a country where English is not the first language, it may be sensible to have it translated into the local language. As for instance, in this study, the questionnaire is translated to Malay language. Finally, although JDS measures motivation as well as job satisfaction, Oldham and Hackman (1980) proposed that in a proper study of job satisfaction, Job Design Index might be more appropriate. This is because, job satisfaction measure in JDS is only based on a few questions. The author therefore used Job Design Index (JDI) to assess the job satisfaction of the employees.

The Job Design Index (JDI)

As the Job Diagnostic Survey, the Job Design Index is a widely used instrument. It was developed by Smith et al (1969). It contains 72 questions measuring job satisfaction with work, supervision, pay, promotion, and co-worker. There is a list of adjectives or short phrases for each area. Respondents are required to indicate whether or not each phrase applies to the particular facet of their job in question (for example, pay; (Income adequate for expenses). If the phrase applies to their pay, they are asked to write (Y) for yes and (N) for no beside the word. If they cannot decide, they should put a question mark (?). The format is used to minimise a response set which is more likely to arise if response alternatives are printed in a fixed order on the page.

Scoring involves assessing a value of 3 to a “yes” if it is a positive item, and 3 to a “no” if it is a negative item. A “?” on an item gets 1. A “yes” to a positive and a “no” to negative item gets zero weight.
**Strengths and Limitations of the Job Design Index**

The main strength of the JDI is that the linguistic level required to answer the questions is quite low and therefore employees at all levels who could read English could understand the questions. Secondly, it does not ask the respondents how satisfied they are with work, rather it asks them to describe their work. Thus the responses have a job-referent rather than self-referent. Thirdly, the scores are derived from a variety of factors within each job dimension. For instance, there are 18 factors which form satisfaction with work.

Like JDS, this instrument has a number of limitations. For instance, some people may find the way the job-facets were described as blunt and direct. In addition, people’s perceptions vary. A phrase indicated in the JDI scoring system as negative (for example, a job that is routine), could be perceived as positive by employees particularly those who like predictability in their work.

**Are the JDS and JDI Culturally Bound?**

Job diagnostic survey and job design index are two well established and widely used instruments in measuring motivation and job satisfaction. They had been tested and in principle they have proven to be valid and reliable. However, like the theories of motivation and job satisfaction, these instruments were designed in America. Thus, there is a tendency that the questions in the questionnaires were more suitable for American audiences or respondents than those in other cultures. One of the aims of this study is to make a qualitative assessment on the suitability of these two instruments in Bruneian culture.
The use of Malay in the Questionnaire

Both the JDS and JDI were translated into Malay language which is the national language of Brunei to ensure that the participants understood the questions. The author made minor modifications in the light of culture and organisational practices in Brunei. For instance, in JDI, the word “stupid” or “bodoh” (in Malay) was changed to “less intelligent” or “kurang pandai”. The word stupid is perceived to be rude or “kasar” in Malay culture. The second example is the term “profit sharing” which was changed to “annual bonus” since such a scheme does not exist in the government departments.

When the translation work was completed, the author asked a language specialist to cross-check the original (English) and Malays versions of the questionnaires to ensure that they were compatible with each other.

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted in March 1997. The aim of the study was to test the clarity of the questions in the Job Diagnostic Survey and Job Design Index and see how respondents would react to them. In the first part of the questionnaire, the respondents were asked to write their personal details such as job title, gender, age, marital status, and the length of service. The Job Design Index formed the second part, followed by the Job Diagnostic Survey. On the last page, there was a blank space for comments and suggestions.

Most participants in the pilot study were officers attending a two-day course on “Productivity Improvements”, organised by the
Public Service Institute. They were employees in Division II category and they represented different ministries and occupations. Out of 27 sets of questionnaires distributed, 21 were completed and returned to the researcher.

The response to the questionnaire was very encouraging. Some participants suggested that some words needed further clarification. As for instance, when a job was described as "hot" (in Malay "panas") the respondents were not sure whether it literally meant that the work required a person to work in a hot temperature or if it was used to describe a job that is in a great demand. Based on the JDI literature, the author decided to translate the word "hot" to "tidak selesa" or "uncomfortable".

In summary, the pilot study was successful in achieving its objectives. The author decided to use the same questionnaire for the main survey taking on board the comments from the respondents.

Perparation for the Main Survey

The survey used a mail-questionnaire method. Before the main survey took place, the author needed to obtain a covering letter both from the University of Leicester and her sponsor and employer, the Ministry of Education to get access to the respondents. Once the letters were prepared, the author had to decide on how to reach the participants. After considering a number of alternatives, she decided to approach the Human Resource Secretary in each ministry and appoint them as the co-ordinators or focal point. The reason for using co-ordinator is that it is difficult to get access to individual employees in all ministries. The amount of red tape and communication channels involved is numerous. In addition, the study involved
a large number of employees who came from different functions, departments, and ministries. The co-ordinators on the other hand could get easy access to the employees as they are “internal” to their respective ministries.

The respondents had no reporting relationship with the co-ordinators. These co-ordinators were perceived to be “neutral” by both the respondents and the author. This is important particularly to the respondents; it gave them more confidence in giving genuine response to the questions. If the questionnaires were distributed by their supervisors, the employees might feel restricted and they might avoid giving feedback which could be offensive and lead to bad consequences to them and their careers.

**The Roles of Co-ordinators**

The research involved fifteen co-ordinators who represented fifteen ministries in the Brunei government administration. The role of the co-ordinators was to choose the participants based on the criteria given by the author and distribute the questionnaires to the selected participants. Before the questionnaires were distributed, the author gave the co-ordinators the details of the questionnaire including its contents and objectives. This was crucial in a sense that their job was not only to distribute the questionnaire to the target participants but they might have to answer questions on behalf of the author.

Once completed, the questionnaires would be returned to the co-ordinator in each ministry. Finally the author would collect the completed questionnaires from these co-ordinators.
The Main Survey

The survey took place between June and September 1997. The first set of questionnaires was distributed on 30th June. Out of 1,300 sets of questionnaires distributed, 750 were returned. Out of this, only 712 sets were fully completed and usable.

Population and Sampling Method

The population chosen in the study comprised Division II employees in the Brunei Civil Service. They were professional and administrative staff. The whole population of this group is about 4,000.

There are a number of reasons for choosing senior executives as a sample in this study. First, the complex nature of the questionnaires, particularly the JDS may not be easily understood and comprehended by staff at the lower levels.

Secondly, as senior executives, they are the backbone of the organisation. Their job performance is critical to the success and credibility of the government ministries and departments. Effective job performance in return requires a high level of motivation.

Thirdly, most of these officers have subordinates. They are expected to be able to motivate the subordinates. However, this is not possible unless they, themselves are motivated and are seen to be interested in their jobs, the subordinates, the superiors and the organisation as a whole.

Fourth, based on the literature, professionals and high status employees have a strong need for intrinsic fulfilment and self
actualisation (Menczka, 1976; Cacioppe and Mock, 1984). Intrinsic rewards obtained by doing the job itself help to fulfil those higher-order needs. However, professional jobs in large bureaucracies are thought to be limited in the motivating job characteristics such as skills variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback (Sarason, 1977; Realin, 1984).

Finally, the majority of the employees in this job category (about 90%) were educated in the West. They were exposed to western cultures more than those in the lower job groups who were educated locally. Based on their educational background it is possible motivation and job satisfaction theories which were originated from the West, are in line with their ideas and thoughts.


The sampling method used in the survey was stratified sampling. The main reason for choosing this sampling method was to ensure that the respondents represent different occupations within the Division II category. This would fit to the requirements of the

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The respondents were not required to identify themselves but the researcher used coding to identify the ministry immediately after receiving the completed questionnaires.
Job Diagnostic Survey. Using the stratified sampling method, the study population is grouped according to meaningful characteristics or strata.

In this study, the author took one-third of the Division II staff in each ministry, which comprised employees from both sexes and represented different occupations, as the sample. An advantage using this method is that sampling variations are low when compared to the Simple Random Sampling Method.

However, the problem associated with the Stratified Random Sampling method is that the size of each sub-group needs to be calculated. This might cause complications particularly when not everyone selected is willing to participate. In theory, the researcher could always look for a replacement who matches the characteristics of the person selected, but in practice such a task is quite complex.

The Questionnaire

The questionnaire contained the two different instruments namely the Job Diagnostic Survey invented by Oldham and Hackman (1982) which measures both motivation and job satisfaction, and the Job Design Index which was designed by Smith, Kendal and Hulin (1969) to measure job satisfaction. The questionnaire consisted of 72 items form the Job Design Index, 83 items from the Job Diagnostic Survey and 7 more items related to personal details of the respondents.

The questionnaire was divided into three parts; Personal details of the respondents; the Job Design Index, and the Job Diagnostic Survey (see Appendix A).
Documents

In addition to using participant observation and survey questionnaire, the author relied on document as a means of data collection. Documents are the major sources of information in social research. They may be used as the only source or in conjunction with other sources. They could be employed both in qualitative and quantitative research and in diverse areas such as case study, historical research and so on. In this study, documents were extensively used particularly in the study of motivation, job satisfaction and organisational theories. As far as the information on Brunei Civil Service and Bruneian culture is concerned, although the number of relevant documents was limited, documents have been beneficial in providing facts to support the arguments. Furthermore, in the area where it is difficult to get verbal information, the researcher has had to rely on the printed documents. A good example of such a case is the complaints made on the Borneo Bulletin about the attitude of some civil servants in Brunei.

The main advantage of the documentary methods is that they (particularly printed documents) could offer consistency and accuracy. As for instance, the date, names and events are printed and spelt correctly in documents. In addition, documents in general enable researchers to study present and past events. In most cases the researcher does not have to request for the document to be produced because they (the documents) are already available. This reduces the researcher’s bias.

Most documents are easily accessible particularly with the availability of electronic media.
Nevertheless, there are a number of limitations in the use of documents. As for instance, they may be produced for a particular purpose or person. Therefore, the contents may be aimed to suit the first purpose. Moreover, the writers could be biased. For instance, local writers, inspired by their commitment and loyalty to the nation have a tendency to describe the country in a positive way, while outsiders who could not appreciate the ways things are done, may be in favour of only highlighting the negative factors.

Although there are a number of limitations associated with the document methods, they are important as a research tool and it is unusual for a researcher not to use any form of document in his or her research.

In this study, the following documents were used.

**Books and Journals**

Magazines, Brunei Government's Publications, and Papers

These documents include Muhhibah (a monthly magazine of the Royal Brunei Airline), Brunei Darussalam Year Book, A working paper on Brunei Culture and Traditions, Brunei Today (guide for visitors) and other related publications produced by the Information Department in Brunei. The Seventh National Development Plan (1999-2000) booklet provided the latest statistics on the economic development and population growth in the country. In addition, there were briefing notes on the Brunei Government Structure produced by the Information Department, and working papers on Reward Management in the Brunei Public Service.

Personnel Manual

General Order is a comprehensive Personnel Manual of the Civil Service. The manual covers three main areas; the rules and regulations imposed on Civil Servants, employees’ entitlements and benefits, and procedures to be followed in both areas.

Newspapers

Materials on issues related to Brunei Civil Servants were obtained from the only independent local newspaper, Borneo Bulletin. In addition the Times Newspaper (UK), and News Street Times (Malaysia) also provided sources of information on Brunei.
DATA SHORTCOMINGS

(1) The amount of documented information particularly on cultures and organisational behaviour in Brunei was very limited.

(2) There is no prior research on work motivation and job satisfaction or related topics in the country to be used as a foundation. Indeed, past research about Brunei in general which should be useful for reference purposes is also scarce.

(3) Certain types of information (both verbal and written) on the Civil Service systems were confidential.

(4) The choice of research methods was limited by the contextual restrictions (cultural sensitivity).

(5) The author is a Bruneian and an employee of the Brunei Civil service. Her perception of the environments may be influenced by her own personal experiences.

Nevertheless, the author tried to overcome data shortcomings in this study by employing a combination of methods and strategies.
CONCLUSION

This chapter discusses the methodology employed in the study of motivation and job satisfaction of the Brunei Civil Servants. Bearing in mind that there is no one perfect way to collect and present data, the author tried to use various methods and strategies. A combination of case study and survey was used in data presentation while participant observation, survey questionnaire, and documents were the main sources of information in this study. Nevertheless, not all methods and strategies available in the literature are feasible. One of the factors that could affect the choice of methods and strategies is a cultural environment in which the research is conducted. Certain methods and strategies work well in one culture but are totally unacceptable in another and others might be used in different cultural contexts but the effectiveness could vary across cultures.
Chapter 5 - Brunei

INTRODUCTION

This chapter examines the Brunei Public Service organisation and the environment in which it operates. The contextual environment, particularly culture are seen to be very influential in determining and shaping the employees' social and work behaviour. The first part of the chapter is intended to provide the reader with a background introduction to Brunei. It covers four main headings; a short history, the political systems, the economy, and social welfare. The second part is devoted to the socio-cultural environment which seems to have a great influence on the way the employees behave at the work place. The final part of the chapter contains an outline of the Human Resource Management in Brunei Civil Service including reward and compensation systems.

GENERAL INTRODUCTION TO BRUNEI

Brunei, sometimes known as Brunei Darussalam (Brunei the Abode of Peace), is an Islamic Sultanate situated on the north-west coast of Borneo, about 442 kilometres north of the equator. The country has a total area of 5,769 square kilometres. It has a common border with one of the Malaysian states, Sarawak. The state religion is Islam but other faiths such as Christianity, Buddhism, and Hinduism are also practised. The national language is Malay. The country is divided into four districts namely; Brunei-Muara, Tutong, Belait, and Temburong. The Bandar Seri
Begawan, capital city of Brunei is situated in the Brunei-Muara district.

Figure 5.1

**Brunei and South East Asia**
A SHORT HISTORY OF BRUNEI

The Brunei Sultanate rose to prominence in the 15th and 16th century when the country extended throughout Borneo and as far north as The Philippines. This golden period centred on two remarkable rulers, Sultan Bolkiah and Sultan Hasan.

The thrust of European influence within the region in the 17th and 18th centuries marked a decline in the power and territory of Brunei, a process that has hastened in the 19th century. The British influence was predominant and Brunei lost remaining territory to Sarawak under James Brooke.

In 1847, for the first time the close relationship between Britain and Brunei was formalised with a treaty for the improvement of trade relations and for both states to co-operate in the suppression of piracy.

In 1888, North Borneo became a British protectorate state. In 1906, Brunei accepted a further measure of British control with executive power going to a British Resident whose duty was as ruler on all matters, except those concerning religion and local customs. Brunei remained under the Residency agreement until 1959, when a larger measure of domestic internal rule was granted by the Constitutional agreement of that year. In 1971, full internal sovereignty was resumed. In 1984, the country resumed full political sovereignty, with responsibility for its own external affairs and defence.
THE POLITICAL SYSTEM

Brunei’s political system rests on the twin pillars of the country’s written Constitution and the traditional Malay Islamic Monarchy. These two factors dominate both the formal political life of Brunei and its government ethos. An additional feature is the country’s adherence to the rule of law, a system based primarily on the English Common Law system, and the independence of the judiciary.

M.I.B

Brunei upholds the tenets of a Malay Islamic Monarchy or in Malay language known as “Melayu Islam Beraja” (MIB) as a formula to ensure amity among the people. The MIB concept is a national concept which integrates the language, culture and Malay customs, teachings of Islamic laws and monarchical system of administration. This concept was made official in January 1984 when Brunei resumed its full independence, nevertheless the philosophy and values that it propagates is not new to the Bruneian society.

The Constitutions

The first written Constitution came into force in 1959. Since then it was amended twice, one in 1971 and the other in 1984. The 1959 Constitution gives a full executive authority to the Sultan as the Head of the State. He is assisted by five councils namely Privy, Succession, Religious, Legislative Council, and the Council of (Cabinet) Ministers.
Under the 1959 Constitution, the Chief Minister became the highest ranking official. The British High Commissioner was the adviser to the government on all matters except those relating to the religion and Malay customs. In practice, however, the country was self-governing in all internal, including financial, matters.

In 1971, the Constitution was amended. With the amendment the British Government retained responsibility only for foreign affairs whilst defence became the joint responsibility of both countries (Brunei and the United Kingdom).

The 1959 Constitution continues to be enforced and is the supreme law which provides the basic constitutional framework for the administration of the country, even after the Brunei independence in 1984. However, changes were made to give credence to the new status of Brunei Darussalam as a sovereign and an independent country. The former offices of the Chief Minister, the State Secretary, and the State Financial Officer were abolished and replaced by the Prime Minister and other Ministers. However the supreme executive authority remained vested in His Majesty the Sultan. The Ministers including the Prime Minister are appointed by the Sultan to hold office at his preference.

Historically, The Sultan of Brunei has always acted in consultation with his traditional advisers, principally the Wazirs (Viziers). Therefore on important State and constitutional documents, the signatures and seals of the Principal Wazir, indicating their agreement, appear together with the signature and seal of the Sultan. After the establishment of the British Resident system, the system was formalised and the State Council was formed. The Council was
presided over by the Sultan. The British Resident was added to
the list of the advisers. After the 1959 Constitution, the
State Council was abolished and replaced by the Council of
Ministers and the Legislative Council. The traditional advisers
continued to play an important role under the 1959 Constitution.
Even though they are no longer involved in the process of
government, most of them became members of the Privy Council and
the Council of Succession. After the resumption of full
independence in 1984, the Council of Ministers became the
Council of Cabinet Ministers. The consultative process has been
subject to continuous refinement. Gradual changes were made to
cope with new circumstances and the needs of modern
administration. An example, is a reorganisation of the Cabinet
Ministers in 1986 whereby the number of Ministries was increased
and Deputy Minister and Attorney General posts were created. A
provision was also made for His Majesty the Sultan to exercise
the power to promulgate laws in the absence of the Legislative
Council.

The Administrative Structure of the Brunei
Government

The Brunei government system and structure help to clarify the
 provision and the implementation of the government legal power
in the country (Information Department, 1996). The structure,
in particular, helps to ensure the continuity of the ruling,
bringing about social and political stability of a country.

The Government is responsible for making and implementing
policies, organising programmes to promote infrastructure and
industry, maintaining law and order, regulating the economy, and
social services. These roles are very much in line with those specified in the traditional Public Administration concept.

Figure 5.2 illustrates the administrative structure of the government of Brunei. The structure is based on function. The organisation chart shows that the Sultan is the Head of the State. Below him are the five councils, namely the Council of Succession, Privy Council, Council of the Cabinet Ministers, Religious Council, and Legislative Council. Under the Council of Cabinet Ministers is the Prime Minister’s Office followed by other ministries.

The functions of the Privy Council are to advise on matters related to the exercise of prerogative of mercy, amendment of revocation of the constitution, to handle appointment of people to the Malay customary ranks, title, honours, and dignitaries, and to perform any other duties required by the Law.

The function of the Council of Succession is to determine the succession to the throne and appointment of the Crown Prince. The Religious Council was set up to advise His Majesty the Sultan on all matters pertaining to Islam. The function of the Legislative Council is to give advice to the Sultan on matters related to laws and orders in the government. The Council of Cabinet Ministers is responsible for matters related to the government policies and administration.
Figure 5.2

His Majesty The Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan of Brunei Darussalam

- The Council of Succession
- The Privy Council
- The Council of Cabinet Ministers
- The Religious Council
- The Legislative Council (suspended since 1984)

Prime Minister's Office

12 Ministries

- Ministry of Defence
- Ministry of Finance
- Ministry of Home Affairs
- Ministry of Foreign Affairs
- Ministry of Education
- Ministry of Law
- Ministry of Industries and Primary Resources
- Ministry of Religious Affairs
- Ministry of Development
- Ministry of Culture, Youth, and Sports
- Ministry of Health
- Ministry of Communication
THE ECONOMY

The income of Brunei is estimated to be about US$20,000 Per capita. The official currency is the Brunei dollar, but Singapore dollars are equally exchanged and can be used. The current inflation rate is about 3 per cent. The unemployment rate is 4.9 per cent, according to 1995 Labour Force Survey.

The main source of income is oil and natural gas. However, the value has dramatically declined because of falling of prices. This causes a reduction of the trade balance surplus by 60 per cent from $2,400 million in 1991 to $1000 million in 1995. The government is aware that these two natural resources may not last forever. Plans have been made to move away from an oil-based economy to a diversified economic structure. These plans include farming, some forestry, and eventual self-sufficiency in beef production. The private sector is encouraged to take a more active role in business and industry than before. In addition, the government introduced privatisation programmes as a way to trim down its financial and administrative burden.

LABOUR FORCE AND EMPLOYMENT

The overall labour force participation rate (LFTR) of those aged between 15 and 64, was 70.8 per cent in 1995 and is expected to increase to 71.5 per cent by year 2000, largely reflecting the increase in female participation.

According to 1991 statistics, out of 111,000 persons in the workforce, 46 per cent were in the Public Sector including the Army and the Police Force, and 54 per cent were in the Private Sector. Two-thirds of the Brunei citizens and permanent
residents were employed in the Public Sector while the same proportion of employees engaged in the Private Sector were temporary residents (contract labour migrants). This figure showed that there was a distribution imbalance in employment whereby citizens and permanent residents seemed inclined to work for the Public Sector where benefits are better as compared to the Private Sector.

At present, it seems that Brunei’s small population is insufficient to provide all the manpower needed to implement the target in its development plans. The government has to rely on foreign workers from Malaysia, Thailand, and the Philippines, Indonesia, Singapore, Bangladesh, and India. The foreign workers who range from labourers to executive officers, have helped to ease labour shortages and make up over a third of the work force. In its effort to reduce the country’s reliance on foreign workers, the government gives priority to the training of locals in technical and professional fields.

**WELFARE AND SOCIAL SERVICES**

The people in Brunei enjoy a relatively high quality of life due to the high level of welfare provisions.

In Brunei there is no personal income tax. Basic necessities such as rice, sugar and even petrol are subsidised by the government. Education and medical services are free for all citizens of Brunei. Citizens who are landless, are eligible to join the resettlement scheme. Under this housing scheme, a person only needs to pay for the cost of the house and payment is made on an instalment basis.
The needy are well cared for. All citizens who are 60 years of age or above are given non-contributionary pensions. There is a special welfare provision, which covers cash allowances to less fortunate families, assistance to victims of natural disasters, funds for the handicapped and orphans. Counselling and advisory services are set up to offer support to families in domestic disputes. In addition, those who work in the government departments are offered many privileges, such as interest-free loans for purchasing a car and house, and so on.

Under the Seventh National Development Plan document (1996-2000), the total allocation for the social development and services programmes is approximately B$1.98 billion. Out of this amount B$918.3 million is allocated for the housing programmes.

**POPULATION**

According to a 1997 estimate, the population of Brunei is 305,100, comprising 161,500 males and 143,600 females. The largest racial group is Malay, which comprises 204,000 people (66.9%), followed by Chinese, 46,300 people (15.2%). Other indigenous groups and races consist of 5.9 per cent and 11.9 per cent respectively. One hundred and twenty six thousand and five hundred persons (41.4%) are below the age of twenty, and 20,600 (6.8%) are aged 55 years and above. The Brunei-Muara district has the largest population of 201,100 persons (65.9%). The populations of the Belait and Tutong districts are 61,800 persons (20.3%), and 33,500 persons (11%) respectively. Temburong district has the smallest population of about 8,700 persons (2.9%). An annual rate of population increase is 3 per cent. The rate is quite high compared to the world population
in 1991-1995 which grew 1.7 per cent per annum (United Nation Population and Development, 1995). The comparatively high growth was contributed by temporary foreign residents who add 0.5 per cent to the local growth rate of 2.5 per cent. However, the decline of fertility rate has caused the total population growth to 3 per cent as compared to 3.4 per cent in the last decade. There are a number of reasons for the decline in the fertility rate, for instance, late marriages, and increased participation of female in the labour force.

The Malays

The majority of Bruneians are Malays. According to the Constitution, the Malays consist of seven indigenous groups namely; Bruneias\(^5\), Kedayan, Dusun, Tutong, Bangsa Belait, Dusun, and Visaya. Among these groups, the Bruneias\(^5\) is the largest group followed by the Kedayans. Perhaps this is the reason why there are more books and articles about Brunei discussing the Bruneias and Kedayan than the other groups.

The Bruneias, Kedayans, and Tutong are Muslims. Some of the Bangsa Belait, Dusun, and Visaya convert to Islam while others are free thinkers. Despite the religious differences, these groups share the Malay cultures and traditions. For instance the type of the costumes they wear, their relationships with family and so on being very similar. The only distinctive

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\(^5\) Bruneias are not to be confused with all residents or citizens of Brunei. The people of Brunei are referred to as Bruneians.
feature, apart from the religion, is the dialect they use when speaking to people from their own groups.

Traditionally, the Bruneias had a strong preference for living near the capital. They worked as traders and craftsmen. The Kedayans, and the other indigenous groups lived in villages. They were traditionally farmers and agriculturists. However, in both cases, the younger generation has shown a preference to seek office work.

**Other Races**

In addition to these indigenous groups, are the Chinese, Indians, and Europeans. Some of the Chinese are citizens but the majority are permanent residents. The Chinese came from the Mainland China and Malaysia. The Chinese in Brunei are actively involved in commerce. Most of them run their own businesses. The Indians came to Brunei since 19th century. They are involved in trading activities such as selling fabrics and jewellery. Like the Chinese, some of them are citizens and others are permanent residents. The early Europeans (mainly British) came to the region to colonise areas near Brunei. In 1906, when the British Residential system was set up in Brunei, some of them took administrative posts in the government, while others were engaged in commerce. However, the majority of them did not stay long in Brunei. Currently, most of the Europeans in Brunei work in the Brunei Shell Companies, however, there are some who are employed in the government departments on a contract basis.
SOCIO-CULTURAL ENVIRONMENTS

In Brunei, customs and traditions are a collection of Islamic religious obligations, Malay traditions, rites and ancient superstitious (pre-Islamic values) and some of foreign cultural practices, blended and adopted to the local tastes. They are everything all at once; a guide to correct behaviour, a check to improper acts and protection against the unknown. Even protocol, etiquette and proper manners are governed by these customs and traditions. In some cases they help to preserve social harmony and built up community spirit. The Brunei Year Book quoted the importance of tradition and culture in Bruneians’ lives.

"In the ever changing world, customs and traditions are the two constants in the lives of Bruneians. They are unwritten constitutions that set the values that makes Brunei what it is today" (1998).

The vital role of culture in society encouraged Brunei Shell (the biggest multi-national company in Brunei) to change its corporate values. In the mid 1980s, the Company transformed its old values based on the Western culture to a new set of values. The new values are perceived to be more Eastern and more in line with Bruneian culture than the old one, for instance, the importance of family is emphasised in the new corporate values.

The Do and The Don’ts

There are a number of “dos” and “don’ts” in Bruneian customs, which are aimed at promoting social graces, good manners, and maintaining communal harmony. Among them are, as follows:
(1) Pointing with the index finger is a rude gesture. Instead, a person is expected to use the thumb with the fists clenched lightly.

(2) When entering a Malay house people are expected to take off their shoes and leave them outside. If sitting on the floor, the correct way for men to sit is with the legs folded at the knees and cross at the ankles while women should sit with the knees to one side and the feet tucked under and away from view. It is considered disrespectful to sit with the soles of the feet pointing to someone. If offered food or drinks in a Malay house it is polite to accept even just a little, and when refusing anything that is offered, it is polite to touch the plate lightly with the right hand. Similarly, the right hand is used to give and receive things.

(3) In the office resting one’s feet on the table or chair is extremely unethical and rude, as is sitting on a table while speaking to another person who is seated on a chair.

(4) Couples do not hug or kiss in the public.

(5) On no account should a person touch anyone, including small children, on the head as this is regarded as a very disrespectful conduct. The head symbolises one’s dignity.

(6) When walking in front of people, particularly the elderly and dignitaries, it is courteous and respectful to bend slightly, as if one is bowing; likewise to the person in front. One of the arms should be stretched downwards along the side of the body.
There are many more examples of such rules, most of which are related to specific events such as the pregnancy period, weddings, building and moving house, and official ceremonies.

**Social Stratification**

The Brunei Malays are distinguished by having what is probably Borneo's most stratified society (Leake, 1989). Traditionally, the social stratification in Brunei takes the following forms:

1. **The Ruler and the People of Brunei**

   The sultan is the supreme authority. He receives undivided loyalty from the people of Brunei. His power and authority has never been challenged or questioned.

2. **Bruneias versus Kedayans and Other Groups**

   Traditionally, there was a perceived difference in status between the Bruneias and non Bruneians, particularly Kedayans. Bruneias were perceived to hold a higher rank in the society than the Kedayans. The status of Kedayans are the same as (or at least not higher than) other indigenous groups such as the Dusun, Tutong and Bangsa Belait. However, a sub-group of the Bruneias called the *Puak sakai* (the subjects or follower of the ruler) apparently share the same status as the Kedayans. The reason for the difference of status is based on the role and occupation of the groups. The farmers (the Kedayans) and fishermen (the Puak Sakai) were seen as subject people of the sultan and providers to the Bruneias with rice and fish in exchange for cloth, pots, and other goods.
Historically, it was not common for a Kedayans and Puak Sakai to hold an important post in the government. These groups of people were only eligible to fill the lowest traditional office.

(3) Non-Bruneias

The non-Bruneias were divided in two categories; the subjects, and the slaves. The majority of the non-Bruneias are categorised as subjects or followers. The term “slave” is very difficult to describe. However, in some cases a person could become a slave as a result of failure to settle personal or family debt (Brown, 1969). Slavery was abolished in the country as early as 1892. Thus, this sub-group does no longer exist at the present time.

(4) Bruneias

The Bruneias could be divided into two main groups; the nobles and non-nobles.

The nobles are called Pengiran-pengiran. They are descended from one of the sultans. Nobles could be divided into two sub-group; core nobles (high ranked nobles) and common nobles (ordinary nobles). The rank of nobility depends on one’s closeness to the current or recent sultans. The status difference between the two groups could be identified, for example, based on the seating arrangements for the royal ceremonies. In such ceremonies, a person is expected to take a seat appropriate to his status.

The male nobles enjoy the use of special birth titles Awangku and females, Dayangku; after marriage both sexes are called Pengiran.
The non-nobles of the Bruneias consist of aristocrats and commoners. The distinction between aristocrats and commoners seems to be based on the fact that the formers were descendants of holders of high non-nobles officers.

The non nobles males are addressed as Awang⁶ and females Dayang. When a noble is married to a non noble, the child will get the title Awangku or Dayangku only if the father is a noble (Pengiran). However, in the past, marriages across line of social status were less common than they are today, as one of the previous sultans (Sultan Hashim) said "here in Brunei we have never mixed gold with brass" (Brown, 1969).

The traditional stratification is seen to be acceptable to the indigenous groups. To date the hierarchy in the traditional government system is still maintained to a great extent. However, in the modern bureaucratic administration introduced by the British in 1906, the criteria for appointments changed. Based on this system, the selection of new recruits in the government offices is based on merit. Moreover, the government openly promotes the meritocratic ideals and at the same time provides equal opportunities in education. It means that theoretically, such groups as the Kedayans and Puak Sakai now have the opportunity to hold important posts in the government.

The current trend seems that, apart from the core nobles, high status belongs to high ranking officers particularly those bestowed with titles and decorations, regardless of their

⁶Historically, the term Awang was used only for aristocrats but since 1964, it has been extended by the privy Council to non-nobles including foreigners.
background and ethnic groups. The level of education, to a
certain extent, determines one’s ability to get a senior post in
the Government offices, and indirectly affects one’s status.
This also means that the stratification still exists but the
differences in status based on ethnicity become less obvious.

The Characteristics of Bruneians

Bruneians are known to be very friendly and full of generosity
regardless of their ethnic origin. It is customary for them to
honour their guests. They are willing to go out of their way to
accommodate their guests and make them feel at home (The Brunei
Year Book, 1998).

Documented information on Bruneian culture and characteristics
is very limited. The only study, which deals with the Bruneian
Cultural Dimensions, was conducted by Blunt (1988). He found
that the Bruneians have a collectivist cultural orientation,
high uncertainty avoidance, large power distance, a medium level
of masculinity.

Jamil Al-Sufri (1978), a renowned historian in Brunei History,
used the following traits to describe Bruneians. These traits
are (1) Loyal to the authority (2) Nationalistic (3) Respect
elderly (4) Respect parents (5) Respect guests, friends, and
neighbours, and alike (6) Observant to the protocol of the
country (7) Modest (8) Accommodative and adaptive (9) Obedient
to the rules of old generation (10) Work collectively to help
the community (11) Reliable (12) Appreciative (13) Make
decisions collectively (14) Believe in sincerity (15) Eager to
please others (16) Believe in mutual respect (17) Courteous
Interdependent (19) Have a great sense of humility, (20) Considerate but have a tendency to retaliate when badly treated.

Based on this information and her personal observations, the author describes the characteristics of Bruneians under the following headings; collectivist, family, interdependent, accommodative and indirect, face, hierarchy, loyalty, respect for elders, uncertainty avoidance, external control, and less hurried with time. These factors are perceived to have a great impact on the behaviour of the employees at the workplace.

**Collectivist**

In Bruneian culture, collectivism predominates. There is a strong sense of community and togetherness among people. In Brunei group affiliation is important in one’s life. A person’s identity is always associated with the group or family he or she comes from. For instance, when describing a person, the name of his or her parents, spouse and place of work is normally mentioned. At job interviews, it is not uncommon for the interviewer to ask the candidate about his or her family background such as parents’ occupations, and so on.

The importance of group cohesiveness is emphasised in the society. A Malay proverb that says “bersatu kita teguh, bercerai kita roboh” (unite we stand, divide we fall). Two main examples of group activities are the practice of “pucang-memucang” (working in a group to help a member or members of the group or community) and “Mufakat” (decision making based on group consensus) which are dominant in the country.

Conforming to the norms is seen to be the most important ingredient to maintaining harmonious relationships within the
Bruneian society. Since there is a need to conform to the norms, people tend to find consensus and focus on the collective requirements of the group. Although the majority of the population are Malays, other races such as Chinese and Indians share most of their Asian culture and traditions.

People try their best to maintain harmony in their relationships with families, neighbours, friends, co-workers and members of the society as a whole. Harmony is greatly emphasised. An individual is expected to put the group ahead of his or her own interest and needs for the benefit of the group. In other words, group welfare is more important than personal interest. Anyone who says or does something that could jeopardise interpersonal harmony would be frowned upon and accused of creating unnecessary conflicts. People do not like conflicts because they cause tensions and anxieties to both the group and individuals. At work, people are concerned about maintaining good relationships with co-workers and supervisors.

**Family**

In Brunei, the family is central to one’s life. The obligation is not only to the immediate family, but to the extended family as well. Children stay with their parents until they get married. On the other hand, old people are expected to be looked after by their children. Those who do not have any children are normally looked after by their relatives. It is unusual for the Malays to send their elderly parents or relatives to old person homes. Although work and family are equally important to the Bruneians, in some instances, there is a tendency to put the family’s need before work. For instance, if a member of the family such as a sister or brother gets married, it is not uncommon for an
employee to take a few days off work to help with the wedding preparations. Similarly, an employee whose child is sick or requires a medical check up may have to leave his or her job for a few hours to take the child to the clinic. There are cases where employees may be late because they send children to school before coming to work.

**Interdependent**

In line with collectivism, interdependent self is prevalent in Bruneian culture. People view themselves in relation to others. Based on the interdependent self-concept, a person sees him or herself in relations to others. An individual is dependent on group and family for support and approval and vice versa. The interdependent self-concept is reflected in a Malay proverb which says “Dicubit peha kanan, peha kiri terasa” (if the right foot is hurt, the left foot will feel the pain). It means that people are interconnected. Another proverb says “ringean sama di jinjing, berat sama di pikul” implies that people would help each other all the time. Reciprocity is greatly emphasised in the Bruneian culture. Parents bring up their children. When the children grow up they look after their elderly parents.

In an organisational context interdependency takes place at two levels; one is among co-workers and the other is between subordinates and superiors. Being part of the group helps a Bruneian employee to gain support and advice from the peers. The help, in turn, helps to boost confidence.

The superiors offer guidance and advice to the employees as and when needed. On the other hand they need constant support from the employees to ensure the smooth running of the organisational activities. Thus, based on the concept of interdependent self,
the leader behaves as a caring parent while the subordinates offer him undivided loyalty.

People are likely to influence and be influenced by others in their motivation, work behaviour and attitudes because of the interdependence cultural orientation in the society.

**Accommodative and Indirect**

Because group harmony is important in the culture, Bruneians tend to be accommodative. Such behaviour might be interpreted non-assertive by Westerners. When they are asked to do a favour, they find it difficult to say “no” for fearing that such actions may cause misunderstanding or conflicts. For example, Bruneians are prepared to receive visitors, particularly friends and relatives, at any time. No prior arrangement is needed. At work, there is a tendency for an individual not to say anything at a meeting unless his or her opinion is requested. People prefer to keep quiet rather than saying something that contradicts the group’s or leader opinion.

In addition, people find it difficult to express their feelings (particularly negative feelings) directly. For example, when being asked for help or a favour, no matter how difficult it is to offer such help, there is a tendency to say, “I will try” rather than “no”.

When conflict arises, a third person is normally called in to settle the conflict. In an organisational context, the third person is normally the supervisor.

Indirectness makes it difficult for management to identify problems related to motivation and job satisfaction. There may
be cases when employees are not happy with certain aspects of their jobs and yet keep it to themselves. Therefore, a manager is expected to be empathetic and able to guess the needs and expectations of the employees.

**Face**

Preservation of face is an equally important reason for avoiding conflict, particularly face-to-face confrontation. Public criticism is regarded "menjatuhkan air muka" (making a person lose face). This was stressed by Blunt (1988). He stated:

"Criticism even constructive, was frowned upon, whatever the sources. One of the major difficulties faced by the present investigation was finding ways of not conveying offence - in a setting where a great deal was clearly going wrong" (page 236).

When arguments lead to criticism, there is a tendency to take such criticisms personally. A person is not separated from his opinion. Thus, there is a tendency to accept or reject a person totally.

In order to prevent tensions and anxieties people prefer to do what others expect them to do, and avoid what others do not expect them to do. The concept "beawar begalat" (respect and shame) plays an important role in a social relationship. A person who shows respect for others would gain respect from others and vice versa. Shame is normally associated with a feeling of "being rejected" for not conforming to the norms.
The social stratification discussed earlier indicates that the Bruneian society is hierarchical. In addition to the different status mentioned earlier, other examples of hierarchy in institutions are; Minister as the Head of a ministry, Head of Department as the top person in a department, District Officer as the head of a district, Headman as the head of a village and Father as the head of a family.

People are “particular” about using the right way of addressing people, because a social status is perceived to be important. It is not acceptable to call an elder by his or her first name. The words Tuan, Tuan Haji, Pak Cik, Mak Cik, Kakak, Abang, and so on are used for people older or senior than one-self. In addressing people who have titles such as Pengiran (members of royal family), Dato, and Pehin, a proper protocol is to be observed.

In Bruneian culture, hierarchy is not only accepted but expected. The hierarchical nature of the society, to a certain extent, influences people’s desires to upgrade their social status. Job promotion is one way to achieve such goals. One officer indicated how important promotion was to her. She stated:

“If I were offered to attend a full time course or training, I think I would think twice before accepting the offer because being away from work could affect one’s seniority and chances for promotion.”
and another officer said:

"I like my job. But you know, when you learnt that someone who graduated at the same time as you, or even junior than you got promoted, and you are still in the same position for ages, it does affect your self-esteem and will to work."

However, there is an indication that in Brunei the desire to upgrade one’s status is rarely individually oriented, rather it is aimed to please the "significant" others. For example, a student works hard to achieve good academic qualifications to please the parents, family, teachers and so on.

The great power distance in the society and the importance of promotion among employees indicate that a tall structure is suitable for organisations in Brunei.

**Loyal to authority**

Historically, the Malays are obedient subjects and prepared to die for their rulers. Loyalty seems to be given to the leader rather than the job. The authority of a wise leader is normally unquestioned. His or her view is seldom challenged.

Nevertheless, to be effective, the leaders themselves are expected to do what they preach. As an Asian proverb says “The bottom of the pillar will not be straight if the upper part is crooked” (Abdullah, 1993). A supervisor has to demonstrate his efficient behaviour before expecting his subordinates to work efficiently. Thus, leading by example seems to be a good ingredient in maintaining enthusiasm among the employees. For instance, one employee commented that she came to work early every day because her boss did so.
Respect for Elders

Youngsters are expected to respect their elders. In no circumstances could a person raise his or her voice to an older person particularly his or her parents. A youngster who shows no respect for the elders, is referred to as “kurang ajar” (ill-mannered person). Parents normally have to take the blame for the (mis) behaviour of a child.

At work, younger employees are expected to show their respect to the older employees. While this could help to maintain good relationships between the younger and older generation, problems could arise. For instance, a younger boss may find it hard to implement new ideas if the older subordinates are not receptive to such ideas.

Fear of Uncertainty

Brunei has always been a stable country both politically and economically. People are so used to a peaceful and comfortable life style that they dislike change and uncertainty. Uncertainty avoidance could be illustrated using the following examples and events. First, people prefer to work for the public sector because it offers life time employment and a stable income. Blunt(1988) found the following values existed in the Bruneian culture; emotional resistance to change, less risk taking, a preference for clear organisational structure that must be respected at all costs, and a strong feeling that conflict in organisations is undesirable and to be avoided whenever possible.
External Control

Traditionally, the Bruneians tend to be pessimistic in their attitudes towards life in general. Proverbs such as “An ounce will not become a pound”, shows that the people lack a drive to achieve and have a fatalistic attitude toward life. The reason for holding such an attitude seems to be caused by too much reliance on external forces such as luck and fate. With the influence of Islam, this attitude shifts slightly. Based on the Islamic religion, although it is believed that things will only happen by God’s will, people are urged to work hard and not to rely solely on fate.

Less hurried with time

Traditionally, the people in Brunei have a tendency to be late for any occasion including coming to work. One of the Malay proverbs says “biar lambat asal selamat”. It literally means that it is better to be slow or late but safe (slow and steady). This proverb indicates that people are less hurried with time. When attending a function, it is quite common for people not to be punctual.

As the social frameworks are tightly knitted, there is no clear distinction between how people behave in the community and how they react at the work place. Thus, there is a tendency that lack of sense of urgency is shown both outside and at work.
The Meaning of Work

In Brunei, although work is important, it may not be an end in itself, rather, it is a means to an end. People get employed to support their families, and to meet religious and moral obligations. Thus, the “task itself” may not be the main motivator.

APPLICABILITY OF WESTERN MOTIVATION AND JOB SATISFACTION THEORIES IN THE BRUNEIAN CULTURE: A QUALITATIVE ASSESSMENT

In chapter two, motivation theories were categorised into need or content theories, process theories, extrinsic and intrinsic, and job characteristic model. In this section, we would evaluate the applicability of these theories in the Bruneian cultural context.

Need theories dictate that human beings have specific and identifiable needs that they strive to satisfy. The drive to achieve such needs becomes a motivation mechanism, which energise the person to exert an effort. Based on these theories, an individual rationally chooses to do anything in order to satisfy his or her personal need. Personal achievement (McClelland, 1965) is greatly emphasised even if the pursuit of such goals would cause inconvenience to others. In Brunei, motivation to a great extent is influenced by the need for group affiliation and family acceptance rather than personal achievement. Even the desire to enhance one’s status is rarely individually oriented. Rather, it develops from the need to please significant others, such as family and superiors.
The Bruneians tend to have a strong need to maintain harmony and conform to the expectation of others and they are willing to sacrifice their personal interest for the sake of the group unity. The strong emphasis on maintaining relationships with others suggest that the need to belong or social need be considered as basic need. Thus, the way human needs are ranked in Brunei is likely to be different from that specified in Maslow’s hierarchy of need (1954).

The main problem in applying Herzberg’s two-factor theory is that in Brunei, the concepts of work content and context seem interrelated. For example, based on the author’s observations during informal conversations with the employees, a statement such as “I like the work I am doing, the boss is supportive and I get on well with my colleagues” was quite common when employees were describing their work. Thus, the distinction between satisfiers (intrinsic) and dissatisfiers (extrinsic) aspects of the job is not clear.

An attempt to apply process theories in the Brunei is as problematic as need theories. The Expectancy theory of motivation is less likely to be effective in the Bruneian culture for two main reasons. Firstly, the calculative nature of human beings implied in the Expectancy theory is inconsistent with the Bruneian collectivist culture. Secondly, the theory assume that people can control their own destiny. In the American culture where an internal locus of control (Heider, 1946) predominates the Expectancy theory makes sense. Nevertheless, in Brunei, people hold a belief that things will only happen by God’s will and to think that one could determine or control his or her future is considered as arrogant.

The Equity theory of motivation and job satisfaction proposes that feelings of being unfairly treated can have a variety of
adverse affects on the person's motivation, job satisfaction, and performance on the job. In America, where people are generally assertive, an individual may feel that it is a matter of principle that one should fight for his or her right. However, in Brunei, people do not normally show their feeling of discontent publicly unless they are dealing with things that really matter to them. This is because such behaviour as demonstrating discontentment could cause conflicts, and people dislike conflicts as they could threaten the harmony in their social relationships. Bruneians are more likely to be tolerant to inequitable treatment and less likely to file grievances than the Westerners because they are accommodative and dislike conflict. However, this does not mean that the employer could ignore the feelings of the employees and take for granted that people would be tolerant forever. Furthermore, indirectness could make it hard for management to judge the seriousness of the problems until it is too late.

The Reinforcement theory suggests that in an attempt to motivate employees, a manager has a choice whether to implement positive reinforcements, such as rewards and recognition, or negative reinforcement, for example punishment, demotion, and so on. The importance of face saving in the Bruneian society suggests that negative reinforcement, which are imposed directly, such as public admonishment and demotion, tend to have negative affects on motivation. Nevertheless, indirect negative reinforcement such as pressure to conform to the expectation of others and fear of peer rejection or fear of losing face could act as a motivator.

The main problem in applying the concept of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in Brunei is similar to that of Herzberg's theory. When there is no clear distinction between the definition of job content and context, it is difficult to
separate extrinsic from intrinsic factors or motivators. In America and the West such problems do not occur. The source of the difference in perceptions between Easterners and Westerners could be linked to the conception of the "self". Westerners or individualists view the self as an independent entity separated from others. They have no problem identifying external and internal factors as motivators. However, easterners view the self in terms of its interconnectedness to others in various groups (Markus and Kitayama, 1991). In the Eastern culture empathy, reciprocity, belonging, kinship, hierarchy, loyalty, respect, politeness, social obligation and conforming to the norms are emphasised. The focus of life is on self in relation to others, and in this way people see themselves as mutually interdependent. Thus, interdependency makes it difficult to identify whether the source of motivation comes entirely from within the individual or obtained through the association with others.

There are a number of potential problems in applying the Job Characteristic theory (Hackman and Oldham, 1976; 1980) in the Bruneian culture. First, the theory is culturally biased toward an individualistic culture. The theory focuses on "self" (self-competency, self-efficacy, and self-actualisation). In the Bruneian culture where group is more salient than an individual, the "self" oriented motivation is less important.

Secondly, the job characteristic theory is suitable for a culture where working is seen as an ultimate goal. In America, for example, people enjoy working as an activity. People like doing the work for its sake and get satisfaction from it. It is appropriate to redesign the job because people seek pleasure from it. In Brunei, although work is important, it is not an end itself, rather, it is a means to an end. People get employed to support their families, meet religious obligations and enhance their status in the society. Satisfaction is likely to be obtained elsewhere, for instance, from relationships with
others. Put it in another way, people are not particularly seeking for challenging or interesting job to satisfy their needs.

Third, the Job Characteristic theory uses empowerment through job enrichment as a motivating strategy. In the societies where high power distance cultural orientation predominates, such as the Bruneian, empowerment is unlikely to be received with enthusiasm. Blunt (1988) found that in Brunei, employees hesitated to make any decision without reference to the senior executive in the organisation and that they were afraid to disagree with their supervisors. Thus, empowerment could make subordinates uncomfortable. In addition, it could create role ambiguity. In a culture where uncertainty avoidance is high, such as the Bruneian, people dislike ambiguity. Based on the author’s observation, there is a strong indication that doing a challenging job with an increased sense of autonomy proposed by the Job Characteristic theory, is more likely to be perceived as an added responsibility rather than a motivator, and that employees only expect such responsibilities following a proper delegation or promotion to a higher job grade.

Personal characteristics such as age, gender and marital status are less likely to affect the job satisfaction among Bruneian employees. This is because in Brunei, conforming to the norms is seen to be the most important ingredient to maintain harmonious relationship within the Bruneian society. Since there is a need to conform to the norms, people tend to find consensus and focus on the collective requirements of the group. When everyone has a tendency to fit into the needs and expectations of others, and when people are interdependent on each other to get acceptance, homogeneity of thought, perception, values, and attitudes are likely to be the outcome.
THE BRUNEI CIVIL SERVICE

In Brunei, the Government is the major employer. Bruneians seem to prefer working in the Public Sector where Bruneians citizens are offered a life time employment. In addition, benefits offered by the Public Sector are better than the Private Sector. The "Civil Service" covers all government department ministries, and agencies, except the Army and Police.

Policy objectives of the Seventh Development Plan, which covers the period 1996-2000, are to enhance labour productivity, reduce skill mismatches through labour mobility, and continuous improvement in the quality of education. Human Resource Management becomes a number one priority in the Brunei Civil Service.

Central authority in the Brunei Civil Service is held by the Prime Minister, however, the day-to-day management of the human resource is under the jurisdiction of the following authorities:

- the Public Service Commission (PSC)
- the Public Service Department (PSD); and
- The respective Ministries and Departments.

Public Service Commission

The Public Service Commission is an independent body. It was established in 1962 to comply with the Brunei Constitution 1959 by the consent of His Majesty The Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan Negara Brunei Darussalam.
The commission has seven permanent members including a secretary. In addition, the Department of Public Service Commission has a number of staff who provide support services to run the day-to-day duties of the Commission.

The main function of the Commission is to advise His Majesty The Sultan and Yang Di-pertuan on matters related to the appointment, transfer, promotion and disciplinary control of government officers, except for the Armed and Police Forces and Prison Services.

**Public Service Department**

The Public Service department acts as the central agency in the Civil Service. Its main responsibility is to ensure the best utilisation of the personnel in the Civil Service. It helps to formulate, implement and provide the appropriate human resource management and development policies, programmes and services. The prime mission of the department is to ensure that the civil servants are clean, efficient, honest, and trustworthy in carrying out their duties and responsibilities.

The main responsibilities of the Public Service Department are:

- to ensure that Brunei Darussalam’s Civil Service has the right numbers and qualities of employees to meet the requirements of the country’s development

- to develop knowledge, skills and competencies within the Civil Service; and

- to improve the standard of Human Resource Management towards equity and excellence
Ministries and Departments

There are thirteen Ministries in Brunei. The ministries and departments are responsible for the day to day administration of their staff. The Permanent Secretary and/or the Head of Department is responsible for the conduct of employees under his or her Ministry or Department to ensure that the employees follow the rules and regulations governing the civil servants. His/her other tasks include offering training and development to his/her subordinates to improve and maintain efficiency, effectiveness and productivity of the employees.

Types of the Civil Service Personnel

There are two ways of categorising Civil Service Personnel. One is to categorise them according to area of specialisation. The other is by grouping them based on division or salary scales.

Categorisation Based on The nature of Services

There are seven groups of specialisation as follows:

(1) Administrative Service

This consists of the Brunei Administrative Officers (B.A.S Officers) who are responsible to the Permanent Secretaries or Head of Department of their respective Ministries and Departments. Their job deals with policy formulation, personnel management, and administration. They are more mobile than other specialists, and transfer from one Ministry or Department to another is common among these officers.
(2) The Professional, Technical and Executive Service

The Professional, Technical and Executive Service comprise engineers, architects, lawyers, and accountants. Their main duty is to provide professional services related to technical, financial, and legal matters.

(3) The Religious Services

Religious officers such as Kadhis (Muslim Court's Judges), Propagation officers, and Religious Teachers fall under this category. The main task of this group of specialists is to ensure the correct teaching, interpretation and compliance of Islam, the country's official religion.

(4) The Educational Service

This consists of officers, and teachers and staff of the Ministry of Education who are responsible for providing the teaching services in the university, colleges, and schools throughout the country. The services also involve the preparation of the national curricula for schools, the conduct of national examinations, and the upgrading of the standard of teaching profession.

(5) The Medical Service

Under this area of specialisation are doctors, surgeon, nurses, anaesthetists, radiologists, pharmacists, and other health and medical specialists. The majority of them work in hospitals and health clinics throughout the country.
(6) The Diplomatic Service

Staff under this category work for the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. They comprise Ambassadors, High Commissioners, and Bruneian Diplomatic Services Officers.

(7) Other Services

There are other types of services that do not belong to the above categories for instance, Clerical Staff, Administrative Assistants, Librarians, Secretaries, Postal Clerk, Labourers, Telephone Operators, and Enforcement Officers etc.

Categorisation Based on Division

In this study, the civil servants are categorised according to Division. The following are the five main divisions in the Brunei Civil Service:

(1) Division I Officers: They are the Top and Senior Management who consist of Deputy Directors, and above.

(2) Division II Officers: This group of officers consists of Professionals and Administrative Officers.

(3) Division III Employees: They comprise Supervisory, Executive and Higher Technical Staff.

(4) Division IV Employees: This group consists of Clerical and Technical Staff.
(5) **Division V Employees**: They are Sub-clerical and Minor Technical staff.

Table 5.1 below shows the size of the Public Service (based on March 1996 statistics)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DIVISION</th>
<th>NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>479</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>4093</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>8473</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>11074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>14130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>38249</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Division II Employees**

Division II category consists of two job levels; B2 and B3. When students graduate from university with first degree qualifications, they normally join this job category and become Officers (B2 level), for example Education Officers. In most circumstances, officers have to work at least five years before they can be promoted to Senior Officer (B3 level). Promotion is made on the basis of seniority, work experience, and performance (based on the performance appraisal). Nevertheless, it is not unusual to find employees in this category who had to work for many years before they could get promoted. The competition for
promotion becomes very stiff particularly for an occupation which has a large number of staff under this group. For example, if there are about 1,200 officers in job title “1” and the number of vacancies for senior officer post at one time is ten, only ten most experienced officers and good performers out of 1,200 would be selected for the job. In such circumstances, even those employees who have had worked for ten years could be considered as juniors simply because there are other people who have been in the job for fifteen or even twenty years. The problems also exist in smaller departments where senior officer posts are only reserved for Head of Sections. Although employees who work in a department with limited promotional opportunities could be transferred and eventually promoted in a new department, this is greatly dependent not only on the availability of posts but also whether or not the new department has its own internal candidates to be promoted.

There are indications that employees in this category are concerned about the promotional opportunity which seems lacking. In an informal conversation, an Education Officer stated:

“It is very difficult to get promoted to a B3 post. I’ve been applying for a promotion every year for the past six years, but the results were very disappointing”.

Another officer stated:

“I’ve been working for more than fifteen years in the same job group. I applied for promotion to a Senior Officer post many times. The last time I sent my application was last year. I didn’t get it. This year I don’t think I’ll apply again”.

However, the main problem in promoting employees under this job category seems to stem from the fact that the organisation structure of this job group is relatively flat. As mentioned
earlier, this job category only consists of two layers or a two-step hierarchy; B2 (officer) and B3 (senior officer) level. On the other hand, the number of employees under this category has increased significantly. Regardless of the promotion policies and employees' qualifications, abilities and seniority, if the organisational structure is flat, upward or vertical promotion is not possible. One head of a Department, commented:

"You can't promote a staff to a higher post if there is no post to promote him to".

**Recruitment and Selection of Staff**

The recruitment and selection of monthly paid staff in the Civil Service is under the responsibility of the Public Service Commission. The recruitment procedure varies according to Division or ranking. For instance, when a vacancy arises in a super scale post in Division I, the Public Service Commission will submit its recommendations for consideration of His Majesty the Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan of Brunei Darussalam for the filing of that vacancy. In other Divisions, a job vacancy is advertised either in the official government newspaper or by means of an internal circular prepared by the Public Service Department. Nevertheless, when there is a need to recruit candidates from overseas, the advertisement would be placed in foreign newspapers.

The selection process is handled by the Public Service Commission until a successful candidate is offered a post in the government department. The administrative work, such as pay and benefits, is handled by the Public Service Department. Once appointed, a local candidate is required to serve on probation, which may take between one and three years before being confirmed in her or his post. In most cases, locals are offered
appointed on a contract and his placement is determined by the Public Service Department.

The Role of Performance Appraisal

Performance Appraisal, which is conducted in September every year, is the main mechanism used to measure performance of public servants.

The Performance Appraisal Programme is intended to enhance motivation and performance of civil servants. There were some indications to show that the Brunei Civil Service authority have attempted to link rewards and promotion to performance. Nevertheless, there are a number of circumstances that could impede successful implementation of such a policy. First, there is the question of fairness and non discrimination which is greatly emphasised in the Public Sector particularly in a Welfare state like Brunei. In Brunei, every employee enjoys generous pay and benefits. Even the annual bonus which is supposedly tied to performance seems to benefit the average performers more than outstanding employees. Secondly, in a service oriented organisation like the Brunei Civil Service, measuring staff performance could be a complex task. Where there is no proper mechanism to measure performance accurately, there is a tendency to use qualitative and subjective judgement. Adding to this complexity is the culture which emphasises the importance of saving face, and avoiding confrontation. Hence for the sake of maintaining good relationships, there might be an inclination among the supervisors to rate poor performers slightly higher than they possibly deserve.
Moral Pillars and Work Ethics

A booklet entitled “Rukun Ahklak dan Etika Kerja Perkhidmatan Awam Negara Brunei Darussalam” (Moral Pillars and Work Ethics of the Public Service of Brunei Darussalam) was launched on 3rd October, 1996 in conjunction with the Civil Service Day.

The objective of the booklet is to promote the work ethic within the Civil Service. The booklet contains eleven moral and ethical values. All civil servants are expected to absorb and uphold these values when performing their duties. The values are:

- Clean, honest, and trustworthy
- Efficient, expeditious and accurate
- Meticulous and valuing time
- Knowledgeable, creative, and innovative
- Commitment, open and accountability
- Tolerance, perseverance, and courteous
- Productive and competitive
- Exemplary
- Solidarity, consultation and participatory
- Austere and
- Caring

The above components of work ethics could be important ingredients for making the Brunei Civil Service an effective, professional, efficient and trustworthy organisation (the Public Service Department, 1996). The booklet was introduced at the same time as this research was started. It may take some years to see the results, particularly because it involves some changes in attitudes and norms.
**Reward Management**

The government through the Civil Service uses different means of motivating and rewarding its employees. Some of the rewards are tangible such as salary and other financial benefits, but others are psychological in nature, for instance, recognition, praise, promotion, honours and decoration.

The Brunei Civil Service is very generous in rewarding its employees. The civil servants are entitled to the following pay and benefits:

- salary and increments
- annual leave
- housing
- transportation and other allowances
- annual bonus
- retirement benefits
- training opportunities
- promotion
- honours and decorations

(Please see Appendix:D for further details)

**Discipline and Conduct**

Every civil servant is governed by rules and procedures laid down in the General Orders, and the Prime Minister’s Circulars. Any misconduct should be reported to the disciplinary committee by the Head of Department.
The organisation tried to use both positive and negative reinforcements. Positive reinforcements or rewards were aimed at ensuring that people give positive contributions to the organisation whereas negative reinforcement in the form of disciplinary actions were designed to discourage people from breaking the rules and regulations. Because of the polite culture, the importance of face saving and maintaining harmony in the relationship, negative reinforcement or punishment is easier said than done.

**Problems of Motivation and Job satisfaction**

Despite the sanction and comprehensive reward systems, there is a strong indication that the Brunei Civil Service is facing problems related to motivation and job satisfaction. There have been complaints by the public in the Borneo Bulletin (an independent newspaper) regarding the poor quality of service rendered by the government agencies. The main issues seem to be linked to behaviours of some government employees who were absent from their offices and unable to serve the when their services were required. An illustration of such concern and frustration is published on a local newspaper, the Borneo Bulletin (see Appendix:E).

Apparently, there were two types of absenteeism in the organisation. The first is related to “Coffee Shop Symptoms” (see Appendix:E). A number of employees used part of their working time at the coffee shops. The second issue concerns those who come late to work and leave the office early.

In theory, any civil servant who is absent from duty without permission, except in case of illness or unavoidable circumstances, will render him or her liable to disciplinary
actions. In practice it is often the case where the supervisor has to let go and focus on more positive things for the sake of maintaining a good working relationship. The only system in use to control lateness and absenteeism is the “sign in/out” system. Employees are required to put their name down on the log book every time they came or leave the office.

CONCLUSIONS

This chapter examines the political and socio-cultural environments of the Brunei Civil Service. The government system in Brunei is influenced by its historical, religious, political, and cultural background. It is a combination monarchy based on the Bruneian tradition and Western Bureaucracy transplanted during the British rule. While this chapter is not intended to assess the effectiveness of the twin system, it is apparent that the two have a number of similarities. For instance like the bureaucratic model, the Bruneian traditional administration is hierarchical and bonded by rules and protocols. However, not all bureaucratic features are in line with the Bruneian culture. As for instance, Bureaucracy focuses on impersonality but such characteristics as collectivism and interdependence in Bruneian society suggest that personal and social relationships and group norms play an important role in influencing the behaviour of Bruneian employees at work. Bruneians share most of the cultural characteristics with people in other Asian countries. Among these characteristics are collectivist, family oriented, interdependent, hierarchical, emphasis on face preservation, belief in external forces, and accommodative. These characteristics differ from the American individualistic culture upon which motivation and job satisfaction theories are based. Such differences make an attempt to apply these those in Brunei problematic. The chapter also highlights the point that in a
hierarchical society such as the Bruneian, tall organisational structure is not only acceptable but also expected. There is a strong indication that the flat organisation structure of Division II in the Brunei Civil Service reduces promotional prospects among staff in this job category. The government offers generous reward packages to the civil servants to create a highly motivated and dedicated workforce. Nevertheless, symptoms such as absenteeism and poor discipline among some employees indicate that motivating staff will continue to be a challenging task for the Brunei Civil Service.
Chapter 6: **Survey on Motivation and job Satisfaction among Division II Employees in the Brunei Civil Service**

**INTRODUCTION**

This chapter contains the analysis of the survey on the motivation and job satisfaction of division II employees in the Brunei Civil Service. The survey took place between June and September 1997 (please see Appendix:C for the survey schedule). SPSS is employed in data analysis.

The chapter is divided into three parts. Part 1 contains the personal profile of the respondents. The findings of the Motivation Survey using the Job Diagnostic Survey Instrument are revealed in part 2. Part 3 contains the Job Satisfaction results using the Job Design Index.

**PART I - PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS**

**Jobtitle/Occupation**

The respondents were professional employees from Division II category of the Brunei Civil Service. They represented 26 different occupations within the Brunei Civil Service. They are: Finance Officer, Administrative Officer, Agricultural Officer, Air Traffic Controller, Secretary, Diplomatic Officer, Doctor, Education Officer, Engineer, Fisheries Officer, Architect, Health Officer, Information Officer, Internal Security Officer, Land Surveyor, Legal Adviser, Project Officer, Public Relations
Officer, Religious Officer, Research Officer, Rescue Officer, Scientific Officer, Special Duties Officer, Systems Analyst, Town and Country Planning Officer, and Training Officer.

As shown in table 6.1(a), 712 employees participated in the survey. The number of participants per occupation ranges from 4 to 412. Most of the respondents were Education Officers (teaching staff). This is because they form more than half of the total population for this category of staff.
Table 6.1 (a) **Job title**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Financial Officer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admin. Officer</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural Officer</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air Traffic Controller</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secretary</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diplomatic Officer</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctor</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Officer</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>57.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineer</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fisheries Officer</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Architect</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Officer</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information Officer</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal Sec. Officer</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Land Surveyor</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legal Adviser</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project Officer</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Rel. Officer</td>
<td>21</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious Officer</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Officer</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rescue Officer</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scientific Officer</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special Duties Officer</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Systems Analyst</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Town &amp; Country Planning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Officer</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Officer</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>712</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There are thirteen ministries in the Brunei Civil Service and all of them participated in the survey. As shown in table 6.1(b), the largest group of respondents came from the Ministry of Education. The Prime Minister’s Office was represented by 62 employees. The third largest group came from the Ministry of Health. The smallest group came from the Ministry of Law which was represented by 5 employees. The Ministry of Law is the smallest ministry in terms of number of personnel.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prime Minister’s Dept.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>8.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Min. of Finance</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Min. of Home Affairs</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Min. of Defence</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Min. of Foreign Affairs</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Min. of Culture, Youth &amp; Sports</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Min. of Education</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>412</td>
<td>57.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Min. of Industry &amp; Primary Resources</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Min. of Health</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Min. of Law</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Min. of Communication</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Min. of Development</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Min. of Relig. Affairs</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>712</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown in table 6.1(c), 51.2 per cent of the respondents were young and below the age of 35. Those between 30 and 34 years of age make up the largest group totalling 190 employees. This group is followed by the employees who were between 35 and 39 years old of which there were 170. Only 12 employees (about 1.7 per cent) were under 25. Twenty seven employees (3.8 per cent) were 50 years of age and above. It should be noted that the average age of Bruneian graduate when joining the workforce is between 23 and 25 while the retirement age is 55.

Table 6.1 (c) *Age Distribution*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Below 25</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 - 29</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>22.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 - 34</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 - 39</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>23.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 - 44</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45 - 49</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 and above</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>712</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Gender

As shown in table 6.1(d), 51.5 per cent of employees from the sample population which participated in the survey were females, as compared to 48.5 per cent male respondents.

Table 6.1 (d) **Sex (Gender)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>345</td>
<td>48.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>367</td>
<td>51.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>712</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Length of Service

As shown in table 6.1(e), the majority (about 77 per cent) of employees who participated in the survey had been in their current jobs for less than 10 years. Out of this proportion, 277 employees (about 39 per cent) had been in the job for less than five years and 269 (about 38 per cent) of the respondents had worked in the current jobs for between 5 and 9 years. The policy with regards to promotion is that an employee has to serve for at least five years before he or she can be promoted.
(Table 6.1 (e) **Length of Service in the Current Job**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Below 5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>37.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 - 9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>38.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 - 14</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 - 19</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 - 24</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 - 29</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>712</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Marital Status**

As shown in table 6.1(f), out of 712 employees who participated in the survey, 529 (74.3 percent) were married, 176 (24.7 percent) were single, 6 (0.8 percent) were divorced, and only one employee was a widower. The fact that the number of respondents who were divorcees was small might reflect the existence of strong family bond in Brunei as discussed in the previous chapter.
Table 6.1(f) Marital Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>24.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>529</td>
<td>74.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>712</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The 55 per cent rate of response is considered to be high and above average. Newell (1993) stated that many mail-surveys do not achieve more than 50 per cent rate of return. In the author's opinion, bearing in mind the different characteristics of the respondents in terms of functions, ministries, age groups, gender, and so on, the sample is a good representation of the population.

**Part II - THE JOB DIAGNOSTIC SURVEY (JDS)**

The main objectives of the survey are to examine the motivation of Division II employees in the Brunei Civil Service and assess the applicability of motivation theories in Brunei, and more specifically, the job characteristic theory. Additionally, the survey is aimed at assessing the suitability of the JDS for measuring motivation of employees in the Brunei Civil Service.
Results

Low Growth Need

Table 6.2 shows the mean scores in the various JDS components obtained from the survey. In the column on the right is the JDS norms for professionals. The JDS norms were produced by Oldham, Hackman and Stepina (1979) based on the data they obtained from 6930 employees who worked on various jobs in 56 different organisations in the United States. The jobs were categorised according to families or groups, for instance, professionals, management, clerical and so on. The scores obtained by respondents from a specific occupation within a category or family were averaged to form the norms score for that particular job family. The norms are still in use today.

The Growth Need score obtained by the professional employees of the Brunei Civil Service (staff in Division II) is low compared to the professional norm in America. The significant difference in the Growth Need scores suggests that the importance of self competence and actualisation needs vary between the two cultures. The low Growth Need score among the Bruneian sample suggests that psychological growth is not viewed as important in the Bruneian culture, as it is in America. The result of the survey does not support the theory, which claims that professional and high status employees have a strong need for intrinsic fulfilment and self actualisation (Menczka, 1976; Cacioppe and Mock, 1984). Nevertheless, it is consistent with the argument that the “self” (self competency, self-efficacy, and self-actualisation) is less salient in the collectivist cultures (Adler, 1997; Hofstede, 1980).
Empirical evidence (Champoux, 1991; Robert and Glick, 1981) suggests that the Job Characteristics Model is only suitable for people with high Growth Need and this in turn suggests that an attempt to apply the Job Characteristic model in the Brunei Civil Service will be problematic.

The main problem with the Job Diagnostic Survey is that it does not make any provision for the assessment of employees’ growth needs beforehand. Such a provision is important as it can help a researcher assess whether the JDS instrument is suitable to the circumstances. As for instance, if the employees have low Growth Need Scores, the instrument may not be suitable, as they (the employees) may not gain much from a job redesign programme. Instead, such a programme can create stress for the jobholder, who is not mentally and psychologically prepared for changes, such as an increase in autonomy and responsibility.
Table 6.2  **Job Diagnostic Survey Distribution of the Division II employees in relation to the JDS norms for Professional and Technical employees in Oldham, Hackman and Stepina’s work.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Division II Employees in Brunei Civil Service</th>
<th>Professional Norms*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job Characteristics</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills Variety</td>
<td>5.04</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task Identity</td>
<td>5.07</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task Significance</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fdbk. from Job</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fdbk. from People</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dealing with others</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Critical Psychological States</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exp. Meaningfulness</td>
<td>5.69</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exp. Responsibility</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of Results</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Affective Outcomes</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Satisfaction</td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth Satisfaction</td>
<td>5.23</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal Motivation</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth Needs Scores</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>MPS</strong></td>
<td><strong>123.84</strong></td>
<td><strong>154</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
1. *Oldham and Hackman and Stepina, 1979 (adapted from Work Design by Hackman & Oldham, 1980)
2. Maximum possible scores for MPS = 343
3. Maximum possible scores for other variables = 7
4. / Not available
5. The difference between the two scores is significant if the target job scores are more than one standard deviation away from the norms.
6. See appendix for the scoring system
Job Preference

The respondents were asked to respond to eleven statements to indicate which of the jobs they personally would prefer - if they had to make a choice. In the original questionnaire, the scale ranges from 1 to 5 as follows:

Strongly prefer Job A = 1, Slightly prefer job A = 2,
Neutral = 3, Slightly prefer job B = 4, and strongly prefer job B = 5. For the sake of simplicity in interpreting the data, the author has reduced the five point scale to three; Prefer job A = 1, Neutral= 2, and Prefer Job B = 3.

Table 6.3 shows the results of the questionnaire on the "Job Choice". The summary of the results is as follows:

(1) The Importance of Social Relationships

Good social relationship is perceived as important among the Bruneian employees (see statement 2, 5, and 12). Seventy percent prefer a job with many pleasant people to work with to a job where they are required to make important decisions. Sixty six percent prefer a very routine job to one where co-workers are not very friendly. The response to statement 12 shows that more than half of the respondents prefer a job which offers little or no challenge to a job which requires them to be completely isolated from co-workers. The results of the survey therefore seem to support an idea people in the collectivist cultures tend to have a great need for affiliation and a sense of belonging.
(2) Seniority

The majority (48 per cent) of the respondents like a job in which greater responsibility is assigned to loyal employees who have the seniority (statement 3). This indicates that there is a preference for promotion based on seniority among the respondents. However, the percentage of those who prefer a job in which greater responsibility is given to those who are capable is quite high (42 per cent). It suggests that meritocracy which replaces the old stratification system in the Brunei government administrative system is becoming increasingly popular among professional and educated Bruneians.

(3) Face

In statement 6, the result shows that majority of the respondents (about 61 per cent) would rather do a job which prevents them from using a number of skills that they have worked hard to develop than a job in which a supervisor is often very critical of them and their work in front of other people. This indicates the importance of "face" preservation in Asian cultures. Public criticism can make a person "lose face".

(4) Need for Security

Statement 4 and 8 are linked to job security. In statement 4, the result shows that 29 per cent of the respondents prefer a routine job in which they are not allowed to make decisions in the work to a job in an organisation which is in financial trouble - and might have to close down within a year. Only 4 per cent of the respondents prefer a job where there is a real chance that they could be laid off while 34 per cent would rather do a less challenging job. This indicates the existence
of uncertainty avoidance cultural orientation in Brunei. However, it should be noted that majority of the respondents selected “neutral” when confronted with the statements. This seems to indicate that being offered a life time employment and a high ranked job in a relatively permanent establishment (the government), reduces the feeling of insecurity to a certain extent. In other words, job security is not a major issue to these officers.

(5) Tolerance for inequitable treatment

With reference to statement 7, the percentage of respondents who prefer a job with a supervisor who respects and treats them fairly is low (20 per cent) as compared to those who like a job that gives them the opportunity to learn new and interesting things at work (32 per cent). A possible explanation for the low percentage is that in the Bruneian culture it is the employees who are expected to show their respect to the superior and not the other way round. Moreover, as mentioned in the previous chapter (page 148), generally, Bruneians are accommodative and relatively tolerant to unfair treatment in the organisation.

(6) Pay

There is a balanced distribution of those who prefer an innovative and creative job and those who prefer a highly paid job (statement 1). The majority of the respondents are neutral. Although some employees may not be happy with their current pay, they do receive better pay compared to employees in the private sector. Majority (55 per cent) of the respondents prefer a job that gives them an opportunity to develop skills (statement 9).
Only a small percentage (15 per cent) has indicated their preference for a job with a lot of fringe benefits and vacation.

Table 6.3 Job Preference

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>N=712</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prefer A</td>
<td>Prefer B</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. A job where the pay is very good (Job A) or A job where there is a considerable opportunity to be creative and innovative (Job B)</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. A job where you are often required to make important decisions (Job A) or A job with many pleasant people to work with (Job B)</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>498</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. A job in which greater responsibility is given to those who do the best work (Job A) or A job in which greater responsibility is given to loyal employees who have the most seniority (Job B)</td>
<td>301</td>
<td>340</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. A job in an organisation which is in financial trouble - and might have to close down within the year (Job A) or A job in which you are not allowed to have any say whatever in how your work is scheduled, or in the procedures to be used in carrying it out (Job B)</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>436</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. A very routine job (Job A) or A job where your co-workers are not very friendly (Job B)</td>
<td>464</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. A job with a supervisor who is often very critical of you and your work in front of other people (Job A) or A job which prevents you from using a number of skills that you have worked hard to develop (Job B)</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>431</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6.3 continued........

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>N=712</th>
<th>Prefer A</th>
<th>Prefer B</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7. A job with a supervisor who respects and treats you fairly (Job A) or</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>152</td>
<td>231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A job where which provides constant opportunities for you to learn new and</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interesting things(Job B)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. A job where there is a real chance that you could be laid off(Job A) or</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>239</td>
<td>444</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A job with very little to do challenging work(Job B)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. A job in which there is a real chance for you to develop new skills and</td>
<td>392</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>213</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>advance in the organisation(Job A) or A job which provides lots of vacation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>time and excellent fringe benefit package (Job B)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. A job with little freedom and independence to do your work in the way</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>465</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you think best (Job A) or A job where the working conditions are poor(Job</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. A job with very satisfying teamwork (Job A) or A job which allows you</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>331</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to use your skills and abilities to the fullest extent (Job B)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. A job which offers little or no challenge (Job A) or A job which</td>
<td>454</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>230</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>requires you to be completely isolated from co-workers (Job B)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Internal Motivation Score**

Six different statements are combined to produce internal motivation score. These six statements could be divided into three groups. The first group (statements 1, 2, and 5) indicates positive feelings when the job is well done. The second group (statements 3 and 6) suggests the feeling of unhappiness when the job is badly performed. The third group (statement 4) describes the feeling of indifference towards the success or failure in performing the job.

Table 6.4 shows the mean scores for Internal Motivation. The mean scores show that in principle the respondents agree that they gain a great deal of satisfaction or happiness when they do the job well. However, they seem to think that failure to perform the job well would not really affect them badly.

In statement 4, the mean score is 3.65 (close to neutral) indicating that the respondents were less concerned about their performance in the job.

The results indicate that “the work itself” may not be the main source of motivation or satisfaction to the majority of employees. In a Collectivist cultures, there is a tendency to view work as a means to an end, rather than an end itself. People work to live. Satisfaction are derived from sources other than work.
### Table 6.4 Internal Motivation Score

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Mean Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. My opinion of myself goes up when I do this job well</td>
<td>5.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I feel a great deal of personal satisfaction when I do this job well</td>
<td>6.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I feel bad and unhappy when I discover that I have performed poorly on the job</td>
<td>4.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. <em>My own feelings generally are not affected much one way or the other by how well I do on this job</em></td>
<td>3.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Most people on this job feel a great deal of personal satisfaction when they do well</td>
<td>5.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Most people on this job feel bad or unhappy when they find that they have performed their work poorly</td>
<td>4.70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Key:** Disagree Strongly=1, Disagree=2, Disagree Slightly=3, Neutral=4, Agree Slightly=5, Agree=6, Agree Strongly=7

* = Reverse scoring

*N = 712*
The Motivating Potential Scores (MPS) is not related to job title/occupation

The motivating potential score of a job is a summary index of an individual job characteristics. The job characteristics consist of task identity, skill variety, task significance, autonomy, and feedback.

The multiple regression analysis shown in table 6.5 shows that although the employees come from diverse professions, there is no link between Motivating Potential Score (MPS) and type of occupation. Motivating potential refers to the ability of a job to foster motivation to the jobholder. The results of the study show that doctors perceive their jobs the same way as education officers, administrative officers, and engineers etc do. If doctors feel that the jobs they are doing provide them with great opportunities to use various skills, so do education officers, administrative officers, engineers and everyone else.

Homogeneity is common in a collectivist culture (Triandis, 1989). When everyone has a tendency to fit into the needs and expectations of others, and when people are interdependent on each other to get acceptance, homogeneity of thought, perception, values, and attitudes are likely to be the outcome. In such circumstances, it is hard to distinguish objectivity from subjectivity. The results seem to support the idea proposed by Salancik and Pfeffer (1978; 1981) that social cues could affect people's perception of job characteristics.
A job design exercise normally relies on the information given by the jobholders. However, in a case where there is homogeneity of perception among the employees, such information may not help the management to identify which jobs need to be redesigned and which do not.

Table 6.5 *Multiple Regression Analysis*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable = Motivating Potential Scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Multiple R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R Square</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R square</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE B</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>-3.564447</td>
<td>3.497109</td>
<td>.040686</td>
<td>-.019</td>
<td>.3084</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced/Wid.</td>
<td>30.277227</td>
<td>14.807237</td>
<td>.078029</td>
<td>2.045</td>
<td>.0412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure 5yrs-19yrs</td>
<td>2.696934</td>
<td>3.083802</td>
<td>.034494</td>
<td>.875</td>
<td>.3821</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 yrs and above</td>
<td>7.324720</td>
<td>10.206511</td>
<td>-.027476</td>
<td>.718</td>
<td>.4732</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1.322169</td>
<td>3.004295</td>
<td>-.017259</td>
<td>.440</td>
<td>.6600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td>-5.197290</td>
<td>3.002023</td>
<td>-.067032</td>
<td>1.731</td>
<td>.0838</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Source of Internal Motivation

Table 6.6 shows that the Pearson’s correlation coefficient \( r \) for Internal Motivation and Dealing with others = 0.1034 (\( p=0.006 \)).

The table shows that there is a positive correlation between internal motivation and dealing with others. It suggests that when employees perceive that their jobs give them better opportunity to deal with others, their internal motivation increases. The correlation between the two variables is weak but significant.
Table 6.6 *Correlation between Job Characteristics and Internal Motivation*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>TI</th>
<th>SV</th>
<th>TS</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>FJ</th>
<th>FP</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>IM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TI</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.2613*</td>
<td>.2988*</td>
<td>.4226*</td>
<td>.1066**</td>
<td>.2251*</td>
<td>.0775*</td>
<td>.0990*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SV</td>
<td>.2613*</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.3135*</td>
<td>.2938*</td>
<td>.1558*</td>
<td>.1376*</td>
<td>.3418*</td>
<td>.1536*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TS</td>
<td>.2988*</td>
<td>.3135*</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.3467*</td>
<td>.1303*</td>
<td>.1579*</td>
<td>.2437*</td>
<td>.2449*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>.4226*</td>
<td>.2938*</td>
<td>.3467*</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.2037*</td>
<td>.3216*</td>
<td>.4442*</td>
<td>.1266*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FJ</td>
<td>.1066*</td>
<td>.1558*</td>
<td>.1303*</td>
<td>.2037*</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.2978*</td>
<td>.1433*</td>
<td>.0095*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FP</td>
<td>.2251*</td>
<td>.1376*</td>
<td>.1579*</td>
<td>.3216*</td>
<td>.2978*</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.2291*</td>
<td>.0242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>.0775**</td>
<td>.3418*</td>
<td>.2437*</td>
<td>.4442*</td>
<td>.1433*</td>
<td>.2291*</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.1034*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IM</td>
<td>.0990*</td>
<td>.1536*</td>
<td>.2449*</td>
<td>.1266*</td>
<td>.0095</td>
<td>.0242</td>
<td>.1034*</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
TI = Task Identity
SV = Skills Variety
TS = Task Significance
A = Autonomy
FJ = Feedback From the Job
FP = Feedback from the People
D = Dealing with Others
IM = Internal Motivation
* p<0.01
**p<0.05
PART III JDI – JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY

The Job Design Index was used to measure the job satisfaction of the Division II staff category. As mentioned in chapter four, the JDS measures job satisfaction with work, supervision, pay, promotion, and co-workers.

The survey has four main aims; (a) to identify the most and the least satisfying job factor, (b) to explore the influence of culture on employees’ responses to the questionnaires, (c) to examine which personal characteristics affect job satisfaction, and (d) to assess the suitability of the Job Design Index as a measure of job satisfaction in the Bruneian culture.

Results

The Most and the Least Satisfying Job Facet

With reference to table 6.7, co-workers is the most satisfying job factor. This is followed by satisfaction with supervisor or supervision, the work itself, and pay. The least satisfying job factor seems to be promotion.
Table 6.7 *Job Satisfaction of the Division II Employees in the Brunei Civil Service*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job Facet</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Co-worker</td>
<td>37.37(*)</td>
<td>11.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor</td>
<td>36.04(*)</td>
<td>10.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work</td>
<td>32.76(*)</td>
<td>8.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pay</td>
<td>14.27(/)</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>9.53(/)</td>
<td>5.51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 712

Maximum score: (*) = 54; (/) = 27

*A closer look at the results of individual job facet*

The questionnaire contains 72 items or short phrases, which describe the job facets. All job facets contain eighteen items each except for promotion and pay which contain nine items each. The respondents were asked to write (Y) for "yes" if it describes that particular aspect of the job and (N) for "no" next to the item. If they cannot decide, they were to put a question mark (?). Points are assigned to each answer.7

---

7Scoring involves assessing a value of 3 to a “yes” if it is positive item, and 3 to a “no” if it is a negative item. A “?” on an item gets 1. A “yes” to positive and “no” to negative items gets zero weight. (+) indicates positive and (-) shows negative item or phrase. Nevertheless, these signs did not appear on the questionnaire. They were only used for scoring purposes.
Table 6.8 shows that in general, the employees were satisfied with their relationship with co-workers. In fact, based on the mean score, it is the most satisfying job facet. Nevertheless, there is a great number of respondents who responded "not sure" in some cases, for example, "talk too much", "unpleasant", and "narrow interest". In a culture where people tend to use the "indirect" approach in communication, there is a possibility that the employees are not be satisfied in these areas.

In certain areas, it is not known whether the phrase is perceived as negative or positive. For example, no privacy is identified as negative in the instrument, but in a collectivist culture like Brunei, it may not be so. In Brunei, relationships tend to be diffused and there is no difference between how people behave in the community and how they react in the workplace.
Table 6.8 *Satisfaction with Co-worker(s)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Not sure</th>
<th>Yes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stimulating</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>71.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boring(-)</td>
<td>69.5</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slow(-)</td>
<td>54.6</td>
<td>35.8</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambitious</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>39.2</td>
<td>50.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stupid(-)</td>
<td>65.3</td>
<td>29.6</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsible</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>76.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fast</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>38.8</td>
<td>50.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intelligent</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>59.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Easy to make enemy(-)</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>62.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talk too much(-)</td>
<td>47.3</td>
<td>34.7</td>
<td>18.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smart</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>36.9</td>
<td>53.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lazy(-)</td>
<td>65.3</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unpleasant(-)</td>
<td>48.2</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>22.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Privacy(-)</td>
<td>29.6</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>62.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narrow interests(-)</td>
<td>41.5</td>
<td>45.2</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loyal</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>40.4</td>
<td>52.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hard to meet(-)</td>
<td>70.8</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*N = 712*

Table 6.9 shows that the employees were satisfied with most factors related to supervision or their relationship with the supervisor. The majority agreed that their supervisors praised good work, gave them enough supervision, knew the job well, were polite, tactful, influential, up to date, patient, not annoying or stubborn, good, intelligent, hard working, and around when needed. However, in three areas namely “Ask for my advice”, “Hard to please”, and “Tell me where I stand”, if the “not sure” responses were added to the “no” scores in the positive phrases (ask for my advice and tell me where I stand), and “yes” scores in the negative phrase (hard to please), there is an indication that the majority of
people were not satisfied in these aspects of the relationship with the supervisor.

Table 6.9 *Satisfaction with supervision/supervisor*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Not sure</th>
<th>Yes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ask for my advice</td>
<td>30.5</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td>34.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hard to please (−)</td>
<td>44.7</td>
<td>37.9</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impolite (−)</td>
<td>73.3</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Praises good work</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>25.4</td>
<td>58.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tactful</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>65.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influential</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>50.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Up-to-date</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>32.9</td>
<td>54.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doesn’t supervise enough (−)</td>
<td>50.1</td>
<td>37.1</td>
<td>12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quick tempered (−)</td>
<td>55.1</td>
<td>28.7</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tells me where I stand</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>49.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annoying (−)</td>
<td>58.4</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stubborn (−)</td>
<td>73.5</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knows job well</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>32.9</td>
<td>59.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad (−)</td>
<td>70.6</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intelligent</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>59.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leaves me on my own</td>
<td>37.9</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>36.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lazy (−)</td>
<td>71.1</td>
<td>25.4</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Around when needed</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>73.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*N = 712*
The employees seem to be satisfied with 14 out of 18 items that are related to satisfaction with the work itself. In the four areas which described the work as pleasant, tiresome, healthful, and on your feet, there is an indication that people are not satisfied.

Table 6.10 *Satisfaction with Work*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>No %</th>
<th>Not sure %</th>
<th>Yes %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fascinating</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>59.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Routine(-)</td>
<td>65.0</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfying</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>28.7</td>
<td>54.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boring(-)</td>
<td>54.8</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>82.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creative</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>65.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respected</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>34.8</td>
<td>54.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hot(-)</td>
<td>59.6</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pleasant</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>48.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Useful</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>88.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tiresome(-)</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>25.8</td>
<td>48.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Healthful</td>
<td>32.3</td>
<td>49.4</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenging</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>86.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On your feet(-)</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>68.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frustrating(-)</td>
<td>47.2</td>
<td>37.2</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple(-)</td>
<td>59.6</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Endless(-)</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>27.2</td>
<td>55.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gives a sense of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>accomplishment</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>23.9</td>
<td>69.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The majority (68%) thought that their job kept them on their feet. In JDI instrument, this phrase is considered as "negative". However, in the Bruneian culture, it may be considered as positive because people might simply claim to be kept of their feet to appear busy working.*
Table 6.11 shows that out of 9 items related to pay satisfaction, 4 are satisfactory. A relatively high percentage of the respondents did not think that they were highly paid and that their income provided them with luxuries.

Table 6.11 *Satisfaction with Pay*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>No %</th>
<th>Not sure %</th>
<th>Yes %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Income adequate for normal expenses</td>
<td>24.2</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>58.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactory annual bonus</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>58.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barely live on income(−)</td>
<td>48.2</td>
<td>27.4</td>
<td>24.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad(−)</td>
<td>58.3</td>
<td>25.4</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income provides luxuries</td>
<td>45.1</td>
<td>37.4</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insecure</td>
<td>50.7</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than I deserve(−)</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highly paid</td>
<td>44.8</td>
<td>36.9</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under pay(−)</td>
<td>42.3</td>
<td>35.5</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*N = 712*

Promotion is the least satisfying job factor. The fact that people are not satisfied is clearly shown in the above table. If the “not sure” responses were added to the “no” scores in the positive phrases, and “yes” scores in the negative phrases, none of the items related to promotion were satisfactory.
Table 6.12 *Satisfaction with Promotion*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>No (Percentage)</th>
<th>Not sure (Percentage)</th>
<th>Yes (Percentage)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good opportunity for advancement</td>
<td>29.8</td>
<td>41.9</td>
<td>28.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity somewhat limited (-)</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>28.1</td>
<td>52.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion on ability</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>38.1</td>
<td>39.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dead-end job (-)</td>
<td>44.0</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good chance for promotion</td>
<td>40.7</td>
<td>48.5</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfair promotion policy (-)</td>
<td>42.3</td>
<td>43.8</td>
<td>13.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrequent promotion (-)</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>51.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular promotion</td>
<td>55.9</td>
<td>38.8</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairly good chance for promotion</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>56.0</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*N = 712*

The Job Design Index used to reveal the job satisfaction among the Division II employees in the Brunei Civil Service. It is used to identify the most and the least satisfying job facet or factor. The main advantage of using the JDI in this survey is that it does not ask the respondents how satisfied they are with work, rather it asks them to describe their work. Such an approach suits the Bruneian preference for "indirectness". Yet, this instrument has two main limitations. The first limitation is related to the possible differences in perception of the words or phrases due to cultural differences. As for instance, under the heading of satisfaction with supervision, the phrase "the supervisor leaves me on my own" was identified as positive in the instrument. However, in Brunei close supervision is
instrument. However, in Brunei close supervision is positively evaluated Blunt (1988). Additionally, the word "no privacy" is rated as negative. In a closely knit society such as the Bruneian Society, lack of privacy among the "in-group" members is not necessarily perceived as a bad thing. In fact, employees are expected to share information with their friends and colleagues including those related to them personally. The other problem is that a large number of respondents answered "not sure" to the statements in the questionnaire. This word is difficult to interpret although, in a culture where "indirectness" is preferred, one may have a tendency to use the word as a replacement for a negative answer, particularly if it is believed that such an action could help to avoid conflict with peers and superiors.

**JOB SATISFACTION AND PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS**

**1. SATISFACTION WITH WORK**

The value of Adjusted R Square (0.02682) in Table 6.13 indicates that about 2% of the variation in satisfaction with work is explained by independent variables (personal characteristics of the employees). The Significant T is <0.05 in the case of marital status (married) and occupation (occupations other than Education Officers) showing that the population regression coefficient is not zero.
Table 6.13 **Multiple Regression Analysis**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable: Satisfaction with work</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Multiple R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R Square</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R square</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE B</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Married*</td>
<td>2.055733</td>
<td>.779209</td>
<td>.104173</td>
<td>2.638</td>
<td>.0085</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced/Wid.</td>
<td>4.494717</td>
<td>3.299276</td>
<td>.051426</td>
<td>1.362</td>
<td>.1735</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5yrs-19yrs</td>
<td>-0.641953</td>
<td>0.687118</td>
<td>-0.036452</td>
<td>-0.094</td>
<td>0.3505</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 yrs and above</td>
<td>1.129040</td>
<td>2.274165</td>
<td>-0.018802</td>
<td>-0.0496</td>
<td>0.6197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>-0.076577</td>
<td>0.669402</td>
<td>-0.004438</td>
<td>-0.114</td>
<td>0.9090</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation*</td>
<td>-2.476538</td>
<td>0.668896</td>
<td>-0.141804</td>
<td>-3.702</td>
<td>0.0002</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(1) SATISFACTION WITH SUPERVISION/SUPERVISOR

As shown in table 6.14 the Significant T = >0.05 in all cases showing that the population regression coefficient is zero. The independent variables (personal characteristics of the respondents) have no effect on job satisfaction.
Table 6.14 *Multiple Regression Analysis*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE B</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>-.075897</td>
<td>.989118</td>
<td>-.003063</td>
<td>-.077</td>
<td>.9389</td>
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<tr>
<td>Divorced/Wid.</td>
<td>6.823794</td>
<td>4.188063</td>
<td>.062184</td>
<td>1.629</td>
<td>.1037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syrs-19yrs</td>
<td>-1.197361</td>
<td>.872219</td>
<td>-.054152</td>
<td>-.1373</td>
<td>.1703</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 yrs and above</td>
<td>1.448830</td>
<td>2.886798</td>
<td>.019217</td>
<td>.502</td>
<td>.6159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>-1.107720</td>
<td>.849732</td>
<td>-.051131</td>
<td>-1.304</td>
<td>.1928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td>-1.017539</td>
<td>.849089</td>
<td>-.046405</td>
<td>-1.198</td>
<td>.2312</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SATISFACTION WITH CO-WORKER/CO-WORKERS**

The value of Adjusted R Square (0.00852) in table 6.15 indicates that about 0.8% of the variation in satisfaction with co-worker(s) is explained by the independent variables (personal characteristics of the respondents). The Significant T = <0.05 in the case of marital status (married), and tenure (between 5 and 19 years) showing that the population regression is not zero.
Table 6.15 *Multiple Regression Analysis*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable: Co-workers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Multiple R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R Square</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R square</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE B</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>2.090903</td>
<td>1.021765</td>
<td>.081558</td>
<td>2.046</td>
<td>.0411</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced/Wid.</td>
<td>4.025337</td>
<td>4.326293</td>
<td>.035451</td>
<td>.930</td>
<td>.3525</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5yrs-19yrs</td>
<td>-2.084187</td>
<td>.901007</td>
<td>-.091096</td>
<td>-2.313</td>
<td>.0210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 yrs and above</td>
<td>-5.525875</td>
<td>2.982080</td>
<td>-.070834</td>
<td>-1.853</td>
<td>.0643</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1.236083</td>
<td>.877778</td>
<td>.055141</td>
<td>1.408</td>
<td>.1595</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td>.684296</td>
<td>.877114</td>
<td>.030160</td>
<td>.780</td>
<td>.4356</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SATISFACTION WITH PAY**

As shown in table 6.16 the value of Adjusted R Square (0.00975) indicates that only about 0.9% of the variation in satisfaction with pay is explained by the independent variables (personal characteristics of the respondents). The significant T = <0.05 in the case of marital status (married), and tenure (between 5 and 19 years) and gender (female) showing that the population regression is not zero.
### Table: 6.16 **Multiple Regression Analysis**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE B</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>1.313637</td>
<td>.628028</td>
<td>.083313</td>
<td>2.092</td>
<td>.0368</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced/Wid.</td>
<td>2.882649</td>
<td>2.659159</td>
<td>-.041278</td>
<td>1.084</td>
<td>.2787</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5yrs-19yrs</td>
<td>-1.491257</td>
<td>.553805</td>
<td>-.105978</td>
<td>-2.693</td>
<td>.0073</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 yrs and above</td>
<td>-.480042</td>
<td>1.832937</td>
<td>-.010005</td>
<td>-.262</td>
<td>.7935</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>.805110</td>
<td>.539527</td>
<td>.058396</td>
<td>1.492</td>
<td>.0073</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td>.546158</td>
<td>.539119</td>
<td>.039139</td>
<td>1.013</td>
<td>.3114</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### SATISFACTION WITH PROMOTION

In table 6.17 the value of Adjusted R Square (0.02069) indicates that about 2% of the variation in satisfaction with promotion is explained by the independent variables (personal characteristics of the respondents). The Significant T = <0.05 in the case of tenure (between 5 and 19 years) showing that the population regression is not zero.
Table 6.17 *Multiple Regression Analysis*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE B</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>-.359753</td>
<td>.499357</td>
<td>-.028536</td>
<td>-.720</td>
<td>.4715</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced/Wid.</td>
<td>-1.718119</td>
<td>2.114344</td>
<td>-.0030771</td>
<td>-.813</td>
<td>.4167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure 5yrs-19yrs</td>
<td>-1.787936</td>
<td>.440340</td>
<td>-.158918</td>
<td>-4.060</td>
<td>.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 yrs and above</td>
<td>-2.260349</td>
<td>1.457401</td>
<td>-.058922</td>
<td>-1.551</td>
<td>.1214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>-.084749</td>
<td>.428987</td>
<td>-.007688</td>
<td>-.198</td>
<td>.8435</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td>.301165</td>
<td>.428663</td>
<td>.026993</td>
<td>.703</td>
<td>.482</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In summary the results show that personal characteristics were only responsible for 2% variation in job satisfaction. The 2% influence is so small that it could be ignored and concluded that differences in personal characteristics have no effect on job satisfaction. The result is therefore not consistent with the ideas proposed in the literature as mentioned in chapter two of this thesis.
CONCLUSION

This chapter contains the findings of the survey on the Division II employees of the Brunei Civil Service. The findings of the motivation survey are consistent to a great extent with the data obtained in the qualitative research and replicate the findings of studies in other Eastern and Collectivist cultures (for example, Adler, 1997; Bond and Smith, 1996; Triandis, 1994; Gomez-Mejia, 1991; Kajitcibasi and Berry, 1989; and Hofstede, 1980).

The main findings of the Job Diagnostic Survey are:

(a) Despite the fact the respondents are professional employees their Growth Need is much lower compared to the American norm

(b) The majority of employees have indicated their preference for a job in which the colleagues are friendly and a job that gives them a sense of security

(c) Employees dislike a job in which a supervisor is often very critical of them and their work in front of other people

(d) The data also suggest that the employees are relatively tolerant to unfair treatment in the organisation

(e) Promotion based on seniority is favoured by the majority of respondents
Although the employees experience positive feelings for doing their job well, the job may not be the main source of satisfaction.

There is a link between internal motivation and opportunity to deal with others, which could give an impression that the internal motivation is not purely internal to the employees. Moreover, no relationship was found between job title or occupation and perception on the job characteristic giving an indication that such perceptions were not based on objectivity. The result seems to be consistent with the argument put forward by Salancik and Pfeffer (1978; 1981) that the way employees view their work is affected by outside influences.

In the job satisfaction survey using JDI, it is found that the relationship with co-workers is the most, and promotion is the least satisfying job factor. The results of the survey also show that personal characteristics such as gender, marital status, length of service, and occupation cause very little or no variation in the level of job satisfaction. In another words, there is no or very little relationship between the personal characteristics (such as gender, marital status and tenure) and job satisfaction.

Finally, the Job Diagnostic Survey and Job Design Index have helped to reveal part of the issues related to motivation and job satisfaction of employees, however, there is a strong indication that their applicability in the Bruneian cultural context is very limited.
Chapter 7 - CONCLUSION

This study examines the inadequacies of motivation and job satisfaction theories. The central argument in this study is that the current motivation and job satisfaction theories are culturally biased and more suitable for individualist than collectivist cultures. In addition, they tend to downplay the effects of organisational structure on motivation and job satisfaction.

The main conclusion that can be drawn from the study is that motivation and job satisfaction theories put too much emphasis on individuality and rationality. For instance, the theories suggest that people will do anything in order to satisfy their personal need (Need theories). Personal achievement (McClelland, 1965) is greatly emphasised. An individual is expected to work hard to achieve the highest level need, that is, self-actualisation (Maslow, 1954) or growth need (Aldefefer, 1972). Theories such as The Expectancy theory dictate that employees will work hard provided that they can achieve the reward that they highly value. The finding of the study is consistent with the argument put forward by Staw (1984). He said:

"whether the driving force is thought to be a prior reinforcement, need fulfilment, or expectancies of future gain, the individual is assumed to be rational maximiser of personal utility “ (pp.650-651).

The theories of motivation and job satisfaction could not fully explain the behaviour outside America, particularly in the Collectivist cultures. The main source of the problem seems to be
related to parochialism or ignorance of other people’s way. Motivation and job satisfaction theories were developed in America based on the American culture. In America, where Individualism predominates (Hofstede, 1980), it is acceptable for a person to place personal goals ahead of collective goals because individualism and self-containment are the ideal. Success is measured on the basis of one’s ability to perform better than others. Pleasure, winning the competition, individual achievement, freedom, and autonomy are parts of the individualist’s values. People do not have problems in identifying what factors are internal and external to them because they see themselves as independent, distinct, autonomous, and separate from others both physically and psychologically. Thus in a culture where Individualism predominates, it is possible to make a distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Additionally, Americans tend to have the internal locus of control (Heider, 1946). In America, people tend to hold a belief that they can control their own destiny. Success is dependent on employee’s expectancy of the outcomes. Thus in the American and Western cultures, the Expectancy theory makes sense. Adler (1997) stated:

"Expectancy theories were best in explaining cultures that emphasise internal attribution. When people in a culture believe that they can control the work environments and their own behaviour, such as in the USA, England, and Canada, Expectancy theory can explain motivation. In the cultures where people believe that their work environments and behaviour are not completely under their control, such as Saudi Arabia and China, an expectancy model might not be totally applicable".

In the individualist cultures, it is seen as hypocritical to fail to act according to personal desires and attitudes, and accommodating others is perceived as giving in to the external pressures and failing to be one’s true self. As a result, individual differences in perception, attitude, and behaviour tend to be high in the individualist cultures such as the American as compared to the Collectivist cultures such as Asian in which conformity to the norms is emphasised.

In the Eastern cultures where collectivism predominates, people’s attitude towards life is different and so is their motivation. The following factors seem to influence the motivation and work attitude of the Easterners.

1. 

Need for Affiliation

An employee’s motivation to a great extent is influenced by the need for affiliation. At work, the need to maintain good relationship with superior and co-workers is greatly emphasised. It is considered to be more important than the need for power and personal achievements.

Furthermore, people in the East are particularly concerned about social expectations and relations. Easterners have a tendency to worry about what people think. They are likely to conform to the social norms and strive not to offend others because there is a strong need to maintain harmony, save face, and earn social acceptance. People are willing to sacrifice their personal interest for the sake of group unity. A key motivating force for an individual is the avoidance of social disapproval.

The ranking of need in the hierarchy of needs in the East is also different from that in the West. The need to belong and the need
for relatedness are greatly emphasised in the East. Hsu (1971) identified three basic needs from the Eastern (Chinese) perspective, namely, sociability, security, and status. The results of the survey in the Brunei Civil Service seem to indicate the existence of a similar pattern.

At work, group and social norms seem to play an important role in shaping the work behaviour and attitudes of the employees. If the group norms require the members to work hard, there is a tendency that an individual would work hard and be committed to the organisation. This is because self affirmation or feeling good about one's self is achieved through one's ability to fit in with the expectation of others. Failure to fit in may lead to rejection or at the very least cause embarrassment to the individual concerned and consequently this may indirectly create pressure on the individual to conform to the norms. On the other hand, if commitment is not part of the norm, a "committed" employee might decide not to put in more effort than others and this in turn would lead to "withholding of effort" and "passivity" among employees. Because of the vital role of groups in influencing one's behaviour in the Collectivist cultures, efforts to improve motivation should be geared toward groups rather than individuals. In Brunei, the decision by the Government to launch a Work Ethic Culture that involving all Brunei Civil Servants is a good move. If properly communicated by the Management and fully internalised by the employees as the Civil Service norms, such values as clean, honest, trustworthy, efficient, expeditious and accurate, meticulous and valuing time, and so forth, could prove to be very effective motivational tools for the organisation. Since the move will involve a change of attitude, it may require a comprehensive Organisational Development and Change Programme.
2. Obligation

In the East, although work is important, it may not be viewed as an end itself but as a means to an end. People go to work to fulfil obligation to family, society, country, nation, and religion. Therefore, employees in the East are likely to be motivated if the work they are doing could help them to fulfil such obligations. For example, they are likely to be motivated if they can see how their work can contribute to the development of their country or nation.

3. Concept of Self

As mentioned in the introductory chapter, in the East and in Collectivist cultures, the conception of the "self" is different from that found in the individualist cultures. Collectivists view the self in terms of its interconnectedness to others in various groups (Markus and Kitayama, 1991). In such cultures, people are motivated to find a way to fit in and to fulfil obligations to the significant others, for example family and friends. Reciprocity, belonging, kinship, hierarchy, loyalty, respect, politeness, social obligation and conforming to the norms are emphasised. The focus of life is on self in relation to others, and in this way people see themselves as mutually interdependent.

However, interdependency makes it difficult to ascertain whether the source of motivation comes entirely from within the individual or obtained through the association with others. For example, in Brunei, there is an indication that the difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and satisfaction can not be
clearly distinguished. This is consistent with the argument put forward by Fiske et al (1998). He stated that in a culture where people view themselves as interdependent, the difference between the internal and the external tends to be blurred, and what appears to be an external inducement from the independent perspective may not be identified as such.

4. Homogeneity

In Eastern and Collectivist cultures, homogeneity in perceptions and attitudes (including job attitudes) is expected. For instance, in Brunei, the results of the survey on the Brunei Civil Servants in chapter six, suggest that the respondents were homogeneous in their perception of their jobs. Homogeneity was also found in Japan and China (Robbins, 1998). In the Collectivist cultures, social behaviours are likely to be dictated by social norms, duties, and obligations. Since there is a strong need to conform to social norms, people are likely to find consensus and focus on the collective requirements of the group. When everyone has a tendency to fit into the needs and expectations of others, homogeneity of thought, perception, values, and attitudes are likely to be the outcome. Moreover, in some countries such as Japan and China, people not only share values, but also ideology and religion. In the case of Brunei, the fact that there is only one government (the government of His Majesty the Sultan) and that there is no active political party, to a certain extent contributes to homogeneity in Bruneian society. In circumstances where homogeneity in society predominates, individual differences are not likely to be the main issue in motivation but the main challenge will be to find an effective way of utilising group
cohesiveness and a sense of togetherness so that both employees and organisation will benefit.

**5. Uncertainty Avoidance**

In a collectivist culture where there is a high uncertainty avoidance cultural orientation, the importance of job security is emphasised. People prefer a job in which written rules and procedures, including those related to pay and compensation, are made explicit.

**6. High Power Distance**

The Eastern and collectivist cultures are characterised by high power distance (Hofstede, 1980). In a culture where high power distance predominates, the society tends to be hierarchical. The dominant values include dependence on superiors, authoritarianism, social stratification, and ascription of status.

In the East, leaders earn respect and power for being 'leaders'. With the power and authority bestowed upon them, the leaders themselves could act as motivators. For instance, in Japan, it is the personal attachment to the leader, and the ensuing obligation to him or her, that most strongly motivates people to do their work (Markus and Kitayama, 1991). In Brunei, leader’s behaviour could have a direct impact on employee’s motivation to work because by tradition, Bruneians particularly the Malays, are loyal to their rulers or leaders. A Malay proverb says, “Pantang anak Melayu menderhaka kapada raja (It is not acceptable for the Malays
to disobey their rulers). Abdullah (1996) said that many Malays feel that if “I have a good boss, I will work to death for him”.

However to be effective and to maintain their credibility, leaders in the eastern culture are expected to be good role models to the followers and practice what they preach. They should not expect the subordinates to be committed to their jobs and responsibilities, while they are not. They need to make an effort to monitor the progress of the subordinates and show that they are aware of what the subordinates are doing. They need to take a personal interest in the wellbeing and the career prospects of the subordinates. They need to be emphatic and considerate. In Brunei, the leader and the subordinates are viewed as interdependent. The leader behaves as a nurturing and caring parent and the subordinates offer him support and undivided loyalty. This view is consistent with the findings of the research conducted by Markus and Kitayama, (1991). They found that in the Collectivist cultures, there is a strong preference for a leader who uses a paternalistic style, who demands a lot more than officially required yet extends his care for the subordinates’ personal affairs even outside of work over the Western-type, task oriented leader (who separate personal matters from work and demands as much as, yet not more than officially expected).

The hierarchical nature of the society, to a certain extent, influences people’s desire to upgrade their status in the community. Job promotion is one way to achieve and fulfil such a desire. However, in the Eastern and collectivist cultures, ascription of power is likely to be achieved through personality and loyalty rather than work achievement (Trompenaar, 1993). In such cultures, promotion based on seniority is common.
A tall organisation structure seems appropriate in the Eastern and Collectivist cultures as it can provide opportunities for employees to progress through the career ladder. This supports the findings of a study conducted by Hofstede (1980). He found that in countries with high power distance there should be more levels of hierarchy (vertical differentiation) and that status and power would serve as motivators, and leaders would be revered or obeyed as authorities.

The results of the study also show that organisational structure and design could have an impact on motivation and job satisfaction. More specifically, the findings of the study on Division II employees in the Brunei Civil Service indicate that a flat structure could decrease motivation and job satisfaction. The process is illustrated in figure 7.1. It shows that a flat organisational structure reduces the number of steps in the career ladder. As a result, promotion rarely takes place or if at all. Employees get frustrated because there is little or no hope for promotion. As a result, employees become demotivated and hold unfavourable attitude toward their jobs (job dissatisfaction). The finding supports the statement made by former Sir John Harvey (1991). He has stated,

"If the company/organisation structures are severely flattened it will remove one of the incentives for achievement, that of an increase in status. If promotion prospects are removed, it can act as a disincentive, can lead to disillusionment, possibly disenchantment and probably disaffection" (p. 29).

Nevertheless, it should be noted that the relationship between organisational structure, and behaviour and attitudes may be moderated by other factors such as national culture. For instance, in a high power distance cultural orientations, people tend to
have a great need to upgrade their social status. Thus, the impact of a flat organisational structure is likely to be more serious on people in such cultures than those in a culture where power distance is small, such as that found in the West.

Figure 7.1

Flat structure

No/limited opportunity
for promotion

Frustration

Demotivation

Job dissatisfaction

The absence of an organisational structure in the theory of motivation and job satisfaction seems to be due to the fact that these topics are normally discussed separately. As mentioned in the introductory chapter, motivation and job satisfaction belong to micro Organisational Behaviour whilst organisational theory and structure are part of macro Organisational Behaviour. Psychologists deal with topics related Motivation and job satisfaction. Sociologists study organisational theory and structure. However, research evidence suggest that organisational
structure influence employee’s motivation and job satisfaction. This gives a strong indication motivation and job satisfaction are not purely a psychological phenomenon.

Finally, the thesis highlights issues related to research strategy and instruments. It has found that a methodology that is effective in one culture may not work in another. Additionally, research instruments such as the Job Diagnostic Survey and Job Design Index suffer from the same pitfalls as motivation and job satisfaction theories. Researchers had developed these instruments without being sufficiently aware of the non-American values and cultures.

**CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE**

This study offers a number of contributions to the current literature of the Organisation Behaviour in general, and Motivation and Job Satisfaction in particular.

Firstly, using a case study in the Brunei Civil Service, it has produced new evidence to show that the current theories of motivation and job satisfaction are inadequate in explaining the behaviour of people outside America, particularly in the Eastern and Collectivist cultures.

Secondly, it examines the relationship between macro (organisation design and structure) and micro (motivation and job satisfaction) of Organisational Behaviour. In particular, it shows how and why organisational structure affect motivation and job satisfaction.

Thirdly, it shows that in addition to those factors indicated in the literature such as the philosophical view of the researcher
and technical requirements of the research, the choice of research strategy could be influenced and constrained by the cultural environments in which the research is conducted. In addition, such environments could also undermine the effectiveness of the current research instruments particularly if such instruments are alien to the culture.

Fourthly, it helps to enrich the Contingency theory of Organisation.

Finally, it contributes to the revival of the literature on "group" in organisations, particularly the group's influence on an individual behaviour.

**Future Research**

To date, there has been a considerable amount of research on the influence of culture on employee behaviour and the problems of applying the current motivation and job satisfaction theories in cultures outside America. New research effort should be geared toward the development of a complementary theory or theories reflecting indigenous circumstances.

Further research is needed on the relationship between motivation and job satisfaction, and organisational structure. Such research could involve integration between micro and macro organisational research.

As far as the Brunei Civil Service is concerned, more research is needed to uncover factors contributing to motivation and job satisfaction problems among the Civil Servants. However, it is important to overcome the current methodological shortcomings first, particularly in the quantitative research. It is recommended that a tailor-made survey questionnaire be used in the
future research. This would help to overcome the problems encountered in the application of those instruments such as the JDS and JDI that were designed in a totally different cultural setting.
Appendix: A The Questionnaire

(Malay Version)

KAJI SELIDIK MENGENAI MOTIVASI DALAM PEKERJAN


Atas kerjasama dari pihak tuan/puan tidak lupa diucapkan berbanyak-banyak terima kasih.

Bahagian A: Butir-butir peribadi

Jentina: Perampuan _____: Lelaki ____ [Tolong tandakan (/)]

Jawatan: _______________________________________________________

Pengalaman dalam jawatan sekarang:______Tahun ______Bulan

Kelulusan Tertinggi:_______________________________________________

Umur:_____Tahun

Status: Bujang/Kahwin/Janda/Duda (Potong yang tidak berkenaan)
**Bahagian B: Petunjuk Rekabentuk Pekerjaan (Job Design Index)**

Sila tandakan "Y" di sebelah kiri jika perkataan yang tertulis mennerangkan tentang aspek tugas tuan/panu (misalnya, dari segi gaji, rakan sekerja dan sebagainya). Tandakan "T" jika perkataan tersebut tidak betul atau tidak menepati pendapat tuan/panu, dan tandakan "?" jika tuan/panu tidak pasti mengenainya.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. KERJA</th>
<th>2. PENGAWARAS/KETUA</th>
<th>3. GAJI</th>
<th>4. KENAikan PANGKAT</th>
<th>5. RAKAN SEJAWAT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Menyeronokkan</td>
<td>Meminta nasihat saya</td>
<td>Gaji cukup untuk perbelanjaan</td>
<td>Peluang baik untuk maju</td>
<td>Mendorong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rutin</td>
<td>Susah untuk menepati kehadinkanya</td>
<td>Bonos tahunan yang memuaskan</td>
<td>Peluang adalah terhad</td>
<td>Membosankan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Memuaskan</td>
<td>Tidak bersopan santun</td>
<td>Gaji hampir tidak mencukupi</td>
<td>Kenaikan pangkat berdasarkan kebolehan</td>
<td>Lambat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Menjemukan</td>
<td>Memuji hasil kerja yang baik</td>
<td>Tidak baik</td>
<td>Pekerjaan yang menuju jalanbuntu(deadend)</td>
<td>Bercita-cita tinggi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baik</td>
<td>Berdiplomasi</td>
<td>Gaji memberikan kemewahan</td>
<td>Peluang besar untuk kenaikan pangkat</td>
<td>Kurang cerdik</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keratif</td>
<td>&quot;Up-todate&quot;</td>
<td>Tidak menjamin</td>
<td>Polisi kenaikan pangkat yang kurang adil</td>
<td>Cerdik/Pandai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dihormati</td>
<td>Tidak mengawas dengan cukup</td>
<td>Kurang daripada yang layak saya terima</td>
<td>Kenaikan pangkat jarang dilakukan</td>
<td>Tidak mengawas dengan cukup</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panas/berpanas</td>
<td>Membiarkan saya bekerja sendirian</td>
<td>Bayaran gaji yang lumayan</td>
<td>Kenaikan pangkat selalu berlaku</td>
<td>Mudah bermusuh dengan orang lain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Menyenangkan</td>
<td>Membiarkan saya bekerja sendirian</td>
<td>Kurang/tidak cukup</td>
<td>Murah meradang</td>
<td>Pintar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Berguna</td>
<td>Malas</td>
<td>Tidak berkesudahan</td>
<td>Terlalu banyak cakap</td>
<td>Terlalu banyak cakap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meletihkan</td>
<td>Memberikan rasa kejayaan</td>
<td>Mendaftarkan diri</td>
<td>Pintar</td>
<td>Malas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Menyihatkan</td>
<td>Terlalu banyak cakap</td>
<td>Menyesatkan</td>
<td>Matanya berhakikah</td>
<td>Matanya berhakikah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mencabar</td>
<td>Membiarkan saya bekerja sendirian</td>
<td>Tidak menyenangkan</td>
<td>Tidak menyenangkan</td>
<td>Membandingkan kemaslahan yang terhad-sedikit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Menyibokkan</td>
<td>Membiarkan saya bekerja sendirian</td>
<td>Tidak berahsia</td>
<td>Tidak berahsia</td>
<td>Membandingkan kemaslahan yang terhad-sedikit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mengecewakan</td>
<td>Membiarkan saya bekerja sendirian</td>
<td>Aktif</td>
<td>Aktil</td>
<td>Membandingkan kemaslahan yang terhad-sedikit</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ringkas</td>
<td>Malas</td>
<td>Membandingkan kemaslahan yang terhad-sedikit</td>
<td>Membandingkan kemaslahan yang terhad-sedikit</td>
<td>Membandingkan kemaslahan yang terhad-sedikit</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tidak berkesudahan</td>
<td>Mudah bermusuh dengan orang lain</td>
<td>Membandingkan kemaslahan yang terhad-sedikit</td>
<td>Membandingkan kemaslahan yang terhad-sedikit</td>
<td>Membandingkan kemaslahan yang terhad-sedikit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Memberikan rasa kejayaan</td>
<td>Tidak mengawas dengan cukup</td>
<td>Membandingkan kemaslahan yang terhad-sedikit</td>
<td>Membandingkan kemaslahan yang terhad-sedikit</td>
<td>Membandingkan kemaslahan yang terhad-sedikit</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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225
Bahagian C: Penyelidikan Mengenai Diagnostik Pekerjaan (Job Diagnostic Survey)


Seksyen 1
Seksyen ini memerlukan tuan/puan menenrangkan tentang pekerjaan tuan/puan.

Contoh soalan adalah seperti berikut:

A. Sejauh manakah pekerjaan tuan/puan memerlukan tuan/puan menggunakan mesin/komputer atau jentera

1  2 3 4 5 6 7
Sangat sedikit: hampir keseluruhan pekerjaan ini tidak menggunakan mesin atau jentera

1. Sejauh manakah pekerjaan tuan/puan memberi tuan/puan kuasa (autonomi) untuk membuat keputusan dalam pengandiannya?

1  2 3 4 5 6 7
Sangat sedikit: pekerjaan ini hampir langsung tidak memberi peluang untuk saya menentukan bagaimana dan bila sesuatu tugas seharusnya dilaksanakan

2. Sejauh manakah pekerjaan tuan/puan memerlukan tuan/puan bekerja rapat dengan orang lain (sama ada "pelanggan", pekerja yang mempunyai jawatan yang berkaitan dalam jabatan atau kementerian tempat tuan/puan bertugas.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Sangat sedikit: berurusan dengan orang lain tidaklah diperlukan dalam pekerjaan ini

Misalnya, walaupun pekerjaan tuan/puan memerlukan tuan/puan selalu menggunakan mesin misalnya komputer, tetapi pada waktu-waktu tertentu ianya juga melibatkan kerja pentadbiran atau "paper work" tuan/puan bolehlah membuat bulatan di atas nombor 6.

1. Sejauh manakah pekerjaan tuan/puan memerlukan tuan/puan bekerja rapat dengan orang lain (sama ada "pelanggan", pekerja yang mempunyai jawatan yang berkaitan dalam jabatan atau kementerian tempat tuan/puan bertugas.

2. Sejauh manakah pekerjaan tuan/puan memberi tuan/puan kuasa (autonomi) untuk membuat keputusan dalam pengandiannya?
3. Sejauhmanakah pekerjaan tuan/puan melibatkan perlaksanaan kerja “yang menyeluruh” dan “dapat dikesan”? Iaitu, adakah ianya merupakan satu pekerjaan dari proses awal hingga akhir dilakukan oleh tuan/puan sendiri? Atau adakah ianya hanya merupakan sebahagian daripada satu kerja yang besar, dan selepas tuan/puan membuatnya, ianya akan di selesaikan oleh orang lain atau mesin otomatik?

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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tugas saya hanyalah merupakan sebahagian kecil dari sebuah kerja dan hasilnya tidaklah dapat dikesan apabila keselurohan kerja selesai</td>
<td>Kerja saya adalah bahagian yang agak sedarhana dari sebuah kerja: hasilnya dapat dikesan apabila keselurohan kerja selesai</td>
<td>Kerja saya melibatkan saya membuat keselurohan kerja dari awal hingga keakhir dan hasilnya dapat dilihat dengan nyata apabila keselurohan kerja selesai</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

4. Berapa banyak jenis tugas terdapat didalam pekerjaan tuan/puan? Iaitu sejauhmanakah pekerjaan tuan/puan mengkehendaki tuan/puan melakukan berbagai tugas, menggunakan bakat dan kebolehan tuan/puan?

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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sangat sedikit: pekerjaan saya melibatkan kerja rutin</td>
<td>Sederhana</td>
<td>Pekerjaan ini memerlukan saya melakukan pelbagai kerja dan menggunakan berbagai bakat dan kebolehan saya</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Pada umumnya, sejauhmana pekerjaan tuan/puan boleh dikatakan bermakna atau penting? Iaitu, adakah hasil kerja tuan/puan akan mendatangkan kesan yang bermakna kapada kehidupan atau kebajikan orang lain?

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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tidak begitu bermakna: hasil kerja saya tidak mungkin akan mendatangkan kesan yang penting kapada orang lain</td>
<td>Sederhana</td>
<td>Sangat bermakna: hasil kerja saya akan mendatangkan kesan penting kapada orang lain</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


<table>
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<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sangat sedikit: Orang lain hampir langsung tidak memberi maklumbalas tentang sejauhmana kecekapan saya membuat kerja</td>
<td>Sederhana:</td>
<td>Sangat banyak: pengawas atau ketua dan rakan sekerja saya sentiasa memberi maklumbalas tentang sejauhmana kecekapan saya membuat kerja</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7. Dengan melakukannya, sejauhmanakan pekerjaan tuan/puan dapat memberi maklum balas kepada tuan/puan tentang prestasi tuan/puan? Iaitu adakah pekerjaan itu sendiri dapat membayangkan atau memberikan isyarat sejauhmana kecekapan anda dalam melakukanya - selain dari timbalbalas daripada ketua dan rakan sekerja?

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<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Syeksen 2**

Keterangan-keterangan yang diberikan dibawah ini dapat menguraikan tentang sesuatu tugas atau pekerjaan.

Tuan/puan dikehendaki menjawab samaada keterangan-keterangan tersebut betul atau tidak dalam menjelaskan tentang pekerjaan tuan/puan.

Sila tulis nombor disebelah kiri tiap-tiap keterangan menurut skill yang telah disediakan.

Sejauhmanakah ayat-ayat dibawah ini menerangkan tentang pekerjaan tuan/puan?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sangat Agak</td>
<td>Hampir Tidak</td>
<td>Tidak</td>
<td>Hampir Agak</td>
<td>Sangat</td>
<td>Salah</td>
<td>Tepat</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Pekerjaan ini mengkehendaki saya menggunakan kebolehan yang komplex dan tinggi dan tahapnya
2. Pekerjaan ini memerlukan kerjasama dari orang lain dalam mengendalikannya
3. Cara pekerjaan ini dibentuk menyebabkan saya tidak berpeluang melakukan keseluruhan yang
4. Dengan melakukan pekerjaan ini menurut ketetapannya membolehkan saya mengetahui sejauhmana kecekapan saya membuatnya.
5. Pekerjaan ini ringkas dan berulang-ulang.
6. Pekerjaan ini doleh dilakukan perseorangan tanpa perlu berkominikasi atau merujuk kapada orang lain.
7. Pengawas dan rakan sekerja langsung tidak memberi timbalbalas mengenai kecekapan saya dalam mengendalikan tugas.
8. Ini adalah satu pekerjaan yang hasilnya boleh mendatangkan kesan kepada ramai orang.
11. Pekerjaan ini memberi peluang saya melakukan satu-satu tugas dari awal hingga ke proses akhir.
12. Pekerjaan ini sendiri dapat memberi bayangan samaada saya melakukan nya dengan baik atau sebaleknya.
13. Pekerjaan ini memberi peluang kapada saya untuk berdikari dan bebas dalam memilih cara melakukannya.
Pekerjaan ini bukanlah satu pekerjaan yang penting

Sketsyen 3

Tolong nyatakan bagaimana perasaan tuan/puan mengenai pekerjaan tuan/puan

Setiap ayat dibawah boleh digunakan untuk menjelas pendapat seseorang mengenai pekerjaan nya. Jawab samaada tuan/puan bersetuju dengan ayat-ayat yang tersebut dibawah mengenai pekerjaan tuan/puan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
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<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sangat tidak bersetuju</td>
<td>Tidak tidak bersetuju</td>
<td>Hampir Tidak pasti bersetuju</td>
<td>Hampir bersetuju</td>
<td>Sangat bersetuju</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Dalam pekerjaan ini adalah susah bagi saya untuk mengendahkan atau memberi perhatian sama ada kerja ini saya lakukan dengan sempurna atau tidak
2. Penilaian saya tentang diri saya tinggi apabila saya dapat melaksanakan tugas saya dengan baik
3. Secara umumnya, saya berpuas hati dengan pekerjaan ini
4. Kebanyakan tugas yang saya lakukan dalam pekerjaan ini nampaknya kurang berfaedah
5. Biasanya saya akan mengetahui sama ada tugas yang saya lakukan memuaskan atau sebaleknya
6. Secara peribadi, saya merasa puas hati apabila saya dapat melaksanakan tugas ini dengan sempurna
7. Tugas yang saya lakukan dalam pekerjaan ini adalah amat bermakna bagi diri saya
8. Dalam melaksanakan tugas ini saya merasakan ianya adalah satu tanggung jawab yang besar
9. Saya selalu terfikir untuk berhenti dari kerjaya ini
10. Saya merasa kecewa apabila mengetahui saya tidak mampu melakukan tugas saya dengan baik
11. Saya selalu menghadiapi kesukaran dalam menilai sama ada saya melakukan tugas ini dengan baik atau sebaleknya
12. Saya rasa saya sepatut nya menerima pujian dan teguran apabila saya melakukan tugas saya dengan baik atau sebaleknya
13. Pada umumnya saya berpuas hati melakukan tugas saya dalam pekerjaan ini
14. Pada umumnya sama ada saya boleh melakukan tugas saya dengan baik atau sebaleknya tidaklah mempengaruhi perasaan saya
15. Sama ada pekerjaan ini dilakukan dengan sempurna atau sebaleknya adalah setentunya tangungjawab saya
**Seksyen 4**

Sekarang tolong nyatakan samaada tuan/puan berpuas hati dengan aspek pekerjaan tuan/puan yang tersebut dibawah ini. Sila tulis nombor yang bersesuaian di petak yang disediakan.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
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<th>7</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sangat tidak berpuas hati</td>
<td>Tidak berpuas hati</td>
<td>Hampir tidak berpuas hati</td>
<td>Hampir berkecuali berpuas hati</td>
<td>Berpuas hati</td>
<td>Sangat berpuas hati</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Tentang tahap jaminan yang saya dapat dari pekerjaan ini
2. Tentang gaji dan kemudahan yang saya terima
3. Tentang kemajuan atau pembenaan diri yang saya perolehi melalui pekerjaan ini
4. Tentang orang yang berhubungan dengan bekerja bersama saya
5. Tentang penghormatan dan layanan yang saya terima dari ketua saya
6. Tentang perasaan kesempurnaan setelah berhasil melakukan kerja dengan baik
7. Tentang peluang untuk mengenali orang lain semasa menjalankan tugas
8. Tentang banyaknya sokongan dan tunjuk ajar yang diberikan oleh ketua saya
9. Tentang sejauhmana saya di bayar dengan gaji yang sewajarnya mengikut sumbangan yang saya berikan kapada jabatan ini
10. Tentang tahap kebebasan berfikir dan bertindak yang saya boleh lakukan dalam pekerjaan ini
11. Tentang tahap jaminan yang bakal saya perolehi dalam pekerjaan ini dimasa akan datang
12. Tentang peluang untuk menolong orang lain semasa bertugas
13. Tentang banyaknya cabaran dalam pekerjaan saya
14. Tentang keseluruhan kualiti pengawasan yang saya terima semasa bertugas

**Seksyen 5**

Sekarang cuba fikirkan mengenai pegawai yang melakukan tugas yang sama di Jabatan tuan/puan. Jika tidak ada pegawai lain yang mempunyai pekerjaan yang sama dengan tuan/puan, fikirkan pekerjaan yang hampir-hampir sama.

Fikirkan sejauhmana keterangan-keterangan dibawah betul-betul menerangkan tentang perasaan pegawai-pegawai berkenaan mengenai tugas mereka.

Adalah wajar walaupun jawapan tuan/puan disini berlainan dengan reaksi tuan/puan mengenai pekerjaan ini. Memang biasanya, setiap orang mempunyai pendapat yang berbeza-beza mengenai pekerjaan yang sama.

Sekali lagi, tulis nombor dipetak yang disediakan sebagai respon kapada keterangan atau ayat yang disebelahnya mengikut skil yang disediakan.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sangat tidak bersetuju</td>
<td>Tidak bersetuju</td>
<td>Hampir Berkecuali tidak bersetuju</td>
<td>Hampir bersetuju</td>
<td>Bersetuju</td>
<td>Sangat bersetuju</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Sejauhmana tuan/puan bersetuju dengan ayat-ayat berikut?
1. Kebanyakan pegawai dalam pekerjaan ini secara peribadi amat berpuas hati apabila mereka dapat melakukan tugas dengan baik
2. Kebanyakan pegawai merasa sangat puas hati dengan pekerjaan ini
3. Kebanyakan pegawai merasa pekerjaan ini kurang berfaedah
4. Kebanyak pegawai dalam pekerjaan ini merasa bertanggung jawab dengan tugas yang dilakukan
5. Kebanyakan pegawai yang melakukan pekerjaan ini dapat mengagak sejauhmana kebolehan dalam mereka melakukan tugas
6. Kebanyakan pegawai merasakan pekerjaan ini sangat bermakna
7. kebanyak pegawai merasakan bahawa mereka bertanggungjawab secara peribadi samaada pekerjaan ini mereka lakukan dengan baik atau sebaliknya
8. Pegawai dalam pekerjaan ini selalu berfikir untuk berhenti kerja
9. Kebanyakan pegawai dalam pekerjaan ini merasa tidak terkilan atau kecewa apabila mengetahui yang mereka tidak dapat melakukan tugas dengan baik
10. Kebanyakan pegawai dalam pekerjaan ini menghadapi kesulitan untuk mengetahui sama ada mereka melakukan pekerjaan ini dengan baik dan sempurna atau sebaliknya.

**Seksyen 6**

Dibawah ini disenaraikan ciri-ciri yang terdapat didalam sesuatu pekerjaan. Setiap orang mempunyai kehendak yang berlainan dalam menilai samaada sesuatu ciri itu seharusnya terdapat didalam pekerjaan mereka. Sila nyatakan sejauhmanakan tuan/puan menyukai ciri-ciri dibawah ada terdapat didalam pekerjaan tuan/puan.

Dengan menggunakan skil yang disediakan, tolong nyatakan sejauhmanakan tuan/puan menyukai tentang adanya ciri-ciri tersebut di dalam pekerjaan tuan/puan

**Perhatian: Nombor-nombor yang digunakan didalam seksyen ini adalah berlainan dari nombor-nombor yang telah digunakan sebelumnya.**

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<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Cuma menghendaki Suka Sangat menyukai sedikit</td>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Penghormatan serta layanan yang adil dari ketua</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Kerja yang mendorong dan mencabar</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Mempunyai kebebasan untuk berfikir dan bertindak</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Jaminan kerja yang besar</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Rakan sekerja yang baik</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Peluang untuk belajar perkara yang baru dalam pekerjaan saya</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Gaji yang tinggi dan kemudahan yang banyak</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Peluang untuk berkreativ dan imaginatif dalam pekerjaan saya</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Kenaikan pangkat yang cepat</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Peluang untuk kemajuan dan pembangunan diri dalam pekerjaan saya</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Perasaan puas dan sempurna setelah tugas selesai</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Seksyen 7

Setiap orang mempunyai minat yang berlainan mengenai jawatan yang mereka sandang. Soalan-soalan dalam seksyen ini memberi peluang kapada tuan/puan menerangkan tentang apakah ciri-ciri yang terdapat didalam sesuatu pekerjaan yang penting bagi tuan/puan

Pada setiap soalan, keterangan rengkas mengenai dua pekerjaan yang berlainan ada diberikan. Tuhan/puan dikehendaki menyatakan pekerjaan yang mana satukah yang tuan/puan sukai secara peribadi, jika tuan/puan dipinta memilih salah satu dari dua jenis pekerjaan tersebut.

Sewaktu menjawab setiap soalan, bayangkan yang perkara lain bayangkan perkara-perkara lain yang berhubungkait dengan kedua-dua pekerjaan tersebut adalah sama. Tumpukan perhatian tuan/puan kapada ciri-ciri yang dinyatakan dibawah sahaja.

Contohnya seperti berikut:

Contoh pertama:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pekerjaan A</th>
<th>Pekerjaan B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pekerjaan yang banyak menggunakan alat mesin atau komputer dan sebagainya</td>
<td>Pekerjaan yang memerlukan bekerja sama dengan orang lain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sangat menggemari A</td>
<td>Agak menggemari A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Jika sekiranya tuan/puan menggemari kedua-duanya, sila tandakan bulatan diatas nombor 3 seperti yang terdapat dalam contoh di atas.

Contoh kedua:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pekerjaan A</th>
<th>Pekerjaan B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pekerjaan yang mendedahkan tuan/puan kapada keadaan bahaya</td>
<td>Pekerjaan yang memerlukan tuan/puan bekerja berbatu-batu jauh dari tempat tinggal dan keluarga</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sangat menggemari A</td>
<td>Agak menggemari A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Jika tuan/puan agak gemar dengan pekerjaan yang mendedahkan tuan/puan kapada keadaan bahaya lebih sedikit daripada tuan/puan mengemari pekerjaan yang memerlukan tuan/puan bekerja jauh dari tempat tinggal dan keluarga, tandakan bulatan diatas nombor 2 seperti contoh.

Contoh lain:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pekerjaan A</th>
<th>Pekerjaan B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pekerjaan yang membawa gaji lumayan</td>
<td>Pekerjaan yang memberi peluang untuk kreatif dan inovatif</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sangat menggemari A</td>
<td>Agak menggemari A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Jika tuan/puan agak gemar dengan pekerjaan yang menyediakan gaji lumayan, tandakan bulatan diatas nombor 2 seperti dalam contoh.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pekerjaan A</th>
<th>Pekerjaan B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. Pekerjaan yang memerlukan tuan/puan selalu membuat keputusan yang penting</td>
<td>Pekerjaan yang membolehkan tuan/puan bekerja dengan rakan yang baik dan menyenangkan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1   Sangat menggemari A</td>
<td>4   Agak menggemari B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2   Agak menggemari A</td>
<td>5   Sangat menggemari B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3   Berkecuali A</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3. Pekerjaan dimana tanggungjawab yang besar diberikan kapada pegawai yang cekap menjalankan tugas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1   Sangat menggemari A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2   Agak menggemari A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3   Berkecuali A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4. Pekerjaan organisasi yang keadaan kewangannya tidak menjamin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1   Sangat menggemari A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2   Agak menggemari A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3   Berkecuali A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>5. Pekerjaan yang sangat rutin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1   Sangat menggemari A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2   Agak menggemari A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3   Berkecuali A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6. Pekerjaan dimana ketua atau pengawas selalu mengkritik tuan/puan dan kerja tuan/puan di hadapan orang lain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1   Sangat menggemari A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2   Agak menggemari A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3   Berkecuali A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>7. Pekerjaan dimana ketua/pengawas menghormati dan melayan tuan/puan dengan adil</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1   Sangat menggemari A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2   Agak menggemari A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3   Berkecuali A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A       A
Pekerjaan A

8. Pekerjaan yang memungkinkan anda kehilangan pekerjaan

1
2
3
Sangat
Agak
Berkecuali
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
A
A

A       B
Pekerjaan B

Pekerjaan yang hanya memberi peluang sedikit sahaja untuk melakukan tugas yang mencabar

4
5
Agak
Sangat
menggemari
menggemari
B
B

A       A
Pekerjaan yang memungkinkan anda kehilangan pekerjaan

1
2
3
Sangat
Agak
Berkecuali
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
A
A

1
2
3
4
5
Sangat
Agak
Berkecuali
Agak
Sangat
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
A
A
B
B

9. Pekerjaan dimana peluang yang baik diberikan kapada tuan/puan untuk memperkembangkan kebolehan yang baru tuan/puan perolehi serta memajukannya

1
2
3
Sangat
Agak
Berkecuali
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
A
A

1
2
3
4
5
Sangat
Agak
Berkecuali
Agak
Sangat
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
A
A
B
B

A       A
Pekerjaan yang memungkinkan anda kehilangan pekerjaan

1
2
3
4
5
Sangat
Agak
Berkecuali
Agak
Sangat
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
A
A
B
B

10. Pekerjaan hanya memberi peluang sedikit sahaja untuk melakukan tugas mengikut fikiran sendiri

1
2
3
4
5
Sangat
Agak
Berkecuali
Agak
Sangat
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
A
A
B
B

1
2
3
4
5
Sangat
Agak
Berkecuali
Agak
Sangat
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
A
A
B
B

A       B
Pekerjaan yang hanya memberi peluang sedikit sahaja untuk melakukan tugas mengikut fikiran sendiri

1
2
3
4
5
Sangat
Agak
Berkecuali
Agak
Sangat
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
A
A
B
B

A       A
Pekerjaan yang membolehkan tuan/puan menggunakan segala kebolehan tuan/puan keseluruhannya

1
2
3
4
5
Sangat
Agak
Berkecuali
Agak
Sangat
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
A
A
B
B

1
2
3
4
5
Sangat
Agak
Berkecuali
Agak
Sangat
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
A
A
B
B

11. Pekerjaan dimana kerjasama dengan rakan-rakan sejawat adalah memuaskan

1
2
3
4
5
Sangat
Agak
Berkecuali
Agak
Sangat
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
A
A
B
B

A       B
Pekerjaan yang membolehkan tuan/puan menggunakan segala kebolehan tuan/puan keseluruhannya

1
2
3
4
5
Sangat
Agak
Berkecuali
Agak
Sangat
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
A
A
B
B

11. Pekerjaan dimana kerjasama dengan rakan-rakan sejawat adalah memuaskan

1
2
3
4
5
Sangat
Agak
Berkecuali
Agak
Sangat
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
A
A
B
B

1
2
3
4
5
Sangat
Agak
Berkecuali
Agak
Sangat
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
A
A
B
B

12. Pekerjaan yang tidak mencabar

1
2
3
4
5
Sangat
Agak
Berkecuali
Agak
Sangat
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
A
A
B
B

A       A
Pekerjaan yang tidak mencabar

1
2
3
4
5
Sangat
Agak
Berkecuali
Agak
Sangat
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
menggemari
A
A
B
B
Appendix: A The Questionnaire

(English Version)

The questions are designed to obtain your perception of your job and your reaction to it. Your individual answers will be kept completely confidential. Please answer each item as honestly and frankly as possible.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Sex: Male____: Female____(please tick)

Job Title: ____________________________________________________________

Length of Service:_____Year ______Month

Length of Service in the Public Sector:_______Year ______Month

Highest Academic Qualification:_______

Age: _______Years

Marital Status:_______Single/Married/Divorced/Widow (Delete if inappropriate)

Ministry:_______
1. JOB DESIGN INDEX

Please put "1" beside an item if the item describes the particular aspect of your job (work, pay, etc "2" if the item does not describe that aspect, and "3" if you can not decide.

1. WORK

___ Fascinating
___ Routine
___ Satisfying
___ Boring
___ Good
___ Creative
___ Respected
___ Hot
___ Pleasant
___ Useful
___ Tiresome
___ Healthful
___ Challenging
___ On your feet
___ Frustrating
___ Simple
___ Endless
___ Give sense of accomplishment

2. SUPERVISION

___ Ask my advice
___ Hard to please
___ Impolite
___ Praises good work
___ Tactful
___ Influential
___ Up-to-date
___ Doesn't supervise enough
___ Quick tempered
___ Tell me where I stand
___ Annoying
___ Stubborn
___ Knows job well
___ Bad
___ Intelligent
___ Leaves me on my own
___ Lazy
___ Around when needed

3. PAY

___ Income adequate for expenses
___ Satisfactory annual bonus
___ Barely live on income
___ Bad
___ Income provides luxuries
___ Insecure
___ Less than I deserve
___ Highly paid
___ Underpaid

4. PROMOTION

___ Good opportunity for advancement
___ Opportunity somewhat limited
___ Promotion on ability
___ Dead-end job
___ Great chance for promotion
___ Unfair Promotion Policy
___ Infrequent promotions
___ Regular promotions
___ Fairly good chance for promotion

5. CO-WORKERS

___ Stimulating
___ Boring
___ Slow
___ Ambitious
___ Stupid
___ Responsible
___ Fast
___ Intelligent
___ Easy to make enemies
___ Talk too much
___ Smart
___ Lazy
___ Unpleasant
___ No privacy
___ Active
___ Narrow interest
___ Loyal
___ Hard to meet
ON THE FOLLOWING PAGES YOU WILL FIND SEVERAL DIFFERENT KINDS OF QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR JOB. SPECIFIC INSTRUCTIONS ARE GIVEN AT THE START OF EACH SECTION. PLEASE READ THEM CAREFULLY. IT SHOULD TAKE NO MORE THAN 25 MINUTES TO COMPLETE THE ENTIRE QUESTIONNAIRE. PLEASE MOVE THROUGH IT QUICKLY.

SECTION ONE

THIS PART OF QUESTIONNAIRE ASKS YOU TO DESCRIBE YOUR JOB, AS OBJECTIVE AS YOU CAN.

A sample question is given below

A. To what extent does your job require you to work with mechanical equipment?

1  2  3  4  5  6  7
Very little: the job requires
almost no contact with mechanical equipment
Moderately
Very Much: the job requires
almost constant work with mechanical equipment

You are to circle the number which is the most accurate description of your job.

If, for example, your job requires you to work with mechanical equipment a good deal of the time - but also requires some paperwork - you might circle the number six, as was done in the example above.

1. To what extent does your job require you to work closely, with other people (either “client,” or people in related jobs in your own organisation)?

1  2  3  4  5  6  7
Very little: dealing with is not at all necessary
in doing the job
Moderately:
some dealing with others is necessary
Very much,
dealing with other people other people an absolutely essential and crucial part of

2. 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 doing the work?

1  2  3  4  5  6  7
Very little: the job gives me almost no personal “say” about how and when the work is done
Moderately autonomy: many things are standardised and not under control, but I can make some decisions
Very much: the job gives me almost complete responsibility for deciding how and when the work is done
3. 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?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My job is tiny part of the overall piece of work: the result of my activities cannot be seen in the final product or service</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My job is a moderate-sized “chunk” of the overall piece of work; my contribution can be seen in the final outcome</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My job involves only a doing the whole piece of work, from start to finish: the results of my own activities are easily seen in the final product of service</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. 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?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very little: the job requires me to do some routine things over and over again</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate variety</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very much: the job requires me to do many different skills and talents</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. 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?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not very significant: the work can the not affect other people in very important ways</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately significant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highly outcomes of my significant: outcomes of my work are likely to have important effects on other people</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. To what extent do managers or co-workers let you know how well you are doing your job?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very little: people almost never let me know how well I am doing about how well I am doing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately: sometimes people may give me “feedback”: other times they may not</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very much: managers or co-workers provide me with almost constant “feedback”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7. 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?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Very little; the job set up so I could work ever without finding out how well I am doing</td>
<td>Moderately; sometimes doing the job provides “feedback” to me: some times it does not</td>
<td>Very much: the job is set up so that I get almost constant “feedback” as I work about how well I am doing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SECTION TWO

Listed below are a number of statements which could be used to describe a job.

You are to indicate whether each statement is an accurate or an inaccurate description of your job.

Once again, please try to be as objective as you can in deciding how accurately each statement describes your job - regardless of whether you like or dislike your job.

Write a number in the blank beside each statement, based on the following scale:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very Inaccurate</td>
<td>Mostly Inaccurate</td>
<td>Slightly Inaccurate</td>
<td>Uncertain</td>
<td>Slightly Accurate</td>
<td>Mostly Accurate</td>
<td>Very Accurate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

_______ 1. The job requires me to use a number of complex or high-level skills.
_______ 2. The job requires a lot of cooperation work with other people.
_______ 3. The job is arranged so that I do not have the chance to do an entire piece of work from beginning to end.
_______ 4. Just doing the work required by the job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing.
_______ 5. The job is quite simple and repetitive.
_______ 6. The job can be done adequately by a person working alone - without talking or checking with other people.
_______ 7. The supervision and co-workers on this job almost never give me any “feedback” about how well I am doing in my work.
_______ 8. This job is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well the job gets done.
_______ 9. The job denies me any chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work.
_______ 10. Supervisors often let me know how well they think I am performing the job.
_______ 11. The job provides me the chance to completely finish the pieces of work I begin.
_______ 12. The job itself provides very few clues about whether or not I am performing well.
13. The job gives me a considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.

14. The job itself is not very significant or important in the border scheme of things.

SECTION THREE

Now please indicate how you personally feel about your job.

Each of the statement below is something that a person might say about his or her job. You are to indicate your own personal feelings about your job by marking how much you agree with each of the statements.

Write a number in the blank for each statement, based on this scale:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly</td>
<td>Slightly</td>
<td>Slightly</td>
<td>Strongly</td>
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</table>

1. It’s hard, on this job, for me to care very much about whether or not the work gets done.
2. My opinion of myself goes up when I do this job well.
3. Generally speaking, I am satisfied with this job.
4. Most of the things I have to do on this job seem useless and trivial.
5. I usually know whether or not my work is satisfactory on this job.
6. I feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when I do this job well.
7. The work I do on this job is very meaningful to me.
8. I feel a very high degree of personal responsibility for the work I do on this job.
9. I frequently think of quitting this job.
10. I feel bad and unhappy when I discover that I have performed poorly on this job.
11. I often have trouble figuring out whether I’m doing well or poorly on this job.
12. I feel I should personally take the credit or blame for the results of my work on this job.
13. I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job.
14. My own feelings generally are not affected much one way or the other by how well I do on this job.
15. Whether or not this job gets done right is clearly my responsibility.
SECTION FOUR

Now please indicate how satisfied you are with each aspect of your job listed below. Once again write the appropriate number in the blank beside each statement.

How satisfied are you with this aspect of your job?

1  2  3  4  5  6  7
Extremely Dissatisfied Slightly Neutral Slightly Satisfied Extremely Satisfied

1. The amount of job security I have.
2. The amount of pay and fringe benefits I receive.
3. The amount of personal growth and development I get in doing my job.
4. The people I talk to and work with on my job.
5. The degree of respect and fair treatment I receive from my boss.
6. The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment I get from doing my job.
7. The chance to get to know other people while on the job.
8. The amount of support and guidance I receive from my supervisor.
9. The degree to which I am fairly paid for what I contribute to this organisation.
10. The amount of independent thought and action I can exercise in my job.
11. How secure things look for me in the future in this organisation.
12. The chance to help other people while at work.
13. The amount of challenge in my job.
14. The overall quality of the supervision I receive in my work.

SECTION FIVE

Now please indicate how satisfied you are with each aspect of your job below. Once again, write the appropriate number in the blank beside each statement.

How satisfied are you with this aspect of your job?

1  2  3  4  5  6  7
Disagree Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Agree Agree
Strongly Slightly Slightly Slightly Slightly Strongly Strongly

1. Most people in this job feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when they do the job well
2. Most people on this job are very satisfied with the job
3. Most people on this job feel that the work is useless or trivial
4. Most people on this job feel a great deal of responsibility for the work they do
5. Most people on this have a pretty good idea of how well they are performing their work.
6. Most people on this job find the work very meaningful
7. Most people on this job feel that whether or not the job gets done right is clearly their own responsibility
8. People on this job often think of quitting
Most people on this job feel bad or unhappy when they find that they have performed poorly.

Most people on this job have trouble figuring out whether they are doing a good or a bad job.

SECTION SIX

Listed below are a number of characteristics which could be present on any job. People differ in how much they would like to have each one present in their own jobs. We are interested in learning how much you personally would like to have each one present in your job.

Using the scale below, please indicate the degree to which you would like to have each characteristic present in your job.

NOTE: The number on this scale are different from those used in the previous scales.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Would like having this</th>
<th>Would like having this</th>
<th>Would like having this</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>only a moderate amount</td>
<td>only a moderate amount</td>
<td>only a moderate amount</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>(or less)</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

1. High respect and fair treatment from my supervisor
2. Stimulating and challenging work
3. Chances to exercise independent thought and action in my job
4. Great job security
5. Very friendly co-workers
6. Opportunities to learn new things from my work
7. High salary and good fringe benefits
8. Opportunities to learn new things from my work
9. Quick promotion
10. Opportunities for personal growth and development in my job
11. A sense of worthwhile accomplishment in my work
SECTION SEVEN

People differ in the kinds of jobs they would most like to hold. The questions in this section give you a chance to say just what it is about a job that is most important to you.

For each question, two different kinds of job are briefly described. You are to indicate which of the jobs you personally would prefer. If you had to make a choice between them.

In answering each question, assume that everything else about the job is the same. Pay attention only to the characteristics actually listed.

Two examples are given below

**JOB A**
A job requiring work with mechanical equipment most of the day

1. Strongly prefer A
2. Slightly prefer A
3. Neutral

**JOB B**
A job requiring work with other people most of the day

4. Slightly prefer B
5. Strongly prefer B

If you like working with people and working with equipment equally well, you would circle the number 3.

**JOB A**
A job requiring work with mechanical equipment most of the day

1. Strongly prefer A
2. Slightly prefer A
3. Neutral

**JOB B**
A job requiring work with other people most of the day

4. Slightly prefer B
5. Strongly prefer B

If you would slightly prefer risking physical danger to working far from your home, you would circle number 2, as has been done in example.
**JOB A**

1. A job where the pay is very good
   - A good job where there is a considerable opportunity to be creative and innovative.
   
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly prefer A</td>
<td>Slightly prefer A</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Slightly prefer B</td>
<td>Strongly prefer B</td>
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**JOB B**

1. A very routine job

**JOB A**

2. A job where you are often required to make important decisions
   - A job with many people to work with

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<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly prefer A</td>
<td>Slightly prefer A</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Slightly prefer B</td>
<td>Strongly prefer B</td>
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</table>

**JOB B**

2. A job where you are often required to make important decisions
   - A job with many people to work with

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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly prefer A</td>
<td>Slightly prefer A</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Slightly prefer B</td>
<td>Strongly prefer B</td>
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**JOB A**

3. A job in which a greater responsibility is given to those who do the best work
   - A job in which greater responsibility is given to loyal employees who have the most seniority

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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly prefer A</td>
<td>Slightly prefer A</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Slightly prefer B</td>
<td>Strongly prefer B</td>
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**JOB B**

3. A job in which a greater responsibility is given to those who do the best work
   - A job in which greater responsibility is given to loyal employees who have the most seniority

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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly prefer A</td>
<td>Slightly prefer A</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Slightly prefer B</td>
<td>Strongly prefer B</td>
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**JOB A**

4. A job in an organisation which is in financial trouble - and might have to close down within a year

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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly prefer A</td>
<td>Slightly prefer A</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Slightly prefer B</td>
<td>Strongly prefer B</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**JOB B**

4. A job in an organisation which is in financial trouble - and might have to close down within a year
   - A job in which you are not allowed to have any say in how your work is scheduled, or in the procedures to be used in carrying it out

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<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly prefer A</td>
<td>Slightly prefer A</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Slightly prefer B</td>
<td>Strongly prefer B</td>
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**JOB A**

5. A very routine job
   - A job where your co-workers are not very friendly

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<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly prefer A</td>
<td>Slightly prefer A</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Slightly prefer B</td>
<td>Strongly prefer B</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. A job with a supervisor who is often very critical of you and your work in using a number of skills that you worked hard to develop.

7. A job with a supervisor who respects you and treats you fairly.

8. A job where there is a real chance you could be laid off.

9. A job in which there is a real chance for you to develop new skills and advance in the organisation.

10. A job with little freedom and independence to do the work you think best.

11. A job with very satisfying teamwork.

---

1
Strongly prefer A

2
Slightly prefer A

3
Neutral

4
Slightly prefer B

5
Strongly prefer B

1
Strongly prefer A

2
Slightly prefer A

3
Neutral

4
Slightly prefer B

5
Strongly prefer B

1
Strongly prefer A

2
Slightly prefer A

3
Neutral

4
Slightly prefer B

5
Slightly prefer B

1
Strongly prefer A

2
Slightly prefer A

3
Neutral

4
Slightly prefer B

5
Slightly prefer B

1
Slightly prefer B

2
Neutral

3
Slightly prefer B

4
Slightly prefer B

5
Slightly prefer B

1
Strongly prefer A

2
Slightly prefer A

3
Neutral

4
Slightly prefer B

5
Slightly prefer B
12. A job which offers little or no challenge

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly prefer A</td>
<td>Slightly prefer A</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Slightly prefer B</td>
<td>Slightly prefer B</td>
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A job which requires you to be completely isolated from co-workers

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly prefer A</td>
<td>Slightly prefer A</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Slightly prefer B</td>
<td>Slightly prefer B</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Kepada Yang Berkenaan

DAYANG HAJAH NAEMAH BINTI HAJI BASIR
KURSUS P. H.D IN MANAGEMENT STUDIES
UNIVERSITY OF LEICESTER, SESI 1996/1997

Dengan hormat dimaklumkan bahawa pegawai tersebut di atas adalah seorang Pensyarah di Institut Teknologi Brunei. Pada masa ini dia sedang mengikuti kursus P.hD di University of Leicester United Kingdom melalui Skim Latihan Dalam Perkhidmatan Penuh.

Pegawai ini akan membuat kajian bagi kursus P.hD nya, melalui temuduga / soal selidik ke atas pegawai-pegawai Division II di Kementerian / Jabatan di Negara Brunei Darussalam bagi thesisnya bertajuk "A Study on Motivation Of Public Sector Employees in Brunei Darussalam".

Sehubungan dengan itu, dipohonkan supaya pihak Pengiran / Dato / Datin / Tuan / Puan akan dapat memberi kebenaran kepada pegawai ini untuk berjumpa / menemuduga pegawai-pegawai dan seterusnya mengedarkan borang-borang soal selidik kepada pegawai-pegawai berkenaan di Kementerian / Jabatan Pengiran / Dato / Datin / Tuan / Puan.

Di atas kerjasama yang diberikan sangat-sangat dihargai dan terlebih dahulu diucapkan terima kasih.

Wassalam.

[ DATIN PADUKA HAJAH NORSIAH HAJI MOHD DAUD ]
Pengarah Perancangan Perkembangan dan Penyelidikan
Kementerian Pendidikan
NEGARA BRUNEI DARUSSALAM.

Salinan :
Setiausaha Tetap Kementerian Pendidikan.
Appendix:B (Translation)

1st July, 1997

To Whom It May Concern:

Hajah Naemah binti Haji Basir
Course: PhD in Management Studies
University of Leicester 1996/1997

Please be informed that the above officer is a lecturer at the Institute of Technology Brunei. She is currently doing her PhD at the University of Leicester, United Kingdom, under the full in-service training scheme.

She will be conducting a study on Division II employees in all ministries and government departments in Brunei. The title of her thesis is "Motivation of Public Sector Employees".

We would be grateful if you could allow her to get access to your ministries and departments and distribute questionnaires to the employees concerned.

Your co-operation is greatly appreciated. Thank you.

(Datin Paduka Hajah Norsiah Haji Mohd Daud)
Director of Planning, Development, and Research
Ministry of Education
## Appendix:C

**Survey on Motivation and Job Satisfaction of Division II officers in the Brunei Civil Service**

### Survey Schedule (30th June – 15 September 1997)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date:</th>
<th>Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>30th June – 9th July</td>
<td>(a) Print 1,2000 sets of questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b) Get a covering letter from the Ministry of Education. This letter, accompanied with the covering letter from CLMS, Leicester University will allow the researcher to get access to the Ministries where the survey will be conducted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(c) Meeting HRD secretary in Ministry 1,2, and 3 to give briefing on the study (e.g., aims, procedure, etc). request for samples give survey schedule (include deadline for distributing and returning completed questionnaires to the researcher)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10th July – 23rd July</td>
<td>(a) Distribute questionnaires to Ministry. 1,2 and 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b) Meeting HRD secretary in Ministry 4,5 and 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24th July – 6th August</td>
<td>(a) Distribute questionnaires to Ministry. 4,5 and 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b) Meeting HRD secretary in Ministry 7,8 and 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(c) Collect completed questionnaires from Ministry. 1,2 and 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7th August – 20th August</td>
<td>(a) Distribute questionnaires to Ministry. 7,8 and 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b) Meeting HRD secretary in Ministry 10,11, and 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b) Meeting HRD secretary in Ministry 10,11, and 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(c) Collect completed questionnaires from Ministry. 4,5 and 6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
21st August – 28th August
(a) Distribute questionnaires to ministry 10, 11, 12 & 13
(c) Collect completed questionnaires from Ministry 7, 8 and 9

29th August – 5th September
Collect questionnaires from Ministry 10, 11, 12 and 13

6th September – 15th September
Flexible (contingency plan)

16th September
Return to England

Prepared on 12th June 1997
Appendix :D

Personnel Policies and Procedures in the Brunei Civil Service
(Abstracted from General Order)

Pay and Benefits

The Brunei Civil Service is very generous in rewarding its employees. The civil servants are entitled for the following pay and benefits.

(a) Salary and Increments

Public Servants receive monthly salary which is tax-free. In addition, annual increments are offered to officers in Division II and below. Other than annual increments, officers may have their salaries raised as a results of obtaining qualifications, or passing an examination. The increment procedure will be discussed in more details under the heading of Salary Structure Increment Policy.

(b) Leave entitlement

Annual Leave

The number of days entitled is determined by a number of factors such as seniority of position, length of service, and age. For instance, in the case of officer in Division I and II, the
entitlement ranges from 48 to 60 days per year. The annual leave could be accumulated for up to three consecutive years.

*Mandatory Leave*

Civil servants in Division III, II, and I are entitled for a fourteen-day mandatory leave, in addition to annual leave. However, should an officer fail to take the leave within a specified period, the would be forfeited.

*Maternity Leave*

On the top of the above leave entitlements, female civil servants, regardless their ranks in the organisation, are granted 56 days maternity paid-leave. The maternity leave is intended to enable the civil servants concerned to take the necessary pre and post-natal rest and recuperation.

*(c) Housing*

*Housing Loan*

Civil servants are entitled for interest-free offered by the government to assist the to build a house. This is one of the measures to encourage civil servants to own a house while they are in the service. The loan is repayable for thirty years or by the time of their retirement. Under this loan scheme, a civil servant can borrow up to four years of his or her basic salary.
Government Quarters

Temporary accommodation is given to those employees who do not yet own a house and those who leave outside the district in which they are working. Some of accommodation are owned by the government and others belong to private owners but are leased out to the government. A civil servant is charged a minimal rate for using this facility.

(d) Transportation

Car Loan

The Government also provides civil servants with car loan facility. Like housing loan, it is free of charge. It is repayable in four years, and the amount of the loan is between B$5000 to B$15,00 subject to the rank of the officer. The higher the rank, the higher the amount.

Motorboat Loan

Motorboat loan scheme is specially design to civil servants who live in Kampung Ayer (Water Village) to allow them to own a motorboat. The loan amount is B£2500. It is an interest-free loan and is repayable in four years.

Fixed Conveyance Allowance

Some civil servants are also eligible to apply for a fixed conveyance allowance if they use their own transport for official duties. The allowance ranges from B$115 to B$185 per month depending on the status of the officer.
Running Mileage Allowance

A civil servant who is eligible for a fixed conveyance allowance has a choice whether to get the fixed allowance or running mileage allowance at the rate of B$.45 per kilometre for the first 225 kilometres and B$0.14 thereafter.

Home to Office Allowance

A civil servant who is not eligible for the fixed conveyance allowance may claim the “home to office” allowance provided that he or she stay not less than 4.5 kilometres from the office. The rate ranges from B$29 to B$58 per month depending on the distance.

(e) Other allowances

Leave allowance

Once in thirty six months of residential service, monthly paid local officers, are entitled for leave allowance. As for male employees, this allowance is also given to the spouse and up to four children of ages eighteen years or below. The amount given to each person ranges from B$760 to B$2,500 per person depending on the status of the officer for the adults, and on the age, for the children.

Passage Allowance

The passage allowance is given once to all officers who have served for more than ten years on the permanent appointment and receiving a monthly salary of more than B$,1930. If the officer is male, he is also entitled to claim the allowance for his
spouse. The amount granted varies from B$6,320 to B$10,850 per person subject to the status of the officer.

Haj Allowance

The Haj Passage allowance is granted once to all local monthly paid Muslim civil servants and their spouse upon completion of at least fifteen years of continuous service. The allowance that is intended to help them perform Haj covers the cost of two return air-tickets to Mecca.

The Special Subsistence Allowance

This allowance is given to all civil servants in Division II and below. This allowance scheme is designed to help employees meet the rising cost of living.

The Education Allowance

In Brunei education is free in public schools but not in the private schools. Civil servants who choose to send their children to private schools either in Brunei or overseas can claim educational allowance for their children ages between five to twenty five. However, the allowance is only given up to four children per officer in a year.

(f) Annual Bonus

A bonus is paid annually to all civil servants who have obtained at least "Satisfactory" grade in the annual performance appraisal. The rate of the annual bonus varies from one officer
to another depending on the status. The higher the rank, the smaller the percentage. The rates are as follows:

- half-a-month salary for officers in Division I;
- one month salary for officers in Division II;
- one and a-half month salary for Division II, IV, and V.

Performance should also be taken into consideration. For instance, those civil servants who perform poorly and are graded "Unsatisfactory" in the performance appraisal are not entitled for the bonus in that particular year. Those who obtain "Need Improvement" grade in the appraisal are given 50% of the rate. Although the exact number of employees who do not get full increment is not available due to confidentiality, it is safe to say that the proportion is less than 1 percent of the total employees per year.

(g) Retirement Benefits

Pension and Gratuity

Upon their mandatory retirement at the age of 55, all civil servants appointed in the pensionable scheme will get a gratuity and a monthly pension. Pensionable staff are people whose appointment is on permanent basis who joined the Civil Service before 1st January 1993. Those who are not under pensionable scheme are only paid gratuity on their retirement.
Employees Trust Fund

People who joined the Civil Service after 1st January, 1993 are not appointed under pensionable scheme. However, to ensure that all civil servants have saving when they retire, they are asked by the law to contribute to the Employees Trust Fund.

The amount of monthly contributions that the government and the employee make to the fund is as follows:

- 5% from the employee’s basic monthly salary
- 5% additional from the employer (the government)
- saving for the employee will be the total of the contribution plus the dividend from the saving.

The Employees Trust Fund contributions are particularly useful to those civil servants when they retire at fifty five. Nevertheless, these contributions can be withdrawn earlier, that is, before they reach the retiring age, for specific reasons through the following schemes:

- Withdrawal Scheme Pre Pensionable fifty years of age;
- Withdrawal Scheme for Beneficiary;
- Withdrawal Scheme for Leaving The Country Permanently; and
- Withdrawal Scheme for Housing Ownership Assistance
(I) Training and Development of Staff

As a means to upgrade the qualities of services, and to develop physical and mental capabilities of civil servant, the government make budget provision for sending its staff for courses either locally or abroad.

Although it is the Head of Department who puts forward the recommendation through the Human Resource Committee, the final approval for sending a civil servant for courses is made by the centralised In-Service Training Committee, who is the authority on training. However, for overseas courses which takes for less than thirty days in duration, it is sufficient to get approval from the Minister for which the civil servant works. The following schemes are open to civil servants.

Full in Service Training

The award under this training scheme is very stringent whereby two main criteria have to be fulfilled before an officer is allowed to undergo an approved course.

(i) The course has to be directly related to the current duties and the responsibilities of the officer concerned; and

(ii) The Head of Department has to ensure that the area of the study is relevant to the training needs of the department

Under the full in Service Training scheme, an officer is entitled for his or her monthly salary, subsistence and accommodation allowances and course related expenses.
Study Leave

The scheme is awarded to Division I, II, and III officer who are either on permanent or "month-to-month" services with at least 3 years of service under the following conditions:

(i) The Head of Department will have to verify that the said course is essential for the long term manpower planning requirement of the civil service;

(ii) The officer’s absence will not affect the efficiency of the department concerned;

(iii) The scheme will only be awarded for the duration of not more than three academic years.

Under the scheme, an officer receives his full monthly salary and course related expense but subsistence and accommodation allowances are not provided.

No Pay Leave

This scheme is awarded to local officers who are either on the permanent or "month-to-month" with at least three years of service under the following conditions:

(i) The course attended has to be bachelor degree level; and

(ii) The efficiency of the department will not be effected by the officer’s absence
Under the above scheme, no monthly salary is given but the officer receives a subsistence allowance and course related expenses.

"Thirty or Less Days" Short Courses

There is not much difference in terms of benefits between this training scheme and the Full In Service Training scheme. Nevertheless, the course must not exceed a duration of thirty days and can be approved by the Minister and the respective Ministry.

Local training for management and supervisory personnel are conducted by the Institute of Public Service (IPA). The courses are conducted by local trainers at the centre and consultants from local higher educational institutions or abroad. In-house training for those in Division IV and V is undertaken by respective Ministries and Department.

(J) Promotion

Another effective form of recognition of officers for good performance and conduct is promotion. According to general orders (1962, and 1983), the main criteria for selection candidates for promotion are based on official or academic qualifications, experience, merit performance and clean work record. The promotion procedure will be discussed later under a different heading.

(k) Honours and Decorations

Each year, Honours and Decorations (medals) are awarded to civil servants who are nominated for them. These awards are made
out to civil servants as a recognition for their services, loyalty and contributions to the Government of His Majesty the Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan of Brunei Darussalam. Medals are granted to civil servants on the recommendations of their Heads of Departments. The recommendations are then passed on to a Centralised Committee elected by His Majesty the Sultan.

(1) Performance Measurement

The main mechanism that is used to measure performance of public servants is the Performance Appraisal programme which is conducted in September every year. In general the Performance Appraisal Programme is intended to enhance motivation and performance of civil servants. It is also used as a basis for employee selection for training and promotion, and allocation of annual bonus.

(a) Salary and Increments

Entry into each of five Division and initial salary is dependent upon the academic qualifications and experience. For instance, degree holders from recognised universities are appointed to B2 or B2 EB3 salary scale. However, the starting salary may vary from one person to another. For instance, a BA honours degree holder starts with a slightly higher salary than those who obtain an ordinary degree.

Annual Increment

An annual increment within a salary scale is awarded for satisfactory work conduct. The duty of the head of Department is to keep under review the work and the conduct of the
employees under his department and to ensure that the standard of work of officers in incremental scale justifies the award of increments.

Only officers in Division I, II, II, and IV get an annual increment while those in Division I and above do not get any increment.

*Increments based on qualifications*

Under the right circumstances, an officer who has obtained an honours degree gets two increment on top of his current salary; a master Degree holder is entitled for four increments, and a PhD will generate seven increments. Officers who obtained chartered or other professional qualifications are entitled for two increments. However, there are cases whereby newly obtained qualifications do not lead to increment. As for instance, no increment could be given to an officer whose salary has already reached the top of the scale, unless he gets promoted to a higher Division.

*Based on Passing an Examination*

In certain professions such Administrative Officer, a person is required to sit and pass an examination before getting an increment. This increment is different from annual increment as it also leads to promotion to a higher rank, as for example, from Administrative Officer to Administrative Officer - Special Grade.
Incremental Dates

The period in which a first increment is drawn is normally calculated as follows:
(a) if the date of appointment or promotion is the first working day of a month, from the first day of that month;

(b) In other cases from the first day of the next succeeding month;

(c) In the case of officers in Division II, the incremental date is the anniversary of the date of appointment or promotion.

Withholding of Increments

The Head of Department has the power to withhold an increment for a period of not more than three months in case of unsatisfactory work or conduct shown by an officer. An increment may be withheld without prior warning, on ground of inefficient work.

However, once the increment is withheld, warning should be given in writing to inform the officer concerned that the increment will be deferred or stopped if his work quality does not improve during the three month period. At the end of the period, the increment will either be restored as from which it was withheld or the problems reported to the Disciplinary Authority.

Stoppage and Deferment of Increments

The Disciplinary Authority will decide whether the increment shall be stopped or deferred and for how long, and will notify in writing the officer concerned of the nature of the decisions
and of the grounds on which it is made. An increment may be stopped or deferred for a period not less than three months.

The effect of stopping an increment is to deprive the officer of his increment during the period of stoppage. At the end of that period, the officer will receive salary at the rate which would have been stopped and his incremental date is unchanged. Stoppage of increment does not entail loss of seniority.

Deferral has more serious implication than stoppage increment. Its effect is to change the officer’s incremental date from the date on which the deferral begins until the date of its expiration. It consequently entails continuous loss of pay until the officer reaches the maximum of his scale. Deferral of increment will involve loss of seniority by a period equal to the period for which such increment is deferred.

Whenever an increment is withheld, the head of Department must notify the Director of the Financial Services at the Ministry of Finance, the Director of the Public Service Department, and the Auditor General.

(b) Promotion Policy and Procedure

Promotion of an officer is determined on the availability of a vacant or higher post and the potentiality of the officer concerned. The criteria and standard for promotion are drawn up by the respective services for instance, Administrative Services, Education Services etc. The Head of Department will submit its recommendation for promotion to the Public Service Commission. The promotion of the civil servants outside the jurisdiction of the Public Service Commission is decided by a
special committee which examine the promotion and transfer of officers in Division II and above.

Promotion of an officer is dependent on the availability of a vacant or higher post and the potentiality of the officer concerned.

The main criteria for promotion are official qualifications, experience and merit.

In judging merit due consideration is given to the general suitability of an officer for the post he is being considered. The performance Appraisal System is used as mechanism to assess performance and hence determine the suitability of a person for promotion. Therefore, to a certain extent, promotion is based on the record of an individual’s achievement in producing ‘end-results’ at which his or her job is aimed. This way, there is a great opportunity for the exceptionally able employee to move rapidly up the systems. However when two candidates are adjudged of equal merit, preference will be given to the senior.

(c) The criteria used for the award of Honours and Decorations

Depending on the types of award, certain criteria need to be fulfilled before a person is bestowed an honour or decoration. The criteria are as follows:

(i) Long Service Medals – recommendations should be accompanied by a record of service and a copy of performance appraisal report. Only those who serve twenty years or more are eligible for this type of award.
(ii) Outstanding Service Medals - Loyalty to His Majesty The Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan of Brunei Darussalam, has served for 5 years and has a satisfactory conduct and performance.

(iii) Bintang Kebesaran and Pingat Kehormatan - Loyal to His Majesty the Sultan and Yang Di-Pertuan of Brunei Darussalam; meritorious service to His Majesty, country, and religion; a clean record of service, a clean record in terms of National security; possess good attributes and qualities, and have a satisfactory performance.

**Discipline and Conduct**

Every civil servant is governed by rules and procedures laid down in the General Orders, and the Prime Minister’s Circulars. Any misconduct should be reported to the disciplinary committee by the Head of Department.

The regulations which rule the civil servants are quite comprehensive. However, for the purpose of this study, it is sufficient to highlight the following themes:

(a) **Attendance**

Unless otherwise specially prescribed, the office hours are 7 1/2 hours a day from to Thursday, and on Saturday making a working week 3 7 1/2 hours. Normal working hours is from 7.45 am to 12.15 p.m. and from 1.30 p.m. to 4.30 p.m. However, it is within the discretion of a Head of Department or Minister to require the attendance of his staff for such hours as he or she considers necessary.
Regular and punctual attendance is required of every civil servant including the Head of Departments. The Head of Department who leaves his office during office hours should invariably leave a word where he has gone. An officer cannot leave the office without the permission of the Head of department of next senior officer.

A civil servant who is absent from duty without permission, except in case of illness or unavoidable circumstances, will render himself liable to disciplinary action.

(b) Leaving the Country

A civil servant is required to obtain permission before leaving the country either for official or unofficial visit. For the Head of Department, permission need to be obtained form the Minister. Ordinary officers need to get approval from the Head of Department.

Any civil servant who contravenes this Regulation is liable to summary dismissal without further disciplinary proceedings.

(c) Code of Conduct

A civil servant is prohibited from the manner that shall bring his private interests into conflict with public duties. This includes using his public position for private advantage.
(d) **Outside Employment**

A civil servant is not allowed to take up employment outside his job or undertake any work for a company or private sector for reward.

(e) **Presents**

Officers and their families are prohibited from receiving presents (other than gifts of personal friends or relatives) whether in the form of money, goods, free passages or other financial benefits, and from giving such presents.

(f) **Inefficiency**

When a subordinate is inefficient in his work, his supervisor should report it to the next superior officially. Failing to do so would mean that he fails to do his duty.

(g) **Serious Pecuniary Embarrassment**

Serious pecuniary embarrassment is regarded as necessarily impairing the efficiency of an officer and rendering him liable to disciplinary action. Until freed from serious pecuniary embarrassment, an officer is regarded as disqualified for promotion.

An officer is judged to be seriously embarrassed if he is experiencing bankruptcy, or if at any given time the total of his unsecured debts and liabilities exceeds the sum of three times of his monthly emoluments.
WEDNESDAY, MARCH 10, 1999

Time to pull up our socks

Instead of people complaining to the Management Services Department, I think they should patrol the government departments to see if the staff are working or they are in the canteen or along Jalan Muara or Jalan Berakas road side restaurants.

The worst example is the legal department's Registration of Business Names and Companies section. In the afternoon they are open only from 2 to 3, just one hour, then the door is locked. One can't even collect forms, send letters or get any sort of information.

Interestingly enough, the one hour is the only time for receiving payment. Just before 3 p.m., the staff walk away from the counter. Further, they are never on time to open the counter at 2 p.m., they open by 2.15-2.20 p.m.

There are many other departments with similar problems. The government gazetted working hours are known to every government staff.

I wonder if the MSD is working on time? They should do spot checks and try to abolish the canteens in the government departments.

From my observation, a government staff normally comes in at 8.30 a.m., then by 9.45 a.m. they are in the canteen or the road side restaurants, and by 10.30 a.m. they are back in their seats. By 11.15 a.m. they have to leave the office to fetch their children from school.

I think it is time that we pull up our socks and work dedicatedly. Time and again, it has been said by the Imam of the Masjid that "your wages are not halal if you do not earn it the proper way".

MSD, do something. Fire people on the spot if they are not in their
WEDNESDAY, MARCH 10, 1999

Things have not changed

The Bulletin has been inundated by letters from the public on the services rendered by government departments and ministries for months on end and yet there appears to be little impact made, let alone a change in attitude of the government servants.

With the officers and staff turning up at their offices on average at about 8.15 a.m. only to go out again or eat and drink in a group in the office for an hour or so for the morning coffee break at 9.30 a.m., this would certainly be non-productive.

And by 11.30 a.m. some departments and ministries will be as good as closed because the staff have gone out to fetch their children from schools, with some of them waiting around the schools for an average of 30 minutes before the bell rings.

In the afternoon it can be hopeless to turn up at a department at about 4 p.m. because one would, for sure, be met by skeletal staff or not too friendly faces. Why are these things being allowed to happen? These styles can certainly be changed. It is not enough for us to be "Siap Siaga" in words.

Visitors from overseas have even made remarks about our public services. We keep on seeing various programmes and action plans being taken by certain departments in the TV mini series of TPOR but things have not changed.

- "Juha Knight"
  juhaknight@hotmail.com
Work ethics of govt employees

I agree with the writer of "Seen it all before" regarding the work ethics of government employees. Until today I have not seen any improvement despite numerous complaints, where seniors don't come to terms in their own departments.

As we know "United we're one, divided we fall"! I'm fed up of reading and hearing complaints and I think it is time to change.

Most of the juniors have very bad work ethics and they are wasting the government's time and money. Most of them are lazy and all they do is complain and criticise. Where is the work valuation for these lazy people?

Get rid of them and replace them with hardworking employees. Mind you, there are hardworking job seekers who can serve the public better. Mana alaf baru?

- Anti-Lazy-People
The 'genuine rakyat of Brunei'

What do you mean by "Genuine Rakyat of Brunei"? Do you mean those who start work at 8.00 a.m. and then hang around the coffee-shop at 9.00 a.m. and after that 11 a.m. in school compounds?

Or those who seek employment in the private sector and report the first day of work and disappear the next?

For your info, there are about only 180,000 citizens, that is yellow identity card holders in Brunei.

We have entered a new millennium and globally people are on the move to acquire knowledge and wealth.

It is sad that you are still sucking your milk bottle at home. Please grow up and join the rest of Bruneians to develop our beautiful nation.

- Hj M.S.Y., BSB
Do our best for the country

I'm writing in reply to two issues - the first is about the complaints about government officers leaving work early and returning late especially after lunch.

I agree that it is unfair for others to be stuck doing another person's work, when the latter is obliged to stay until 12.15 and return at 1.30 p.m. But let's face reality:

1. An average government officer can't afford a driver to send and pick up kids from school. Instead they have to leave work early to pick up the kids and send them off for afternoon school, which results in getting to work late.

2. Fixing up lunch for the husband and kids isn't exactly the easiest job in the world, especially when the maid can't cook. (Throw in the in-laws and it's definitely NOT easy).

3. When it comes to paying bills, most counters close at about 11 a.m., like JTB, JKR and the Labour Department (10.30 a.m. when they feel like it). So leaving work early usually gives people time to pay the bills. Maybe it's time counters like the ones mentioned above stay OPEN during lunchtime. Give the workers lunch shifts, it makes everyone's life easier.

The second issue is, I have to congratulate IPA for making efforts to improve government services and officers' motivation and performance. But this seems to be limited to junior officers. What about senior officers, for whom leadership courses and training may be useful? After all, it is unfair to expect the best from younger officers when senior officers can make mistakes too.

We think that Brunei has been through some pretty tough times, what with the financial crisis and all, but we're among the lucky ones to survive. This "good shake-up" is the reason why we should all try to do our best for our country and NOT to "line our own stomachs".

- Tombstone
Changing the mindset

The issue of government employees spending their working hours on personal matters has been published in the Opinion column of the BB. As a government employee, I see that leaving office to send children to school, for medical appointments, going to the banks, having long coffee breaks are part of the work culture in the civil service.

And nobody can blame these employees. This has been a well-accepted practice by the old and new employees. The new employees inherit from the old, of course.

Yes, there are detailed regulations and procedures in the General Order and the various government circulars on this matter. But they are not properly enforced, as is always the case with many regulations in Brunei.

In the private sector, when an employee disobeys a regulation, action will be taken immediately. What will happen if you are in the government service? In most cases everybody understands, your welfare is more important than your job. If action were to be taken, it may take months, if not years, to see any result.

Many who have left the private sector to join the civil service are not only attracted by better financial rewards and security, but time flexibility also figures high in one’s mind. Why not?

If changes are going to be seen, firm directives and serious campaigns from JPM is a necessary and important first step to set the right mindset and lay down enforcement.

Reviews of the current procedures are another important step. Those in the management must have come across the Hot Stove Principle.

TPOR, productivity and efficiency will not be fully achieved if we still maintain a welfare organisation concept.

- mbm2000

BACK
WEEKEND, JANUARY 8 / 9, 2000

Feeling guilty, but it can't be helped

I am one of those who have to leave work to pick up children at school. I have thought and tried every way to tackle this problem but unfortunately none worked.

The only other avenue I have not tried is leaving the children at home instead of in school. But again you must think of the implication of leaving a generation of uneducated people. Are they not going to be a burden to the country, become a liability and drain the country's resources generated from the more productive people?

Man From Brunei (BB 5 Jan, 2000) seems to have a problem. Perhaps he would like to share it with us.

I feel very guilty about having to leave my office duty to attend to a personal matter. But again, that is also my duty as a parent. I do believe that like myself, others also think deeply before leaving work to attend to private matters.

I have to leave office sometimes as early as 11 a.m. in order to avoid traffic congestion as a result of people leaving at the same time, as well as to avoid dealing with clients and leaving in the middle which is rather rude. We only do it because it can't be helped.

- Sinna, BSB
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