CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter intends to review numerous examples of the literature related to this research in order to enhance understanding of this research study. Reviews of this chapter include theories, knowledge and previous research works which can useful in developing a cogent research analysis.

Organization

It is widely acknowledged that one of the oldest forms of organization is the family, although organizations can also be private companies or public corporations. Thus, it is necessary to understand the term, "organization" and examine its design, its function, and its effect on the individuals who are its main component.

Definition of Organization

The term, "organization" has been viewed in different ways by different people. For some, it may be a physical structure, while for others it is a group of people trying to achieve a particular goal. Scholars from various disciplines have attempted to define the term, "organization" as follows:

Barnard (1938) defines a formal organization as a system of consciously coordinated activities or forces of two or more people. According

to Barnard, the three essential elements of an organization are common purpose, willingness to serve, and communication.

Allen (1958) defines a formal organization as the process of identifying and delegating responsibility and authority, and establishing relationships for the purpose of enabling people to work most effectively in accomplishing objectives.

Robbins (1990, p. 122) defines an organization as a consciously coordinated social entity, with a relatively identifiable boundary, that functions on a relatively continuous basis to achieve a common goal or set of goals. The words "consciously coordinated" imply administration or management. "Social Entity" means that the unit is composed of people or groups of people who interact with each other.

In summary, an organization can be defined as social systems of cooperation that are designed to enhance individual efforts aimed at goal accomplishment (Hodge & Anthony, 1979, p. 75). Based on these and other definitions, several theories have been formulated which explain the structure and function of organizations.

Most of the definitions of organizations appear to stress the following factors:

1. Organizations are symbolized by a group effort.

2. Group effort is directed toward a goal.

3. Group effort is achieved by coordination

4. Authority and responsibility relationships help to achieve coordination.

Organizational structure is the formal pattern of interactions and coordination designed by management to link the tasks of individuals and groups in achieving organizational goals (Bartol & Martin, 1991, p. 82). The three main components of organization structure are complexity, formalization, and centralization (Robbins, 1990, p. 122).

The Bureaucratic Organization

The roots of the term "bureaucracy" shed light on the nature of this type of structure. "Bureau" refers to the rule book, while "critic" means the source of power. "bureaucratic" therefore means that following the rule book is the operating way of doing things (Dubrin & Ireland, 1993, p. 87)

A definition which similarly overemphasizes purposiveness or efficiency is the one provided by Jackson (1982, p. 165):

"A bureaucracy is a particular form of organization composed of bureaus or agencies, such that the overall system consists of conspicuously coordinated activities which have been explicitly created to achieve specific ends."

Also, bureaucracy is the combined organizational structure, procedures, protocols, and set of regulations in place to manage activity, usually in large organizations. As opposed to adhocracy, it is often represented by standardized procedure (rule-following) that guides the execution of most or all processes within the body; formal division of powers; hierarchy; and relationships, intended to anticipate needs and improve efficiency. Modern bureaucracies arose as the government of states grew larger during the modern

period, and especially following the Industrial Revolution (Osborne &
Gaebler, 1993, p. 89). As they point out:

"It is hard to imagine today, but a hundred years ago bureaucracy
meant something positive. It connoted a rational, efficient method of
organization-something to take the place of the arbitrary exercise of power by
authoritarian regimes. Bureaucracy brought the same logic to government
work that the assembly line brought to the factory. With the hierarchical
authority and functional a specialization, they made possible the efficient
undertaking of large complex tasks."

1. The Major Characteristics of the Ideal Bureaucracy

The major characteristics of the ideal bureaucracy were formulated
and are as follows:

1.1 Rules and procedures control organizational activities. Written
rules and procedures specify the behaviors desired from members, facilitate
coordination, and ensure uniformity.

1.2 There is high degree of differentiation among organizational
functions. Jobs are broken down into routine, well-defined tasks so that
members know what is expected of them and can become extremely
competent at their particular subset of tasks.

1.3 The organization of offices is determined by hierarchy. Multiple
levels of positions, with carefully determined reporting relationships among
levels, providing supervision of lower offices by higher ones, giving a means
of handling exceptions, and providing the ability to establish accountability of
actions.

1.4 There is a heavy emphasis on rules and norms to regulate behavior.

1.5 Interpersonal relationships are characterized by impersonality. Favors are not granted to individuals based on the likes or dislikes of administrators.

1.6 Promotion and selection are based on merit system or on the qualifications and performance of members.

1.7 All administrative actions are recorded in writing.

The ideal organization described above is called a machine bureaucracy because it standardizes work processes. It is best suited to large organizations whose work is largely performed by line, staff and support officials. Bureaucratic forms of organizations have persisted because, if used properly, they make possible large-scale accomplishments that cannot be achieved by small groups of people working independently. The police organization is a prime example of bureaucracy on a large scale. The contribution of bureaucracy has been appropriately expressed by Jacques (1990):

... Thirty-five years of research have convinced me the managerial hierarchy (or bureaucracy) is the most efficient, the hardiest, and, in fact, the most natural structure ever devised for large corporations. Properly structured, hierarchy can release energy and creativity, rationalize productivity, and actually improve morale ...

Hierarchical organizations exist, according to Jacques, because tasks occur in lower and higher degrees of complexity. In general, less complex tasks are performed at lower levels. A hierarchy is also important because

people at the top of the organization work with longer time perspectives than people at the bottom. The hierarchical form of organization called bureaucracy emerged from necessity. It is the only form of organization the enables a firm to employ large numbers of people and still hold them clearly accountable for their results (Jacques, 1990, p. 129). Figure 5 illustrates the basic concept of the bureaucratic form of organization.
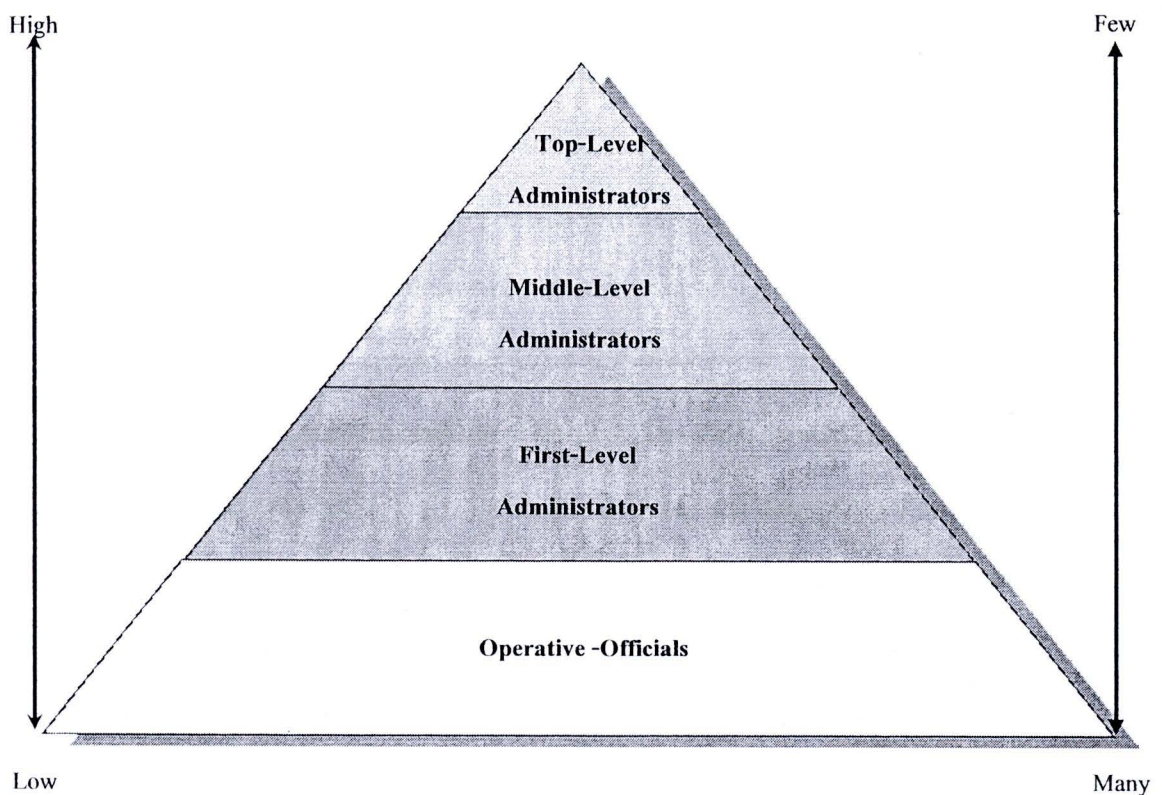

Figure 5 The bureaucratic form of organization.

Note. From *Management and Organization* (2nd ed., p. 88), by A. J. Dubrin and R. D. Ireland, 1993, Cincinnati, OH: South-Western.

2. Bureaucrats

The typical "count" of bureaucrats in any government is usually no more than 2% of the workforce, although in some countries like Norway, Denmark, and Sweden, the count can run higher simply because a third of the population works for the government (as opposed to the standard U.S. practice of keeping government employment around 15%). The reason for being conservative when counting the membership of a bureaucracy is that scholars are normally only interested in the "middle-top" levels of management. These levels form the relatively permanent "action group" of the "higher civil service". Those at the very top have short tenures of office, and those far down the middle never have a chance to influence policy. Those at the top are either temporary political appointees who hide behind executive privilege or semi-temporary political appointees who practice their own "spin control" and hence serve as "frontbench" players. Those at the bottom, ordinary levels ought to possess competence, experience, and expertise to a high degree, and so must be "multifunctional," meaning that they don't just do their job well, but articulate and aggregate interests (as the voice for public interest groups). It is customary in public administration to say that three (3) levels describe the ranks from which a bureaucracy is drawn, as follows (Heady, 2001):

2.1 Top civil service–a small group of "frontbench" executives, ministers, secretaries, and deputies

2.2 Higher civil service–a large "elite" and educated group of permanent, high-ranking employees

2.3 Ordinary civil service–a large body of "knowledgeable" permanent, public employees.

3. The Thai Bureaucracy

In taking a closer look at past experiences with the Thai government, Voradej Chandarasorn (1995) stated that its failure to generate sustained development and prosperity for the country had caused Thai people to consider the characteristics of the government they deserved to have. Research conducted by renowned public administration scholars has indicated that the Thai bureaucratic system has generated many problematic characteristics in terms of public administration. They are as follows:

3.1 Public monopolies

3.2 Centralization

3.3 Red tape and conflicts of interest

3.4 Organizational over-expansion

3.5 Rigid rules and regulations

3.6 Lack of people's participation

3.7 Closed-evaluation system

3.8 Corruption

3.9 Ineffective personnel administrative systems.

However, the results of a Thailand Governance Survey (Oversea Development Institute Survey, 2007) point to an improvement over time in the quality of governance. The overall rating has increased from an average of 2.98 five years ago to a current rating of 3.34. An increase in ratings has been noted for all six dimensions as shown in Table 3.

Table 3

The Quality of Governance

Dimension	Institute	5 years ago	2007	Change
Socializing	Civil Society	3.10	3.70	0.60
Aggregating	Political Society	2.70	3.14	0.44
Executive	Government	3.08	3.34	0.26
Managerial	Bureaucracy	3.00	3.20	0.20
Regulatory	Economic Society	2.90	3.26	0.36
Adjudicatory	Judicial System	3.12	3.40	0.28
	Total	2.98	3.34	0.36

Note. Form *Thailand Governance Survey,* by Oversea Development Institute

Survey, 2007, retrieved December 20, 2007, from http://www.odi.org.uk/

work/projects/00-07-world-governance.../thailand.pdf

Consideration of Thai social problems indicates the influence of a

vertically organized system on the Thai bureaucracy, as well as on political

party and educational systems, which does not strengthen Thai civil society

(Bongkoch, 2009). Nowadays, the new management plan is considered

a landmark in terms of the degree of public participation involved in its

drafting as well as its enlightened concept of civil society. Thus, the concept

of public participation can be applied to a bureaucratic organization as a

bottom-up approach.

4. Another problem with bureaucracies

Another problem with bureaucracies is that they sometimes expand in size even if their workload does not increase. One reason is that a blind commitment to following rules and a proliferation of rules create the need for more workers to develop and enforce these rules. Thus, bureaucracies sometimes allocate too many resources to their own self-preservation and maintenance (Hummel as cited in Dubrin & Ireland, 1993, p. 88).

Restructuring, Reengineering, Rethinking, and Reinventing Government

In terms of size, units can be restructured, as represented by the organizational chart. More precisely, restructuring is a reduction in any one, or a mix of, the following: (1) overall organizational size, as defined by the number of employees; (2) number of organizational units; (3) size of organizational units; and (4) number of hierarchical levels (Keidel, 1994). According to Bowman and Singh (1993), organizational restructuring "is intended to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of management teams through significant changes in organization structure, often accompanied by downsizing."

In terms of restructuring an organization, this is the most elementary category of understanding organizational design. Design equals structure and creates the organizational chart (administrative groupings and reporting relations). Redesign amounts to little more than altering boxes and lines. Such a perspective is what Mintzberg (1989) may have had in mind when he

referred to "a management whose knowledge consists of black symbols on white paper".

Restructuring typically means reconfiguring organizational units, often large ones. For example, whole divisions or business units may be combined or disaggregated. Restructuring, which almost always implies job loss, is often called rightsizing or downsizing and even layoffs. Another form of restructuring is 'delayering', which means reducing the number of layers, or hierarchical levels, in the organization-that is, the distance between the top manager (chief executive officer/president) and those at the bottom, or operating level (Keidel, 1994).

Restructuring approaches, especially when they are layoff-driven, are numerical exercises grounded in economics. Customers may or may not be better served (Keidel, 1994). In certain instances (especially when delivering takes place), customer service may improve as a result of a new, less cumbersome and hierarchical process. At other times however, those who remain in the recharged organization wind up on overload, and customer service is likely to deteriorate. For example, many small companies have complained of inferior service from major accounting firms after the latter had merged and subsequently cut staff (Berton, 1994).

The primary technique used in restructuring is simple arithmetic: The computation of ratios. Several ratios may come into play, such as managerial span of control (the number of people reporting to a given individual). Benchmarking exercises that involve finding, adapting and implementing best practices have sometimes led to dramatic restructuring programs. Firms

discover that their productivity is out of line with that of competitors (Cohen & Eimicke, 1996). The upside of restructuring is cost reduction, which may translate into an economically viable future. Restructuring's downside, however, tends to be severe. There is no guarantee that such measures will work (Keidel, 1994).

Keidel (1994) puts organizational design approaches into three categories: (1) restructuring (organizational unit solutions); (2) reengineering (organizational process solutions); or (3) rethinking (organizational cognition) as presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Three Approaches to Organizational Design

	Restructuring (Org. Units)	Reengineering (Org. Units)	Rethinking (Org. Cognition)
Metaphors	Downsizing	Process management	Framing
	Rightsizing	Process innovation	Patterning
	Delayering	Process redesign	Learning
Target	Organizational units & hierarchy levels	Business functions & work systems	Individual, group, & organizational mindsets
Nature	Numerical	Technical	Conceptual
Rationale	Survival or repositioning	Tactical competitiveness	Strategic advantage

Table 4 (continued)

	Restructuring (Org. Units)	Reengineering (Org. Units)	Rethinking (Org. Cognition)
Beneficiaries	Shareholders	Shareholders & customers	Shareholders, customers & employees
Performance Criteria	Efficiency	Efficiency & customer satisfaction	Efficiency, customer satisfaction & employee development
Organizational Variables Addressed	Control	Control & autonomy	Control, autonomy & cooperation
method	Computing ratios	Flow-charting work processes	Modeling organization as a balance of multiples perspectives
Upside	Reduce costs	Simpler, faster work processes	Richer planning decision-making, & innovation capabilities
Downside	Organization	Organizational anxiety	Organizational frustration

Rethinking is a broader category than reengineering. Conceptually, it includes reengineering, just as the latter includes restructuring. To recap, restructuring is based on one variable: Shareholders (= efficiency = control); reengineering is based on two variables: Shareholders + customers (= customer satisfaction = autonomy). Rethinking adds a third variable:

Employees (= employee development = cooperation) (Keidel, 1994).

However, the hierarchical, functional bureaucracies that Hammer and Champy (1993) criticize require little in the way of spontaneous cooperation because behavioral patterns are prescribed at the top. But although Hammer and Champy advocate "cross-divisional teams", their model of decision-making remains authoritarian, and largely ignores the organizational context in which reengineering projects take place (Keidel, 1994).

An obvious advantage of restructuring is its clear economic impact. Such action produces explicit and immediate results-financial savings that go right to the bottom line. The presumed payoff from reengineering is also easy to comprehend, although this process does not produce the direct hit that restructuring does. Effects are explicit, but deferred. A major problem with rethinking is the complex causal chain involved; any positive impact is implicit and deferred. Even though the three design options can be considered "nested" (with restructuring a subset of reengineering, and the latter a subset of rethinking), each has its time and place (Keidel, 1994). Byrne (1994) acknowledges that "downsizing (restructuring) is . . . not a strategy, and it is not a panacea for poor management . . . But the idea that downsizing can't sometimes be an effective way for bloated, uncompetitive companies to cut costs is pure nonsense".

Similarly, reengineering may be an indispensable condition for historically bureaucratic, inflexible firms to recapture competitiveness, irrespective of the fallout for certain employees.

In contrast, rethinking requires slack time for learning about and "playing with" individual and organizational cognitive patterns. Public corporations require enough financial cushion (and discipline) so that the long term is not sacrificed for the short term. The best candidates for rethinking, whether private or public are firms that are financially and culturally able to defer their return on investment (Axelrod as cited in Keidel, 1994).

In focusing on public corporations, Osborne and Gaebler (1993, pp. 89-92) present the concepts of a new form of governance-reinventing government. It is composed of ten main practices as follows:

1. Catalytic government: Steering rather than rowing

2. Community-owned government: Empowering rather than serving

3. Competitive government: Injecting competition into service delivery

4. Mission-driven government: Transforming rule-driven organizations

5. Results-oriented government: Funding outcomes, not inputs

6. Customer-driven government: Meeting the needs of the customer, not the bureaucracy

7. Enterprising government: Earning rather than spending

8. Anticipatory government: Prevention rather than cure

9. Decentralized government: From hierarchy to participation and teamwork

10. Market-oriented government: Leveraging change through the market.

The main substance of reinventing government called, "entrepreneurial governments" is the promotion of competition between service providers. They empower citizens by pushing control out of the bureaucracy and into the community. They measure the performance of their agencies, focusing not on inputs but on outcomes. They are driven by their goals-their missions-not by their rules and regulations. They redefine their clients as customers and offer them choices, between training programs, between schools, between training programs and between housing options. They prevent problems before they emerge, rather than simply offering services afterward. They put their energies into earning money, not simply spending it. They decentralize authority, embracing participatory management. They prefer market mechanisms to bureaucratic mechanisms. They focus not only on providing public services, but also on catalyzing all sectors (public, private, and voluntary) into action to solve their community's problems (Osborne & Gaebler, 1993, p. 93).

For example, one of these ten principles is community-owned government: Empowering rather than serving. An example is to make public safety a community responsibility rather than simply the responsibility of the professionals (the police officers). It transforms the police officer from an investigator and enforcer into a catalyst in the process of community self-help. Sometimes this means police officers help neighborhood members clear out vacant lots and rusting cars. Sometimes it means they work with community leaders to keep neighborhood children in school. In short, the police officers

can be most effective if they help communities help themselves (Osborne & Gaebler, 1993, pp. 93-94).

This kind of community concept is really just common sense. We all know that people act more responsibly when they control their own environments than when they are under the control of others. We know that, generally, owners take better care of homes than renters. It stands to reason that when communities are empowered to solve their own problems, they function better than communities that depend on services provided by outsiders. These concepts are pulling ownership out of the bureaucracy, into the community, or the concept of community policing for the police officers (Osborne & Gaebler, 1993, p. 95).

Organizational Change

Change is simply the alteration of the status quo. In a technical sense, it occurs continually; no moment is just exactly like the one that precedes it (Hodge & Anthony, 1979). Changing an organization is the process of modifying an existing organization. The purpose of organizational modifications is to increase organizational effectiveness–that is, the extent to which an organization accomplishes its objectives. These modifications can involve virtually any organizational segment and typically include changing the lines of organizational authority, the levels of responsibility held by various organization members, and the established lines of organizational communication (Certo, 1994).

Most managers agree that if an organization is to be successful, it must change continually in response to significant developments, such as customer needs, technological breakthroughs, and government regulations. The study of organizational change is extremely important because all managers at all organizational levels are faced throughout their careers with the task of changing their organization. Managers who determine appropriate changes in organizations can implement such changes and enable organizations to be more flexible and innovative (Kanter, 1989). Because change is such a fundamental and necessary part of organizational existence, managers who can successfully implement change are very important to organizations of all kinds.

The Conditions for Organizational Change

The circumstances that call for organizational change, in the sense of changes in the internal arrangements of a social institution, (Sadler, 1995) are as follows:

1. A change of purpose. In this set of circumstances the need arises for the business or public sector body to rethink its purpose and to set a new direction. This process will in turn lead to the need for a fresh approach to strategy and, in consequence, changes in organization so as to align it with the new purpose and new strategy. A common example of this in recent years is the process of privatization. As an organization moves from the public to the private sector, its reason undergoes radical change (Sadler, 1995). On the one hand, however broadly the purpose may now be defined, the need to satisfy

the demands of the people inevitably calls for new strategic thinking. On the other hand, the purpose is no longer so strictly defined by Constitutional Law; many previous restrictions on the scope of the organization's activities are removed and it is possible to consider a much wider range of strategies such as acquisitions or diversification.

2. A change in strategy. In these circumstances the organization's purpose remains but top management takes the view that it is necessary to rethink the strategy. The radical shift of strategy inevitably results in radical changes to the structure, systems, and culture of the organization.

3. The search for more effective organization. The third set of circumstances exists in cases where top management sees no reason to redefine purpose, or to rethink the strategy, but does believe that the existing organization is ineffective in implementing and delivering the strategy.

Organizational Behavior

Organizations are undergoing unprecedented and revolutionary change. From the speed of decision making, to technological and global competitive pressures, to mergers and acquisitions, to the need to rethink business processes and alliances, organizations are constantly faced with shifting demands (Suthinan Pomsuwan, 2007).

The field of organizational behavior has grown rapidly in this time period and is today a complex tapestry of historical trends, contemporary trends, and new emerging trends. This change reflects the increasing contribution from sociology, organization theory, and management fields to

the study of organizational behavior. This is comprised of (1) perspective on organization (2) perspective of persons (3) human resource management (4) change process and (5) management education (David, 1991). Table 5 shows the trends in organizational behavior; 1940-1990.

The purpose of organizational behavior study is to gain a greater understanding of those factors that influence individual and group dynamics in an organizational setting so that individuals and the groups and organizations to which they belong may become more efficient and effective. The field also includes the analysis of organizational factors that may have an influence upon individual and group behavior. Much of organizational behavior research is ultimately aimed at providing human resource management professionals with the information and tools they need to select, train, and retain employees in a fashion that yields maximum benefit for the individual employee as well as for the organization.

Organizational behavior is a relatively new, interdisciplinary field of study. Although it draws most heavily from the psychological and sociological sciences, it also looks to other scientific fields of study for insights. One of the main reasons for this interdisciplinary approach is because the field of organizational behavior involves multiple levels of analysis, which are necessary to understand behavior within organizations because people do not act in isolation. That is, workers influence their environment and are also influenced by their environment.

Table 5

Thematic Trends in Organizational Behavior; 1940-1990

	Historical Trends		Contemporary Trends		Emerging Trends	
1) Definition of the field	Behavioral science discipline orientation	To professional orientation	Industrial business focus	To management focus	Micro psychological emphasis	To balance of macro and micro views systems focus environmental determinism
2) Perspective on organization	Job satisfaction human fulfillment	To Organization productivity	Internal Organizational functioning	To organization environment adaption	Organizations as dominant stable structures	To organization as symbolic entities networked with industries, instituting carrier in a global economy
3) Perspective on Person	Tender (communication, intimacy growth)	To Tough (power and influence)	Socio-emotional factors	To cognitive problem-solving factors	Deficiency orientation (adjustment)	To appreciation orientation (development)
4) Human resource management	Human relations	To Human resources	Management of people	To management of work	Organization development	To career development

Table 5 (continued)

	Historical Trends		Contemporary Trends		Emerging Trends	
5) Change process	Expert, content consultation	To process consultation	Change created by change agents simple, global technologies	To management of change by the system to highly differentiated problem-specific technologies	Change via change intervention action research	To change via vision-based strategic transformation
6) Management education	Academic	To Experimental	Creating awareness	To skill building	Performance orientation	To learning to learn orientation

Note. Form "Firms, Industries, and Politics," by J. David, 1991, *Research in Political Sociology, 5*(1), pp. 142-143.

One of the most convincing recent disclosures of the theory/practice gap is provided by Mintzberg (1973, p. 91). The basic thesis of the Mintzberg is that the traditional theoretical view of the manager as a reflective planner, organizer, controller, and leader is more folklore than fact. Through systematic observation he found that the average manager rarely engages in systematic planning, favors and relies on informal verbal communication, and uses judgment and intuition in making decisions more often than sophisticated management science technique. He concluded that management academics must do a much better job of identifying critically important management behaviors and providing specific skills training to achieve better behavior.

1. Behavior as the Unit of Analysis

One of the most basic principles of Organizational Behavior Modification (O.B. Mod.) is that only observable and measurable behaviors and environmental events are appropriate units of analysis. Accordingly, every component of analysis is operationally defined and an empirical, scientific perspective taken. This perspective ensures that the approach is grounded in empirical reality and actual behavior. In contrast, the majority of the other theoretical approaches use unobservable, internal cognitive states such as feelings, attitudes, and beliefs which are measured through data gathered indirectly via questionnaires (Martinko & Cater, 1978). Examples of vague approaches not grounded in behavior include classical management theory, job enrichment, sensitivity training, and most of the formulations of leadership theory. These approaches are largely based upon standardized questionnaires which have been shown to lack construct validity (e.g.,

Schriesheim & Kerr, 1977). Elsewhere, scholars have argued for the need to get back to behavior as the unit analysis and the need for alternatives to questionnaires as methods of measurement (Luthans, 1979). O.B. Mod. is a point of departure in developing a science of human resource management that is grounded in behavior rather than vague inner states and accompanying surveys which have questionable validity (Duncan, 1982).

2. Bottom-Line Perspective

The characteristic of the Organizational Behavior Modification approach is the emphasis on performance improvement as the dependent variable in organizational research. That is, according to the O.B. Mod. perspective, there must be an empirical relationship between the behavior and bottom-line indices of organizational effectiveness. Thus, irritating behaviors such as employee complaints, employee dress, and unusual work habits are not considered as legitimate targets for change unless as empirical relationship can be demonstrated between these behaviors and performance. Because bottom-line performance is an explicit dimension of O.B. Mod. approach, there is relatively little or no problem in the applicability of the research results. On the other hand, research involving many other aspects of management theory often use attitude data as dependent measures which has the has the problem of applicability to "bottom-line" organizational results (Duncan, 1982).

3. Two Aspects of Human Behavior

Organizational behavior is a field of study that seeks to understand, explain, and improve human behavior in organizations. Most organizations

focus their efforts on improving two aspects of human behavior: (1) job performance—the degree to which individuals perform the behaviors needed for the organization to achieve its goals; and (2) organizational commitment—the degree to which employees remain loyal to the organization rather than withdrawing from their work.

People in Organizations

The previous sections have examined organizational change and organization behavior. Ultimately, however, organizations are made up of people. Some of these people enjoy knowing exactly what is expected of them and others prefer to choose their own tasks. Change and uncertainty invigorates some, while others are frustrated by it. Some actually enjoy conflict and others actively try to avoid it. Actually, the purpose of organizational design is to assure congruence or fit: A fit between structure and the characteristics of the environment; a fit between structure and the characteristics of the task; and a fit between an organization structure and the characteristics of its members. Since the values of effective human resources are obvious, it would appear equally obvious that all organizations would practice effective human resource management. The critical components of human resource management are: Acquiring, developing, and maintaining human resources (Boone & Kurtz, 1992). In particular, the maintenance function that involves employee motivation in the form of wages, salaries, incentives and benefits, and provision of employee health and safety programs is very important in a modern organization.

Viewed from bureaucratic organization structure, Robbins (1990) summarizes that the central theme in Weber's bureaucratic model is standardization. The behavior of people in bureaucracies is predetermined by the standardized structure and processes. The model, itself, can be dissected into three groups of characteristics: Those that relate to the structure and function of the organization, those that deal with means of rewarding effort, and those that deal with protection for individual members.

Weber's model stipulates a hierarchy of offices, with each office under the direction of a higher one. Each of these offices is differentiated horizontally by a division of labor. This division of labor creates units of expertise, defines areas of action consistent with competence of unit members, assigns responsibilities for carrying out these actions, and allocates commensurate authority to fulfill these responsibilities. All the while, written rules govern the performance of members' duties. This imposition of structure and functions provides a high level of specialized expertise, coordination of roles, and control of members through standardization.

The second group of characteristics in Weber's model relates to rewards. Members receive salaries in relation to their rank in the organization. Promotions are based on objective criteria such as seniority or achievement. Since members are not owners, it is important that there be a clear separation of their private affairs and property from the organization's affairs and property. It is further expected that commitment to the organization is paramount, the position in the organization being the employee's sole or primary occupation.

Finally, Weber's model seeks to protect the rights of individuals. In return for a career commitment, members receive protection from arbitrary actions by superiors, receive clear knowledge of responsibilities and the amount of authority their superior holds, and receive the ability to appeal decisions that they view as unfair or outside the parameters of their superior's authority.

Certainly, organizations are managed and staffed by people. Without people, they cannot exist. The challenge, the opportunity, and also the frustration of creating and managing organizations frequently stem from the people-related problems that arise within them. Therefore, the design of any organizational structure must recognize the needs of its members because organizational effectiveness depends on them.

Organizational Effectiveness

Robbins's framework for analyzing organization theory examines certain issues, which are currently receiving the bulk of attention by organizational theorists. These theorists attempt to offer solutions to organizational problems currently plaguing managers. These include managing the environment, organizational change, organizational conflict, organizational culture, and evolution (Robbins, 1990). Robbins presents his framework for analyzing organization theory as shown in Figure 6.
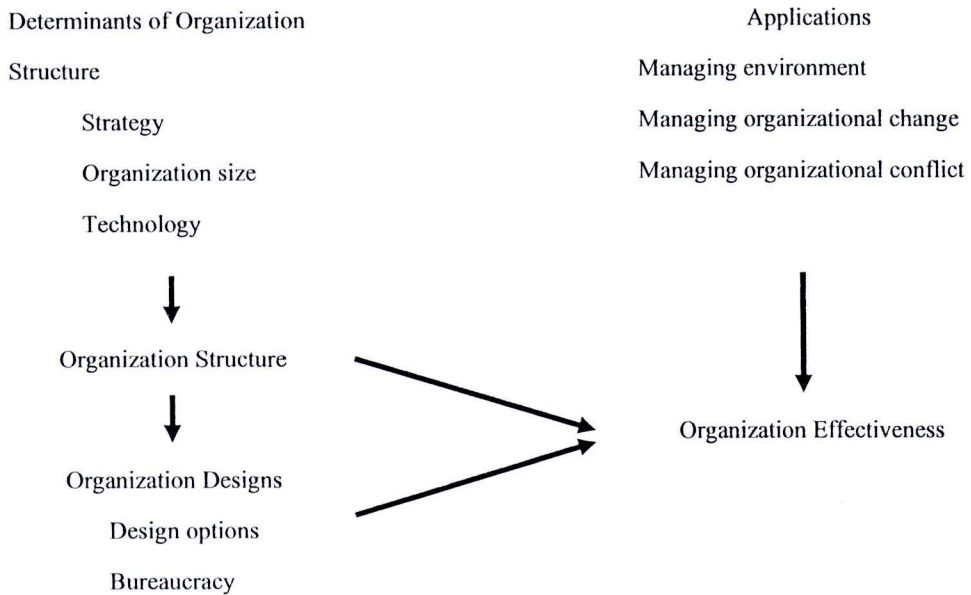
Determinants of Organization
Structure
    Strategy
    Organization size
    Technology

Applications
Managing environment
Managing organizational change
Managing organizational conflict

Organization Structure

Organization Designs
    Design options
    Bureaucracy

Organization Effectiveness

Figure 6 Analyzing organization framework by Robbins.

Note. Form *Organization Theory: Structure Designs and Applications*
(3rd ed., p. 127), by S. Robbins, 1990, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Robbins (1990) states that "the issue of an organization's success is subsumed under organizational effectiveness". This is a dependent variable. Organizational effectiveness has proven difficult to define. Yet as the central theme in organization theory, its meaning and measurement must be confronted. The two dominant positions, and frequent antagonists, are the goal attainment and systems approach. The former defines organizational effectiveness as the accomplishment of ends. The latter focuses on means-defining organizational effectiveness as the ability to acquire inputs, process these inputs, channel the outputs, and maintain stability and balance in the system.

A more recent offering is the strategic-constituencies approach (Robbins, 1990). It defines organizational effectiveness as satisfying the demands of those constituencies in the environment from which the organization requires support for its continued existence. Success is the ability to placate those individuals, groups, and institutions upon which the organization depends for its continued operation.

The final perspective is one based on a competing-values approach (Robbins, 1990). It has sought to synthesize the large number of organizational effectiveness criteria into four models. Each model is based on a given set of values and each is preferred depending on where an organization is in its life cycle. Organizational effectiveness can be defined as the degree to which an organization attains its short-term (ends) and long-term (means) goals. The selection reflects strategic constituencies, the self-interest of the evaluator, and the life stage of the organization.

The 1960's and early 1970's saw a proliferation of organizational effectiveness studies. A review of these studies identified thirty different criteria–all purporting to measure "organizational effectiveness" (Robbins, 1990). They are listed in Table 6. The fact that few studies used multiple criteria and that the criteria themselves ranged from general measures, such as quality, satisfaction, and morale, to specific measures such as accident rates and absenteeism, certainly leads to the conclusion that organizational effectiveness means different things to different people.

Table 6

Organizational Effectiveness Criteria

1. Overall effectiveness	17. Goal consensus
2. Productivity	18. Internalization of organizational
3. Efficiency	goals
4. Profit	19. Role and norm congruence
5. Quality	20. Managerial interpersonal skills
6. Accidents	21. Managerial task skills
7. Growth	22. Information management and
8. Absenteeism	communication
9. Turnover	23. Readiness
10. Job satisfaction	24. Utilization of environment
11. Motivation	25. Evaluations by external entitles
12. Moral	26. Stability
13. Control	27. Value of human resources
14. Conflict/cohesive	28. Participation and shared influence
15. Flexibility/adaptation	29. Training and Development
16. Planning and goal	emphasis
setting	30. Achievement emphasis

Note. Form *On the Nature of Organizational Effectiveness, In New*

Perspectives on Organizational Effectiveness (p. 155), by J. P. Campbell,

1977, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

There is no doubt that the length of Table 6 is partly due to the diversity of organizations being evaluated. Additionally, it also reflects the different interests of the evaluators. However, all thirty criteria cannot be relevant to every organization, and certainly some must be more important than others. The researcher who tabulated these thirty criteria concluded that since an organization can be effective or ineffective in a number of different facets that may be relatively independent of one another, organizational effectiveness has no "operational definition" (Campbell, 1977). With regard to a service organization such as the police, there are many criteria, for example, productivity, job satisfaction, evaluations by external entities, participation and shared influence, etc.

Public Participation

Successful decentralization strategies cannot be a "top-down" process. They must be based on an awareness that local problems and assets are best known to local residents and the local organizations devoted to the betterment of their areas. Local groups are in an excellent position to assess neighborhood needs, establish development priorities, and design workable solutions (Coghill, 2000).

Participation is universally seen to be an essential component of democracy on several grounds. To begin with, it is an inclusive process and as such it empowers citizens to become involved equally and directly in the processes which affect their lives. Second, it is a transformative process

because the developmental and educative effects of participation enable citizens to ascertain and articulate their needs and interests. Third, it is the only possible basis for legitimate legal authority. Fourth, it is the process through which human social solidarity can be created. And finally, it acknowledges that "democracy" describes a dynamic ideal, not a politically existing institution, but a potential project (Pateman, 1970).

The critical point of participation is to bring interests into "being" and to arrive at a meaningful and abiding decision "through discursive will formation, with adequate knowledge of the limiting conditions and fundamental imperatives of society" (Habermas, 1976). Hence, community participation or sometimes community consultation is to take place through invitation within a highly formalized setting, and be primarily indirect in nature, through community representatives. The purpose of participation is also very clearly delineated:

". . . consultation is the idea of the police consulting the community or meeting with the community to discuss all aspects of policing so that they will be better informed about public feelings and ideas and as a result be better able to make decisions about policing the community . . . consultation is not about the community making decisions affecting policing, but it should lead to the police taking better decisions affecting the community . . ." (Community Liaison Officer as cited in McLaughlin, 1994).

Mechanisms for Public Participation

There are pragmatic reasons for maintaining effective mechanisms for public participation. These include as follows: (Hunt, 2000)

1. The perspectives of decision-makers are limited by their own experience, and these can be enlarged by public participation.

2. Government organizations do not have all the answers.

3. All the effects of decisions cannot be foreseen, so it is valuable to receive feedback from an active and interested community.

4. Mistakes can be avoided or limited by consulting those who will be affected by decisions.

5. Consultation makes for better decisions.

6. Community goals and shared values cannot sensibly be established without proper and continuous engagement with that community, even when the government organizations, as often, are taking a leadership role.

7. There is more likely to be greater acceptance of decisions made, even if these many not be supported by everyone.

8. Partnership and ownership, in place of alienation and remoteness, are fostered, enhancing local identity and cohesion.

9. People feel they have a say in decisions affecting them.

10. It reinforces democratic values and strengthens democracy.

Police Monitoring Committees

With regard to the participatory groups overseeing police service delivery, there are many forms of police monitoring committees which are

different in either purposes or responsibilities. The following example of the monitoring groups and liaison panels in Manchester is clearly demonstrated. The monitoring committee will create alternatives to the unrepresentative liaison panels, thus ensuring, from the outset, that it will be embroiled in the problematic issues of community, representation and participation. The city-wide network of monitoring groups will be very different from the liaison panels because they will represent the different needs of the community, defined as those who are vulnerable to the practices and policies of an unaccountable police force and the incapacity of the Greater Manchester Police. Further differences between the monitoring groups and liaison panels are articulated: (McLaughlin, 1994)

1. Liaison panels are deemed to be part of an attempt to create a much larger overarching policing system which has a nationally set agenda, whereas monitoring groups are to be part of a decentralized police service which will correspond to the needs of the community.

2. Liaison panels are part of an information gathering exercise which is geared towards furthering political control, whereas monitoring groups will, through their local knowledge and information, will set the agenda for local policing needs.

3. Liaison panels are part of a sophisticated multi-agency policing strategy geared towards increasing surveillance, whereas monitoring groups will empower local people to challenge policing practices and hold officers to account.

4. Liaison panels are geared towards calming down and educating community expectations, whereas monitoring groups will encourage people to enter into an open debate on their policing needs.

5. Liaison panels represent the policing needs of the authoritarian state, whereas the monitoring groups represent the community demand for a democratically accountable police service.

From the above concept of public participation, the collective wisdom of local governments, businesses, labor and neighborhoods can bring about a healthy local economy. These experience-rich networks are best able to identify emerging development needs and strategic opportunities and assess the performance of existing development efforts. Local public organizations must not only incorporate this collective wisdom into its decision-making, but must also help neighborhoods, businesses, and labor to participate more effectively in public affairs by increasing their access to, and understanding of, public information.

Measuring public participation in the police organization depends on how many and how often people take part in police tasks and activities, including being members of liaison panels, monitoring groups, or some types of police committees in examination and monitoring of police officers' job performance.

Promotion and Career Development

Promotion means an improvement in pay, prestige, position and responsibilities of an employee within his or her organization (Aswathappa, 2003). The new job is a promotion for the employee only when it carries increased responsibilities and enhanced pay. The main reasons for promotion are to motivate employees to higher productivity, to retain the service of qualified and competent people, to recognize and reward the efficiency of an employee, to fill up higher vacancies from within the organization and to build loyalty, morale and a sense of belonging in the employee. Two common types of promotion are horizontal and vertical promotion. The former involves an increase in responsibilities and pay and a change in designation for example a junior clerk is promoted to be senior clerk. The latter result in greater responsibility, prestige and pay, together with a change in the nature of the job for example a supervisor is promoted to be a branch manager.

Career development is an ongoing and formalized effort that focuses on developing enriched and more capable workers (Gomez-Mejia, Balkin, & Cardy, 1998). Ideally, career development is a process that aligns the interests and skills of employees with the needs of the organization. Creating a development program usually consists of three phases namely assessment, direction and development phases. The first phase involves activities ranging from self-assessment to organizationally provided assessment to identify employees' strengths and weaknesses. The second phase involves determining the type of career that employees want and the steps they must take to realize

their career goals. Meanwhile, the last phase involves taking actions to create and increase skills to prepare for future job opportunities through mentoring, coaching, job rotation and tuition assistance.

Compensation

Compensation is payment to an employee in return for their contribution to the organization, that is, for doing their job (Stone, 1998). Compensation may achieve several purposes assisting in recruitment, job performance, and job satisfaction. Compensation packages can be linked to business structure, employee recruitment, retention, motivation, performance, feedback and satisfaction (Marsh & Kleiner, 1998). Compensation is typically among the first things potential employees consider when looking for employment. Successful compensation packages, however, are more like a total rewards system, containing non-monetary, direct and indirect elements (Gomez-Mejia et al., 1998).

Direct compensation is an employee's base wage. The most common forms of direct compensation are wages, salaries and tips. Compensation is usually provided as either base pay or variable pay. Base pay is based on the employees' sole in the organization and the market for the expertise required to conducting that sole. Variable pay is based on the performance of the person in that role, for example, for how well that person achieved his or her goals for the year. Incentive plans, for example, bonus plans, are a form of variable pay. Some programs include a base pay and a variable pay.

Indirect compensation is far more varied, including everything from legally required public protection programs, such as Social Security, to health insurance, retirement programs, paid leave, childcare or housing. Some indirect compensation elements are required by law such as social security, unemployment and disability payments. Other indirect elements are up to the employer and can offer excellent ways to provide benefits to the employees and the employer as well. For example, a working mother may take a lower-paying job with flexible hours that will allow her to be home when her children get home from school.

Non-monetary compensation can include any benefit an employee receives from an employer or job that does not involve tangible value. This includes career and social rewards, such as job security, flexible hours and opportunity for growth, praise and recognition, task enjoyment and friendships.

By combining many of these compensation alternatives, progressive mangers can create attractive compensation packages to the employees who receive them (Timo & Davidson, 2002). In a tight labor market, indirect compensation becomes increasingly important. Businesses that cannot compete with high cash wages can offer very individualized alternatives that meet the needs of the employees.

Employee Relations

Good employee relations involve providing fair and consistent treatment to all employees so that they will be committed to the organization. Effective employee relations require cooperation between managers and employee relation representative, specialist who ensures that company policies are followed and consults with both supervisors and employees on specific employee relation problems. One way to develop a good employee relations program is through communication channels that give employees access to important data and an opportunity to express their ideas and feelings (Gomez-Mejia et al., 1998).

Communications that provide for feedback are called two-way communications because they allow employees and supervisors to interact with each other. In any organization, good communication is an important person-to-person skill. Employees are most likely to be well motivated and to work hard for organizations where there are well-organized multi-directional communications flows. Communication flows in a number of directions namely downward, upward, sideways and multi-channel communications.

Downward communication involves the passing of commands from higher levels in a hierarchy to lower levels. This type of communication allows managers to implement their decisions and to influence employees lower in the organizational hierarchy. Stevens and Hisle (1996) point out three key problem areas with downward communication namely difficulty in communicating through layers of middle management, a lack of feedback

from their own messages and cross-cultural obstacles. Downward communication also presents a number of communication problems for hotel managers operating a business that is open to the public 24 hours a day, seven days a week. Providing this continuous service usually requires hiring part-time workers, which, in turn, compounds the communication challenges as these workers are frequently outside the communication circle. Moreover, the industry has a high turnover rate, which naturally interrupts the organizational communication process.

Upward communication involves the feedback of ideas from lower down in the organization to higher-level decision makers. This sort of communication flow is important in the consultation of employees, and enables managers to draw on good ideas from those working at lower levels in an organization. Similar to downward communication, communicating upwards caused some difficulties for the managers who reported to outside stakeholders of the hospitality business (Stevens & Hisle, 1996). Managers reported that owners and investors sometimes lacked an understanding of why certain decisions had to be made. Managers complained that executives were hard to reach and frequently inaccessible. Besides, some felt they did not have sufficient autonomy to make independent decisions.

Sideways communication involves the exchange of ideas and information between those at the same level in an organization e.g. between the various functions. Multi-channel communication involves a range of flows of information. Information and Communications technology and the resultant networking systems enable effective multi- channel communication.

There are all sorts of ways of organizing effective communications between members of an organization such as team briefings-enable team leaders and managers to communicate and consult with their staff on a daily basis or less frequently, formal meetings-enable a more formalized approach to communication and face-to-face communications enable a free and frank exchange of ideas.

There are many other ways of communicating such as e-mail, electronic notice boards, physical notice boards, newsletters, phone, fax, videoconferencing etc. The type of communication channel that is used needs to be appropriate to the message being conveyed. For example, if an exchange of ideas is required some sort of face-to-face meeting will be most appropriate whereas the communication of information can be done by newsletter, or the notice board.

Job Performance and Satisfaction

Attempting to understand the nature of job satisfaction and its effects on work performance is not easy. One view, associated with the early human relation's approach, is that satisfaction leads to better performance. An alternative view is that good performance leads to satisfaction. Yousef (1998) found out that there is a significant positive correlation, between satisfaction, job security and job performance. In this section, two main topics are presented: Job satisfaction and job performance.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a multifaceted concept, which can mean different things to different people. Job satisfaction is usually linked with motivation, but the nature of this relationship is not clear. Satisfaction is not the same as motivation. "Job satisfaction is more an attitude, an internal state. It could, for example, be associated with a personal feeling of achievement, either quantitative or qualitative." Attention to job satisfaction has become more closely associated with broader approaches to improved job design and work organization, and the quality of working life movement.
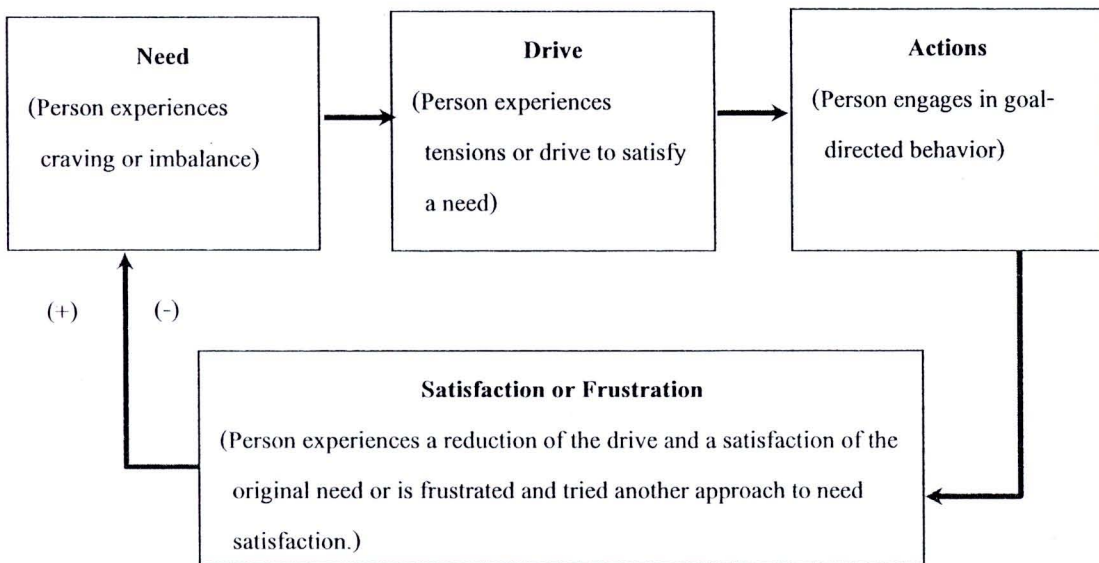
Locke (1976) gives a comprehensive definition of job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience". Job satisfaction is a result of employees' perception of how well their job provides those things which are viewed as important (Luthans, 1992). It is generally recognized in the organizational behavior field that job satisfaction is the most important and frequently studied attitude (Mitchell & Larson, 1987).

Job satisfaction is the main part of motivation; whereas motivation is one of the major factors causing individual performance with the organization (Mitchell, 1982), while Dubrin and Ireland (1993, p. 88) present a general motivational model based on need satisfaction that explains the relationship among need, drive, action, and satisfaction or frustration.

1. A General Motivational Model

An important purpose of behavior is to satisfy needs, such as the need for fringe benefits. As shown in Figure 7, the presence of an active need

(such as fringe benefits) is expressed as an inner state of craving or imbalance. The individual engages in actions, or goal-directed behaviors to satisfy this craving or correct the imbalance. These actions might include attending classes or working longer, with the hope of being promoted.

| Need (Person experiences craving or imbalance) | Drive (Person experiences tensions or drive to satisfy a need) | Actions (Person engages in goal-directed behavior) |

(+)   (-)

Satisfaction or Frustration

(Person experiences a reduction of the drive and a satisfaction of the original need or is frustrated and tried another approach to need satisfaction.)

+ are positive outcomes, lead to a repeat of successful behavior.

- are negative outcomes, imply blockage and tend to result inbehavioral adjustments to improve the person's success rate.

Figure 7 A general motivational model based need satisfaction.

Note. Form *Management and Organization* (2nd ed., p. 94), by A. J. Dubrin and R. D. Ireland, 1993, Cincinnati, OH: South-Western.

If behavior leads to a successful outcome, two things happen: Tension is reduced and an inner state of satisfaction or equilibrium is achieved. If this state is not achieved, however, tension continues and

motivation persists to discover another means of restoring that equilibrium. If a person's actions lead to positive outcomes, he or she will repeat those successful behaviors. On the other hand, behavior that leads to negative outcomes will usually not be repeated. Instead, the person will likely change tactics to improve his or her success rate. Although the general model illustrated in Figure 7 is accurate, it is an oversimplification. For one thing, it does not specify the conditions under which incentives will be motivators, nor does it specify why one person will exert more effort than another (Dubrin & Ireland, 1993, p. 94).

Probably, the most famous needs theory was development by Maslow (1943). Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory proposed that humans are motivated by multiple needs and that these needs exist in a hierarchical order as illustrated in Figure 8. He identified five general types of motivating needs in order of ascendance (Daft, 1995):

Education, religion, hobbies, personal growth	Self-actualization needs	Opportunities for training, growth, advancement, and creativity
Approval of family, friends, community	Esteem needs	Recognition, high status, increased responsibility
Family, friends, community groups	Belongingness needs	Work groups, clients, coworkers, supervisors
Freedom from war, pollution, violence	Safety needs	Safe work, fringe benefits, job security
Food, water, sex	Physiological needs	Adequate heat, air, and base salary

Figure 8 Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

Note. From *Understanding Management* (p. 57), by R. L. Daft, 1995, New York: The Dryden Press.

1.1 Physiological needs. These are the most basic human physical needs, including food, water and sex. In the organizational setting, these are reflected in the needs for adequate heat, air, and base salary to ensure survival.

1.2 Safety needs. These are the needs for a safe and secure physical and emotional environment and freedom from threats, that is, for freedom from violence and for an orderly society. In an organizational workplace, safety needs reflect the needs for safe jobs, fringe benefits, and job security.

1.3 Belongingness needs. These needs reflect the desire to be accepted by one's peers, have friendships, be part of a group, and be loved.

In the organization, these needs influence the desire for good relationships with coworkers, participation in a work group, and a positive relationship with supervisors.

1.4 Esteem needs. These needs relate to the desire for a positive self-image and to receive attention, recognition, and appreciation from others. Within organizations, esteem needs reflect a motivation for recognition, an increase in responsibility, high status, and credit for contributions to the organization.

1.5 Self-actualization needs. These represent the need for self-fulfillment, which is the highest need category. They concern developing one's full potential, increasing one's competence, and becoming a better person. Self-actualization needs can be met in the organization by providing people with opportunities to grow, be creative, and acquire training for challenging assignments and advancement.

According to Maslow's theory, lower-order needs take priority—they must be satisfied before higher-order needs are activated. The needs are satisfied in sequence. Physiological needs come before safety needs, safety needs before social needs, and so on. A person desiring physical safety will devote his or her efforts to securing a safer environment and will not be concerned with esteem needs or self-actualization needs. Once a need is satisfied, it declines in importance and the next higher need is activated. When a member wins good pay and working conditions, basic needs are met; he or she may then desire to have belongingness and esteem needs met in the workplace.

In contrast, Herzberg (1968) developed another popular theory of motivation called the two-factor theory as illustrated in Figure 9. He interviewed about 200 accountants and engineers employed by firms in and around Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania about times when they were highly motivated to work and other times when they were dissatisfied and unmotivated at work. His findings suggested that the work characteristics associated with dissatisfaction were quite different from those pertaining to satisfaction, which prompted the notion that two factors influence work motivation.
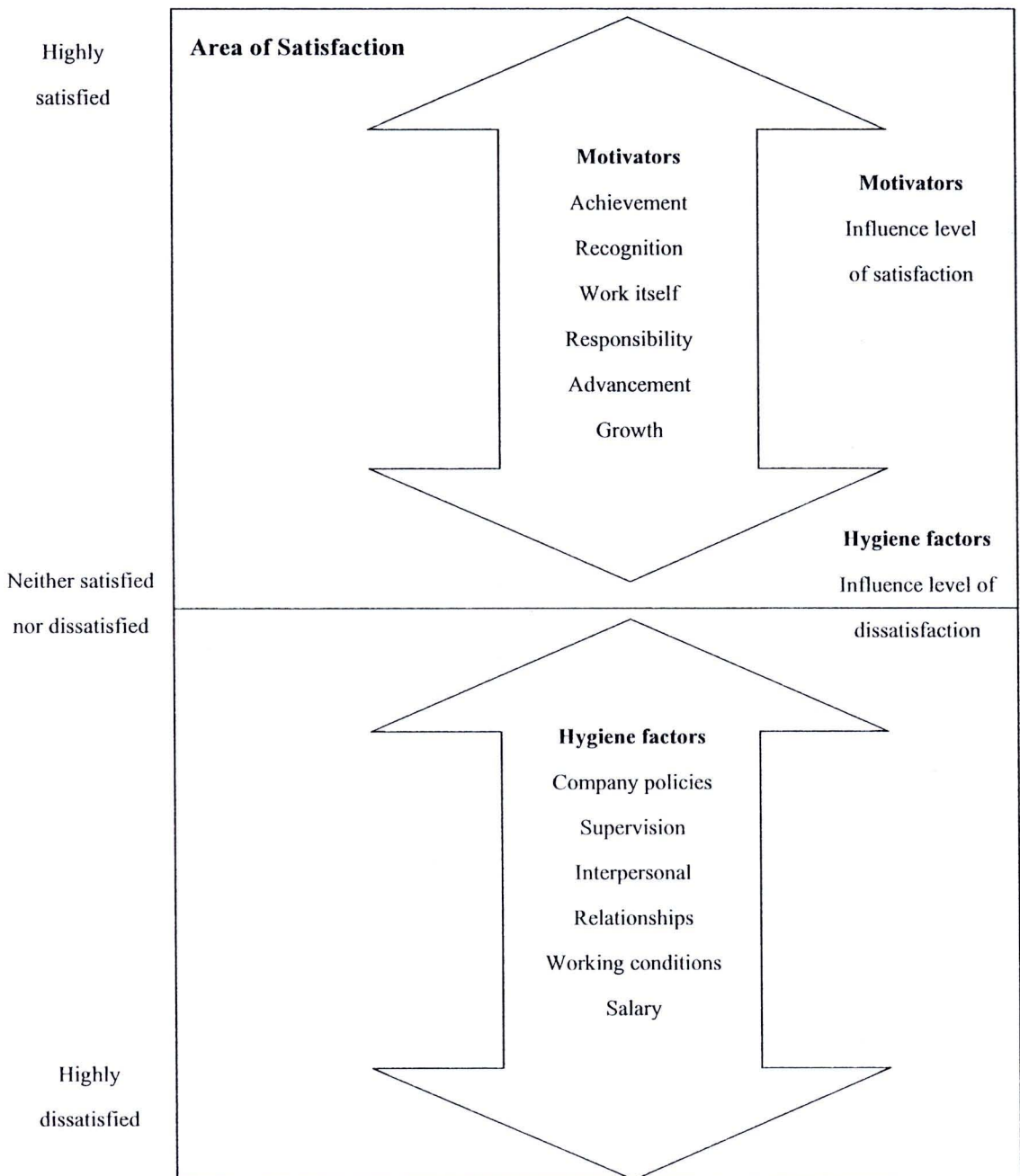
Area of Satisfaction

Highly
satisfied

Motivators

Achievement

Recognition

Work itself

Responsibility

Advancement

Growth

Motivators

Influence level

of satisfaction

Hygiene factors

Influence level of

Neither satisfied
nor dissatisfied

dissatisfaction

Hygiene factors

Company policies

Supervision

Interpersonal

Relationships

Working conditions

Salary

Highly
dissatisfied

Figure 9 Herzberg's two-factor theory.

Note. From "One More time: How do you Motivate Employees?," by

F. Herzberg, 1968, *Harvard Business Review, 18*(2), p. 55.

The center of the scale is neutral, meaning that workers are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied. Herzberg believed that two entirely separate dimensions contribute to an employee's behavior at work.

The first, called hygiene factors, involves the presence or absence of job dissatisfies, such as company policies, supervision, interpersonal relationships, working conditions, salary, and status. When hygiene factors are poor, work is dissatisfying. However, good hygiene factors simply remove the dissatisfaction; they do not in themselves cause people to become highly satisfied and motivated in their work (Daft, 1995). The hygiene factors are roughly equivalent to Maslow's lower-level needs that are basic needs, security needs, and belonging needs (Luthans, 1992).

The seconds set of factors does influence job satisfaction. Motivators are higher-level needs and include achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement, and opportunity for growth. Herzberg believed that when motivators are absent, workers are neutral toward work, but when motivators are present, and workers are highly motivated and satisfied. Thus, hygiene factors and motivators represent two distinct factors that influence motivation. Hygiene factors work only in the area of dissatisfaction. Unsafe working conditions or a noisy work environment will cause people to be dissatisfied; their correction will not lead to a high level of motivation and satisfaction. Motivators such as challenge, responsibility, and recognition must be in place before employees will be highly motivated to excel at their work (Daft, 1995). The motivators are also equivalent to

Maslow's higher-level needs, that is, esteem needs and self-actualization needs.

The implication of the two-factor theory for administrators is clear. Providing hygiene factors will eliminate dissatisfaction of people in the organization but will not motivate workers to high achievement levels. On the other hand, recognition, challenge, and opportunities for personal growth are powerful motivators and will promote high satisfaction and performance. However, although Herzberg's two-factor theory has become very popular as a textbook explanation of work motivation and was widely accepted by practitioners, it also is true that from an academic perspective, the theory oversimplifies the complexities of work motivation. When researchers deviate from the critical incident methodology used by Herzberg, they do not get the two factors. There seem to be job factors that lead to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. These findings indicate that a strict interpretation of the two-factor theory is not warranted (Luthans, 1992).

There are three important dimensions to job satisfaction. First, job satisfaction is an emotional response to a job situation. As such, it cannot be seen; it can only be inferred. Second, job satisfaction is often determined by how well outcomes meet or exceed expectations. For example, if organizational participants feel that they are working much harder than others in the department but are receiving fewer rewards, they will probably have a negative attitude toward the work, the boss, and/or coworkers. They will be dissatisfied. On the other hand, if they feel they are being treated very well and are being paid equitably, they are likely to have a positive attitude toward

the job. They will be job-satisfied. Third, job satisfaction represents several related attitudes (Luthans, 1992).

In measuring job satisfaction, it cannot be directly observed because it is an attitude. Therefore job satisfaction must rely on self-reports of people in organizations. The surveys are receiving renewed interest in the practice of human resource management. There are a number of ways of measuring job satisfaction. Some of the most common are rating scales, critical incidents, interviews, and action tendencies (Luthans, 1992). For example, in measuring the needs of people in organization, Maslow's theory shows that there are different types of needs through which an individual processes. An administrator must be aware of the fact that there are variations among people in terms of needs. Since people in organizations differ in their needs, perceptions and satisfaction levels, a rigid approach to motivation may not work. By observation, interaction and listening to subordinates, a manager can gain an insight into the need differences and expectations of people. Another way to study the need level is through surveys and analysis of grievances. An administrator must take a look at the nature of complaints of his people in organization, which may indicate their needs and expectations (Putti, 1987).

2. Influences on Job Satisfaction

There are a number of factors that influence job satisfaction. The major ones can be summarized as follows: Pay, the work itself, promotions, supervision, the work group, and working conditions (Feldman & Arnold, 1983; Gilmer, 1966; Locke, 1976; Luthans, 1992; Smith, Kendal, & Hulin, 1969).

2.1 Pay: Wages are a significant factor in job satisfaction. Money not only helps people attain their basic needs, but is instrumental in providing upper-level need satisfaction. People in organizations often see pay as a reflection of how management views their contribution to the organization. Fringe benefits are also important, but they are not as influential. Undoubtedly, one reason is that most people in an organization do not even know how much they are receiving in terms of benefits. Moreover, most tend to undervalue these benefits because they cannot see their practical value (Major & Konar, 1984).

2.2 The Work Itself: The content of the work itself is another major source of satisfaction. For example, research related to the job characteristics approach to job design shows that feedback from the job itself and autonomy are two of the major job-related motivational factors. Some of the most important ingredients of a satisfying job uncovered by surveys include status (Ciabattari, 1986).

2.3 Promotion Opportunities: Opportunities for promotion seem to have a varying effect on job satisfaction. This is because promotions take a number of different forms and have a variety of accompanying rewards. For example, individuals who are promoted on the basis of seniority often experience job satisfaction, but not as much as those who are promoted on the basis of performance. Additionally, a promotion with a 10 percent salary raise is typically not as satisfying as one with a 20 percent salary raise. This helps explain why executive promotions may be more satisfying than promotions that occur at the lower levels of organizations (Luthans, 1992).

2.4 Supervision: Supervision is another moderately important source of job satisfaction. It can be said that there seem to be two dimensions of supervisory style that affect job satisfaction. One is subordinate-centeredness. This is measured by the degree to which a supervisor takes a personal interest in the subordinate's welfare. It commonly is manifested in ways such as checking to see how well the subordinate is doing, providing advice and assistance to the individual, and communicating with the worker on a personal as well as an official level.

The other dimension is participation or influence, as illustrated by administrators who allow the people in their organization to participate in decisions that affect their own jobs. In most cases, this approach leads to higher job satisfaction. For example, comprehensive meta-analysis concluded that participation does have a positive effect on job satisfaction. A participative climate created by the supervisor has a more substantial effect on workers' satisfaction than does participation in a specific decision (Miller & Monge, 1986).

2.5 Work Group: The nature of the work group will also have an effect on job satisfaction. Friendly, cooperative coworkers are modest sources of job satisfaction to individual employees. The work group serves as a source of support, comfort, advice, and assistance to the individual worker. A "good" work group makes the job more enjoyable. However, this factor is not essential to job satisfaction. On the other hand, if the reverse conditions exist, i.e. the people are difficult to get along with, this may have a negative effect on job satisfaction. For example, many women have low job satisfaction

because they are subject to male stereotyping that hinders their chances for promotion. This stereotyping seems to exist even among the well-educated (Dubno, 1985).

2.6 Working Conditions. Working conditions are another factor that has a modest effect on job satisfaction. If the working conditions are good (clean, attractive surroundings, for instance), the personnel will find it easier to carry out their jobs. If the working conditions are poor (hot, noisy surroundings, for example), personnel will find it more difficult to get things done. In other word, the effect of working conditions on job satisfaction is similar to that of the work group. If things are good, there will not be a job satisfaction problem; if things are poor, there will be (Luthans, 1992).

Most people in organizations do not give working conditions a great deal of thought unless they are extremely bad. Additionally, when there are complaints about working conditions, these sometimes are really nothing more than manifestations of other problems. For example, an administrator may complain that his office has not been properly cleaned by the night crew, but his anger is actually a result of a meeting he had with the boss earlier in the day in which he was given a poor performance evaluation. The working environment is another important dimension to look at. It has an effect on individuals in that it should fulfill at least his/her basic needs; individual with identity; adequate security; self-fulfillment; and comradeship. Furthermore it can also affect the morale of the group's work and their achievements (Sisavath, 2002).

3. Thoughts on the Relationship between Satisfaction and Performance

From the Hawthorne study of Elton Mayo, et al. as well as the study by psychologists of human relations, researchers attempt to conclude that satisfaction leads to efficiency in terms of work, increase in productivity, and increase in profits (Milton, 1981). Herzberg's two-factor theory explains satisfaction in terms of two groups of variables: Dissatisfies or hygienic and satisfiers or motivators, which concludes that satisfaction relates to performance. If an employee achieves a sense of satisfaction, he will work efficiently and consequently, there will be an increase in productivity (Herzberg, 1968).

In addition, Seashore and Taber (1975) presents a model of a group of variables relating to satisfaction; which concludes that (1) personal background e.g. sex, years of service, job position, etc., (2) personality, and (3) capability, affect satisfaction and the outcomes of satisfaction are consequently responses shaped by the characteristics of the person, for example, aggressive behavior, illness, etc. In the organization, it is manifested in terms of productivity, turnover, etc. On the societal level it is seen in terms of GNP and quality of life.

Many scholar support the notion that satisfaction leads to performance. Newstorm and Davis (1993) and Luthans (1992), for example, state that the outcomes of job satisfaction should comprise a series of four specific subtopics: Productivity, turnover, absenteeism, and organizational

citizenship. Productivity is closely associated with the meaning of job performance.

There is, however, considerable debate as to whether satisfaction leads to performance or performance leads to satisfaction. Porter and Lawler (as cited in Steers & Porter, 1991) suggest that the level of performance a person believes he or she has attained will influence the level of rewards that he or she believes will be equitable, and then leads to the level of satisfaction.

Both theories, however, believe that both job satisfaction and job performance have an interactive relationship but the issue is which one comes first as the independent variable.

Job Performance

Individual performance is generally determined by three factors: Motivation, the desire to do the job, ability, the capability to do the job, the work environment, the tools, materials, and information needed to do the job. If an employee lacks ability, the manager can provide training or replace the worker. If there is an environmental problem, the manager can also usually make adjustments to promote higher performance. But if motivation is the problem, the manager's task is more challenging. Individual behavior is a complex phenomenon, and the manager may not be able to figure out why the employee is not motivated and how to change his or her behavior. Thus, motivation also plays a vital role since it might influence performance in a negative way and because of its intangible nature.

Job performance is one of the major concepts in organizational behavioral theory and organization theory. Performance is strongly affected by many other factors, including relations among members of work groups, the quality of leadership they receive from supervisors, and their perceptions that they are being treated fairly or unfairly by management (Greenberg, 1987). It is important for administrators to focus on both activities that generate performance (behavior) and on actual performance results (outcome) because outcome measures serve the needs of the organization as a whole, whereas behavior measures serve the individual administrator in determining and improving job performance of people in organizations (Ouchi & Maguire, 1975).

1. Measurement of Job Performance

Job Performance means the level of productivity relating to several job-related behaviors and outcomes. It is assessed through a self-report measure on seven factors: Quality of work, quantity of work, timeliness, efficiency, job knowledge and skill, judgment ability, and adaptability. Seven factors of job performance give the meaning and understanding as follows: (Locke, 1976; Woodruff, 1990; The Civil Servant Commission of Thailand as cited in Chupradist, 2000)

1.1 Quality of work: This refers to the characteristics of output that enhance the usefulness to the recipient. People in the organization have direct control over output and there is a minimum of subsequent reworking of the output.

1.2 Quantity of work: This refers to the volume of useful output associated with the employee's job assignment. Output is of sufficient quantity to satisfy the requirements of the job assignment over which people in the organization have direct control.

1.3 Timeliness: This refers to the use of appropriate time on production of output, which is speedy, fast, finishing on time, etc.

1.4 Efficiency: This refers to the ability of people in the organization to minimize input and maximize output, which means that they use the least administrative resources of input-men, money, and materials-for purposes of best production.

1.5 Job knowledge and skills: This refers to the ability of worker to sufficiently solve technical, conceptual, and structural problems.

1.6 Judgment ability: This refers to the ability of people in organization to exercise discretionary behavior to arrive at a wise decision when confronted with problem situations, often unstructured and at short notice.

1.7 Adaptability: This refers to the ability of people in organization to adjust properly and expeditiously to changing and unstructured situations, as well as problems encountered in the job environment.

2. Rewards for job performance

Employees are motivated by both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. To be effective, the reward system must recognize both sources of motivation. All reward systems are based on the assumptions of attracting, retaining and motivating people. Financial rewards are an important component of the

reward system, but there are other factors that motivate employees and influence their level of performance. In fact, several studies have found that among employees surveyed, money was not the most important motivator, and in some instances, managers have found money to have a demotivating or negative effect on employees (Sisavath, 2002).

Rewards can act as the catalyst for improved performance and better productivity. It is a part of management that can be effective according to the following basic criteria:

1) Rewards should be quick,

2) Rewards should be significant and irrevocable,

3) Rewards must be distinctly and directly related to performance,

4) Rewards should be compatible with job measurement and

5) The goals and rewards must be understandable and attainable.

Moreover, the reward must be fair and realistic; otherwise it may have a definitely negative effect as a motivator. Generally, rewards are reckoned to improve performance by around 20 to 30 percent, which is nearly twice as much as that attained by goal setting and job redesign. But each incentive or reward system is likely to have value in a certain situation only.

In some situations in which the manager wants to improve the total performance of his or her team, financial motivator plays a major role. The financial rewards are basically of three types. Firstly, there is profit sharing within the team. Secondly, job evaluation is needed in the purpose of inter-job comparison, and then form a basic wage structure. Lastly, there is merit rating. which has often been used as an indicator of performance; in this

regard, employees will be rated, typically as excellent, good, average or poor, in respect of abilities in communication, human relation, intelligence, judgment and knowledge (Sisavath, 2002).

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is most often defined as (1) a strong desire to remain a member of a particular organization; (2) a willingness to exert high levels of effort on behalf of the organization; and (3) a definite belief in, and acceptance of, the values and goals of the organization (Luthans, 1979). In other words, it reflects the ongoing process of employees' loyalty and concern to their organization.

The research results of Foote, Seipel, Johnson, and Duffy (2005) indicate that those individuals whose attitude toward self-directed teams was more favorable were more likely to be committed to the research of a team concept than were those whose attitude was less favorable. The study also pointed out that those with a clearer understanding of their role were more committed to the implementation of the team concept than were those whose understanding of their role was less clear.

Yousef's study results (1998) indicate that there is a significant positive correlation, although not a very strong one, between satisfaction with job security and organizational commitment. This implies that the more employees are satisfied with the security of their jobs, the more they are committed to their organizations, and the better their on-the-job performance is.

Lok and Crawford (1999) indicate that satisfaction with the level of control over one's working environment had the highest correlation with the level of commitment. They also found out that the leadership style variable, consideration, was also relatively strongly related to commitment when compared with other variables.

Maxwell and Steele's study of hotel managers (2003) indicates that appropriate job scope and the absence of role conflict and role ambiguity (uncertainty) support commitment. They also found out that satisfaction with pay, feelings of personal importance attached to hotel success and social engagement are associated with higher levels of commitment.

Koh and Boo's study of managers in Singapore (2004) indicates that there is a significant and positive link between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Also, for different levels of job satisfaction, particular aspects of organizational ethics are associated with organizational commitment. The results suggest that organizational leaders can use organizational ethics as a means to generate favorable organizational outcomes.

In terms of the turnover issue, economic factors another element in the level of turnover rate (Luthans, 1979). When the economy of the country is going well and there is little unemployment, typically there will be an increase in turnover because people will begin looking for better opportunities with other organizations. Even if they are satisfied, many people are willing to leave if the opportunities elsewhere promise to be better.

People's Satisfaction as Service Recipients

Meaning of People's Satisfaction as Service Recipients toward Public Service Delivery

Service delivery is an essential concept pertaining to management in both public and private corporations. Generally, public service delivery will involve activities of services to people, which mostly are launched by public corporations. Public service delivery will also relate to service providers, services, and service recipients (Utayo, 1996).

International and Thai scholars, such as Fitzgerald and Durant (1980), Gundlach and Reid (1983), Utayo (1996), and Komutpong (2004), define people's satisfaction as service recipients as the level of people's satisfaction after receiving services of public officials in terms of how much they respond to the needs or solutions of people.

Productivity of Police Service Delivery

Productivity is a rational enterprise (Weiss, 1975). Productivity seeks to specify the relationship between inputs related to the police as an organization (such as money allocated to the department's budget) and outputs (such as the number of criminal apprehensions, traffic accidents investigated, response times, and other such indicators). The assumption is that by providing pertinent facts, productivity measures are able to assist decision-makers.

Productivity improvement is among the practical approaches which organizations are taking to achieve their objectives of effectiveness, efficiency and economy. The concept of productivity improvement focuses on whether the right things are being done and whether they are being done without wasting valuable resources. The National Commission on Productivity (1973) has determined that police productivity can be improved in the following four ways:

1. Improve current police practice to its optimum level to achieve better performance without causing a proportionate increase in cost. Put simply, this means doing the necessary tasks of police work but doing them as efficiently as possible.

2. Allocate the resources to those activities that give the highest return for each additional dollar that is spent. This involves a number of decisions focusing on police services. Are the police not only doing things right, but also doing the right thing.

3. Increase the probability that a given objective will be met. For instance, the most successful criminal apprehension programs assign police personnel when and where crime is the highest or calls for police service are the heaviest. This can be achieved through careful analysis of data to pinpoint the likely times and places of crime occurrence, thereby increasing the probability that a suspect will be apprehended.

4. Make the most of the talents of the personnel. Many times, the individual talents of police officers are overlooked by rigid organizational

procedures. This not only squanders public resources, but also suffocates individual potentials and desires.

In its application to the public sector, especially to the police as an organization, the notions of productivity have centered largely on two basic concepts: Efficiency and effectiveness, as Keane (1980) states:

> . . . Efficiency measures determine the level of resources-human, financial, and environmental-that are required to provide a given level of service; effectiveness measures determine the impact and quality of a given service is being provided and the costs associated with that service level; effectiveness measures describe the results, both positive and negative, that the provision of the service has on the client or community . . .

In the definition, the qualitative dimension of service is considered as part of the measures of effectiveness. Another perspective is that quality is itself a separate dimension. Stated more simply, effectiveness is the ability to get a job done, including meeting the standards set for quality control. Efficiency, on the other hand, is determined by what resources (inputs) are needed in producing outputs. Basically, productivity improvements can be made in two ways: (1) increasing the level of output while holding the level of resources used constant, or (2) maintaining or increasing the level of output with a decrease in the level of resources used. Productivity improvement does not mean working harder; it means working "smarter" (Swanson, Territo, & Taylor, 1993).

Effectiveness and efficiency must both be present if there is to be an improvement in productivity. Measurements such as hours of work, individual response time to calls, and number of arrests are necessary to monitor effectiveness and efficiency. On the human side of measurements, police training, disciplinary punishment, and job satisfaction and morale are criteria for monitoring organizational effectiveness and efficiency. Measurements comparing specific time periods, such as last calendar year versus the present calendar year, are essential to indicate whether improvement has been achieved (Swanson et al, 1993).

The Royal Thai Police

Historical Background of the Royal Thai Police

The Royal Thai Police is a large public organization composed of over 210,000 police officers. The old name for the Royal Thai Police was "Police Department". A police officer has the authority to enforce laws within the Kingdom of Thailand. Some units, very close to people, must operate and give service delivery 24 hours a day. A police officer is an official of the state and is responsible for keeping the peace in society, enforcing laws and orders enacted for controlling behavior, protecting life and property of people. Police tasks in Thailand have a long history, beginning with the period before the era of Krung Sukothai. The duties and responsibilities of the police organization have usually changed in every era of the country's history, from the security guard of the king to the western-type model of police in the era of King Rama

IV (Suwan Suwanvecho, 1996). The tasks of the police have changed and improved from time to time.

In the past, changes in the duties of the police force were subject to political changes and military coups. The governments in those times used police officers as a base for their political power and self-interest. The image of police officers has always been criticized either for human resource management or organizational design. The design was not consistent with the ongoing changes in the social, economic, and political environment. One of the main obstacles to the development of the police as an organization has been political interference into its internal administrative system, which still appears in the yearly appointment and transfer of police officers. For example, the Ministry of Interior removed five Director-Generals of the Police Department during 1974-1996, claiming that they were not able to solve problems relating to crime and respond to government policies.

The Police Department was subsequently restructured, changed, and diversified during 1991-1993. With the agreement of the Ministry of Interior, there were a number of decrees regarding the restructuring of the police organization. In 1994, for instance, the establishment of the Office of Forensic Science, the Narcotics Suppression Bureau (the one-step upgrading of the Special Branch from Division to Bureau) was adjusted from chief inspector to deputy superintendent or superintendent, depending on the size and jurisdiction of the organization. The restructuring of the Metropolitan Police Bureau involved three divisions (the Northern Bangkok Metropolitan Division, the Southern Bangkok Metropolitan Division, and the Thonburi

Metropolitan Division) which formed nine divisions, called Metropolitan Police Divisions 1-9. However, through all the restructuring, the bureaucratic form of organization, which underlined hierarchical supervision, and centralization, remained in place. In most cases, decision-making rested with a top-level administrator. Consequently, some problems such as red tape, a long chain of command, and other complexities were not solved. The proportion of personnel in staff functions had become top-heavy, whereas the number of police working in the line function in police stations had been become insufficient (Royal Thai Police, Office of Planning and Budget, 2001).

There have been many attempts at restructuring the police, with many design alternatives. For instance, placing the Police Department under the control of a Ministry of Police, composed of many departments, is a fairly popular alternative. This is because the Police Department would be free from the supervision of the Ministry of Interior in all levels, especially the position of general director. However, the success of restructuring the Police Department, whatever the organizational design, does not depend on itself, but on the government or political situation at the time. On October 74th, 1998, under the Government of Chuan Leekpai, with Major General Sanan Kajornprasert serving as Minister of Interior, the Police Department was transformed into the Royal Thai Police (Royal Decree on Organization of the Royal Thai Police, Ministry of Interior, Re: Transforming the old Royal Thai Police to the New, dated on October 14th, B.E. 1998). Figure 10 illustrates the structure of the Royal Thai Police.
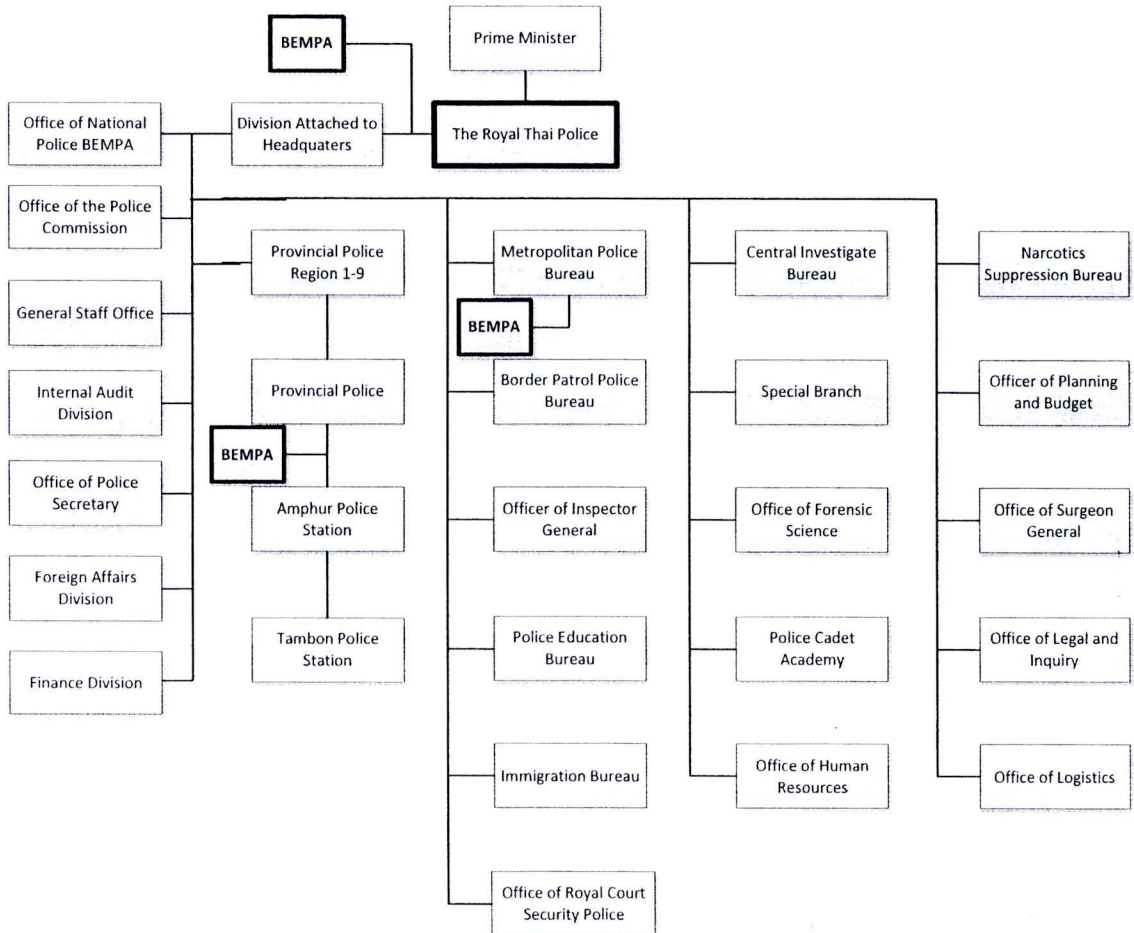
Figure 10 Organizational structure of the royal Thai police.

Note. From *Current Police Officer Statistics,* by Royal Thai Police Website, 2007, retrieved May 24, 2007 from http://www.royalthaipolice.go.th

According to Figure 10 the Royal Thai Police is an independent organization attached directly to the Prime Minister, an organization whose chain of command has been changed by removed from the supervision of the Ministry of Interior as was previously the case. Additionally, the establishment of the Board of Examination and Monitoring for Police Administration (BEMPA) emphasizes public participation in police affairs.

Establishment of Public Participation in the Mission of the Royal Thai Police

The Board of Examination and Monitoring in Police Administration (BEMPA) was established in order to improve all aspects in police administration and performance. This offers better opportunities for people to participate in police tasks and to examine police administration as stated in the Order of the Prime Minister on January 7th, 1999. The Royal Thai Police must follow the purpose of its organizational design by selecting the Board of Examination and Monitoring in Police Administration (BEMPA) at the national, metropolitan (Bangkok), and provincial levels.

The authority of BEMPA at the national level is as follows (Royal Thai Police, Office of Planning and Budget, 2001):

1. Giving advice and making recommendations for the setting of development policies on police administration

2. Examining and monitoring police officers' job performance

3. Recommending and advising methods to improve police officers' job performance

4. Receiving people's claims concerning police officers' performance under designation of BEMPA's regulations

5. Designating, rewriting, and improving criteria and procedures in selection of qualified committees at all levels

6. Designating criteria and procedures in appointment of committees at the police station level

7. Appointing sub-committees or working groups for performing any tasks as delegated by BEMPA

8. Accepting any responsibilities as delegated by the Prime Minister

The authority of BEMPA at the Bangkok and provincial level is as follows (Royal Thai Police, Office of planning and Budget, 2001):

1. Giving advice and recommendations on provincial or metropolitan police officers' job performance under the context of development policies

2. Coordinating examinations and monitoring provincial or metropolitan police officers' job performance

3. Receiving people's claims concerning police officers' job performance under responsibility of committees

4. Appointing Amphur (district) committees

5. Appointing sub-committees or working groups for performing any tasks as delegated by provincial BEMPA

6. Reporting works to BEMPA under BEMPA's regulations

7. Accepting any responsibilities as delegated by the BEMPA

Therefore, the results of all research related the improvement of police administration will lead to the setting of development policies pertaining to the administration of the police in order to enhance police officers' job performance and the services they provide.

Related Research on Job Satisfaction, Job Performance, and People's Satisfaction as Service Recipients

Relationship Between Job Satisfaction and Job Performance

Dereinda (1984) studied the relationship between job satisfaction and performance of 547 county agents in Wisconsin, U.S.A. and found that there was a positive relationship between these two factors. There was also a significant correlation between job performance and pay, as well as between pay and job satisfaction.

Regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and performance, Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1991) found that only eight of the 217 satisfaction-performance correlations exceeded .44, a degree of association that left 80% of the variance in one variable unexplained by the other.

Jakkrit Singsilarak (1997), who conducted a study entitled the "Effects of Police Sub-Inspectors' Job Satisfaction in Terms of Performance within the Organization", found that there was a clear relationship between job satisfaction and job performance, and that that highly satisfied police sub-inspector affected high productivity with a coefficient correlation of 0.40.

Related Research on Police officers' Job Performance

Metropolitan Police Bureau, the Royal Thai Police (1987) conducted an opinion poll on Metropolitan police officers' job performance with people living in Bangkok. They measure six characteristics and found the following:

1. Crime prevention and suppression. Police officers needed more improvement.

2. Criminal inquisition. Police officers also needed improvement.

3. Police service delivery at police station. Police officers' job performance was moderate on this characteristic.

4. Traffic, People were dissatisfied with police officers' traffic performance.

5. Police-community relations. People were also dissatisfied with police officers' job performance in police-community relations.

6. Metropolitan police officers' image and behavior. Police officers' image and behavior was at the moderate level.

In summary, people living in Bangkok were of the opinion that they were Dissatisfied with Metropolitan police officers' job performance, which needed more improvement.

Related Research on People's Satisfaction as Service Recipients

Brown and Coulter (1983) studied subjective and objective measures of police service delivery in Alabama. The subjective measures involved questions regarding people's satisfaction toward police protection and people's satisfaction toward police service delivery. The questionnaire was made up of two components: First, asking people's opinion as to how fast police officers arrived at the site of an incident after they had received a call. Second, it asked respondents to compare their own neighborhood and nearby areas in terms of police protection, the use of response time after receiving

a call, and police officers' behavior and performance when dealing with members of the public. In addition, questions covered their background, their experiences regarding police officers, being a crime victim, and their feelings of security. Objective measures were composed of statistics in terms of the crime rate per the size of the population, and the spent time when police officers arrived at the place of incident after they had received a call, which was measured in terms of the average response time and percentage of time pertaining to delays.

The study showed that only those factors pertaining to age and educational background were related to people's feelings towards police officers, while there was no relationship between the latter and sex, marital status, and occupation. In terms of personal connections, those who had a close relationship to police officers, such as cousins, had more positive opinions than those who had none. People who had experienced police officers' job performance had more negative feelings than those who had no experience in this regard.

Utayo (1996) conducted a study entitled "People's Satisfaction toward Police Service Delivery" for the purpose of studying people's satisfaction toward police service delivery and determining those factors causing satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The findings were that people were satisfied with police service delivery, with the correlation among the causal variables consisting of the clarity of service systems, the workflow processes, the provider's behavior and the people's satisfaction toward police service delivery. The most influential variable, people's satisfaction toward police

service delivery, was the providers' behavior, while the workflow processes and the clarity of the service systems were ranked as the least influential.

The recommendations for developing police service delivery were as follows: Delegating responsibility to police officers, establishing a good organizational culture, reducing the service process, promoting public participation, supporting advanced office automation, increasing accountability in the service system, and applying management concepts to allow for flexibility and rapid response. Therefore, the integration of the afore-mentioned concepts, theories, and related research and literature indicates that there are six variables:

1. Transformation to the Royal Thai Police
2. Decentralization
3. Public participation
4. Job satisfaction assessed through a self-report aimed at measuring six determinants: Pay, the work itself, opportunities for promotion, supervision, work groups, and working conditions.
5. Job performance assessed through a self-report aimed at measuring the following seven factors: Quality of work, quantity of work, timeliness, efficiency, job knowledge and skills, judgment, and adaptability.
6. People's satisfaction as service recipients assessed through a self-report regarding the following three factors: Police officers' behavior, the service process, and the productivity of the service provided by the police; the latter includes seven areas of activity: Patrolling, seeking public cooperation,

investigation, crime detection, traffic control, special duties, and other services provided by a police station that are not related to criminal cases.