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# Influence of Teacher-Student Relationship on Academic Performance: The Case of Tirana

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*Abstract*

The aim of the current study is to assess the impact of the teacher-student relationship on the academic performance of students 12 to 15 years old in the Albanian context. The analysis and evaluation of this relationship is an important issue as a qualitative relationship between them contributes not only to the students' academic but also to their socio-emotional development. The sample was composed by 121 students selected on three 9-years school of Tirana. Factorial analysis by the statistics method showed that the internal factors that influence the teacher-student relationship were related to individual traits as temperament, personality, ability, and psychological effects. It is precisely the role of the teacher through communication and meeting the needs of the student that influences the student's perception of behavior, competence, care, and support from the teacher. Classroom climate was an external factor that also affect the teacher-student relationship. It is precisely positive relationships that induce a good environment and foster motivation and high results. A qualitative teacher-student relationship affects academic and psycho-social development of student in the class.

*Keywords*: teacher-student relation, academic performance, internal factors, external factors.

## 1. Introduction

The main aim of the study is to assess the impact of the teacher-student relationship on the academic performance of students of 12 to 15 years old in the Albanian context. The primary research was based on the analysis of data collected at three 9-year schools in Tirana, Albania. It deals with the way in which students view and interpret the relationship with teachers and the impact of this relationship on their academic outcomes (Osbuth et al., 2016).

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The basic research question that needs to be answered here is: *Is there a significant relationship between the teacher-student relationship and academic performance of 12-15 y.o. students?*

Three core hypotheses were assessed in the present research:

*$H_1$. Characteristics of teachers influence the quality of their relationship with the students.*

This hypothesis aims to assess the impact of temperament, teacher behavior, and students' individual perceptions on the teacher-student relationship. A teacher who accepts suggestions and opinions and responds to students politely, has a qualitative teacher-student relationship.

*$H_2$. A good teacher-student relationship affects positively on the student involvement in learning.*

This hypothesis aims to assess the methods and ways that stimulate students' needs for connection, competence, and autonomy that affect engagement in the learning process.

*$H_3$. The classroom climate affects students' academic performance.*

The hypothesis aims to assess how a good environment promotes a high level of motivation. High levels of motivation are seen as an element that tends to enhance positively the academic outcomes.

The significant role of the teacher in the academic and lifetime success of students has been provided also by research (Blazar, 2015; Chetty, Friedman & Rockoff, 2014). Pianta, Hambre and Allen (2012) over the years conducted research on the impact of the teacher-student relationship on the academic outcomes of preschoolers, elementary and high-school education students. For the quality of teacher and student dyad a number of studies observed different aspects related to the relationship including support for autonomy, the emotional path influence, assessing classroom interaction, teacher empathy, students' perceptions of the relationship, teachers' perceptions, organization and classroom climate, feedback, communication and the teaching methods (Pianta, Hamre & Allen, 2012). Another study was also performed to confirm how classroom effects affected the outcomes of elementary school children (Pianta, Belsky, Vandergrift, Houts & Morrison, 2008). These studies have found that a positive relationship between teachers and students and student's support, would lead to significant improvements in the academic performance. There is also literature that highlights the impact of gender differences on teacher-student relationships and academic performance. Boys perceive being least supported and also more conflictual with the teacher regarding grades, than girls (Wu, Hughes & Kwok, 2010; Baker, 2006; Ryan & Deci, 1994). A positive teacher-student relationship enhances student involvement and participation in learning. Positive relations make students feel more motivated and engaged in the learning world. They also tend to work harder in the classroom, are persistent, accept instruction and criticism, cope better with stress, and pay more attention to teachers (Little & Kobak, 2003).

A student has a "successful performance" at the school if he "engages" within the institution the time needed to take place all the changes expected in terms of learning outcomes. The "expected changes" in the students completing their studies (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005) are represented by:

- the acquisition of *specific disciplinary skills*, typically assessable with the number of competences and skills acquired, the marks obtained, the results to the verification tests or the positions in ranking achieved (the performance variables).

- the occurrence of a less standardized *psychosocial changes* that relate to the sense of identity, self-esteem, self-efficacy beliefs, the meta-cognition and intellectual growth (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Harackiewicz, Barron, Pintrich, Elliot & Thrash, 2002).

- the acquisition of the so-called *transversal skills* or the skills necessary for the organization and fulfillment of school assignments and exam preparation (Elliot, McGregor & Gable, 1999; Anderson, Bonta & Thorn, 2002; Ferrett, 2000).

According to Pianta et al. (1992) who examined these events as a dynamic model of cause-effect, weak relationships with teachers emerge feelings of insecurity and anxiety in children. They also can prevent them gaining pleasure from learning and social activities (Hughes, 2012). Context, which is reflected in the characteristics of the teacher and the classroom environment, should be regarded as a changing dynamic that provides new opportunities to the teacher-student relationship. Studies examining stability in the teacher-student relationship have generally revealed a moderate stability from year-to-year indicating that dynamic impacts both stable features of the student and their changing contexts (Jerome, Hamre & Pianta, 2008). Therefore, interventions focused on improving academic achievement should give priority to the quality of the relationship (Yunus, Osman & Ishak, 2011). The present research explores the impact that the teacher-student relationship has on students' academic performance.

## 2. Methods and procedures

### 2.1 *Sample*

Participants of the current study are 130 students who are currently enrolled in 9-year schools in Tirana. The range of ages of the sample is 12 to 15 years old on a random selection from which 68 males (57%) and 52 females (43%) (M=19.4; SD=1.4). Data of the nine participants were excluded from the study due to the failure to complete a significant part of the instrument and the final sample consisted of 121 participants. The current research project was approved by the Order of Psychologists of Albania research ethics committee. The questionnaire was administered at an anonymous-based response and respondents were informed that none of the data coming from the survey would be linked to a specific identity.

### 2.2 *Statistical procedure*

All data collected were subjected to a series of psychometric procedures and tests using SPSS 23. Descriptive analysis was performed to examine the data characteristics of all variables, which include mean, standard deviation. Then, the relative chi-square test ($\chi^2/df$), variance evaluation and multiple regression were performed.

### 2.3 *Measures*

Two instruments were used for the data collection and analysis of the study:

The first tool used is the "*Student-teacher relationship scale*", a certified questionnaire firstly presented by Abdulrahman (2007) in the paper "*Student's views on student-teacher relationship: A questionnaire-based study*". The questionnaire is divided into four sections with a total of 22 questions. For each of the questions, students are asked to indicate the degree to which statements are characteristic of their teacher relationship and performance in a Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 4 = strongly agree). The first section of the questionnaire consists on the students' views on teachers related to their academic grades. In the second section it is aimed to assess the students' views on participation, controlling destructive behavior in the classroom, and

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the effect of relationship on academic grades. The third section regards the students' views on different aspects of the relationship and their assessment. The fourth section is composed of two open-ended questions that include the perceived teacher characteristics by the student. Table 1 presents the features of internal stability and validity of the used questionnaire.

Table 1. Questionnaire internal stability and validity

| Questionnaire | Cronbach's Alpha no.=170 | No.of questions |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Individual characteristics of teachers and students | .851 | 5 |
| 2. Students' involvement and participation | .871 | 10 |
| 3. Classroom environment | .908 | 7 |

The total internal stability calculated with the Cronbach's Alpha for all the 22 questions is equal to 0.782.

The second evaluation tool related to the academic performance and involvement in learning. Mark records were analyzed and semi-structured interviews were conducted to ask students about their progress in the school during the last 6 months.

### 3. Results

From the analysis of the questionnaire in the examination of the first hypothesis ($H_1$) the general regression model is significant as $F_{(3,117)} = 57.889$, $p < 0.001$, R square = 0.597. $H_1$ is not rejected.

In the coefficients table matrix, for every independent variable, the significance of each variable is considered separately. Thus, an independent variable was significant separately when α (.05) and compared with three p-values for each of the independent variables respectively (0.000, 0.014, 0.000) <0.05. From the variance analysis of the hypothesis, it resulted that F (df = 3) = 57.889.

$H_1$ therefore, is statistically significant F = 57.889> Critical F (α = 0.05) = 3.68.

From the Chi-square analysis, $\chi 2$ (df = 9) = 84.253. The greater the Chi-square, the more likely it is to have a relationship between the variables considered. Thus p <0.05 indicates that the individual teacher and student traits affect the quality of their relationship.

Our second hypothesis aims to assess the methods and ways that trigger student's needs for connection, competencies and autonomy and that affect learning involvement.

The general regression model is significant as $F_{(3,117)} = 31.271$, $p < 0.001$, R square = 0.445. That means not only that the regression was statistically significant, but also that the gender of the students has an impact on the perception-quality of the teacher-student relationship. In the coefficients table matrix, for each independent variable, the significance is considered separately. Results revealed that the independent variable was significant α (.05) and compared with three p-values for each of the independent variables respectively (0.031; 0.000) <0.05.

From the variance analysis of the hypothesis, it resulted that F (df = 3) = 31.271. Hypothesis $H_2$ is significant as F = 31.271> Critical F (α = 0.05) = 3.68.

From the Chi-square test, $\chi 2$ (df = 9) = 113.142. The greater the Chi-square value, the more likely it is to have a relationship between the variables considered. p <0.05 reveals that a good student-teacher relationship positively influences student involvement and participation in

the learning process. The third hypothesis regard the classroom climate and its impact on the academic performance of students. The general regression model is significant as $F_{(4,116)} = 18.583$, $p < 0.001$, R square = 0.391. Therefore, the regression was statistically significant as the characteristics of the classroom environment are related to academic performance and learning outcomes. In the coefficients table matrix, for each independent variable, the significance of each variable is considered separately. The independent variable was significant separately. α (.05) and compared with three p-values for each of the independent variables respectively (0.005, 0.001) <0.05. From the Chi-square analysis, $\chi^2$ (df = 9) = 35.927. The greater the Chi-square value, the more likely it is to have a relationship between the variables to be considered. As $p < 0.05$ we can conclude that the characteristics of the classroom environment are related to academic performance - student outcomes.

4. Discussion

The main purpose of the current paper is to assess the impact of the teacher-student relationship on the academic performance of 12- to 15-year-old in the Albanian context. Firstly, to determine whether the assessment made by the students is valid and reliable, a model constructed using SPSS was analyzed.

The constructed pattern explained the validity of the responses. Subsequently, several hypotheses were raised and analyzed through the statistical software. The hypotheses were constructed to evaluate if there were any relationships between the variables with the purpose of showing which factors affect students' ratings between variables.

From the analysis of the first it is revealed that individual features of teachers and students affect the quality of their relationship. Temperament, teacher's behavior and students' individual perceptions impact the overall quality of the academic relationship. This hypothesis confirms the theoretical basis previously analyzed by Pianta who explained the teacher-student relationship through a conceptual model. The main factors involved in his proposed relationship model were: (1) individual features, (2) the process by which information is exchanged between stakeholders and (3) external factors. In terms of individual traits, it included: demographic, psychological and developmental factors. Individual traits also include gender, temperament, personality, competencies and self-esteem. Teachers' perceptions and beliefs about students and their role are important in developing positive and encouraging relationships in the classroom.

Other significant data from the analysis of the present research, showed that students' gender also affect their perception of their relationship with the teachers and school academic results. Female respondents have shown a greater influence and closeness to the student-teacher relationship than males. Based on the perspective of gender role socialization, girls benefit more from close relationships with the teacher because closeness is consistent with the greater intimacy and attachment to social relationships expected by females (Maccoby, 1998). Girls are also more inhibited from conflicting relationships with teachers because behaviors as conflict or dominance are seen more in boys than in girls (Ewing & Taylor, 2009). The second hypothesis analysis showed that a good teacher-student relationship positively influences student involvement and participation in learning. Thus, the way the teacher organizes the course, as it meets the students' needs for connection, competence and autonomy, influence the engagement in the learning process. One of the questions we raised to control "*Student involvement and participation*" variable, is "*In general I trust my teacher's advice*".

From multiple regression analysis, the coefficients table showed that this independent variable is not a significant predictor on the impact of teacher-student relationship and student involvement. This is not very surprising as all students, regardless of their relationship with the teacher or their participation, are for the most part aware that teacher advice is reliable.

The third hypothesis was controlled by the validity of classroom climate and its influence on the students' academic performance. Classroom climate (characteristics of the classroom environment, student involvement and participation in learning) affect students' academic performance. A good environment promotes motivation which in turn is seen as an element that tends to positively enhance academic performance. This is also confirmed by the theoretical basis that teacher-student interactions predict positive developments for all children as well as filling in the gaps of children with different risk groups (Brophy & Good, 1986; Gage & Needels, 1989; Rimm-Kaufman, Storm, Sawyer, Pianta & La Paro, 2006; Skinner & Belmont, 1993; Stipek, 1998). Another supporting argument was given by the research of Patrick et al. who considered class context as a significant tool of achievement (Patrick, Mantzicopoulos & Sears 2012). Not only classroom environment, but also the emotional support and guidance of the teacher play a significant role on the engagement and involvement of students in the learning process and academic achievement (Pianta, La Paro, Payne, Cox & Bradley, 2002). One of the questions we raised to control the "*Characteristics of the classroom environment*" variable, is "*In your opinion, if there is a disruption in the classroom, the teacher's most appropriate action is to exclude the class?*" and "*In your opinion, if there is a disruption in the classroom, the teacher's most appropriate action is to ignore it*?" Data analysis revealed that both reactions are not significant predictors of the impact on the perception of classroom environment characteristics and the resulting connection with academic performance and student outcomes. This is normal as all students, regardless of their relationship or their participation in the classroom, influenced by contemporary teaching methods, have been faced with inclusive rather than exclusionary or ignoring teacher behaviors. Meeting students' needs leads to increased engagement in the class. Student participation in learning has a positive impact on academic achievement.

5. Conclusions

*In conclusion*, we can say that throughout its psychogenic evolution, the relationship between teacher and students' characteristics plays a significant role on the quality of the relation of them. This is highlight even by relative research as Zamarro et al. (Zamarro, Engberg, Saavedra & Steel, 2015). Individual traits of teachers and students, the way the teacher manages the classroom, temperament, approach to learning and students, affects the quality of the teacher-student relationship are important factors in influencing the quality of the latter relationship. Gender is an important feature in developing supportive relationships in the classroom that influences a student's perception of their relationship with the teacher and school outcomes.

Meeting students' needs for connection, competence and autonomy, affect the latter engagement and participation in the learning process. So, a good teacher-student relationship creates an inclusive classroom where each class member finds himself engaged.

The classroom climate is an important external factor where the characteristics of the classroom environment and student engagement positively influence and motivate academic achievement. The internal factors that influence the teacher-student relationship include individual traits as temperament, personality, ability and psycho-social dynamics. It is the role of the teacher through communication and meeting the student's needs that influences the student's perception of behavior, competence, care and supporting networks from the teacher.

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# Meaningful Work, Quality of Work-life, and Job Satisfaction: A Study of Nightlife Workers

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## Abstract

Work is a means for man to fulfill their needs. However, from the positive psychology point of view, work is more than to fulfill the needs but beyond that reason. Work experiences provide added value to man's lives and societal growth. Nightlife industries are hardly researched even though these industries have been growing vastly. Workers in these areas are similar to other workers from different types of industries in that they make meaning of their work and experience job satisfaction and quality of their work-life. This research aimed at testing the contribution of the quality of work-life and meaningful work toward job satisfaction of female nightlife business workers. Path analysis using PLS-SEM shows that the job satisfaction of nightlife workers is predicted by their meaningful work and quality of work life. In this study, meaningful work acts as a mediator in the relationship between quality of work-life and job satisfaction.

*Keywords*: quality of work-life, job satisfaction, meaningful work, nightlife workers.

## 1. Introduction

A "sexually" oriented business industry is one industry sector that is rarely a concern in studies. Furthermore, the industry is formed in a disguised or even secretive manner so that the operations of this business are very seldom known (The Bureau of Business Research, 2009). Businesses in nightlife or adult entertainment can take various forms such as karaoke, house massage, and men's only spa, escort service, and discotheques. Nightlife entertainment like this has flourished, even reaching small towns and even suburbs in Indonesia.

Various skills and knowledge are needed in this industry. For example, every line of business requires professional security services, public relations skills, massage skills, customer service skills, IT specialists, on-site medical personnel, singers as karaoke guides, multi-media, and electrical experts. Of course, every worker following their respective fields has unique experiences gained from their work activities.

The majority of night entertainment workers are women. The Indonesian Law No. 13 of 2003 Article 5 on Manpower explains that "Every worker has equal opportunity without discrimination to get a job." This provision could be used as the basis for many women who choose to be involved as workers in the nightlife entertainment industry.

- Every worker, at some time, must have thought about their work and its impact on their life in general.
- Meaningful work has been shown to affect essential work engagement and job satisfaction.
- The value of work's purposes in people's views of life and attitudes can be linked to variables in organizational behavior.

Having a profession as a worker in adult nightclubs can lead to negative stereotypes for female workers. Of course, this will bring meaning to what they do as night entertainment workers and the meaning of their work environment.

Every worker, at some time, must have thought about their work and its impact on their life in general. Night entertainment workers are no exception to this. Night entertainment workers can interpret their work as something that is contributive to social or economic development. Through their work, night entertainment workers can also feel the meaning of achievement in their life. He can benefit from what he gets through his work to improve the welfare of his family or other people around him. This indicates the importance of having meaningful work for workers.

Frankl (1984) states that the search for meaning in life is the main power humans have in their lives. Through the meaning of life, a person can realize a goal in his life, which is the personal responsibility of that person. Work is a real action responsible for someone who realizes that work is a personal responsibility to achieve a meaningful life.

Geldenhuys and Venter (2014) state that because individuals spend a lot of time working, their work and work activities become one activity center for achievement in their lives. Therefore, it is essential to note that the work process, type of work, and workplace are areas of life where workers try to make sense of their work.

A good life goal is genuinely desirable, significant, meaningful, and valuable (Steger, Frazier, Oishi & Kaler, 2006). The meaning of life is considered very important and valuable and gives special value to someone so that they are worthy of being a goal in life. When it is fulfilled, it will cause a person to feel meaningful life and, in the end, will cause a feeling of happiness (Bastaman, 2007). Those who think their life is meaningful have higher self-esteem and rarely experience depression and anxiety (Steger et al., 2006). One of the factors that can give meaning to someone's life is the meaningfulness of work.

There are articles on the nature of work that characterize meaningfulness as having many cognitive, mental, behavioral, and economic benefits and making essential and constructive changes to the meaning of people's lives. The value of work's purposes in people's views of life and attitudes can be linked to variables in organizational behavior (Hatice & Mine, 2016).

Although there is no generally agreed concept of work, Baumeister and Vohs (2002) indicated that the heart of work was the sense of "bond" and relied on good outcomes for both the person and the organization. Meaningful work can be described as the positive and significant contribution that a job makes to an individual's sense of purpose in life and the happiness that a person derives from his or her job (Rosso, Dekas & Wrzesniewski, 2010). Increased meaning of work can result in various cognitive, mental, behavioral, and economic benefits for individuals (Ardichvili, 2009; Steger, Dik & Duffy, 2012). The true driver of interest in meaning, in this case, is the hypothesis that personal and organizational effects are linked to one's understanding of the meaning (Rosso et al., 2010).

A variety of management philosophies have recognized the significance of meaningful work over the last decade. It has been shown to affect essential work engagement (May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004) and job satisfaction (Sparks & Schenk, 2001). Meaningful work helps resolve the

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question, "Why am I here?" when something is essential (Pratt & Ashforth, 2003). As measured by the individual's own values or expectations, the importance of a job goal or intention is known as meaningfulness (May et al., 2004). It is described as "the meaning made of, and importance felt about, the essence of one's being and being" in career literature. (Steger et al., 2006). Job satisfaction is higher for those who believe their work has a greater meaning and function (Kamdron, 2005).

The quality of work-life has become a concern of organizations, especially human resource development (Lian, Lin & Wu, 2007). More and more employees are very concerned about the quality of life. Several studies have found a significant relationship between the quality of work-life and the meaning of life. If employees have a high-quality work-life, this can potentially lead to meaning in life; conversely, if the quality of work-life is low, it can potentially cause employee work stress. (Pisheh, 2012; Charu, 2013; Bolhari, Rezaeean, Bolhari & Zare, 2012).

According to Paul E. Spektor (2003), job satisfaction has a reflective relationship with job stress. Several studies explain that there is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and meaningful life. Companies must continually maintain and pay attention to job satisfaction and the meaning of each employee's life (Manzoor, Usmar, Nassem & Shafiq, 2011).

The research questions that need to be answered are: (1) Does the quality of work-life predict job satisfaction in the night entertainment industry? (2) Does the quality of work-life predict meaningful work in the night entertainment industry? (3) Does the meaningful work of workers predict job satisfaction in the night entertainment industry? and (4) Does meaningful work play a role as a mediator in the relationship between quality of work-life and job satisfaction in the night entertainment industry?

Four primary hypotheses in this study are:

$H_1$. The quality of work-life predicts job satisfaction in the night entertainment industry.

$H_2$. The quality of work-life predicts the meaningful work of workers.

$H_3$. The meaningful work of workers predicts job satisfaction in the night entertainment industry.

H4. The meaningful work mediates the relationship between quality of work-life and job satisfaction of workers in the night entertainment industry.

## 2. Method

### 2.1 *Participants*

Participants involved in this study were female men-only spa therapists, amounting to 87 participants. Their mean age was 24.20 years (SD=4.074). The majority of participants have a high school education background, as described in Table 1.

Table 1. The participants' educational background

| Education | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|---|---|---|
| Elementary | 3 | 3.4% |
| Junior High School | 28 | 32.2% |
| Senior High School | 47 | 54% |
| Academy | 3 | 3.4% |
| Undergraduate | 6 | 6.9% |
| Total | 87 | 100% |

2.2 *Instruments*

We used the work and meaning inventory (WAMI) developed by Steger, Dik & Duffy (2012) to measure the meaningfulness of work. WAMI has three dimensions, namely positive meaning, meaning-making through work, and greater good motivation. The positive meaning dimension measures the level of meaningfulness of work based on the individual's meaning, significance, and goals at work. The meaning-making through work emphasizes the broader meaning of the individual in his work. In this dimension, the individual tries to interpret his work as a source of experience in his life. Finally, the greater good motivation measures how much individuals value the efforts made in work to contribute positively to society at large. The three dimensions can be added together to produce a total score of meaningful work. The score reflects how meaningful work is to individuals, the amount of investment the individual has invested in his life (work as an investment), and considers it a source that enriches his life. Respondents use a 5-point scale ranging from absolutely untrue to absolutely true to rate the scale's items.

The instrument used to measure the quality of work-life was adapted from Donaldson, Sussman, Dent, Severson and Stoddard (1999). The QWL scale consists of six items describing six dimensions or aspects. The six dimensions are (a) my workplace provides a good working environment for its employees (my company provides a good working environment for its employees), (b) I am happy working at my workplace at this time (I am happy at my company), (c) my job does not stress me (my work is not stressful), (d) I have good relations with every co-worker in my workplace (I get along well with my co-workers), (e) I get supervision good from my supervisor (I have good supervision at work), and (f) I feel my career is safe (my job security is good).

We used the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) to measure job satisfaction. The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) consists of two dimensions, namely intrinsic (14 items) and extrinsic (6 items). The MSQ has 20 items based on job satisfaction characteristics. The scale uses five response categories from not satisfied (1) to extremely satisfied (5).

3. Results

3.1 *Meaningful work description*

Descriptive statistical analysis on the Work and Meaning Inventory (WAMI) shows that no item has a standard deviation (SD) value which is extreme; namely, the standard deviation (SD) on each dimension is not <0.5. The meaningful work variable has three categorizations, namely: (1) low, with the formula ($X \leq \mu$-$\sigma$); (2) moderate, with the formula ($\mu$-$\sigma$ <$X \leq \mu + \sigma$); and high with the formula ($X> \mu + \sigma$). Classification of the low category is at a score of ≤1.724; the medium is at a score range between 1.724 and 3.908, and the high is at a score of > 3.908. Table 2 presents the classification of the participants' meaningful work variable.

Table 2. Category meaningful work dimension

| Dimension | M | SD | Category |
|---|---|---|---|
| Positive Meaning | 2.816 | 1.09233 | Moderate |
| Meaning Making Through Work | 3.086 | 1.38976 | Moderate |
| Greater Good Motivation | 5.506 | 1.07095 | High |

Based on the classification above, the positive meaning dimension of the participants is moderate; meaning-making through work is categorized as moderate, and participants' greater good motivation is high.

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### 3.2 *Quality of work-life description*

The quality of work-life variable has three categorizations, namely: (1) low, with the formula (X ≤ μ-σ); (2) moderate, with the formula (μ-σ < X ≤ μ + σ); and high with the formula (X> μ + σ). Classification of the low category is at a score of ≤ 2.538; the medium category is at a score of 2.538 - 3.220; the high category is at a score of X>3.2200. From Table 3, the participants' quality of work-life is categorized moderate.

Table 3. Calculation of standard deviation (SD) per dimension

| Dimension | M | SD | Category |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Wellness* | 2.8793 | 0.3407 | Moderate |
| *Save Environment* | 2.9847 | 0.3170 | Moderate |
| *Employee Participation* | 2.9579 | 0.3325 | Moderate |
| *Equitable Compensation* | 2.6954 | 0.5065 | Moderate |
| *Communication* | 3.0728 | 0.3715 | Moderate |
| *Career Development* | 2.9052 | 0.3836 | Moderate |
| *Conflict Resolution* | 3.0529 | 0.3665 | Moderate |
| *Job Security* | 2.8391 | 0.3451 | Moderate |
| *Pride* | 2.8456 | 0.2964 | Moderate |
| *QWL* Total | 2.9148 | 0.1879 | Moderate |

### 3.3 *Job satisfaction description*

Job satisfaction consists of three categorizations, namely: (1) low, with the formula (X ≤ μ-σ); (2) moderate, with the formula (μ-σ <X ≤ μ + σ); and height with the formula (X> μ + σ). Classification of the low category is at a score of ≤2,685, the medium category is at a score of 2.685-4.003, and the high category is at X > 4,003. The following is a table that describes the frequency of the participants' overall job satisfaction.

Table 4. Category job satisfaction dimension

| Dimension | M | SD | Category |
|---|---|---|---|
| Intrinsic Job Satisfaction | 3.2701 | 0.66414 | Moderate |
| Extrinsic Job Satisfaction | 3.4195 | 0.72642 | Moderate |

### 3.4 *Measurement model of the study*

### 3.4.1 *Reflective measurement model*

Composite reliability, indicator reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity should be tested for reflective measurement models in which latent variables describe behavioral concepts such as job satisfaction, quality of work-life, and meaningful work. Table 5 shows the quality criteria of the measurements.

Table 5. The quality criteria of the measurements

| Variable | Cronbach's Alpha | Rho A | Composite Reliability | Average Variance Extracted (AVE) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Job satisfaction | .896 | .900 | .950 | .906 |
| Meaningful work | .785 | .828 | .867 | .686 |
| QWL | .902 | .906 | .925 | .674 |

Convergent validity is the degree to which metrics belonging to the same latent variable evaluate the same construct. The average variance extracted (AVE), which is commonly used to determine convergent validity, shows how much of the variance in the variables can be interpreted by the latent variable. An AVE greater than 0.5 has been proposed as an observational justification for convergent validity, as the resulting latent variable describes more than half of the variation in the belonging metrics. Therefore, all other latent variables explain less than half. The AVE values show a value greater than 0.5, which means that the convergent validity has been fulfilled.

Discriminant validity implies that two latent variables intended to describe two distinct theoretical ideas are statistically distinct. The HTMT should be less than 0.85 (stricter threshold) or 0.90 (softer threshold) or slightly less than 1. The HTMT of meaningful work to job satisfaction in our case is 0.496, which is less than the suggested threshold of 0.85. (and of 0.90). However, the quality of work-life to job satisfaction does not show good discriminant validity because the value is 1.04 over 1.00.

Cronbach's and Dillon (also Goldstein's known as Jöreskog's or composite reliability) coefficients can be used to measure the reliability of the constructs. A Dijkstra–A Henseler's value greater than 0.707 is considered rational since the latent variable will explain more than 50% of the variation in the constructs. All of the variables composite reliabilities are bigger than 0.707. Therefore, the composite reliabilities are good.

The outer loadings inform the indicator loadings. The outer loading calculations can be used to determine indicator reliability. Since PLS standardizes factor loading calculations, the squared factor loading estimation equals the expected indicator reliability. It is commonly recommended that factor loadings be greater than 0.7, meaning that the resulting latent variable will explain more than 50% of the variance in a single predictor. Table 6 presents the outer loadings of the variables. Table 6. The outer loadings of the constructs have reached the minimum criteria of good indicator loading.

Table 6. The outer loadings of the variables

| Variables | Job satisfaction | Meaningful work | QWL |
|---|---|---|---|
| Extrinsic | 0.948 | | |
| Greater Good | | 0.771 | |
| Intrinsic | 0.956 | | |
| Meaning Making Through Work | | 0.824 | |
| Positive Meaning | | 0.887 | |
| QWL1 | | | 0.700 |
| QWL2 | | | 0.810 |
| QWL3 | | | 0.848 |
| QWL4 | | | 0.868 |
| QWL5 | | | 0.899 |
| QWL6 | | | 0.788 |

3.4.2 *Composite model test*

The composite model necessitates examining the composite model in terms of multicollinearity. Since high multicollinearity can lead to insignificant estimates and unexplained weights, collinearity among indicators forming an emergent variable should be investigated using

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the variance inflation factor (VIF). The VIF values greater than five (5) are considered to be indicators of multicollinearity. Table 7 shows the VIF values of each dimension.

Table 7. The VIF values

| Dimensions | VVIF |
|---|---|
| Extrinsic | 2.928 |
| Greater Good | 2.245 |
| Intrinsic | 2.928 |
| Meaning Making Through Work | 1.338 |
| Positive Meaning | 2.519 |
| QWL1 | 1.973 |
| QWL2 | 2.525 |
| QWL3 | 3.825 |
| QWL4 | 3.227 |
| QWL5 | 4.702 |
| QWL6 | 2.319 |

The VIF values for the composite model indicators range from 1.973 to 4.702, indicating that multicollinearity is not an issue in our results.

### 3.5 *Structural model of the study*

In assessing the structural model, we looked at the overall fit of the estimated model, the direction coefficient path, their significance and the effect sizes ($f^2$). To gain empirical evidence for the suggested hypothesis, we first determine the overall fit of the estimated model using the bootstrap-based test of overall model fit and the SRMR as a metric of approximate fit.

The SRMR (0.090) was more than the suggested threshold of 0.080, meaning that the model fit was not adequate. This finding implies that the proposed model is not well suited for verifying and describing the quality of work-life capabilities to predict job satisfaction mediated by meaningful work. This bias might be due to the small sample size (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

The effect size is a measure of an effect's significance that is independent of sample size. The $f^2$ values ranging from 0.020 to 0.150, 0.150 to 0.350, or greater or equal to 0.350, respectively, indicate a small, medium, or high impact scale.

Table 7. The f square

| Variables | Job satisfaction | Meaningful work | QWL |
|---|---|---|---|
| Job satisfaction | | | |
| Meaningful work | 0.261 | | |
| QWL | 7.597 | 0.124 | |

In our study, the $f^2$ values for hypothesized relationship ranging from 0.124 to 7.597. Meaningful work effect size to job satisfaction is medium, the effect size of QWL to job satisfaction is high, and the effect size qwl to meaningful work is small.

The structural model test of the path of coefficients among variables is presented in Figure 1.
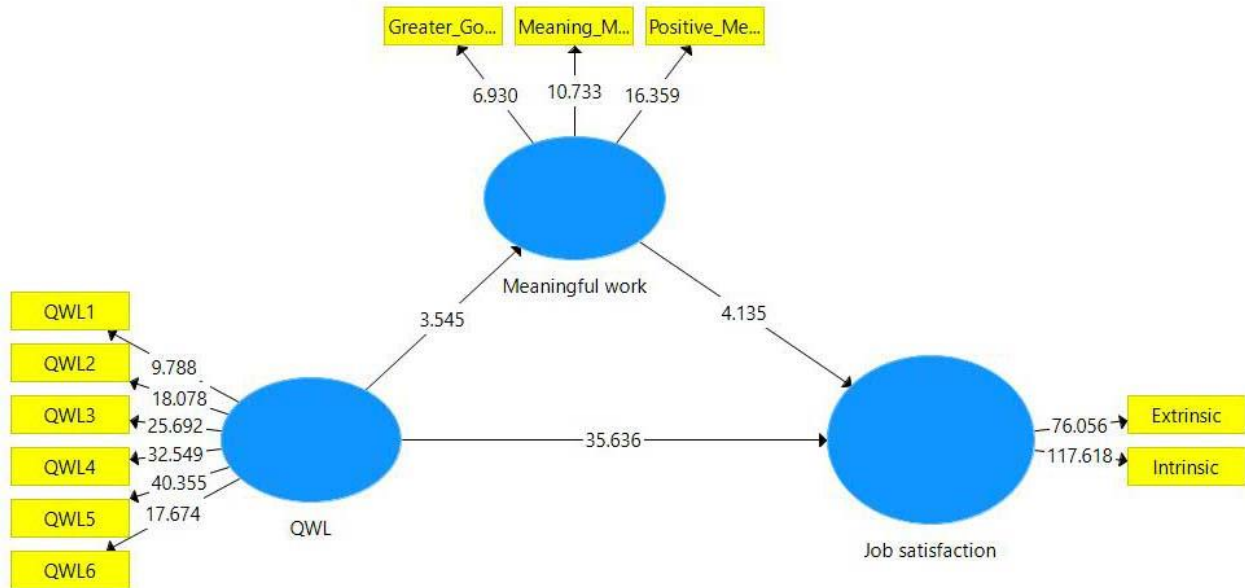
Figure 1. The structural model test

More detailed information regarding path analysis and its coefficients is summarized in Table 8. In testing the influence of meaningful work on job satisfaction, hypothesis testing proved that meaningful work has positive and significant effects on job satisfaction. $H_1$ was supported. $H_2$ is supported by the fact that QWL predicts job satisfaction positively. $H_3$, which states that QWL has an impact on meaningful work, is also supported by the result.

Table 8. Mean, STDEV, T-Values, P-Values

| Path | Original Sample (O) | Sample Mean (M) | Standard Deviation (STDEV) | T Statistics (|O/STDEV|) | P Values |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Meaningful work -> Job satisfaction | 0.164 | 0.166 | 0.040 | 4.135 | 0.000 |
| QWL -> Job satisfaction | 0.886 | 0.883 | 0.025 | 35.636 | 0.000 |
| QWL -> Meaningful work | 0.332 | 0.354 | 0.094 | 3.545 | 0.000 |

Hypothesis 4 is seen in Table 9. The role of QWL on job satisfaction was mediated by meaningful work, which revealed that meaningful work has a mediation impact on the relatiomnship between QWL and job satisfaction.

Table 9. Specific indirect effects

| | Original Sample (O) | Sample Mean (M) | Standard Deviation (STDEV) | T Statistics (|O/STDEV|) | P Values |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| QWL -> Meaningful work -> Job satisfaction | 0.054 | 0.058 | 0.019 | 2.922 | 0.004 |

## 4. Discussion

Studies related to QWL, the meaning of work, and job satisfaction have never touched a work organization that manages a nightlife business. This study is perhaps the first to explore how the three variables are related.

The classic definition of QWL by Lawler (1982) is described as being linked to job characteristics and work environments since the overall aim of QWL in the company was to increase employee well-being and productivity support. According to Serey (2006), QWL is synonymous with meaningful and satisfying work. It includes the ability to put one's talents and skills to use in the face of obstacles and circumstances that necessitate self-initiative and self-direction.

QWL is a holistic definition of physical and psychological well-being, economic circumstances, personal belief, and environmental contact. In contemporary management, the concept of job quality has been transformed into a social problem, while in recent decades, only personal life has been stressed (Mirkamali & Narenji Sani, 2008). The definition of job quality is subjective creativity and the opinion of organizational staff regarding the physical and psychological desirability of work environments and their work circumstances (Yavari, Amir Tash & Tondnevis, 2009).

During 1980 to 2006, research was carried out on the quality of work-life and their results suggest that the quality of work-life is linked to certain factors, such as satisfaction with the job. Employment satisfaction is characterized as a concept, perception, and positive attitudes and emotions of people about the occupation influenced by certain factors such as working atmosphere, organizational structure, the job environment, and socio-cultural factors (Mirkamali & Narenji Sani, 2008; Armstrong, 2006). Our study also finds that the quality of work-life predicts job satisfaction positively. Finally, it is undeniable that a high level of QWL contributes to work satisfaction, leading to excellent and productive efficiency.

This research was influenced by the idea of the meaning of work, which is a positive variable, and the relationship between levels of meaning of work and job satisfaction. As the results are analyzed, it is discovered that there is a major positive relationship between career value and job satisfaction. This result corroborates previous research indicating that job satisfaction is higher in people who believe their jobs have a greater function (Sparks & Schenk, 2001; Kamdron, 2005).

## 5. Conclusion

This study aims to determine the dynamics of job satisfaction variables, meaningful work, and quality of work-life of workers in the night business. This study explores the relationship between the variables studied based on the role of mediation and tested by PLS-SEM in a different context from traditional studies related to job satisfaction, meaningful work, and quality of work-life variables. The results of the analysis show that the quality of work-life predicts meaningful work and job satisfaction. Meaningful work also indicates job satisfaction. In addition, meaningful work acts as a mediator between the quality of work-life relationships and job satisfaction. These findings suggest that the study of the quality of work-life, meaningful work, and job satisfaction in the context of the adult nightlife business is also in line with traditional studies of all these variables in the normative business and organization context.

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# Concerns About own Security Among Police Officers in Relation to Some Demographic Factors

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*Abstract*

The research demonstrates that working in the field of civil security is a stressful and dangerous occupation which determinates negative impact on police officers' experienced level of own security, which grows into concerns about own security. The examination of concerns about own security included 264 police officers (Mean=36.11). Women have higher values of concerns about their own security (Mean=38.86), than men (Mean=34.67). Police officers who lived in the capital have higher concerns about own security (MR=149.10). The correlation analysis shows a weak proportional relationship between age and concerns about own security among police officers (r=0.146; p=0.018).

*Keywords*: Concerns, security, fear of crime, police officers.

## 1. Introduction

Law enforcement activity and its responsibility place many and varied demands on the individual police officers. They are expected to remain calm despite the danger, scorn, ridicule, or demonstration of "respect" and impose themselves restraint and goodwill, thinking about others' well-being (Ganchevski et al., 1996). The main roles of the police are fighting with and preventing crime, upholding the law, bringing to justice those who break the law and protecting, helping, and reassuring the community (Button, 1999). When they solve professional issues or in situations related to official activities, the problem of own security of police officers is currently gaining particular relevance and importance. The risk, both physical and psychological, is an objective component in law enforcement officers' professional activities.

The specifics of police officers' professional activities are mainly related to the fight against crime and the protection of public order. One characteristic of the profession is the presence of many stressors. The conditions under which the professional activities are carried out, are dynamic, changeable, and carry tremendous potential risk for the employees' health and life (Ganchevski et al., 1996). Given the current characteristics of society, it can be argued that the work of police officers is extremely difficult, dangerous, and stressful. They operate in an environment full of uncertainty and danger, linked to the constant threat of crime, terrorist attacks, growing use of firearms in urban areas, low human and material resources, difficulties in teams or supervision processes, criticism from citizens and society, and lack of understanding from family or friends (Queirós et al., 2020). At the same time, high levels of unemployment, rising

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domestic crime and its ineffective prevention create preconditions for an increased sense of insecurity for the health, life, and property of police officers, both as citizens and as professionals.

For solving the problem of preserving the health and professional longevity of the police officers, a purposeful management policy is needed to ensure their own security. To achieve this goal, police officers must create the necessary conditions to carry out the tasks, assigned to them. They should preserve public order and protect their colleagues, citizens, buildings, premises, documents, weapons, ammunition, and unique means from criminal encroachments by the actions of criminal communities and persons who pose a threat to their own security, prevention, and localization of the negative consequences of these actions.

The importance of psychological research on tendencies and peculiarities in examining concerns about own security among police officers is reflected in the need to update psychological methods and strategies to deal with fear, worry anxiety, depression, stress, and burnout as related phenomena.


2. Definition of concerns about own security

When studying the reactions to a threat to about own security, anxiety is traditionally in the focus of the psychology research. At the same time, there are not so many researches on the study of concerns about own security among police officers. It is considered in the framework of studying the personal safety of employees or in the context of extreme, emergency situations, etc. It is an emotional reaction or emotional state. At the individual level, people's reactions are expressed in increased caution, increased anxiety, and experiences of fear in certain situations. However, when people think about their security, they do not necessarily experience negative emotions. Most often, they take various actions to prevent the occurrence of such experiences. The consequences of this are diverse – increased expenses for the protection of their own homes and property, proliferation of weapons for self-defense, limiting the public activity of citizens in certain places and at certain times of the day, changes in economic behavior (Radoslavova & Velichkov, 1999).

The literature analysis made it possible to present the interpretation of "concerns about own security" as spontaneous thoughts, mostly with verbal content (but not necessary), about potential dangers and unpleasant events that can cause negative emotional experiences (Borkovec, 1994; Borkovec et al., 1998).


3. Mental phenomena similar to concern about own security

A phenomenon, which is connected with concern, is "worry" (Wells, 2004; Borkovec, 1994; Borkovec et al., 1998). According to APA Dictionary of Psychology (2021) worry is a "mental distress or agitation resulting from concern usually for something impending or anticipated" (APA Dictionary of Psychology, 2021). Worry can be defined as repetitive, uncontrollable thoughts about potential negative life events (Segerstrom et al., 2000; Roemer & Borkovec, 1993). Nolen-Hoeksema, Wisco and Lyubomirsky (2008) suggested that worry is future-oriented and focuses on threats that have not yet occurred. Worry is a key feature of generalized anxiety disorder (GAD; American Psychiatric Association, 2013) such as negative automatic thoughts (Flouri & Panourgia, 2014).

Many researches are focused specifically on the anxiety (Hasain, 2019; Wagner et al., 2019) and professional stress of police officers (e.g., Agolla, 2009; Galanis et al., 2019; Johnson et al., 2019), while others have investigated police officers' burnout (e.g., Queirós et al., 2020; Aguayo et al., 2017; Adams & Mastracci, 2019). Anxiety is a central explanatory concept repeatedly and thoroughly studied and can be found in almost all contemporary theories of personality. Moreover,

anxiety is regarded as a principal causative agent for such diverse behavioral consequences as insomnia, immoral and disgraceful acts, instances of creative self-expression, debilitating psychological and psychosomatic symptoms, and specific mannerisms (Spielberger, 2013). It can be defined as an emotion characterized by apprehension and somatic symptoms of tension in which an individual anticipates impending danger, catastrophe, or misfortune (VandenBos, 2015). It can generally be divided into pathological and nonclinical. Beck and Clark (1997) believe that difference is that in pathological anxiety there is a biased or overestimated perception of danger, which does not correspond to the exigencies of the internal or external environment, whereas in nonclinical anxiety states the estimation of threat corresponds more closely to the objective dangers in the environment.

Anxiety may be differentiated from fear both on a conceptual and physiological level, although the two terms are often used interchangeably. Anxiety is considered a future-oriented, long-acting response broadly focused on a diffuse threat. In contrast, fear is an appropriate, present-oriented, and short-lived response to a recognizable and specific threat (VandenBos, 2015).

Other specific phenomenon, which are very close to concerns about own security are the concern of crime and fear of crime. Fear of crime can be defined as an emotional response to possible violent crime and physical harm (Covington & Taylor, 1991). While concern about crime can be seen as positive, as it encourages people to take precautions against victimization, "fear of crime may have adverse emotional effects on people, causing feelings of isolation and vulnerability. This often leads to significant losses in personal well-being" (Hale, 1996: 2).

### 4. Security as a psychological construct

The other part of the dyad "concern – security" is security itself. It can be defined as an internal state of calm and trust in the external environment, and the feeling of personal security is a more general experience of the possibilities to counteract in the event of a threat (Velichkov, 2004). In this sense, it is an important prerequisite for optimal organization and regulatory processes to achieve various goals and meet personal needs. Violation of the sense of personal security leads to the emergence of a stress response and directing regulatory processes to eliminate the threat (Folkman, 1984). Maintaining a state of security has a profound motivational basis and is associated with basic human needs – the need for safety (Maslow, 1987; Murray, 1981; Lazarus, 1991).

In the opinion of Zotova (2011) "psychological security is the state of an individual when he/she can satisfy his/her basic needs for self-preservation and perceive his/her own (psychological) shelteredness in socium" (Zotova & Karpetyan, 2018: 103).

Zotova and Karapetyan (2018) assume that strategies associated with the provision of security are aimed at identifying and preventing threats. According to them, the main proposes are: (a) Protection of human life; (b) Protection of people from existing threats; (c) Provision of vital rights and freedoms for all people; (d) Creation of political, economic, social, and cultural conditions under which people can live knowing that their rights and freedoms are secured (Zotova & Karpetyan, 2018). The sense of security is always subjective (Wendt, 1992).

### 5. Need for safety

According to Maslow's theory, there are five categories of human needs. It is well known as physiological, safety–security, belongingness, esteem, and self-actualization) (Maslow, 2002). The second one in this classification is the need for safety and security. It is considered one

of the most important psychological needs, and it is the basis of personal well-being and mental health.

To understand the meaning of the safety–security needs, it is necessary to identify the types of threats that could provoke the safety–security response and the conditions that satisfy these needs. Because this level of need is conceptually higher than the previous level, the terms used as threats to safety refer to both concrete and abstract things. Such concerns about potential dangers could be wild animals, criminal assault, disease, war, anarchy, social chaos, natural catastrophes, and, in more peaceful times, the lack of such things as job security, financial security, medical insurance, and retirement security (Maslow, 1943).

Modern society has a relatively high level of real security. However, people still need more security and are watching for various possible dangers and threats (Zotova & Karpetyan, 2018). When a person feels insecure in his environment, his psychological well-being decreases and he becames extremely sensitive to "future shock" (Toffler, 2002).

In this research, the focus is on concerns about own security in the context of a specific professional activity involving danger, responsibility, and stress, such as policing. Due to the specifics of the profession, it is logical for police officers to feel some concerns about their own security and depend on various internal and external circumstances. Personal safety is based on a sufficient level of professional training of workers (Ustinova & Sultanova, 2018). This presupposes the possession of knowledge and skills for applying appropriate work methods, formed personal attitude to survival, psychological qualities that adequately assess the situation, make quick and correct decisions, and not lose control in dangerous situations.

## 6. Method

### 6.1 *Participants*

The survey involved 264 respondents. The results presented in Table 1 indicate that the majority of the respondents were men (58.3%). The sample consisted of 110 women (41.7%) The age of the respondents ranged from 25 to 58 years. The average age of the respondents was 41 years (SD=7.93), for women 43 (SD=8.036) and for men 39 (SD=7.605). Of the other demographic characteristics we surveyed, most respondents stated that they live in marriage (n=123; 46.6%), most respondents live in town (n=134; 50.8%), the second (master) degree of university education was also reported by the majority of respondents (n=106; 40.2%). Convenience and purposive sampling method have been used.

Table 1. Social-demographic characteristics, number,
and percentage of the participants divided into groups

| Characteristics | Total | % |
|---|---|---|
| Sex | | |
| Male | 154 | 58.3 |
| Female | 110 | 41.7 |
| Education | | |
| Secondary | 66 | 25% |
| Bachelor degree | 92 | 34.8 |
| Master degree | 106 | 40.2 |
| Place of residence | | |
| Village </= 5,000 | 68 | 25.8 |
| Town </= 100,000 | 134 | 50.8 |
| Capital | 62 | 23.5 |
| Marital status | | |
| Single | 42 | 15.9 |

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| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Cohabitation | 72 | 27.3 |
| Marriage | 123 | 46.6 |
| Divorced | 27 | 10.2 |

### 6.2 *Instruments*

One paper-and-pencil questionnaire measuring the level of concerns about own security was used. Radoslavova and Velichkov (2005) created it in Bulgarian. The scale for assessing the level of concerns about own security consists 15 items and its Cronbach's alpha is 0.92. All the answers were given on a 5-point scale. The response alternatives were from 1 – never to 5- very often (Radoslavova & Velichkov, 2005). The socio-demographic data were also collected.

### 6.3 *Procedure*

The questionnaires were submitted to respondents in the period June 2020 – August 2020 Respondents were informed that completing the questionnaire is voluntary and anonymous and that data will only be processed in the framework of this research study. All respondents expressed their agreement to participate in the research. The collected data were analyzed in IBM SPSS Statistics 19.

There were no missing data in the dataset.

Applying descriptive statistics for establishing the frequency distributions of levels of concerns about own security. Independent T-Test, ANOVA and non-parametric test of Kruskal-Wallis were used. Pearson correlation coefficient and connections between the studied variables.

### 7. Results

The examination of concerns about own security included 264 police officers. The average value of their concerns about own security is 36.11 (SD=10.08). The demographic statistics of the respondents are presented in Table 2 alongside the level of concerns about own security The results show that 58.3% from the surveyed police officers have middle level of concerns about own security, and 33.6% of them have high level. As a conclusion of these results, it can be argued that the bigger part of police officers who participated in the study have significant concerns about their own security.

Table 2. Levels of concerns about own security depending
on demographic factors: Number and percentage

| Demographics | Low level | | Middle level | | High Level | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | % | N | % | N | % | N |
| **Sex** | | | | | | | |
| Male | 11 | 4.2% | 93 | 35.2% | 50 | 18.9% | 154 |
| Female | 5 | 1.9% | 61 | 23.1% | 44 | 16.7% | 110 |
| Total | 16 | 6.1% | 154 | 58.3% | 94 | 35.6% | 264 |
| **Place of residence** | | | | | | | |
| Village </= 5,000 | 3 | 1.1% | 40 | 15.2% | 25 | 9.5% | 68 |
| Town </= 100,000 | 13 | 4.9% | 78 | 29.5% | 43 | 16.3% | 134 |
| Capital | 0 | 0% | 36 | 13.6% | 26 | 9.8% | 62 |
| Total | 16 | 6.1% | 154 | 58.3% | 94 | 35.6% | 264 |
| **Education** | | | | | | | |
| Secondary | 5 | 1.9% | 36 | 13.6% | 25 | 9.5% | 66 |
| Bachelor degree | 4 | 1.5% | 53 | 20.1% | 35 | 13.3% | 92 |

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Master degree | 7 | 2.7% | 65 | 24.6% | 34 | 12.9% | 106 |
| Total | 16 | 6.1% | 154 | 58.3% | 94 | 35.6% | 264 |
| *Marital status* | | | | | | | |
| Single | 3 | 1.1% | 27 | 10.2% | 12 | 4.5% | 42 |
| Cohabitation | 5 | 1.9% | 40 | 15.2% | 27 | 10.2% | 72 |
| Marriage | 8 | 3.0% | 72 | 27.3% | 43 | 16.3% | 123 |
| Divorced | 0 | 0% | 15 | 5.7% | 12 | 10.2% | 27 |
| Total | 16 | 6.1% | 154 | 58.3% | 94 | 35.6% | 264 |

The results of the comparisons using Independent Simples T-Test for the statistic procedure showed significant differences between men and woman, who working as police officers in terms of concerns about their own security (t=2.785; p=0.006) (Table 3). In particular, it can be said that women have higher values of concerns about their own security (Mean = 38.86), than men (Mean = 34.67).

Table 3. Results from independent simples t-test for finding
significant differences in concerns about own security

| | Sex | M | SD | T | df | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Concerns about own security | Male | 34.67 | 10.05 | 2.785 | 262 | 0.006 |

A non-parametric test was used to track differences in concerns about own security regarding different demographic factors. It was elected Kruskal-Wallis Test because of the nonsymmetrical distribution. The only significant difference was registered in the case of different places of residence (village, town, capital). The analyses show that police officers who lived in the capital have higher concerns about own security (MR=149.10). For the entire sample, the differences were not statistically significant, although there was a tendency police officers with a bachelor degree to have higher concerns about own security compared with police officers with secondary and master degree. Married and divorced participants have higher values of concerns about own security compared with single police officers and those in cohabitation (Table 4).

Table 4. Results from nonparametric test of Kruskal-Wallis for finding significant
differences in concerns about own security in relation of demographic factors

| | Place of residence | N | MR | $X^2$ | df | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Concerns about own security | Village </= 5,000 | 68 | 140.05 | | | |
| | Town </= 100,000 | 134 | 120.05 | 6.651 | 2 | 0.036 |
| | Capital | 62 | 149.10 | | | |

| | Education | N | MR | $X^2$ | df | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Concerns about own security | Secondary | 66 | 134.04 | | | |
| | Bachelor degree | 92 | 139.23 | 1.584 | 2 | 0.453 |
| | Master degree | 106 | 125.70 | | | |

| | Marital status | N | MR | $X^2$ | df | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Concerns about own security | Single | 42 | 128.13 | | | |
| | Cohabitation | 72 | 130.29 | | | |
| | Marriage | 123 | 132.97 | 0.720 | 3 | 0.869 |
| | Divorced | 27 | 143,06 | | | |

As could be seen from table 5, there is low but significant correlation between the age of the respondents and the concerns about out security (r=0.146; p=0.018). Almost the same values is viewed from the column about years of work experience as police officer and concerns about own security (r=0.133; p=0.030).

Table 5. Results from Pearson Correlation for finding lineal connection between age, years of work experience and concerns about own security

|  | Concerns about own security | |
| --- | --- | --- |
|  | r | p |
| Age | 0.146 | 0.018 |
| Work experience as a police officer (years) | 0.133 | 0.030 |

8. Discussion

This paper began by arguing that concern about own security is a phenomenon that is directly related to the fear of crime, anxiety and worry. It is difficult to determine the exact boundary between these phenomena due to the vastness of the human psyche. However, there should be no doubt that the presence of such experiences leads to a decrease in well-being, ability to work and quality of life. Concerns about own security was found at middle and high levels among police officers, who participate in this study. Factors can be numerous – bad lifestyle, personal and economic difficulties, but given the peculiarities of working as a police officer, it is reasonable to assume that this is a leading factor.

In addition, this research was aimed to test for differences in concerns about own security among police officers in relation to some demographic factors. In the first place, this study examined whether differences in concerns in own security were different among police officers with different gender and age. The statistical analysis shows that women have higher values of concerns about their own security than men do. The research on fear of crime shows that women have higher levels of fear of crime, even though their levels of victimization are lower than men (Clemente & Kleiman, 1977; Madriz, 1997). Some scholars have reported that women's fear of crime is a result of situations with a variety of acts of aggression committed by male assailants, such as intimidation and violence against women (Gordon & Riger, 1991; Franklin & Franklin, 2009), and as result of their perception about vulnerability which includes the fear of rape and other crimes with a sexual character (Fisher & Sloan, 2003; Wilcox, Jordan & Pritchard, 2006; Franklin & Franklin, 2009). Can it be argued that this statistical result is an effect of the perception of concepts of social roles of men and women?

In second place, the research also identified significant differences between concerns about own security and place of residence. Statistical analysis show that police officers, who live in capital have higher concerns about own security than police officers, who live in other places of residence. These results lead to numerous questions. First is about the nature of concern. Is the concern an outcome of the criminogenic conditions, which appear to flourish in a capital environment, or it is a product of the feeling of depersonalization in the big city?

The results of the study revealed a weak proportional relationship between age and concern about own security among police officers. This result can be summarized as a tendency for older police officers to concern more than younger ones. Similar data are reported by other studies on fear of crime, which indicates that women and older persons are highly afraid of crime (Braungart, Braungart & Hoyer, 1980; LaGrange & Ferraro, 1989; Greve, Leipold & Kappes, 2018).

9. Conclusion

In conclusion, it can be noted that concerns about own security are found at high levels among police officers. The literature analysis shows that high levels of concerns can lead to impaired well-being and ability to work and reduce quality of life. Concerns about own security is very close stage to worry and anxiety

 Ensuring the professional safety of police officers is a complex problem, the solution of which depends on a large number of both objective and subjective factors. In this regard, a lot of work is required on the part of managers to provide quality psychological services on the one hand, and police officers personally to take care of their mental health. It is advisable for police officers periodically resort to the methods of psychology and psychotherapy in order to reduce the feeling of concerns about their own security. This in turn will help for reduce stress, anxiety and increase performance.

9.1 *Limitations and future implications*

The main limitation is the small and unequal sample and the fact that "concerns about own security" are explorable only in relation to socio-demographic factors.

It is recommended for future research to study more mental phenomena and personal characteristics in order to enrich the knowledge about the dynamics of the phenomena "concerns about own security".

Acknowledgements

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