A lot of research has been done in the field of work motivation and satisfaction and many psychologists have tried to explain it in terms of certain needs, interests and values. One theory that has explored these factors is Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. According to this theory, the individual personality is dynamic and strives incessantly to satisfy a hierarchy of needs with an inherent tendency towards self-actualisation. As soon as one dominant need is satisfied, the next one in the hierarchy comes to the fore and demands satisfaction. When one studies this Hierarchy of Needs it becomes apparent that work can serve as a satisfier of most of man's needs.

There might also be different sets of motives for working. Workers, whose physiological needs and security needs have been satisfied through the money that they earned, will tend to seek acceptance from the people with whom they work. Having satisfied their need for belonging and acceptance, they are likely to seek esteem through work achievements, recognition and promotion. When all their basic needs have been fulfilled they might reach the stage where they want to fully actualise their potential and fulfill their needs for self-actualisation.

Considering Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs in terms of job loss it becomes clear that this can have a major influence on a person's motivation and the fulfilment of basic needs.

The void that has been left by the loss of his work in terms of basic need fulfilment now needs to be filled by some other activity. A person who has functioned on a particular need level may also find that they are regressing to a former needs level. What is a tragic however, is to see how many people willingly reduce themselves to a former functioning level by being concerned only about the size of their "package" on exiting the workplace instead of looking for opportunities that can fulfil their other basic needs, allowing them to function on the same level as they were functioning on leaving the company.

Although there are many arguments against this theory, it provides one with a useful framework to understand what role work plays in the basic needs fulfilment of the human being and contributing to the meaning of a person's life.
Other psychologists have come up with other theories and following from this a number of other needs have been identified and extensively researched. Some of these needs, which are closely related to work, are: (Gerdes 1988:248)\(^5\)

- The need for achievement
- The need for power
- The need for affiliation.

The need for achievement motivates a person to compete and strive for success. By excelling and being better than others, his self-esteem increased. A person with a strong need for achievement will likely be satisfied by a job that involves competition, provides a challenge and offers a fair chance on success.

The need for power may be perceived as a need to have impact through powerful action, aggressiveness, giving help and persuading others. It also has to do with a person's concern for his reputation and prestige.

Occupational choice is more often than not influenced by a need for power. People with above average power needs are often find in positions of social power such as chairpersons of societies and organisations and in careers in which they are able to exert strong influence on others such as business management, teaching, pastoral occupations and psychology. According to Mc Clelland (1975)\(^6\), people with a strong need for power have been found among criminal lawyers, politicians and journalists.

A need for affiliation is a need to be with people. People with a strong need for affiliation would rather seek for opportunities where they can interact and co-operate with people rather than surpass them. They are also more concerned with achieving acceptance and maintaining positive relationships, than with personal success.
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1.1 Problem and its setting

"Few managers are genuinely surprised when the results of an employee satisfaction survey are revealed. You really don't need the science of statistics to know that people aren't entirely pleased with every aspect of their work lives." – IT Management News

The training industry in the past few years is facing at least some amount of faculty dissatisfaction especially in the private sector.

It is important to understand the level of satisfaction of the teaching faculty, since they play an important role in moulding tomorrow’s leaders.

Job satisfaction is a primary requisite for any successful teaching learning process. It is a complex phenomenon involving various personal, institutional and social aspects. If the teachers attain adequate job satisfaction, they will be in a position to fulfill the educational objectives and national goals.

This research aims at identifying the importance of job satisfaction in the life and career of teachers. Job satisfaction of the teaching faculties, who have an important place in the society, will affect the quality of the service they render.

1.1.1 The Importance of Job Satisfaction

The most important evidence that indicates that the conditions of an organization got worsened is the low rate of job satisfaction. The job satisfaction is the condition of establishing a healthy organizational environment in an organization.

Individuals want to maintain statute, high ranks and authority by giving their capabilities such as knowledge, ability, education, health etc. to their jobs for which they spend most of their time. The individuals who cannot meet their expectations with regard to their jobs become dissatisfied. Thus, this dissatisfaction affects the organization for which s/he works.
Job satisfaction is very important for a person's motivation and contribution to production. Job satisfaction may diminish irregular attendance at work, replacement of workers within a cycle or even the rate of accidents (Kahn 1973:94).

This research assesses the major aspects affecting job satisfaction and ranks them by importance.

**Traits of Employees with higher job satisfaction**

Employees with higher job satisfaction:

- believe that the organization will be satisfying in the long run
- care about the quality of their work
- are more committed to the organization
- have higher retention rates, and
- are more productive.

**Traits that affect job satisfaction**

Numerous research results show that there are many factors affecting the job satisfaction.

Satisfying factors motivate workers while dissatisfying ones prevent. Motivating factors are achievement, recognition, the job conducted, responsibility, promotion and the factors related to the job itself for personal development. Motivating factors in the working environment result in the job satisfaction of the person while protective ones dissatisfy him/her (Herzberg 1969:21).

If people compare their achievements and the resulting awards with the others' achievements and awards, and the result is balanced, then we can talk about job satisfaction. In contrast, if the result is imbalanced, then dissatisfaction will exist. In addition, if some workers receive several awards compared to others, this will result in a feeling of guiltiness after a certain period of time, which causes dissatisfaction (Adams 1963:425).

Maslow connects the creation of the existence of people's sense of satisfaction with the maintenance of the classified needs. These are: physiological needs (eating, drinking, resting, etc.), security needs (pension, health insurance, etc.), the need to love (good relations with the environment, friendship, fellowship, to love and to be loved), need to self-esteem (self-confidence, recognition, adoration, to
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be given importance, status, etc.) need of self-actualization (maximization of the latent [potential] power and capacity, development of abilities, etc.).

The individual's willingness to get a result, his/her endeavor and expectation of maintaining the result will push him/her to show the highest performance.

The difference between the results that the individual desire and those s/he maintained will affect his/her satisfaction (Nash 1975:32). There is a consistent relationship between the professional status and the job satisfaction. High levels of job satisfaction are observed in those professions that are deemed of good standing in the society.

The workers usually compare their working conditions with the conditions of the society, under the variable of social conditions. If the social conditions are worse than the individual's working conditions, then this will result in satisfaction of the individual, as the workers deem themselves relatively in good position.

Age is one of the factors affecting job satisfaction. Studies conducted in five different countries prove that the elder workers are more satisfied (Davis 1988:100). Köse (1985) has also found a meaningful relation between the age and job satisfaction.

The results of several studies show meaningful relations between job satisfaction and:

- social relations (Köse 1985; Onaran 1979:137-163).
- the size of the organization and self-development (Köse 1985) and
- achievement and the use of talents (Sencer 1982:3-48).

The effects of the motivator and hygiene factors on the job satisfaction do not vary according to sex (Bilgin 1986).
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It has been proved that job satisfaction and devotion to the job affected each other reciprocally, and they have great impact upon performance (Ergenç 1982: 49-55).

Insufficient education, inability to select qualified workers for the job, lack of communications, lack of job definitions, all affect job satisfaction negatively (Yncir 1990).

It has been asserted that participating in the management (D'Elia 1979: 283-302; Lynch and Verdin 1983: 343-447; Wellmaker 1985: 3471 A), having the decision making power (Rockman 1985: 45-63; Wellmaker 1985: 3471 A), independence on the job (D'Elia 1979: 283-302; Rockman 1985: 45-63) and the unit where the individual works (Lynch and Verdin 1983: 434-447; Hamshari 1986: 3179 A) have positive impact upon the job satisfaction. Plate and Stone (1974: 97-100) has pointed out that the job itself (the work conducted), and achievement and recognition at work result in satisfaction while the management policy, relations with the managers and colleagues result in dissatisfaction. D'Elia (1979: 283-302) has disclosed that factors related to the job itself such as using talents, creativity, responsibility, recognition have influence on the job satisfaction.

No meaningful relationship between the job satisfaction, and age (Scammel and Stead 1980: 3-8; Wellmaker 1985: 3471 A; Hamshari 1986: 3179 A), professional experience (Scammel and Stead 1980: 3-8; D'Elia 1979: 283-302; Hamshari 1986: 3179 A), education level (Wellmaker 1985: 3471 A; Hamshari 1986: 3179 A), level of wage (Hamshari 1986: 3179 A; Vaughan and Dunn 1974: 163-177), sex (D'Elia 1979: 283-302; Lynch and Verdin 1983: 434-447; Wellmaker 1985: 3471 A) and professional group (Prybil 1973: 94-100) was found. On the contrary, professional experience has been claimed to increase job satisfaction. (Lynch and Verdin 1983: 434-447; Wellmaker 1985: 3471 A). Similarly, by some researchers, sex is also found to have an influence on job satisfaction (Rockman 1985: 45-63).

1.1.2 Motivation improves Job Satisfaction

It may not be possible to always satisfy people. Complete satisfaction just isn't part of the human condition. We are a restless and ambitious species.

It may not always be desirable to satisfy people. Satisfaction doesn't always guarantee productivity though dissatisfaction has a direct impact. Satisfaction does not always spark creativity. There's a reason why the old saying goes. "Necessity is the mother of invention." rather than, "Abundance is the mother of invention." It is not always true that big paychecks and job security were the source of their group's outstanding performance.
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The range of things we measure to gauge job satisfaction distracts from what's really important and distorts the true state of our organizations. There are a few things that are critical for trainer's happiness: cool work, fair pay, good relationships and a reasonable belief that the future holds more of the same. Most of the things we measure are important only if these primary things are missing, in which case there's already a problem.

So, what should you do about a dissatisfied workforce? From the rants above, you might think that the answer would be that you should do nothing, but that's not exactly the case. It's not that workers' dissatisfaction is unimportant, but alleviating it shouldn't be our primary focus.

This research suggests that we need to look instead at their motivation since it has much more of a direct impact on what they can achieve than their satisfaction does and is also much more important for the organization's collective success. People who are motivated are focused on their work more than on their personal satisfaction. Motivated teams can operate at many levels of job satisfaction. Motivation can also be a great source of job satisfaction.

So, given all the budgetary constraints that most of us work under today, what can we do to help motivate our staff? Here are a couple of simple suggestions that don't cost much.

First, select wisely. This is the most important thing one can do to ensure that they have highly motivated teams. To have a motivated team, pick people to be on the team who are motivated to be on it. Take a minute to think about that, because when most of us are assigning people to projects, we do a quick assessment based on all the wrong questions. Usually managers choose based on who's available, who's got the skills and who's done something just like this before. They're all good criteria, but none of them is likely to ensure that you've got a motivated team. Try looking also at who wants to be on this project: who wants to learn a new technology, business or project role; and who would want to work with the people who have already been selected for the team.

Second, engage the staff in improving its own motivation. No matter how busy everyone is, you should be able to carve out just a little time to encourage discussions about what would improve conditions. Try taking small groups of staffers to lunch once a week to discuss their perspectives on how things are going. At worst, they'll know that you're interested in their concerns and points of view. You'll also get the chance to explain the constraints of the situation. At best, you'll get some great ideas that can be implemented to actually make a difference and improve satisfaction, motivation and productivity.
When faced with a disaffected workforce, remember that the opposite of dissatisfaction isn’t satisfaction, but motivation. If you want your employees to be productive, engaged, excited about coming to work and likely to stick around when job prospects improve, spend more time thinking about how to motivate them rather than how to satisfy them.

1.2 Review of literature

The Hawthorne Experiments conducted in the 1920s and 1930s, under the leadership of Elton Mayo (Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1939) identify the importance of social needs in the workplace and the way that work groups can satisfy these needs by engaging in unplanned activities; the Tavistock Institute becoming involved with socio-technical theories in 1949. Their studies of factors affecting productivity in coal mining demonstrate that the introduction of new technology may not have the intended benefits. Indeed, the new technology appeared to be having a deleterious effect on job satisfaction at the coal face. Trist & Bamforth (1951) and Trist et al. (1963) discuss the findings, where it was discovered that the newly introduced technology had destroyed established group-based forms of working, diminishing the miners’ degree of responsibility for controlling and co-ordinating their work. These findings are a reflection of the relationships between the individuals and groups associated with the situation, and bring to light the importance of considering organisational politics and power conflicts when introducing technology (Cumming, 1981; Morgan, 1986; Mintzberg, 1992). As individuals at work we have aspirations, which Morgan (1986) refers to as interests. These are not necessarily the same aspirations as our colleagues (or employer). When our aspirations are different to those of our colleagues, or employer, conflict occurs. Figure 1 demonstrates that individuals have needs, which, through the application of a driving force, can be met - or frustrated. Much of the work related to this field is built upon earlier pioneering work in the field of human 'needs' and what motivates a person to work; a topic about which much is written in the literature (Maslow, 1943; Herzberg et al., 1959; Vroom, 1964; McGregor, 1966). The usual way to resolve areas of conflict is through the exertion of power, defined by Dahl (1957) as getting somebody to do something that he or she would not otherwise have done. However, based on the work of the motivation theorists, from an IS perspective, individuals are more likely to be motivated to use a system if they perceive that use of the system will help to achieve a desired goal - not if they are coerced into using the system. This is clearly demonstrated in Figure 1. Further examination of Figure 1 demonstrates that frustrated aims (goals) are likely to lead to aggression, regression, etc. which demonstrates a negative attitude towards the system, and possibly the organisation as a whole.
Thus, if the delivered system is to be 'successful' (as previously described), the political situation within organisations should not be ignored when considering systems within organisations and the relationships between individuals and groups.

When enquiring into the shape and structure of organisations it has often been found useful to use metaphors to explain concepts (Morgan, 1997; Smircich, 1983; Handy, 1991, 1993; Walsham, 1991, 1993a). In particular, enquiring into organisational culture through the use of a metaphor is useful to aid understanding of how organisations 'exist' (Pheysey, 1993; Morgan, 1997). The literature demonstrates that there is no clear definition for organisational culture (which has its roots in anthropology). Even anthropologists disagree as to a definition. Kroebner & Kluchholm (1952) refer to 164 definitions! Paradoxically, Rosenberg's (1993) 'Dictionary of Business & Management', hasn't a single entry for either 'culture' or 'organisational culture'. Similarly, although the Concise Oxford Dictionary (1990) has several definitions of culture, none relate specifically to organisations or social groups. Why this should be the case is an enigma, as there is an abundance of publications in the management literature that allocate whole chapters to organisational culture, or indeed devote the whole text to such issues (Peters & Waterman. 1982; Schein, 1985; Frost et al., 1991; Pheysey, 1993; Brown, 1995). Regarding definitions of organisational culture in the academic literature, Johnson & Scholes (1993, p. 46) use Schein's (1985) definition, such that culture is seen as a:

Deeper level of basic assumptions and beliefs that are shared by members of an organisation, that operate unconsciously and define in a basic 'taken for granted' fashion an organisation's view of its self and its environment.
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Stacey (1993, p. 41) defines the culture of an organisation as:

that set of beliefs, customs, practices and ways of thinking that they have come to share with each other through being and working together. It is a set of assumptions people simply accept without question as they interact with each other.

Denison (1990, p. 2) sees an organisation's culture as:

Culture refers to the underlying values, beliefs, and principles that serve as a foundation for an organisation's management system as well as the set of management practices and behaviours that both exemplify and reinforce those basic principles.

Sathe (1985, p. 10), quoted in Pliskin et al. (1993), states that culture is:

The set of important assumptions (often unstated) that members of a community share in common.

Pheysey (1993, p. xiii) defines culture as:

commonly held values, but also common beliefs and attitudes. It prescribes the 'way we do things here'.

Whilst the above definitions contain different elements and offer different perspectives, e.g. Stacey's 'sharing' perspective with Denison's managerial perspective (domination?), they also have three common attributes, either implicit or explicit in each definition:

i) Values

ii) Assumptions

iii) Beliefs

The above authors appear to agree that these traits are important elements that make up an organisation's culture. Indeed, values, assumptions and beliefs, at the micro level, are largely what makes each one of us individual - our personality. Much of this can be seen to be atavistic, in that individuals in societies, in general, owe much to their forebearers. As Hoecklin (1994, p. 23) states that:

culture is about pervasive, deeply held and implicit beliefs and values, it is indeed difficult to find a language with which to discuss it or to explore its consequences.

At the macro level, the classic exposition on classifying national cultures is given in Hofstede (1980). Another excellent exposition of how societies differ is given in Pascale & Athos (1981), whereby culture is viewed at both the organisational and, indeed, continental level. The Japanese

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'way of doing things', i.e. culture, is compared and contrasted with examples in USA. Where the authors find similarities between East and West, these are in the 'objective' elements of organisations, namely strategy, structure and systems - referred to as 'hard' components. In the more subjective areas of staff, style, skills and suprarordinate goals there are major differences. Named the 7S's model by the authors, this exemplar demonstrates that, in general, there are fundamental differences between how the USA and Japan view organisations and work. The same model can be applied to Japanese & UK companies. Different, but still fundamental dissimilarities abound. Similarly, applying the model at the micro level demonstrates differences between individual organisations - even ones operating in the same industry. This is because each organisation's culture is unique (Hatch. 1998). The author must be aware of this when developing the research instrument, to ensure that the language used in the questionnaire is appropriate for use in UK, and not likely to be misinterpreted by respondents. Primarily using UK based literature on developing research methods, and treating non-UK based material with caution should assist this matter.

Different cultures exist not only at the individual, national or continental level. Whyte's (1943) famous 'Street Corner Society' illustrates how social background and upbringing determine an individual's cultural perspective and how (s)he will act within a social group. Why Whyte's work is important, is that it demonstrates that societies may be seen as organisations of individuals. These individual people form themselves into groups, with accepted standards of behaviour. Deviate from the expected behaviour pattern and you will be resented or rejected from the group. These principles apply equally well to life in UK organisations. Organisational culture includes accepted standards. Often these standards have developed from a strong leader in the organisation, usually the founder. It is the founder who has the vision and gives the organisation its strategic direction. This person defines the basic beliefs and values for the organisation, and the acceptable behaviour patterns of individuals who operate within the organisation. According to Deal & Kennedy (1982), the strength of an organisation's culture plays a large part in the success (or otherwise) of the organisation. An organisation with a weak culture, i.e. no clear cultural focus such that many sub-cultures abound, can waste time trying to decide what should be done and how. An organisation where the culture is strong, i.e. where the workforce have a tightly focused cultural stance, will understand how to act in a particular situation. In other words, they will know 'what to do'. Thus, the thing that determines an organisation's culture is the 'what'. As stated by Payne (1990, p. 7):
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At the most general level all collectivities have to deal with issues about what they are trying to do together, who has power, authority, responsibility, etc., how different roles will be done, what rewards and sanctions will apply and for what values, behaviours, etc., and ultimately they have to deal with why these purposes and social processes are the ones to adopt.

To summarise the discussion so far, organisational culture may be considered as the amalgam of:

i) Culture as an adaptive regulatory mechanism, uniting individuals into social structures.

and:

ii) Organisations as adaptive organisms operating within their environment (Smircich, 1983).

Organisational culture is, in effect, a shared reality by a group of individuals. It is termed a 'social glue' by Siehl & Martin (1981), holding together an organisation, as discussed in Smircich (1983). Culture involves communication between individuals, i.e. shared semantic models between organisational stakeholders. These shared semantics, what Lytinen (1985; 1987b) refers to as 'language', are subject to satisfactory 'transportation' across a medium, as the discussion shows when considering the GCM (Harry, 1994). Thus, IT may be seen as an enabling medium for IS. Like IS, this is subject to social interpretation. As stated by Sahay et al. (1994, p. 248):

Actors may understand technology in different ways, and it is likely that different groups may form different interpretations.

The development and subsequent implementation of computerised IS inevitably brings about changes, such as a change of job roles, a change of the distribution of power (Markus, 1983), in effect a change of 'the way of doing things'. Poulymenakou & Serafeimidis (1995) suggest it is unlikely these changes can be implemented successfully, without addressing the concomitant organisational context, i.e. culture. They state that:

to achieve change requires much more than technology. Certainly, information technology often acts as the main driving force, but it is the ability to accept and foster change which is the overriding factor and is often embedded in the cultural dimension of organisations. (My emphasis)

Daniel & Hogarth (1990) report only minimal worker resistance to technological change, based on their research findings. However, in the same paper, they report a much stronger resistance to organisational change. This is somewhat enigmatic, as Poulymenakou & Serafeimidis (1995) suggest that technological change forces organisational change anyway. Computerised IS are often built and implemented into organisations through following a systems development methodology.
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(SDM). However, not all approaches to systems development consider the organisational context (culture) and change as key components. Traditional SDMs, such as SSADM (Ashworth & Goodland, 1990), or Information Engineering (Finkelstein, 1989), offer us a positivist view of the world and treat the word 'system' from an ontological perspective. As Watson & Wood-Harper (1996, p. 63) state:

- analysts have often neglected the way meaning varies with organisational context in favour of developing a general static structure
- analysts have therefore frequently taken only the formal aspects of an information system seriously.

The concept of job satisfaction has numerous definitions. Some of these definitions are listed:

According to Vroom (1967:99), job satisfaction is the reaction of the workers against the role they play in their work. Similarly, Blum and Naylor (1968:364) define job satisfaction as a general attitude of the workers constituted by their approach towards the wages, working conditions, control, promotion related with the job, social relations in the work, recognition of talent and some similar variables, personal characteristics, and group relations apart from the work life.

Job satisfaction is the total of the sentiments related with the job conducted. If the worker perceives that his/her values are realized within the job, s/he improvises a positive attitude towards his/her job and acquires job satisfaction (Mc Cormic and Tiffin 1974:74).

"The extent to which rewards actually received meet or exceed the perceived equitable level of reward" (Porter & Lawler, 1968)

"The implicit assumption underlying human relations rhetoric...[is] that worker satisfaction results from external factors in the work situation"

"It wholly overlooks the possibility that a person may choose to be satisfied or dissatisfied and that chronic satisfaction or dissatisfaction can be a life strategy.....The meaning of that strategy for high performance may be difficult to assess" Bassett (1994) The case against job satisfaction. Business Horizons, May-June

Betts, & Cano. (1987) have attributed job turnover, absenteeism and job burnout to a lack of job satisfaction. Relatedly, Grady (1988) conducted a study which found support for a possible causal chain leading to job turnover/retention. The chain proceeded from individual expectation through
commitment propensity, along with meaningfulness of the job to increased commitment, through intention, and finally to turnover/retention.

The impact of job dissatisfaction goes far beyond the previously mentioned consequences. Mowday (1984) suggested that the negative effects of job turnover on organizations may include: increased costs to recruit, select, and train new employees; demoralization of remaining employees; negative public relations; disruption of day-to-day activities; and decreased organizational opportunities to pursue growth strategies. In order to curb the negative consequences associated with job dissatisfaction, a thorough understanding is required as to which factors lead to job satisfaction and which create job dissatisfaction (Davis & Newstrom, 1989; Mowday, 1984; 1989).

Despite the wide acceptance of these theories of needs satisfaction stemming from conditions or elements of the work environment, a more recent set of literature has suggested that characteristics of the individual interact with the conditions of the job to produce job satisfaction (Kasperson, 1982). Frost and Wilson (1983) suggested that satisfaction in administrative and managerial jobs which require some degree of autonomy is particularly influenced by individual characteristics and personality variables. Research by Organ and Bateman (1986) related this phenomenon to the concept that the individual variables shape the perception of satisfaction. They further reasoned that variables arising from prior socialization and established beliefs and feelings have a great effect on self-expressed satisfaction.

These varied approaches to the nature and origin of job satisfaction have been explored at various points in the works of Vroom (1960, 1964). Vroom proposed that the study of job satisfaction can be approached from two perspectives: (a) the nature of the job, and (b) the nature of the individual. Other research has supported the need to study the personal characteristics and personality variables as predictors or influences on job satisfaction (Oliver, 1983; O'Reilly & Roberts, 1975; Organ & Bateman, 1986; Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1966; Sachs, Chrisler, & Devlin, 1992).

The literature reflects the extensive interest and effort that have been extended to the study of personal characteristics as they affect job satisfaction. Included in the studies are the personal characteristics of (a) age, (b) educational level, (c) tenure of employment, (d) marital status, (e) ethnicity, (f) occupational level, and (g) gender.
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Also critical to the issue of job satisfaction has been a determination of personality type (Argyris, 1957; Chuden & Sherman, 1980; Friesen & Williams, 1981; Jung, 1971; Organ & Bateman, 1986; Siegal & Lane, 1987; Vroom, 1964). Initially, persons with different personality types may choose different careers based upon their individual interests (Holland, 1973). Argyris (1957) further related personality and job satisfaction in elements of self-direction, self-motivation, problem solving, and frustration-tolerant employees. A strong relationship between personality, interacting with job conditions and job satisfaction, is suggested in Vroom’s research (1960).

For those frontline employees who provide the first impression of the campus environment, job satisfaction is a critical component in making that first impression. Many studies have revealed positive relationship between job satisfaction and productivity (Allen, 1996; Bassi & Van Buren, 1997; Church, 1995; Laabs, 1998; Sauter, Hurrell, & Cooper, 1989; Savery, 1996).

Locke (1976) identified the following working conditions associated with job satisfaction: mentally challenging, work with which one can successfully cope, personal interest in the work itself, work that is not too physically tiring, rewards for performance, good working conditions, high self-esteem, and attainment of interesting work, pay, promotions, and help in minimizing role conflict and ambiguity. In Herzberg’s (1959) landmark book, The Motivation to Work, he outlined intrinsic factors such as interpersonal relationships, working conditions, status, and security which influenced job satisfaction. Other researchers have found that extrinsic factors such as salary and employee benefits exerted greater influences on job satisfaction – especially for young workers (AON Consulting, 1998).

Higher education can offer support staff continued growth through academic and continuing education classes. Support staff could pursue a bachelor’s degree while receiving a tuition discount or a waiver. Staff members who perceive growth opportunities are more satisfied and gain increased self-esteem and empowerment (Howard & Frink, 1996).

Even if the salary, benefits and the opportunities for growth are at an acceptable level, one’s perception of the work situation may affect the perceived level of job satisfaction. An individual’s perception of the work environment may be affected by interpersonal relationships with coworkers, perceptions of campus multiculturalism, internal motivation, involvement in decision-making, and
perceptions of the physical work environment. Howard and Frink (1996) found that satisfaction with coworkers had a positive relationship with internal work motivation and general job satisfaction. It is important for college administrators to monitor if minority staff perceives bias or discrimination. Debow-Makino (1993) reported that African American and Hispanic staff members were more likely to report negative responses than respondents who were male, managers, and full-time faculty. Studies have shown that increased job satisfaction and commitment were achieved when employees perceived themselves as involved in decision-making (Sauter, Hurrell, & Cooper, 1989; Locke & Schweiger, 1979).

In the past 20 years unionization of university noninstructional staff has grown (Hurd & Woodhead, 1987). Putten, McLendon, and Peterson (1997) found significant differences between union and nonunion noninstructional staff in higher education on their perceptions of the work environment. Union-affiliated staff members perceived the culture, philosophy, climate, and outcomes of their work environment more negatively than nonunion staff.

Gender has figured prominently in literature on job satisfaction among postsecondary faculty. Noting that female faculty members have tended to be clustered in non-tenured positions in the lower academic ranks and generally have received lower salaries than have their male counterparts, researchers have expressed concern about the status of women in higher education (Tack & Patitu, 1992). Female faculty members have reported less satisfaction than have male faculty members in many areas (Fiorentino, 1999; Hagedorn, 1996, 1998; Tang & Talpade, 1999; U.S. Department of Education, 1998). The literature also contains examples in which women reported higher satisfaction with certain facets of job satisfaction, such as relationships with coworkers (Tang & Talpade), than men did. Nevertheless, differences between men and women relative to job satisfaction in the postsecondary education context have consistently been present.

Job satisfaction is enhanced when:

- Work is challenging & interesting, but not tiring
- Rewards (eg wage rates) are perceived as equitable & provide feedback
- Working conditions match physical needs and promote goal attainment
- Self-esteem is high
- Others facilitate reward attainment

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- Policies are clear & don’t conflict with goal attainment

(from Landy, 1989)

Job satisfaction may be defined as a ‘pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences’ (Locke 1976, p1300). Thus, job satisfaction is often regarded as a work-related attitude with potential antecedent conditions leading to it (such as autonomy and pay), and potential consequences resulting from it (such as absenteeism and job performance). A large proportion of the job satisfaction literature has assumed that satisfaction at work is a function of either the dispositional characteristics (personality) or situational factors (job characteristics) (Staw and Ross, 1985; Loher et al, 1985; Fried and Ferris, 1987; Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). However, recent research findings suggest and support the simultaneous study of the influences of both the personality and job characteristic factors on job satisfaction (Morrison, 1996; Steel and Rentsch, 1997). This points to the appeal of an interactionist approach, whereby both personality and situational factors play key roles in developing a conceptual framework to explain the determinants of job satisfaction.

In light of these definitions, we can define the job satisfaction as the sum of all negative and positive aspects related to the individual’s salary, physical and emotional working conditions, the authority s/he has, autonomous usage of this authority, level of success s/he has maintained and the rewards given due to this success, the social statute maintained in relation with h is/her job, and his/her relations with his/her colleagues and administrators. Individual elements do not result in the job satisfaction. Job satisfaction can only be mentioned if all these elements exist in a place in harmony.

1.2.1 Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction

Numerous research results show that there are many factors affecting the job satisfaction. Satisfying factors motivate workers while dissatisfying ones prevent. Motivating factors are achievement, recognition, the job conducted, responsibility, promotion and the factors related to the job itself for personal development. Motivating factors in the working environment result in the job satisfaction of the person while protective ones dissatisfy him/her (Herzberg 1969:21).

If people compare their achievements and the resulting awards with the others’ achievements and awards, and the result is balanced, then we can talk about job satisfaction. In contrast, if the result is imbalanced, then dissatisfaction will exist. In addition, if some workers receive several awards...
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compared to others, this will result in a feeling of guiltiness after a certain period of time which causes dissatisfaction (Adams 1963:425).

Maslow connects the creation of the existence of people's sense of satisfaction with the maintenance of the classified needs. These are: physiological needs (eating, drinking, resting, etc.), security needs (pension, health insurance, etc.), the need to love (good relations with the environment, friendship, fellowship, to love and to be loved), need to self-esteem (self-confidence, recognition, adoration, to be given importance, status, etc.) need of self-actualization (maximization of the latent [potential] power and capacity, development of abilities, etc.).

The individual's willingness to get a result, his/her endeavor and expectation of maintaining the result will push him/her to show the highest performance.

The difference between the results that the individual desire and those s/he maintained will affect his/her satisfaction (Nash 1975:32). There is a consistent relationship between the professional status and the job satisfaction. High levels of job satisfaction are observed in those professions that are deemed of good standing in the society.

The workers usually compare their working conditions with the conditions of the society, under the variable of social conditions. If the social conditions are worse than the individual's working conditions, then this will result in satisfaction of the individual, as the workers deem themselves relatively in good position.

Maslow published his first conceptualization of his theory over 50 years ago (Maslow, 1943) and it has since become one of the most popular and often cited theories of human motivation. An interesting phenomenon related to Maslow's work is that in spite of a lack of evidence to support his hierarchy, it enjoys wide acceptance (Wahba & Bridgewell, 1976; Soper, Milford & Rosenthal, 1995).
Norwood (1999) proposes that Maslow's hierarchy can be used to describe the kinds of information that individuals seek at different levels. For example, individuals at the lowest level seek coping information in order to meet their basic needs. Information that is not directly connected to helping a person meet his or her needs in a very short time span is simply left unattended. Individuals at the safety level need helping information. They seek to be assisted in seeing how they can be safe and secure. Enlightening information is sought by individuals seeking to meet their belongingness needs. Quite often this can be found in books or other materials on relationship development. Empowering information is sought by people at the esteem level. They are looking for information on how their ego can be developed. Finally, people in the growth levels of cognitive, aesthetic, and self-actualization seek edifying information. While Norwood does not specifically address the level of transcendence, I believe it safe to say that individuals at this stage would seek information on how to connect to something beyond themselves or to how others could be edified.

The few major studies that have been completed on the hierarchy seem to support the proposals of William James (1892/1962) and Mathes (1981) that there are three levels of human needs. James hypothesized the levels of material (physiological, safety), social (belongingness, esteem), and spiritual. Mathes proposed the three levels were physiological, belongingness, and self-actualization;
he considered security and self-esteem as unwarranted. Alderfer (1972) developed a comparable hierarchy with his ERG (existence, relatedness, and growth) theory. His approach modified Maslow's theory based on the work of Gordon Allport (1960, 1961) who incorporated concepts from systems theory into his work on personality.

### Alderfer's Hierarchy of Motivational Needs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Need</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Properties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Growth</td>
<td>Impel a person to make creative or productive effects on himself and his environment</td>
<td>Satisfied through using capabilities in engaging problems; creates a greater sense of wholeness and fullness as a human being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relatedness</td>
<td>Involve relationships with significant others</td>
<td>Satisfied by mutually sharing thoughts and feelings; acceptance, confirmation, understanding, and influence are elements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Existence</td>
<td>Includes all of the various forms of material and psychological desires</td>
<td>When divided among people one person's gain is another's loss if resources are limited</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.1: Alderfer's Hierarchy of Motivational Needs

Maslow recognized that not all personalities followed his proposed hierarchy. While a variety of personality dimensions might be considered as related to motivational needs, one of the most often cited is that of introversion and extroversion. Reorganizing Maslow's hierarchy based on the work of Alderfer and considering the introversion/extroversion dimension of personality results in three levels, each with an introverted and extroverted component. This organization suggests there may be two aspects of each level that differentiate how people relate to each set of needs. Different personalities might relate more to one dimension than the other. For example, an introvert at the level of Other/Relatedness might be more concerned with his or her own perceptions of being included in a group, whereas an extrovert at that same level would pay more attention to how others value that membership.

**Job Satisfaction**
A Reorganization of Maslow's and Alderfer's Hierarchies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Introversion</th>
<th>Extroversion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Growth</td>
<td>Self-Actualization (development of competencies [knowledge, attitudes, and skills] and character)</td>
<td>Transcendence (assisting in the development of others' competencies and character; relationships to the unknown, unknowable)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (Relatedness)</td>
<td>Personal identification with group, significant others (Belongingness)</td>
<td>Value of person by group (Esteem)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self (Existence)</td>
<td>Physiological, biological (including basic emotional needs)</td>
<td>Connectedness, security</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.2: A Reorganization of Maslow’s and Alderfer’s Hierarchies

Notice that bonding and relatedness are a component of every theory. However, there do not seem to be any others that are mentioned by all theorists. Franken (2001) suggests this lack of accord may be a result of different philosophies of researchers rather than differences among human beings. In addition, he reviews research that shows a person’s explanatory or attributional style will modify the list of basic needs. Therefore, it seems appropriate to ask people what they want and how their needs could be met rather than relying on an unsupported theory. For example, Waitley (1996) advises having a person imagine what life would be like if time and money were not an object in a person’s life. That is, what would the person do this week, this month, next month, if you had all the money and time needed to engage in the activities and were secure that both would be available again next year. With some follow-up questions to identify what is keeping the person from happening now, this open-ended approach is likely to identify the most important needs of the individual.

There is much work still to be done in this area before we can rely on a theory to be more informative than simply collecting and analyzing data. However, this body of research can be very important to parents, educators, administrators and others concerned with developing and using human potential. It provides an outline of some important issues that must be addressed if human
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beings are to achieve the levels of character and competencies necessary to be successful in the information age.

The effects of the motivator and hygiene factors on the job satisfaction do not vary according to sex (Bilgin 1986).

It has been proved that job satisfaction and devotion to the job affected each other reciprocally, and they have great impact upon performance (Ergenç 1982 a: 49-55).

Insufficient education, inability to select qualified workers for the job, lack of communications, lack of job definitions, all affect job satisfaction negatively (Yncir 1990).

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study are four-fold:

1. To assess the percentage of teaching faculty with a relatively high level of job satisfaction and the percentage of teaching faculty with a relatively low level of it.
2. To find out the situational factors that influence the job satisfaction among the teaching faculty.
3. To assess the various aspects of job satisfaction and to find out the nature of relationship existing between the teaching faculty and their attitude and interest towards teaching.
4. To suggest on the basis of the study results, the means to improve job satisfaction and eliminate issues contributing to lower satisfaction levels.

1.4 Research Hypotheses, Methodology

1.4.1 Hypotheses

1. There is a positive and significant relationship between the teaching faculty job satisfaction and their attitude towards teaching.
2. There is a positive and significant relationship between the teaching faculty's job satisfaction and their interest in teaching.
3. There is a positive and significant relationship between the teaching faculty's job satisfaction and their working conditions.
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1.4.2 Methodology

The descriptive and empirical basis of the research is derived from questionnaire surveys of job satisfaction in Tamilnadu Private colleges. The questionnaire was designed around two dimensions: the five ‘C’s and the three ‘P’s. The five ‘C’s are a modification of the five contracts defined by Legge and Mumford (1978) as the dimensions of the quality of working life. The questionnaire seeks the views of respondents on these different aspects of their working life. In addition questions are asked about the three ‘P’s (priority, policy and practice) to provide information on staff’s perceptions of the importance of job satisfaction and their employers’ intention and delivery with regard to job satisfaction.

Legge and Mumford suggested that the contracts could be related to each other as shown in Figure 3. The values contract is an overarching one. It concerns the degree of congruence between the staff’s values and those espoused by the organization. The other four contracts look at particular aspects of the experience of working in the organization.

- The knowledge contract - is about the way in which the organization values and utilizes the knowledge and skills the staff have and enables them to learn new things.
- The performance contract - concerns the way in which staff’s work is managed and staffs are rewarded.
- The psychological contract - is about the expectations staff have about how they should be managed and treated.
- The work contract - concerns the way in which work process are organized and structured including such issues as empowerment and job flexibility.

Contract, in this scheme, refers to an implicit contract (Watson 1995: 138). This is helpful because it avoids the difficulties over the use of the word ‘needs’ in discussing job satisfaction (Salancik and Pfeffer 1977). The idea of an implicit contract requires that the terms of the contract are necessarily ambiguous, mutable and subject to shifts in the mutual expectations of employees and management.

The questionnaire deals with each of the ‘contracts’ from the perspectives of priority, policy and performance to explore potential gaps between

- employers’ intentions,
- employees’ understanding of employers’ intentions
- employees’ perceptions of employers’ actions.
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Priority concerns the importance respondents give to the factors that make up each of the contracts. The policy questions are to determine whether employees know which factors it is the college policy or intention to deliver and which factors colleges are not committed to. The performance questions ask whether employees feel the colleges deliver on the factors.

![Diagram of values, knowledge, psychological, and work structure contracts]

Figure 1.3: The five dimensions on which the survey questionnaire is based.

The questionnaire results are analyzed using data analysis tools.

**Expectations and perceptions of job satisfaction: analysis of survey results**

In this section the results from the questionnaire surveys are used to assess staff’s perceptions about job satisfaction and to consider the impact of these views on the imperatives of modernisation.

Figure 1.4 summarises the arguments that will be made. The top left ‘triangle in the figure has already been discussed. The bottom right hand ‘triangle’ shows employees’ cycle of perceptions of job satisfaction. Four themes have been identified in this cycle that will be discussed in turn.
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The cycle of managerial imperatives

Government's drive to modernisation and 'joined up' services

Inequity between occupational perceptions of the causal link between job satisfaction and job performance

Expectations not met

Value conflicts

Managerial rhetoric about the importance of job satisfaction

Misunderstanding

Employee's expectations about job satisfaction and quality of working life

Employees' cycle of perception

Figure 1.4: Rhetorical tensions between perceptions of job satisfaction and the modernisation project

This study emphasizes the complexity of job satisfaction's impact on improvement and modernization processes. It suggests that the virtuous circle (commitment to job satisfaction raises

Job Satisfaction
he satisfaction levels of employees, who respond by improving and developing services) is challenged by its negative reflection, a cycle of negative staff perceptions. This latter cycle, shown in figure 4, starts with employees misunderstanding management’s commitment, which increases the probability that their job satisfaction expectations will not be met. There will be some groups who are more dissatisfied than others, which make it more unlikely that they will enthusiastically cooperate and contribute to the modernization project. The lack of awareness and congruence between the values of the management and the employees also operates against job satisfaction leading to modernization.

An important theoretical question is whether this negative cycle is contingent, a result of particular circumstances, or an inevitable consequence of the imperatives of modernization. If the first is the case it should be possible for the negative circle to be broken by effective management action.

The research identified eight areas, listed below, where the segment wished to see follow up action and improved outcomes:

- Pay – issues of rewarding individual contribution and fairness and equity.
- Training and development – particularly the question of resource availability and the problem of dissatisfaction with appraisal processes.
- Management style – improving the leadership skills of managers.
- Estate and equipment – improving the working conditions of staff.
- Equality and diversity – particularly the implementation of more flexible and family friendly employment patterns.
- Physical well-being – diminishing the fear of physical attack from patients and others.
- Staff involvement and communication - increasing employees’ involvement in service planning and decision-making.
- Workload – overcoming the stress that comes from unmanageable workloads and the ‘unpaid overtime’ syndrome.

1.4.3 Research Design

Research design provides the glue that holds the research project together. A design is used to structure the research, to show how all of the major parts of the research project -- the samples or groups, measures, treatments or programs, and methods of assignment -- work together to try to address the central research questions.
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1.4.4 Scope of the Study

The scope of this study is limited to the survey conducted among the teaching segment of private colleges in Tamilnadu.

Selection : The selection of Market Survey area is spread over the above segment. A sample of 250 faculty members are considered for the purpose of the Survey.

Sample : Teaching Faculty in Tamilnadu Private Colleges

Dimension : Cluster sampling of Survey questionnaires on Job Satisfaction were taken.

Time : The overall time for the conducting the survey is estimated as three months.

1.4.5 Methodology of the Study

Given below are the methods adopted in conducting the Survey:

1. A questionnaire is prepared for collecting primary data among the segment taken for study regarding the job satisfaction.

2. A market survey is conducted by means of questionnaires in order to collect the data.

3. A detailed analysis of the data is done and data is properly presented as tables and graphs.

4. The inferences on the analysis are recorded.

1.5 Data Collection Technique

Both Primary and Secondary Data are collected for the purpose of research by means of survey, interviews and research.

1.5.1 Sources of Data

Primary Data

1. Field survey for spatial data
2. Observation on Faculty opinions
3. Structured questionnaires to gather views
4. Random sampling method from the chosen segment taken for study

Secondary Data

1. Data acquired from Colleges and Institutions
2. Literatures – Prior researches and studies on Job Satisfaction
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Segment for Study
Respondents from the Teaching Faculty in Tamilnadu Private Colleges were selected for the research study.

Minimizing Threats to Validity
Good research designs minimize the plausible alternative explanations for the hypothesized cause-effect relationship. But such explanations may be ruled out or minimized in a number of ways other than by design. The following five methods were used to minimize threats to validity, one of which is by research design:

a) **By Argument.** The most straightforward way to rule out a potential threat to validity is to simply argue that the threat in question is not a reasonable one. Such an argument may be made either *a priori* or *a posteriori*, although the former will usually be more convincing than the latter. In most cases, ruling out a potential threat to validity by argument alone will be weaker than the other approaches listed below. As a result, the most plausible threats in a study should not, except in unusual cases, be ruled out by argument only.

b) **By Measurement or Observation.** In some cases it will be possible to rule out a threat by measuring it and demonstrating that either it does not occur at all or occurs so minimally as to not be a strong alternative explanation for the cause-effect relationship.

c) **By Design.** Here, the major emphasis is on ruling out alternative explanations.

d) **By Analysis.** There are a number of ways to rule out alternative explanations using statistical analysis. A main effect on the attrition factor would be indicative of a threat to external validity or generalizability, while an interaction between group and attrition factors would point to a possible threat to internal validity. Where both effects occur, it is reasonable to infer that there is a threat to both internal and external validity.

e) **By Preventive Action.** When potential threats are anticipated some type of preventive action can often rule them out. For example, if the program is a desirable one, it is likely that the comparison group would feel jealous or demoralized. Several actions can be taken to minimize the effects of these attitudes including offering the program to the comparison group upon completion of the study or using program and comparison groups that have little opportunity for contact and communication. In addition, auditing methods and quality control can be used to track potential experimental dropouts or to insure the standardization of measurement.
1.6 Limitations of the Study

1. The study had to be conducted within a given time frame.
2. The data are collected only among the segment taken for study in a specific area. The results may vary if other segments are also considered for the study or a different area is undertaken.
3. Of the 440 Arts and Science colleges in Tamil Nadu, only 10 colleges were selected in and around Chennai city, for the sake of convenience.

1.7 Scheme of Chapterisation

Chapter 1 Comprises of the Introduction where the problem and its setting, Review of literature, the objectives and limitations of the study, the research hypothesis, methodology, data collection technique, sources of data and the scheme of chapterisation are introduced.

Chapter 2 Includes the Theoretical framework, which examines significance and importance of job satisfaction of teaching faculties in private Arts and Science Colleges, to assess the major aspects affecting job satisfaction the various approach to the study of job satisfaction.

Chapter 3 Contains the Evolution, description and assessment of the Educational policy of Tamilnadu pertaining to the Arts and Science Colleges in the state.

Chapter 4 Examines the profile of private Colleges and Institution, the emergence of Private Colleges and the reasons for the same.

Chapter 5 Contains the detailed analysis of Human Resources Management in the Private Colleges, the importance of job satisfaction in the life and career of teaching faculty for establishing a healthy organization structure in any organization and institution.

Chapter 6 Contains the detailed analysis and interpretations of the assessment of various aspects of job satisfaction, viz. attitude, interest, human relations monetary benefits, recognition, quality of service rendered and organization environment. The survey results are analysed and inference derived. Various statistical tools are deployed for performing the analysis.

Chapter 7 Details the discussion and observation of the results of the study. The summary conclusions and recommendations of the research are given to provide scope for further studies.
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ENDNOTES


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