

## **CHAPTER – II**

### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

In this chapter an attempt has been made to review various studies related to the present research. The review of literature involves systematic identification and information on a research problem for the investigation. The studies contained in review of literature, support the research in a systematic directional outcome. According to Polit and Hungler (1995), the task of reviewing literature involves identification, selection, critical analysis and reporting of existing information on the research topic. It provides a large support in gathering information and also for the classification of the research problem. This chapter guides the researcher to that extent, that the work is done only in that related field.

Many search facilities have been utilized for collecting the review of literature, such as library (Maharana Pratap Library, C.C.S. University, Meerut; N.C.E.R.T. and ICSSR, Delhi), Journals, abstracts, magazines and Internet surfing. The paradigm of research attraction depends on intention of everyday observation and begins by determining the extent to which such variables influence our likes and dislikes. A large number of studies have been conducted in the field of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. These studies are related to various variables such as leadership, empathy, self management, academic achievement, emotion, gender, salary, decision making, age,

organizational commitment, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and so forth. Some of the studies related to variables of present study are reviewed below.

### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE:**

Emotional Intelligence (EI) is a relatively new area of research in the Indian context. The growing interest in the construct of emotional intelligence can be attributed to the recent theories taking broader conceptualizations of intelligence. The work of Goleman (1995; 1998), Mayer and Salovey (1997) and Salovey and Mayer (1990) focused on emotional intelligence. There are however, two major conceptualizations of emotional intelligence, the ability models focus on the interplay of emotion and intelligence as traditionally defined, while the mixed models describe a composite conception of intelligence that includes mental abilities, and other dispositions and traits (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1995).

Some of the elements of emotional intelligence were identified much before the idea of emotional intelligence was formally conceptualised. For instance, a research finding of Rosenthal (1977) reported, that the ability to identify people's emotions that is empathy, goes a long way in one's professional and social success. In another study of Bachman (1988) on the US Navy, it was found that the most effective leaders in the US Navy were warmer, more outgoing emotionally expressive, dramatic, and sociable. The later studies of

Schulman (1995) indicated that optimistic people have greater success and productivity than pessimists. Some of the characteristics of the people high on emotional intelligence, as identified by Hein (1996), encompass clarity in thoughts and expressions, high optimism ability to read non-verbal communications, emotional resilience and moral autonomy, and high level of self-motivation. Such people act out of desire, not obligation or guilt. They balance their feelings with reason, logic and reality. In contrast, people with lower emotional intelligence tend to shun personal responsibilities and blame others for their feeling. They also do not articulate their feelings and are more prone to criticise and judge others. Further research of Barsade (1998) on the subject indicated, that people with high emotional intelligence know the art of expressing emotions as much as controlling them.

Some recent empirical studies of Mayer, Caruso and Lopes (2001) have found the usefulness of emotional intelligence as an important construct related to positive outcomes, such as pro-social behaviour, parental warmth, and positive family and peer relationship. In addition, the studies of Brackett, Mayer and Warney (2003) show, that lower emotional intelligence is related to negative outcomes, including illegal drug and alcohol use, deviant behaviour and poor relations with friends.

Emotional Intelligence (EI) has been identified as one of the important behavioural constructs considered to be a major contributor

to performance (Goleman, 1995; Goleman, 1998). According to one of the claims, emotional intelligence accounts for 85 to 90 percent of outstanding performance in the top management, thereby resulting in 20 percent more earning for companies (Goleman, 1998; Kemper, 1999; Watkin, 2000). Emotional intelligence has also evoked a keen interest among practitioners because of its wide applicability to a host of work place issues, including job satisfaction, absenteeism, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship etc. (Gates, 1995; Megerian & Sosik, 1996; Sosik & Megerian, 1969; Cooper & Sawaf, 1997; Wright & Staw, 1999). Sinha and Jain (2004) suggested that the dimensions of emotional intelligence were meaningfully related with the job satisfaction, personal effectiveness, organizational commitment, reputational effectiveness, general health, trust, turnover, intention, organizational effectiveness and organizational productivity.

In the context of association of emotional intelligence with personal effectiveness, Bar-On (1997) noted, that emotional intelligence is related to potential for performance, rather than performance itself (i.e., the potential to succeed rather than success itself). Stein (1998) noted, that emotional intelligence is significantly correlated with job performance, while cognitive intelligence has shown low and significant correlation with performance in the work place. Emotional intelligence provides skill to manage intrapersonal and interpersonal relationship that is important for being effective at

work. Based on above, it may be conjectured, that emotional intelligence would positively predict personal effectiveness at work place.

### **Profession and Emotional Intelligence:**

Emotional intelligence is increasingly being discussed as having a potential role in medicine, nursing and other health care disciplines, both for personal mental health and professional practice.

Doctors and nurses suffer from stress and health problem owing to the characteristics of their work and their contact with patients and death. Emotional intelligence may explain the individual difference in dealing with different professions. There are many studies, which reveal that emotional intelligence is an important factor to handle the problems related to different occupations.

Ernst et al. (2001) found that physician who exuded a warm, friendly and reassuring manner, were more effective than those who kept consultations formal. Budnik (2003) have studied the impact of emotional intelligence and burnout on the intent of staff nurses to leave nursing. The results found significant relationships between emotional exhaustion and de-personalization on the career intent of the respondents. The burnout sub-scales were also significant in predicting emotional intelligence among the sample group of staff nurses. Godkin and Godkin (2004) found in their study that patient

reported that they feel cared for when they feel treated as individuals, receive help dealing with their illness, and when they believe that nurses anticipate their needs, are available to them and appear confident in their work.

Augusto et al. (2005) investigated the inter-relationship among emotional intelligence, work stress and health. The result shows, that the nurses who score high in clarity and emotional repair, report less stress, whereas those with high scores in attention to emotions, experience greater levels of stress.

Chen et al. (2009) found in their results that emotional intelligence of physician, physician's experiences, ratio of a patient's follow-up with the physician had positive effects on patient trust. Patient trust had a positive impact on the patient physician relationship. Codier et al. (2008) examined correlation between emotional intelligence and high level of performance of clinical staff nurses. Results show that the performance level of clinical staff nurses correlates positively with emotional intelligence.

Codier et al. (2009) concluded that emotional intelligence scores in clinical staff nurses correlated positively with both performance level and retention variables. Clinical staff nurses with higher emotional intelligence scores, demonstrated higher performance, had successful careers and greater job retention.

Deshpande (2009) investigated the impact of various factors on ethical behaviour of 180 hospital employees. He found that ethical behaviour of peers, ethical behaviour of successful managers, and emotional intelligence had a significant positive impact on ethical behaviour of respondents.

Jordi and Hansenne (2009) investigated the relationships between emotional intelligence, performance, and cohesiveness in nursing teams. The results suggested, that emotional intelligence and, more specifically, emotional regulation may provide an interesting new way of enhancing nursing teams, cohesion and patient/client outcomes.

Yate (1977), in his research, found that different jobs require different levels of emotional intelligence. It is now recognised that emotional intelligence plays an important role in many areas of life, including work. The role of emotional intelligence and the actual level of it required for various jobs have also been examined. For jobs, that can be accomplished individually or by working with others in fixed, set or structured ways do not require a great deal of emotional intelligence. McClelland (1999) reviewed data from more than thirty different organizations, and for executive positions in many professions from banking and managing to mining, geology, sales, and health care. He showed that a wide range of emotional intelligence competencies distinguished top performers from average ones. Those

that distinguished strongly, were achievement drives, developing others in adaptability, influence, self-confidence and leadership. The one cognitive competence that distinguished strongly was analytic thinking. McClelland (1999) showed, that each competence contributes on its own to workplace effectiveness, it is less useful to consider them one by one, than it is to examine them in their cluster, where one can also assess the synergies of strengths in several competencies that enable outstanding performance. Some studies have examined the linkage between the individual success and emotional intelligence. Ryback (1998) examined differences between successful recruiters and those who failed to meet recruitment quotas, and found, that higher levels of emotional intelligence could predict which recruiters would be more successful.

Indian studies include, a survey of management students to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence and thinking orientation conducted by Mishra and Dhar (2001). Their results confirmed the conceptual similarity between emotional intelligence and thinking orientation. Another study was conducted by Dwivedi (2005) to identify emotional intelligence related competencies among highly successful managers. He concluded, that 15 emotional competencies pertaining to the five interrelated dimensions (3 in each), emotional intelligence, namely empathy, self-awareness,

motivation, self-regulation, and social skill were needed by managers to accomplish corporate success in Indian context.

Gignac et al. (2010) have examined the efficacy of an emotional intelligence-training program on sales performance and emotional intelligence in a group of sales people. Findings reported, that emotional intelligence correlated with sales performance.

### **Profession and Other Components of Emotional Intelligence:**

#### **1. Self-awareness:**

Boyatzis (1982) suggested the positive impact of the self-confidence competence on performance with the help of a variety of studies. Among supervisors, managers and executives, a high degree of self-confidence distinguishes the best from the average performers. Boyatzis (1982) found that self-awareness is the key to realize one's own strengths and weaknesses. Among several hundred managers from twelve different organizations, accurate self-awareness and self-assessment were the hallmark of superior performance. Holahan and Sears (1995) found, that the level of self-confidence was in fact a stronger predictor of performance, than the level of skill or previous training. They also suggested, that those who possessed self-confidence during their early years, were most successful in their careers. Kelley (1998) further shows that the individuals having accurate self-assessment competence, are aware of their abilities and

limitations, seek out feedback and learn from their mistakes, and know where they need to improve and when to work with others, who love complementary strength. Accurate self-assessment was the competence found in virtually every "Star Performer" in a study of several hundred knowledge workers, computer scientists, auditors and the like at companies, such as AT & T and 3M.

## **2. Self-management:**

The sales representatives for a large U.S. appliance manufacturer, who were most conscientious, had the largest volume of sales. The superior performance in management ranks exhibiting adaptability, competence and need to achieve is the competence, that most strongly sets apart superior and average executives (Barrick, Mount and Strauss, 1993; Spencer and Spencer (1993).

Spencer & Spencer (1993), Boyatzis and Burrus (1995), suggested, that counselors, psychotherapists and superior performers tend to respond calmly to angry attacks by a patient, as do outstanding flight attendants dealing with disgruntled passengers due to self-management. Rahim and Psenicka (1996), found a stronger sense of control among small business owners on not only employees, but also over the events in their lines, as likely to become angry or depressed, when faced with job stress or to quit.

### **3. Social Awareness:**

Social awareness is the ability to read others' need in their circumstances. Friedman and Dimatteo (1982) suggest that physicians who are better at recognizing emotion in-patients are more successful than their less sensitive colleagues at treating them. Boyatzis (1982) says that there is always a requirement for social awareness on an organizational level, not just on interpersonal one. Outstanding managers and executives in most organizations, generally share this ability among themselves; this emotional competence distinguishes star performers from the others. Their ability to read situations objectively, without distorting the lens of their own biases and assumptions, allow them to respond effectively. Spencer and Spencer (1993) said that the ability to read others needs well, comes naturally to the best managers of product development teams. Spencer and Spencer (1993) told that social awareness also plays a key role in the service competence, the ability to identify a client's or customer's often unstated needs and concern, and then match them to products or service, this empathic strategy distinguishes star sales performers from average ones.

McBane (1995) also supported the previous study, and found, that the most successful members of the sales team were able to combine talking the customer's viewpoint and showing appropriate

assertiveness in order to steer the customer towards a choice, that satisfied both the customers and vendors needs.

#### **4. Relationship Management:**

Goleman (1998) conducted a study on managers and executives, which shows that the better people can better execute the relationship management, more of the other people prefer to deal with them. Goleman (2000) suggested that the relationship management ability is crucial for those, managing front line works, it has also emerged as a vital skill for effective leadership at high levels.

Spencer and Spencer (1993) state that the essence of influence competence on handling and managing emotions effectively in other people is persuasive. The most effective people sense other's reactions, and finely tune their own responses to move their interaction in the best direction. The relationship management emerges over and over again as a hallmark of star performers, particularly among supervisors, managers and executives. Ganesan (1993), worked on the art of listening and emphasizing, and suggested that these arts are crucial to the skill of handling difficult people and situations with diplomacy, encouraging debate and open discussion and orchestrating win-win situations. Effective conflict management and negotiation are important to long term symbiotic business relationship, such as those between manufacturers and retailers. In a survey of retail buyers in department store chains, effectiveness at win-win negotiation was an

accurate barometer of the health of the manufacturer–retailer relationship.

Spencer & Spencer (1993) argue that social skills are the essential competencies in developing management relationship. Developing others involves sensing people's development needs, and bolstering their abilities and talent, not just as excellent coaches and mentors, but also as outstanding leaders. Competence in developing others is a hallmark of superior managers, among sales managers.

Tori, Nauriyal and Bhalla (2006) examined the issues influencing emotional intelligence and advantages of an emotional intelligence framework in diverse milieus, such as competitive corporate environments challenged by the rapid pace of globalization. The neurological and cognitive foundations of emotional intelligence are described along with educational and philosophical factors that influence the development of this critical capacity. Finally, relevance and prevalence of emotional intelligence in the context of the Indian corporate, the use of emotional intelligence concept appears to be important, because Indians, by and large, have high affiliated needs, which, if effectively tapped can lead to significant gains in loyalty, teamwork, and efficiency.

Kaplan (1991) states that outstanding performers, who know building bonds with this competence, balance their own critical work with carefully chosen favours, building accounts of goodwill with

people, who may become crucial resources down the line. One of the virtues of building such relationships is the reservoir of trust and goodwill that they establish. Highly effective managers are adept at cultivating these relationships, whereas less effective managers generally fail to build bonds. Totterdell et al. (1998) found that team members tend to share moods, both good and bad with better moods, improving performance. Sweeney (1999) told that the collaboration and teamwork competencies have taken on increased importance in the last decade with the trend towards team based work in many organizations. Team work itself depends on the collective emotional intelligence of its members, the most productive teams are those, that exhibit emotional intelligence competencies at the team level and collaboration is particularly crucial to the success of managers, the deficit in the ability to work cooperatively with peers was, in one survey, the most common reason, that the managers were fired.

### **Length of Service and Emotional Intelligence:**

The popularity of the emotional intelligence in the research literature makes the researchers to show more interest in this area. Codier et al. (2008) identified emotional intelligence in professional nursing practice. The use of emotional intelligence concepts may provide fresh insights into ways to keep nurses engaged in practice and to improve nurses retention and client outcomes. Halfer and Graf (2006) examined the perception of new graduate nurses about the

work environment and employment satisfaction during their first 18 months. They found that employee retention was dependent on work schedule, relationship with colleagues and physician and career development opportunities. Augusto (2005) found a positive relationship between emotional intelligence, length of service and stress, with younger nurses and those with a shorter length of service experiencing less stress. Penrose, Perry and Ball (2007) studied the contribution of teacher status and length of experience on emotional intelligence and teacher self efficacy. Regression analysis showed that neither gender nor age moderated this relationship. However, length of teaching experience and current status had significant direct effects on predicting teacher self-efficacy, but did not moderate the relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher self-efficacy.

In recent years, leadership and emotional intelligence have become hot topics in management and organisation researches. Anand and Suriyam (2010) examined emotional intelligence and its relationship with leadership practices. They concluded that the executives differ significantly in their emotional intelligence based on their length of service in the organization.

Aremu and Tejumola (2008) studied emotional intelligence among Nigerian police. The results showed an insignificant relationship between work experience and emotional intelligence of the participants. Ngah, Jusoff and Rahman (2009) examined the

emotional intelligence of university staff to work attitude. The findings showed that age, length of service, position and experience did not have any impact on emotional intelligence.

### **Leadership and Emotional Intelligence:**

Spencer and Spencer (1993) have identified distinctive groupings of competencies that tend to typify high performing individuals in specific fields, including health care and social services, technical and engineering, sales, client management and leadership at the executive levels. Williams (1994) suggests that emotionally intelligent leadership is key to create a working climate that nurtures employees and encourages them to give their best. That enthusiasm, in turn, pays off in improved business performance and finds a significant relationship between emotional intelligence abilities of the leader and the organizational climate. McClelland (1999) also found a strong relationship between the progress having emotional intelligence strengths in a leader and a businessman.

Goleman (1998) claimed, "IQ and technical skills are important, but emotional intelligence is the sine qua non of leadership." He proposed, that in leadership, dealing effectively with emotions may contribute to how one handles the needs of individuals, how one effectively motivates employees, and makes them "feel" at work. Today's effective leadership skills have been described to depend, in part, on the understanding of emotions and the abilities associated

with emotional intelligence (Cooper and Sawaf, 1997, Goleman 1998).

Bass (1985), Bass and Arolio (1995), and Barling, Slater and Kelloway (2000) examined the relationship between the transformational leadership paradigm and emotional intelligence, and suggested that emotional intelligence pre-disposes leaders to use transformational behaviours. Barling Slater and Kelloway (2000) found that emotional intelligence was positively related to three components of transformational leadership (idealized influence, inspirational motivation and individualized consideration) and contingent reward (a component of transactional leadership). Palmer et al. (2001) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and effective leadership and predicted that transformational leadership is considered to be more emotion based (involving heightened emotional levels) than transactional leadership.

### **Job Satisfaction and Emotional Intelligence:**

Researchers have also found the linkages between job satisfaction and emotional intelligence. Kahn (1990) and Abraham (1999) found that the higher levels of emotional intelligence predicted higher levels of job satisfaction and stronger connections with co-workers and supervisors. Kahn (1990) in his study of job satisfaction reported that more psychologically meaningful job tasks resulted, when those tasks included positive interactions with co-workers.

Wong (2002) studied the effects of the emotional intelligence of both leaders and followers on job outcomes. Result shows that emotional intelligence of followers affects job performance and job satisfaction, while the emotional intelligence of leaders affects their satisfaction and extra role behaviour. Jordan et al. (2002) found that low emotional intelligence employees are more likely than high emotional intelligence employee to experience negative emotional reactions to job insecurity and to adopt negative coping strategies.

Srivastava and Bharamanaikar (2004) examined the relationship of emotional intelligence with leadership effectiveness, success and job satisfaction. The results showed that emotional intelligence significantly correlated with transformational leadership and success, but not with job satisfaction.

### **Gender and Emotional Intelligence:**

There are many researchers who have defined gender differences in relation to emotional intelligence. In a study, Schutte et al. (1998), Mehrabian (2000) and Davis, Ace and Andra (2000) found that significant gender differences appeared among most of the predictor variables, including the traits, forgiveness, emotional empathy, emotional intelligence and degree of macho. As expected, the degree of anger and jealousy did not differ by gender.

Brackett, Mayer and Warner (2004) found that women scored significantly higher in emotional intelligence than men. Emotional intelligence however, was more predictive of the life span criteria for men than for women. Lower emotional intelligence in males, principally the inability to perceive emotions and to use emotion to facilitate thought, was associated with negative outcomes, including illegal drug and alcohol use, deviant behaviour and poor relations with friends.

Brackett, Mayer and Warner (2004) found in their study that women scored significantly higher in emotional intelligence than men. In a sample, emotional intelligence was significantly associated with maladjustment and negative behaviour for college aged males, but not for females. Bala (2007) found that women are really emotionally intelligent than men, because each gender has its emotional strength and weakness. In our society, women usually tend to be more empathetic and are more able to understand others, so they are better than men at picking up the unspoken emotional dimension of the communication.

Morna (2003) shows that because of their socialization, women tend to have much higher on emotional intelligence than men. The fact, that women are still sorely underrepresented in decision making, is possible by one explanation, for global leadership styles they are lacking in that basic ingredient of care. Punia (2003) found that

emotional quotient (EQ) of majority of female executives is high and average, where as the male counterparts are low in the EQ level, which gives us an idea, that women are more capable of handling the persons and recognizing their needs as compared to men, hence, it can be concluded from the above discussion, that women executives go for humanistic or structural frame of leadership in contrast to male executives with larger amount of multiple frames. Male executives decisions are generally more biased as compared to female executives, and women executives have been found more emotionally stable in decision making, and also as effective leaders.

According to Bindu and Thomas (2006), there were gender differences in cognitive and effective domains. Whereas maladjustment was identified as the single most important predictor of other cognitive and non-cognitive characteristics of the males, it was seen to be of less importance as a determinant of cognitive functioning in females. Emotional intelligence had a gender role in determining overall creativity and maladjustment among females than in males. Similarity, IQ and creativity were more closely connected in females than in males.

#### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON JOB SATISFACTION:**

Job satisfaction is widely considered to represent the contribution of a person's attitudes toward or about the job. As a result of sophisticated analysis of life satisfaction data, the views on job

satisfaction are dominated by cognitive components of attitude rather than by the affective or emotional components of job attitudes (Organ and Near, 1985). However, Job satisfaction might also connote emotional processes or feelings such as joy, enthusiasm, pleasure, pride, happiness, delight and fulfillment. Locke, over 20 years ago estimated that over 3000 articles had been written by that time on the subject of satisfaction (Locke, 1976). Typical factors that influence job satisfaction are the nature of work, supervision, present pay, promotion opportunities and relations with co-workers (Spector, 1997) It seems important to look for some other individual level variables that may influence job satisfaction positively. Fisher (2000) linked emotions and moods with job satisfaction (that is defined as affective responses to one's job, but is usually measured largely as a cognitive evaluation of job features). Cote and Morgan (2002) found that amplification of positive emotions increased job satisfaction, while suppression of unpleasant emotions decreased job satisfaction.

### **Profession and Job Satisfaction:**

Many investigators have conducted studies to explore the effect of profession on job satisfaction. Burns, Andersen and Shortell, (1990), have studied the effect of hospital control strategies on physician satisfaction and physician-hospital conflict. Results suggested that control strategies are useful for purposes other than promoting physician-hospital integration. Finally hospital ownership

appears to exert the biggest effect on physician satisfaction and conflict. Ofili et al. (2004) have studied on job satisfaction and psychological health of doctors at the university of Benin teaching hospital. The result revealed a high rate of job dissatisfaction among Nigerian doctors compared to their European and North American counterparts. Laubach and Fischbeck (2007) suggested that among resident physicians work conditions, superiors hierarchy transparency and participations in decisions are very important variables for job satisfaction. Rosta and Gerber (2008) found in their study that hospital doctor in Germany are moderately satisfied with their jobs, less satisfied than their colleagues in England, New-Zealand and Norway.

Fischer et al. (2008) have studied on work stress, health and satisfaction of life in young doctors. Results revealed that one third of the doctors experienced stress of work, caused by an effort-reward imbalance. This had a negative impact on their health and satisfaction with life. Fub et al. (2008) have studied working conditions and work family conflict in German hospital's physicians. The result revealed that low levels of work interfering with family conflict predicted higher job satisfaction, better family self judged general health status, better work ability and higher satisfaction with life in general. Kocab (2008) revealed that doctors are more desensitized than official employers ( $P = 0.023$ ) and nurses have less job satisfaction ( $P < 0.0001$ ) than doctors. The participants who have doctoral level

education or specialist in medicine have higher job satisfaction than other educational level groups.

Krogstad et al. (2006) studied predictors of job satisfaction among doctors, nurses and auxiliaries in Norwegian hospitals relevance for micro unit culture. The result revealed that a total of 1814 doctors, nurses and auxiliaries working at 4 Norwegian hospitals responded (overall responses rate: 65%). The only domain of work that significantly predicted high job satisfaction important for all groups was positive evaluation of local leadership. Both steps of analyses suggested that professional development is most important for doctors, for registered nurses, experiencing support and feed back from the nearest superior was the main explanatory variable for job satisfaction. Job satisfaction of auxiliaries was equally predicted by professional development and local leadership. Chen et al. (2009) studied on job demand, emotional awareness and job satisfaction in internships. The result indicated that emotional job demand and emotional awareness were positively associated with emotional display rules, and emotional display rules were positively associated with job satisfaction, with social support playing a moderating role.

Nolting et al. (2006) studied on nurses turnover: a differential analysis of the predictors for intent to change the job and intent to leave the profession. The results indicate that for the prevention of professional exit early, individual measures should be taken, whereas

the improvement of communication and cooperation among colleagues could keep nurses from job rotation within the profession. Coomber and Barriball (2007) have found the impact of job satisfaction components on intent to leave and turnover for hospital based nurses, the key findings suggest, that stress and leadership issues continue to exert influence on dissatisfaction and turnover for nurses. Flinkman et al. (2008) researched on explaining young registered Finnish nurses, intention to leave the profession. Results suggested that during the course of the past year, 26% of young nurses have often thought of giving up nursing. This was associated with personal burnout, poor opportunities for development, lack of affective professional commitment, low job satisfaction, work family conflicts and higher quantitative work demands.

Kaplan, Bashoff, and Kellerman (1991) found in their study that South African nurses were shown to have extremely low job satisfaction relative to American nurses and to other professional groups in South-Africa, by contrast their job involvement was moderately high. Suzanne Wolosin, and Robert's (2009) article focuses on the decrease in the satisfaction among registered nurses at their mid-career in the U.S. It notes that hospitals took steps to ensure that their nurses are satisfied with their jobs. It points out that there are some areas of work satisfaction for them which may be more responsive to organizational efforts for higher satisfaction levels.

Jardali et al. (2009) studied a national cross-sectional study on nurses intent to leave and job satisfaction in Lebanon. They found; that nurses reported being least satisfied with extrinsic rewards. A common predictor of intent to leave the hospital and the country was dissatisfaction with extrinsic rewards.

Toscano et al. (1998) suggested, that burnout is a significant contributor to job satisfaction and needs to be decreased in, or improve job satisfaction. Finn (2001) examined autonomy as an important component for nurses job satisfaction. Demographic comparisons showed that nurses who were preceptors had significantly less job satisfaction than the other nurses at the hospital. Abushaikha and Saca-Hazboun (2009) studied on job satisfaction and burnout among Palestinians. Results revealed moderate level of job satisfaction and moderate burnout. Palestinian nurses face many challenges in their daily work due to decreased chances of job advancement and emotional exhaustion, which may lead to job dissatisfaction. Lee, Yang and Chang (2009) found that factors such as wage dissatisfaction and work shift should be addressed by hospital administrators.

Al-Aameri (2000) found a strong positive correlation between job satisfaction and organizational commitment with a sample of registered nurses in Saudi Arabia ( $r = 0.59, P < 0.01$ ). The means and standard deviations showed, that nurses were satisfied with their jobs

to some extent, and they were slightly committed to their hospitals. The study's findings showed, that age was significantly correlated with satisfaction and commitment, but experience was correlated only with commitment. This finding is consistent with a large survey of qualified nurses in the United States conducted by Ingersall et al. (2002), which revealed a closely positive correlation between job satisfaction and organizational commitment ( $r = 0.63$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). Redfern et al. (2002) reported a strong relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment ( $r = .60$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) in a study of the health care staff in the United Kingdom. The aim of their study, which was carried out in a nursing home for older people, was to determine the feasibility of working with health care workers and very frail service users to investigate links between the level of work satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Blythe et al. (2008) examined nursing generations in the contemporary workplace. Findings consistently show that the force consists of generational groups with different attributes and priorities. The research revealed significant differences in career commitment affective, normative and continuity commitment to the organization, job satisfaction, stress and emotional exhaustion, de-personalization, personal accomplishment and propensity to leave the hospital.

Job satisfaction and the commitment have always been important issues for health care administrators, after all, high level of

absenteeism and staff turnover can affect the administrators. Despite the large number of studies on nursing job satisfaction (Loke, 2001; Meyer et al. 2001; Yoon & Thye, 2002; Silverthorne; 2004; Elloy; 2005; Lee 2005), the influence of organizational commitment, perceived organizational support, leadership behaviour, and level of education have received little attention among health care professionals. Research (Loke, 2001; Yoon & Thye, 2002; Freud, 2005) has shown that job satisfaction is affected by organization commitment, perceived organizational support, leadership behaviour, and level of education.

Wagner and Huber (2003) identified two key factors, organizational commitment and job tension, as reasons behind nurses leaving their positions. Many studies concluded that effective leadership is associated with better and more ethical performance. Simth, (1998), Loke, (2001), Fletcher (2001), Friedrich (2001), Krairiksh and Anthony (2001), Kleinman (2003) and Wynd (2003) found that the opinions of the employees in immediate supervision had more impact on the employee, than overall company policies or procedures. A positive relationship between job satisfaction and organization commitment has been reported by studies involving qualified professionals. A study was conducted by Wu and Norman (2006) in a nursing department of a medical university in China with a sample (75) of full time final year (clinical practice year) degree level

nursing students. The authors found a positive correlation between job satisfaction and organizational commitment ( $r = 0.464$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ). The results indicated that student nurses who were more satisfied with the nursing as a job were also more committed to the healthcare service.

### **Government & Private Sectors and Job Satisfaction:**

Volkwein and Parmley (2000) have studied on the topic, comparing administrative satisfaction in public and private universities. Results revealed that the hypothesized public/private differences are limited only to satisfaction with extrinsic rewards, and even these differences disappear when all relevant variables are controlled in a regression analysis. In both sectors, job satisfaction is most consistently linked to work environment characterized by teamwork and low levels of interpersonal conflict. Tyson and Pongruengphant (2004) examined sources of occupational stress, coping strategies and job satisfaction. Results indicated, that nurses working in govt. hospitals generally reported more stress than private hospitals, surprisingly, nurse's satisfaction with their job increased, particularly in govt. hospitals, which may be attributed to age, improvements in monetary compensation, and organizational support. Mrayyan (2004) have studied on nurses job satisfaction and retention, comparing govt. to private hospitals in Jordan, the results suggested, that nurses were moderately satisfied in their jobs with 'neutral' opinion about their retention. Nurses who worked in private hospitals

were more satisfied and intended to retain their jobs as compared to nurses in govt. hospitals.

On the other hand, some researchers have not found significant relationship between government and private sector, and job satisfaction. Such as, Mrayyan and Al-Faouri (2008) have studied on nurses' career commitment and job performance: differences across hospitals (government, teaching and private hospitals). Based on the total scores of nurse's career commitment, there were no significant differences across hospitals based on the total scores of nurses job performance, F-tests indicated some difference; the highest mean was at private hospital, using dimensional means of nurses job performance, uncovered no significant difference among hospitals. Individual items of nurses' job performance sub-scales differed, in some cases significantly, particularly for nurses working at private hospitals: nurses career commitment was correlated positively and significantly with their job performance. Mache et al. (2009) studied physicians working conditions and job satisfaction, does hospital ownership in Germany make a difference. The result shows that several aspects of physicians perceived working conditions differ significantly depending on hospital ownership. However, results also indicated that physicians job satisfaction does not vary between different types of hospital ownership.

**Length of Service & Job Satisfaction:**

There are contradictory evidences regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and the length of service. Bishay's (1996) study showed that length of service correlates positively with teacher's job satisfaction. Oshagbemi (2000) studied "Is length of service related to the level of job satisfaction?" The research distinguishes between length of service in higher education (LSHE) as a whole, and length of service in present university (LSPU) in order to separate academics who remain within one university since employment from those who hope from one higher educational institution to another. Two way ANOVA confirms the results of the frequency analyses and indicate that LSHE is not statistically significant, but LSPU is with a P value of 0.022. This means that the overall job satisfaction of university teachers significantly correlates with LSPU but not LSHE.

Sarker Crossman and Chinmeteepituck (2003) studied the relationship of age and length of service with job satisfaction. On examination of hotel employees in Thailand, the results indicated that employee age is not significantly associated with overall job satisfaction level, but length of service is related with it. There is also significant relationship between length of service and aspects of satisfaction (Job, pay, and fringe benefits), but the effect of length of service on satisfaction is significantly modified by age. Kocab, (2008) also found, that the level of job satisfaction of the participants, who

have longer years (20-25 years) in the occupation, are higher than of those, who have fewer years (3-7 years) in the occupation. However, Gosnell (2000) reported a negative relationship between length of service and teachers job satisfaction. There is evidence to suggest, that those with less than five years of service are most satisfied, while those who have been teaching for between 15 and 20 years are the least satisfied (Poppleton & Risborough 1991)

In Line with the findings of Poppleton and Risborough (1991), Cross man and Harris (2006), reported a curvilinear relationship between teacher's job satisfaction and length of service with least satisfaction being reported by the 11-20 years of service groups. In contrast, the studies by Dabo (1998) and Srivastava and Bharamanaikar (2004) showed no relationship.

### **Age and Job satisfaction:**

Research has often focused on age as a factor influencing job satisfaction. Available literature is somewhat inconclusive, however, with some studies showing no significant impact (Miller, 1985; Brown et al. 1998), some are showing a gradual linear increase of satisfaction as age increases (Hulin, 1963; Weaver, 1980; Anderson, Hohenshil and Brown, 1984), and some suggesting that satisfaction is curvilinear, and changes throughout the lifespan of the employee (Hertzberg et, al., 1957). Generally speaking, job satisfaction tends to increase gradually with age (Spector, 1997). Hertzberg et. al, (1957) attributes

this trend to the fact that job expectations tend to become more realistic as employees age and maturity.

Shader et al (2001) conducted their research on nurses and found that 20 to 30 years old nurses reported that work satisfaction and job stress were significant for them. For ages 31 to 40, work satisfaction was the most popular factor. Nurses of age 41 to 50, reported that work satisfaction and group cohesion were the primary factors. All the above factors were significant for them. This pattern may change, to show a relative decline in satisfaction after age of 55 (Jewell and Linda 1990), but this may be linked to the decreased physical energy and enthusiasm that may accompany the aging process. Still, many studies fail to show this late-career job satisfaction drop-off, and Quinn, Staines, and McCullough (1974) reported, that older workers remain satisfied because of promotions and acquiring more desirable positions within organizations. Others justify the findings by noting that people change jobs 6-7 times in a lifetime, and as people get older, they become more aware of their needs and make better choices. This incongruence of literature is likely due to situational job variances, and Zeitz (1990) supported this logic by demonstrating significant differences between satisfaction levels of federal employees based on their positions as elite professionals, non-elite professionals, and non-professionals.

**Gender and Job Satisfaction:**

Gender has also received a great deal of attention in job satisfaction studies, but again the research is inconclusive. In 1997, Thompson and McNamara reviewed all job satisfaction studies published in the *Educational Administration Quarterly* over the past six years and found no significant difference between male and female satisfaction levels. Other studies, that have shown no significant difference between gender and job satisfaction levels include Barbash (1976), D'Arely, Syrotvik, & Siddique (1984), and Smith, Smitz & Hoy (1998) arrived at similar insignificant findings until they compared the gender of the employee to the gender of the employer. They found that women were significantly more satisfied than men in small companies with female supervision, while males were significantly more satisfied in larger companies with male supervisors. Studies suggesting that gender does affect job satisfaction are available, and data has been found to suggest, that either men are more satisfied (Locke, Fitzpatrick & White, 1983; Black and Holden, 1998, Weaver, 1977) or that women are generally more satisfied means both are not quite satisfied in a given situation (Kramen-Kahn and Holden, 1998, Chapman and Lower, 1982). The inconsistencies, according to Gruneberg (1979), are closely linked to differences among expectations, respect, promotional prospects, salary, social interactions, and coping strategies of males and females and also the

jobs they often hold. Others suggest that men are more satisfied with their jobs than women because of unequal treatments at the workplace, and that under equal work conditions, women are more satisfied with their jobs than men. Al-Mashaan (2003) found that men scored significantly higher than women on both the scales of job satisfaction and optimism, while women scored significantly higher than men on both scales for pessimism and psychosomatic symptoms.

### **Salary and Job Satisfaction:**

Many researchers have identified salary as a fundamental variable in the study of job satisfaction (Miller, 1985; Derlin and Schneider, 1994; Solly and Hohenshil, 1986). Furthermore, the relationship between salary and job satisfaction has been addressed by virtually all job satisfaction studies in the last 80 years. Although the earliest research suggested that salary was not a significant predictor of job satisfaction (Hoppock, 1935; Herzberg et al. 1957), later studies began to suggest that salary was a factor up to a certain point in an employee's career (Herzberg. 1966). By the 1970's, salary was being viewed as a more significant factor in job satisfaction, and in studies such as the one conducted by Dyer and Theriault (1976) salary was found to be the most significant factor in determining job satisfaction. Other researchers of the 1970's also spoke of the significant relationship between salary and satisfaction, but they argued, that although low salary was a cause of dissatisfaction, high

salary was not necessarily related to satisfaction (Lawler, 1971). More recent studies have generally shown a positive relationship between pay and job satisfaction (Lucas et. al, 1990; Lee and Wilbur, 1985; Rhodes, 1983; Kanungo, 1982, Coomber, and Barriball, 2007), but the relationship seems to be linked more to perceptions of equity and fairness and also the actual dollar amount (Hulin and Smith, 1965; Spector, 1997).

Social comparison appears to be a key factor when looking at the relationship between satisfaction and salary, but employee expectations are also fundamental. According to Adams (1965), employees must feel that there is an equitable balance between the amount of work performed and the compensation received. In other words, if a worker feels that the compensation is either too large or too small for the amount of work performed, dissatisfaction may occur. Flinkman et al. (2008) found that the main reasons for nurses leaving the profession included dissatisfaction with salary, the demands of nursing work, the inconvenience of shift work/working hours and uncertain work status.

### **Rural vs. Urban Work Site and Job Satisfaction:**

In urban areas workers often have more job opportunities, better schools, efficient public transportation, better salary, higher prestige, and greater opportunities for spousal employment. Perhaps these are the factors that explained Arnold, Seekins, & Nelson's (1997) and

Finley's (1991) findings that showed higher levels of job satisfaction in urban educational professionals as compared to those in rural settings. On the other hand, rural settings and smaller communities can provide family-oriented settings, lower crime rates, recreational access and overall enhanced "quality of life". Two of the most commonly mentioned disadvantages of rural settings have been professional isolation and lack of opportunity for professional development. However, recent advancements in telecommunications and interactive networking through the Internet may decrease feelings of isolation and improve rural job satisfaction levels in the future.

### **Interpersonal Factors and Job satisfaction:**

Within the context of job satisfaction research, interpersonal relationships are the elements that make up the social and support network of an employee. These elements include the relationship with one's supervisor, the social interaction with co-workers, and even the interactions with clients and/or customers. According to Brown, Hosenshil and Brown (1998), employee supervision and interaction have been found to be the two most significant interpersonal factors when looking at job satisfaction.

The importance of co-worker social support has been investigated for decades. As far back as the Hawthorne studies of the 1920's, research has shown that workers who belong to a social group and have friendships on the job tend to be more satisfied (Maynard,

1986). Maynard suggests further, that employees who lack social support at work, experience more stress, have less coping techniques, and are generally less satisfied. Fellow employees can satisfy many social needs, and sympathetic and supportive co-workers can help increase in job satisfaction (Green, 2000). Co-workers are also vital for evaluating the equity and fairness of ones pay and work requirements, and social needs studies have shown that co-worker's job satisfaction can influence one's own job satisfaction (Brown et al. 1998).

The nature of supervision provided, can also have a significant impact on job satisfaction. Studies have shown that employees who have positive interactions with supervisors are generally more satisfied at work (Bruce and Blackburn, 1992; Vroom, 1982). Positive interactions tend to include constructive feedback, effective communication, and a focus on quality rather than quantity (Schroffel, 1999). Positive supervisory relationships are also those, that treat the employees with respect, those that promote staff cohesion but allow for individual thinking, and those that fulfill employee's functional and interpersonal needs (Locke, Cartledge and Knerr 1970). Supervision is a complex variable however, and it is unrealistic to assume that job satisfaction can be guaranteed as long as supervisors interact positively with their employees. Individual personality characteristics may, for example, affect the employee's needs and management

expectations. For example, Schroffell (1999) suggests that employees who have more experience desire less supervision and employees with less experience prefer more supervision. Also, studies have shown that organizational setting can affect the employee's desired supervisory relationship. In chaotic, ambiguous, or otherwise unstructured job settings, employees tend to prefer more structured supervision. Conversely, in jobs where tasks are clearly defined and workers are well trained, a less structured supervisory style is preferred (House and Mitchell, 1974).

#### **Intrinsic factors and Job Satisfaction:**

Reyes, Madsen, and Taylor (1989) found that intrinsic rewards had more influence on educators than any organizational rewards. Martinez-Ponz (1990) found that intrinsic rewards were more effective in increasing job satisfaction and commitment among teachers than were financial incentives. Work is unquestionably an intrinsic part of peoples' lives. "It is often our source of identity and at times our reason for being" (Bruce and Blackburn, 1992). Apart from decent pay, economic security, and other extrinsic and tangible rewards of employment, the intrinsic aspects of work are also relevant to the study of job satisfaction. Intrinsic factors are employees' affective reactions to the job, such as their satisfaction with the freedom they have to choose their own methods of working, the recognition that they receive for good work, and the opportunity they get to use their

ability. Intrinsic factors may also include perceived respect and responsibility, task variety, and meaningful work. These personally rewarding intrinsic factors have demonstrated a significant impact on job satisfaction in many studies (Hertzberg et. al., 1957; Locke, 1976, O'Driscoll & Randall, 1999). Dodd McCue and Wright (1996) found that job satisfaction is enhanced by the value placed on one's professional role and identification with that role, but negatively affected by choosing the job because rewards are extrinsic (external to the work itself, such as fellow workers, salary, or promotion opportunities).

Kirkman and Rosen's (1999) work also spoke of the importance of worker autonomy and its positive relationship with job satisfaction and performance. Stewart (2000) suggested that helping to make workers feel independent had large positive effects on both performance and satisfaction outcomes. Cappelli (2000) highlighted the importance of intrinsic rewards when participants rated interesting work, open communications, and opportunities for advancement, as the top three things they desire in their jobs.