CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present a review of relevant literature to build a framework for understanding the determinants of work motivation and work-related behavior. This chapter commences with the discussion and conceptualization of work motivation and its determinants. This is followed by a discussion of the different views on the determinants of work motivation (environment characteristics and job characteristics) with attitudinal output (e.g. Job performance, job satisfaction and job commitment) and work-related behavior (e.g. absenteeism and turnover intention) within available literature. The review of prior researches on these literatures of work motivation helps to identify the gaps of current literature that aims to fulfill by this research work. Work motivation is measured using "positive" as perks and "negative" as irks of each job characteristics and work environment characteristics with attitudinal and work-related behavior of the faculty.

2.2 Meaning of work

Work is taken as the fulfilling responsibilities to obtain a certain achievement in any office, organization, home and other sector which is very important for every individual in their lives. Everyone expects a certain reward in exchange of their time and labor that is provided based on the assigned duty. The rewards might be pure extrinsic, (for example money) or that may be purely intrinsic, (for example personal satisfaction) that is obtained from providing the service. Similarly, each employee expects the certain reward instead of rendered service that directly links in his/her performance. The rewards based on the extent to which such expectations are met
would presumably affect in large measure the tendency of the worker to continue at the current level of performance or leave the organization searching the better opportunities in other organization.

Similarly, work is taken as the general platform to fulfill the social functions in their daily life. Most of the workers have intimacy in course of working together and it provides an opportunity to be closer and intimate friend due to meeting, helping and connecting to each other daily. It is clear that many employees appear to spend more time interacting with their co-workers in comparison to their family members.

Similarly, the opportunity to work in a system developed organization provides a social status or rank in the society that openly gives a person an identification and self-satisfaction. For example, a mechanic who is trained in a specific mechanical work is generally considered to be on a higher level than an unskilled human resource in the society. Similarly, government secretary would generally accord higher status than a driver or someone else. It is clearly understood that work, or more precisely what one does at work, often transcends the boundaries of the work within organization. The government secretary in our example has higher status in the community because of his/her position within the organization. Thus, work becomes simultaneously a source of social differentiation as well as a source of social integration (Steers & Porter, 1991).

The work provides the higher-level self-satisfaction as the employee earns and saves for the family and for him/herself as well. It decreases the different types of torture and tension that gives while fulfilling the duties and responsibilities as a responsible member of the family. It directly increases the psychological aspect of human being to make self-dependent in their life. Sometimes, due to the nature of task, people feel frustrated, boredom, and try to leave the job although the rewards and other things are in the proper place which might be the cause of self-health family and other
inevitable causes. In another way, the person's performance is determined by the outer social/cultural and financial boundaries in which the person is bound to.

2.3 Work motivation

According to (Pinder, 2008) work motivation is defined as "a set of energetic forces that originate both within as well as beyond an individual's being, to initiate work related behaviors, and to determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration". Motivation refers to internal factors that impel action and to external factors that can act as inducements to action (Locke & Latham, 2004). Motivation can affect not only the acquisition of people’s skills and abilities but also how and to what extent they utilize their skills and abilities. Some underlying properties of motivation are: (1) motivation is an individual phenomenon [i.e. each individual is unique and all of the major motivational theories allow in one way or another for this uniqueness to be demonstrated (e.g., different people have different needs, expectations, values, attitudes, reinforcement histories, and goals)]; (2) motivation is intentional [i.e. motivation supposedly is under the employee's control (e.g., effort on the job)]; (3) motivation is multifaceted [i.e. the two factors of greatest importance have been the arousal (activation, energizers) and direction (choice) of behaviors]; and that (4) motivation is concerned with action and the internal and external forces that influence one's choice of action. Motivation is not the behavior itself, and it is not performance. Rather, the behavior is the criterion on which it is chosen (Ahluwalia, 2011).

When we discuss motivation, we are primarily concerned, it energizes our thinking, fuels our enthusiasm and colors our positive and negative emotional reactions to work and life. So, the main aim of this research is to find out the main determinants of work motivation and how it predicts different work-related behaviors (e.g.
Theories of motivation have been studied to understand the concept of motivation as an important predictor of employee behavior. Motivation theories have been categorized into need based theories (content theory) and process based theories (Makewa, Ndahayo, & Kabanda, 2014). These theories are pedestal of all work motivation. Here, these theories have been discussed to understand the philosophy of work motivation so as to incorporate the same in the study of determinants of work motivation and its output.

The most primitive outlooks on human motivation were based on the concept of hedonism: the idea that people seek pleasure and comfort and try to avoid pain and discomfort. The basic foundation of need theories is that human motivation is caused primarily by deficiencies in one or more important needs or need categories. It emphasizes on what motivates and are concerned with identifying people's needs and their relative strengths, and the goals they pursue in order to satisfy these needs (Uzonna, 2013).

Process theories emphasize on the actual process of motivation (Uzonna, 2013). It assumes that job satisfaction can be explained by investigating the interaction of variables such as expectancies, values, and needs. These theories are concerned with the relationships among the dynamic variables which make up motivation, and with how behavior is initiated, directed and sustained. They attempt to explain how people go about satisfying their needs and choose between behavioral alternatives (Sengupta, 2010).
2.4 Development trends of motivation theory

Theories of work motivation have passed through many stages, influencing and being influenced by the prevailing management, ideologies and philosophies of each era. Although it is possible to trace a sequence to this development, it does not mean that the old theories have expired. There are employers and managers today adhering vigorously to one or other of them, basing their beliefs not on research or empirical evidence but on an almost ideological framework of values and assumptions. These beliefs help them understand their own role and those of others around them (Bjorklund, 2001)

Scientific Management (1947): This was formally popularized by Frederick Winslow Taylor aimed to measure and control of people’s work on the shop floor (Taylor, 1911). This approach has played an integral role in management history, in general, and the human relations movement, in particular (Carson, 2005, p. 452). The principles underlining scientific management are Utilitarian and Hobbesian. According to Utilitarian theories, people are ‘rational-economic’ beings primarily motivated by economic reward. Employee work hard, if they convinced to get sufficient amount of rewards and following a consequent logical pattern of behavior at work (Taylor, 1947). Hobbesian approaches assume that employees, in their ‘natural state’, are lazy, aggressive, self-centered, hedonistic and greedy. Taylor, therefore, viewed shop floor problems of inefficiency to be the result of a lack of control, or inappropriate control, allowing the workers to return to their natural state.

To measure the effort expended by workers, Taylor proposes complex tasks to be broken down into the simplest, constituent elements. He recommended the specialized division of labor, whereby each worker would specialize in performing one simplified task, thereby maximizing individual productivity. This allowed the effort
necessary from an ‘average worker’ to complete the task to be determined and also allowed tasks to be analyzed in order to find those procedures that would maximize an operative’s productivity with minimum expenditure of effort (Sengupta, 2010). The conclusion of this approach is “The principal object of management should be to secure the maximum prosperity for the employer, coupled with the maximum prosperity for each employee” (Carson, 2005).

**Human Relation (1949):** Its movement began from a series of experiments carried out at the Western Electric Company’s Hawthorne plant, which, in the late 1920’s led to a new paradigm of worker motivation and output (Mayo, 1949). This theory highlights the performance of an individual depended not only on the incentives aimed at the individual but also on the network of relationships within organization. The basic premises of the human relation movement are employees primarily respond to their social environment and the motivation of employee depends as much, or more, on social needs than on economic needs.

Under these assumptions, the initiative for work (the source of motivation) shifts from the manager to the worker. The manager becomes the facilitator of work, ensuring the needs of the worker are catered for in order to achieve a satisfactory level of output. The psychological contract in such organizations involves a commitment on the part of the organization to care for the personal and social needs of employees in return for a high level of loyalty, motivation and output from the workers.

**Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs (1954):** Abraham Maslow (1954) developed need theory of work motivation called "Hierarchy of Needs". He identified five levels of needs in the hierarchy and displayed these in the form of a pyramid with the most fundamental needs at the bottom and the need for self-actualization at the top of pyramid. It includes the physiological needs (food, shelter for living and certain
material wants); safety and security needs (protection from physical and mental destruction); social needs (sense of affection, concern, belongingness and friendship with others); self-esteem (acknowledgement and admiration); and self-actualization need (to have those rights which a person deserves). Once that level of need is satisfied it is no longer a motivator, and the person is motivated by the next level up the hierarchy. Hierarchical theory explained (Maslow, 1954) motivation as a constantly changing desire to fulfill changing needs. Three basic assumptions have been presumed to underlie this theory. First, unsatisfied needs stimulate behavior, while satisfied needs are not motivators. Second, people's needs range from the most basic (e.g., physiological) upward to more complex need levels (e.g., self-esteem). Third, individuals must, at least minimally, satisfy an inferior level of need before moving upward and activating a new area of need (Berl, Willianson, & Powell, 1984)

**Herzberg’s Two Factor Theory (1959):** Herzberg (1959) proposed a theory in which he differentiated between factors of satisfaction and factors of dissatisfaction at work, known as "Two Factor Theory". Herzberg broadened the theory that was proposed by Abraham Maslow. He carried out a study that revealed factors that caused satisfaction and dissatisfaction (motivators and hygiene factors) among employees. Motivators involved recognition, advancement, growth etc. i.e. the factors that caused intrinsic satisfaction. Hygiene factors involved working environment, company policy, supervisor support etc. i.e. the factors that were associated with job dissatisfaction when they were not present, but their presence does not make employees much satisfied (Khan & Mansoor, 2013). Herzberg argued that the extrinsic aspects of work (the hygiene factors) could not provide a source of motivation for people but could, if ‘bad’, provide a source of dissatisfaction and thus de-motivate employee. Hygiene factors should be seen as the necessary precondition to allow the motivator factors to influence
employee's motivation. In a situation in which there were ‘good’ hygiene factors, the employee would be in a state of ‘no dissatisfaction’. The motivator factors, which Herzberg described as “complex factors leading to this sense of personal growth and self-actualization”, would then be able to act on that employee and increase job satisfaction and productivity. Thus, in order to motivate workers towards higher productivity “while it is important to ensure that the hygiene factors are correct, the manager must manipulate the motivators by attending to job-content issues (Sengupta, 2010).

Theory X and theory Y (1960): This theory was developed by (McGregor, 1960). According to the theory X, organization considers that its employees are very idle and lethargic. Moreover, managers consider that their employees do not like to work, they usually avoid performing their duties, and they have no aim to flourish in life (Khan & Mansoor, 2013). The theory X implies that managerial roles must be well established with corresponding reward systems to motivate the employees. It suggests that without an attractive incentive program, employees will avoid responsibility whenever they can (McGregor, 1960). According to the theory Y, supervisors believe that employees are energetic, active; self-determined and implement willpower (Sengupta, 2010). They assume that employees enjoy their job, they take it as a challenge, and they try their best to complete their tasks within the limited time and are goal oriented. They can, therefore, exercise self-control and self-direction in executing their tasks (McGregor, 1960)

ERG Theory: This theory, developed by Alderfer is a re-working of Maslow’s need hierarchy to align it more closely with the empirical research. In ERG theory, there are three groups of core needs – Existence, Relatedness and Growth. The existence group is concerned with providing basic material existence requirements and
includes the items that Maslow termed physiological and safety needs. Relatedness needs are the needs for maintaining important interpersonal relationships and align with Maslow’s social need and the external part of the esteem need. Finally, growth needs involve the intrinsic desire for personal development and include the intrinsic element of Maslow’s esteem category as well as self-actualization needs. The principal difference between Maslow’s need hierarchy and ERG theory is that ERG theory does not assume hierarchy of need must be satisfied of an individual. ERG theory therefore allows individuals to seek satisfaction of various needs from different levels of the hierarchy simultaneously. ERG theory also postulates that when a higher order need is frustrated, an individual will increase their level of desire for a lower level need. For example, where an individual is unable to satisfy their growth needs, due perhaps to a restrictive work environment, their desire for rewards such as money is likely to increase (Sengupta, 2010).

**Three Needs Theory (1967):** Three need theory was developed by (McClelland, 1961) in which he states that every human being requires to have met three fundamental needs that play a very important role in motivating them during their work. These needs involve achievement- the drive to excel; affiliation - the desire for friendly and close interpersonal relationships and power- the need to make others behave in a way they would not have behaved otherwise (Khan & Mansoor, 2013). Individuals that have high needs for achievement have passion to succeed and go beyond others. They prefer to perform task in such a manner that has never been accomplished before by anyone. Individuals that have high affiliation needs prefer to work with others, they like to make friends and want a companionship of others. Individuals having high needs for power desire to get hold of others, they want to supervise and control others and to lead them in the direction they desire to take them.
The need for affiliation is the desire to be liked and accepted by others. Individuals with high affiliation motive strive for friendship, prefer co-operative situations rather than competitive ones, and desire relationships involving a high degree of mutual understanding (Sengupta, 2010).

**Reinforcement Theory:** Reinforcement theory proposed by (Skinner, 1953) states that human behavior depends upon the consequences that caused it. “Reinforcement is a term in operant conditioning” “which is a type of learning in which an individual's behavior is modified by its consequences”. The central operators of operant conditioning are reinforcement and punishment which are either positive or negative, “This creates a total of four basic consequences in operant conditioning, with the addition of a fifth procedure known as extinction”.

The behavior of manager towards employees is said to be a positive reinforcement, when it is followed (stimulated) by employees’ behavior (e.g. good performance) that is rewarding (pleasant). If the employees’ behavior (e.g. poor performance) sends an aversive (unpleasant) stimulus to the manager, the manager will try to remove it by employing more strict policies. If only by doing so improves the performance, the manager will continue to adopt more strict policies, this is known as negative reinforcement (escape). A punishment (e.g. reducing bonus of certain employees) incase these employees are not performing well after receiving bonus will be considered as positive punishment when after it is being done by manager results in better performance by those employees in future. A punishment in case the employee does something that is against the rules and regulations of the organization will be considered as negative punishment (penalty) when after it is being done by manager results in avoiding such mistakes by that employee in future. Extinction occurs when management has to withdraw a set of newly implemented improvement policies or
restrictions because such policies or restrictions are bringing no improvement in the organization (Kinger & Mesci, 2010).

Expectancy Theory (1964): This theory was proposed by (Vroom, 1964). He introduced new concepts of Valence, Instrumentality and Expectancy. Valence refers to the worth that an individual place to rewards earned by him. Instrumentality refers to such a condition in which a person is sure that he will receive a reward if he performs well. Expectancy refers to the certainty that the work performed by individual would help him to achieve desired performance (Khan & Mansoor, 2013). According to the theory, the act with the highest motivational force is the one the individual will choose to pursue. The theory is founded on the idea that people prefer certain outcomes from their behavior over others. They anticipate feelings of satisfaction, should the preferred outcome be achieved (Vroom, 1964). Vroom’s expectancy theory suggests that people not only are driven by needs but also make choices about what they will or will not do. The theory proposes that individuals make work-related decisions on the basis of their perceived abilities to perform tasks and receive rewards. Expectancy, instrumentality and valence are given probability values. Because the model is multiplicative, all three variables must have high positive values to imply motivated performance choices. If any of the variables approaches zero, the probability of motivated performance also approaches zero. Vroom’s expectancy theory Suggests that both situational and personality variables that produce job satisfaction (Sengupta, 2010).

Equity Theory (1963): It was developed by John Stacy Adams in 1963. This theory states that employees should receive same and equal rewards as those received by their peers. He said that employees demand fairness between the efforts they are putting in and the rewards they are getting against these efforts and the output of their colleagues. This theory implies that an employee gets motivated when he believes that
his mates are also getting the same reward as he is getting (Khan & Mansoor, 2013). Equity theory proposes that workers compare their own outcome/input ratio (the ratio of the outcomes they receive from their jobs and from the organization to the inputs they contribute) to the outcome/input ratio of another person. Adams called this other person “referent.” The referent is simply another worker or group of workers perceived to be similar to one self. Unequal ratios create job dissatisfaction and motivate the worker to restore equity. When ratios are equal, workers experience job satisfaction and are motivated to maintain their current ratio of outcomes and inputs or raise their inputs if they want their outcomes to increase. Outcomes include pay, fringe benefits, status, opportunities for advancement, job security, and anything else that workers desire and receive from an organization. Inputs include special skills, training, education, and work experience, effort on the job, time, and anything else that workers perceive that they contribute to an organization (Sengupta, 2010).

**Goal-setting Theory (1960):** Locke (1960) proposed a theory known as goal setting theory. This theory states that goals lead towards improvement in employee performance. Bottom line of this theory is that employee performance increases when they try to achieve some specific goals rather than pursuing general goals. Moreover, by setting complex goals, employee motivation increases which results in increased performance (Khan & Mansoor, 2013).

Specifically, it suggests that specific goals increase performance, difficult goals, when accepted, result in higher performance than do easy goals and that feedback leads to higher performance than does non-feedback. It is assumed that, holding other variables constant, the more difficult the goal, the higher the level of performance. However, it is also true that the goal must be accepted by the individual and that easier goals are more likely to be accepted. The task difficulty must therefore be easy enough
to ensure acceptance from the employee but difficult enough to encourage a high level of effort.

Feedback helps identify discrepancies between what an individual has done and what they want to do, and therefore guides them as to how well they are progressing toward their goals. Evidence has also shown that self-generated feedback, where the employee is able to monitor his or her own progress, is a more powerful motivator than feedback from external sources, such as supervisors. It has been suggested that where employees have the opportunity to participate in setting their own goals, their effort exerted in achieving those goals will be greater than where the goals have been assigned to them. Three other factors have been found to influence the goals – performance relationship. Firstly, goal commitment occurs where the individual is determined not to lower or abandon the goal. This is most likely to happen when goals are made public, when the individual has an internal locus of control and when the individual participates in the goal setting. Secondly, the individual’s level of self-efficacy, their level of belief that they have the ability to perform the task, has been found to influence the amount of effort an individual is willing to exert to achieve a difficult goal. Additionally, individuals high in self-efficacy seem to respond to negative feedback with increased effort and motivation while those low in self-efficacy are likely to lessen their effort when given negative feedback. Lastly, goal setting theory suggests that it will be most appropriate in cultures where workers expect and seek a certain level of independence and challenging goals and where the level of performance is considered to be important (Sengupta, 2010).

2.5 Extrinsic motivation

Extrinsic motivation is a construct that pertains whenever an activity is done in order to attain some separable outcome (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Extrinsic motivation thus
contrasts with intrinsic motivation, which refers to doing an activity simply for the enjoyment of the activity itself, rather than its instrumental value. Extrinsic motivation is invariantly non-autonomous. Extrinsic motivation variables deal with the tangible rewards for example salary, security, promotion, the work environment and conditions of work. Parts of these rewards are economical with instrumental orientation.

2.6 Intrinsic motivation

Intrinsic motivation is defined as the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfactions rather than for some separable consequence. When intrinsically motivated a person is moved to act for the fun or challenge entailed rather than because of external prods, pressures, or rewards (Ryan & Deci, 2000). It describes psychological variables, such as an opportunity to express one's abilities, a sense of challenge and achievement, appreciation and recognition. Furthermore, employees have work expectations that help to drive motivation. These expectations are mostly about social relationships and include needs such as friendships, group working, and desire for affiliation, status and dependency.

Although, in one sense, intrinsic motivation exists within individuals, in another sense intrinsic motivation exists in the relation between individuals and activities. People are intrinsically motivated for some activities and not others, and not everyone is intrinsically motivated for any particular task. Because intrinsic motivation exists in the nexus between a person and a task, some authors have defined intrinsic motivation in terms of the task being interesting while others have defined it in terms of the satisfactions a person gains from intrinsically motivated task engagement.

Intrinsically motivated activities were said to be ones for which the reward was in the activity itself. Thus, researchers investigated what task characteristics make an
activity interesting. In contrast, because learning theory (Hull, 1943) asserted that all behaviors are motivated by physiological drives (and their derivatives), intrinsically motivated activities were said to be ones that provided satisfaction of innate psychological needs.

Choice, positive performance, feedback and the opportunity for self-direction appear to enhance intrinsic motivation, as they afford a greater sense of autonomy. In conclusion, social contextual conditions that support one’s feelings of competence, autonomy, and relatedness are the basis for one maintaining intrinsic motivation and becoming more self-determined with respect to extrinsic motivation.

2.7 Job characteristics as a determinants of work motivation

The job characteristics theory (Hackman & Oldham, 1976) argued that the most effective means of motivating individuals is through the optimal design of jobs. This theory focuses on facilitating high internal work motivation through proper assigning of job to the individual in the organization. Thus, this theory does not examine the negative consequences that are associated with the job characteristics. The authors proposed that the means for increasing internal work motivation is to design jobs so they will (1) provide variety, involve completion of a whole, and have a positive impact on the lives of others; (2) afford considerable freedom and discretion to the employee and (3) provide meaningful performance feedback. The authors further explain that individual differences in the strength of growth needs moderate the degree to which these job characteristics have a positive impact on job performance.

(Hackman & Oldman, 1974) suggested that job characteristics, such as skill variety, task identity, task significant, autonomy and feedback motivated employees in their job commitment. The job characteristics model stipulate that the way jobs are perceived in terms of these five core job characteristics tend to impact three particular
psychological states in employees which include: experienced meaningfulness of work (i.e. the extent that the work is seen as making a difference to others), felt responsibility (i.e. the extent that the worker assumes responsibility for his / her work), and knowledge of results (i.e. the extent to which the worker is aware of the quality of his/her work) (Harryobi, Joe, & Oguegbe, 2013).

These work characteristics were expected to increase positive behavioral (e.g., job performance, job commitment and job satisfaction) outcomes and decrease negative behavioral outcomes (e.g., absenteeism and turnover intention).

2.7.1 Skill variety

Skill variety is the degree to which a job requires a worker to use different skills, abilities, or talents of the employee to carry out different activities (Hackman & Oldman, 1974). It is the variety and complexity that is apparently seemed to be completion of skill and talent required by a job to execute it (Anjum, Fan, Javed, & Rao, 2014). The job demands a number of skill and ability to perform the work. It involves the usage of a set of different skills and traits of the person for purposeful accomplishment. For example, low skill variety dominates employee when he/she is performing the same tasks cyclically or in a routine base. The job environments that provides multivariate tasks that involves many different skills and talents to perform work, then in this scenario significance of skill variety as job characteristic is signified. Higher the involvement of skills variety in the job is, the more meaningful, challenging and interesting it is (Anjum, Fan, Javed, & Rao, 2014).

When a task requires a person to engage in activities that challenge or stretch his skills and abilities, that task almost invariably is experienced as meaningful by the individuals. If a job requires several skills of an employee, that individual may find the
job to be of enormous personnel meaning even if any absolute sense it is not great significant (Hackman & Oldham, 1976).

When a task is repetitive, workers are more likely to experience only low levels of cognitive arousal and, as a result, disengage from the task. Alternatively, they engage in behaviors that, while raising their arousal levels, also detract from job effectiveness. Thus, with repetition of the same task, not only might workers be less likely to identify new ways to improve performance, but they also may lose motivation, resulting in decreased performance. Since job satisfaction predicts an individual’s turnover, this then suggests that task variety may lead to an increased likelihood to stay at the firm.

The study, impact of job characteristics on social and human service workers (Allen, Lambert, Pasupuleti, Tolar, & Venture, 2004) found skill variety (job variety) has significant impact on organizational commitment. It appears that social and human service staff wants job that have variety and allow them to learn new things. Similarly, another study, made the effect of job characteristics on satisfaction and performance was found significant relationship between the skill varieties and job satisfaction (Kassem & Sarhan, 2013). All these findings are consistent with job characteristics theory.

On the contrary, the study of job characteristic and job commitment (Harryobi, Joe, & Oguegbe, 2013) among private sector workers found the insignificant relation between the skill variety and employee commitment which was found the inconsistent with the job characteristics theory.

2.7.2 Task identity

Task identity is the degree to which job requires completion of a whole and identifiable piece of work i.e. doing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome (Hackman & Oldman, 1974). It is the level up to which a job requires accomplishment
of full and considerable part of work from starting to end that brings a viable outcome (Anjum, Fan, Javed, & Rao, 2014).

The central focus has been given on job design in organizational behavior research the need for task identity (Hackman and Oldham 1976). Changing the task increase workers’ mental stimulation or arousal, as well as their task engagement, thus improving performance. Additionally, task identity can create the opportunity for knowledge transfer between tasks which may result in learning. For example, a worker may recognize that a step used in completing task “A” may improve her productivity in completing Task “B”. Additionally, by completing task “A” and task “B” a worker may recognize a higher order principle that affects both tasks.

Task identity may lead to increased job engagement. Task identity is related to job satisfaction as workers tend to enjoy the cognitive stimulation due to the change in tasks.

The study, made “the effect of job characteristics on satisfaction and performance” was found significant relationship between the task identity and job satisfaction in agricultural extension work context (Kassem & Sarhan, 2013).

2.7.3 Task significance

The degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives or work of other people whether in the immediate organization or in the external environment (Hackman & Oldman, 1974). Task significance is thought to be particularly critical in today’s economy, employees are interested with doing work that benefits other people. Thus, they are concerned with the opportunities to contribute the society and social organizations (Grant, 2008). Scholars have often argued that job performance can be enhanced through the cultivation of perceptions of task significance-judgments that
one’s job has a positive impact on the life of employee and on the lives of other people (Grant, 2008, p. 108).

An empirical study of the effect of job characteristics on satisfaction and performance was found significant relationship between the task significance and job satisfaction in agricultural extension work context (Kassem & Sarhan, 2013).

On the contrary, the study of job characteristic and job commitment (Harryobi, Joe, & Oguegbe, 2013) among private sector workers found the insignificant relation between the task significance and employee commitment which was found the inconsistent with the job characteristics theory.

2.7.4 Autonomy

It is the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence and discretion of the employee in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying out it (Hackman & Oldman, 1974). They suggested that job autonomy is the extent to which a job allows freedom, discretion and independence to schedule work, make decisions, and choose the procedures and methods to perform activities (Galletta, Portognese, & Battistelli, 2011). Therefore, among job characteristics, job autonomy could activate critical psychological states that facilitate several positive outcomes.

The perception of job autonomy is supposed to generate work motivation. When individuals perceive job autonomy, they feel a sense of personal responsibility (Hackman and Oldham, 1976), which makes them attach a negative valence to not taking action when opportunities arise and when there is the need to support the organization. In contrast, (Parker, Wall, & Jackson, 1997) argue that when individuals perceive low autonomy, they develop a narrow and inertial perspective of their job. They feel powerless, passive and unwilling to show enthusiasm and work dedication.
The non-existence of some core job characteristics will lessen the level of job satisfaction and level of internal motivation (Anjum, Fan, Javed, & Rao, 2014).

An empirical research investigation by (Petrova, 2011) on autonomy and motivation found that motivated workers are more likely to be in autonomous jobs, and that they receive higher wages in autonomous jobs. In autonomous jobs employees are highly motivated which leads employee performance.

It was observed encouraging and reassuring employee in their job work place play a vital role in modern society. When assigning an employee to a workplace with an enriched job design in the sense that he/she has a high degree of autonomy and varied tasks, this will increase the job satisfaction depending of his/her personal suitability for such a workplace (Fahr, 2011).

The empirical evidence shows that there is significant, positive effect of autonomy on team performance. The autonomy provided to employee in making their decisions increase employee’s intrinsic motivation. Higher intrinsic motivation leads to higher performance (Yang & Choi, 2009).

On the contrary, the study of job characteristic and job commitment (Harryobi, Joe, & Oguegbe, 2013) among private sector workers found the insignificant relation between the autonomy and employee commitment which was found the inconsistent with the job characteristics theory.

The absenteeism increases with working environment (inadequate delegation of autonomy) because it reduces the decision-making power, irrespective of their abilities. They perceive the inadequate autonomy as a burden which lead to absenteeism (Nyathi & Jooste, 2008).

The absenteeism is found increased with role ambiguity (job characteristics) because it indicates that nurses lack clarity on how they are expected to perform their
duties. The study (Nyathi & Jooste, 2008) holds the view that nurses, who are not given an opportunity to use their own initiative, perceive the work as boring and lacking motivating potential that increase absenteeism in the workplace.

2.7.5 Job feedback

It is the degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the results in the employee obtaining direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his/her performance (Hackman & Oldman, 1974). When an employee is getting clear and direct information about the effectiveness of work activities, he/she is performing regarding his/her performance then this type of feedback helps to increase the performance (Anjum, Fan, Javed, & Rao, 2014).

Feedback from the job enables individuals to gauge their progress towards goal attainment. Without feedback, goals will have no impact on subsequent performance. Goal setting is more effective when it is accompanied by feedback. Feedback from the job does not improve performance directly; rather, it serves as an essential condition for goal setting to work (Selden & Brewer, 2000, p. 535). Thus, the manager can motivate employee by providing positive feedback to attain the goals, creating environment of perceiving the feedback as information and developing the self-efficacy on employee.

A study carried by (Latham & Pinder, 2005) found employee having self-efficacy seek feedback from their supervisors and coworkers regarding role expectations and performance. They explain when the employee perceived the feedback as supportive information, then it will increase the performance. They noted people with high self-efficacy use feedback to increase motivation, task focus, efforts and to decrease anxiety.
The significant contribution to negative feedback indicate that negative feedback does not operate in a vacuum. Results indicate that employees are more motivated to improve their job performance based on unfavorable feedback when the feedback source is perceived to be credible, the feedback is of high quality and the feedback is delivered in a considerate manner (Steelman & Rutkowski, 2004).

The study, made “the effect of job characteristics on satisfaction and performance” was found significant relationship between the feedback and job satisfaction in agricultural extension work context (Kassem & Sarhan, 2013).

On the contrary, the study of job characteristic and job commitment (Harryobi, Joe, & Oguegbe, 2013) among private sector workers found the insignificant relation between the feedback and employee commitment which was found the inconsistent with the job characteristics theory.

**Proposition:** Skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback from the job will be positively related to (a) job satisfaction, (b) job performance, (c) job commitment and negatively related to (a) absenteeism (b) turnover intention

### 2.8 Environmental characteristics as a determinant of work motivation

#### 2.8.1 Supervisor's (leader) behavior

Supervisors are the first level of management powered on major duties and responsibilities to form and lead work groups in organizations. They play an important role as an intermediary between management and operational employees. As an experienced leader, problem solver and role model at the group level, supervisors often work together with their employers to shape the work environment, influence employee
attitudes and perception is widely acknowledged in organization behavior (Ali, Elm, & Mohamad, 2013).

For positive impact on individuals, teams, and organizations, both practitioners and researchers suggested to change the leadership paradigms such as directive versus participative leadership, consideration versus initiating structure, autocratic versus democratic leadership, and task versus relations-oriented leadership should be broadened. A democratic supervisor behavior is necessary for generating dedicated and committed employees to cope with competitive environment. It enables the employees to get them involved in decision-making and to minimize conflicts among employees because conflicts arise when an autocratic leader assigns overlapping and ambiguous responsibilities to employees (Munir, Malik, Chahal, Nasir, & Iftikhar, 2012).

The empirical study on testing the relationship between supervisor’s role and job performance in the workplace training program found that supervisor’s role has been a partial predicting variable of job performance in the studied organization (Azman, Sieng, Ajis, Dollah, & Boerhannoeddin, 2009). They further explained current research and practice within training management models needs to consider supervisor’s role as a vital aspect of the organizational training system. The ability of supervisors to provide sufficient support and implement good communication may lead to induced positive attitudinal and behavioral outcomes (e.g., satisfaction, commitment, trust, good working ethics and performance). Thus, these positive outcomes lead to sustain and achieve organizational competitiveness in a global economy.

Evidence shows that good leaders’ behavior increased employees’ job performance. They play a mediating role in the relationship between organizational culture and employee outcomes and an atmosphere for good leadership to flourish;
which will ultimately lead to increased employees job performance (Ali, Elm, & Mohamad, 2013).

A research carried on rethinking leadership style and found democratic leadership style has significant association with organizational stress and plays an important role in minimizing it. They also explained that it helps managers to understand how to minimize organizational stress by adopting an appropriate leadership style and properly using leadership powers granted to them (Munir, Malik, Chahal, Nasir, & Iftikhar, 2012).

Another studied on relationship between principals’ leadership styles and secondary school teachers’ job satisfaction in Kenya and found that democratic leadership style has a significant positive correlation with teachers’ job satisfaction. They suggested that democratic leadership style is the most appealing leadership style that attracted more followers. Further, they noted it does not only lead to a higher level of job satisfaction but also a teacher's high level of commitment to duty (Kiboss & Jemiryott, 2014).

A study was conducted on positive and significant relationship between relations-oriented leadership behaviors and the organizational climate dimension reward. These findings demonstrate that, if leaders want their employees to be more committed to the organization, which ultimately reduces turnover and the numbers of absent days, then they must develop close and interpersonal relationships with their employees (Holloway, 2012). Relations-oriented leaders socialize and build relationships and through the formalization of relationships, leaders foster a sense of teamwork and cohesion that promote positive relationships throughout the organization’s atmosphere.
The findings of the study (Biron & Bamberger, 2012) explored that participative supervisor always creates the supportive environment to reduce the absenteeism in organization buffering mechanism, alleviating the strain and other negative outcomes. Likewise, the study (Hassan, 2014) found negative significant effect of job satisfaction and turnover intention. Similarly, the empirical study (Ajaz & Mehmood, 2015) explored the significant relationship between supervisor's behavior and turnover intention and found that the increased satisfaction level of employees increases the tenure of them in the organization. It helps to reduce the turnover intention and absenteeism (Baloch, Zaman, & Jamshed, 2010).

On the contrary, the findings (Ojokuku, Odetayo, & Sajuyigbe, 2012) explored that the autocratic supervisor's behavior has positive effect on organizational performance of employees in Nigeria banking industry. Likewise, in another study (Akinbode & Fagbohungbe, 2012) , it was found that the autocratic supervisor's behavior yields positive effect on job commitment in Nigeria. In the same way, the findings explored (Adeyemi, 2011) revealed that supervisor’s autocratic behavior resulted teachers' better job performance against the general theory of democratic or laissez-faire leadership styles creates the better performance.

2.8.2 Co-worker's (Peer) behavior

The behavior of co-worker in the work place can influence the way an employee perceives and experiences the work environment. Co-worker relationships refer to relationships between employees at the same hierarchical level who have no formal authority over one another (Wainaina, Kipchumba, & Kombo, 2014) and includes to any individual with whom one works (including supervisors and subordinate employees). However, co-worker relationships are often assumed to refer specifically to relationships among peer employees. Co-workers can provide different valences of
influence, positive (social support) and negative (antagonism) to their colleagues on individual outcome. Co-worker's support assists one another in their tasks when needed by sharing knowledge and expertise as well as providing encouragement and support. Thus, all these behaviors influence the level of work motivation.

Group cohesiveness helps employee for better recognize interdependence between their own and co-workers task. When cohesion exists within a work group, it usually leads to effectiveness within a group and the job becomes more enjoyable (Morris, 2009). The social context of work is also likely to have a significant impact on a worker’s attitude and behavior. It is evident that work groups characterized by co-operation and understanding amongst their members tend to influence the level of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Findings of a survey conducted by (Madison, 2000) on more than 21000 women occupying the most demanding jobs indicated that those participants who lacked support from co-workers were more likely to suffer from job dissatisfaction. Similarly, another survey conducted amongst 1250 food brand employees found that positive relationships with co-worker enhance job satisfaction (Betra, 2005). Similarly, the study (Chou & Robert, 2008) revealed that the co-worker's instrumental and emotional support helped to increase the job satisfaction. Likewise, the regression analysis result (Rizwan, et al., 2012) found that the team work in an organization helped to increase job satisfaction.

The nature and quality of peer relationships is important in individual as well as the organization level. Researcher noted on co-worker transparency in a micro task market place taking different number of co-worker group and found the strong correlation between the larger numbers of co-workers can have a positive influence on motivation and work quality (Kinnaird, Dabbish, Kiesler, & Faste, 2013).
A study conducted by (Hasan & Subhani, 2012) on co-worker’s motivational efforts on morale and job commitments of employees found that co-workers' various motivational efforts have the great impact on employee morale. Co-workers support is the source of positive spirit which leads employee towards the accomplishment of objectives. Likewise, the empirical research on effect of co-worker and student-teacher relationship on teacher’s organizational commitment and found that there is a significant positive relationship between teachers and their colleagues, and between teachers and students in the district (Wainaina, Kipchumba, & Kombo, 2014, p. 12).

On the contrary, the findings (Butt, Rasil, Khan, & Iqbal, 2012) revealed that the team work support did not contribute to increase the job commitment of nursing staff working in the hospitals.

2.8.3 Physical working environment

The physical workplace environment impacts employees' morale, productivity and engagement - both positively and negatively (Chandasekhar, 2011, p. 2). Poorly designed workstations, unsuitable furniture, lack of ventilation, inappropriate lighting, excessive noise, insufficient safety measures in fire emergencies and lack of personal protective equipment provokes negative performance (Leblebici, 2012). The quality of the physical workplace environment impacts employee’s level of motivation and subsequent performance (Ali, Ali, & Adan, 2013). Employees are concerned with their work environment for both personal comfort and for facilitating good job performance. Studies have demonstrated that employees prefer physical surroundings that are safe, clean, comfortable and with a minimum degree of distractions (Obasan, 2011, p. 35).

Evidence suggests that physical environment well-being consists physical, functional and psychological factors (Vischer, 2007). Physical well-beings are met through applying current building codes and standards to architectural design.
Functional well-being is met providing appropriate lighting for screen-based work, ergonomic furniture for computer users, and enclosed rooms available for meetings and collaborative work. Psychological well-being can be obtained from feelings of belonging, ownership and control over workspace. Optimal environmental support for work performance is most likely to occur when workspace quality is assured. The comfortable physical environment in workspace supports the tasks and activities that are being performed there and, uncomfortable condition or bad fit, or mismatch work environment fails to support them and in fact slows down the employees’ performance (Vischer, 2007).

The empirical evidence (Aisha, Hardjomidjojo, & Yassierli, 2013) revealed that the supporting working conditions (physical facilities) highly encourage the employee to work willingly in the organization which increase the job performance and reduces the efforts to search another job. Similarly, another study conducted on the impact of infrastructure facility (Khan, Azhar, Parveen, Naeem, & Sohail, 2010) found that conducive work environment ensures the well-being of employees as well as enables them to exert themselves to their roles with all vigor that may translate to higher performance. Having the right environmental factors physical as well as psychosocial will lead to increase job performance of the employee in the organization (Jayaweera, 2015).

The study (Butt, Rasil, Khan, & Iqbal, 2012) found the quality physical environment (quality of patient areas, safety and quality of work spaces) positive significant with job commitment among nursing staff in hospital. Likewise, another study (Qasim, Cheema, & Syed, 2012) revealed that working environment of the organization positively effect on the job satisfaction of the employee. Another study, (Ojo, Akinbola, & Oyedele, 2015) found that well infrastructural facilities in organizations
have significant positive relationship on the job satisfaction of employees. Similarly, the study (Jain & Kaur, 2014; Neog & Barua, 2014) found well-developed physical environment (good working condition, refreshment & recreation facility, health & safety facility, fun at workplace) increase the degree of job satisfaction. In addition to this, the study (Rizwan, et al., 2012) found physical work place environment has significant positive effect on job satisfaction of the employee in the organization.

The study of organizational climate (Saungweme & Gwandure, 2011) found that the employee shows high turnover intention in adverse working climate. Similarly, a study made (Rizwan, Arshad, Munir, Iqbal, & Hussain, 2014) on person organization fit (environment characteristics) using regression analysis of the intention to leave model shows that there is significant positive relationship among person organization fit and intention to leave. Similarly, another study (Ajaz & Mehmood, 2015) revealed the impact of working conditions (proper lighting, building design, temperature, air quality, noise, furniture etc.) on employee performance and found that employees always seek to have convenient work conditions and prefer to work in such environment which gives them physical and mental comfort and convenience with little intention to quit.

2.8.4 Incentives systems

Incentive refers (Monis & Sredhar, 2011; Cheema, Shujaat, & Alam, 2013) all the monetary, non-monetary and psychological payments that an organization provides for its employees in exchange for the work they perform. As a key element within human resource management, the role of incentives and their management have been recognized as a major motivator for employees as well as an important tool and expenses for the organization (Wai & Rowley, 2009). The various dimensions of incentives (level of pay, payoff magnitude, monetary and non-monetary incentives
etc.) affect the level of motivation of employee (Ude & Coker, 2012). The general hypothesis regarding the effects of monetary incentives on effort and performance is that greater incentives lead to greater effort that would have been the case in their absence (Bonner & Sprinkle, 2002).

Incentives have been studied from the perspective of different areas, including organizational behavior (OB), organizational theory, industrial/organizational psychology, sociology, economics, labor economics and law to strategy and international management (Wai & Rowley, 2009).

The empirical study of meta-analysis of 72 field studies found that an organizational behavior modification intervention using monetary incentives improved task performance by 23 percent. Further it was found that monetary incentive has the strongest effect compared to feedback and social recognition (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2001).

The empirical study of tangible and intangible rewards (Dzuranin & Stuart, 2012) found the better result in mixing reward (tangible and intangible) compared to tangible rewards alone. Similarly, another study conducted on banking sector of Saudi Arabia found between incentives, motivation and job performance of employees has a strong positive relationship. Incentives have positive significance relation on motivation and motivation is positively related to the job performance (Jehanzeb, Rasheed, Rasheed, & Aamir, 2012). Likewise, the study of the impact (Aisha, Hardjomidjojo, & Yassierli, 2013) of incentives (salary, job security, working group, and achievement) on job performance found that positively significant. In addition to this, the incentive which fulfill the basic needs of the employee will lead better job performance. Similarly, another study (Khan, Azhar, Parveen, Naeem, & Sohail, 2010) studied using chi square found the positive impact of incentives on employee job
performance. Likewise, the studies factor influencing (Neog & Barua, 2014) found the strongly positive impact of salary on job satisfaction of automobile service workshops employees.

The empirical study of meta-analysis found, higher pay level is positively correlated with job satisfaction (Judge, Piccolo, Podsakoff, Shaw, & Rich, 2010). This indicates that within an organization, those who make more money are little more satisfied than those who make considerably less. The findings (Oni-Ojo, Salau, Dirisu, & Waribo, 2015) revealed that financial rewards (salary, profit sharing, bonuses and fringe benefits) encourage workers externally; while nonfinancial rewards satisfy employees internally by making them feel like a valued part of an organization that improve the employee's performances. Another study using regression analysis (Rizwan, et al., 2012) found that the rewards and recognition provided by the organization increase the job satisfaction. Similarly, the study conducted at university level of Punjab on the impact of pay and promotion (Malik, Danish, & Munir, 2012) has found significant positive impact on job satisfaction of the employee.

On the contrary, the study of the impact of income and age on employee commitment in Nigerian banking sector (Obja, 2008) found high income earning employees above >1.1 million, expressed less commitment to their organizations than their low income-earning (<1 million) counterparts. Likewise, another study, impact of remuneration on job satisfaction (Qasim, Cheema, & Syed, 2012) was found significant negative impact on employee job satisfaction. Similarly, another study explored the effect of promotion on job satisfaction (Qasim, Cheema, & Syed, 2012) found significant negative impact on job satisfaction.

The study of the promotion between male and female (Bushra, 2012) found significant positive impact on female employee, (Baloch, Zaman, & Jamshed, 2010)
indicates that the more women employees are given chances for promotion, the more they are satisfied with their current jobs, and the less likely to leave. Likewise, another study (Ajaz & Mehmood, 2015) showed that workers with higher pay are more satisfied compared to lower pay and found the positive relationship with high pay and turnover intention.

**Proposition:** Supportive supervisor’s (leader) behavior, co-worker’s behavior, physical environment and incentives on the job will be positively related to job satisfaction, job performance, and commitment and negatively related to absenteeism and turnover intention.

### 2.9 Attitudinal behavior

#### 2.9.1 Job satisfaction

Employee motivation and job satisfaction have always been central issues for any organization to achieve the desired goal. Positive motivational factor creates job satisfaction in the organization. These factors lead to increase employee’s satisfaction, eventually the positive effect of employee satisfaction increase organization’s performance (Saleem, Mahmood, & Mahmood, 2010). Job satisfaction is an affective emotional response to work that is produced by an employee in comparison of the real results that are achieved to the results he/she expects from the working environment. It posits the difference between a desired outcome of a person receives and the desired outcome the person believes he/she should receive (Rizwan, et al., 2012). A person with a high level of job satisfaction holds positive attitudes toward the job, organization and co-workers while a person who is dissatisfied with his/her job holds negative attitudes towards the job.

Job satisfaction is an individual attitude towards his/her job, either in general or specific dimension refers to the extent to which a person likes his/her job (Lut, 2012).
The level of job satisfaction reflects and is affected by one’s work experiences as well as his/her present situation and future expectations. A study found that there is a significant association that exists between pay, promotion, fringe benefits etc. and job satisfaction (Arokiasamy, Tat, & Abdullah, 2013, p. 1602). Similarly, the specific aspects of job characteristics, rewards, supervisor behavior and co-workers' behavior and higher order need fulfillment significantly effect on job satisfaction level among the employees. Employees care the quality of their work as well as the organization’s performance. Maintaining employee satisfaction programs, organizations can significantly improve the bottom line by reducing high levels of staff turnover and absenteeism, while maximizing the output (Murzuki, Permadi, & Sunaryo, 2012).

Increasing maturity and work experience lead workers to adjust their ambitions and work expectations to a more realistic level. These new expectations are more attainable, and satisfaction tends to increase job performance of the employee.

The attitudinal type of job satisfaction suggests that an individual would attempt to stay with a satisfying job and quit with dissatisfying job. Job satisfaction as a predictor of significant behavioral outcomes, such as determined to turnover intention and absenteeism. Job satisfaction is associated with increased output, efficiency, loyalty with the organization, and reduced absenteeism and turnover (Saleem, Majeed, Aziz, & Usman, 2013). Job satisfaction positively effect on the ability, effort and capability of the employees however, if they are not satisfied with the job then it may cause turnover intentions.

Motivated employees have a give-and-take effect on the entire organization. Survey among Russian workers found additional pay is important. Workers with high incomes were reported high level of job satisfaction. The Russian workers participating
in this survey exhibited a positive attitude toward work and found intrinsically motivated in their work (Linz, 2003).

Interesting, challenging, autonomous and meaningful work creates intrinsic motivation among the employees. The fact shows that employees working in managerial position are significantly more satisfied than regular employees with high intrinsic work motivation. It is because managerial position provides more diversified and challenging task compared to regular employee (Westlund, Kristensen, & Westlund, 2004). The research result of personality, motivation and job satisfaction shows that job status (full time) was significant predictors of job satisfaction of the employee from retail, manufacturing and health care industries (Furnham, Eracledus, & Premuzic, 2009).

Supervisor's behavior plays a dominant role in enhancing the subordinate efforts to maintain high performance level of the organization. Evidence shows that employees compare the nature of the job, co-workers' behavior and support, supervision style of supervisor with salaries, benefits, work conditions, promotion and communication as satisfier factors in the organization. The result found that there was significant correlation between the use of supervisor's behaviors and job satisfaction (Rad & Yarmohammadian, 2006). The results of exploratory factor analysis reveal that factors, i.e. workplace environment, supervision, co-operation from work allocation, and remuneration extracted are important determinants of job satisfaction (Kaur, 2015). Another research indicates that higher educated employees focus on high salaries and fair promotion systems which lead higher job satisfaction (Chen, Yang, Shiau, & Wang, 2006). But in another study, it was found that female employees were found to be more satisfied with pay than their male counterparts, whereas, males were more satisfied with supervision style (Crossman & Zaki, 2003). Satisfaction with the workplace was
positively associated with job satisfaction. The result of linear regression analysis found that there was no significant difference between positive work environment and job satisfaction. However, results propose that physical environmental status below expectation levels leads to dissatisfaction, but exceeding expectation level does not increase satisfaction levels of the employee (Lee, 2006).

2.9.2 Job commitment

Normally job commitment is perceived of an individual psychological attachment of an employee with the organization, which depends on the degree of employee’s motivation, involvement, loyalty, and trust in the values and norms of the organization (Naveed, Iqbal, Javed, & Hamad, 2014). It is a degree of the worker’s willingness to continue with the organization in the future. It is an important tool for improving the performance of the organizations. Employees with higher organizational commitment involve in organizational citizen behavior (OCB) which enhances the performance and beneficial to the organization. High-commitment environment improves employee retention rate, reduces operating costs and promotes employee performance and efficiency.

Commitment has been conceptualized and measured in various ways. The three-component model of job commitment developed by (Allen & Meyer, 1990) arguably dominates organizational commitment research which measures three forms (e.g. affective, normative, and continuance) of organizational commitment.

Affective commitment (AC) explains employee emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization and its goals. As a result, it becomes almost natural for the individual to become emotionally attached to and enjoy continuing membership in the organization, identified factors which help create intrinsically rewarding situations for employees to be antecedents of affective
commitment. These factors include such as job characteristics concerning employee job performance, positive feeling towards the organizational support (Tolentino, 2013) and the degree that employees are involved in the goal-setting and decision-making processes (Johnson & Yang, 2010).

Normative commitment (NC) implies a feeling of obligation to stay with the organization, resulting in one's feeling he/she ought to stay. In exchange for employment, employees feel compelled to reciprocate with loyalty and commitment that derive from morality and value-driven principles based on reciprocity norms and socialization practices (Johnson & Yang, 2010).

Continuance commitment (CC) refers as willingness to remain in an organization because of personal investment in the form of nontransferable investments such as close working relationships with co-workers, retirement investments and career investments, acquired job skills which are unique to a particular organization, years of employment in a particular organization, involvement in the community in which the employer is located, and other benefits that make it too costly for one to leave and seek employment elsewhere (Prabhakar & Ram, 2011).

The physical work environment play an important role in determining organization commitment. The behavior of employee is greatly influence of working climate in the organization. A study conducted by (Butt, Rasil, Khan, & Iqbal, 2012) and found that the physical work environment has significant relationship with nurses’ commitment.

Organizational support theory states that employees develop a general perception concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being. Such perceived organizational support would strengthen affective commitment to the organization (Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe,
Organizational commitment, organizational identification and job satisfaction have been the focus of interest of many studies. The results of study indicate that organizational commitment and organizational identification are inversely related to job satisfaction. This suggests that higher levels of organizational commitment and organizational identification among bank employees leads to higher levels of job satisfaction (Tuzun, 2009).

Organization communication, job stress, job performance is important variable to determine the organizational commitment. From the research, it was found there is positive relationships between organization communication, organizational commitment and job performance. This finding suggests that organization can strengthen their communication channels to increase the organizational commitment and job performance among accounting professionals (Chen, Silverthorne, & Hung, 2006).

Supervisors are the first level of management powered on major duties and responsibilities to form and lead work groups in organizations. They play an important role as an intermediary between management and operational employees. The study found that the combined samples (Australian and Hong Kong), innovative and supportive cultures, and a consideration leadership style, had positive effects on both job satisfaction and commitment. The effect of a consideration leadership style on commitment, being stronger in the Australian sample whereas initiating structure leadership style had a negative effect on job satisfaction for the combined sample (Lok & Crawford, 2004). Another Study found that with a few exceptions, leadership behavior was significantly related to organizational commitment, and organizational culture played an important role in moderating this relationship. Organizational
commitment was found to be significantly associated with job satisfaction, but not with employee performance (Yiing & Ahmad, 2009).

Well-being was found to be positively related with affective and normative commitment and negatively related with continuance commitment. The reason behind this could be that healthy employee view things through a positive frame of mind that may incline them to be affectively committed. The presence of an external work locus of control (personality variable) has a positive impact on the relationship whereas negative impact with internal work locus of control (Jain, Giga, & Copper, 2009).

A study found that the trust of management, is an important determinant of their willingness to participate the employee in decision making. Insufficient employee participation in decision making in turn leads to low level of employee job satisfaction and employee commitment. Lack of employee commitment and engagement affects the employee’s intention to quit (Appelbaum, et al., 2013).

2.9.3 Job performance

Motivation is the most important determinant of individual job performance. Highly motivated employees are more likely to be high performers, is widespread in management and organizational psychology literature (Imran, Fatima, Zaheer, Yoysaf, & Batool, 2012). A study found the significant relation between motivation and teaching performance and weak negative correlation between motivation and research performance of university staff (Abdulsalam & Mawoli, 2012). Another study conducted on employee motivation and organizational performance found that there is positive relationship between motivation and job performance. Hence, increase in employee productivity will increase organizational performance tremendously (Soloman, Hashim, Mehdi, & Ajagbe, 2012).
There is an established body of knowledge supporting the idea that certain jobs with goal can enhance employee performance. Well-designed jobs have a positive impact on both employee satisfaction and the quality of employee performance. They found when jobs are designed ergonomically, there is overall interaction of technology, work, and human beings. These types of job designing combines the anatomy, physiology and psychology of human science which provides the opportunity of most productive use of human capabilities, which in turn, increase the performance (Gerg & Rastogi, 2006).

Workplace environment plays an important role to determine employees’ performance. The factors of workplace environment give an immense impact to the employees’ either towards the negative or positive outcomes. Evidence shows that the physical workplace environment and job has positive impact on employee performance (Naharuddin & Sadegi, 2013). The effect of transformational leadership and work environment on employee performance found positive impact of work environment as a mediator between transformational leadership and employee performance (Imran, Fatima, Zaheer, Yoysaf, & Batool, 2012).

The study of factors affecting job satisfaction (such as working conditions, ability utilization, teamwork, creativity and autonomy) found positively correlated with organizational performance. When employee satisfaction is optimized and expedited, it acts as an incentive to enhance organizational performance. On the contrary, when employees are dissatisfied, it reduces organizational performance (Mafini & Pooe, 2013). An empirical evidence of survey data shows that the factors i.e. autonomy, responsibility, information, and creativity each have positive and significant impact on team performance (Yang & Choi, 2009).
A growing number of countries is developing some kind of program, on workplace innovation to enhance all competences of the potential workforce and to increase labor productivity by “working smarter”. Empirical research shows that simultaneous improvement of performance and quality of working life is possible under certain conditions such as the participation of employees by means of interventions in the domain of workplace innovation (Pot, 2011).

Results indicate that performance incentive variables are positively related to audit judgment performance. The financial incentives improve audit judgment performance as compared to no incentive group. Analysis support the hypotheses that the mediation effect of effort on the relationship between performance incentives and audit judgment performance occurs under low task complexity. The positive relationship between effort and audit judgment performance is weakened under high task complexity (Sanusi & Iskandar, 2006).

2.10 Work related behavior

2.10.1 Turnover intention

Turnover has both positive and negative aspects; however, it is in the interests of organizations to eliminate the negative aspects (Arokiasamy, 2013). The negative aspects of turnover cause an undue burden on organization’s budget and human resources, i.e., time dedicated to employee recruiting, advertisements, interviews, initial training, supervision, motivation, evaluation, adaptation to the new job, mentoring, coaching, and substitution while the position is vacant and so on (Unovckova & Klupakova, 2013). Due to the limitation of the study positive aspects of turnover has been ignored.

The lack of adequate employee motivation and clear goals leads the organizational inefficiency which in turn, increases turnover intention (Unovckova &
Klupakova, 2013). It is influenced by several factors that predicts turnover intentions; includes personal characteristics, external factors, work environment, job characteristics, etc. Among the determinants, they noted job characteristics are more efficient predictor of turnover intentions. Addressing the employee perceived quality regarding their job, organization, and managerial practices by the management, can reduce the turnover intention (Slatten, Svensson, & Svaeri, 2011).

Turnover behavior is independent and individual determinants of the respondents. To predict the turnover intentions of nurses, they found various biographical and other factors involve (whether positively or negatively), that correlates well with actual turnover. These factors are race, the number of dependents, marital status, tenure, education, age, salary and positional level. On the same study, they found due to the greater responsibility of main household wage-earners are less likely to exhibit turnover than individuals who are secondary wages earners (Stang & Greyling, 2010).

Intended destination choices (within the organization or outside the organization) of turnover are determined by specific factors related to personal, job and organization, but not labor market (Kirschenbaum & Weisberg, 2002). They found that antecedents for each destination choice are different and each antecedent has a different importance and impact on the respondents' destination choice. They reported that internal job factors and co-worker’s intention to leave would likely influence employees' distinction choice. The feeling of co-workers’ intentions to change a job or work place acts as a form of social pressure (cognitive dissonance) on another employee to make a move (Felps, Mitchell, Herman, Lee, & Holton, 2009).

According to job characteristics model (Hackman & Oldham, 1976) the presence of specific (positive) aspects of an employee's job-related duties and tasks
positively affects employee psychological states, which, in turn, reduces employee turnover and increases motivation, performance, and job satisfaction (Cailler, 2011). The effect of job characteristics on employee turnover, found the significant and negative correlations between job characteristics with turnover intentions. Further he stated that higher the level of these job characteristics, lower the turnover intentions and vice versa (Samad, 2006).

An empirical study carried on rewards and turnover intention found direct relationship between these variables. Employees who are satisfied with organizational rewards compared to other organizations do not think to leave (Subramanian & Shin, 2013). In contrast to this, when employees perceive, incentives are distributed unfairly and insufficient compared to work effort that lead to, frustration and quit from the organization. The performance related pay reveals a negative relationship with turnover (Ohalloran, 2012).

Another determinant of employee turnover intentions is quality of leader member exchange. They noted that these relationships occur as a consequence of the higher quality relationships more likely to be formed by employees with higher emotional intelligence abilities. It is observed the quality of an employee’s perceived relationship with their leader is linked to an employee’s ability to manage their own emotions and greater job satisfaction which reduce turnover (Jordan & Troth, 2011). Similarly, another study explains when employee perceived low level of job stress with high leadership support, turnover intentions get reduced and vice versa (Chiu, Chien, Lin, & Hsiao, 2005).

2.10.2 Absenteeism

Absenteeism has long been considered a significant and universal problem in many organizations (Thirulogasundaram & Sahu, 2014). As a result, numerous studies
have been conducted to identify the consequence of absenteeism. Absenteeism is caused by employees avoiding a painful or dissatisfying work situation. Employees who find their job more challenging, more interesting, or more pleasurable absents less often than employees who find their work less pleasurable. Absenteeism is a chronic problem for which there is no clear culprit and no easy cures (Obasan, 2011).

Absenteeism issues arise within the employment relationship and should be resolved tactfully, maintaining good relationship between employer and the employee. Absenteeism can be very costly to organizations and enormous savings can be realized through effective management (Senel & Senel, 2012). Absenteeism is influenced by dozens of interrelated factors which make it even more difficult to “quantify, qualify or rectify. Pay, promotion, work interest, supervision, co-workers, working condition and fairness of supervisor’s behavior are found strong determinants of employee absenteeism in a work place (Obasan, 2011). The improvement of working conditions must be an integral part of any scheme that is aimed to decrease sickness absences. The fact supports that poor working condition at the work place leads dissatisfaction and increase sickness absences (Bockerman & Ilmakunnas, 2008).

Absenteeism is individual behavior that organizations can never eliminate, but they can manage it. Organizations may recognize a certain level of absence is indeed functional based on their policy. The critical role that leaders can play in shaping the work environment and influence employees work related behavior is widely acknowledge. Evidence support 78% of the respondents are agree that turnover depends on supervisor’s emotional support, allows for participation in decision-making and listens to employees’ inputs. Similarly, 56% of the respondents accepted friendly behavior of co-workers and 90% of the respondents prefer physical surroundings that are safe, clean and comfortable with a minimum degree of distractions to reduce the
absenteeism (Thirulogasundaram & Sahu, 2014). The quality of exchange relationship in the workplace between supervisor and subordinate has an important influence on subordinate well-being by supervisor behavior to boost short-term absenteeism (Dierendonck, Blanc, & Breukelen, 2002).

When immediate supervisors’ behavior is perceived transformational, employees report greater satisfaction, and illegitimate absenteeism decreases. In contrast, when employees perceive their leaders’ role as passive avoidant, job satisfaction decreases and illegitimate absenteeism increases. Passive avoidant leadership style motivates employees to come to work when they are ill but stay away from work when they are healthy. Such presence of employee is costlier than absenteeism to the organization (Frooman, Mendelson, & Murphy, 2012).

Job stress creates negative emotional states like job dissatisfaction, frustration and depression. Enhancing positive emotion towards the organization by building a supportive relationship between the supervisor and the subordinate also help to reduce the job stress. Irrespective of the hierarchical position, supervisors have the opportunity to develop high-quality relationships with their subordinates and thereby decrease the likelihood of absenteeism (Reuver & Woerkom, 2010).

The job characteristics model advocates that jobs that are meaningful, interesting, and challenging motivate employees and enhance job satisfaction. The constructive aspects of job characteristics model (autonomy, skill variety, task identity, task significance, and feedback) and absenteeism have a positive relationship which helps to increase the job satisfaction, internal work motivation and job performance which in turn, reduce the absenteeism (Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007).

Absenteeism can be viewed as a behavior that might have a stable pattern of occurrence in future. So, the effect of prior absenteeism results particularly on later
absenteeism. Employees who have a high rate of absenteeism at present will have high rate of absenteeism in future which is the early indication of employee’s intentions to leave the organization (Cohen & Golgn, 2007). Similarly, the importance of absolute compensation, status related job characteristics (e.g., relative wages position) and the hierarchical level (e.g., title, autonomy) reduce the probability of being absent. In the absence of these variable is more likely of employee absenteeism (Pfeifer, 2010).

2.11 Research gaps

Following research gaps were identified after an extensive literature review in the field of employee motivation, specifically in the context of educational institutions, and more particularly in the Nepalese context:

- Most of the studies on employee motivation have been undertaken in the context of business organizations. There is not much research work carried out in the context of educational institutions. Practitioners agree that there is a growing problem related to employee motivation in the educational sector also and therefore this area merits serious research attention. Furthermore, most of the existing studies on employee motivation have been carried out in the Western context. The researcher did not come across any Nepalese study, barring a few studies discussed in the above section. The researcher did not come across any Nepalese study available that investigates the reasons as to what factors attract employees to join educational institutes and what factors become the causes for the same set of employees to leave the organization. Determinants and output of employee motivation continues to be an area of interest as well as importance in educational institutions, in view of the limited compensation.