Chapter No. 4

Theoretical and Conceptual Framework of the Study - Theories of Job Satisfaction
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4.1 Maslow’s Need Hierarchy Theory

The need hierarchy of motivation, propounded by Abraham Harold Maslow is, the simplest and most widely discussed theory of motivation. The essence of the theory may be summarised thus:

1. Human being have wants and desires which can influence their behavior. Only unsatisfied need can influence bahaviour, satisfied need do not act as motivators.
2. Since need are many, they are arranged in the order of their importance, or hierarchy (hence the nomenclature need-hierarchy theory of motivation), from the basic to the complex.
3. The person advances to next level of hierarchy, or from the basic to the complex, only when the lower-level need is, at least, minimally satisfied.
4. Further up the hierarchy the person is able to go, the more individuality, humaneness, and psychological health he or she will display.

The most basic level of needs comprises the primary or physiological ones. So long these needs are unsatisfied, they monopolise a person’s consciousness and virtually have an exclusive power to motivate behavior. However, when they are satisfied, they cease to be motivators.

The satisfied of primary needs does not produce contentment. Instead, it unleashes a new series of discontent. The secondary needs now begin to acquire the power to motivate. People do not stop wanting. After physiological needs are fulfilled, they begin to want, in succession, safety, love, esteem, and self-realisation. Maslow also
suggested that people can travel down as well as up the hierarchy. Loss of existing satisfaction of primary needs for example, can re-activate that level and increase its relative importance. A detailed description of each level of needs as follows.

Figure 4.1 : Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs

Source: K. Aswathappa, Human Resource and personal Management

**Physiological Needs:** The most basic, powerful, and obvious of all human needs is the need for physical survival. Included in this group are the needs for food, drink, oxygen, sleep, sex, protection from extreme temperature, and sensory stimulation. These physiological drives are directly concerned with the biological maintenance of the organism and must be gratified at some minimum level, before the individual is motivated by higher-order needs. Put in another way, the person who fails to satisfy this basic level of needs just will not be around long enough to attempt satisfaction of higher need levels.
Admittedly, the social-physical environment in our country provides for the satisfaction of the primary needs of most persons. However, if one of these needs remains unsatisfied, the individual rapidly becomes dominated by that needs, so that all other needs quickly become non-existent or become decidedly secondary. The chronically hungry person will never strive to compose music, or build a brave new world. Such a person is just too preoccupied with getting something to eat.

**Safety Needs:** Once physiological needs are met, another set of motives, called safety or security needs, become motivators. The primary motivating force here is to ensure a reasonable degree of continuity, order, structure, and predictability in one's environment. Maslow suggested that the safety needs are most readily observed in infants and young children because of their relative helplessness and dependence on adults.

Other instances of the need for safety occur when individuals are confronted with real emergencies that is, war, crime, waves, floods, earthquakes, riots, societal disorganizations, and similar other conditions.

Security needs in the organizational context correlate to such factors as job security, salary increases, safe working conditions, unionization, and lobbying for protective legislation. Managerial practices to satisfy the safety needs of employee include pension schemes, group insurance, provident fund, gratuity, safe working condition, grievance procedure, system of seniority to govern lay-off and, other. Aandom or unpredictable actions, actions which create feeling of uncertainty (particularly regarding continued employment), favoritism, or discrimination on the part of superiors, hardly create a feeling of security in an employee mind.

**Belonging and Love Needs:** The belonging and love needs constitute the third level in the hierarchy of needs. These needs arise when physiological and safety needs are satisfied. An individual motivated on this level longs for affectionate relationship with other, namely, for a place in his or her family and/or reference groups. Group's membership becomes a dominant goal for the individual. Accordingly, the person will
keenly feel the pangs of loneliness, social ostracism, and rejection, especially when induced by the absence of friends, relatives, a spouse or children.

Maslow believed that love involves a healthy, loving relationship between two people, which includes mutual respect, admiration and trust. Maslow also stressed that love needs involve both giving and receiving love. Being loved and accepted is instrumental to healthy feelings of worth. Not being loved leads to feelings of futility, emptiness, and hostility.

In the organizational context, social needs represent the need for a compatible work group, peer acceptance professional friendship, and friendly supervision. Managers do well to encourage informal groups. Besides, supervision requires being effective, and friendly behavior with subordinates pays.

Unfortunately, many managers view friendly relations of employees with their peers as a threat to the organization, and act accordingly. Managers have often gone to considerable lengths for control and direct employee’ relationships in ways that are opposed to the natural grouping of humans. Therefore, when a manager assumes that informal group always threaten the organization, and actively strives to break up the existing groups, the individuals affected may become resistant, antagonistic, and uncooperative. These resistant actions are often consequences or symptoms, not causes, for the manager may have dissatisfied the fulfillment of the social needs, and perhaps even the safety needs.

**Self-esteem Needs:** Next in Maslow’s hierarchy are esteem or egoistic needs. Maslow classified these needs into two subsidiary sets-self-respect and esteem from others. The former includes such things as desire for competence, confidence, personal strength, adequacy, achievement, independence, and freedom. An individual needs to know that he or she is competent and capable of mastering tasks and challenges in life. Esteem from other includes prestige, recognition, acceptance, attention, status, reputation, and appreciation. In this case, because theory competence is recognized and valued by others.
Satisfaction of the self-esteem needs generates feeling and attitudes of self-confidence, worth, strength, capability and of being useful and necessary in the world. In contrast, thwarting these needs leads to feelings and attitudes of inferiority, ineptness, weakness, and helplessness. These negative self-perceptions may, in turn, give rise to a feeling of discouragement, sense of futility and hopelessness in dealing with life’s demands and a low evaluation of self vis-à-vis others. Maslow emphasized that the healthiest self-esteem is based on respect earned from others rather than on fame, status, or adulation. Esteem is the result of effort—it is earned. Hence, there is a real psychological danger of basing one’s esteem needs on the opinions of others rather than on real ability, achievement and adequacy. Once a person relies exclusively upon the opinions of others for his or her own self-esteem, he or she places himself or herself in psychological jeopardy. To be solid, self-esteem must be founded on one’s actual worth rather than on external factors beyond one’s control.

In the workplace, self-esteem needs correspond to job title, merit pay, peer/supervisory recognition, challenging work, responsibility, and publicity in company publications. Managerial practices to fulfill these needs include challenging work assignments, performance feedback, performance recognition, personal encouragement and involving employee in goal setting and decision making.

**Self-Actualisation Needs:** Finally, if all the earlier four level needs are satisfied, the need for self-actualisation comes to the fore. Maslow characterized self-actualisation as the desire to become everything that one is capable of becoming. The person who has achieved this highest level presses towards the full use and exploitation of his or her talents, capacities, and potentialities. In other words, to self-actualise is to become the total kind of person that one wants to become, to reach the peak of one’s potential.

The needs for self-actualisation are distinctive, in that it is never fully satisfied. It appears to remain important and insatiable. The more apparent satisfaction of it a person obtains, the more important the need for more seems to become.

Though the impulse to realize one’s potential is natural and necessary, only a few, usually the gifted ones, ever do so. Maslow himself estimated that less than one per
cent of the population fulfils the need for self-actualisation. Maslow puts forth three reasons for this. First, People are invariably blind to their own potentialities. Second, the social environment often stifles developments towards self-fulfillment. Women, for example, were stereotyped for long as housewives. This prevented them from reaching self-fulfillment. A final obstacle is the strong negative influence exerted by the safety needs. The growth process demands a constant willingness to take risks, to make mistakes and learn from them, and to give up old habits. This requires courage. It logically follows that anything that increases the individual’s fear and anxiety also increases his or her tendency to regress towards safety and security.

In an organisation, self-actualisation need correlate with desire for excelling in one’s job, advancing an important idea, successfully managing unit, and the like. By being aware of the self-actualisation needs of subordinates, managers can use a variety of approaches to enable them to achieve personal as well as organisational goals.

4.2 Herzberg Two Factor Theory:

According to Herzberg, satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not opposite poles of one dimension, they are two separate dimensions. Satisfaction is affected by motivators and dissatisfaction by hygiene factors. This is the key idea of Herzberg, and it has important implication for managers.

To achieve motivation, managers should cope with both satisfiers and dissatisfiers, improve hygiene factors-dissatisfaction is removed from the minds of employee. A favorable frame of mind is now created for motivation. Provide satisfiers, and motivation will take place. Managers should be realistic and should not expect motivation by only improving the ‘hygienic’ work environment.

Intrinsic factors, such as achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth seem to be related to job satisfaction. These factors are variously known as motivators, satisfiers or job-content factors. On the other hand, when employee are dissatisfied, they tended to attribute it to extrinsic factors such as company policy and administration, supervision, working conditions, salary, status,
security, and interpersonal relations. These factors are also known as dissatisfiers, hygiene factors, maintenance factors, or job-context factors.

Figure 4.2: Hygiene Factors and Motivators

Source: K. Aswathappa, Human Resource and personal Management

Figure 4.3: Contrasting views of satisfaction and dissatisfaction
4.2.1 Motivators:

Motivators are those factors which do not dissatisfy. These factors if are present they will increase satisfaction level of the employee. Like if the responsibilities of a person are increased then it will increase his / her satisfaction level but if that person fails to perform new responsibilities then it will cause boredom. The person has to increase his skills to perform well.

4.2.2 Hygiene Factors:

Hygiene factors are those factors which cause satisfaction if these factors are present and are appropriate in their view. For example monetary benefits which are important and if monetary benefits are proper and are good as compared in the industry these will lead to increase in satisfaction.

4.3 Vroom’s Expectancy Theory:

Expectancy theory is based on the idea that work effort is directed towards behaviors that people believe will lead to desired outcomes. Through experience, we develop expectations about whether we can achieve various levels of job performance. We also develop expectations about whether performance will lead to desired outcomes. Finally, we direct our efforts towards outcomes that help us fulfill our needs. A basic premise of the expectancy theory is that employee is rational and not impulsive. They think about
what they have to do to be rewarded and how much the rewards mean to them before they perform their job.

Four important variables need to be explained to understand the expectancy model better. They are: first level and second-level outcomes, expectancy, valence and instrumentailities.

First level and second level outcomes: Performance achieved as a result of efforts in the first level outcome. Performance may be reflected through productivity, absenteeism, quality of work and the like. Second level outcomes are the rewards (positive or negative) that the first level outcomes are likely to produce. They include a pay raise, promotion, peer acceptance, and job security.

Expectancy: The belief that a particular level of effort will be followed by a particular level of performance is called expectancy. Expectancy is simple probability and therefore ranges from 0, indicating no chance that a first-level outcome will occur after the behaviour, to +1, indicating certainty that a particular first level outcome will follow a behaviour.

Expectancy can be restated as follows:

Effort – to – performance \( (E \rightarrow P) \)

Instrumentality: This is the perception by an individual that first level outcomes are associated with second level outcomes. In other words, instrumentality is the relationship between the first level outcomes and the second level outcomes. It can have values ranging from -1 to +1. A -1 indicates that the attainment of a second-level outcomes is less likely if a first-level outcome has occurred. A +1 suggests that the attainment of a second-level outcome has been attained. If there is no relationship between the first level outcome and the second level outcome, instrumentality is said to be 0.

Instrumentality can also be stated as follows:

Performance – to – outcome or \( (P \rightarrow O) \)
Valence: The fourth element in the expectancy model is valence. Valence is an individual’s preference for a second level outcome. Valence can have values ranging from negative to positive. Outcomes having a positive valence include being respected by friends and co-workers, performing meaningful work, having job security and earning enough money to support self and his/her family. Outcomes having a negative valence are things that one wants to avoid, such as being laid off. Being passed over for promotion or being discharged for drunken behavior at workplace. An outcome is positive when it is preferred and negative when it is not preferred or to be avoided. An outcome has a valence of 0 when an individual is indifferent about receiving it.

In summary, according to the expectancy theory motivation is:

Expectancy  X  Instrumentality  X  Valence

If any one of these variables is low, motivation is likely to be low. No matter how tightly desired outcomes are linked to performance, if an employee thinks that it is practically impossible for him or her to perform, then motivation to perform tends to be low. Similarly, if the person does not think that outcomes are linked to performance or if the person does not desire the outcomes, then motivation tends to be low.

Managers of successful firms strive to ensure that employee’s levels of expectancy, instrumentality and valence are high so that they will be highly motivated below figure 4.4 explains it.

Figure 4.4: Expectancy theory model
Like any other theory the equity theory is also alternatively known as the ‘social comparison’ theory, or the ‘inequity’ theory. True to its name, the equity theory is based on the assumption that individuals are motivated by their desire to be equitable treated in their work relationships. When employees work for an organization, they basically exchange their services for pay and other benefits. The equity theory proposes that individuals attempt to reduce any inequity they may perceive as a result of this exchange relationship. For example, if employees perceive that they are either overpaid or underpaid, they will be motivated to restore equity.

Four terms are important in the theory:

1. Person: The individual for whom equity or an inequity exists.
2. Comparison other: Any group or individual used by a person’s as a reference regarding inputs and outcomes.

3. Inputs: Characteristics which individuals bring with them to the job—education, skills, experience, and so on. These are subjectively perceived by a person.

4. Outcomes: Pay, promotions, fringe benefits, and so on received from a job. These are also subjectively perceived by a person.

The theory proposes that the motivation to act develops after the person compares inputs/outcomes with the identical ratio of the comparison other. Inequity is defined as the perception that person’s job inputs/outcomes ratio is not equal to the inputs/outcomes ratio of the comparison other.

The basic equity proposal assumes that, upon feeling inequity, the person is motivated to reduce it. Further, the greater the felt inequity, the greater the motivation to reduce it. Thus, inequity as a motivation force will act as follows.

When attempting to reduce inequity, the person may try a number of alternatives, some of which are:

1. Person altering his or her inputs.
2. Person altering his or her outcomes.
3. Person distorting his or her inputs and outcomes cognitively.
4. Person leaving the field.
5. Person trying to alter or cognitively distort input and outcomes of the comparison other, which force him or her to leave the field.
6. Person changing the comparison other.

Figure 4.5: Equity theory model
Figure 4.5 contains three different equity relationships: equity, negative inequity and positive inequity. Assume the two people in each of the equity relationships in Fig. 4.5 have equivalent backgrounds and perform identical tasks. Only their hourly pay rates differ. Equity exists for an individual when his or her ratio of perceived outcomes to inputs is equal to that of the comparison other (see Part A in Fig. 4.5). If the comparison other enjoys greater outcomes for similar inputs, negative inequity will be perceived (see Part B Fig. 4.5). On the other hand, a person will experience positive inequity when his or her outcome to input ratio is greater than that of the comparison other (see Part C in Fig. 4.5).
It is not that the person feeling inequity alone gets motivated to restore equity. The person with a feeling of equity also gets motivated but to maintain the current situation.

4.5 Performance – Satisfaction Model:

Porter and Lawler came out with a comprehensive theory of motivation. They posit that motivation, performance, and satisfaction are all separate variables in ways different from what was traditionally assumed. Figure 4.6 shows the multivariable model of Porter and Lawler. As shown in the figure, boxes 1, 2, and 3 are basically the same as Vroom’s equation. However, Porter and Lawler point out that an effort (force or motivation) does not directly lead to a performance. It is mediated by abilities, traits, and role perceptions. More important in the Porter and Lawler model is what happens after the performance. The rewards that follows and how they are perceived will determine the satisfaction. The Porter and Lawler model is of great significance to managers since it offers the following guidelines to motivate their employee:

1. Place the right person on the right job (match abilities and traits of individuals to the requirement of the job).
2. Carefully explain to the employee what their roles are, and make sure that they understand their roles.
3. Prescribe in correct terms the actual performance levels expected of the individuals.
4. Make sure that the rewards dispersed are valued by the employee.

The Porter and Lawler model has definitely made a significant contribution to the better understanding of work motivation and the relationship between performance and satisfaction. But to date, it has not had much impact on the actual practice of human resource management.
Figure 4.6: The Poter and Lawler model of motivation.