

CHAPTER 2

JOB SATISFACTION: A LITERATURE REVIEW

One of the most important attitudes in an organizational setting is job satisfaction (Cherrington, 1994). High job satisfaction contributes to organizational commitment, job involvement, improved physical and mental health, and improved quality of life both on and off the job. Job dissatisfaction contributes to absenteeism, staff turnover, labor problems, labor grievances, attempts to organize labor unions, and a negative organizational climate (Cherrington, 1994). Job turnover in an organization is the primary predictor variable of job satisfaction (Lawler, 1973; Locke, 1976; Porter and Steers, 1973; Vroom, 1964; Farrell and Rusbult, 1981). The relation between job satisfaction and turnover will be strong during periods of low unemployment (economic prosperity) and weak during periods of high unemployment (economic hardship) (Carsten and Spector, 1987).

2.1 CONCEPT OF JOB SATISFACTION

The job satisfaction concept has been widely used, and in many cases, somewhat vaguely defined (Harpaz, 1983). In many instances, people who deal with job satisfaction construct their own definition. Locke (1976) pointed out that it is a common practice for people writing on this topic to use "operational definitions" of job satisfaction, that is "job satisfaction is whatever my (arbitrarily chosen) measure of it measures."

The variety of definitions of job satisfaction, as well as the shifting of the meaning of job satisfaction even within a single research report, has become a difficult problem in the study of job satisfaction. In addition, many authors use the terms "job satisfaction", "job attitudes", "morale", and "organizational climate" interchangeably, although they are not synonymous (Harpaz, 1983).

Vroom (1964) noted that job satisfaction and job attitudes have the same meaning (closely associated), since both refer to the affective orientation of the individual toward the work role that the individual is holding. Attitudes that are positive are equated with satisfaction while negative attitudes are equated with dissatisfaction. Smith et al. (1969) proposed that "job satisfactions are feelings or affective responses to facets of the situation". In this sense, job satisfaction is an attitude, specifically an attitude toward one's job. This is also illustrated in Beer's (1964) definition of job satisfaction ".....the attitude of workers toward the company, their job, their fellow workers and other psychological objects in the work environment".

The concept of "job satisfaction" is one of the consequences of "need satisfaction" (Kolstad, 1938). In effect, job satisfaction is experienced when the job satisfies some or all of the individuals' work-related needs. Job satisfaction is a concept which is not appropriately applied to the satisfaction of single individual needs. Rather, it results from an awareness that one's job provides an environment which one's primary work-related needs can be satisfied on a continuing basis. This kind of broad appraisal of work situation is implied in Locke's ((1976) definition of job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences." Later, after reviewing other major theories of job satisfaction, he expanded his definition as follows:-

"It is hypothesized that job satisfaction, results from the appraisal of one's job as attaining or allowing the attainment of one's important job values, providing these values are congruent with or help to fulfill one basic needs. These needs are of two separable but interdependent types : bodily or physical needs and psychological needs, especially the need for growth. Growth is made possible mainly by the nature of the work itself."

Generally, job satisfaction concerns how much employees like their jobs (Cherrington, 1994). In other words, a general feeling of satisfaction with a job is the result of the interaction of the degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the various facets of the job. There are two approaches used to understand and assess job satisfaction: component/facet satisfaction and overall satisfaction.

2.1.1 Component/Facet Satisfaction

Component/facet satisfaction approach assumes that job satisfaction consists of many different attitudes about various components of the job (Cherrington, 1994). Employees have specific attitudes about their pay, their supervisors, their co-workers, their working conditions, their promotional prospects, and dozens of other external factors. Some attitudes can be positive, and others can be negative. Not all these attitudes are equally important. The attitudes that appear to be the most important are those concerning the work itself, whether it is challenging, stimulating, and attractive; the supervisors, whether they are considerate, fair and competent; and the pay, whether it is adequate and equitable (Cherrington, 1994). According to Zaleznik et al. (1958), an individual's satisfaction can be separated into major areas, such as his job, the pay he receives, his supervision, the company he works for and so forth. Not only are these elements present and separable for the researcher, but the subject can separate these elements consciously and indicate relative degrees of satisfaction with each of them. Thus, measurement becomes possible and specific comparisons feasible. This is further supported by Harpaz (1983) who argued that overall job satisfaction could be determined by the combination of all facets' satisfaction feelings of an individual. He also added that facet satisfaction scores should be weighted according to their importance to the individual because some contribute more to satisfaction than others.

2.1.2 Overall Satisfaction

Overall satisfaction approach treats job satisfaction as a general internal state of satisfaction or dissatisfaction within the individual. This internal state approach assumes that employees have a central internal feeling of overall satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Cherrington, 1994). Positive experiences, as a result of friendly co-workers, good pay, helpful supervisors and attractive jobs, create a positive internal state. Negative experiences that stem from low pay, boring jobs, and criticism create a negative internal state. The feeling of overall satisfaction and dissatisfaction is a global feeling determined by the intensity and frequency of positive and negative experiences.

The internal state approach assumes that job satisfaction can be measured by asking employees about the specific components of their jobs, and then averaging their attitudes to arrive at a global satisfaction measure (Cherrington, 1994). This attitude-

toward-things' approach claims that combining attitudes in this way is like mixing apples and oranges. Attitudes about different things should not be mixed; they should be measured and analyzed separately. Job satisfaction questionnaires have identified several specific attitudes about important components of the job. Feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with each component have been found to vacillate with changes in the job (Cherrington, 1994). For example, a promotion to a new job might increase pay satisfaction and satisfaction with the work itself but decrease satisfaction with fellow workers or working conditions.

2.2 DIMENSIONS OF JOB SATISFACTION

The nature of the dimensions or components of job satisfaction varies somewhat from study to study and according to the methods employed (Harpaz, 1983). Among the major dimensions of job satisfaction that have appeared in a wide variety of studies on the topic are: pay, working conditions, supervision, co-workers, company policies, work itself, advancement and security (Vroom, 1964; Locke, 1976; Rice et al., 1991; Ben-Porat, 1981). These major dimensions of job satisfaction were classified into four factors: financial, intrinsic, convenience, and social aspects of job rewards.

2.2.1 The Financial Rewards Dimension

The financial reward's dimension is based on satisfaction with pay, fringes and job security. Satisfaction with pay, as with the attainment of any valued outcome, is likely to be a function of several different processes. At the simplest level, people could respond directly to the money itself. Earnings permit them to purchase the goods and services they desire, and as a consequence, the greater their income, the stronger should be their satisfaction (Berkowitz et al., 1987).

In a more complicated manner, they might also evaluate their pay in terms of two standards. One standard is a sense of equity. Are they getting what they deserve? Another standard involves social comparisons. Is their pay as much as someone else's? In this case, apparently, it is not the absolute value of the earnings that is considered so much as the degree to which this outcome meets the relevant standard. Yet another process involves satisfaction with some other aspect of their job. Positive

feelings could generalize from, say, intrinsic job satisfaction to their pay, or a conscious trade-off could be accepted in which one satisfaction substitutes for another. Therefore, a routine assumption has been that wage satisfaction will be one of a number of determinants of more general job satisfaction (Lawler, 1973).

Pay was the job facet which received the lowest satisfaction scores by employees in all job categories at all time points (Harpaz, 1983). This was further supported by Frey and Carns (1988) whose survey on casino card dealers found that two thirds of the employees were unhappy with their pay or benefits. Satisfaction should, of course, increase (*ceteris paribus*) as the individual's own pay rises (Cappelli & Sherer, 1988). Hodson's (1984/85) survey of corporate economic structure on job satisfaction found that, both plant and company size have positive, though non significant, effects on financial rewards and on convenience. Employees will never be satisfied with their pay because once their pay increases, their need will also increase. Higher earnings give them a greater ability to get what they want out of life and are gratifying in themselves.

Motowidlo (1982) mentioned that there was a relationship between the amount of pay a person received and their contributions to the work organization. If the amount of pay was held constant, people who thought they were high performers were less satisfied with their pay. Furthermore, Motowidlo (1982) concluded that individuals' motivational structures and preferences for different compensation systems may importantly influence the specific kinds of perceived personal input associated with pay satisfaction.

Doyer & Theriault (1976) reported that job satisfaction is a function of the amount of pay received, the degree to which that pay meets employee expectations and how it is administered. Persons who perceived themselves as earning less than they expect, express dissatisfaction and reduce their output.

Another researcher Gerhart (1987) in his latest study, observed that the present results demonstrated that changes in situational factors such as job complexity and pay may have an important impact on global job satisfaction. This impact may be greater for specific facets of satisfaction that personnel programs often target.

Research in Malaysia and Singapore also indicated a similar outcome. Rosnah (1993/94) found that in comparing facet satisfaction, clerical employees in selected public agencies were more satisfied with factors related to human relations and work

rather than those related to financial or monetary rewards. Yap (1989) found that doctors in Government Hospitals were dissatisfied with their compensation but satisfied with their role i.e. treating the sick.

Tan (1986) found that civilian employees in the Ministry of Defense are dissatisfied with the job facets such as pay, fringe benefits, promotional opportunities and training opportunities. However, Wong (1984)'s study on job satisfaction in a trading organization by analyzing individual job facets found that the employees were satisfied with all the job facets including wages and benefits. Comparatively, Wong (1984) still agreed with other researchers that employees were most satisfied with "work itself" and least satisfied with "wages and benefits".

Liow (1994) found that more employees in the electrical and electronics industry were dissatisfied with their pay (50.3%) and promotion dimensions (40.7%) than with the nature of work (23.1%), supervision (24.8%) and people dimensions (21.4%).

Juradah (1988/89) concluded that bank managers who were more than 30 years old and married tended to be more satisfied with their pay than bank managers who were less than 30 years old and single. According to her, salary has more effect towards satisfaction where bank managers who earned higher salary were found to be more satisfied than bank managers who earned less.

Hashim (1985) also maintained the same conclusion on academic staff of Universities in Malaysia by observing that academic staffs are dissatisfied with the University Policy and Administration, possibility of growth, supervision and salary. Another researcher from Thailand; Karoonlanjakorn (1986) concluded that among faculty members at Non-Metropolitan Teachers College in Central Thailand, salary rendered the least satisfaction compared with other facets. This is further supported by Nor Azizah (1988) who did a survey at College Trained Teachers in Selangor, Malaysia.

2.2.2 Intrinsic Rewards Dimension

The intrinsic rewards dimension is based on the opportunity to use one's abilities, to help people, to get ahead, the amount of freedom on the job and interesting work. For many employees, mobility (in terms of career growth and challenge such as transfer, promotion, and training opportunities) is more desirable than a simple pay increase (Carl, 1987). If the company can accommodate employees' desire for change, they

will become even more attached to the company. If the company cannot accommodate employees' desire for change, the more talented, frustrated employees will leave even if they have to take a pay cut in the short term. Those less talented and frustrated employees will stay because they have fewer alternatives, but they will be no less frustrated or dissatisfied (Carl, 1987).

A local survey by Nor Azizah (1988) reported that a majority of college trained teachers indicated dissatisfaction on promotional prospects. Similarly, Hashim (1985) concluded that the academic staff of universities in Malaysia are dissatisfied with the University Policy and Administration as well as possibility of growth. Three studies done in three local different organizations reported the same conclusion, that among the six job facets, the majority of the respondents are dissatisfied with promotional opportunities (Rosnah, 1993/94; Liow, 1994; and Tan, 1986). In contrast, Wong (1984) observed that in a trading organization, the employees were satisfied with all the job facets including promotion opportunities. To increase the job satisfaction of R & D professionals, management can, for example, provide them with better career information, higher pay, a better match between their career plans and those of the organization, more opportunities for self actualization and lastly more promotional opportunities (Cordero et al., 1994).

2.2.3 The Convenience Dimension

The convenience dimension is based on satisfaction with pressures on the job, hours worked, how clean the work is, and how tiring the work is. In addition to pay, promotional prospects and satisfaction with work, the characteristics of tasks and how they are performed, is at the core of job satisfaction.

2.2.3.1 Work Itself

A number of studies have uncovered evidence of job dissatisfaction among factory workers. Back in 1947, a Fortune survey found that many of the workers studied lacked the motivation to work to the highest of their capacity (Roper, 1947). Many of them were simply resigned to their lack of opportunity and had no feeling that good work would bring tangible rewards. Half of them saw little chance for exercising personal initiative in their jobs. This report concluded that while some jobs may be

too dull to interest anyone, it should be possible to increase the number of workers who feel that they have a chance to make a personal contribution to the organization.

Based on local studies, Liow (1994), Rosnah (1993/94), Wong (1994), and Tan (1986) in comparing facets satisfaction found that respondents were more satisfied with factors related to work rather than the other five facets. The five facets were supervision, co-workers, promotion prospects, pay and working conditions.

Cherrington (1980) observed that if you expound the work ethics, then work is a reinforcing behavior that contributes to your satisfaction. In other words, "a person who feels that personal worth results only from self-sacrificing work or occupational achievement would likely derive some satisfaction even in the most demanding menial position". This explanation was supported by a study examining the central life interest of 910 bank and telephone companies employees (Dubin et al., 1975). Central life interests were measured by asking employees whether they preferred work or non-work setting for various activities. Employees with a work-oriented central life interest reported the highest job satisfaction, whereas non work-oriented employees reported the lowest job satisfaction. It was suggested that work-oriented people have an affection towards work. These people believe in work as a terminal value and for them work is its own reward.

2.2.3.2 Working Condition

Working conditions in the workplace is directly related to health (Kavarage et al., 1981). Healthy conditions in the workplace will improve the quality of life. Non healthy condition in the workplace can cause potential psychological stress. Thus, job satisfaction-dissatisfaction can be broadly classified as being reflective of job-related stress because it is a summary index of an employee's experience and perception about the work place.

Kavanagh's et al. (1981) findings supported the contention that job satisfaction, which in part reflects the quality of life in the workplace, is important to employee health. Consistent with the conception of job stress-satisfaction relationship, these results are interpreted to indicate an association between characteristics of the workplace and psychological health. Although measures of job satisfaction are not congruent with working conditions (potential stressors), it does seems that satisfaction measures

indicate a summary, within a time frame, of a person's affection to his/her work conditions. One could argue that low satisfaction represents an imbalance between desire and actual work conditions (Locke, 1969) and interestingly, this definition is analogous to both our conception of stress (Cox, 1978). Besides health, the literature concerning the causes of turnover emphasizes mainly extrinsic factors. One of the factors is bad environmental conditions which lead to dissatisfaction and subsequently employee's termination (Krau, 1981).

Similarly, Frey & Carns (1987/88) reported that casino card dealers tend to express high levels of dissatisfaction with many facets of their work and environment. Job satisfaction in the workplace can be increased by improving the working environment. Tan (1986) found that the employees in the Ministry of Defense were generally satisfied with their working conditions which was well-equipped, with modern amenities including proper air-conditioning, lighting systems, new furniture, ample office space, and a beautiful building. Since the effectiveness of an organization is critically tied to the job performance of mentally healthy employees, employee satisfaction should be closely monitored by management.

2.2.4 Social Dimension

The social dimension is based on how satisfied one is with one's co-workers, supervisor and with how highly others regard the job. Social reward dimension in this review includes relationship between supervisors and co-workers. Hodson (1984/85) found that the size of workplace has strong negative effects on intrinsic and social rewards.

A good relationship between supervisors and co-workers is one job facet which employees at all organizational categories expressed the highest degree of satisfaction (Harpaz, 1983). Mean scores on this item did not change significantly over time at any employment level and were not affected by any region or any demographic variable. However, this facet consistently contributed very little to the prediction of general satisfaction.

In comparing different facets of satisfaction, local respondents were more satisfied with factors related to human relations in workplace rather than those related with financial or monetary rewards. Co-workers facet was the source of highest satisfaction with mean scores of 3.7, followed by supervisor (Rosnah, 1993/94).

Similarly, Prema John (1990/91), Wong (1994), Tan (1986) and Liow (1994) found that a majority of the local respondents were satisfied with the supervisor and co-workers facets. Cappelli and Sherer (1988) found that workers were much more satisfied with less supervision and with greater control over their jobs. On the other hand, authoritarian supervision, poor supervision (Krau, 1981) and very close supervision (Frey & Carns, 1987/88), contribute to low satisfaction in any industry. Generally, employees are satisfied with their superiors as well as their colleagues.

2.2.5 Facet Satisfaction and Overall Job Satisfaction

Overall job satisfaction is determined by the simple sum of satisfactions associated with each facet of the worker's job (Locke, 1969;1976) This is because there is no value in weighting facet satisfaction by facet importance when using facet satisfaction responses to predict overall job satisfaction and is least on the concept of implicit or redundant weightings. The importance of a facet is implicitly reflected in each facet-satisfaction scores because facet important determines, in part, the level of satisfaction associated with each job facet. Extreme satisfaction or extreme dissatisfaction with any particular facet implies that the facet has high personal importance. It is conceptually and statistically redundant to consider facet important as a moderate of the relationship between facet satisfaction and overall job satisfaction because facet important is implicitly selected in each facet-satisfaction score (Rice et al., 1991).

2.3 DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION

Four theories have been used to determine whether people will feel satisfied or dissatisfied in a particular job situation. These four theories are fulfillment theory, reward theory, discrepancy theory and equity theory (Cherrington, 1994).

2.3.1 Fulfillment Theory

According to this theory, job satisfaction is a function of need satisfaction. It is indicated by the degree of correspondence between an individual's needs and the extent to which the needs are satisfied. When an individual's needs are fulfilled, that

individual will experience job satisfaction. Dissatisfaction occurs when important needs are not met (Cherrington, 1994). Kolstad (1938) reported that the concept of "job satisfaction" is one of the consequences of "need satisfaction". In effect, job satisfaction is experienced when the job satisfies some or all of the individuals' work-related needs. Job satisfaction is a concept which is not appropriately applied to the satisfaction of single, individual needs.

2.3.2 Reward Theory

The most useful theory for understanding job satisfaction is reward theory, which suggests that job satisfaction is a function of the rewards people receive. Both the amount and the timing of the rewards influence satisfaction levels. As a general rule, people feel greater satisfaction to the extent that they are more highly rewarded.

Reward theory emphasizes the role of values in determining satisfaction, because a person's values determine whether a particular event or outcome is actually rewarding. People receiving highly valued rewards are highly satisfied. Those people that are punished will be dissatisfied (Cherrington, 1994).

2.3.3 Discrepancy Theory

Discrepancy theory claims that job satisfaction results from a comparison between "what ought to be" and "what is". This is influenced by the expectations of employees. A favorable comparison, showing that the employees receive more than they expect, creates high job satisfaction. However, an unfavorable comparison, showing that "what is" falls short of "what ought to be" leads to dissatisfaction. This theory emphasized the importance of understanding employee expectations when examining job satisfaction (Cherrington, 1994).

2.3.4 Equity Theory

Equity theory helps to explain job satisfaction by focusing on the relative comparison of an individual's input and outcomes to the inputs and outcomes of others as shown in the following formula:-

$$\frac{\text{Outcomes A}}{\text{Inputs A}} = \frac{\text{Outcomes B}}{\text{Inputs B}}$$

When an individual's ratio compares favorably with the ratios of others, the individual feels satisfied. However, whenever an inequity exists, dissatisfaction will be felt (Cherrington, 1994).

2.4 MEASURING JOB SATISFACTION

Unlike physical factors such as height and weight, job satisfaction exists only inside a person's head and cannot be measured directly. Three of the most popular methods for indirectly measuring job satisfaction include observing workers, interviewing them, and asking them to complete a written survey or questionnaires (Cherrington, 1994). Questionnaires are the most popular method of assessing job satisfaction because personal observations and interviews are so time consuming. Although some questionnaires have poor reliability and validity, other methods have been carefully developed which are reliable and valid measures of both component/facets satisfaction and overall job satisfaction.

Paper-&-pencil questionnaires have several advantages for evaluating job satisfaction. Most satisfaction questionnaires are relatively short, are easy to understand, and can be administered to large numbers of employees simultaneously. The instruments can also be administered to a wide range of employees in various jobs, allowing for comparison across jobs and across organizations because most of these surveys are worded in general terms.

Job satisfaction can be a measurement of overall job satisfaction or satisfaction with the various facets of the job. A job is "a complex interaction of the tasks, roles, responsibilities, interactions, incentives and rewards" (Locke, 1976). Hackman and Oldham (1975) and Taber and Taylor (1990) were aware of this multifacet nature of job satisfaction and the satisfaction outcome as part of the Job Diagnostic Survey. They have provided for measures of both general satisfaction with the job and

satisfaction with the following facets of the job such as job security, pay, co-worker, supervision, and opportunity for personal growth and working condition.

One of the most popular instruments for measuring job satisfaction is the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) (Cherrington, 1994). This instrument measures attitudes toward the work itself, pay, the supervisor, co-workers, promotion opportunities and working condition. Employees are asked to indicate whether each statement does or does not describe their jobs. Positive statements are scored +3, negative statements 0 and undecided statements +1. The higher the score, the greater the job satisfaction. This scale will be adapted for use in this study.

2.5 DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS AND JOB SATISFACTION

In a review by Bass and Tyterband (1972), it was mentioned that since different occupants are likely to have different personal needs and different valued outcomes, it is obvious that the same job will be satisfying to one occupant and not to another. Job satisfaction is associated with sex, education, age, race, marital status, length of service/tenure, member of union, prior interest in the work and ability.

2.5.1 Time and Age

Quinn et al. (1974) summarized 15 national surveys from USA, conducted between 1958 and 1973 that examined the levels and trends of job satisfaction. It was found that younger workers tend to be less satisfied with their job than older workers. Nash (1985) concluded that there is a positive relationship between age and job satisfaction, with the relationship being asymptotic. This means that with advancing age, satisfaction keeps rising to a theoretical limit (Nash, 1985). People are most dissatisfied with their jobs and most likely to quit when they are below the age of thirty. They are more satisfied with their jobs and less likely to quit from mid-forties until retirement (Nash, 1985). With advancing age, people either find work they like to do or become tolerant and satisfied with the work they have to do (Smith et al., 1977). Berkowitz et al. (1987) also concluded that older respondents are more satisfied with their pay. There are five reasons to explain these trends:-

1. Older employees (relative to younger employees) may not be bothered as much by their perceptions of better work alternatives. Change in value, higher status, higher pay, more prestige and investments in their current job may not cause perceived work alternatives to be a major stimulus for older employees (Pond and Geyer, 1987).
2. It may be that older employees are bothered by their perceptions of better work alternatives but are more able to deal with this aggravating stimulus event by virtue of their job position, tenure and so forth. They may have more power to effect changes in their job situation so that perceived deficiencies in their jobs can be corrected (Pond and Geyer, 1987).
3. It may be that the aspirations of older employees become "ground down" in time so that these employees become more resigned to their job situation and less likely to consider perceived work alternatives as a major stimulus event. Also, these employees may be aware of the difficulties that older employees often face when they seek new employment (Pond and Geyer, 1987).
4. Older employees (relative to younger employees) may not be bothered as much by their perceptions of better work alternatives because of certain cohort effects (Pond and Geyer, 1987). The cohort effects refer to the unique behavior of different age groups because of such things as different amounts of education or common life experiences.
5. As one grows older, one has lower expectations and is easily satisfied (Nash, 1985).

For these reasons, perceived work alternatives may not enter as strongly into the frame of reference of older employees when they are judging job satisfaction (Smith et al., 1969). Older workers are more satisfied with their jobs and are less likely to quit (Nash, 1985). It is apparent from these explanations that age represents a great deal about an employee. As Rhodes (1983) noted, age is a variable that is associated with an interrelated group of effects that influences work attitudes and behavior.

Local studies have shown similar results that employees aged between 30 to 39 had higher overall job satisfaction (Liow, 1994; Rosnah, 1993/94). Liow (1994) reported that work satisfaction and pay satisfaction were higher at the age group of "less than 29 years" and "40 years and above". Juradah (1988/89) studied job satisfaction

among bank managers in Malaysia and found that age has an influence on bank managers satisfaction. Bank managers who were more than 30 years old were more satisfied than those less than 30 years old. Abdul Latif (1979) concluded that as age increases, job satisfaction will increase. However, there was no significant difference between facets satisfaction and age.

Besides being related to the factors just noted, job satisfaction is also related to tenure or length of service in the job. These two variables are interrelated. Job satisfaction is a curvilinear function of time. It is high earlier and later and low in the middle (Nash, 1985). People experience the highest job satisfaction at the initial phase after job commencement. The satisfaction then erodes, reaching a low point eighteen to thirty-six months after employment. As time goes by, job satisfaction increase again (Smith et al., 1977).

2.5.2 Race

There is a higher proportion of non-Malay respondents who were satisfied with the organizational climate as compared to Malay respondents (Tan, 1986). Similarly in USA, Andrisani (1978) found that black workers (Negro origin) were less likely than their white counterparts to be highly satisfied with their jobs. Abdul Latif (1979) studied job satisfaction of employees at the plantation industries found that among the three races (Malays, Indians and Chinese), a large proportion of the Indians are relatively more satisfied with their work than the Chinese. The Malay respondents were equally divided into satisfied and less satisfied groups.

2.5.3 Education and Gender

Better-educated workers are more satisfied with their jobs, but the correlation between job satisfaction and education is small (Nash, 1985). Job satisfaction is greatest when the individual first receives a college degree. Unlike education, gender does not have any influence on job satisfaction (Nash, 1985). However, when sex differences do occur in job satisfaction, they may be the result of reward differences attributable to different occupational levels (Nash, 1985).

Liow (1994) found that there was no significant difference in overall job satisfaction between male and female employees. However, there was a significant difference in

the overall job satisfaction among employees of different education levels. Employees with primary and lower secondary education had higher overall job satisfaction than employees with upper secondary and tertiary education. In contrast, other studies, found that women are more likely to be highly satisfied with their jobs than men (Andrisani, 1978; Zaleznik et al., 1958; Harpaz, 1983; Hodson, 1984/85; Berkowitz et al., 1987). The reason is that women maintain a very minimal expectation and are not ambitious (Cherrington, 1994). However, Abdul Latif (1979) found that females are the least satisfied with their work than males. Similarly, Edmundson (1969) and Aebi (1972) found that men were significantly more satisfied than women.

2.5.5 Job Status/Occupational Level

Managers experience more job satisfaction than non-managers (Vroom, 1964). Zeffane (1994) found that managers were more satisfied with their job and were relatively more certain about the future directions of their organization compared with non-managerial employees. People higher up in an organizational structure experience more job satisfaction than those lower down in the organization (Nash, 1985). People with complicated jobs, middle-class jobs or those at the top of the job-status heap feel better about their work compared to those from the opposite categories (Nash, 1985).

Zaleznik et al. (1958) found that workers with high status would tend to be more satisfied than workers with low status. Lim (1990) studied the job satisfaction of employees in small and medium-sized firms in the metal industry. The results revealed that job satisfaction was not related to organization size but positively related to occupational level. The higher the occupational level, the greater was the job satisfaction of the employees. Wong (1994) concluded that higher level employees (managerial staff group) would be more satisfied with their jobs than lower level employees. Within this group, the general staff group was found to have more job satisfaction than the executive staff group. Similarly, Hawks et al. (1983/84) found that job satisfaction is the highest when high occupational status is attained.

Still all research has its exceptional findings, and job happiness can come even to those in low-status jobs. Walsh (1982) compared the job satisfaction of garbage collectors with the job satisfaction of college professors. The garbage collectors were just as satisfied with their jobs as the college professors.

2.5.5 Income

Generally, occupation status is correlated to income. Juradah (1988/89) found that bank managers who earned higher salary were found to be more satisfied than bank managers who earned lower salary.

2.5.6 Marital Status

Wiltener's (1980) findings that between unmarried and married faculty members, there were no differences in their degree of satisfaction. Similarly Hashim (1988) studied job satisfaction among academic staffs of universities in Malaysia concluded that the satisfaction level between the unmarried and the married academic staffs did not show a significant difference. Liow (1994) reported that marital status had no significant influence on overall job satisfaction, pay satisfaction, promotion satisfaction, supervision satisfaction and co-worker satisfaction but had a significant influence on work satisfaction. Married employees were more satisfied with their work than single employees. Juradah's (1988/89) study found that married bank managers were more satisfied than single bank managers. Married bank managers seem to adapt more easily to their working community compared to single bank managers.

2.5.7 Union-membership

Union-membership is a determinant of overall job satisfaction. Improvements in union-member relations may also have a positive impact on job satisfaction (Jarley et al., 1990). Employee perceptions of their treatment by an employing organization have been shown to influence organizational commitment, after controlling for such factors as job satisfaction and worker characteristics.

Cappelli and Sherer (1988) found that management obviously stress more positive aspects and those who listen intently to management will get more positive information and possibly will be more satisfied. In contrast, unions serve their traditional role as an opposition to management by channeling discontent and are likely to point up problems with jobs and with work relations. Those who listen

intently to the union will get more information about problems and may report less satisfaction. Hodson (1984/85) also has a same opinion that unionization has significant effects on job satisfaction.

Liow (1994) concluded that union-membership has a significant influence on work satisfaction and pay satisfaction. Non-members had higher work and pay satisfaction than union members. Union membership had no significant influence on overall job satisfaction, promotion, supervision and people satisfaction.