CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

There are many theories on motivation that attempt to describe what human beings are and what human beings can be [Gary (1993) in Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert (1995)]. Management theories change over time to accommodate the ever-changing complex role of a manager. The evolution of early models included the Traditional Model, the Human Relations Model and The Human Resource Model.

The Traditional Model

Stoner et al. (1995) postulates that this model of motivation is associated with Frederick Taylor and the scientific management school. Managers determine the most efficient way to perform repetitive tasks and then motivate workers with a system of wage incentives - the more workers produced, the more they are paid. This model assumes that workers were generally lazy and could only be motivated by financial rewards. This approach was based on the principle of hedonism which means employees believe pleasure should be the main aim in life. Employees sought pleasure but avoid punishments. Taylor’s findings indicated that the employees generally did not welcome work and their primary goals were to earn financial rewards and to avoid punishments (Gatewood, Taylor and Farrel 1995).
This output-driven model is inherited even to today. This could be seen in sales and production functions of organisation in which the rewards are mechanically determined as per the units of output produced, normally in addition to a basic salary.

The Human Relations Model

It is apparent that the differential rate system in the Traditional Model encouraged exploitation on employees. Stoner et al. (1995) argued that Elton Mayo, who developed the Human Relations Model, believed that social elements formed a major part of employee motivation. Mayo found that the boring tasks itself reduced motivation. He believed managers could motivate the employees by acknowledging their social needs and by making them feel important and useful. Contrary to the Traditional Model where employees had been expected to accept management’s authority in return for high wages, the Human Relations Model postulates that employees were expected to accept management's authority as managers treated them with consideration and allowed them to influence the work situation. However, the intent of managers was still the same for both models: to get workers to accept the work situation as established by managers.

The elements of Human Relations model are still being practised in several organisations today. This can be seen from the existence of Personnel Departments which systematically handle the "soft portion" of employees' needs such as suggestion boxes, newsletters and MBO type of performance appraisal system.
The Human Resource Model

Douglas McGregor (1957) in Stoner et al. (1995) criticised both the Traditional and Human Relations models. He believed that the management could not induce employees to comply with management objectives simply by "bribing" them with financial rewards as was advocated in the Traditional Model nor the management could function successfully by "manipulating" with the social needs as was in the Human Relations model. McGregor (1957) in Stoner et al. (1995) believed that there were other motivation factors such as the need for achievement and meaningful work. He recognised several fundamental assumptions about the nature of work and how human beings perceive their responsibilities. He identified two approaches to management; Theory X and Theory Y. Theory X is the historic approach which assumes workers are lazy, prefer to be directed, avoid responsibilities, have little ambition and must be forced or threatened to do their jobs. Managers who operate under Theory X assumptions are autocratic, control-oriented, pessimistic about human nature and distrustful of their employees. McGregor strongly opposed Theory X's assumptions and instead proposed Theory Y. Theory Y assumes that work is natural and that workers prefer to be challenged, are committed to their jobs and want to achieve worthwhile results. Managers who adopt this framework believe that every individual has the ability to be creative, to be part of an innovative environment and under reasonable circumstances, accept responsibility without force or threats. The contemporary motivation theories are built on McGregor's assumptions.
Contemporary Views of Motivation

Contemporary theorists approach motivation from three general perspectives; content theory, process theory and reinforcement theory. Distinctions are made on the basis of content theory, which focuses on the 'what' of motivation, process theory that focuses on 'how' of motivation and reinforcement theory, which focuses on the ways in which behaviour is learned. These three approaches are not mutually exclusive and they are best viewed as complementary whereby each theory provides clues about human behaviour as to why they work or avoid work (Gatewood et al. 1995).

Content Theories of Motivation

The content theories of motivation attempt to determine what motivates people at work. The content theorists are concerned with identifying the needs/drives that people have and how these needs/drives are prioritised. They are concerned with the types of incentives or goals that people strive to attain in order to be satisfied and perform well. At first, money was felt to be the only incentive, and later it was felt than incentives include working conditions, security and perhaps a democratic style of supervision. More recently, the content of motivation has been deemed to be the so-called "higher-level" needs or motives, such as esteem and self-actualisation; responsibility, recognition, achievement and advancement; and growth and personal development (Luthans 1989).
Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Abraham Maslow (1943) in Gatewood et al. (1995) saw human needs in the form of a hierarchy, ascending from the lowest to the highest, and he concluded that when one set of needs is satisfied, this kind of need ceases to be a motivator. The five categories of basic human needs placed by Maslow are shown below:

1. Physiological needs: biological or physical needs, including food, water, air, shelter and sleep. Until these needs are satisfied to the degree necessary to maintain life, other needs will not motivate people.

2. Security needs or safety needs: the needs to be free of physical danger and of the fear of losing a job, property, food or shelter.

3. Social needs: the needs for love, affection and a sense of belonging.


5. Self-actualisation: self-fulfilment, personal growth, creativity and other such needs that can be met only by the individual.

Maslow's theory of human motivation made an extremely important contribution to management’s understanding of the drive to work. It made managers aware that people are motivated by a wide variety of needs. In this context, managers need to carefully observe their subordinate's behaviour to determine what their active needs are. In order to motivate an employee,
managers must provide opportunities to satisfy these active needs through behaviour conducive to attaining organisation objectives. Gatewood et al. (1995) criticised Maslow's Theory by arguing that individuals vary in their need emphasis. Some may seek social-need satisfaction, while others may look for esteem needs or even self-actualisation. They also believed that the steps in Maslow's hierarchy may not necessarily be achieved in a sequential manner.

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

Maslow's needs approach has been considerably modified by Frederick Herzberg and his associates. Herzberg (1959) in Gatewood et al (1995) introduced his two-factor theory which states that work dissatisfaction and satisfaction arise from two different sets of factors. Dissatisfiers which he called 'hygiene' factors or maintenance factors are primarily related to the environment to which work is performed. These factors include company policy, administration, supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relations, salary, status, job security and personal life. Existence of these factors does not motivate in the sense of yielding satisfaction; their lack of existence would, however, result in dissatisfaction.

The second set of factors called satisfiers or motivators are primarily related to the nature of work itself or job content. They include achievement, recognition, challenging work, advancement and growth in the job. Their existence will yield feelings of satisfaction or no satisfaction. According to Herzberg's theory, providing employees with hygiene factors will not motivate them because it will only prevent dissatisfaction. In order to motivate, management must provide the motivators as well as the hygiene factors. Some organisations have attempted to implement this theory through job enrichment.
program. In job enrichment, work is redesigned and expanded to make the job more personally rewarding to the worker. Through job enrichment, workers are provided with challenge, autonomy, variety and responsibility.

Gatewood et al. (1995) postulates that the initial interviews for Herzberg's study were subject to multiple interpretations and conclusions. The initial study was targeted at engineers and accountants only and the results may not be applicable to blue-collar workers. Other criticisms commented that the theory oversimplifies the nature of the relationship between motivation and sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Gatewood et al. (1995) also believed that there are similarities between Herzberg's motivational factors and Maslow's esteem and self-actualisation needs. Employees' low-level needs (physiological and security) primarily can be satisfied by minimum-wage laws in some countries and occupational safety standards set by government authorities and therefore were not motivators anymore. Therefore, to increase productivity, managers should focus on satisfying the employees' next higher hierarchical level needs (motivational factors) by providing opportunities for achievement. Involvement and advancement and by recognising good performance.

Alderfer's ERG Theory

However, psychologist Clayton Alderfer (1972) in Luthans (1989) agreed with Maslow's general model but disagreed on the five categories and how they were designed. He presented an alternative theory that says that people strive to meet a hierarchy of existence, relatedness and growth needs. Initials from these three need categories make up the name ERG theory. Existence needs
are like Maslow's fundamental needs, related needs are needs for interpersonal relations and growth needs are needs for personal creativity or productive influence. Alderfer also found that the inability to achieve higher order needs may lead to the individual seeking more of the lower level needs. Thus, if relatedness needs are not met, individuals may be prone towards seeking more pay at work or other incentives. Alderfer also conjectures that certain needs such as relatedness and growth needs may increase even as they are being satisfied.

There has been a great deal of research on ERG theory. Although there is some evidence to counter the theory's predictive value, most contemporary analyses of motivation tend to support Alderfer's theory over Maslow's and Hertberg's. Overall, the ERG theory seems to take some of the strong points of the earlier content theories. However, the content theories in general lack explanatory power in view of the complex nature of motivation and, with the possible exception of the implications of job design of Herzberg's work, do not readily translate to the actual practice of human resource management (Luthans 1989).

McClelland's Achievement Motivation Theory

David McClelland (1953) in Stoner et al. (1995) describes people in terms of three needs: power, achievement and affiliation. The need for power can be explained by the desire to influence or control behaviour in others, to compete and to exercise authority. Such individuals generally are seeking positions of leadership; they are frequently good conversationalists though often argumentative. They are also forceful, outspoken, persuasive speakers and demand a great deal from others. Management often attracts people with a need
for power because of the many opportunities it offers to exercise and increase power.

The need for achievement is a person's desire to be independent, to accomplish complex tasks and to exercise authority. Individuals with a high need for achievement generally will take moderate risks, like situations in which they can take personal responsibility for finding solutions to problems and want concrete feedback on their performance. If the objective of the management is to motivate individuals from this category, tasks that involve moderate risks, delegate to them enough authority to take initiative in completing their tasks and give them feedback on their performance. McClelland's theory indicated that achievement motivation can be acquired through training a person to think and behave in terms of the achievement motive.

The need for affiliation refers to a person's desire to associate with others, to form friendly relationships and to avoid conflict. People dominated by the affiliative need would be attracted to jobs that allow considerable social interaction. Managers should therefore create a climate that does not constrain interpersonal relations or provide opportunities for individuals to work in groups.

While Content Theories attempt to explain the behaviour of individuals through need motivation and satisfaction, some have attacked the theories as being untenable. Salanchik and Pfeffer (1977) described need satisfaction theories as being too simplistic. They commended that the "need satisfaction model" ultimately denies persons the creative capacity to cope with their environment, in part, by constructing meaning that makes the context more satisfying and, in part, by redefining the situation and attending to only selected aspects of the situation. They also pointed out that since individuals register the
objective environment and respond in terms of their needs, the situation will cause dissatisfaction. At the same time, since many needs are incompatible, then a person will confront dissatisfaction most of the time.

**Process Theories of Motivation**

"Whereas content theories try to determine "what" motivates employees, the Process Theories try to determine "how" and "why" employees are motivated to perform. This group of theories attempts to describe the processes that motivate behaviour" (Gatewood et al. 1995).

According to process theories, behaviour is also a function of an individual’s perceptions and expectations about a situation and the possible outcome of a given behaviour. There are three major process theories: equity theory, expectancy theory and the Porter-Lawler model.

**Equity Theory**

Equity theory is concerned with individuals' perceptions about how fairly they are treated compared with their peers. One of the most important issues in management is equity in rewarding workers' performance. The extent to which workers are willing to contribute to an organisation depends on their assessment of the fairness of the rewards they will receive in exchange. When individuals compares their rewards to those given to others doing similar tasks and feel that they are inequitably rewarded, they may be dissatisfied, reduce the quality or quantity of output or leave the organisation. If people perceive the rewards as equitable, they probably would continue at the same level of output. If people think the rewards are greater than what is considered equitable, they may work harder.
Since most of the issues involved in equity theory are subjective, they can generate problems. One of the most obvious problems is that employee may overestimate his own contribution and the rewards that other employees receive. Most people will tolerate some inequities but prolonged feelings of inequity may result in strong reactions to an apparently minor occurrence. Therefore, managers should try to avoid inequities by ensuring that rewards are distributed based on work performance and all employees are aware of the basis for their pay and benefits.

**Expectancy Theory**

Gatewood et al. (1995) postulates that the motivational properties of outcomes are dependent not only of their attractiveness or valence, but also from the perceived likelihood of it being attained. Hence, work motivation is said to be determined by two relationships. One is the link between effort (behaviour) and performance or also known as instrumentality, while the other links an individual's act to an outcome or reward. A motivated employee, whose perception that her better work performance will result in the attainment of rewards, will produce a higher level of performance.

The three variables which are given probability values are:

* Expectancy (E): the degree of confidence a person has in his or her ability to perform a task successfully.

* Instrumentality (I): the degree of confidence a person has that if the task is performed successfully, he or she will be rewarded appropriately.

* Valence (V): the value a person places on expected rewards.
If any of the three variables (mentioned above) which are critical to motivation are low, motivation and subsequent performance will be low. The relationship can be expressed by the formula:

\[ \text{Motivation (M)} = E \times I \times V \]

Expectancy theory implies that managers can influence an employee's motivation in three ways: firstly by helping the employee to believe that he or she can achieve successful performance, secondly, by having faith in the employee and thirdly, by providing support (for example training and guidance).

**The Porter-Lawler Expectancy Model**

Porter and Lawler (1967) in Gatewood (1995) developed a very comprehensive process theory of motivation that incorporates elements of both expectancy and equity theories. Porter-Lawler's expectancy model suggests that satisfaction is the result rather than the cause of performance. This is the exact opposite of the views presented by the early human relations theory which states that satisfaction leads to performance. In other words happier workers work harder. Porter and Lawler (1967) in Gatewood (1995), in contrast, contend that a sense of achievement leads to satisfaction and is likely to also increase performance.

This model emphasises that different level of performance lead to different rewards and thus bring about different levels of job satisfaction. Performance is seen as leading to intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Internal or intrinsic rewards are intangible and occur simultaneously as the task is performed. Examples of internal rewards are feelings of accomplishment, recognition, self-actualisation and others. External rewards are more tangible
which includes promotion, pay increase and so on. This model also demonstrates that motivation is not a simple matter of cause and effect.

Although expectancy theory predicts that individuals will expend greater effort and will have better performance when outcomes have valence and this is a fundamental prediction toward identifying the motivational processes, the problem lies in the area of what particular outcomes individuals consider valuable. In other words, although expectancy theory is a multivalue theory that attempts to predict particular behaviours, it does not specify how outcomes acquire qualities for individuals. Consequently, valence lack origin [Antonis et at.(1996)]

Reinforcement Theory

Gatewood et al. (1995) conjecture that in contrast to content and process theories, which explain behaviour needs and conscious decisions about work, reinforcement theory is based on the idea that behaviour results from consequences. Reinforcement theory is often called behaviour modification or operant conditioning. According to this theory, behaviour which is positively reinforced, or rewarded, will tend to be repeated, while behaviour that is punished will tend to be eliminated.

There are four types of reinforcement: positive, negative/avoidance learning, punishment and extinction. Positive reinforcement refers to the use of positive consequences to encourage desirable behaviour. It strengthens a desirable behaviour by rewarding it. Examples of types of rewards include praise and recognition, bonuses and promotion. Negative reinforcement uses
unpleasant consequences to condition individuals to avoid behaving in undesirable ways. When unpleasant consequences result from undesirable behaviour, individuals learn to systematically change their patterns of behaviour. In work environment, training, safety warning, orientation and counselling alert employees to the negative consequences of undesirable behaviour. However, the use of negative reinforcement can never sustain high levels of performance.

Punishment weakens or eliminates an undesired behaviour by providing negative consequences. Examples of punishment include reduced pay, suspensions and dismissals. Extinction weakens an undesired behaviour by not providing positive consequences. It occurs when positive reinforcement is not reinforced, it will subside and eventually stop. For example, by ignoring an employee who complains, it will slowly discourage the individual to complain further because it had failed to get the boss's attention.

**Goal-Setting Theory**

Gatewood et al. (1995) postulates that this theory stresses on the importance of goals in improving employee performance. Employees are said to be motivated when they behave in ways that move them to certain clear goals that they accept and can reasonably expect to attain. Goals can channel focus on specific activities as motivators. Goals help in directing action and attention, mobilising effort, creating patterns of persistent behaviour and strategies development. The challenge in this theory is to strike a balance between individual and corporate goals.

There are five characteristics that will facilitate an employee's
commitment to and acceptance of goals which include goal specificity, difficulty, feedback, participation and competition. Employees will not be motivated to perform a particular task unless they consciously know what is it they want to achieve. Difficulty refers to goals set; that must be achievable goals that involve challenge and also practicality. Feedback means providing a sense of direction or degree of achievement throughout the stages of the process. Participation integrates the commitment of individual or team to the setting up of the goals. Competition brings positive effects when employees are challenged to perform better compared to their colleagues.

Research on the subject of human motivation in general and job satisfaction in particular received tremendous attention judging from the amount of work done on the subject. However, empirical research concerning salesperson expectancies is surprisingly limited [Thomas et al.(1997)]. Furthermore, most of the work done were geologically biased to more developed countries such as North America and Europe. There seemed to be few research in this field that has been done in less developed countries.

**Definitions of Job Satisfaction**

Managers have long believed that organisational goals are unattainable without the total commitment from employees entrusted in delivering their best. What distinguishes a successful manager from the rest is perhaps the ability to encourage the employees into performing the desired behavioural outcome. Hence a comprehensive understanding of factors leading to high productivity is of utmost importance for managers.
There has been an inconclusive definition on the subject of job satisfaction despite the tremendous research done. A more comprehensive definition was by Blum and Naylor (1956) defining job satisfaction as "the result of various attitudes by an employee... related to the job and are concerned with such specific factors as wages, supervision, steadiness of employment, conditions of work, advancement opportunities, recognition of ability, fair evaluation of work, social relations on the job, prompt settlement of grievances, fair treatment by employer, and other similar items. A more comprehensive approach requires that many additional factors to be included such as employee's age, health, temperament, desires and level of aspiration. Further, his family relationships, social status, recreational outlets, activity in organisation such as labour, political or purely social, contribute ultimately to job satisfaction.

In summary, job satisfaction is a general attitude that is the result of many specific attitudes in three dimensions, namely, job specific factors, individual characteristics and group relationships outside the job.

**Past Research in Malaysia and Singapore**

Some research have been conducted locally and in Singapore. Low (1985) carried out a study to determine the level of job satisfaction among the staff in the various departments of a service-oriented organisation. Various causes of job dissatisfaction were identified. Employees were found to be most satisfied with the job factor of co-worker and least satisfied with the job factors of pay and promotion. The results also showed that there was no homogeneity in the job satisfaction levels among staff of various departments. This is because a different set of factors had caused dissatisfaction in various departments. The
study also examines the convergent and discriminant validity between the
different methods of measuring overall job satisfaction viz Overall Job
Satisfaction (OJS) measured by aggregating weighted job satisfaction factors
and the Job Descriptive Index (JDI).

Tam (1986) had conducted research on job satisfaction among
employees in the public sector specifically civilian employees in the Ministry of
Defence. He found that 49.1 percent of the respondent were dissatisfied.
Markandan (1984) found only 22.9 percent were dissatisfied in the teaching
profession.

Markandan's (1984) findings contradicted common perception that the
teaching profession tend to be relatively less attractive as compared to the
civilian employees in the Ministry of Defence especially in terms of promotion
prospects.

Hanifudin (1986) did a study on job satisfaction amongst middle
managers in RISDA. His findings revealed that the middle managers in RISDA
were found to be partially satisfied. It was also found that the job satisfaction
level was related to the management style and partially influenced by personal
characteristics such as sex and age.

Lim (1990) researched on the job satisfaction of employees holding jobs
at different levels in the metal-based industry in relation to organisation size and
structure. The study indicated that job satisfaction is not significantly affected by
the organisation size as many possible influences were not controlled. A
stratified sample of males and females across size of the firm revealed that
females in medium-sized firms were more satisfied than their male counterparts. Females in medium-sized firms were also more satisfied than females in small firms. The reverse was true for males. The study also indicated that there is higher satisfaction level in small than medium firms and that higher level personnel in the organisation hierarchy tend to be more satisfied compared to lower level staff. However, there was inconclusive contrast on satisfaction among union/non-union members.

Lee (1994) researched into various level of job satisfaction among Tenaga Nasional Berhad (TNB) executives. He found that executives at TNB in general did not exhibit high job satisfaction. This situation was serious at that time of economic boom in the region as good executives could have been lured into leaving TNB for better job opportunities. He also discovered that senior executives tend to exhibit higher level of job satisfaction. This could due to the fact TNB adopts traditional approach towards staff promotion where emphasis was placed on seniority or number of years of service rather that performance. Other study that supported this was by Lee (1995). Lee (1994) also concluded positive correlation between job satisfaction and level of education and negative relationship between job satisfaction and organisational hierarchy among the executives in TNB.

Lim (1990) remarked that all previous studies conducted at postgraduate level in Malaysia and Singapore were purely case studies in nature. Therefore their findings cannot be generalised and applied to other companies since the situational factors varied from one study to another.
Influence of Organisation Structure

Lim (1990) quoted that Porter and Lawler (1964) theorises that flat, non-hierarchical, non-bureaucratic structures provide greater satisfaction in relatively small (less than 5,000 employees) organisations. However, there was no such correlation for large organisations. Lim (1990) remarked that tall bureaucratic structures provide greater satisfaction on security needs whereas flat structures providing higher-order needs.

Lee (1994) in his research into job satisfaction among TNB executives, discovered that executives whose reporting line was closer to the head of department were more satisfied. He suggested hierarchical pyramid organisation structure to be delayered in TNB to reduce red tape and bureaucracy for effective and timely decision making.

Influence of Organisation Size

Lim (1990) quoted Benge (1944) by using the "composite attitude of employees in each company towards the boss" as an index of morale, postulates that the morale of employees of small companies was appreciably better than that in larger companies. The studies were, unfortunately, plagued by incomplete information on the descriptions of the sample (for example the number, the type of respondents and the companies). Lim (1990) mentioned that this was further supported by Campbell (1952) in a study on incentive pay plans as a function of the size (from under 20 to over 100) of a work group to which they belonged, concluded that workers in smaller companies were more satisfied with the pay as they possessed better knowledge on the way their pay were
being operated.

Lim (1990) quoted Talacci (1960) that further support on this was based on the studies on the level of job satisfaction among employees in 41 plants that were subunits of five larger plants. Other studies concluded the same based on the study on employees in large versus small warehouses (Katzell, Barret, and Parker 1961).

On the other hand, Lim (1990) mentioned that based on the study on automobile dealerships by Indik and Seashore (1961), concluded that there was a positive relationship between subunit size and job satisfaction.

Contrary to all findings above, Lim (1990) concluded that there was no significant difference in the level of job satisfaction in terms of organisation size among employees in small and medium sized firms in the metal based industry.

Influence of Occupational Level

Occupational level refers to hierarchical position of an individual within an organisation: with chief executive at the highest extreme and non-supervisory workers at the other extreme.

Lim (1990) argued that there was a general trend that registered a higher level of job satisfaction in higher level jobs. She believed that perceived job and need satisfactions increase not only from rank-and-file to managerial positions, but also from lower management to middle and upper-level positions.
On the other hand, Tam (1986) found no significant relationship between occupational level and overall job satisfaction among employees in the Ministry of Defence. However, he did find a significant positive relationship between occupational level and satisfaction in job facet of nature of work, pay and co-worker.

**Influence of Demographic Factors**

As for the gender variation on job satisfaction, Lee (1995) concluded that male engineers were more satisfied than female engineers. This could be due to the dominance of males in the engineering profession. On the other hand, Lim (1990) argued that females in the medium sized firms registered a higher satisfaction level as compared to their male counterparts. Lee (1994) discovered that gender was immaterial in job satisfaction among executives at TNB, however, lady executives exhibit more satisfaction in dealing with people. Lim (1990) believed that gender per se was not the crucial factor in determining the level of job satisfaction, but rather the constellation of variables which covary with sex such as pay, job level, promotion opportunities, societal prejudice.

Victor and Samantha (1996) conjecture that the findings pertaining to gender differences were inconsistent. However, further research does point out that females with combined family and economic responsibilities require particular characteristics of jobs more than their male counterparts. Working females with family responsibilities responded more favourably than males to jobs that do not make excessive demands in terms of hours and commute and physical effort [Martin and Hanson (1985) in Victor et al. (1996)].

Bullard and Wright (1993); Guy (1993); Kellough (1990); Lewis (1992) in Yuan Ting (1996) supported by arguing that small numbers of females in high level jobs can lead females into believing that they do not have equal access to
jobs and have to overcome more barriers than males to be treated equally.

Victor et al. (1996) advocates that two theories have been put forth with regard to the effect of age on job satisfaction. The first view is that the relationship is best represented by a U-shaped curve. Satisfaction decreases initially and then increases with age. This may be a reflection of turnover, with unsatisfied employees leaving their positions to find more satisfying employment. The second view is that job satisfaction increases with age. Older employees may be better able to adjust their expectations to the returns the work can provide. Additionally, older workers may gain esteem simply by virtue of time on the job. Dewar and Werbel (1979) in Yuan Ting (1996) believed that older employees tend to exhibit more positive job attitudes that younger ones as they possess stronger work ethics.

Tam (1986) found that there is no significant relationship between age and overall job satisfaction of employees in the Ministry of Defence, Malaysia. He, however, found that age has a significant effect on job facets such as nature of work, pay, co-workers and organisational climate. Hanifudin (1986) found that the middle-level managers in RISDA that age has a significant relationship between with the facet of supervision. Yap (1989) found that there was a significant relationship between age and two job factors namely economic rewards and rewards off-the-job, among doctors serving in government hospitals in Malaysia. Younger doctors were generally less satisfied with their oay than senior doctors.

Quin, Staines and McCullough (1941) in Victor et.al.(1996) found that education has negative or non-linear effects. This was supported by Carrell and Elbert (1974) in Victor et.al.(1996) indicated that there was a negative
correlation between education and job satisfaction. Younger workers, who have a higher level of formal education, may be dissatisfied with performing the routine tasks required in most jobs. Others have maintained that more educated employees tend to have more job alternatives and therefore, are unlikely to develop great affections towards their jobs and organisations as they are not stuck in any job or organisation [Mathieu and Zajac (1990) in Yuan Ting (1996)]. Also, more educated employees often have higher expectations that their jobs/organisations may be unable to meet, which can adversely affect their job attitudes [Mowday, Porter and Steers (1962) in Yuan Ting (1996)].

Lim (1990) and Chan (1992) found that income level has a significant effect on job satisfaction with the level of job satisfaction increasing as the level of income increases. The reason was that as Malaysia is still a developing country, much of the lower needs have yet to be filled for a section of the population. In addition, a high discrepancy in pay was found between the blue and white collar workers contributed to the higher job satisfaction as income increases.

Contrary to the above, Lim (1990) concluded in her study that there were no correlation between marital status, age, race, education level and place of origin with job satisfaction. Lee (1994) contradicted partially by concluding that old executives were more motivated to work compared to the young executives. Executives with higher level of education also indicated higher level of job satisfaction. This could be due to the fact that executives with higher qualification generally held more senior posts with better pay and offices in TNB.

Lee (1994) failed in proving any significant relationship between level of job satisfaction and ethnic race.