CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Job satisfaction is one of the most widely studied subjects in the management field (Loi and Yang, 2009), as it is considered as one of the determinants of the quality of the working context in any organization. The starting point in exploring employees' satisfaction and motivation was Taylor's scientific study in 1911, but the real beginning of job satisfaction and motivation researches began with Mayo's Hawthorne studies (1924), which shed light on the importance of the human element as being the most valuable resource in any organization. Thousands of researches in job satisfaction have been conducted since the Hawthorne studies and a great number of theories and models were established to explain the complex nature of the job satisfaction phenomena (Locke, 1983). This chapter is primarily devoted to discuss and outline the literature on job motivation and satisfaction in general. The starting point of this chapter is to present the different definitions and meanings of motivation and job satisfaction, to be followed by a review of the three major management schools of thought. The major theories of motivation and job satisfaction and an assessment of these theories will be presented. The effect of different personal characteristics on job satisfaction and motivational needs will be discussed, and the relationship between job satisfaction and employees' behavior at work, including performance, turnover, and absenteeism, will be outlined. Finally, the researcher will introduce the motivation process in Islam and its similarities and differences with western motivation theories.

2.2 THE MEANING OF MOTIVATION

Motivation is one of the most important factors for any organization. According to Thompson and McHugh (2002), it is one of the five factors that determine the existence of any organization, as they put motivation on an equal footing with men, money, machines, and morale. Determining and understanding the factors that motivate employees is an essential need, since the performance of any organization depends on the availability of a satisfied and motivated workforce. Moreover, motivation can influence managers' effectiveness as, according to Analoui (1999-2007), motivation is one of the parameters of managerial effectiveness. Consistent with the previous opinion, Gage and Berliner (1992) consider motivation as the engine and the steering wheel of a car, as they believe that motivation generates the energy and controls the behavior of any person. Because, if we discover and understand what motivates an employee, we will then be able to know the correct button to press to make him work harder, the correct levers to drag to make him change his behavior, and the correct rewards that can be used to direct his attitudes (Huczynski, 2001).

The starting point of any research in the field of motivation is to define the term 'motivation'. Although many researchers have attempted to come up with a clear definition of motivation, there seems to be no general agreement between researchers about how the term should be defined. This may due to the fact that these definitions reflect their own perceptions and experiences in a specific research area. The term 'motivation' can be traced to the Latin word '*movere'* which means 'to move' (Luthans, 1995). However, this is an inadequate explanation of the complex process of motivation. A more detailed definition was presented by Analoui when he illustrated that "*motivation is the internal drive necessary to guide people's actions and behaviors*

toward achievement of some goals." (2000: 324). This drive or force comes from the desire to satisfy certain needs and expectations (Mullins, 2005). Similarly, Kast and Rosenzweig (1979: 244) defined motivation as *"what perhaps prompts a person to act in a certain way or at least develop a propensity for specific behaviour."*.

Luthans points out that the key to understanding the process of motivation lies in the meaning of, and relationship between, needs, drives, and incentives. Therefore, motivation according to his point of view is a *"process that starts with a physiological or psychological deficiency or need that activates behavior or a drive that is aimed at a goal or incentive."* (1995: 141). Other researchers see motivation as an internal state that encourages people to behave in a certain way in order to accomplish specific desired goals (Spector, 1996). Moreover, the term is used to express the readiness to increase one's efforts on a specific task in order to get specific incentives (Molander, 1996). Jones (1955) cited in (Steers *et al.,* 1996: 8) gave a comprehensive definition of motivation when he defined it as "*how behavior gets started, is energized, is sustained, is directed, is stopped, and what kind of subject reactions are present in the organism while all this is going on.*". Although the previous definitions may seem to vary, the general agreement is that, motivation as a dynamic process that starts with human needs which, in turn, make people act in a certain way to achieve the organizational goals and objectives, and hence satisfy their needs. Moreover, there seems to be a hidden agreement between researchers about the main characteristics of the motivation phenomenon, as there are three common denominators which characterise the phenomenon. That is, when researchers discuss motivation, they primarily focus on the following (Steers *et al.,* 1996: 8):

(1) *What energizes human behavior.*

(2) *What directs or channels such behavior.*

(3) *How this behavior is maintained or sustained within organizations.*

2.3 THE MEANING OF JOB SATISFACTION

It is important to commence this research by displaying the different definitions of job satisfaction which may help in understanding this complex human phenomenon. The term 'satisfaction' is normally used to describe the status of people when their needs have been fulfilled. However, the term 'job satisfaction' has been defined in numerous ways according to numerous points of view and no one can claim that there is an ideal definition that can be used by all researchers. However, it can be said that definitions of job satisfaction centralise on two main dimensions. The first dimension is focusing on the factors or conditions that give rise to the feeling of happiness or satisfaction. For example, Hoppock defined job satisfaction as *"Any combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances that cause a person to say, I am satisfied with my job."* (1935: 47). Porter and Lawler defined it as *"the extent to which rewards actually received meet or exceed the received equitable level of rewards. The greater the failure of actual rewards to meet or exceed perceived equable reward, the more dissatisfied a person is considered to be in a given situation."* (1968: 31). Consistent with the previous definitions, Mumford looked at the satisfaction concept as the "*degree of 'fit' between organizational demands and individual needs, and that the employee's satisfaction with his job and the employer's satisfaction with his job and with work performance will only be high when this fit is a good one.*" (1970: 72).

In addition to the previous orientation, there is another dimension that some researchers focused on when outlining the job satisfaction concept; this dimension is related to the positive feelings or emotions that are related to one's job. In this regard, Vecchio argued that "*job satisfaction is the emotional reaction to work experience.*" (1995: 124). Smith *et al.* supported this orientation when they defined job satisfaction as *"the feelings a worker has about his job which are associated with perceived difference between what is expected as a fair and reasonable return and what is experienced, in relation to the alternatives available in a given situation."* (1969: 6). Consistent with the same line of thinking, Spector (1997: 3) defined job satisfaction as *"the global feeling about the job or a related constellation of attitudes about various aspects or facts of the job."*. Finally, Locke (1976: 1300) defined it in the same manner by defining it as *"a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience."*.

From the various definitions that have been presented, and for the purposes of this study, the following definition will be adopted: Job satisfaction is the feeling that emerges as a result of fulfilment of an employee's needs (intrinsic needs, extrinsic needs) and its strength depends on the degree of meeting individuals' expectations. This feeling controls and drives the employee's behavior and work attitude, which may in return have an effect on the organizational functioning.

2.4 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MOTIVATION AND JOB SATISFACTION

From the previous discussion it can be argued that there is a close bond and a strong relationship between motivation and job satisfaction. Some researchers often assumed that they are very similar and can be used interchangeably. However, some other researchers see job satisfaction as a consequence of job motivation. For example, according to Sorge and Warner (1997), job satisfaction is the main result of work motivation. They argued that when the individual needs something, that need will cause tension, which will give rise to actions toward achieving the goals that may lead to satisfying his needs which, in turn, finally result in satisfaction.

On the other hand, other writers see job motivation as a consequence of job satisfaction. Kreitner *et al.* (2002), for example, argued that managers can enhance employees' motivation by increasing their job satisfaction. Contrary to the previous opinions, some researchers assumed that job satisfaction and motivation are different phenomena; Hersey and Blanchard (1988) argued that while satisfaction is related with the past, motivation is related to the future, as they see satisfaction as a result of past organizational events, while motivation is a result of individuals' expectations about the future. Therefore, it can be said that job satisfaction and motivation are not the same, as each has its own identity. However, organizations must be aware that highly motivated employees might not necessarily be the most satisfied ones and vice versa; therefore, a full understanding of both phenomena must be achieved.

Over all, it is important to understand the concepts of motivation and job satisfaction as they form the main pillars of this study. Therefore, there is an essential need to review the most important motivation theories in order to understand what generates and controls human behavior. But before reviewing the related motivational theories, it is necessary to discuss the job satisfaction development over the past century and review the different schools of thought, all of which have had a great influence on various motivation theories. Therefore, the next part will shed light on the major management school of thoughts and how their development contributed to the field of motivation and job satisfaction and formed the basis of the modern motivation theories.

2.5 THE MAJOR MANAGEMENT SCHOOL OF THOUGHTS

In the past, many scholars and researchers have participated in developing the science of management, especially concerning the best methods of managing an organization. Although there were numerous schools and models of management, Stoner and Wankel (1986) and Steers *et al.* (1996) had defined three major models in the order in which they evolved. These models are the 'Traditional Model', the 'Human Relations Model', and the 'Human Resources Model'. In the following section, these models and their influences on motivation and satisfaction will be discussed.

2.5.1 THE TRADITIONAL MODEL

This model is composed of a group of ideas which are related to the scientific management that evolved at the end of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth century. it is considered as an output of the era of the industrial revolution that was distinguished by its large-scale factories and high production capacity which created the necessity of setting scientific methods for the management process inside

different organizations. The Traditional Model included a group of different schools with one standpoint which was "*the economic rationality of management*" (Daft, 2003: 56). In other words, the dominating idea in this period was that workers can only be motivated by financial rewards, and that the psychological needs have no impact on their behavior or choices. Thus, this model looked at one side of human nature, which was the financial aspect, and the necessity of satisfying materialistic requirements.

Two main schools under the general heading of the 'Traditional Model' or 'Classical Management Theory' will be discussed; namely the 'Scientific Management', and the 'Administrative Management'.

2.5.1.1 The Scientific Management

Scientific management is considered as a result of the work of Frederick Taylor and his followers, namely Henry Gantt, Frank and Lillian Gilberth, and Harrington Emerson (Baron and Greenberg, 1990). Taylor is known as 'the father of scientific management' for his contributions in raising the efficiency of organizations through his famous 'one best way' of accomplishing tasks. His model is a good representative of people who follow the quantitative approach when managing business or motivating people (Hartley, 2006), as it directly links the work outputs to the levels of rewards.

One of the most important contributions of Taylor's approach was to emphasize on the human motivation and the different ways of maximizing it in the work context. Taylor adopted the concepts of the classical economic theory, which adopted the idea of motivating individuals only by their desire for economic rewards (Baron and Greenberg, 1990). He believed that man is rational and makes choices based on economic decisions,

as he/she takes into consideration the degree of monetary reward he/she will gain from these decisions. Therefore, only rational motives can control the workers' attitude and they can work harder if promised with a higher salary or more financial incentives.

Taylor therefore suggested that performance and productivity can be increased by interrelating good performance with higher financial incentives. In other words, if the workers knows that the more they produces the more financial rewards they will get, they will adhere to raise their performance level. In addition, Taylor called for the importance of providing each employee with a clear, specific work quota, and argued that the more information the worker has about the specific amounts of work he/she is expected to achieve daily, the more it would enhance his/her motivation (Thompson and McHugh, 2002). In short, Taylor concentrated on two main extrinsic rewards: the salary as a component of the piecework system, and defining work quotas and redesigning jobs as a component of work context.

Many researchers have credited Taylor for his contribution to management and motivation. Drucker (1989) credited Taylor with being the first to analyze work as an important element of productivity. Moreover, Baron and Greenberg (1990) credited Taylor with recognizing the positive link between motivation and job performance. Overall, it is safe to claim that scientific management was an important step forward in motivation progress, by emphasizing the importance of the human element in the production equation. Thus, it focused attention on key factors that had previously been ignored (Baron and Greenberg, 1990).

Until now, Taylor's view of motivation has had a profound effect on the field of motivation research. It inspired several other researchers to deeply understand the motivation phenomenon, including Henry L. Gantt who started to developed Taylor's ideas and put them into action (Bedeian, 1989). Gantt was Taylor's colleague and assistant, but his main concerns were the study of workers' psychology and the importance of workers' moral in work settings. Gantt concentrated on the motivation process and showed more interest in the effectiveness of rewarding the good work rather than the punishment for bad performance. Gantt designed a payment scheme that guaranteed minimum payment and a bonus system for employees with fixed payment. In addition, he initiated another motivation for supervisors for every subordinate who managed to finish his required daily workload, plus an extra bonus if all workers finished the set daily work (Pindur *et al.,* 1995). Thus, he revealed the importance of the human element in organizations and has contributed in forming the concept of motivation as we currently know it.

Frank and Lillian Gilbreth also contributed to scientific management, and are known for their time and motion studies (Pindur *et al.*, 1995). Their experiments were about analyzing the work movements and selected the simplest ones to carry out the work. Their study affected the motivation of employees in two ways. Firstly, it makes it easier for the worker to carry out his job and this positively influences his morale. Secondly, it shows how much the management cares about its employees which, in return, creates good relations between management and employees.

Overall, just like any other managerial theory, there were some criticism of the scientific management. One criticism is that it did not care about the psychological and social needs of people in the work context. As Herzberg (1976) argued that 'Taylorism' might have worked efficiently in the past, but in the present time human needs have become complicated and may conflict with attributes of Taylor's principles. In addition, no man is entirely an 'economic man' because human's behavior is not only dictated by financial needs but also by psychological and social needs. Moreover, many researchers believe that economic incentives are not strong enough to motivate workers, but other higher needs like social and esteem needs play an even more important role than the materialistic ones. Therefore, it is impossible to claim that economic incentives have enough power to efficiently motivate employees (Stoner and Freeman, 1989; Daft, 2003). In addition, Sridhar (2007) argued that there is no 'one best way' in performing work, as what one person may perceive as the best way may not necessarily be the best way for another person. Also, carrying out a job according to the concepts of work division and specialization would reduce the need for a professional workforce because only less-skilled workers would be needed. That, in turn, has a negative effect on the self-esteem of workers since it does not help them to build up their skills (Daft, 2003).

2.5.1.2 Administrative Management

Administrative management is considered the second pillar of the traditional model of management. Henri Fayol (1841-1925) is the founder of modern management, not because he was the first to study managerial behavior, but because he developed a framework for studying managerial activities and the first to systematize it (Bedeian, 1989).

While scientific management focused on 'one best way of accomplishing work', administrative management focused on 'the best way to run an organization' (Bedeian, 1989). Accordingly, the contribution of Fayol's work was to create a sense of effectiveness and harmony by providing principles that were suitable for both big and small organizations, as he developed some managerial concepts that can be applied on all managerial levels, from the lower levels to the highest one.

Nowadays, Fayol's ideas are still considered valid and applicable and that his principles are effective. Archer (1990: 20) pointed out that a part of Japan's success could be attributed to its adherence to Fayol's ideas. Some examples of the techniques that Japan adopted are Fayol's principles such as:

- *JIT (Just in Time) matched remarkably the conceptual intent of the principle of "order".*
- *Some advanced approaches like the assembly-line balancing, quality and production control, matched remarkably the conceptual intent of the principle of "division of work".*
- *Quality circles and exercise sessions matched remarkably the conceptual intent of the principle of 'esprit de corps'.*
- *Lower-level decision making matched remarkably the conceptual intent of the principle of 'initiative'.*

Moreover, Luthans *et al.* (1985) studied 52 managers in three diverse organizations at different levels, and found that administrative management roles were frequently observed, particularly by managers at more senior levels. However, the administrative management was exposed to some criticism on various grounds. Sridhar (2007) argued that it looks to organization as a closed system and some of its principles were contradictory. Moreover, according to Fayol's principles, employees in an organization will tend to direct their orientation towards their units and departments and not to the

organization as a whole. Finally, applying Fayol's concepts will hinder the employee's self-realization due to his dependency on his direct superior.

In summary, the traditional model had put more interest in organization and work performance than in the human aspects. It underestimated people, as Steers *et al.* illustrated that "*in the traditional model workers were viewed as being typically lazy, often dishonest, aimless, dull, and, most of all, mercenary. To get them into the factories and to keep them there, an organization had to pay a 'decent' wage, thus outbidding alternative forms of livelihood.*" (1996: 26). These ideas may not be valid in today's work environment (Greenberg and Baron, 1997) as many studies that have been carried out in both developed and developing countries had confirmed that content factors, such as recognition, responsibility and advancement, seemed to be more important in motivating people. Moreover, organizations become more complicated and require more creative and effective methods when dealing with its employees. Therefore, these inflexible concepts of the traditional model have become inappropriate and more efficient methods need to be adopted.

2.5.2 HUMAN RELATIONS MODEL

As a likely result of neglecting the human factor in the traditional model, industrial psychologists have been persistently looking for more comprehensive models that concentrate on both the significance of the organization and the importance of human needs. They tried to highlight the human needs at work and to thoroughly investigate them, but far from a purely financial incentive. According to Judge *et al.* (2001), the linkage between workplace attitudes and productivity appeared at the beginning of the 1930s as a consequence of the Hawthorne's studies. In 1920, Elton Mayo, a professor

from Harvard University, with his colleagues conducted a series of studies on human behavior at the Western Electric Company plant in Cicero, Illinois between 1924 and 1933 (Carrell *et al.*, 1997). The core of these studies was to give more importance to the human side of management, as they tried to balance between the materialistic and technical perspectives of scientific management, and the importance of the human factor and the individuals' differences.

Mayo rejected the term 'Economic man' and called his research "*A research in the human nature*" (O'Connor, 1999: 122), as he believed that management should focus on the human part and on social aspects in the work environment (Bedeian, 1989; Greenberg and Baron, 1997). His studies were based on reviewing the impact of physical conditions on productivity. Later, these experiments formed the bases of a group of successive researches related to the work groups, leadership, communications, motivation, and work design. This led to increased concentration on personnel management and gave inspiration to the human relations writers (Mullins, 2005).

Mayo's studies had a great influence on the advancement of motivation science. According to Steers *et al.* (1996), the aspect of human relations greatly affected the motivation process as it produced a collection of motivation strategies which emerged from the human relations model. First, management felt they had a responsibility for making workers feel important, provide them with recognition, and satisfy their social and psychological needs. Second, management focus on the importance of encouraging communication between employees and management by opening vertical communication channels. Third, employees have the chance to make routine decisions which satisfy their feeling of autonomy. Finally, managers began to concentrate on

using group incentive system as a result of realizing the existence of informal work groups with their own norms and prescriptions.

In addition, Mayo discovered through Hawthorn's experiments that, if workers are allowed to interact in a social environment, they will be motivated and consequently their performance level will increase (Boone and Bowen, 1987). Moreover, according to Mayo, the management's main aim and basic interest should be the motivation of its employees, and to satisfy their psychological needs. Also, managers should increase workers' self-esteem and create an atmosphere of friendship between workers and their supervisors. Accordingly, an atmosphere of understanding has to be established where supervisors ask workers about their opinions and keep them informed on all changes that are made (Boone and Bowen, 1987). In this context, Sridhar (2007) argued that the humanitarian view of this school of thought required a new set of managerial strategies to improve the human skills of managers and supervisors and to replace the individual rewards plans with the group rewards plans; also, to concentrate on workers and their needs, their attitudes and their effectiveness, rather than concentrating on managerial functions. These changes require a social manager who is capable of leading and helping his subordinates. Therefore, the human relations school can be classified as one of the content theories of motivation as it focuses on the intrinsic factors more than the extrinsic ones (Roth, 1993).

However, the Hawthorne's studies were also subject to some criticism about their methodology and their nature as a motivation theory. Sonnenfeld (1985) criticized the methodology that been used in conducting the study. He criticized the use of a small sample and the lack of control over the study, the instability of the incentive plans, and

the changing of participant numbers while conducting the experiments. Furthermore, from a motivational standpoint, while the scientific management was criticized for its exaggerated interest in the economic aspect as opposed to the human aspects, the human relations exaggerated the human aspects as compared to the interest of the organization as a whole, as the theory concentrated on fulfilling the needs of each worker but neglected the formal work groups inside the organization. Moreover, Stoner and Freeman (1989) criticized the concept of the social man on which the theory was based. From their point of view, the concept failed to give a complete description of the members inside the workplace and concentrated only on the psychological aspects. Moreover, they believed that the techniques of the human relation theory gave workers a false sense of happiness and were not actually concerned with their interests.

2.5.3 HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

At the beginning of the 1960s, a new approach began to dominate the work settings (Steers *et al*., 1996). According to the Human Resource Model, every employee has different and complicated personal needs he/she wishes to fulfil such as money, achievement, challenge, and recognition, and it is the management's duty to learn how to fulfill these needs. In other words "*the human resource perspective maintained an interest in employee perception and considerate leadership but shifted the emphasis to consider the daily tasks that people perform. It combines prescriptions for design of job tasks with theories of motivation. In human resource view, jobs should be designed so that tasks are not perceived as dehumanizing or demeaning but instead allow workers to use their full potential.*" (Daft, 2003: 51). It was assumed that, if the workers are able to do their tasks and achieve their aims with a high performance level, this will give them job satisfaction. In other words, high performance leads to job satisfaction which is the

opposite assumption of the human relations theory, which suggests that job satisfaction leads to a better performance (Steers *et al.,* 1996).

The Human Resources Model became popular when Douglas McGregor (1960) presented his Theories 'X' and 'Y', which are two contradictory theories that describe the management style adopted by managers. McGregor believed that the Human Relations Model did not efficiently describe the complex needs and attitudes of workers. He introduced his theories based on his experience as a manager, consultant and psychologist (Daft, 2000). McGregor argued that many managers viewed their subordinates through a group of assumptions that he called Theory 'X'. These assumptions were that some people do not like their work and try to avoid it as much as possible; they therefore have to be controlled, directed and threatened with punishment to ensure that they exert the obligatory effort to attain the aims of the organization (carrot and stick mentality). Moreover, an average number of people prefer to be directed to take responsibility, as they are not ambitious enough and prefer the feeling of security over anything else. Consequently, they can be motivated only by satisfying their physiological and safety needs (Daft, 2000).

A deep examination of the assumptions of Theory 'X' revealed that the followers of this theory adopted a negative attitude toward workers. Its practitioners treat workers with suspicion, irrespectively and with distrust, reflecting a management style that focuses on fault finding and motivates workers by applying the policy of punishment for bad performance instead of rewarding the good performance (Houston, 1995). Moreover, according to the theory, the reason employees stay in the company is not because they like their jobs but because they receive monetary incentives (Costley and Todd, 1987).

This kind of thinking is very close to the scientific management mentality. However, Daft (2000) believed that many of the present organizations follow the method of the 'X' Theory.

On the other hand, McGregor believed that management has to thoroughly understand the human nature and motivational needs. As a result of this standpoint, he developed his alternative theory which was placed on the other end of the spectrum, as it has a positive and more optimistic view about workers. This theory is known as the 'Y' Theory which is based on the idea that an organization has to benefit from its employees' intelligence and abilities. Brooks summarized the assumptions of Theory 'Y' by illustrating that "*theory Y assumes that individuals align themselves with organizational goals and, as a consequence, people require little control or direction, seek rewards consistent with their performance, may accept and relish responsibility, possess initiative and creative skills and are potentially motivated by the higher-order needs for affiliation, esteem and self actualisation.*" (2003: 156). According to Theory 'Y', employee's behavior is directed toward satisfying high order needs like self-esteem and self-actualization, and covering these needs will enable the organization to perform efficiently (Vecchio, 1995). Today, Theory 'Y' is considered one of the widely accepted theories in the work context as it suits the dynamic nature of current organizations. It is suitable for developing minds and thoughts more than for improving physical effort and manpower which can easily be replaced by developed equipment and instruments.

2.6 MOTIVATION THEORIES

After presenting the main schools of thought, the next part will present the main motivation theories. However, it is important to notice that categorizing the different theories of motivation is not an easy task because they often overlap with each other. Nevertheless, the most acceptable approach in categorizing these theories is to classify it into content and process theories (Steers *et al*., 1996; Analoui, 2000).

2.6.1 CONTENT THEORIES OF WORK MOTIVATION

The main interest of content theories is to find out what controls and organizes the human behavior. They are mainly concerned with what motivates people, and what kind of rewards can enhance people's satisfaction and performance. According to Analoui (2000: 324), *"the content theories have identified needs, incentives and the work itself as important factors that contribute towards job satisfaction and focus on the inner drivers of human behavior."*. Accordingly, they can be described as 'static' theories because *"they incorporate only one or a few points in time and are either past-or present-time oriented."* (Luthans, 1995: 149). Hence, they are not very useful in predicting people's behavior, but they can be used in understanding the factors that motivate people in their working environment.

Although there are a number of content theories in the field of work motivation, this chapter will mainly concentrate on three of the most prominent and known content theories of work motivation. These theories are Maslow's Need Hierarchy, Herzeberg's Two Factor Theory, and Alderfer's ERG Theory.

2.6.1.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory

The Hierarchy of Needs Theory is considered one of the most famous theories in the field of human motivation and one of the first theories that attempt to describe the human behavior toward satisfying the different human needs (Kreitner *et al.*, 1999). The theory is based on the assumption that a need affects a person's activities until he/she satisfies it (Steers *et al.*, 1996), thus the main motivator of people is their desire to satisfy their needs. Maslow thought that personal needs can be arranged in a hierarchical order; in essence, once one of these needs has been satisfied, it will temporally lose its effect as a motivator and the person will focus on satisfying the next higher need which has been activated (Hilgert and Leonard, 1995; Luthans, 1995).

Steers *et al.* (1996) demonstrated that, according to the Hierarchy Theory people move from the bottom to the top of the need hierarchy through an active cycle of deprivation, domination, gratification and activation. As, when a person feels deprivation (unsatisfied need) in one of the hierarchy levels, this will direct his action toward satisfying this particular need. For example, if the person needs to satisfy his safety and security needs, he will temporarily ignore satisfying his higher-order needs; however, once he has met this need, the higher need will be activated and he will try to satisfy it, thus repeating this cycle of action until he reaches the apex of the need hierarchy. In this regard, Maslow categorizes the basic human needs into five levels in a hierarchy order, namely physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem needs and self-actualization needs, which can be illustrated in the following figure.
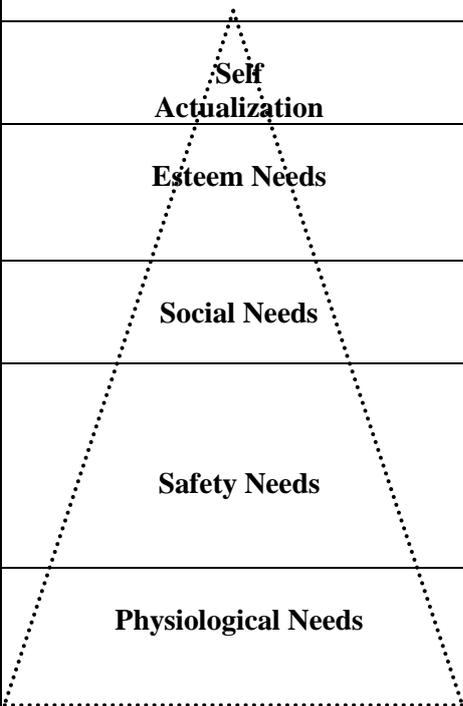
General Rewards	Need Levels	Organizational Factors
- Growth - Advancement - Creativity	**Self Actualization**	- Challenging job - Achievement in work - Advancement
- Self-esteem - Self-respect - Prestige	**Esteem Needs**	- Social recognition - Job title - High status job - Feedback
- Love - Affection - Belongingness	**Social Needs**	- Cohesive work group - Friendly supervision - Professional associations
- Safety - Security - Stability - Protection	**Safety Needs**	- Safe working conditions - Company benefits - Job security - Union - Pension
- Food - Water - Shelter - Sleep	**Physiological Needs**	- Pay - Good working conditions

Figure 2.1: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Source: Adopted from Cherrington (1989)

The details of the five types of needs are as follows:

1- Physiological Needs

Maslow considered the physiological needs as the basis of the hierarchy. These needs are actually related to the different body and survival needs. For example, it included the need for eating, drinking, sleeping, and shelter. Maslow (1970) argued that these needs are the most dominant needs which the person will try to satisfy first; in the workplace, this level of needs reflects the employee's needs to have a suitable working environment (clean and fresh air, reasonable temperature, enough light and work-space) and good pay. According to Maslow (1970), once these needs are satisfactorily met, it

will lose its effect as a motivator and the safety needs (the second level in the hierarchy) will emerge and dominate the person's behavior.

2- Safety or Security Needs

These are related to the safety and security of the individual's physical and emotional conditions. Maslow (1970) argued that when the individual feels the need for security, he/she become a safety-seeker and tries to satisfy it. This category of needs includes the desire for security, no threats or physical harm, and stability. In the workplace, this level of needs can be satisfied by providing job security (protection against layoff), safe working conditions (safe tools and environment), union, health insurance, and pension plans (Cherrington, 1989; Steers *et al.,* 1996).

3- The Belongingness and Love Needs

Most people like to be a part of a group. Therefore, when the individual satisfies the two previous needs, the belongingness and love needs will emerge. This category of needs expresses the human needs for receiving love and to belong to a human group and be accepted by others. However, Luthans (1995) argued that Maslow's choice of the word 'love' to address this category may have confusing connotations, such as sex, and it may be more appropriate to use the word 'social needs' instead. The main ways to meet this kind of needs is through interaction as part of a work group, friendly supervision, professional associations, and a cohesive work group (Cherrington, 1989; Hilgert and Leonard, 2001).

4-Esteem and Ego Needs

This represents one of the higher human needs. It includes the needs for high power, high status, recognition for good work, achievement, self-respect, prestige, and attention from others. In the workplace, this level of needs can be met by sound job title, good feedback, and a high status job (Vecchio, 2000). Maslow argued that, *"Satisfaction of the self-esteem need leads to feelings of self-confidence, worth, strength, capability and adequacy of being useful and necessary in the world."* (1970: 34).

5- Self-Actualization Needs

According to Maslow, self-actualization is *"What a man can be, he must be"* (Maslow, 1970: 34), and he considered it as the apex of the needs hierarchy. This kind of needs is actually an inner need for developing one's unique potential as an individual. In an organization, an employee may try to satisfy self-actualization needs by looking for challenging, innovative tasks or to make significant achievements to his job (Steers *et al.,* 1996).

After Maslow had set his theory, some researchers made some changes in the format of the theory. For example, Porter (1961) in his study of middle and bottom managers added a new level that he called 'autonomy' between the fourth level (esteem needs) and the fifth level (self-actualization needs). Porter claimed that needs such as those for authority, independent thought and participating in the setting of goals are logically distinct from more common esteem items (Porter, 1961: 3). Another modification was made by Alderfer (1972), as he combined Maslow's physiological and safety needs into 'Existence' (E) needs, belongingness and esteem needs into 'Relatedness' (R) needs and the self-actualization need was renamed as 'Growth' (G) need. Moreover, Lawler and

Suttle (1972) offered another modification by reducing the five levels to just two levels; they called the first level the 'physiological needs', and the second level they called the 'higher needs', which contains Maslow's four other needs.

Maslow's theory is considered one of the most widely accepted theories in management context and is still very popular among researchers and practitioners (Soper *et al*., 1995). Wahba and Bridwell (1976) argued that Maslow's hierarchy theory has proven to be a very useful theory in generating managerial ideas. Moreover, it is still popular among managers because it is very simple to present and easy to understand (Benson, 2003). It has inspired researchers over the past decades as it generated a number of management approaches and policies such as job enrichment, total quality management, business re-engineering, self-managing teams, and employee empowerment (Huczynski and Buchanan, 2001).

However, the theory has not always been supported, as it has been subject to some criticism due to the lack of its empirical support. Indeed, Maslow himself did not try to conduct any empirical research to support his ideas. Steers *et al.* (1996: 15) had summarised the criticism of Maslow's theory by declaring that: *"First, no clear evidence was found indicating that human needs can be classified into five distinct categories, or that these categories are structured in a hierarchical way. Second, the review examined the proposition that an unsatisfied need leads an individual to focus exclusively on that need. Some studies supported this proposition while other studies did not. Finally, the review explored the idea that satisfaction of needs at one level activates needs at the next higher level. This proposition was not supported by the research evidence."*

Sackett (1998) agrees with Steers' opinion, as he assures that some people seem to be self-actualized without satisfying their lower needs within the hierarchy. Moreover, Kiel (1995) did not accept the assumption that self-actualization is the apex of the hierarchy needs. He claimed that the human potential is a boundless and ongoing process, and he wondered why the triangle had a close end as a result. He argued that Maslow's theory should be modified and that the triangle should be opened. Overall, Maslow's theory is not the final story in the field of work motivation (Luthans, 1995).

2.6.1.2 Herzberg's Two Factor Theory

In 1959, Herzberg and his colleagues introduced the 'Two Factor Theory' which is one of the most well-known theories in the management field. His study was conducted based on semi-structured interviews of a sample of 203 accountants and engineers from a business enterprise in Pittsburgh. The aim of the study was to identify the moments when the participant felt good or bad about his/her job. Participants were asked two questions; the first was to describe in detail the times that they felt good about their job, and the second was to describe in detailing the times when they felt bad about their job (Herzberg *et al.,* 1959).

On the basis of the answers of these questions, Herzberg classified the job factors into two main categories. He called the first 'hygiene' and the second 'motivators'. He argued that hygiene factors resulted largely from extrinsic factors (e.g. company policy, interpersonal relations, working conditions, pay, status, and job security) and were mainly found in employees' descriptions of the bad events (negative events). These factors are related with work environment and can hardly provide a real feeling of job satisfaction. However, when these factors fall below the acceptable level for the
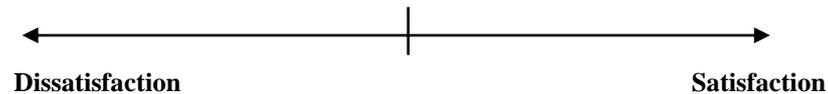
employee, job dissatisfaction emerges as a result. He also argued that all a person can expect when satisfying the hygiene factors is to prevent the feeling of dissatisfaction and the poor levels of job performance, as its existence will help remove the barriers to achieve job satisfaction. Therefore, the hygiene factors offer little chance for self-actualization because they don't offer the employees the chances for responsibility or achievement (Carrel *et al.,* 2000).

On the other hand, 'motivators' (e.g. achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement, and possibility of growth) were related to the content and nature of the job itself (Steers *et al.,* 1996) and were mainly found in employees' descriptions of the good events (positive events). These motivators offer a better chance for self-actualization and creativity. Accordingly, the only way for employees to achieve satisfaction and motivation is by using the motivators. However, the absence of these factors will not lead to job dissatisfaction, as in the case of the absence of the hygiene factors, but the result will reach the 'neutral state' as in the case of the existence of the hygiene factors (Herzberg *et al.,* 1959). Consequently, to reach job satisfaction there are two stages that must be fulfilled. The first is to eliminate job dissatisfaction by satisfying the employee's hygiene factors, this will just bring the employee's satisfaction to zero point (neutral state). The motivators can then be used to remove the employee's satisfaction from zero point to a positive level of job satisfaction (Herzberg *et al.,* 1959).

Herzberg's ideas were different from other researchers in that other researchers dealt with satisfaction and dissatisfaction as opposites, while Herzberg thought that satisfaction and the factors that lead to satisfaction are totally different to those factors

that lead to job dissatisfaction; he believed that the opposite of satisfaction is zero satisfaction, while the opposite of dissatisfaction is zero dissatisfaction (Herzberg *et al.,* 1959). The difference between the traditional model of motivation and the ideas of Herzberg's theory can be summarized in the following figure.

Traditional View of Motivation

Dissatisfaction   **Satisfaction**

 Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

Hygiene

Dissatisfaction ◄————————————►**No dissatisfaction**

Neutral State

No satisfaction————————————► **Satisfaction**
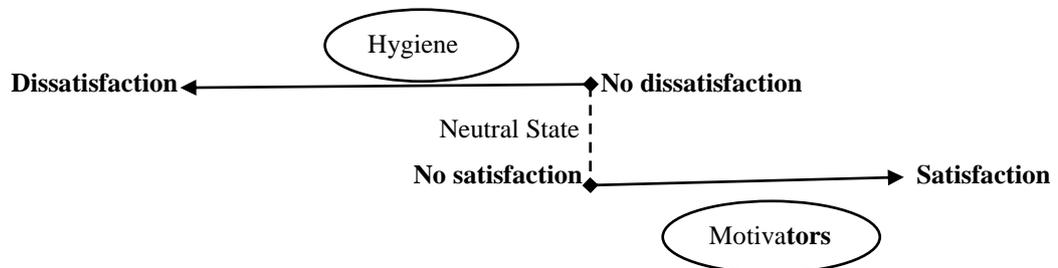
Motiv**ators**

Figure 2.2: The difference between the Traditional Model and Herzberg's view of motivation

Source: Adopted from Cherrington (1989)

The Two-Factor Theory is a superior theory that has made a great contribution to managerial knowledge as it clarifies the different sources of job attitudes. It had an explanatory power that inspired researchers and generated a huge volume of refreshes in the field of industrial psychology (Whitsett and Winslow, 1967). One of the greatest contributions of Herzberg's theory was to shed light on the content of work motivation, emphasizing that management are not motivating their employees when focusing only on the hygiene factors, and that only a challenging job that includes the possibility for achievement, advancement, responsibility, recognition, and growth can motivate people

(Luthans, 1995). Moreover, Herzberg's theory has received some support from researchers, as many studies show a general support of Herzberg's idea that factors leading to job satisfaction (motivators) are different from, and not simply opposite to, factors leading to job dissatisfaction (hygienes). This idea was supported by the investigations of several researchers (Halpern, 1962; Centers and Bugental, 1966; Saleh and Grygior, 1969; Soliman, 1970; Myers, 1971; Meagher, 1979; Couger and Ishikawa, 1995; Brislin *et al.,* 2005).

However, Herzberg's theory was subject to some criticism. Some scholars criticized the notion that the motivators and hygienes are two independent factors, and that hygiene factors have no impact on motivating employees. They argued that some hygiene factors may act like motivators, and motivators can serve as sources of dissatisfaction and satisfaction. This idea was supported by the work of many researchers (Friedlander, 1963; Ewen, 1964; Friedlander, 1964; Ewen *et al.*, 1966; Graen and Hulin, 1966; Wernimont, 1966; Hulin and Smith, 1967; Lahiri and Srivastva, 1967; Lindsay *et al.*, 1967; Brenner *et al.*, 1971; Lock and Whiting, 1974; Brown and Humphreys, 1995; Ruthankoon and Ogunlana, 2003; Usugami and Park, 2006). Furthermore, from a methodological point of view, Cherrington (1989) argued that the hygiene-motivator theory is methodologically bound, as it only produces supportive results if Herzberg's technique is used, and that using different methods produces different results. French *et al.* (1973) supported the previous opinion by illustrating that others, who have used different data collection methods, failed to gain results that were consistent with Herzberg's results. Moreover, Brenner *et al.* (1971) raised the question of the generality and validity of its findings, as they argued that the use of the single method of measurement (semi-structured interview) was not enough for ensuring the credibility

and validity of the results. Additionally, Ewen (1964) and Ewen *et al.* (1966) disagreed with the use of the 'recall' method used by Herzberg as they believed that it was subject to 'bias'. Moreover, the 'self-report' technique that was used in Herzberg's study has also been subject to criticism as it may not be accurate in measuring behavior and attitudes (Friedlander, 1966). Overall, *"Herzberg added much to the better understanding of job content factors and satisfaction, but like his predecessors, he fell short of a comprehensive theory of work motivation. His model describes only some of the content of work motivation, it does not adequately describe the complex motivation process of organizational participants"* (Luthans, 1995: 154).

2.6.1.3 ERG Theory

Clayton P. Alderfer (1972) is an American psychologist who extended and reformulated Maslow's theory. As a matter of fact, his theory can be considered as a variant of Maslow's theory. However, contradictory to Maslow, his theory was developed specifically for explaining work behavior in organizational settings (Steers *et al.*, 1996). Alderfer argued that the five need categories in Maslow's theory could be merged into three main categories, being 'Existence', 'Relatedness', and 'Growth'. Hence, the name of the theory (ERG) is adopted from the combination of the first letter of each need category (Hume, 1998).

The need of 'Existence' refers to all forms of basic material and physiological needs required to maintain human existence. For example, the need for eating and drinking and other material needs in the work setting, like the need for pay, fringe benefits, and physical safety (Schneider and Alderfer, 1973). 'Relatedness' is the need for meaningful interpersonal relations in the work settings with superiors, peers, and subordinates.

However, the basic quality that distinguishes the relatedness needs from existence needs is that one can not satisfy the relatedness apart from others, thus it can not be satisfied without mutuality (Schneider and Alderfer, 1973). 'Growth' needs are associated with the development of one's potential (Steers *et al.*, 1996). Schneider and Alderfer (1973: 491) argued that, *"satisfaction of this category occurs when a person engages problems which call upon him to make the most of his capacities and to build up new capabilities."*.

Although the ERG theory may seem to have much in common with the work of Maslow, his work has some substantial differences. Alderfer agreed with Maslow that when people satisfy their lower needs, they tended to move up the hierarchy from 'Existence' needs, to 'Relatedness' needs, and finally to 'Growth' needs. However, unlike Maslow's hierarchy, Alderfer argued that all different levels of needs may be activated and operated in a given person at the same time (Huczynski and Buchanan, 2001). Therefore, any category of needs can be activated without the condition of fulfilling the other needs. In other words, the individual can be motivated by his desire for money (an Existence need), interpersonal relations (a Relatedness need), and by recognition (a Growth need) simultaneously (Brooks, 2003). Accordingly, the order of the needs may differ from one person to another according to his preferences and own framework.

The flexibility of the ERG theory enables it to explain a wider range of human behavior. For example, why some people seek to satisfy their needs for achievement or recognition, or can achieve a high level of self-actualization although they may have a very low salary. Furthermore, Alderfer's ERG theory suggests that there is also a

frustration-regression sequence, as when a higher level need remains unfulfilled and it appears difficult to be fulfilled, the individual may regress to lower level need which will drive his behavior. For example, if an individual can not satisfy his growth needs, frustration regression occurs, causing the individual to focus on fulfilling his relatedness or existence needs (Steers *et al.*, 1996).

Overall, ERG theory can be considered as a refinement of the hierarchy need theory; it helps the management to understand its employees' behavior and to realize that their employees have a set of needs that can be satisfied simultaneously. Accordingly, they can increase employees' motivation by understanding the nature of the relationship between these needs; for example, if the management can not satisfy the growth needs of their employees they should redirect they efforts toward the other two need categories, then steps must be taken to fulfil the growth needs again (Samson and Daft, 2002).

However, few researchers have attempted to examine the ERG theory (Steers *et al.*, 1996; Luthans, 1995). For example, Okpara (1996) investigated the level of job satisfaction among 600 Nigerian managers and found that pay (an Existence need) had a significant positive impact on managers' job satisfaction, and thus their job performance. In a similar study, Arnolds and Boshoff (2002) investigated the relationship between need satisfaction and job performance of 304 top managers and 213 frontline employees in the banking, retail, security and legal industries in South Africa. They found that higher-order needs, such as growth needs, can motivate both top managers and front-line workers and thus increase their job performance through increasing their self-esteem. Moreover, Rauschenberger *et al.* (1980) have examined both Maslow and ERG theories and show a high positive coloration between the

different need categories of both theories. This disconfirms the dominance concept of the hierarchy theory and, at the same time, supports the ERG theory that any category of needs can take priority over the others despite the fulfilment of the others.

2.6.1.4 Relationships between Different Content Theories

Despite the differences between the need theories discussed in the previous section, there are several points at which the theories intersect. Figure 2.3 illustrates the similarities among the three previous theories.

Type of motivation	Herzberg's Categories	Maslow's Categories	Alderfer's E-R-G Categories
Intrinsic	Work itself, Achievement, Possibility of growth, Responsibility, Advancement, Recognition — **Motivators**	**Self-actualization** / **Esteem**-self-confirmed / **Esteem**-interpersonal	**Growth** / **Relatedness**
Extrinsic	Status, Relation with supervisors, Peer relations, Relations with subordinates, Company policies, Job security, Working conditions, Pay — **Hygiene**	**Social needs** / **Safety**-interpersonal / **Safety**-material / **Physiological needs**	**Existence**

Figure 2.3: Relationships among content motivation theories

Source: Adopted from Schneider and Alderfer (1973) and Luthans (1995)

By and large, despite the differences between the three content theories, Maslow's theory can be considered as the basis for the ERG theory, the difference between the two theories being the number of need categories. According to Schneider and Alderfer (1973) and Luthans (1995), the 'Existence' needs in the ERG theory are equivalent to Maslow's physiological needs, and the part of the safety needs that are related to safety with material needs (physical threats), it is also equivalent to a part of Herzberg's hygiene factors.

Moreover, the 'Relatedness' needs in the ERG theory are equivalent to Maslow's social needs and both the safety with interpersonal needs and the esteem that relies on the interaction with others; it is also equivalent to a part of both Herzberg's hygiene and motivators factors. On the other hand, the 'Growth' needs in ERG theory are equivalent to Maslow's self-actualization needs and the esteem which relies on self-confirmed (one's internal standards); it is also equivalent to a part of Herzberg's motivators. Overall, although the need theories differ in determining the number of human needs and the relationships between these needs, they do agree in the fact that satisfying these needs is a basic pillar in motivating employees' behavior (Greenberg and Baron, 1997). However, the main deficiency of the content theories is that it can not explain the complexity of human motivation process (Luthans, 1995).

2.6.2 PROCESS THEORIES OF WORK MOTIVATION

The major problem with the content theories is that it can not explain the direction of the motivation process (Thompson and McHugh, 2002). On the other hand, the process theories have the ability to describe how behavior is started and directed. Thus, it takes the dynamicity of the motivation process and the interaction between the variables

involved into consideration (Analoui, 2000). Although there are various competent process theories, this section mainly focuses on two of the most prominent and widely known process theories of work motivation, namely Adam's Equity Theory (1965) and Vroom's Expectancy Theory (1964).

2.6.2.1 Equity Theory

The equity concept is a synonym of justice and fairness. This concept is usually used in the work context to express the positive association between one's efforts and performance, and the pay and other benefits one receives (Steers *et al.,* 1996). The basic principle of equity theory that been shared by different equity theorists is that rewards must be distributed among an organization's members according to their actual contribution, meaning that someone who contributes more should have more privileges than someone who contributes less (Deutsch, 1985).

Adams (1965: 280) argued that *"inequity occurs when a person thinks that the ratio of his outcomes to inputs and the ratio of other's outcomes to other's inputs are unequal."*. Accordingly, the equity occurs when a person's outcomes to inputs = another's outcomes to inputs. On the other hand, there are two kinds of inequity. The first kind, 'positive inequity', occurs when a person's outcomes to inputs > another's outcomes to inputs. The second kind of inequity, 'negative inequity', can happen when a person's outcomes to inputs < another's outcomes to inputs (Adams, 1965). The inputs may include factors that an individual can give to his work such as qualifications, experience, hours, efforts, skills, loyalty, and devotion. On the other hand, outcomes represent what an individual can receive from his work, which may include pay, benefits, respect, security, prestige, pleasant work environment, promotions, and status. Moreover, both

the person's inputs and outputs are mainly influenced by one's perceptions and expectations (Luthans, 1995).

Another important point related to the equity theory is the selection of the 'referent' used. The 'referent' is the person that an individual compares his own output and outcomes to. This referent may include other people like colleagues, friends, and counterparts in similar organizations (Goodman, 1974; Hills, 1980; Ronan, 1986; Dornstein, 1988). Another referent may be the self-referents when an individual compares the ratio of his outcomes to inputs with his past ratios (Scholl *et al.,* 1987; Summers and DeNisi, 1990).

Oldham *et al.* (1986) added that the employee's tenure may affect the choice of referents, as they found that employees with a long tenure tend to choose the referents from the same organization they work in, whereas individuals with a short tenure tend to use self-referents by using their own history when judging the equity ratio. Kulik and Ambrose (1992) added that people use others as a referent when judging extrinsic rewards (e.g. pay, security, and working conditions), but use themselves when judging intrinsic rewards (e.g. recognition, growth, and advancement).

Another point related to the Equity Theory is the reactions toward inequity. According to Adams, if a person perceived inequity he will try to bring the equity ratio into balance by using one of the following four possible methods (Samson and Daft, 2002):

1. Changing effort: if an individual suffered from negative inequity he may reduce his efforts, take long brakes, or may increase his absence ratio. On the contrary, if an individual found a positive inequity, he may try to increase his inputs by increasing his efforts or increasing his technical skills by gaining more training.

2. Changing outcomes: if an individual feels that he is underpaid, he may ask for a raise or salary increase. Additionally, he may ask for a promotion or an improvement in his working conditions.

3. Changing their own perception or people's perception of equity if they are unable to change their own efforts or outcomes. For example, if a public sector employee is unable to change his efforts or increase his outputs, he may try to increase his status as a public sector employee and distort the status of private sector employees as a method of altering his position.

4. If the individual is unable or does not intend to bring the equity ratio into balance, he may quit his job and look for the equity in another place.

Moreover, people differ in their sensitivity toward equity, as Huseman *et al*. stated that individuals come to terms with equity as one of three types:

> *"'Benevolents', those who prefer their outcome/input ratios to be less than the outcome/input ratios of the comparison other; 'Equity Sensitizes', those who, conforming to the traditional norm of equity, prefer their outcome/input ratios to equal those of comparison others; and 'Entitleds', those who prefer their outcome/input ratios to exceed the comparison other's."* (1987: 223).

Furthermore, the employee's position within the organization hierarchy has been found to be significant with sensitivity toward equity. As it has been found that managers perceived less inequity regarding pay, company policies, promotion, fringe benefits, advancement, and power than supervisors or workers (Singh, 1994).

Overall, the Equity Theory has gained fairly good support from many researchers, and a comprehensive number of researchers support the 'equity norm' (where a person compares his outcomes to inputs ratio with others and tries to balance the ratio if he perceived inequity) (Messe and Radinsky, 1969; Austin and Walster, 1974). Another research area tested the relation between inequity and employees' dissatisfaction; the findings supported the norm that there is a positive relationship between the perceived equity and job satisfaction level (Pritchard *et al.*, 1972; Klein, 1973; Porter and Steers, 1973; Austin and Walster, 1974; Dittrich and Carrcll, 1979; Oldham *et al.,* 1986; Miceli *et al.,* 1991; Singh, 1994; Watson *et al.,* 1996). Other researchers supported the relationship between equity and performance (Lawler and O'Gara, 1967; Pritchard *et al.,* 1972; Summers and Hendrix, 1991), and another positive relationship between inequity and turnover was found (Telly, 1971; Oldham *et al.,* 1986; Allen and White 2002).

However, the equity theory was subject to some criticism. Szilagyi and Wallace (1990) and Steers *et al.* (1996) pointed out certain problems associated with the equity theory. They argued that the reference person in most cases can not be classified, as the individual may use several references for different outcomes. Moreover, the validity of the equity theory may be questionable on the real organizational context because most studies that evaluate it were laboratory studies. Additionally, several researches have questioned the assumption that overpayment may lead to positive inequity. Finally, pay

is the focal point of this theory, while other motivation theories consider pay as just one factor that can motivate people as there are other factors that may have a greater influence on people's behavior.

2.6.2.2 Expectancy Theory

The Expectancy Theory derived its roots from the early work of Tolman and Honzik (1930), who tried to produce a systematic explanatory theory of work motivation (Boorks, 2003). However, Vroom (1964) was the first who presented a systematic formulation of motivation that based on the expectancy assumptions developed for use in work situations (Steers *et al.*, 1996).

Since Vroom (1964) formulated what has been called the 'Expectancy Theory', it has been widely used in managerial literature to explain the human behavior within the workplace. Vroom refused the assumption of the content theories, that people have certain needs that they try to satisfy it, as he took the diversity and the complexity of the human behavior into consideration. Huczynski and Buchanan (2001) argued that the Expectancy Theory is more comprehensive than the content theories as it sheds light on the individual differences regarding motivation and behavior. Moreover, it helps us to measure the strength of an individual's motivation.

According to the theory, the human behavior is determined by the preference and the possibility of getting the desired outcome. Accordingly, people will be motivated if they expect a positive relationship between efforts and rewards, and if they value these rewards. The basic elements of this theory are shown in Figure 2.4.
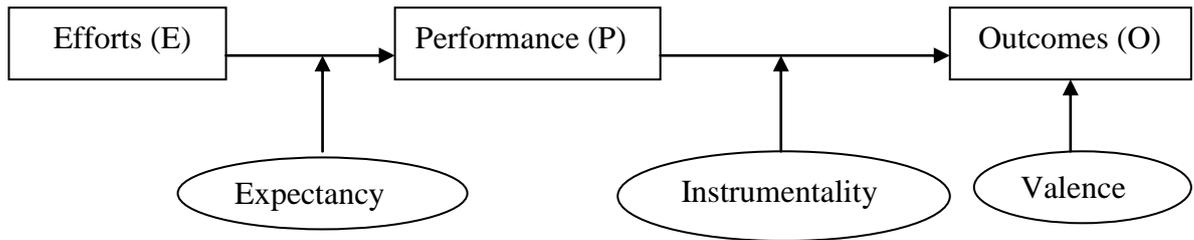
Figure 2.4: The basic elements of Expectancy Theory

Source: Huczynski and Buchanan (2001: 145)

As shown by the above figure, the Expectancy Theory comprises three elements. These elements are Expectancy, Instrumentality, and Valence.

1- Expectancy

According to Vroom's terminology, expectancy represents the employee's estimation of the relationship between effort and performance (E-P), and it is defined as an individual's subjective probability that changing in effort will lead to change in performance. In order to raise expectancy, the individual must have the required ability, experience, tools, and the appropriate opportunity to perform (Samson and Daft, 2002). Kreitner *et al.* (1999) have pointed to the factors that influence an employee's expectancy perceptions. These are:

- Self-esteem

- Self-efficacy

- Previous experience and success at the assigned task

- Receiving the required help from subordinates and superiors

- Having the required information to accomplish the task

- Fine materials and tools should be available.

2- Instrumentality

Instrumentality refers to the relationship between performance and results, and it is defined as an individual's subjective probability that a particular performance (P) will lead to particular outcomes (O). It can range from -1.0 to 1.0. An instrumentality of 1.0 means a complete relationship between performance and outcomes, and that the attainment of a particular outcome completely depends on job performance. An instrumentality of zero indicates no relationship between performance and outcome, and an instrumentality of -1.0 reveals a complete negative relationship between performance and outcomes, as high performance reduces the chance of getting the desired outcome (Kreitner *et al.,* 1999).

3- Valence

Valence refers to the attractiveness of the anticipated outcomes (Yoder and Henneman, 1975). It can range from -1.0 to 1.0, whereas a valence of 1.0 means a very desirable outcome, zero valence is not an attractive outcome, and -1.0 means a very undesirable outcome, such as being fired. Outcomes refer to different anticipated consequences that may result from an individual's performance, such as pay, recognition, fringe benefits, acceptance by others, promotion and fatigue (Pinder, 1998).

According to Vroom, the absence of any of the previous three elements will lead to the absence of an individual's motivation. For instance, if an employee believes that he will not be promoted despite the amount of effort he gives in performing his job, he may reduce his efforts or may not be motivated at all (Smith, 1997).

The Expectancy Theory was modified by the work of Porter and Lawler (1968), who developed an expectancy model of motivation that refined and extended Vroom's work. This model attempted to recognize the source of individual's valences and expectancies and to link an individual's effort with his performance and job satisfaction (Kreitner *et al.,* 1999). This expanded model is illustrated in Figure 2.5 below:
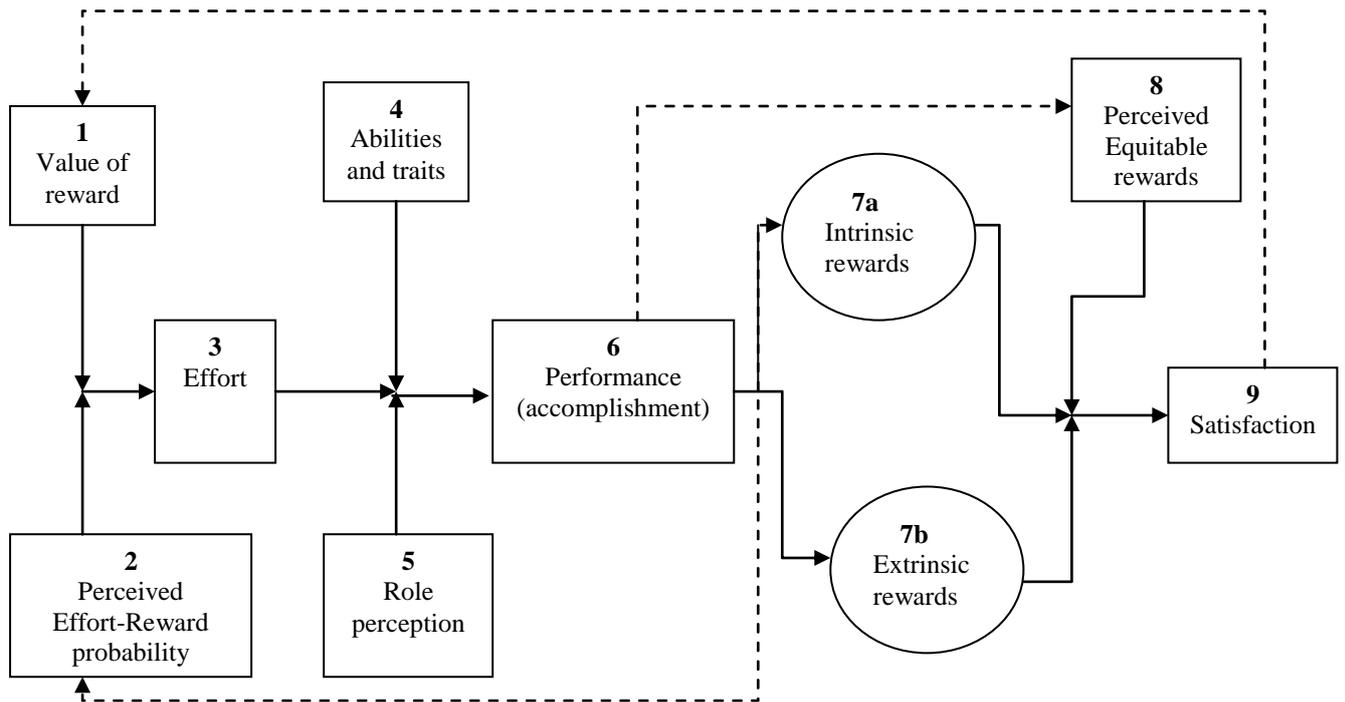

Figure 2.5: Porter and Lawler Expectancy Model

Source: Steers *et al.* (1996: 23)

According to Porter and Lawler (1968), there are two determinants of one's effort. First, the rewards one receives as a result of accomplishing his job, including both extrinsic (tangible) rewards such as pay and fringe benefits, or intrinsic (intangible) rewards such as recognition and a feeling of achievement. As if an individual feels a positive relationship between his efforts and getting the desired rewards, this in turn forms the expectancy and instrumentality elements of Vroom's theory. Second, the received

rewards and the desire of these rewards (the value of these rewards). These two factors are combined together and form the valence element of Vroom's theory (Elding *et al.,* 2006).

Overall, according to Lewis *et al.* (1995), Vroom's Expectancy Theory is a comprehensive theory that helps to forecast or explain task-related effort, and it enable us to understand the differences in an individual's motivation and helps in measuring these differences. Ferris (1977) argued that it can be considered as the most promising conceptualization of an employee's motivation. Vroom's Expectancy Theory was supported by the work of some researchers (Lawler, 1968; Goodman *et al.,* 1970; Pinder, 1984; Kominis and Emmanuel, 2007). Additionally, De-Klerk (2005) reported a moderate-strong empirical support and a strong industrial applicability for the expectancy theory.

Nevertheless, the Expectancy Theory has been criticized for many reasons. Luthans (1995: 157) has criticized the theory by pointing out that *"the expectancy model attempts only to mirror the complex motivational process; it does not attempt to describe how motivational decisions are actually made or to solve actual motivational problems facing a manager"*. Moreover, Huczynski and Buchanan have summarized the main criticism of the expectancy theory on the following grounds, "*First, the theory covers a range of interrelated variables and is complex and difficult to test. Second, the assumption that we make decisions using such a detailed calculus is questionable. Third, the impacts of coercion and job insecurity on performance are overlooked. Finally, the tests of the theory rely on being able to measure and correlate all those variables, using instruments and statistical methods of dubious validity."* (2004: 253)

In summary, each of motivation theories has focused on different dimensions of work motivation. However, it appears that there is no comprehensive theory of work motivation and therefore there is a need for more investigation regarding job satisfaction and motivation phenomenon.

2.7 PERSONAL DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION

Personal determinants are the demographic variables that define the person and participate in building his/her own framework (Steers, 1977). Pelled (1996) pointed out that personal characteristics shape one's perceptions and behavior accordingly; one can not employ just one part of the person as, in order to accomplish a job, the whole person is needed with all his/her personal characteristics. Managerial literature and empirical research are consistent with the previous idea that personal characteristics are associated with an employee's job satisfaction and motivational needs. Therefore, it is very important to shed light on the relationship between demographic variables, employee's job satisfaction and motivational needs. A review of the managerial literature regarding motivation and job satisfaction indicates six personal characteristics relevant to the current study. These are age, gender, occupational level, education, tenure, and training.

2.7.1 AGE

The area regarding the relationship between age and job satisfaction has received considerable research interest. Three shapes of relationship between age and job satisfaction were found, namely 'U-shape', 'linear shape', and 'curve-line' relationship. Herzberg *et al.* (1957) argued that a significant U-shape relationship is found between an employee's age and job satisfaction. Herzberg *et al.* (1957) explained this 'U-shape' relationship by illustrating that, at the start of a new job, an employee's morale is high; it

decreases during the next years and is still at a relatively low level until the employee adjusts his ambitions and work expectations to a more realistic and reasonable level, when satisfaction tends to increase. This 'U-shape' relationship was supported by the work of Kacmar and Ferris (1989) and Clark *et al.* (1996).

On the other hand, Hulin and Smith (1965) tested the 'U-shape' relationship subjected by Herzberg and found no support for that kind of relationship. They argued that the 'linear model' is the best model that can be used to explain the effect of age on job satisfaction. Consistent with their findings, Hunt and Saul (1975) used a sample of 3,338 male and 579 female white collar workers; they found no support for the 'U-shape' model but found support for the 'linear relationship' between age and satisfaction.

Contrary to Herzberg's 'U-shape' and Hulin and Smith's linear relationship, Saleh and Otis (1964) investigated managerial job satisfaction for 60 managers aged 60-65 and 38 managers aged 50-55. They found a positive linear relationship between age and job satisfaction until the pre-retirement years, and then the job satisfaction declined during the pre-retirement years. They explain this 'curve-line' relationship by illustrating that the increase of job satisfaction up to the pre-retirement year attributed to the increased adjustment to life as a natural consequence of getting older. However, the decline in satisfaction during the pre-retirement years was due to the decreasing of self-actualization chances and the increasing of job pressures, as the person in pre-retirement years may be unable to accomplish his assigned tasks with the same efficiency as he used to do before. Luthans and Thomas (1989) supported Saleh and Otis's curvilinear relationship. They found a linear relationship between age and satisfaction until the age of 40, but the level of satisfaction declined after the age of 40. They argued that older

people may feel frustration because their expectations and aspirations become more limited with the increase of age, and they may suffer from increasing work pressure as a result of changing work technology or work load. The following figure identifies the three proposed relationships between job satisfaction and age.

High

Satisfaction

Herzberg

Hulin & Smith

Saleh & Oties

Low   High
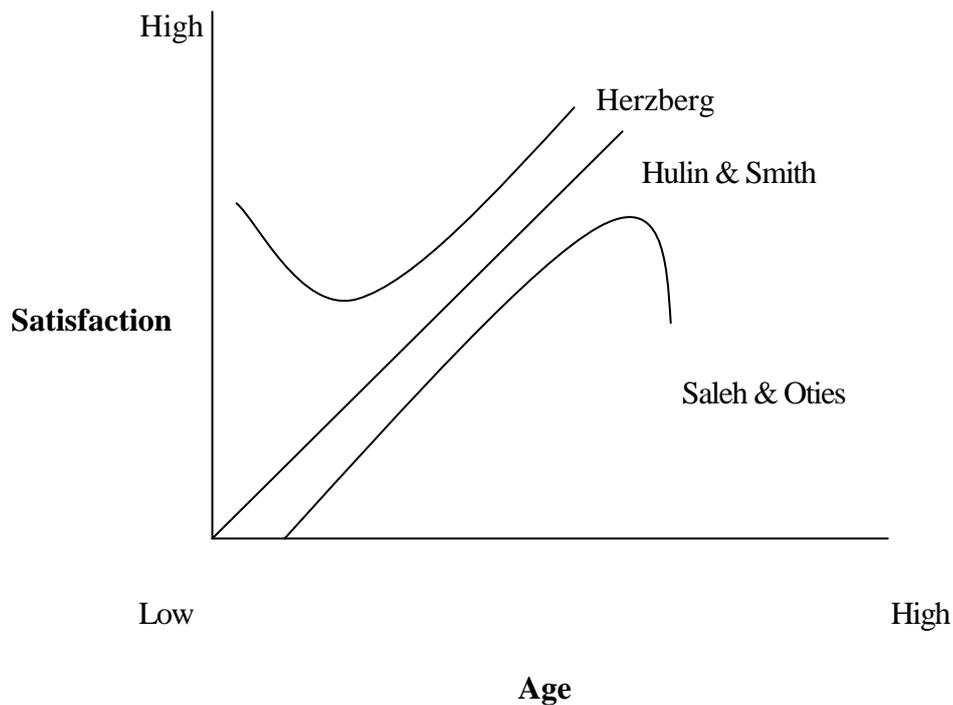
Age

Figure 2.6: The proposed relationships between satisfaction and age

Source: Gibson and Klein (1970: 414)

However, regardless of the shape of the relationship between age and satisfaction, the existence of this relationship appears conclusive (Ang *et al.,* 1993). A great number of managerial studies have shown a significant positive relationship between employee's age and satisfaction, and that older employees are more satisfied with their jobs (Bernberg, 1954; Smith, 1969; Gibson and Klein, 1970; Herman and Hulin, 1972; Glenn *et al.,* 1977; Near *et al.*, 1978; Luthans and Thomas, 1989; Warr, 1992; Oleckno and Biacconiere, 1993; Oshagbemi, 2000; Al-Ajmi, 2001; Eskildsen *et al.,* 2004). The

empirical evidence that can be derived from these studies suggests that older employees have more satisfaction, higher work values, higher moral, lower absenteeism, and lower turnover than younger employees. Glenn *et al.* (1977) suggested an explanation of the positive relationship between age and satisfaction, in that older employees have more income, sound title, occupational prestige, more authority, and more autonomy than younger employees, thus they have more satisfaction.

Another field of research concentrates on the relationship between age and satisfaction with extrinsic and intrinsic work factors. Rhodes (1983) suggested that the intrinsic factors become more determinant of job satisfaction than the extrinsic factors as employees increased in age. Raymond *et al.* (1985) support Rhodes' results and added that younger employees were less satisfied than older employees with different intrinsic factors of the job. In the same context, Lee (1985) investigated the relationship between age and job satisfaction of public employees in the United States. He found that younger employees were less satisfied than older employees, especially with the intrinsic characteristics of their jobs. Another research conducted by Eskildsen *et al.* (2004) found a positive linear relationship between age and both intrinsic and overall job satisfaction. Mottaz (1987) introduced an explanation for the positive relationship between age and satisfaction with intrinsic factors, arguing that whereas younger employees may place more importance on intrinsic factors such as recognition, autonomy, advancement, variety, and a challenging job, older employees place more importance on the extrinsic rewards like pay and other fringe benefits. Therefore, younger employees are less satisfied with intrinsic factors simply because they ask for more than their work can offer them. Another explanation may be the privileges that are associated with the seniority of older employees as they have more power and better jobs, hence more satisfaction with intrinsic factors. Moreover, when an employee stays

in his job for a long time he tends to change his expectations, ambitions, and work values to a sensible level, resulting in higher job satisfaction.

Gender was another determinant for the relationship between age and job satisfaction. Hunt and Saul (1975) found that, for female white collar workers, age was positively related to satisfaction with work itself, negatively related to satisfaction with pay and promotions, and unrelated to satisfaction with supervision and co-workers. For male white collar workers, age was positively related to satisfaction with work itself, negatively related to satisfaction with promotions, and unrelated to satisfaction with pay.

2.7.2 GENDER

Gender differences in motivation and job satisfaction is one of the research areas that has attracted many researchers. However, there is no decisive evidence that men are more satisfied than women or vice versa. The results of the studies in this area are contradictory; some studies found that men are more satisfied (Shapiro and Stern, 1975; Forgionne and Peeters, 1982; Ohlott *et al.*, 1994; Morgan *et al.,* 1995; Cheung and Scherling, 1999; Okpara, 2006), while others found that women are more satisfied (Chusmir, 1985; Oshagbemi, 2000; Scott *et al.*, 2005). The third group found mixed results (McNeely, 1984; Garcia-Bernal *et al.*, 2005; Okpara *et al.*, 2005), while others found no relationship between gender and satisfaction (Loscocco, 1990; Mason, 1995; Phillips and Imhoff, 1997; Johnson *et al.*, 1999; Pors, 2003).

In his attempt to examine the effect of gender on managers' satisfaction, Okpara (2006) investigated a sample of 185 female and 327 male bank managers from different banks in Nigeria. He examined the gender effect on satisfaction with promotion and pay, and

how these differences affect managers' overall job satisfaction. He indicated that male managers were more satisfied with their salary, company and promotion policies, and overall job satisfaction than their female counterparts. Forgionne and Peeters (1982) had confirmed this finding in their study of 450 managers from different industries in the USA, and found that first-level male managers express greater overall satisfaction than female managers. However, this difference does not exist in higher managerial levels; moreover, there was no significant difference between the two genders regarding the factors that contribute to their motivation. Ohlott *et al.* (1994) argued that women managers are less satisfied than male managers because they usually face obstacles and receive less support compared to their men counterparts, therefore they feel less satisfaction. Morgan *et al.* (1995), in their study of 1,327 UK managers, found significant differences in job satisfaction between male and female managers, and that male managers were significantly more satisfied than female managers.

In contrast with the previous findings, Chusmir (1985) argued that female managers are more satisfied than male managers. In his study of 124 managers (62 male and 62 female), he found that women managers have higher needs for achievement and power than male managers. However, he did not find any significant differences regarding the need for affiliation between the two genders. He explained his unusual results by illustrating that, because management is considered a more common and proper career for men, they don't need to be as highly motivated as women. Additionally, women with their traditional role of wife and mother may have more role conflicts to overcome, therefore their need for achievement is higher than men. He also explained that women's higher needs for power are due to the fact that the management opportunities for women have increased in the last few decades, therefore it would not be surprising if

their needs for power also increased. These results were confirmed by the work of Scott *et al.* (2005), who found that females were more satisfied with growth opportunities, job security, and with pay than their male counterparts. In this regard, Clark (1997) gave an explanation why women are more satisfied at work. He argued that because satisfaction is mainly dependent on one's expectations, women are usually more satisfied because they have low expectations about work outcomes compared to their male counterparts, thus their expectations can easily be fulfilled.

Other researchers found mixed results, arguing that men and women focus on different factors in their work. For example, Manning (2002) examined the gender differences in managers' satisfaction and found some items in which women managers scored significantly higher satisfaction than men and visa versa. Female managers scored higher satisfaction with opportunities for learning, opportunities for advancement, salary and benefits received. On the other hand, male managers scored high satisfaction in the job security, job recognition, relationships with peers, cooperation with peers and opportunities for challenge. Moreover, they scored equal satisfaction with job variety. Consistent with the previous finding, Garcia-Bernal *et al.* (2005) indicated that, while the interpersonal relations had a greater impact on job satisfaction for men, it did not have any significant impact on determining the job satisfaction of women. Conversely, while work conditions had a greater impact on job satisfaction for women, it did not have any significant impact on determining the job satisfaction of men.

Contrary to all previous opinions, some studies did not find any significant relationship between gender and satisfaction. For example, Tellingly and Mason (1995) cited in (Manning, 2002) pointed out a few significant differences between male and female

managers who occupy the same managerial level regarding their job satisfaction. Pors (2003) confirmed the previous study, as he did not find any difference in satisfaction level between male and female managers, both in the UK or in Denmark. In the same context, Johnson *et al.* (1999), in their survey of 500 male and 500 female managers, found that there was no significant difference in job satisfaction between the women and men surveyed. Mason (1995) also did not find any differences in overall satisfaction between male and female managers. Weaver (1978) compared the job satisfaction of males and females and found that both genders got the same amount of satisfaction from prestige, income, autonomy and education. McNeely (1984) investigated the job satisfaction level of 160 male and female managers from four occupational groups, and found no significant differences between male and female administrative managers on either overall satisfaction or intrinsic satisfaction.

2.7.3 OCCUPATIONAL LEVEL

One of the most important issues in work motivation and satisfaction level is the differences between different occupational levels in organizations. Robie *et al.* (1998) argued that determining the nature of the relation between occupational level and job satisfaction is important to both researchers and practitioners. For example, a researcher needs to know the effect of the occupational level when designing his study and when explaining his results; moreover, practitioners need to understand the effect of occupational level when designing the company rewarding schemes, as neglecting this relationship can be a possible contaminant of the validity of any job satisfaction and motivation study.

In this regard, most researchers have found a positive relationship between the occupational level within an organizational hierarchy and job satisfaction (Super, 1939; Porter, 1963; Near *et al.,* 1978; Miles *et al.,* 1996; Oshagbemi, 1997; Robie *et al.*, 1998; Al-Ajmi, 2001; Manning, 2002). This may be explained by the possibility that higher level employees have higher growth opportunities, more involvement in decision making, more control and autonomy, more responsibilities, less routine work, better work conditions, more pay and fringe benefits, and more challenging and varied jobs which may increase their job satisfaction levels (Howard and Frink, 1996; Robie *et al.*, 1998; Voss *et al.,* 2001).

Porter (1961), in his study of 64 bottom-management and 75 middle-management individuals in three organizations, revealed that middle managers were significantly more satisfied with their esteem, security, and autonomy needs than bottom managers. However, he found no differences in motivational needs for both levels, as both managerial levels consider self-actualization and security are more important than social, esteem and autonomy needs. Another study by Porter (1963) found that the vertical location of management is an important determinant of the extent that managers can satisfy their psychological needs. He argued that top managers are more satisfied with their psychological needs than lower level managers. Porter reasons that higher positions offer more status, pay, ego, control, and self-direction than those of lower position, hence satisfaction increases. Consistent with Porter's findings, Ivancevich (1969) in his study of 78 top and 49 middle American managers found that top managers were more satisfied than middle managers in eleven of the twelve studied factors. He also found that top managers were significantly satisfied with their prestige and involvement in goal setting than middle managers, and that they generally have

more autonomy and challenging jobs which enable them to satisfy their growth needs. In a similar study, Manning (2002) revealed that top managers had significantly higher satisfaction with job security and with co-worker cooperation than middle managers.

Another study was conducted by Locke and Whiting (1974) of five occupational levels ranging from unskilled employees to managerial level. It was confirmed that job satisfaction increases when occupational level increase. Consistent with the previous results, King *et al*. (1982) have used a national sample of 3288 Canadian employees from different occupational levels, and found that, among all job characteristics, the occupational level has the strongest influence on employees' job satisfaction, and that managers and professionals were the most satisfied category with all job aspects. More recently, Al-Ajmi (2001), in his study of 153 full-time Kuwaiti managers from three different oil companies, found that top managers were more satisfied in all need categories than other managerial levels.

2.7.4 EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

Another important personal variable is the educational level which may work as a predictor of job satisfaction. Arvey *et al.* (1991) argued that education has two different effects on job satisfaction; it may increase both the extrinsic and intrinsic rewards, but it may also reduce satisfaction by raising one's expectations to the extent that it may be hard for the organization to satisfy it. Researchers have mixed results regarding the relationship between education and job satisfaction. Some studies found that employees who have a higher educational level tend to be more satisfied than employees who have a lower educational level (Goodwin, 1969; Falcone, 1991; Clark *et al.*, 1996; Howard

and Frink, 1996; Bilgic, 1998; Robie *et al.*, 1998; Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza, 2000; Eskildsen *et al.*, 2004).

Howard and Frink (1996) argued that it is expected that people with a higher level of education will have more growth opportunities than those who have less education, which may positively influence their job satisfaction. In the same context, in his investigation of the relationship between education and job satisfaction, Falcone (1991) found that more educated managers expressed more job satisfaction than less educated managers in both public and private sectors. Consistent with Falcone's results, Al-Ajmi (2001), in his study of 153 full-time Kuwaiti managers from three different oil companies, revealed that managers with a post-graduate degree were more satisfied with their pay and overall job satisfaction than those with a high school diploma. In the same research context, Kuntz *et al.* (1990) conducted a study of 191 managers in the United States and found a significant positive relationship between managers' educational and their job satisfaction. Goodwin (1969) supports the previous finding, as he found that educational level is positively related to job satisfaction as less-educated employees showed less satisfaction than their more-educated counterparts. Bilgic (1998) conducted a study of 249 full-time public and private sector employees from various work places in Turkey. The results illustrated that less educated employees have more complaints about work related issues than their more educated counterparts. Moreover, the more educated employees showed more concern about the quality of their performance in their jobs.

Some other researchers argued that more educated employees tend to be more interested in intrinsic aspects than with the extrinsic aspects of their jobs. This notion was

supported by the study of Taylor and Thompson (1976) who found that education was a significant determinant of satisfaction with intrinsic factors. They argued that, when the employee's education level increased, the importance of the intrinsic factors increased and the importance of money declined. The positive relation between education and the importance of the intrinsic factors was also supported by the study of Eskildsen *et al.* (2004), who revealed that employees with a high education reported higher levels of interest with intrinsic work motivation than those with less education.

Contrary to the previous viewpoint, it has also been reported that when the educational level increases, job satisfaction decreases as a result (Sulkin and Pranis, 1967; Glenn and Weaver, 1982; Rhodes, 1983; Kuntz *et al.*, 1990; Ghiselli *et al.*, 2001; Ganzach, 2003). In the same context, Kuntz *et al.* (1990) reported a significant negative relationship between managers' educational level and their job satisfaction. Ganzach (2003) has agreed with this viewpoint as he found a negative relationship between education level and both overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with intrinsic factors. More precisely, Glenn and Weaver (1982) illustrated that education was negatively related to satisfaction with pay. Rhodes (1983) explained this negative relationship between education and job satisfaction by illustrating that education tends to raise one's expectations and makes people desire more variety and less routine in their work. Accordingly, with the absence of suitable rewards, it is hard to satisfy those people with high expectations and work standards.

However, some researches did not find any significant relationship between education and job satisfaction. Howard and Frink (1996) investigated the effect of educational level on intrinsic work motivation and did not find any significant relationship between the two variables. Additionally, Scott *et al.* (2005) revealed a negligible relationship

between education and overall job satisfaction and a very low relationship between over-education and satisfaction with pay.

It is clear from the previous discussion that the relationship between educational level and job satisfaction is not globally uniform and there is a need for further research in order to provide a deeper understanding of the nature of this relationship, especially between managers.

2.7.5 TRAINING

Generally, there is a lack of research into the relationship between training and job satisfaction. Indeed, most studies have concentrated on employees' education rather than employees' training. This was confirmed by Gazioglu and Tansel (2006: 1169) as they pointed out that "*The effect of training opportunities on job satisfaction was not examined in the earlier literature.*". However, an agreement between researchers was found regarding the positive relationship between training and job satisfaction.

Wright and Davis (2003) pointed out that training has a positive effect on any organization, as the lack of training can be a major reason for frustration and decreasing job satisfaction, while adequate training can increase efficiency and job satisfaction. Consistent with this viewpoint is the work of Price and Mueller (1986) regarding the factors that affect employees' turnover, as they illustrated that training increases job satisfaction and reduces turnover as a result. In this regard, Ellickson and Logsdon (2001) illustrated that training can be an important predictor of employee behavior,

motivation and performance. Askar (2005) investigated the effect of training on work motivation of Saudi middle managers and argued that administrative training has a positive effect on managers' job satisfaction. He found that highly trained managers were more satisfied with overall job satisfaction than those with less training. He explained his results by pointing out that higher training means higher efficiency, better recognition, and better chances of promotion, which will meet their needs for growth and achievement and positively affect their job satisfaction.

In his study of 67 middle managers within the petroleum companies in Oman, Al-Qutaib (2007) pointed out that managerial training was one of the factors that had a significant impact on middle managers' job satisfaction. He found that the job satisfaction of middle managers who have adequate managerial training was significantly higher than those with inadequate managerial training. His explanation was that middle managers have to deal with managerial duties which are different from technical duties, and that the formal technical training may be insufficient for dealing with these administrative duties. Therefore, managerial training helps to increase their confidence in dealing with managerial matters which, in turn, leads to a higher sense of satisfaction.

This positive relationship was confirmed by Gazioglu and Tansel (2006) in their analysis of a national survey of 28,240 British employees which involved interviews with employees and managers in over 3000 establishments during 1997. Gazioglu and Tansel used four measures of job satisfaction including satisfaction with influence over job, pay, achievement and respect from supervisors. The results indicated a significant and positive relationship between employees' training, and overall satisfaction.

A more comprehensive study was conducted by Jones *et al.* (2009) who used a British 2004 Workplace Employee Relations Survey (WERS), which included the data of different occupational levels from almost all industry sectors in Britain. Jones *et al.* examined the relationship between employees' training and their job satisfaction. The results suggest that, when the training increases, satisfaction with both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards increases. They agued that training improves job security and pay, and also improves work autonomy and a sense of achievement. They also pointed out that training interacts with employees' gender and has a greater impact on men than women, as training has a positive impact on satisfaction within all job dimensions for men, but it does not affect or improve the level of satisfaction with any job dimensions for women. They also examined the interaction between training and employee's age. They revealed that the interaction between training and age only exists in the thirties but not in younger workers. Finally, when investigating the interaction between training and education, the results indicated that training has a higher interaction with those individuals with the highest qualifications, as increasing training for this category has a positive impact on their overall satisfaction.

2.7.6 YEARS OF EXPERINCE

Some managerial studies suggest that length of service is a determinant of employees' job satisfaction and, as might be expected, it has the same effect of age on job satisfaction (Porter and Steers, 1973; Prien *et al.*, 2004). The importance of this factor lies in the fact that it has an effect on promotion, retention and selection decisions which are normally related to an individual's job satisfaction (Abraham and Medoff, 1985; Mills, 1985).

Herzberg *et al.* (1957) argued that, like age, length of service has a U-shape relationship with job satisfaction. Consistent with this thinking, Ronen (1978) has confirmed that job satisfaction changes with a U-shape with length of service. In the same context, Morgan *et al.* (1995) found a U-shape relationship between managers' years of service and their overall job satisfaction.

Hulin and Smith (1965) found no support for the U-shape relationship, and suggested a linear function to explain the effect of tenure on job satisfaction. However, they found job tenure to be a predictor of job satisfaction for men, but not for women. Consistent with this finding, Oshagbemi (2000) argued that length of service increases job satisfaction by increasing the promotion chances that positively relate to job satisfaction. Near, *et al.* (1978) also supported this view in that length of service was one of the job satisfaction determinants and positively related with it.

Gibson and Klein, however, revealed a negative relationship between the two variables. They argued that when an employee's length of service increases, his job satisfaction decreases (a linear negative relationship between length of service and satisfaction). They explained this negative relationship by illustrating that, *"three explanations were offered for the negative relationship between tenure and satisfaction: (a) disconfirmed expectations of relatively hopeful, naive new employees occurs, (b) acculturation into a we-they value system occurs, and (c) perceptions of favoritism occur as other people in the system are promoted."* (1970: 425).

However, other researchers did not find any sign of a significant relationship. For example, Prien *et al.* (2004), in their investigation of the relationship between length of service and job satisfaction of 1,800 employees in one garment company, did not find any significant relationship between the two variables. In the same context, Nicholson and Miljus (1972) did not find any relationship between length of service and job satisfaction. Similarly, Brockner and Kim (1993) investigated the factors that influence job satisfaction and turnover intention, and found that length of service was not one of the factors that influence either job satisfaction or turnover.

2.8 JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL CONSEQUENCES

Employees' job satisfaction has a significant impact on organizations. Performance, absenteeism, and turnover are some potential consequences of job satisfaction. These consequences have been widely discussed through the managerial literature over the last decades. In the following section, the researcher will discuss the managerial literature contribution in this field.

2.8.1 JOB SATISFACTION AND PERFORMANCE

One of the most important research areas in job satisfaction is the relationship between job satisfaction and employees' performance. Landy (1989) and Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) describe this relationship as the 'Holy Grail' of industrial psychologists. According to Muchinsky (1993), the relationship between job satisfaction and performance has attracted the attention of researchers because organizations want to have satisfied and highly productive employees. The Hawthorne's studies and the human relations movement, and their efforts to link employee attitudes and job performance, can be considered as the roots of this relationship (Petty *et al.,* 1984). According to

Hawthorn's studies, employees' satisfaction is the main determinant of their productivity as they are convinced that happy workers are productive workers. In this context, Vroom (1964) declared that most researchers who were associated with the 'Human Relations Model' assumed a positive relationship between job satisfaction and job performance.

Although there is a unanimous agreement between researchers about the existence of this bond between satisfaction and performance, they differ in describing the direction of this relation. By and large, researchers suggested two different directions of such relationship. The first direction is that job satisfaction is the determinant of job performance (job satisfaction-job performance), while the second direction argued that job performance is the determinant of job satisfaction (job performance-job satisfaction) (Landy, 1971; Petty *et al.,* 1984; Spector, 1997). The satisfaction-performance direction was confirmed by several researches (Herzberg, 1966; Lichtman, 1970; Greene, 1972; Greene, 1973; Sheridan and Slocum, 1975; Gruneberg, 1976; Jacobs and Solomon, 1977; Gould, 1979; Schriesheim, 1980; Norris and Niebuhr, 1984; Schofield, 1998).

For example, in his study of white collar workers Herzberg (1966) argued that job satisfaction is the determinant of job performance, and that the employees' past experience of job satisfaction causes their present job performance. He went on to say that the effect of motivators (intrinsic factors) on employees' satisfaction will lead to an enhancement of their job performance. Along with Herzberg, Greene (1973) in his study of 62 managers argued that satisfaction can affect managers' performance. In the same context, Gruneberg (1976) illustrated that satisfaction has a positive effect and can affect and improve employees' job performance. Furthermore, Petty *et al.* (1984), in their meta-

analysis of the relationships between job satisfaction and performance, reported that individual job satisfaction and job performance are positively correlated. Norris and Niebuhr (1984) have evaluated the relationship between satisfaction and performance of 116 employees from a medium-sized industrial company; they measured the effect of five components of job satisfaction (work, supervision, pay, promotion, and co-workers) on job performance and reported a significant positive relationship between both satisfaction with pay and promotion and employees' performance. More recently, Schofield (1998) illustrated that management practices are normally associated with employees' performance and organizations can improve performance by increasing employees' satisfaction. Consistent with the previous findings, Slocum (1971) in his study of measuring job satisfaction and performance of three managerial levels (first-line supervisors, middle managers, and top managers) revealed that higher order needs of autonomy and self-actualization have a higher positive effect for both first-line supervisors and middle-top level managers' performance than the lower order needs. However, esteem needs did not have such an effect on performance. Moreover, he added that higher order needs influenced middle and top managers' performance than first-line supervisors' performance.

On the other hand, Judge *et al.* (2001: 378) argued that *"Another form of the relationship between satisfaction and performance was suggested by the Expectancy-based theories of motivation, as they generally stipulate that satisfaction follows performance.".* Lawler and Porter (1967, 1968) in their study of middle and lower managers' behavior have offered an explanation for this form of relationship. They argued that 'rewards' works as an intermediate variable that lie between satisfaction and performance, and that satisfaction is determined by getting the desired outcomes. They

assumed that good performance will lead to more rewards which, in turn, will increase job satisfaction. Moreover, they indicated that intrinsic rewards have a direct positive influence on employees' performance than the extrinsic rewards, which have a weak influence on employees' performance. This explanation of the relationship between performance and satisfaction through rewards was confirmed by Daft and Noe (2001) as they added that, if individuals believe that they will be appropriately rewarded if they change their behavior, they will be motivated to enhance their performance and consequently their satisfaction. Locke (1970) and Cherrington *et al.*, (1971) shared the same viewpoint, that satisfaction occurs only when performance is suitably rewarded.

2.8.2 JOB SATISFACTION AND TURNOVER

Employees' turnover, especially for managerial members, is a serious problem to any organization, as it wastes its valuable human capital as well as its monetary resources. Therefore, it has been of interest to both management and researchers. Gaertner and Nollen (1992: 447) defined turnover as *"a behavioral intention resulting from the miss-match between employee's perceptions and preferences and their company's characteristics."*. Many models have been established to explain the turnover process and what causes job turnover. Rusbult and Farrell (1993) argued that the intention to leave is a result of comparing rewards and the costs related to their current job, and an evaluation of one's material and psychological investments with the return of an alternative employment chance. In most cases, the decision to leave most often begins with dissatisfaction, as Futrell and Parasuraman (1984: 42) argued that *"The withdrawal decision is based upon cognitive and behavioral phenomena occurring between the evaluation of the individual's job and his/her withdrawal behavior…. It begins with job dissatisfaction, and is followed by such steps as the individual thinking of quitting,*

intention to search for a new job, evaluation of job alternatives, intention to quit or stay, and finally the withdrawal decision.". In this regard, Porter and Steers (1973) pointed out that the majority of the studies that have been published between 1955 and 1972 show a negative correlation between job satisfaction and turnover.

Researchers argued that a dissatisfied employee is more likely to leave his/her job than the satisfied one, but the relation between the two variables is generally low (Hulin, 1968; Waters and Roach, 1971; Porter and Steers, 1973; Newman, 1974; Gruneberg, 1979; Arnold and Feldman, 1982; Futrell and Parasuraman, 1984; Hollenbeck and Williams, 1986; Carsten and Spector, 1987; Spcctor, 1997). However, Mitchel (1981) recognized a moderately strong relationship between managers' job satisfaction and their turnover intention and that dissatisfied managers may have a high intention to quit their jobs and vice versa. These results were confirmed by another meta-analysis study conducted by Steel and Ovalle (1984), as they recognized a moderately strong relationship between overall job satisfaction and the intention of turnover.

In addition, some researchers have focused on the effect of intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction on employees' turnover. Maimon and Ronen (1978) argued that intrinsic factors have more influence on turnover decisions than extrinsic factors. Ross and Zander (1957) agreed with this viewpoint and added that it is possible for an employee to take the leave decision if he is not satisfied with the amount of recognition he receives, achievement he experiences, or autonomy he practises in his job. However, other researchers argued that some extrinsic factors have an equal effect to those of intrinsic factors in affecting turnover decision (Friedlander and Walton, 1964; Hulin,

1968; Porter and Steers, 1973; Koch and Steers, 1978; Koch and Rhodes, 1981; Jackofsky and Peter, 1983; Fleishman, 1998).

Yet, no one can claim that dissatisfaction is the only variable that can affect turnover (Luthans, 1995), as some satisfied workers my leave the organization if they have a better job opportunity somewhere else. Additionally, Armknecht and Early (1972) and Lawler (2005) argued that the economic conditions have a great influence on turnover intention, as the rates of turnover are affected by the economy cycles; it decreases in times of economic hardship when job opportunities are limited and it rises in times of economic prosperity when job opportunities are abundant. Moreover, the personal factors (including sex, length of service, and career stages) may affect the turnover decision (Williams *et al.,* 1977; Cotton and Tuttle, 1986; Slocum and Cron, 1988).

2.8.3 JOB SATISFACTION AND ABSENTEEISM

Absenteeism like a huge mountain under the water, and the part that appears above the water is just a very small part of the problem. Voluntary absenteeism can be a major dilemma for any organization, as it has various kinds of costs. The first cost is the work days lost as a result of this kind of unscheduled absence. For example, Yolles *et al.* (1975, cited in Steers and Rhodes, 1978) argued that in the United States, four hundred million work days were lost as a result of voluntary absenteeism with 5.1 days lost per employee. There are also the cost of searching for other employees as substitutes, the cost of modifying work plans and schedules, and the cost of low morale among other workers (Chadwick, 1981).

Accordingly, over the past decades, many attempts have been made to discover ways to decrease absenteeism by finding out the possible reasons behind this negative phenomenon. One of the most important reasons of absenteeism is job dissatisfaction; this viewpoint can be attributable to the Human Relations Model's prescription that a happy worker will attend work more regularly without unnecessary absenteeism (Nicholson *et al.*, 1976). On practice, studies on the relationship between voluntary absenteeism and job satisfaction seem to be contradictory. Some researches indicate a strong to weak relationship, others found no relationship between these two variables. For example, Vroom (1964) found a link between job satisfaction and absenteeism, arguing that job satisfaction and voluntary absenteeism are strongly related. Consistent with Vroom's opinion, Hrebiniak and Roteman (1973), in their study of the relationship between satisfaction and absenteeism of 40 managers from four different hierarchical levels in one organization, argued that, regardless of the position within the hierarchical, there was a significant positive relationship between absenteeism and dissatisfaction with security, esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization needs. However, they found that absenteeism decreases when the managerial level increases.

In another study that compared sick time usage by management and professional employees in the public sector, Garcia (1987) confirmed the previous findings that job satisfaction is negatively related to absenteeism, and illustrated that, because managers were more satisfied than professionals, they used significantly less sick time than professionals. Moreover, most managers reported a zero absence compared to professionals (Garcia, 1987). Consistent with the previous findings, some researchers support the notion that absenteeism decreases when job level increases, due to the fact that higher level jobs have better working conditions, autonomy, responsibilities, and

pay than the lower-levels (Waters and Roach, 1971-1973; Steel and Warner, 1990; Voss *et al.*, 2001).

 McShane (1984) reviewed 24 studies that supported the negative relationship between satisfaction and absenteeism, and found a strong negative relationship between overall job satisfaction and employees' absenteeism; moreover he found that dissatisfaction with supervision, pay, and co-workers led to higher rates of absenteeism. However, he found that dissatisfaction with promotions was the only dimension that had no effect on absenteeism. Similar to the previous study, Waters and Roach (1971) found that absenteeism was negatively related to overall job satisfaction, and satisfaction with work itself and co-workers. However, he did not find any significant relationships between absenteeism and satisfaction with pay, promotions, or supervision. Consistent with Waters and Roach's findings, Newman (1974) reported significant negative correlations between absenteeism and satisfaction with work and with overall job satisfaction. But no significant relationships between absenteeism and satisfaction with pay, promotions, and supervision were found.

On the other hand, some other researches found a weak relationship between satisfaction and absenteeism and that less than five per cent of the variance in absenteeism was explained by job satisfaction (Kilbridge, 1961; Hackett and Guion, 1985; Scott and Taylor, 1985). However, some studies did not find any kind of relationships between absenteeism and job satisfaction (Harding and Bottenberg, 1961; Nicholson *et al.,* 1976; Clegg, 1983).

2.9 ISLAM AND MOTIVATION

The word 'Islam' has different meanings, as Abuznaid illustrated that "*Islam is an Arabic word connoting submission, surrender, and obedience. As a religion, Islam stands for complete submission and obedience to Allah, and that is why it is called Islam. Another literal meaning of the word Islam is peace, and this signifies that one can achieve real peace of body and mind only through submission and obedience to Allah.*" (2006: 127). There is no doubt that Islam as a religion has a direct impact on Muslim managers' behavior; for them, it is not just a religion but a way of life, as all activities and desires of Muslims are guided by Islamic rules and concepts (Yousef, 2001). Norman and Walpole (1971: 106) confirmed this by pointing out that *"Islam gives man a total explanation of his existence and propounds a moral system which is not so much a set of general principles as a series of practical obligations and prohibitions. Members of the Islamic community do not separate the spiritual from the temporal; everything in society is believed to partake of the religious essence, and all elements of the society are part of the collectivity of Islam."*. Consistent with this viewpoint, Yousef (2001) in his study of 425 employees in United Arab Emirates found that Islamic work ethics have a direct effect on both employees' job commitment and job satisfaction. Therefore, it is important to shed light on Islamic concepts and ethics and their relationship with motivation and job satisfaction in the Egyptian context.

2.9.1 ISLAM IN EGYPT

The Egyptian society is considered one of the most religious on earth. The Greek historian Herodotus, 500 BC, described the Egyptians as the happiest and most religious people in the world.[1] Many recent studies confirmed this point of view. For example,

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[1] Tehuti Research Foundation: http://www.egypt-tehuti.org/religion.html, access date (15/9/2008).

the Ghalloup Institution (an American institution for Strategic Studies) conducted a study in 20 countries with samples of 1000 adults from each country between 2006 and 2008, to measure the influence of religion on people's lives. The study found that 100% of the Egyptian sample confirmed the importance of religion as an integrated part of their daily lives. Another study performed by the Centre of Information and Support Center of the Egyptian Cabinet confirmed that 89% of Egyptians linked happiness in their lives to their religion.[1] These findings were expected as the relation between Egyptians and their religion was deeply rooted in history. The interest of ancient Egyptians in religion and faith is found in the engravings and drawings on temple walls, as they recognized the importance of the relationship with Gods and were familiar with monotheism as a result of the reign of Akhenaton, when all Egyptian Gods were unified in one God. Nowadays, Islam is the main religion in Egypt as 93% (about 78 million) of Egyptians are Muslims. It became widespread in Egypt after its basic pillars had been fully acknowledged in the period of Caliph Omar Ben Al-Khattab.

2.9.2 ORGANIZATIONAL VALUES IN ISLAM

Individual behavior is largely affected and controlled by the values and principles of their religion as, the more adhesion to religious rules, the more firm an individual is against any changes in life or work. Organizational values in Islam are the values which enable an individual to differentiate between what is allowed and what is prohibited, what is good and what is bad within an organization. Most Islamic values can be adopted by any organization and can lead to improve employees' job satisfaction and motivation. These values can be summarised as follows:

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[1] Al-Ahram journal, Egypt (30/01/2009).

2.9.2.1 The Value of Work

Islam emphasizes the importance of work, as according to the Islamic ethics *"work is considered to be a source of independence and a means of fostering personal growth, self-respect, satisfaction and self-fulfillment…Islamic work ethic argues that life without work has no meaning and engagement in economic activities is an obligation."* (Yousef, 2001: 153). In this regard, the Prophet (peace be upon him) said *"No one eats better food than that which he eats out of his work."* (Al-Albani, 1996: 121). It is also cited in the Holy Koran that, *"Work, so God will see your work and his messenger and the believers."* (Part 11, Chapter At-Taubah, Verse 105).

2.9.2.2 Sincerity and Loyalty

Sincerity means to purify one's heart from any kind of abstract impurities that may lead one's self to unnatural attitudes. Sincerity and loyalty are very important for any organization. It was proved that a sincere employee is a good one and can contribute to an organization's success. Moreover, there is a relation between sincerity and productivity. There is also a relation between loyalty and employees' commitment, as the loyal employee can exert a great effort to achieve organizational goals (Fred, 1985: 217-218).

2.9.2.3 Mildness

Mildness can be represented in giving the employees tasks that suit their abilities, since giving difficult tasks that exceed employees' abilities can put them under pressure and negatively affect their satisfaction and performances, as it was cited in the Holy Koran that *"Allah does not impose upon any soul a duty but to the extent of its ability."* (Part 3, Chapter Al-Baqarah, Verse 286). Moreover, Islam saves the individual freedom to

choose a certain work type. As the Prophet (peace be upon him) said: *"Each individual is facilitated to perform a certain type of work for which he [or she] was created for."* (Al-Albani, 1996: 898). So, the degree of agreement between an individual and a job is a very important variable for job satisfaction.

2.9.2.4 Honesty

According to the Islamic teachings, a job should be done diligently for it to be fruitful. Supervisors and subordinates should be honest, as the Prophet (peace be upon him) said *"Whoever is not honest, is not faithful."* (Al-Albani, 1996: 822). He also said *"Allah likes that when a man does a certain task he does it well."* (Al-Albani, 1996: 116). Moreover, an employee should be honest towards all utilities and facilities provided to him; work facilities and utilities should be used only for a job's sake. Omar Ibn Abdul Aziz (a Muslim ruler and caliph) happened to discuss some personal, not official, issues while being in his office, and he turned off the light for not exploiting it for a personal use.

2.9.2.5 Obedience and Respect

According to Islam, the relation between organizational members is based on mutual respect and trustfulness. The Prophet (peace be upon him) said *"He is not one of us [i.e. not a Muslim] who does not respect the elderly, or is not merciful towards the young or does not appreciate the scholars."* (Al-Albani, 1996: 230). He also said *"you must obey your ruler."* (Al-Albani, 1996: 13). Accordingly, Muslims must respect their leaders even though they may not like them.

2.9.2.6 Teamwork

Islam also urges its followers to cooperate and work in teams. It also associates working in teams with high rewards. Islamic teachings order Muslims to work in unity and keep away from dissension as the Prophet (peace be upon him) said: *"The blessings with group."* (Al-Albani, 1996: 228), and it was cited in Koran that *"And hold fast by the covenant of Allah all together and be not disunited, and remember the favor of Allah on you when you were enemies, then He united your hearts so by His favor you became brethren."* (Part 4, Chapter Al-Imran, Verse 103).

2.9.2.7 Autonomy and Delegation of Authority

The Islamic religion encourages the individual's autonomy. The Prophet (peace be upon him) sent Moaz Ibn Jabal to Yemen as ruler and before this the Prophet asked Moaz *"Oh Moaz on what basis should you judge? 'According to the book of God (the Holy Koran)', replied Moaz. The Prophet peace be upon him asked him again, 'If you do not find the answer in the Koran'. 'I shall search in the Sunnah (the Prophet's teachings)' replied Moaz. The Prophet peace be upon him asked him once more, 'If you do not find the answer in the Sunnah'. 'I shall strive and think diligently using all what I was taught to reach a correct opinion', Moaz answered."* (Al-Albani, 1996: 354). Another example can be derived from Amr Ibn Al-Ass, the ruler of Egypt, under supervision of the Caliph Omar Ibn Al-Khattab as he kept a part of the Egyptian taxes and did not send the entire value to the Caliph. When Amr was asked about that he said, that *"one third of the entire value was used for establishing the bridges and waster streams in Egypt."*. However, delegation of authority in Islam does not mean to completely rout from centralisation to decentralisation. Some decisions should be taken on a centralised basis and others should be taken on a decentralised basis according to the circumstances.

2.9.2.8 Consultation

Consultation is one of the main Islamic principles. Yousef (2001: 153) illustrated that, *"The Islamic work ethic emphasizes cooperation in work, and consultation is seen as a way of overcoming obstacles and avoiding mistakes.".* God describes the Muslims who will enter paradise with some characteristics; one of these characteristics is the consultation, as he said *"And those who respond to their Lord and keep up prayer, **and their rule is to take counsel among themselves**, and who spend out of what We have given them."* (Part 25, Chapter Ash-Shura, Verse 38). Moreover, God ordered his prophet Mohammed to consult his companions regarding all daily life matters, as God said *"thus it is due to mercy from Allah that you deal with them gently, and had you been rough, hard hearted, they would certainly have dispersed from around you; pardon them therefore and ask pardon for them, **and take counsel with them in the affair**; so when you have decided, then place your trust in Allah; surely Allah loves those who trust."* (Part 4, Chapter Al-Imran, Verse 159). Consistent with the consultation principle, the Arab proverb says *'One who consults others will never be disappointed.'* Therefore, Islam encourages consultation to improve the quality of decisions and to make employees feel that they are an important element in their organization and thus satisfy their needs for recognition and self actualization.

2.9.2.9 Good Leadership

The characteristics of a good leader can be summarized from the following description, as stated by Moawia Ibn Abu Sofian (a Muslim ruler and caliph) *"Good leader must be aware of his people, just in his judging, free of arrogance, accepting apologies, easy to be reached, can not be attacked, seeking correctness, easy with the weak, unbiased to the relatives, and welcoming the strangers."*(Al-Albani, 1996: 541). The leader must be

accepted by his subordinates, as the Prophet (peace be upon him) said *"Whoever leads the people [in the Salah] while they are rejecting him, his Salah (worship) will be rejected (by God)."* (Al-Albani, 1996: 97). Moreover, the Prophet (peace be upon him) refused to give power to some of his companions because they were not suitable for such position. The Prophet addressed Abu Zhar (one of the Prophet's closer companions) regarding taking the power by saying: *"Oh Abu Zhar, you are a kind-hearted person and it (taking the power) is a burden (during life time) and on the Day of Judgment it will be a cause of bewailing except for who performs its rights."* (Al-Albani, 1996: 80). In the same track, the Prophet (peace be upon him) said: *"You [the people] are keen to come to power, but on the Day of Judgment it will be a cause of bewailing.*" (Al-Albani, 1996: 84). Accordingly, merit was the main determinant when choosing leaders. For example, the Prophet (peace be upon him) chose Usama Ibn Zaid who was under 20 years of age to lead the army during the battle with the Romans because of his merit and capabilities.

2.9.2.10 Good Relationships between Work Members

Islam also ordered the employers to secure the salary that can satisfy the employees' needs, as the Prophet (peace be upon him) said *"Give the worker his wage before his sweat dries up."* (Al-Albani, 1996: 59). Moreover, Islam calls for mercy when dealing with subordinates, as the Prophet Mohamed (peace be upon him) said *"Your servants are like your brothers [or sisters]. So, if you have a servant, you should feed him [or her] form your food, and clothe him [her] from your clothes and give him [her] mild tasks to perform. In case you give your servant a difficult task, you should help him [her]."* (Al-Albani, 1996: 300). So, Islam has defined the relationship between both work pressure and the good relationship between employee and employer and

satisfaction. Islam also ordains the leaders to be good examples for their subordinates. Also, it determines that consultation is the best tool of communication among leaders and subordinates. Moreover, good manners include honesty, patience, tolerance and the ability to prefer the other's interests over one's own interest are the main principles that guide the relationship between Muslims, as the Prophet (peace be upon him) ordered his followers to stick to good manners as he said *"I was sent [by God] to complete the best manners."* (Al-Albani, 1996: 104).

Overall, Muslims believe that, if the above mentioned principles were implemented within an organization, and if employees are treated according to them, this will create an atmosphere of harmony and satisfaction and will also enhance employees' motivation and self-monitoring.

2.9.3 MOTIVATION IN ISLAMIC FAITH COMPARED WITH THE WESTERN MOTIVATION THEORIES

In the following part, the motivation in Islam and the similarities and differences between the motivation in Islam and the western motivation theories will be discussed.

God mentioned the story of the mankind creation by saying *"And when your Lord said to the angels: surely I am going to create a mortal of the essence of black mud fashioned in shape. So when I have made him complete and breathed into him of My spirit, fall down making obeisance to him."* (Part 14, Chapter Al-Hijr, Verses 28-29). From this story we can conclude that Man is created from two components, namely mud (physical) and spirit (non-physical).

The mud (physical) part of the human being can be contented by satisfying the lower-order needs including body needs, (eating, drinking, sleeping, and shelter), and safety needs (security, no threats, no physical harm, and stability). These kinds of needs are equivalent to both Maslow's physiological and safety needs, existence needs in ERG theory, and to a part of Herzberg's hygiene factors. On the other hand, the spirit (non-physical) part of the human being can be contented by satisfying the higher-order needs (spiritual needs) including love, esteem, and self actualization needs. These kinds of needs are equivalent to both Maslow's social needs, esteem, and self-actualization needs, relatedness and growth needs in ERG theory, and to a part of Herzberg's motivators.

On the other hand, the nature of the human soul directs the Muslim's actions toward satisfying his physical or spiritual needs. In this regard, God categorized the human soul into three types. The first type is the '*contented soul*' which was cited in 'Surat Al-Balad' when God said *"O (you) the one who has a soul in (complete) rest and satisfaction (**contented soul**). Come back to your Lord well-pleased (yourself) and well-pleasing (to Him)."* (Part 30, Chapter Al-Balad, Verses 27-28). This kind of soul has reached the top of the human hierarchy as it is always pleased with what God give it. For this kind of soul, satisfying the spiritual needs are more important than satisfying the physical needs, as a person with a contented soul will just try to satisfy the minimum requirement of his physical needs. The second type of soul is the '*self-accusing soul*' which was cited in 'Surat Al-Qiyaamah' when God said *"Nay! I swear by the day of resurrection. Nay! I swear by the **self-accusing soul**. Does man think that we shall not gather his bones?"* (Part 29, Chapter Al-Qiyamah, Verses 1-3). This kind of soul knows what is wrong but sometimes does it. However, it repents and asks for forgiveness. For this kind of soul, the importance of the two kinds of human needs are equal; however,

sometimes it tends to give more importance to satisfying the spiritual needs, while at other times it tends to give more importance to satisfying the physical needs. So, it is always in conflict between sublimity and inferiority. The third type of soul is the '*incessantly demanding soul*' (usually demanding evil things) which was cited in 'Surat Yusuf' when God said *"And I do not declare myself free, most surely **(man's) self is wont to command (him to do) evil**, except such as my Lord has had mercy on, surely my Lord is Forgiving, Merciful."* (Part 13, Chapter Yusuf, Verse 53). This kind of soul is always focusing on satisfying its physical needs without giving any attention to the spiritual side.

However, there are no crucial boundaries between these three kinds of human souls, as the human being can switch between the three types according to the strength of his faith. From the previous discussion it can be seen that there are some similarities between the western theories of motivation and the Islamic concept of motivation, namely Maslow theory in that, the human needs can be arranged in hierarchy order. But it can be noticed that ERG theory has a common agreement with motivation process in Islam, in that different needs can be activated and operated in the same person at the same time without the condition of satisfying the lower need category, and the order of these needs could differ from one to another according to his own kind of soul (framework). Accordingly, the Islamic concept of motivation is more comprehensive and flexible because it takes the individual's differences into consideration. Moreover, it can explain some unexpected behavior, for example why some people seek to satisfy their self-actualization needs like achievement and recognition, even though they may have a low salary. It is also explains why some employees changes the priority of their needs.

2.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Job satisfaction is one of the most studied subjects in management literature because it is one of the most important human maintenance factors in any organization. The main concern of this chapter was to present and discuss the managerial literature regarding motivation and job satisfaction. The meaning of motivation and job satisfaction and the relationship between them have been outlined. The different managerial schools of thought were presented, including the Traditional Model which adopted the classical theory's ideas, which consider money as the only motivator, and that individuals can be motivated only by their desire for economic rewards. However, in today's work environment the applications of its ideas are questionable as it wasn't concerned about the psychological or social needs of people in the workplace. The Human Relations Model was the second contributor to the motivation and job satisfaction development. It concentrated on the human aspects and the social relations between workers and encouraged the management to provide its employees with recognition and more autonomy. However, applying its principles may provide employees with a false sense of happiness as it is not actually concerned with their interests; moreover, it over-emphasised on the human aspects on account of the interest of the organization as a whole. The Human Resource Model was the third contributor to motivation researches as it provided the management and practitioners with two different approaches when dealing with subordinates, namely Theory X which has a negative and a pessimistic view about workers, and Theory Y, which has a positive and more optimistic view about workers.

Later, the main content motivation and job satisfaction theories were reviewed. Those theories were Maslow's Need Hierarchy, Herzeberg's Two Factor Theory, and

Alderfer's ERG Theory. Each of these theories has focused on different dimensions of work motivation. Maslow assumed that the individual's needs can be arranged in a hierarchical order, meaning that if one of these needs has been satisfied, it will lose its effect as a motivator and the next higher need will be activated. However, many empirical researches did not support his assumptions. Herzeberg's Two Factor Theory was another attempt to understand the motivation process in the workplace. He classified the job factors into two main categories; the first is 'hygiene' which resulted largely from extrinsic factors, and the second is 'motivators' which resulted largely from intrinsic factors. Hence, to satisfy an employee, the organization has to eliminate job dissatisfaction by satisfying his hygiene factors, then use motivators to increase his satisfaction. However, the classification of work factors into 'hygiene' and 'motivators' was not supported by most researchers because they found that hygiene factors can work as motivators and vice versa; moreover, the theory is methodologically bound. Alderfer's ERG Theory was another content theory that adopted its assumptions from Maslow's Need Hierarchy theory. He merged the five need categories of Maslow into three main categories that can be separately activated.

Two process theories were discussed in this chapter, namely Adam's Equity Theory and Vroom's Expectancy Theory. Adam used the equity norm to express the positive relationship between an employee's efforts and his performance. On the other hand, Vroom tried to explain the human behavior by illustrating the individual differences regarding motivation and behavior. Although the process theories have more empirical support than the content theories, it can not be claimed that there is a comprehensive theory of work motivation that can be adopted by all organizations.

Because personal characteristics define the person and participate in building his/her own framework, a review of the managerial literature regarding the relationship between six related personal characteristics (age, gender, occupational level, education, tenure, and training) and motivational needs and job satisfaction has been discussed. Moreover, the different consequences of job satisfaction (including performance, turnover, and absenteeism) were outlined.

Also, because Egypt is an Islamic country, the Islamic values of work motivation were presented. These values include the value of work, sincerity and loyalty, mildness, honesty, obedience and respect, teamwork, autonomy and delegation of authority, consultation, good leadership, and good relationships between work members. Finally, the Islamic model of job motivation was presented. Overall, this chapter provides the basis for Chapter 3 (the research framework) and will be used as a basis for discussing the research findings in Chapter 7.