Job Satisfaction and Employees' Turnover in Libyan Oil Companies: The Application of the Job Characteristics Model in a Different Cultural Setting

By

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Award of

Doctor of Philosophy

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I certify that this is a true and accurate version of the thesis approved by the examiners, and that all relevant ordinance regulations have been fulfilled.

Signed Principal Supervisor:  ................................ Date:  ..................................
Declaration

I, A. Elomami hereby declare that this thesis is my own original work and has not been submitted elsewhere in fulfilment of the requirement of any other award. Where information has been derived from other sources, I can confirm that this has been indicated in the thesis.

Signed ..................................................  Date...........................................
Dedication

I wish to dedicate this thesis to my beloved father and brother (May Allah's mercy be upon them) who, so sadly, passed away a few years ago before I started my PhD journey; with all loving memories.

I wish also to dedicate this thesis to my Mother (May Allah’s blessings be upon her) who taught me that the best kind of knowledge to have is that which is learned for its own sake.

This thesis is also dedicated to my beloved wife Nagla, and my children Rafik, Riyad, Sarah, Zuhair and Nadine, for all of their support, inspiration, and love. Through our loyalty to each we become stronger, we stand together.
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First and above all, I sincerely thank Allah, my God, The Most Gracious, and The Most Merciful for granting me the capability to complete my PhD, and for often showing so many good people to me to help with my thesis. Undertaking this PhD has been a truly life-changing experience for me and it would not have been possible to do without the support and guidance that I received from many people.

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Special thanks to the staff at Dundee Business School for their support, guidance and helpful suggestions. I am also indebted to all the PhD students at the school who I have had the pleasure to work with. They have been an invaluable support during all these years. Thanks to all of them.

Also, I would like to thank and acknowledge all employees in the organisations studied who agreed to participate in this study. Certainly, without their cooperation, it would not have been possible to gain the many insights revealed in the thesis.

I would like to express special thanks, love and gratitude to my lovely wife Nagla whose love and encouragement allowed me to finish this journey; she has given me her unequivocal support throughout, as always, for which my mere expression of thanks does not suffice; she really deserves my heartfelt “thanks my darling”. Finally, I warmly thank and appreciate my whole family in Libya for their support and patience.
Abstract

The Job Characteristics Model is widely accepted as a conceptual tool for addressing problems related to employees’ motivation, dissatisfaction and organisational performance. Therefore, this study attempts to apply Hackman and Oldham Job Characteristics Model (JCM) by among the five core dimensions of autonomy, skill variety, task identity, task significance and feedback and job satisfaction and employees’ turnover in the Libyan oil companies located in Benghazi city. Also, to explore the current situation of organisational determinants of job satisfaction in the Libyan oil companies and to investigate its correlation with employees’ job satisfaction. These factors (pay/rewards, supervision, promotion opportunity, relationship with co-workers and work conditions) are tested empirically in the companies studied.

A total of 400 questionnaires were collected and 20 interviews were conducted in four oil companies. The main findings of the study confirm the positive correlations among the five core dimensions of the JCM and job satisfaction. Also, organisational factors were found to influence employees’ job satisfaction as the employees were satisfied with their pay/rewards, supervision, promotion opportunity, relationship with co-workers and working conditions. Moreover, employees have shown more concern for factors such as job security and change in the social status. Also, it was found that employees’ turnover increased in relation to security and social factors such as the absence of safety and security in the oil fields after the Libyan uprising, especially those oil fields located in the Eastern region. It was also found that the correlations among job satisfaction and employees’ turnover was negative and the correlation among the five core dimensions of the JCM model and employees’ turnover were negative too.

The study makes a significant contribution to knowledge in theory and practice. Among such contributions are identification of gaps in the literature on job satisfaction and the core dimension of job characteristics model. Also, the study contributes to the redesign of jobs and working relationships in the Libyan oil companies.
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<td>MSQ</td>
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<td>HRM</td>
<td>Human Resource Management</td>
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<td>JOT</td>
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<tr>
<td>AGOCO</td>
<td>Oil Arab Gulf Company</td>
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<tr>
<td>EPSA</td>
<td>Exploration and Production Sharing Agreement</td>
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<td>WTO</td>
<td>World Trade Organisation</td>
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<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nation</td>
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<td>United states</td>
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<td>GDP</td>
<td>Growth Development Progress</td>
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<td>NFA</td>
<td>National Forces Alliance</td>
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<td>GNC</td>
<td>General National Congress</td>
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<td>NTC</td>
<td>National Transitional Council</td>
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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 The rational for the study

It is very often argued that organisations have little understanding of how to satisfy their employees and how employees’ satisfaction could affect their intention to stay in their positions (Feinstein, 2000; Kim, 2011). This limited understanding of the relationships between employees and management, leading sometimes to excessive employee turnover (Johannes, 2009). Libyan Oil Companies are among those organisations that have experienced problems of employees’ turnover in recent years. The oil sector is the main contributor to the Libyan economy by 94% of the GDP. The consequences of any low performance because of job dissatisfaction and employees’ turnover in this sector have adverse effects on the overall economy and society.

As a matter of fact, work plays an important role in individuals' lives because they spend most of their time at work. According to Furnham (2005), there are many reasons why people work. For instance, work provides a source of income, a source of activity and stimulation, a source of social contacts, and a means of structuring time as well as a source of self-fulfilment and self-actualisation. Therefore, employees’ job satisfaction is an important aspect of their working lives. Positive feelings about a job can contribute to individuals experiencing greater satisfaction with their lives in general and lead them to be healthier psychologically and physically (Noblet et al., 2005). Also, work could be a source of happiness for an individual.
Psychologists and others who are concerned with individuals’ happiness emphasise that high job satisfaction should be experienced in the workplace (Spector, 2008; Arnold et al., 2005). However, the Libyan oil sector has experienced, according to official reports that have been reviewed by the researcher, high levels of absenteeism, poor time keeping and falsified illness. Also, many employees have made complaints about mismanagement and poor pay, and expressed general dissatisfaction with their jobs and a lack of commitment toward their organisations, resulting in high rates of employees’ turnover (Aghila, 2000, NOC, 2010).

Historically, the concept of job satisfaction has been widely researched since the beginning of 1950s. In recent years numerous studies (e.g. Chen et al.,2000, Noryati et al., 2009, Miller et al., 2009, and Srivastava et al., 2010) reported that job satisfaction depend on employee personality while other studies (Ellickson et al., 2001, Lederer et al., 2006, and Schmidt 2007) suggested that several organisational attributes are important in determining employee job satisfaction.

Thus, when employees are satisfied, they improve the performance and productivity of the company and contribute positively towards its profitability. According to Wright and Davis (2003), the benefits that employees receive from their organisation influence the effort, skill, creativity and productivity that they are willing to give to their employer. Organisations with satisfied employees outperform other organisations (Ostroff, 1992). Therefore, job satisfaction has become a major organisational objective for competitive advantage and organisational success.
On the other hand, low job satisfaction has negative outcomes such as withdrawal behaviour, increasing costs, decreasing profits and, eventually, customer dissatisfaction (Zeffane et al., 2008). According to Spector (1997), employees experiencing dissatisfaction may develop disruptive behaviours that negatively impact upon their productivity and performance, as well as affecting those around them. Focusing on employee job satisfaction in the workplace is, therefore, key to understanding the elements of employees' behaviour and their effective role in the organisation.

In this regard, there are many theories which show that the concept of job satisfaction is extremely complex because no single conceptual model can describes accurately what contributes positively or negatively to employees’ job satisfaction (Mullins, 2006). Previous studies have developed gradually from a simple evaluation of basic models to more complex issues and in-depth investigations to determine the causes and the consequences of job satisfaction. One of these models is the Job Characteristics Model developed (JCM) by Hackman and Oldham (1975), which is considered as one of the main studies in examining the effects of job characteristics on job satisfaction. The model indicates that job satisfaction could be increased by designing jobs to have five job characteristics. The five core dimensions of Hackman and Oldham's model are autonomy, skill variety, task identity, task significance, and feedback (see Figure 4.1, p.90). The model will be discussed in more details in the literature review chapter four. After Hackman and Oldham's work, numerous studies have focused on this area of research. Some studies concluded that job factors such as pay/reward, supervision, promotion opportunity
relationship with co-workers and work conditions are important determinates of job satisfaction (Elish et al., 2009, and Vitell et al., 2008) while others stressed that the dispositional factor such as core self-evaluations is the main determinant of job satisfaction (Arvey et al., 1991, Chang et al., 2010, and Keller and Semmer, 2013). Other studies (e.g. Griffeth et al., 2000, Thatcher et al., 2002, and Sager and Johnston, 1989) have indicated that job characteristics and job satisfaction are related and have some impact on employees’ intention to leave their organizations. For example, Sager and Johnston (1989) suggested that job satisfaction and job characteristics have a significant effect on employee turnover. Despite of several empirical studies in this subject, previous empirical findings are still less encouraging and have been inconclusive. Based on the above discussion, further investigations are required to determine the effect of job characteristics and job satisfaction on employees’ turnover, not only in western developed countries but also in different socio economic of cultural setting such as Libya.

Moreover, most of the studies conducted in Arab countries in general and Libya in particular, were to investigate the relationship between job satisfaction and work commitment without focusing on the effects of job characteristics (see for example, EL-Aarajbi, 2000, and Nagi, 2010). The study of El-Jehemi (1984) on labour turnover in Libyan oil sector found that the high levels of labour turnover had resulted from social, cultural and environmental factors without mentioning the influence of job characteristics or job satisfaction. Moreover, Aghila and EI-Baruni (1986) identified methods of measuring job performance that could be
used as the principal means to appraise employees’ performance in Libyan organizations and found that high performance and productivity could not be achieved without linking them to motivation factors. Furthermore, the public sector in Libya in general and the oil sector in particular faces many problems which contribute to a climate of inefficiency and mismanagement (Report on Oil Industry in Libya, 2010). This has had negative effects on employees’ attitudes and job performance, and ultimately on organisational performance. Such problems have been specifically characterised by high levels of absenteeism, turnover and a shortage of skilled and trained personnel (Ejigu and Sherif, 1994, and NOC, 2010). Hence, the current study starts with the assumption that both job characteristics and job satisfaction have influence on employees’ turnover. Therefore, the study attempts to investigate the nature of this influence on employees’ turnover by applying the Job Characteristics Model (JCM).

1.2 Research objectives
At first, the researcher attempted to explore the characteristics of a job that make people want to perform to their maximum ability in their work. Do people work because of the rewards, the working environment, or the nature of the work they do? Motivation has been the topic of much research related to work productivity and employee satisfaction. In the process of exploring and reviewing the relevant literature, the researcher identified the Job Characteristics Model. The model can be used to predict whether positive work and personal outcomes can be achieved from a job as it exists or with redesign. Therefore, it was adopted for this study which aims to test the application of the five core dimensions of autonomy, skill variety, task
identity, task significance and feedback of Job Characteristics Model (JCM) as developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975). To achieve this aim the following objectives have to be met:

**Objective 1:** To review the relevant literature on the Job Characteristics Model (JCM) and job satisfaction in order to develop a theoretical framework for the understanding and testing of the JCM model in the Libyan oil companies, located in Benghazi. Also, the review of the literature will result in the development of the research hypotheses that will be tested in this study.

**Objective 2:** To review and critically analyse the Motivating Potential Score (MPS) formula that reflect the psychological state of the worker, motivational characteristics of a job, and personal attributes that influence responses to challenging and complex jobs, as developed by Hackman, Oldham and others, and then test its relevance to and applicability to the Libyan oil companies. Therefore, it will be possible to examine the correlation between the MPS and job satisfaction and employees’ turnover in the Libyan oil companies.

**Objective 3:** To examine the correlations between the organisational determinates of job satisfaction (pay/reward, promotion opportunity, supervision, co-workers and work conditions) and job satisfaction in order to identify the nature of this relationships in the Libyan oil companies.
Objective 4: To develop a conceptual model that combines the five core dimensions of JCM with organisational determinates of job satisfaction. The model may help the Libyan oil companies to retain their employees and improve their organisational performance level.

1.3 Research questions and hypotheses

In light of the above objectives, this study attempts to answer the following questions:

- To what extent are the five core dimensions of JCM applied in the Libyan oil companies, located in Benghazi, and whether or not they affect employees’ satisfaction.

- What is the output score of the MPS formula when used to test the current situation of the five core dimensions of JCM in the Libyan oil companies? And how does the MPS and job satisfaction affect employees’ turnover?

- How and why organisational factors such pay/reward, promotion opportunity, co-workers and work conditions are related to job satisfaction in the Libyan oil companies?

- To what extent could the combination of the five core dimensions of JCM with organisational determinants of job satisfaction developing a conceptual model may
help the Libyan oil companies to retain their employees and improve their organisational performance level.

To answer the above questions, an extensive review of the literature on job satisfaction, motivation theories and the Job Characteristics Model has been carried out, and the following hypotheses have been developed:

**H1:** There a positive correlation between the five core dimensions of JCM and job satisfaction;

The above hypothesis leads to sub hypotheses as following:

- **H1a:** There is a positive correlation between autonomy and job satisfaction
- **H1b:** There is a positive correlation between skill variety and job satisfaction
- **H1c:** There is a positive correlation between task identity and job satisfaction
- **H1d:** There is a positive correlation between task significance and job satisfaction
- **H1e:** There is a positive correlation between feedback and job satisfaction

- **H2:** There is a positive correlation between the five core dimensions and employees’ turnover;

The second hypothesis leads to sub hypotheses as following:
H2a: There is a positive correlation between autonomy and employees ‘turnover

H2b: There is a positive correlation between skill variety and employees ‘turnover

H2c: There is a positive correlation between task identity and employees ‘turnover

H2d: There is a positive correlation between task significance and Employees’ turnover

H2e: There is a positive correlation between feedback and employees’ turnover

H3: There is a positive correlation between employees’ turnover and job satisfaction

H4: There is a positive correlation between job satisfaction and organisational factors (i.e. pay/reward, co-workers, supervision promotion opportunity, and work conditions physical environment).

1.4 The conduct of the study
This study used a positivist paradigm and triangulation or mixed method research approach. As explained in more details in the methodology chapter (5), the quantitative method is represented by using both self-administrated, Minnesota
questionnaire (MSQ) and the Job-Diagnostic-Survey (JDS), while the qualitative method is represented by using semi-structured interviews, field observations and documentations to collect the data that serve the exploratory nature of this study. Four hundred (400) questionnaires were distributed to the sample that was chosen from four Libyan oil companies under study located in Benghazi city. A total of 331 questionnaires were returned and usable, after excluding the questionnaires which were not valid to use for the statistical analysis.

Statistical data analysis techniques that depend on frequencies, percentages, mean score and standard deviation were used to investigate the current status of the five core dimensions of autonomy, skill variety, task identity, task significance and feedback. Also, the Pearson correlation analysis was used to determine the correlations between dependent variables such as the five core dimensions and independent variables such as job satisfaction and employees’ turnover.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 20 employees as a follow up from the questionnaires. Therefore, quotations from the interviews were used to support the findings obtained from the statistical analysis.

1.5 Significance of the Study
Many theories of motivation have been made to explain the nature of employees' work attitudes and how to motivate employees to increase their performance. Although a great deal of attention has been devoted to the understanding of the concept of job satisfaction as well as its antecedents and consequences and the
motivation theories that have shown what motivate workers to increase their performance, there is still much to be learnt about the factors that lead to job satisfaction and reduce employees’ turnover especially in the developing countries such as Libya.

One of these theories is the job characteristics theory of Hackman and Oldham (1975) which provides a set of implementing principles for enriching jobs in organizational settings. This theory developed the job characteristics model which includes the five core dimensions of autonomy, skill variety, task identity, task significance and feedback as dependent variables and job satisfaction and employees’ turnover as independent variables in addition to clarifying the nature of relationships between them.

It can be seen from the literature review that most of the studies that examined the Job Characteristics Model in relation to employees’ satisfaction and employees’ turnover were carried out in the developed countries that are culturally, economically and politically different from developing countries such as Libya where the present study has been conducted.

Moreover, the researcher had worked in the Arab Gulf Company, one of the oil companies used for this study, before getting a scholarship to study a PhD at Abertay University. As one HR manager, the researcher had experienced of dealing with a large number of employees who had been dissatisfied with their jobs and
decided to leave the company despite the good pay and the many benefits they were given. This experience is supported by official reports which show high levels of absenteeism, poor time keeping and falsified illness in the oil companies.

In light of the above discussion. This study has been carried out in order to, first, narrow some of the gaps in the literature by reviewing and a clarifying the five core dimensions of the JCM as constructs of job satisfaction and try to develop a conceptual model that merges between the five core dimensions of with the organisational determinates of job satisfaction. Second, the proposed model is aimed to help managers of the Libyan organisations in general and the Oil companies in particular to achieve their organisations’ goals by improving the relationship between managers and their subordinates. The application of the JCM in the Libyan oil companies is expected to increase job satisfaction, reduce employees’ turnover and increase the level organisational performance.

1.6 National culture and organisational culture

A large number of studies conducted on the job characteristics model confirmed that the presence of the five core dimensions mentioned by the JCM model often lead to increase in the level of job satisfaction. Consequently, leads to reduction in the employees’ turnover levels. Although these studies were carried out in different societies with different cultural backgrounds, the findings of those studies were convergent and confirmed the validity of what was developed by the JCM model.
It is worthy of mentioning here that the Libyan society is not an exception, despite the divergent definitions for both national and organisational cultures. For example, National Culture is defined as the culture that is shared between people in a society or a country (Hofstede, 2001), whereas Organisational Culture is defined as the culture that is shared between people in an organisation (Schien, 2010). Therefore, there is a culture that is shared among people within the same profession or occupation, this is named “professional” or “occupational” culture (Myers and Tan, 2002). Moreover, there is individual culture which can be defined in terms of how different individuals are orientated to the national culture that they are part of (Dorfman and Howell, 1988; Karahanna, Evaristo, and Srite, 2005). However, National culture and organizational culture depend upon the individual level. For instance, when people form an organization they adapt a model which they are familiar with, sometimes - the family (Trompenaars 1993 p.138).

It can be concluded that the Organisational Culture in all societies in general and in the Libyan society in particular, is considered as the outcomes of an extension of the culture of a private society especially the workers who were selected randomly for this study were all Libyans. Moreover, all of them were from Benghazi the city where the current study was conducted and of course they are up holding the values, principles and behaviours that reflect the community to which they belong. Therefore, this clarifies why the current study did not distinguish between both cultures, and treated them as one culture.
1.7 The structure of the thesis

This thesis is presented in eight chapters as follows:

Chapter one introduces the study by explaining the rational for the study, the research objectives, the research questions and hypotheses, the research methodology, the significance of the study, and the structure of the thesis.

Chapter two presents an overview of the Libyan socio–economic, legal and political context, including description of the Libyan oil sector and the oil companies studied. The aim of this chapter is to set the scene and to discuss in a historical perspective the challenges and the problems that have led the need for this study to be carried out.

Chapter three provides a literature review of the concept of job satisfaction and motivation theories. It covers a comparative analysis of the definitions and the meanings of motivation and job satisfaction. Also, the main theories of motivation are reviewed and the relationship between job satisfaction and employees’ turnover is explained in order to develop the relevant hypotheses.

Chapter four provides a literature review of the previous studies on job satisfaction in order to provide a better understanding of the phenomenon under investigation.

In this respect, the components of the Job Characteristics Model developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975) are analysed in order to develop a theoretical framework for this research. Also, reviews of the recent studies that have examined
the implementation of the Job Characteristics Model are reviewed and the relevant research hypotheses are developed for this study.

**Chapter five** provides a description of justification of research design of research methodology adopted in this study. It begins with the research philosophy and the research method approach and then followed by a detailed discussion of the main components of the chosen design, including quantitative method, qualitative methods and triangulation method. Moreover, an explanation of the sampling process, including the target population and determination of the sample size is discussed in this chapter too. Therefore, the questionnaire as the main method of collecting the research data, including the questionnaire construction, translation, and distribution as well as the conduct of the semi structured interview are discussed. Ethical considerations, pilot study, filed study, validity and reliability of The data collected are also explained. Finally, a brief discussion of the data analysis methods and techniques that have been used to obtain the findings are given before concluding the chapter.

**Chapter six** presents the findings from the analysis of data collected from the use of questionnaires and interviews. It includes two main sections. The first section provides an analysis of the background of the respondents while the second section shows the inferential statistics which include the results of the hypotheses test. The chapter concludes with a summary of the main findings.
Chapter seven: provides a discussion of the main findings presented in chapter six. Each of the findings is discussed in relation to other studies presented in the literature reviewed in chapters three and four as well as in relation to the socio–economic context of Libya as discussed in chapter two. This discussion concludes with the development of a conceptual model of the Job Characteristics Model in Libya.

Chapter eight presents the summary and conclusions of the study. In other words, the chapter concludes the thesis with a summary of the main issues from this study. It also covers a reconsideration of the research objectives, the contribution of the study to knowledge in theory and practice, the limitations of the study and a proposal for future research.
CHAPTER TWO
AN OVERVIEW OF THE LIBYAN SOCIO-ECONOMIC
AND POLITICAL CONTEXT

2.1 Introduction
Any study of employees’ work attitudes is normally conducted within a social, economic and political context of the country where many factors affect organisational performance of individuals’ work behaviour. Job satisfaction, employees’ commitment and organisational performance are the outcomes of work behaviour in an environmental context. Therefore, this chapter attempts to draw a picture of the Libyan context in which people are employed and rewarded. The chapter is divided into the following sections. The first section deals with geography and population of Libya, whilst the second section presents a brief summary of the history of Libya. The third section provides some aspects of Arabic social and cultural values in Libya, and the Libyan political regime is presented in section four followed by a brief summary of the Libyan 17th February 2011 revolution including the reasons which lead to this uprising. The Libyan economy before and after the discovery of oil is discussed in sections seven and eight and an overview of the Libyan Oil and Gas Sector, including information about the oil national corporation which is provided in sections nine and ten. A brief description of the companies studied is given before concluding the chapter with the challenges which are expected to face new Libya in the future.
2.2 Geography and Population

Libya is a developing Arab state located in North Africa. It extends South from the Mediterranean coast into the vast Sahara and is bordered by the Mediterranean Sea to the North, Egypt to the East, Sudan to the South East, Tunisia and Algeria to the West, and Niger and Chad to the South as shown in Figure 2.1 below. With an area of 1,759,540 square kilometres (1,092,882 square miles) and a Mediterranean coastline nearly 1,800 kilometres long (1,118 square miles) from Tunisia in the West to Egypt in the East [African Development Bank, 1995]. Libya is the fourth largest country in Africa and the 15th largest in the world. It is approximately one half the size of Europe or one quarter the size of the United States of America (Bait-El-Mal, 1973). About 90% of the country’s land area is Sahara and thus only about 10% of the country’s land area is used for grazing and farming. It has also two areas of hills and mountains rising to a maximum of 3,000 feet above sea level.

Figure 2.1: Map of Libya
Historically, the present name of Libya was derived from the Egyptian term “Libu” which referred to one of the Berber tribes that lived in the West of Egypt and from which the Greeks derived the name “Libya” (Clark et al, 1975). However, the name became common only when Italy occupied Libya between 1911 and 1943.

Libya gained its independence in 1951 and became a member of the United Nations in 1954. The first population census in 1954 recorded a population of 1,088,873, including 47,774 foreigners. Since then, regular censuses have been undertaken every ten years. The population of Libya, according to the latest official census conducted in 2006, was 6 million and the population density of about 3 persons per square kilometres, about 8 persons per square mile (Al-Mabrouk and Soar, 2009).

Libya is part of the Arab nations and its population is part of the Arab people. This is reflected in the importance of Arab culture, traditions, customs and values in Libyan society. Also, the Libyan social environment is characterized by the extended family, clan, tribe, village and Islamic religion. These play a major role in the community’s life and people’s relationships (Agaia, 1997; Ahmed and Gao, 2004). The official language of Libya is Arabic. Islam is the state religion and most of the population (98%) are Sunni Muslims (Oxford Business Group, 2008).

2.3 Historical Background
Libya was an Italian colony from 1911 to the end of the Second World War (1945). The Italian administrative system developed the basic infrastructure of the country such as roads, port facilities, and different projects for irrigation. However, Italy did not influence the educational system and paid little attention to training the people in
technology or agriculture (Shareia, 2006). After the Second World War, the country was ruled jointly by the British and the French for six years (1945-1951). In 1951, the United Nations General Assembly passed a resolution recognizing the rights of Libya to independence under a monarchy. In December 1951, Libya declared its independence and became the United Kingdom of Libya, a constitutional and hereditary monarchy under King Idris al-Sanussi, who had been living in exile in Egypt and came back to Libya after the end of the Second World War. During the war, he established the Libyan Arab Force which fought alongside the Allied forces. Therefore, he claimed the Libyan throne, with encouragement from Great Britain (Esposito, 1998).

In 1969 the monarchy was overthrown by the army that took control and the country became governed by a Revolutionary Command Council (Bait-El-Mal et al, 1973). Libya was transformed from a constitutional monarchy into a revolutionary republic, and underwent a number of far-reaching social, political and economic changes. The most important one was the declaration of the Libyan Jamahiriya in March 1977. After forty years of destruction, corruption, injustice and waste of money in terrorism at the expense of the suffering of the Libyan people from poverty, ignorance and corruption, the Revolution of February 17, 2011 restored the country to the natural path of hoping to return the safety, security and the application of a democratic system which guarantees the rights of the Libyan people and also leads the new Libya to the renaissance and prosperity which represents the hopes and wishes of the Libyan people.
2.4 Society and Culture

Arabic culture and Islamic rules are the most dominant elements in individual and group behaviour, social values, beliefs and attitudes, state laws, political and economic policies in the Libyan society. In Libya, as in most Arabic and Islamic countries, family, religion and language have a huge impact on the attitudes and behaviour of people. In other words, Libya as an Arab Muslim country, the family and Islamic values acquired from the true Islamic religion played a major role in shaping the personality of the individual in particular and the Libyan society in general (Oxford Business Group, 2008).

Abuznaid (1994) argues that religion has a great impact on human behaviour, social interactions and social relations. Islam is a religion and a way of life that influences the political, economic and educational system as well as other cultural aspects of Arab and Muslim societies (Abuznaid, 1994). Islam, as a religion, does not belong to any particular person, group, race, community or a country. All Muslims are regarded as equal in front of Allah (Gad) regardless of race, status or nationality. The word Islam stands for a complete submission and obedience to Allah. Another meaning of the word "Islam" is peace and this implies that one can achieve real peace of body and mind only through submission and obedience to Allah. The five pillars of Islam are: the testimony of faith, prayer, alms, fasting and pilgrimage to the city of Mecca. These pillars are very important to Muslims because they are compulsory. Each of these pillars has its certain times and ways of practicing them and they should be respected by individuals and organisations. With regards to economic activities, Islam permits trade but prohibits usury. Also, Islam encourages
thrift and competition, induces hard work and supports innovation. The Quran and the prophetic prescriptions contained in the deeds and practices of the prophet Mohammed are guides in business conducts and social affairs.

Islam provides a set of general guidelines that can be applied to management. These guidelines can be easily detected in the Quran and the prophetic prescriptions like consultation which represents an important Islamic principle that govern the administration and management of public interests. Honesty is another principle that Islam urges Muslims to carry out tasks that are entrusted to them efficiently and completely. The absence of honesty corrodes business and renders any organisation precarious in the long run. The issue of teamwork and cooperation is also regarded very highly in Islam (Abuznaid, 1994). Planning is also an important principle in management. Thus, Islam urges believers to plan in advance and put their trust in Allah. Moreover, Islam urges for a good supervision. As a manager, he/she should think of him/herself as a role model. He/she should be pragmatic and the first to take up responsibilities. It can be concluded that the influence of Islamic religion on most aspects of people's life in Libya is obvious, including every aspect of culture in the Arab countries. For example, the family system is supported by Arabic culture and Islamic norms, values and laws. However, Arabic society in general and Libyan society in particular is considered as a collectivist society because the family and tribe play major roles in Libyan culture. El Fathaly and Palmer (1980) and Nagi (2010) stated that the basic units of social structure of contemporary Libya are the
extended family, the clan, the tribe, and the village. All of which play a major role in the individual's and community's life.

The Libyan family has a wide connotation which includes father and mother, their unmarried children and their married sons and daughters with their families as well as many more distant relatives such as grandfathers, cousins, aunts, nephews and nieces. Since the individual is identified with his/her family, his/her good or bad acts bring collective fame or shame to the family and to the tribe (Agnaia, 1996:153). Therefore, the family controls and shapes its members' behaviour. The individual has to obey, respect and preserve the rules and traditions of the family, the clan, the tribe and the village.

Libyan society consists of the extended family and the tribe, where a strong social hierarchical structure prevails. The family provides its members with their roles, responsibilities and achievement and also determines the individual's position within its members. The tribe is the ultimate community and in political terms is considered the most important unit in society (United Nations Secretariat, 2009). It provides guidelines for accepted behaviour and it is a source of social and moral sanctions as well as political, physical and psychological security for individuals and their children. The cultural values and norms of the society demand that the tribal relationships should be given preferential treatment in almost all circumstances (Oxford Business Group, 2008).
2.5 The Libyan Political Regime

In 1973 Gaddafi declared the Cultural Revolution by which he encouraged people to participate in political life by creating “the People’s Committees” to administrate local and regional administrations. Behind this Cultural Revolution, Gaddafi introduced a Government of the masses based on direct democracy, a concept which later became “the People’s Authority”. In 1975, Gaddafi published “The Green Book”, which presented his views and philosophy on the political, economic and social system of the country. In the Green Book, Gaddafi presented an alternative view to the conventional political system and democracy. In this context, Gaddafi in the Green Book (1999) wrote that:

*Parliament is a misrepresentation of the people, and parliamentary systems are a false solution to the problem of democracy. A parliament is originally founded to represent the people, but this in itself is undemocratic as democracy means the authority of the people and not authority acting on their behalf. The mere existence of a parliament means the absence of the people. True democracy exists only through the direct participation of the people, and not through the activity of their representatives.* (p.4).

This idea is based on “Shura” in Islamic jurisprudence, an Arabic word for consultation, where under Islam all decisions for Muslim societies should be based on Shura of the Muslim community. Consequently, the General People’s Congress (GPC) was founded in 1977 as the highest legislative authority instead of the Revolution Command Council RRC. The GPC declared that Libya’s political system was “The People’s Authority” in which all people exercise their authority by the Basic People’s Congresses and the People’s Committees (PCs). BPCs were founded in each region across the country and all Libyans aged 18 years or more, regardless of gender, were required to participate through direct consultation and consensus in their
local BPCs. Each BPC had two bodies: a secretariat of conference as an administrative committee, and a PC as executive committee (mini government) for implementing the decisions and recommendations of the BPC. All BPCs were members of the GPC, in addition to the professional associations and unions, which also had representatives in the GPC.

The conceptual focus of this political system is the GPC as a legislative body. At its conception, all legislative and executive authorities were vested in the GPC. However, the GPC delegated executive authority to the General Secretariat of GPC and the General People’s Committees, whose members were secretaries of Libyan ministries and acted as the country’s government. At the BPC level, people debate and consult each other about the annual agenda of their local community and the country’s general affairs, and made their decisions and recommendations about this agenda.

The General People’s Committee was responsible for implementing national policies (Gaddafi, 1999; Wright, 1982; Secretariat of the GPC website, 2010; Ali, 2010). Although, in theory and by law, the system involved the total decentralisation of all decision making to the citizens themselves through BPCs, in practice the application of this system faced many difficulties and obstacles (Porter and Yergin, 2006). One of the most difficult obstacles was the change in the implementation of this system through continued restructuring of its legislative and executive institutions. During the last 30 years, several administrative systems have been adopted to move the political
system towards decentralisation such as the communes system and administrative divisions system. In 2000, further government restructuring was made to devolve more power to the local level. Only five ministries remained, while the others became consultative bodies rather than ministries (DPADM, 2004). These structural changes affected - and are still affecting - the efficiency and effectiveness of public policies in various areas and sectors. Mogherbi (2005) stated that the stability of the country’s institutions and structures is a critical factor in influencing the efficiency and effectiveness of public policies and how they achieve their objectives. He, therefore, argued that Libyan secretariats (ministries) in all sectors had seen many cases of merger, separation, and cancellation, which made it difficult to follow stable policies and programs in all sectors, especially in the economic sector.

As a result, many administrative problems appeared such as a high level of bureaucracy and an absence of accountability because of the instability of the institutions to be held accountable. The other main obstacle was that power and decision making remained in the hands of a central leadership of the secretaries of GPC and PC (DPADM, 2004). Indeed, in theory and by law, this contradicts the Libyan political system and the democracy concepts in the green book itself, which is based on the decentralisation of power and decision making. In this context, many Libyans agree that the principles of the revolution and political system were great but the implementation was gone awry and was wrong (Ali, 2010). Gaddafi himself frequently pointed out the discrepancy between reality and aspiration in Libya’s efforts to realise the values of the People’s Authority (Porter and Yergin, 2006). This situation influenced the level and quality of
Libya in general, and the situation of the Libyan people in particular. This was the main reason for the Libyan uprising against authoritarian rule that lasted for nearly 42 years while the people had been suffering from backwardness, ignorance and tyranny. The Revolution of February 17, 2011 against Gaddafi’s regime and the volume of the sacrifices made by the people are presented in the next section.

2.6 Libyan uprising
The Libyan uprising began in Benghazi on Tuesday, 15 February 2011 against Gaddafi’s regime which was discussed as the oldest in the world's dictatorships (Patrick, 2011). This uprising led to clashes with security forces of Gaddafi’s regime that fired on the crowd in Benghazi city then extending to the whole of the Eastern region. Thereafter, quickly, it turned to a tremendous revolution that invades all Libyan cities and the protests escalated into a rebellion that spread across the country with the forces opposing Gaddafi establishing an interim governing body, the National Transitional Council (NTC). The United Nations Security Council passed an initial resolution on 26 February 2011, freezing the assets of Gaddafi and his inner circle and restricting their travel, and referred the matter to the International Criminal Court for investigation. In early March 2011, Gaddafi’s forces rallied, pushed eastwards and re-took several coastal cities before reaching Benghazi. A further U.N. resolution authorised member states to establish and enforce a no-fly zone over Libya, and to use “all necessary measures” to prevent attacks on civilians.

Gaddafi’s government announced a ceasefire but failed to uphold it, though it then accused rebels of violating the ceasefire when they continued to fight. Throughout
the conflict, rebels rejected government offers of a ceasefire and efforts by the African Union to end the fighting failed because the plans set forth did not include the removal of Gaddafi. In August, rebel forces launched an offensive on the government-held coast of Libya, taking back territory lost months earlier and ultimately capturing the capital city of Tripoli, while Gaddafi evaded capture and loyalists engaged in a rearguard campaign. On 16 September 2011, the National Transitional Council was recognised by the United Nations as the legal representative of Libya, replacing the Gaddafi government. Muammar Gaddafi remained at large until 20 October 2011, when he was captured and killed while attempting to escape from Sirte. The National Transitional Council declared the liberation of Libya and the official end of the war on 23 October 2011.

After the announcement of liberation, the first democratic elections in the country for nearly 50 years were held on 7 July 2012 to elect a General National Congress (GNC). Once elected, the General National Congress appointed a Prime Minister and council of ministers (BBC News, 2012). The GNC was originally to be charged with appointing a Constituent Assembly to draw up Libya's new constitution but the National Transitional Council announced on 5 July that the Assembly would instead be directly elected at a later date (Gumuchian and Al Shalchi, 2012).

According to first counts, the liberal National Forces Alliance (NFA) did well in the northern areas except Misrata, whereas the race was more even in the south. The other key contenders were the Islamic Justice and Construction Party, which came in
second, and Al-Watan, which in the end won no seats at all (Dominique, 2012). However, on 17 July, the High National Election Commission announced provisional results. Mahmoud Jibril's National Forces Alliance (NFA) received 48.1%, taking 39 out of the 80 party-list seats. This was followed by the Justice and Construction Party (JCP), which received 10.3%, taking 17 seats, and third was the National Front Party with 4.1%, taking three seats. The Union for the Homeland and the National Centrist Party also took two seats each, as did the Wadi Al-Hayah Party for Democracy and Development. Fifteen other parties won one party list seat each (Libya Herald, 2012).

The election of Prime Minister was held in several rounds. In the first round Mahmoud Jibril (NFA) got 86 votes, Mustafa Abushagur got 55 votes and Awad Barasi (JCP) got 41 votes (Libya Herald, 2012). Then Abushagur defeated Jibril with 96 to 94. It is estimated that 25 independents are associated with the NFA, 17 with Justice and Construction, and 23 are Salafi (Swp-berlin, 2013).

2.7 Libyan Economy before the Discovery of Oil
The Libyan economy is one of the most important factors in shaping people's attitudes. Therefore, it is important to look at the development of the Libyan economy to determine the influence of this factor on people's attitudes and behaviour at work. Before the discovery of oil, Libya was a poor country and agriculture was the backbone of the Libyan economy. The majority of the workforce was engaged in agriculture and animal husbandry. Agriculture as a source of national income was
suffering from desertification because most of the land of Libya is desert with inadequate rainfall and harsh climatic conditions (Farely, 1971).

During the four decades before the discovery of oil, deficits were offset only by foreign aid from Italy, the United Kingdom, France and the United States of America (Gzema, 1999). The national income in 1950 was estimated at no more than $45 million. The total value of Libya's domestic exports was about $11 million, and the total value of Libya's imports was about $33 million. The total foreign aid that was given to the bank of Libya for the period 1952-1960 was estimated at $74 million (UN Report, 1965: 27).

2.8 The Libyan Economy after the Discovery of Oil

After oil was discovered and exported in commercial quantities in 1961, Libya’s socio and economic indicators increased at an exceptional rate (Mahmud and Russell, 2003). The subsequent income from sales of crude petroleum has made the petroleum sector the most important source of capital, and the most dominant sector in the Libyan economy (Mahmud and Russell, 2003). The income from oil revenues has enabled the Libyan government to develop the country’s economy, education, healthcare system, and the infrastructure (Wright, 1982). However, following the September Revolution in 1969, the Libyan economy experienced several significant changes following the shift in its political system. At first, and shortly after the Revolution, the Libyan government controlled at least 51% of the oil and banking sectors through the nationalisation of companies that had been controlled by foreign owners (Wright, 1982; Mahmud and Russell, 2003; CBL, 2006).
After publishing the second volume of the Green Book: “The Solution of the Economic Problem: Socialism” in 1978, the GPC announced the nationalisation of all private property and consequently the private sector (commerce) was fully abolished and prevented from exercising any kind of businesses even small retail trade. As a result, most of the Libyan economy became controlled and centrally planned up to the mid of 1990s. In terms of economic philosophy, the Green Book advocates an economy in which all individuals are in control of their own material needs such as the right to private ownership of one’s home and of goods produced individually and in partnership (Porter and Yergin, 2006). However, Libyan policy makers failed to develop models and mechanisms relevant to such economic philosophy and values. Therefore, the Libyan economy suffered from several setbacks and problems that limited the pace of its economic and human development.

Moreover, the dropping of world oil prices in the early 1980s and the political and economic sanctions imposed by the US and the UN in the 1990s caused a serious decline in Libyan economic activity and developed social and economic problems that require serious and concerted reform efforts (Ali, 2010). Indeed, the failure of the Libyan political and economic system to develop models and mechanisms that could deal with such problems led to public dissatisfaction with the imposed economic philosophy. While Libya had the highest GDP per capita in the region, its wealth was not fairly distributed as it should be, thus the majority of the Libyan people lived under the line of poverty (Porter and Yergin, 2006).
Against this background and after the lifting of US and UN sanctions in 2003, Libya embarked on a series of social, economic and legal reforms. It demonstrated its intention to move toward a free market economy. In doing so, Libya begun reviewing and enacting various laws such as allowing the private sector to participate in the national economy, paving the way for the privatisation of a number of public sector banks and companies, and attracting foreign investments. In addition, Libya applied to join the World Trade Organisation (WTO), and thus most of the laws were reviewed in the context of the WTO requirements (Ali, 2010).

Although some progress was made in implementing much-needed economic reforms, there were still many obstacles. Perhaps the most important obstacle is that Libya suffered from an unpredictable and cumbersome business environment, which was characterised by a high degree of administrative bureaucracy, institutional bottlenecks and inefficient (Wright, 1982). In such environment, coupled with opaque legal and institutional frameworks in the light of the People’s Committees system adopted in Libya, the decision-making was considered a complicated process in the light of People’s Committees system. The other serious obstacle was the inadequacy of skilled manpower and technicians that were necessary for the demands of the new private sector economy.

Although the Foreign Investment Law (1992) required foreign companies to train local workers, the Libyan education and technical training sector was unable to meet the needs of the free market economy. All these obstacles, ineffectiveness and uncertainty surrounding the reforms slowed the progress of reforms and hindered the
efforts to diversify the Libyan economy and achieve socio economic development (Ali, 2010; African Economic Outlook, 2010).

The most recent economic indicators show that the Libyan economy is still highly dependent on export revenues from crude oil and gas, which account for approximately 70% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP), and generate more than 90% of government revenues and contribute about 95% of export earnings, almost all of its foreign trade and foreign exchange earnings, and cover 60% of public sector wages (African Economic Outlook, 2010). Although the global financial crisis did not have significant impacts on Libya’s macroeconomic and financial sector, recent statistics indicate that real GDP growth slowed to minus 0.7% in 2009, a drop from an average growth of 6% between 2005 and 2008, due to the fall in international oil prices. However, economic growth returned to bounce back to 3.7 and 4% in 2010 and 2011 respectively (Colijn, 2012).

2.9 An Overview of the Libyan Oil and Gas Sector

Oil exploration in Libya began in 1955, the first oil fields were discovered in 1959, and oil exports started in 1961 (Terterov, 2002). Currently, Libya is the second largest oil producer in Africa and one of the biggest North African oil suppliers to Europe. Various published reports have cited Libya as the top international exploration prospect, since the Libyan Oil Sector has many advantages such as huge proven oil reserves estimated at 39 Billion Barrels (3.1 % of the world's total reserve) (British Petroleum, 2004). Production costs are among the lowest in the
world; the high quality of Libyan crude oil; and the proximity of Libya to Europe (Bahgat, 2004).

Libya's economy is based on oil and gas exports that contribute between 75 – 90% of state revenues (British Petroleum, 2004). Libya has a production capacity of 1.4 million barrels per day. During the period of political difficulties, foreign involvement in the Libyan oil industry was severely reduced as a result of the sanctions and embargoes imposed, especially between 1992 and 1999, and access to oil industry equipment and technology was restricted. Today, new Libya seeks to improve the oil sector by increasing the production capacity to 3 million barrels per day by the end of 2017 (NOC, 2012).

Indeed, building on the potential of the Libyan oil sector, substantial foreign investments started flowing since the mid – 2004 (Bahgat, 2004). The majority of these foreign investments were in the upstream activities (Exploration, Drilling and Production). Since September 2004, the National Oil Corporation (NOC) announced its acceptance of bids under the framework of Exploration and Production Sharing Agreements (EPSA), and in January 2005, it launched a bid-opening session at which 11 blocks went to US companies such as Occidental, Amerada Hess and Chevron-Texaco. Other licences went to companies from India, Canada and Australia. Also, at the same time, the NOC held Round Two of EPSA, during which many foreign companies made successful bids to enter such agreements (NOC, 2006). Inevitably, these overseas companies require large numbers of employees to
operate in Libya, and according to the contracts between themselves and the NOC, they must employ Libyan nationals, and accept responsibility for training 20% of these nationals annually, either locally or overseas (NOC, 2006). Unfortunately, most of the oil companies, which had a contract with NOC, left the country due to a lack of appropriate security conditions as a result of the spread of weapons among the people and the locking of export oil ports by some groups, which represent guard oil installations, for the purpose of achieving political goals. This closure is still ongoing and tribal efforts are being made to solve the problem.

2.10 The National Oil Corporation (NOC)
Libya's oil industry is run by the state-owned National Oil Corporation (NOC), along with smaller subsidiary companies, which when combined are responsible for around half of the country's oil output. Several international oil companies such as Wintershall, Eni – Gas and Expro are engaged in exploration/production agreements with NOC. The National Oil Corporation (NOC) was established in 1970 to assume the responsibility for the oil sector operations. It was later reorganised under Decision No: 10/1979 by the General Secretariat of the General People's Congress, to undertake the realisation of the objectives of the development plan in the areas of petroleum by supporting the national economy through increasing, developing and exploiting the oil reserves and operating and investing in those reserves, to realise optimum returns (Annual Report of the National Oil Corporation, 2004).

In carrying out its activities, the NOC may enter into partnership agreements with other companies and corporations carrying out similar activities. Therefore, the NOC carries out exploration and production operations through its own affiliated
companies, or in partnership with other companies under service contracts or any other kind of petroleum investment agreements. This role is in addition to the marketing of oil and gas, locally and abroad. For this purpose, the NOC has its own fully-owned companies, which undertake exploration, development and production operations, in addition to local and international marketing companies (Datamonitor, 2005). Moreover, the NOC has partnership agreements with specialised international companies such as Chevron Oil Company. These agreements have developed into exploration and production-sharing agreements in accordance with the development of the international oil and gas industry and international petroleum marketing (Oleynik et al., 2005).

Also, the NOC owns national service companies, which carry out oil well-drilling and work-over operations, provide all drilling material and equipment lay and maintain oil and gas pipelines, build and maintain oil and gas storage tanks, and conduct related technical and economic studies. They also provide the sector with other services such as catering, procurement of materials and equipment, training and employment of foreign employees.

The executive management committee of NOC consists of the Chairman, vice chairman and member of committee and four members of management committee, member of investment and joint venture follow up, member of marketing and
manufacturing, member of exploration and production and the member of financial and administrative affairs.

The chairman of the NOC acts as the Minister of Oil and Gas, and is appointed by the General People's Congress while the vice chairman is appointed by the Minister of Oil and Gas, and has to be a very highly qualified and has a long experience within the oil companies. (Stanford University, 2006).

Figure 2.2 below shows the organisational structure of the Libyan National Oil Corporation NOC.
Figure 2.2: National Oil Corporation, Libya - Organisational Structure

- National Oil Corporation (NOC)
  - Downstream oil companies:
    - Zawia Oil Refining company
    - Ras Lanuf Oil & Gas Processing Co
    - Brega Petroleum Marketing CO
    - National Drilling & work over CO
    - Jowfe oil Technology CO
    - Hamada Pipeline CO
    - National Oil Fields & Terminal Catering company
  - Upstream oil companies:
    - Multinational companies:
      - Agip Oil Ltd. Company
      - Eni/Agip Gas Company
      - International Petroleum Libya Ltd. Co
      - Total/ Fina / Elf Company
      - Winter shell AG Company
      - Repsol Exploration Company
      - OMV Exploration & Production CO
      - Veba Exploration Company
    - National companies:
      - Waha oil company
      - Arabian Gulf oil company
      - Sirte oil Co for production and processing of oil & gas
      - Zuetina oil company

Adopted from NOC, 2012
2.11 Description of the companies studied
In this section a brief introduction will be given to the companies chosen for this study. The companies that have been selected for this study are:

2.11.1 Oil Arab Gulf Company (AGOCO)
According to Law No. (115/71), issued on the 7th of December 1971, the Arabian Gulf Exploration Company (AGOCO) (as it was then known) was established when the shares of the British Petroleum Company (PB) were nationalized in concession No. 65, covering the Sarir field. AGOCO was established as a Libyan incorporated company owned by the Libyan State. The company started by operating one oil field (Sarir) and one oil terminal (Marsa El Hariega-Toibruk). Over the years it has grown extensively, improved and became the owner and operator of eight oil fields, one terminal for exporting crude oil, and two refineries. AGOCO was the first oil company to be completely owned by the Libyan state and is now one of the biggest oil companies in Libya, and is one of the largest oil companies in North Africa (Agoco, 2012).

2.11.2 Oil Zueitina Company
Based on the frozen assets of Occidental International in 1986 and in compliance with the regulations of the General People's Committee Decision No. 351/1986, dated on 24 Ramadan 1395 (June, 1986), Zueitina Oil Company was incorporated as a Libyan owned Company with a mandate to carry out the whole range of oil operations at the provided areas in accordance with the concession contracts which were subjected to the Joint and Sharing Agreements made between the National Oil Corporation (NOC), Occidental International, American, and OMV Libya Ltd (Zueitina, 2012).
2.11.3 Al Jouf Company of Oil Technology (JOT)
The JOT was founded in 1983 under the Commercial Registration No 7102, as the only national company specializing in several service activities in the field of oil and gas, and associated with exploration, drilling and production. The company provides engineering services in the oil field and petrochemical processing factories. For example, engineering services were engaged in the provision of drilling chemical materials. Also, the company provides services for packaging wells and connecting pipes production and pipeline oil, as well as checks on the casing, drilling, production and drilling equipment and fishing, and providing services and manufacturing workshops and maintenance of oil (Joufe, 2012).

2.11.4 Al Brega Oil Marketing
This company was established in accordance with Law No. 74 in 1971, after the integration of the National Company for the distribution of petroleum products, with Brega distribution of petroleum products and Sidra for the distribution of petroleum products in one company wholly owned by the National Oil Corporation (NOC), under the name of Brega oil marketing. The activities of the company are limited to the marketing of petroleum products and complementary goods inside Libya. It also has the right to establish storage repositories and stations for oil and gas. The company has sought to develop and modernize warehouses and raise storage capacity for all products to keep up with developments and consumption of all products to meet the needs of the local market. The most important products distributed by the company are liquefied gas, gasoline 95 – 98, domestic kerosene,
aviation kerosene, diesel, heavy fuel oil, tar, industrial oils, industrial grease, gas cylinders and water refrigerant (Brega, 2013).

However, all the oil companies selected for this study are located in Benghazi, as this study was conducted during the Libyan uprising where the security circumstances were not suitable for the study to be carried out in the whole Libyan oil companies.

2.12 The challenges of the new Libya
Libya’s chances of a successful transition to stability and prosperity will be significantly enhanced if it creates a favourable environment for the private sector investments and expands its output of oil and natural gas. Here again, the challenges are considerable. Like its political system, Libya’s economy suffers from the legacies of Qaddafi’s regime. Qaddafi’s economic policy aimed at ensuring control over the population rather than economic development. Oil revenues were essential to his ability to use patronage as a source of political support. His regime used state-owned enterprises, restrictions on foreign trade and foreign investment, and subsidies for food, fuel, and other goods and services to cultivate loyalty and prevent the emergence of alternative power bases (Dirk, 2012). Economic policy under Qaddafi, in other words, was aimed solely at keeping the regime in power. Recurrent efforts throughout Qaddafi’s rule to improve economic performance through market reforms were shelved as soon as they ran counter to the regime’s control over the country. As a result, Libya’s non energy private sector remains underdeveloped, leaving both the government and the citizens reliant on income from hydrocarbons.
In 2011, energy production accounted for 65 percent of GDP and 80 percent of government revenues. Though per capita income was fairly high at $14,100, an estimated one third of the Libyan population lived below the poverty line (Vandevalle, 2012). So although the challenges facing Libya’s economy are complex and broad, this study focuses on a few key issues in the energy sector. The country’s 47.1 billion barrels in proven reserves are the largest in Africa and among the top ten countries in the world. Libya has also substantial natural gas reserves 16% Hydrocarbons, especially oil, account for 95 % of export earnings, 90 percent of government revenues, and 70 % of gross domestic product. Oil production almost stopped during the war, but it has since reached 1.6 million barrels a day (and should fully recover to pre-conflict levels of 1.8 barrels). Production of natural gas has resumed as well (International Monetary Fund, 2012). Hydrocarbons will continue to provide Libya with a valuable source of income.

However, the mismanagement of Libya’s oil and natural gas could lead to greater corruption, prop up inefficient government subsidies, and subvert the development of the private sector, potentially derailing Libya’s long-term political and economic development. To ensure the economic stability and prosperity of the post-Qaddafi state, Libya will need to use its energy resources wisely and make sound decisions about how to distribute the revenues generated by these resources (Rand Corporation, 2012).

This study expects to give employees in the oil company an opportunity to express their thoughts and feelings towards their work environment. It means there is enough opportunities for employees in the Libyan Oil Companies through new Libya to
express their thoughts and feelings towards their work environment including their relationship with co-workers. Of course, this represents a strong motive for those employees to be satisfied which in turn lead to increase their productivity. Overall, these positive attitudes did not have enough influence to improve performance. Thus, all the rules and laws that organise the job in the Libyan companies in particular and the Libyan organisations in general should be changed or modified according to new challenges that face new Libya. For example, dissatisfaction with reward system, lack of training opportunities, lack of autonomy and independence, lack of advancement and promotion opportunities have negative impact that contribute to produce poor attitudes and adversely affect job performance. However, the Libyan Oil Companies have experienced, according to their own reports, high levels of dissatisfaction.

Thus, the Libyan oil organisations should recognise the advantages that they can get from the Libyan uprising such as employees' loyalty and good relationships between management and employees to achieve the organisational goals. Also, these organisations should understand more about the factors that may keep employees more dissatisfied with their jobs.

2.13 Conclusion
This chapter has provided an overview of the major aspects of Libyan socio–economic and political context, starting with geography and population in terms of location, area and neighbouring countries. The geographical location of Libya gives it a great importance in the Arab World in particular and in the African Continent in
general as well as its closeness to Europe. As a result of this position, Libya has been subjected to foreign colonisation and military invasions for more than three thousand years. Also, the chapter highlighted the cultural aspects of Libya which have been influenced by the values of Islam.

The chapter focused on Libyan culture and it found that Libyan society still consists of extended families and tribes with strong social cohesion. The Libyan families and tribes are influenced by Islamic norms and Arabic culture that are considered the most dominant elements to individual and group behaviour, social values, beliefs, attitudes, state laws, political system and economy.

In addition, the chapter has shown that the Libyan economy is one of the important factors in shaping people's attitudes and behaviour. Oil revenues have a significant impact on economic and social development. The increase in oil revenues gave Libya the opportunity to set up several economic and social development plans. Libya faces serious political and economic challenges following the recent revolution of February 17, 2011.

An overview of the Libyan Oil and Gas Sector, including the companies which will be the subject of this study is provided in order to highlight the current employee relations problems that have led to this study being carried out. The next chapter provides a conceptual review of the literature on job satisfaction and motivation.
CHAPTER THREE: JOB SATISFACTION AND MOTIVATION: A CONCEPTUAL ANALYSIS

3.1 Introduction
Job satisfaction is one of the most widely covered subjects in the management literature as it is considered as one of the determinants of quality in the working environment of any organization (Loi and Yang, 2009). Therefore, this chapter is primarily devoted to the review of literature on job motivation and satisfaction in general, focusing on the conceptual analysis of the different terms of this application. Also, the major theories of motivation and job satisfaction are reviewed and the relationship between job satisfaction and employees’ turnover is discussed. The main aim of this chapter is to present and discuss the literature regarding motivation and job satisfaction. The meaning of motivation and job satisfaction and the relationship between them is outlined. Also, a brief review of motivation theories, which offer the logical basis for the understanding of how to motivate people, is provided.

3.2 Motivation
According to Thompson and McHugh (2002), motivation is one of the most important factors that determine the existence of any organization. They add that determining and understanding the factors that motivate employees is an essential need and the performance of any organization depends on the availability of a satisfied and motivated workforce. Also, Analoui (2007) pointed out that motivation is one of the parameters of managerial effectiveness. He states that motivation can
influence workers’ effectiveness. Moreover, Gage and Berliner (1992) believe that motivation generates the energy and controls the behaviour of people in organisations.

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 be due to the fact that these definitions reflect their own perceptions and experiences in a specific research area (Luthans, 1995). A more detailed definition was presented by Analoui (2000:324), when he illustrated that motivation is the internal drive necessary to guide people’s actions and behaviours toward the achievement of some goals. This drive or force comes from the desire to satisfy certain needs and expectations. Likewise, Luthans (1995: 141) points out that the key to understanding the process of motivation lies in the meaning of the relationship between needs, drives, and incentives. Therefore, according to this point of view, motivation is a process that starts with a physiological or psychological deficiency or need that activates behaviour or a drive that is aimed at a goal or incentive. Other researchers see motivation as an internal state that encourages people to behave in a certain way in order to accomplish specifically desired goals (Spector, 1997).

Moreover, the term motivation is used to express the willingness to increase one’s efforts on a specific task in order to get specific incentives (Molander, 1996). Also, according to Steers et al., (1996: 8) motivation is about “how behaviour 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 above definitions may seem to vary, the general definition is that motivation is a dynamic process that starts with human needs which, in turn, make people act in a certain way to achieve organizational goals and objectives, and hence satisfy their needs. However, there are three common denominators which characterise the phenomenon, when researchers discuss motivation (Steers et al, 1996: 8). They focus primarily on the following questions:

(1) What energizes human behaviour?
(2) What directs or channels such behaviour?
(3) How this behaviour is maintained or sustained within organizations?

In order to answer these questions, there is an urgent need to highlight the concept of satisfaction because understanding job satisfaction is as complex as understanding a human-being behaviour and what satisfies workers today may not satisfy them tomorrow. At the same time, what satisfies them in one place might not satisfy them elsewhere. Thus, the meaning of job satisfaction and its relationships to motivation is presented in the next section.

3.3 Job satisfaction

It is important to begin this research by displaying the different definitions of job satisfaction which may help in understanding what makes people feel satisfied in their workplace. Job satisfaction is considered as one of the most widely researched employee behaviours (Rayton, 2006). The term “satisfaction” is normally used to
describe the status of people when their needs have been fulfilled. Thus, job satisfaction is 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. For instance, it is defined as:

A pleasurable or positive emotional state, resulting from the perception of one’s job as fulfilling or allowing the fulfillment of one’s important job values, providing these values are compatible with one’s physical and psychological needs (McPhee and Townsend, 1992:117).

Moreover, Evans (2001:12) defined Job satisfaction as:

A state of mind encompassing all those feelings determined by the extent to which the individual perceives her/his job-related needs to be being met.

Also, Sempane et al (2002:30) describe job satisfaction as:

An individual’s personal assessment of conditions prevalent in the job, thus evaluation occurs on the basis of factors which they regard as important to them.

Furthermore, Spector (2008: 223) defines job satisfaction as: “an attitudinal variable that reflects how people feel about their jobs”. Also, Chen (2008:118) pointed that: “Job satisfaction describes the feelings, attitudes or preferences of individuals regarding work”. Moreover, studies by Maidani (1991), Volkwein and Zhou (2003) and Sharma and Jyoti (2006) have shown that job satisfaction is a multidimensional construct consisting of intrinsic and extrinsic needs. For instance, intrinsic aspects of the job comprise factors such as feelings of accomplishment, recognition, autonomy, achievement, and advancement among employees, while extrinsic aspects of the job, often point out to the factors which include pay, security, physical working
conditions, company policies and administration, supervision, hours of work, and union relations with management (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2006). Other studies have found that job satisfaction is influenced by an array of personal and job characteristics such as age, gender, tenure, autonomy, teamwork, relationships with co-workers and supervisors, job variety, pay and training among others (Volkwein and Parmley, 2000; Volkwein and Zhou, 2003; Lambert, 2004; Lambert et al, 2007).

On the contrary, Dawis (2004) suggests two basic components of the term satisfaction: a cognitive or evaluative component (the perception that one’s needs are being fulfilled) and an affective or emotional component (the feeling that accompanies the cognition). However, Adolphs and Damasio (2001) argue that cognitions are easier to separate from affect in theory than in practice, but isolating the two components conceptually does not deny their close connections (Judge et al., 2009). According to Judge and Klinger (2008: 396):

*Cognition and affect concepts can help us better understand the nature of job satisfaction, but they are not substitutes for job satisfaction any more than the accumulated body parts of a cadaver substitute for a living human.*

Moreover, Mosadeghrad and Yarmohammadian (2006) point out that the key to understanding job satisfaction is to consider the difference between what a worker experiences on the job and what he or she wants or expects to find. However, Spector (2008) indicates that the concept of job satisfaction has shifted from need fulfilment to job satisfaction as an attitudinal variable. For instance, employees can have an attitude of being engaged with or disassociated from their organisation.
Therefore, he defines job satisfaction as an attitudinal variable that reflects how people feel about their jobs (Spector, 2008:223). While Armstrong (2004:239) defines job satisfaction as:

*The attitudes and feelings people have about their work. Such feelings towards work are often evaluated via measures of job satisfaction. Positive and favourable attitudes towards the job indicate job satisfaction. Negative and unfavourable attitudes towards the job indicate job dissatisfaction.*

Although there are many definitions of job satisfaction, they all agree that employees’ perceptions, expectations and attitudes in the workplace influence their overall level of job satisfaction. As summarized by Schermerhorn et al., (2005:158), job satisfaction is “the degree to which people feel positively or negatively about a job and its various facets”. Similarly, Al-Saadi (1996:41) defines job satisfaction as the feelings of an employee’s contentment, when he states:

*Certain internal feelings are dependent on the personality of the employee which takes into account the extent of his contentment with the main factors of the job in the organisation. These feelings control the employee’s character, behaviour and conduct making him delighted in the state of satisfaction but distressed in the state of dissatisfaction, which is consequently reflected in his productivity and contribution to the work.*

However, generally, 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 and extrinsic needs) and its strength depends on the degree of meeting individuals’ expectations. This feeling controls and drives the employee’s behaviour and work attitude, which may in return have an effect on the organizational functioning.
Nevertheless, it can be seen that understanding job satisfaction is as complex as understanding a human behaviour. Thus, for more understanding of job satisfaction, it is important to highlight its relationship with motivation as explained in the next section.

3.4 The relationship between motivation and job satisfaction

From the previous definitions of both motivation and job satisfaction it can be seen that there is a strong relationship between motivation and job satisfaction. Some researchers assume that they are very similar and can be used simultaneously while other researchers see job satisfaction as a consequence of job motivation. For example, according to Sorge and Warner (1997), job satisfaction is considered the main result of work motivation. They add that when the individuals need something, that need will cause tension, which will give rise to actions toward achieving the goals that may lead to satisfying their needs which, in turn, finally result in satisfaction. Those who see job motivation as a consequence of job satisfaction argue that managers can enhance employees’ motivation by increasing their job satisfaction (Kreitner et al., 2002). At the same time, some researchers assume that job satisfaction and motivation are different phenomena. For example, 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. However, generally, it can be concluded that job satisfaction and motivation are not the same, as each has its own identity. Thus, organizations must be aware that highly motivated employees might not necessarily be the most satisfied ones.
Overall, for more understanding to the concept of motivation and job satisfaction and what the differences between them there is an essential need to review the most important motivation theories in order to understand what generates and controls human behaviour. Therefore, the next section will shed light on the major motivation theories in order to increase understanding of job satisfaction as follows.

3.5 Motivation theories
In order to gain insight into questions such as what makes some people more satisfied with their jobs than others and what underlying processes account for people’s feelings of job satisfaction, various theories of motivation are presented in the next section. 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 them into content and process theories (Foster, 2000; Rollinson, 2008).

3.5.1 Content theories
The main interest of content theories is to find out what controls and organizes the human behaviour. They are mainly concerned with what motivates people, and what kind of rewards can enhance people’s satisfaction and performance. These theories assume that the manager’s job is to create a work environment that responds positively to individual needs (Schermerhorn et al., 2005). 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 behaviour.*
Moreover, the content theories 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). Thus, they are not very useful in predicting people’s behaviour 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 section will mainly concentrate on four of the most prominent and well known content theories of work motivation. These theories are:

1) Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory.
2) Herzberg’s Motivator-Hygiene theory.
3) Alderfer’s ERG theory.
4) Equity theory.
5) Expectation theory.

3.5.1.1 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 attempted to describe the human behaviour toward satisfying different human needs (Kreitner et al., 2002). 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, once one of these needs has been satisfied, it will lose its effect as a motivator and the person starts focusing on satisfying the next higher need which has been activated (Hilgert and Leonard, 1995; Luthans, 1995). In analysing Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory, Steers et al (1996) demonstrated that people
move from the bottom to the top of the need hierarchy through an active cycle of deprivation, domination, gratification and activation. For instance, when a person feels deprivation (unsatisfied need) in one of the hierarchy levels, this will direct his/her action towards satisfying this particular need. In other words, if a person needs to satisfy his/her safety and security needs, he/she will start ignoring satisfying his/her higher-order needs. However, once he/she has met this need, the higher need will be activated and he/she will try to satisfy it, thus repeating this cycle of action until he reaches the peak of the need hierarchy. In this regard, Maslow categorizes the basic human needs into five levels in a hierarchical order, namely physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem needs and self-actualization needs, which can be illustrated in the following figure.

**Figure 3.1: Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs**

Adapted from the work of Buchanan and Huczynski, (2004:246).

The five types of needs are described 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 (e.g. 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 behaviour.

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 becomes 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 lay off or dismissal), 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, 2012).

4- Self-Esteem Needs
This represents one of the higher human needs. It includes the needs for high power, high status, and 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 (1970) 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.

5- Self-Actualization Needs
This category is related to the opportunity for the individual to become everything they are capable of becoming. According to Spector (2008), Maslow did not define self-actualisation needs clearly, because he defined it simply as the desire to become everything that one is capable of becoming. This need differs from the previous four because when the need for self-actualisation is gratified, it increases in strength. This growth is endless and can never be attained or satisfied. In an organisational context, this would include the need for freedom and creativity.
In this hierarchy of needs, Maslow indicated that job satisfaction exists when the job and the environment surrounding the job meet an individual’s hierarchical needs. However, people will never fulfil these needs completely. Thus, specific needs will still dominate their behaviour. The result of the inability to meet and satisfy any of these needs will bring about frustration and will prevent the next need from emerging. Although Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory is well known, it has been criticised for the lack of empirical support (Eyal and Roth, 2011). The following are some of the main criticisms:

- Locke and Henne (1986) state that Maslow's statement of theory is rather vague, making it difficult to test. According to Wahba and Bridwell (1976), there is no clear evidence showing that human needs can be classified into five categories or structured in a special hierarchy. Spector (2008) argues that the validity of the theory is still questionable, as very little is known about the ultimate goal for humans, namely, the need for self-actualisation.

- Maslow’s theory maintains that people will look to attain higher level needs only when lower needs have been satisfied. Maybe this is not practical because people are acutely aware of higher needs even though their fundamental physiological needs have not been fully met (Bennett, 1997). As, Martin (2001) argues, the amount of satisfaction needed at a specific level before a higher level need is activated is unknown. He also maintains that organisational events can impact on satisfaction at more than one level in the hierarchy. For example, money can be used to satisfy needs at every level in the hierarchy.
• The idea that lower needs will stop affecting behaviour when they have been satisfied is doubtful because some of them are continuous needs such as the need for food, drink and air and different needs are present to determine behaviour simultaneously, horizontally and vertically (Buck, 1988; Bennett, 1997).

• Maslow’s theory fails not only to account for individual differences and professional differences but also cultural differences because different cultures have different values and needs (Rollinson, 2008). Also, social environments influence individuals’ perceptions, culture and lifestyle of the societies in which people live (Bennett, 1997). Moreover, another study reports that needs vary according to a person’s career stage, the size of the organisation, and even geographic location (Schermerhorn et al., 2005:123).

3.5.1.2 Herzberg’s Motivator-Hygiene Theory
Herzberg et al. (1959) postulated a two-factor theory that categorises the factors affecting job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. This theory is considered as one of the best known content theories in this regard (Schneider and George, 2011). Herzberg simply asked 200 engineers and accountants to report the times they felt exceptionally good about their jobs and the times they felt exceptionally bad about them. After categorising the responses and analysing them, Herzberg and his associates isolated two sets of factors that determine job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. These two sets of factors are motivators (or satisfiers) and hygiene (or dissatisfiers). The motivator hygiene theory also describes the concept of job
satisfaction with two dimensions (intrinsic factors and extrinsic factors). However, this theory differs from Maslow's theory as it has been based on empirical findings. Table 3.1 below presents the factors causing job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

**Figure 3.2: Factors Affecting Job Attitudes in Herzberg’s Motivation-Hygiene Theory**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hygiene Factors</th>
<th>Motivators Factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic Factors - Factors that lead to Job Dissatisfaction</td>
<td>Intrinsic Factors - Factors that lead to Job Satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company policies and administration</td>
<td>Achievement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>Recognition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relations – supervisor</td>
<td>Work itself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working conditions</td>
<td>Responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary</td>
<td>Advancement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relations – peers</td>
<td>Growth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal life</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relations – subordinates</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job security</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adopted from Herzberg (1968: 23)

The mechanism of Herzberg’s theory is that the presence of motivator factors, which relate to job content, produce job satisfaction but their absence do not lead to job dissatisfaction. Achievement, recognition and responsibility are examples of motivating factors. However, the presence of hygiene factors, which relate to the job context or working environment, do not produce feelings of satisfaction but their absence leads to job dissatisfaction. Examples of hygiene factors are salary, supervision and job security.

The most surprising factor among hygiene factors is salary. Herzberg found that a low salary makes people dissatisfied while paying them more does not necessarily satisfy them (Schermerhorn et al., 2005). In other words, Herzberg’s ideas were
different from other researchers who dealt with satisfaction and dissatisfaction as opposites. Herzberg argued that the factors that lead to satisfaction are totally different from those factors that lead to job dissatisfaction. He believed that the opposite of satisfaction is zero satisfaction and the opposite of dissatisfaction is zero dissatisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959).

In spite of the major contribution Herzberg’s theory has made to understanding job satisfaction, there are serious criticisms:

- Locke (1976) stated that the idea of separate and independent factors seemed to be logically and empirically indefensible. He affirmed that these factors are separable but interdependent. Also, research has shown that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors contribute to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Therefore, there is no clear cut link between the factors causing satisfaction and those causing dissatisfaction (Rollinson, 2008; Talal, 2011). According to Kreitner and Kinicki (2006) some hygiene factors such as salary and supervision are related to job satisfaction.

- Several problems have been identified in relation to the methodology used in Herzberg’s study. For example, (a) some of the findings contradict the theory; (b) the findings differ depending on the method of data collection; and (c) the hypotheses and criterion measures are ambiguous (Schermerhorn et al., 2005). Moreover, Herzberg did not say how motivator and hygiene factors contribute to the creation of overall job satisfaction (Gruneberg, 1979; Harris and Cole, 2007).
The theory fails to take sufficient account of individual and cultural differences. Hulin (1966) argues that Herzberg’s theory ignored the role of individual and cultural variables in job situations. Just as Maslow's theory can be criticised for its assumption of universal applicability, so can Herzberg's theory. According to Rollinson (2008), what are hygiene factors in one person or culture could be motivators in another and vice versa. For example, Herzberg views money as a hygiene factor that determines dissatisfaction but for some employees it may motivate and satisfy them (Hellriegel and Slocum, 2004; Gruneberg 1979; Heathfield, 2009).

Despite such criticisms of Herzberg’s theory from researchers, an important application of the theory was an approach called 'job enrichment', which was used to improve satisfaction in the work place (Dawis, 2004:473). It is argued that job enrichment helps managers to organize changes in specific job characteristics to promote job satisfaction. Herzberg’s work also was the basis for Hackman and Oldham's (1975) job characteristics theory, which is discussed later.

Rollinson (2008) states that content theories do not contradict each other and since each theory stresses a different pattern of needs, it is more appropriate to view them as complimentary. In order to reconcile Maslow's approach to that of Herzberg, the basic and social needs in Maslow's hierarchy can be considered as Herzberg's hygiene factors in that they can cause dissatisfaction if they are not fulfilled. Moreover, the esteem and self-actualization indicated by Maslow can be considered as Herzberg's motivators, the absence of which does not lead to dissatisfaction. Roberg and Kuykendall (1997) indicated that Maslow’s and Herzberg’s theories
provide a useful theoretical framework for empirically assessing, for example, police officers' job satisfaction.

3.5.1.3 Alderfer’s ERG Theory
Clayton P. Alderfer (1972) is an American psychologist who extended and reformulated Maslow’s theory. This theory can be considered as a variant of Maslow’s theory. However, in contrast to Maslow, his theory was developed specifically for explaining work behaviour in organizational settings (Steers et al., 1996). Alderfer argued that the five need categories in Maslow’s hierarchy of needs could be merged into three main categories. These are: 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). Also, the need of existence refers to all forms of basic material and physiological needs required to maintain human existence. For instance, 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). While, 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 cannot satisfy the relatedness apart from others. Thus it cannot be satisfied without mutuality (Schneider and Alderfer, 1973). Moreover, growth needs are associated with the development of one’s potential (Steers et al., 1996).

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; Luthans, 2005; Newstrom, 2007). 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). Thus, the order of the needs may differ from one person to another according to his/her preferences and own needs.

Also, the flexibility of the ERG theory enables it to explain a wider range of human behaviour. For instance, 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 because 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 behaviour. For instance, if an individual cannot satisfy his/her growth needs, frustration regression occurs, causing the individual to focus on fulfilling his/her relatedness or existence needs (Steers et al., 1996). However, ERG theory can be considered as a refinement of the hierarchy need theory. It helps the management to understand its employees’ behaviour and to realize that their employees have a set of needs that can be satisfied simultaneously.
(Arnolds and Boshoff, 2011). Thus, they can increase employees’ motivation by understanding the nature of the relationship between these needs. For instance, if management cannot satisfy the growth needs of their employees they should redirect their efforts towards 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 and 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, Rauschenberg et al., (1980) examined both Maslow and ERG theories and found a high positive correlation 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.
3.5.1.4 Relationships between Different Content Theories

Despite the differences between the motivation theories discussed in the previous section, there are several points at which the theories intersect. Figure 3.3 below illustrates the similarities among the three previous theories.

**Figure 3.3: Relationships among content motivation theories**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of motivation</th>
<th>Herzberg’s Categories</th>
<th>Maslow’s categories</th>
<th>Alderfer’s E-R-G Categories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intrinsic</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Work itself</td>
<td></td>
<td>Growth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Possibility of growth</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Advancement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Motivators</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Extrinsic</strong></td>
<td>Status</td>
<td></td>
<td>Social needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relation with supervisors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Peer relations</td>
<td></td>
<td>Safety-interpersonal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relations with subordinates</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Company policies</td>
<td></td>
<td>Safety-material</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Job security</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Working conditions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pay</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hygiene</td>
<td>Existence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adopted from Luthans (1995:89)

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. The growth needs in ERG theory are equivalent to Maslow’s self-actualization needs and the esteem which relies on self-confirmed esteem (one’s internal standards); it is also equivalent to a part of Herzberg’s motivators.

Generally, although the need theories differ in determining the number of human needs and the relationships between these needs, they do agree on the fact that satisfying these needs is a basic pillar in motivating employees’ behaviour (Greenberg and Baron, 1997). However, the main deficiency of the content theories is that they cannot explain the complexity of human motivation process (Luthans, 1995).

3.5.2 Process Theories
Process theories (also referred to as cognitive theories) go further than merely identifying the basic needs that motivate people. They recognise that needs are highly personalised and can vary for each individual over time (Rollinson, 2008). Therefore, process theories aim to analyse the thought processes that determine behaviour (Schermerhorn et al., 2005). In other words, process theories are
concerned with how behaviour is initiated, directed and sustained. They attempt to answer questions like; how do satisfaction processes actually operate? For instance, how is an individual's satisfaction shaped by their perception of what has happened to them in the past and/or what might happen to them in the future as a consequence of their actions (Murray et al., 2006). Adams’s equity theory (1965) and Vroom's expectancy theory (1964) are examples of process theories.

3.5.2.1 Adams' Equity Theory
Adams (1963), a behavioural scientist working at the General Electric Company, proposed the concept that an employee’s perception of fairness in comparison with that of others influences their motivation and job satisfaction. Equity is achieved when the ratio of an employee’s outcomes (for example, pay, recognition and promotion) to inputs (for example, experience, education, qualification, effort and skills) is equal to that of other employees (Adams, 1963). That is, employees will evaluate how much they receive from the job (outcomes) in relation to their contribution (inputs). Each employee compares his or her ratio to the ratios of employees working inside or outside the organisation. When workers perceive their compensation as being equal to what other workers receive for similar contributions, they will believe that their treatment is fair and equitable. According to this theory, equity exists only when a person’s perception of his input and outcome is equal to the input and outcome of others in a similar position. Likewise, Dawis (2004) and Spector (2008) argue that if the ratios are equal, the result is job satisfaction, although with different consequences for positive and negative inequities.
Also, feelings of inequity might arise when a person’s ratio of outcomes to inputs is either less or greater than that of other employees. For instance, when workers think the salary they receive is relatively less than that received by others in work inputs, they will perceive a feeling of negative inequity, whereas workers who feel the salary they receive is relatively greater than that received by others will have the feeling of positive inequity (Schermerhorn et al., 2005; Spector, 2006). According to Adams (1963), underpayment or negative inequity leads to anger and positive or overpayment inequity induces guilt. Consequently, perceived inequity can lead to negative outcomes, such as tensions and dissatisfaction and a high turnover rate. However, employees will be motivated to reduce inequity through several methods such as changing the inputs (for example, reducing performance efforts), changing the outcomes (for example, asking for rewards), cognitive distortion of inputs and outcomes, leaving the field (for example, resigning), influencing others, or changing the object of comparison (Daft, 2003).

**Figure 3.4: Description of Equity and Inequity**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Equity</th>
<th>Person A</th>
<th>Person B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inputs (100%) =</td>
<td>Inputs (100%) =</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Outcomes (100%) =</td>
<td>Outcomes (100%) =</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative or Underpayment Inequity</td>
<td>Inputs (100%) =</td>
<td>Inputs (100%) =</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>= Outcomes (100%)</td>
<td>= Outcomes (130%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive or overpayment Inequity</td>
<td>Inputs (100%) =</td>
<td>Inputs (100%) =</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>= Outcomes (130%)</td>
<td>= Outcomes (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adopted from Abdulla (2009:43)
Although equity theory is considered a key aspect of process theories of motivation, it has been criticised by some researchers as follows:

- Equity theory oversimplifies the motivational issues by not considering individual needs and perceptions. This oversimplification becomes very important when the workforce becomes more varied. The feeling of equity or inequity will depend on the worker’s perception, which may be inaccurate, not to mention the individual differences in terms of the sensitivity to equity ratios and the balance of preference (Riggio, 1990).

- The components of the comparison in the equity theory are highly subjective, which is difficult to test empirically (Boddy, 2005; Vroom, 1964). Also, the inputs to and outputs from a job might not be accurately identified by individuals (Bennett, 1997).

- Cross-cultural differences may play a role in employees’ preference for equity. Therefore, people who feel underpaid are less comfortable than those who feel overpaid. These results are particularly tied to individualistic cultures, where self-interest tends to govern social comparison, more than to collectivist cultures. The concern of collectivist cultures, such as those of many Asian countries, often focuses more on equality than on equity. This allows for solidarity with the group and helps to maintain harmony in social relationships (Schmerhorn et al., 2005).
3.5.2.2 Vroom's Expectancy Theory

The Expectancy Theory of Motivation is one of the process theories. It provides an explanation of why individuals choose one behavioural option over others. The basic idea behind the theory is that people will be motivated because they believe that their decision will lead to their desired outcome (Redmond, 2009). Expectancy theory proposes that work motivation is dependent on the perceived association between performance and outcomes and individuals modify their behaviour based on their calculation of anticipated outcomes (Fang, 2008). This has a practical and positive benefit of improving motivation because it could help leaders create motivational programmes in the workplace (Fang, 2008). This theory is built upon the idea that motivation comes from a person believing he/she will get what they want. Although the theory does not include all individual motivation factors, it provides better understanding of ways to motivate workers (Laurie, 2010). Moreover, Expectancy Theory emphasizes the need for organizations to link rewards directly to performance to ensure that the rewards provided go to those who deserved them (Montana et al, 2008). Also, Expectancy Theory can be used to predict behaviour in any situation when a choice between two or more alternatives must be made. For instance, it can be used to predict whether to quit or stay on a job and whether to exert substantial or minimal effort on a task (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2002).

Vroom formulated an equation consisting of three variables (see Figure 3.4 below), which are expectancy (E), instrumentality (I) and valence (V), in order to illustrate a decision process as follows:
Motivation \( (M) = (E) \times (I) \times (V) \)

In order to imply motivated performance choices, the three variables must have high positive values. For example, if any of the variables approaches zero, the probability of motivated performance also approaches zero. This means that there will be no motivation. When all three values are high, motivation to perform is also high (Spector, 2008). It is the interactive combination of all three variables that influences motivation and satisfaction.

**Figure 3.5: the basic elements of Expectancy Theory**

Source: Adopted from Huczynski and Buchanan (2001:145)

- Expectancy
  Schermerhorn et al (2005:127) state that expectancy is the “probability that work effort will be followed by performance accomplishment”. For instance, ‘If I tried, could I do it?’ Lawler (1983) states that if workers believe that the outcome levels correspond to what they should be, workers will be happy or satisfied. In contrast, workers will be dissatisfied in a case where there is a difference between the two.
• **Instrumentality**
According to Schermerhorn et al., (2005: 127), instrumentality is the “probability that performance will lead to various work outcomes”. For instance, if I did it, would I attain the required outcome?” If workers know that they will be rewarded for their effort, then performance will be improved and workers will be satisfied (Stoner, 1983).

• **Valence**
According to Dubrin (1984) and Talal (2011), valence represents the value or importance or attractiveness that a particular outcome has for an individual’s perceived value of the reward or outcome that might be obtained by performing effectively. Schermerhorn et al., (2005: 127) define valence as “the value to the individual of various work outcomes”. For instance, do I really value the available outcomes? In the job setting, money is a frequent reward that can have different valence levels for different people (Spector, 2008).

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/she will not be promoted despite the amount of effort he/she gives in performing his/her job, he/she may reduce his/her efforts or may not be motivated at all (Smith, 1997).

The Expectancy Theory was modified by 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 to his/her performance and job satisfaction (Kreitner et al., 1999). 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/her job, including both extrinsic (tangible) rewards such as pay and fringe benefits, or intrinsic (intangible) rewards such as recognition and a feeling of achievement. When an individual feels a positive relationship between his/her 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 for 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). However, according to Lewis et al. (1995), Vroom’s Expectancy Theory is a comprehensive theory that helps to predict or explain task-related effort, and it enables us to understand the differences in an individual’s motivation. Moreover, it helps us to measure these differences. Vroom’s Expectancy Theory was supported by the work of researchers such as Lawler, (1968) Goodman et al., (1970) Pinder, (1984) and Kominis and Emmanuel (2007). Also, a study by De-Klerk (2005) found a moderate-strong empirical support and a strong industrial applicability for the expectancy theory.

Nevertheless, the Expectancy Theory has been criticized for many reasons. According to Bennett (1997) and Robbins (2003), expectancy theory is difficult to test empirically. In other words, although the theory assumes that workers think
logically and act in a rational manner, experience suggests this might not be often the case (Bennett, 1997). Also, Luthans (1995:157) criticized the theory by stating 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.

Furthermore, Borders et al., (2004) argue that workers choose and examine from a different set of alternatives to engage in particular behaviour patterns. Among the potential alternative decisions that can be made, some appear more attractive than others. Furthermore, the influence of other factors such as co-workers and supervisors sufficiently taken into account will affect the results of the analysis.

3.6 Evaluation of Job Satisfaction and Motivation Theories

The concept of job satisfaction is complex, as it can mean different things to different people (Mullins, 2006). The two major approaches of motivation (content and process) focus on different aspects of job satisfaction. For instance, content theories emphasise the needs that lead to motivated behaviour but they may simplify matters because they tend to describe human beings as having a similar set of needs. However, this does not change their potential utility because of individual differences (Rollinson, 2008). Whereas process theories seek to explain the dynamics of the satisfaction process based on individual differences. Thus, both theories are considered to be too complicated and difficult to apply in practice (Rollinson, 2008).
Overall, no theory can claim to explain job satisfaction fully because each one has its limitations and shortcomings as each theory takes into account some particular aspect of job satisfaction but not all of them (Rollinson, 2008). According to Rollinson (2008) these theories are considered complementary rather than opposed to each other. Moreover, theories of job satisfaction take little account of differences between people and cultures. In other words, what is needed by one group of individuals in terms of a job often differs from what is required by another group (Oshagbemi, 2003).

In general, it can be seen that each of the motivation theories focused on different dimensions of work behaviour. It appears that there is no comprehensive theory of work motivation and therefore there is a need for more investigation regarding job satisfaction and the motivation phenomenon. Thus, organizations must be aware that highly motivated employees may not necessarily be the most satisfied ones.

3.7 Determinants of job satisfaction
Understanding the factors contributing to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction has been considered the most important concerns of scholars and managers around the world for a considerable time. These interests stem from the researchers' belief that job satisfaction represents an important theme in understanding organisations and the individuals within them (Spector, 2008). Researchers such as Boke and Nalla (2009), Reiner and Zhao (1999), Fields (2002); Carlan et al., (2007), Davey et al., (2001), Ellickson and Logsdon (2001), Zhao et al., (1999), and Forsyth and Copes
have examined several factors that correlate with job satisfaction, whether in a positive or a negative way. However, the importance of the various factors appears to change from one situation to another. For instance, individuals who perform the same job in the same environment and at the same time do not all derive the same degree of satisfaction. According to Grunberg (1979), Mullins (2006) and Spector (2008), the multi aspect feature of job satisfaction becomes obvious when trying to determine the relevant dimensions of job satisfaction. They argue that although the main concern for researchers in this field is to identify the factors that affect the level of satisfaction of employees in work organisations. There is no uniform agreement among researchers about the factors that determine job satisfaction. Also, while several studies in this field are limited to just a few dimensions or factors, a larger number of dimensions have been identified (Seashore and Taber, 1975; Watson, 2002; Purohit, 2004; and Mullins, 2006).

Many researchers assume that job satisfaction is a general attitude determined by three factors, namely, the individual, the nature of the job and situational variables (Purohit, 2004 and Baron, 1986). Similarly, Glisson and Durick (1988:61) classify variables affecting job satisfaction into three categories:

(1) Variables that describe the characteristics of the job tasks performed by the workers.

(2) Variables that describe the characteristics of the organisations in which the tasks are performed.

(3) Variables that describe the characteristics of the workers who perform the task.
However, Mullins (2006) argued that job satisfaction is affected by a wide range of variables including individual, social, cultural, organisational and environmental factors. Moreover, Spector (2008) categorises the antecedents of job satisfaction into three models as follows:

(1) The impact of the job environment.

(2) The impact of personality.

(3) The joint influence of the environment and personality on job satisfaction.

Moreover, Spector (2008) states that although personality has been shown to have a connection with job satisfaction, the reasons are not clear. Therefore, further investigation is needed to determine why personality relates to job satisfaction. Overall, although researchers such as Ishfaq (2010), and Mehmet et al.,(2010) found many factors that are related to job satisfaction, the majority of these factors can be categorised into two groups:

(1) Personal or demographic factors, which focus on individual attributes and characteristics, and

(2) Environmental factors which include factors associated with the work itself or the work environment.

Boke and Nalla (2009) and Reiner and Zhao (1999) argue that organisational factors are a better predictor of job satisfaction than individual demographic variables. Also, Fields (2002) states that personal characteristics such as age, sex and educational level, do not contribute clearly to explaining the variance in job satisfaction between the workers. Similarly, other researchers found that
demographic variables were relatively poor predictors of job satisfaction (Carlan et al., 2007; Davey et al., 2001; Ellickson and Logsdon, 2001; Zhao et al., 1999; Forsyth and Copes, 1994). However, it can be seen that job satisfaction is determined not only by job characteristics but also by organisational factors which refer to factors that are perceived to assist or hinder employees in performing their duties (DeSantis and Durst, 1996: 329). These factors are widely discussed by many researchers and are considered the major determinants of job satisfaction (Reiner and Zhao, 1999; Fields, 2002; Nel et al., 2004; Robbins et al., 2009: 157). These factors are pay/rewards, supervision, promotion opportunities, co-workers and work conditions.

3.7.1 Pay/Rewards
According to Bassett (1994) there was a lack of empirical evidence which indicates that pay alone may increase workers satisfaction or reduce dissatisfaction. He states that highly paid employees may still be dissatisfied if they do not like the nature of their job. This opinion was supported by a study by Young et al., (1998) who did not find any significant relationship between pay and job satisfaction. Similarly, results from a survey conducted by Brainard (2005) found pay and rewards to be weakly associated with job satisfaction. In contrast, a study conducted by Oshagbemi (2000) found a statistically significant relationship between pay and rank of employees and their level of job satisfaction. The existence of both financial reward and recognition has been found to have a significant influence on workers’ satisfaction (Arnolds and Boshoff, 2004; Kinnear and Sutherland, 2000). Also, Aksu and Aktas (2005), indicate that employees are very sensitive to Pay/Rewards issues because of impact
on living standards and its importance in providing a sense of security. However, Pay/Rewards have been tested by many scholars who have tried to explore their effects on job satisfaction. This attention was due to the old belief that to satisfy workers, one should pay them more. For example, Luthan (2005) states that Pay/Rewards are considered a tool for achieving both people’s lower and higher needs. Therefore, Herzberg and his associates (1959) considered pay to be a 'hygiene factor' that prevents the employee from being satisfied. However, Kreitner and Kinicki (2006) argue that some hygiene factors cause job satisfaction. Moreover, most of the studies conducted on job satisfaction consider pay/rewards as an important element in determining job satisfaction. For example, a study by Ellickson and Logsdon (2001) on job satisfaction among a number of full-time municipal government employees representing 18 departments in the United States found pay/rewards to be important determinants of job satisfaction. Likewise, Spector (1997) identified how pay/rewards can significantly affect job satisfaction. Also, Barber et al., (1992) reported that pay/rewards lead to positive job satisfaction and they found that highly educated employees attach great importance to pay/rewards.

3.7.2 Supervision
Research indicates that the quality of the supervisory relationship has a significant and positive influence on the employee’s overall level of job satisfaction (Kinicki and Vecchio, 1994). For example, Graham and Messner (1998) stated that supervisors with high relationship behaviour strongly impact on job satisfaction. Wech (2002) supported this view by adding that supervisory behaviour strongly...
affects the development of trust in relationships with employees. He concluded that trust may have a significant relationship with job satisfaction.

Ting (1997) found that workers who enjoy a supportive relationship with their immediate supervisor experience higher levels of job satisfaction than those who do not. However, when trust and communication with the leader are poor, employees may feel stressed with this relationship and this may, with the time, lead to dissatisfaction (Wech, 2002).

It is also argued that supervisors’ managerial skills should be developed in order to improve the workplace (Bragg, 2002; Barak et al., 2009). Skills of dealing with employees in relation to their activities and leaving interesting and appreciation of what their employees do could help managers to increase employee job satisfaction (Bragg, 2002). The relationship between supervisors and employees in the workplace is directly connected to their success and growth at work (Barak et al., 2009). For example, supervisors who develop a positive relationship with employees may be more likely to understand their employees’ strengths and weaknesses, making it easier for them to use their employees’ talents for the good of the organization (Ellickson and Logsdon, 2001). Employees who have a favourable relationship with their supervisors (a relationship in which they feel safe and supported) may be more likely to go above and beyond what is required of them. They also may share with their supervisor job-related problems or even personal problems, which can be barriers to employee productivity. Thus, it is important that
supervisors set clear expectations and provide feedback about work performance so as to avoid any potential frustrations in the workplace (Robbins, 2003).

3.7.3 Promotion opportunities
Studies of job satisfaction argue that promotional opportunities are a direct antecedent to job satisfaction (Ting, 1997; Fosam et al, 1998; Ellickson and Logsdon, 2001). A study conducted by Purohit (2004) found that while it is true that individuals search for satisfaction in their work environment, they also attach importance to the opportunities for promotion that these jobs offer. In other words, if a job offers the opportunity for promotion in the future, it provides more job satisfaction. If the opportunity for such promotion is limited, it reduces job satisfaction. This view was supported by Bull (2005) who argued that many people experience satisfaction when they believe that their future prospects are good. This may translate into opportunities for advancement and growth in their current workplace. According to Schneider et al., (1992), employees who perceive few opportunities for advancement have negative attitudes towards their work and their organisations.

Despite several studies which identified a positive correlation between promotional opportunities and job satisfaction, this correlation is dependent on employees’ perception of fairness and equity (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2006). Thus, if employees are receiving unfair and unequal promotional opportunities in comparison with other workers in the workplace who have similar qualifications and years of experience, this will lead to a prediction of job dissatisfaction (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2006).
According to Armstrong (2004), in any organisation where there are frequent promotional moves, it is advisable to have a fair promotions policy and procedure that is known to both management and employees to avoid problems that may occur due to promotion arrangements. He adds that it is important for the organisation to take into account cases where promotion policies are designed to enhance employees’ job satisfaction (Noraani and Zaizura, 2013).

3.7.4 Relationship with Co-workers
Interpersonal relations involved in a work situation are usually related to levels of job satisfaction. According to Rollinson (2008:143):

*The factor of relationship with co-workers reflects the extent to which members of an individual’s work group are perceived to be socially supportive and competent in their own tasks.*

The relationship with co-workers factor was found to be one of the most important factors of job satisfaction (Ellickson and Logsdon, 2001). This view is supported by empirical evidence which pointed out that co-workers relationship affects job satisfaction (Morrison, 1997; Ting, 1997). For instance, if workers in a group are cohesive and cooperative, their degree of job satisfaction is high. Whereas, if this group is not cohesive and cooperative, their degree of job satisfaction will be low (Purohit, 2004). However, generally, the social work environment is likely to have a significant impact on a worker’s attitude and behaviour. For instance, the impact of friendship on workplace outcomes is shown by results that indicate that friendship opportunities were associated with increases in job satisfaction, job involvement and
organisational commitment, and with a significant decrease in intention to turnover (Luddy, 2005).

3.7.5 Work conditions
Working conditions are another factor that has a significant impact on employee’s job satisfaction (Luthans, 1992; Moorhead and Griffen, 1992). Working conditions include the physical environment in an organisation (work space, noise, lighting, etc.) and the degree of comfort provided by the organisation to employees. According to Poggi (2008), an favourable working environment, poor human and machine contact, obnoxious working conditions may cause great distress to employees in any organisation. Also, in analysing work attributes Emin (2007) discovered that work place conditions such as rough weather, extreme temperature levels, chemical smells, noise, and poor arrangements for lighting and similar difficulties reduce employees’ concentration and consequently reduce job satisfaction.

Similarly, Vorster (1992) confirms this view by saying that working conditions may have a significant impact on job satisfaction. This is also supported by Krueger et al., (2002) who found that employee job satisfaction is a multidimensional phenomenon and its outcomes depend upon assessment of employees’ workplace conditions and that the level of job satisfaction may vary depending on the quality level of work conditions. Moreover, according to Luthans (1998:157) “if people work in a clean, friendly environment they will find it easier to come to work, if the opposite should happen, they will find it difficult to accomplish tasks ”.

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3.8 Consequences of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is assumed to be a cause of important employee and organisational outcomes ranging from high performance to better health and wellbeing of employees (Spector, 2008). Although researchers have examined the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational variables, job satisfaction has a variety of outcomes. These outcomes can have both positive and negative consequences for both individuals and organisations. If an organisation changes the conditions for achieving job satisfaction for their workers, one can expect some behavioural outcomes that have an important impact on the well-being of organisations. Many, researchers have identified a number of potential consequences of job satisfaction (see for example, Meyer et al., 1993; Organ and Konovsky, 1989; Iaffaldano and Muchinsky, 1985; Freund, 2005; Griffeth et al., 2000; McElwain et al., 2005; Siu et al., 2005). Absenteeism and turnover are among potential consequences of job dissatisfaction which have been widely discussed in management literature. These are presented in the following section with a greater emphasis on employee turnover because it is one of the outcomes of job satisfaction in the Job Characteristics Model, which the focus of this study.

3.8.1. Employee turnover

Employee turnover has been a considerable and wide area of research over the past few decades (Chiu et al., 2005; Albion et al, 2008). As a result, there are many definitions of employee turnover. For instance, Tai and Robinson (1998) and Hayes et al, (2006) mentioned that some studies have defined employee turnover as any job move. Whereas, Flint and Webster (2011:146) define it as “the proportion of
employees who leave the organisation in a given year”. It is also considered as the number of employees that are leaving the company compared to the average number of total employees working at that company (Griffeth, Hom, and Gaertner, 2000).

Moreover, according to Kinicki and Kreitner (2003), employee turnover is very important to any organization not only because it costs a lot of money but also because it disrupts continuity, which is crucial for the success of an organization. Similarly, Lawler (2005) argued that the economic conditions have a great influence on employee turnover, as the rates of employee turnover are affected by the economy cycles. It decreases in times of economic hardship when job opportunities are limited and it increases in times of economic prosperity when job opportunities are abundant. However, turnover has more disadvantages than just a higher financial burden. It has negative effects on employee continuity, organizational stability, and overall employee morale (Zhong et al., 2006).

Employee turnover may be either voluntary or involuntary. Voluntary turnover occurs when the employee chooses to leave the job, while involuntary turnover occurs either through dismissals or reduction of employment, including death or mandatory retirement (Iverson, 1999; Lambert and Hogan, 2009). Although there is no standard framework for understanding the process of employee turnover as a whole, a wide range of factors have been found useful in interpreting employee turnover such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Kevin et al., 2004). Meaghan et al., (2002) stated that there is an urgent need to develop a more
comprehensive knowledge of employee’s turnover, especially the reasons which may lead to an increase in the rate of employee’s turnover.

Based on the above discussion, the next chapter sheds light on the concept of employees’ turnover and its relationship with job satisfaction.

3.9 Conclusion

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. This is mainly because of the increasing belief that job satisfaction leads to an increase in productivity and ultimately in profitability and quality of goods and services. It is argued that individuals enter organizations with a set of expected needs. They expect that the organization will satisfy these needs. One of these expectations is job satisfaction which is an important variable when evaluating an organisation’s success. Motivation theories are divided into two categories: Content Theories and Process Theories. The first one attempts to identify the factors which contribute to job satisfaction such as Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, Herzberg’s Two-Factor Theory, and Alderfer’s ERG theory. Each of these theories has focused on different dimensions of work motivation. For instance, 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 studies did not support his assumptions. Herzberg’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 results largely from extrinsic factors, and the second is motivators which results largely from intrinsic factors. Hence, to satisfy an employee, the organization has to eliminate job dissatisfaction by satisfying his/her hygiene factors, then use motivators to increase his/her satisfaction. Alderfer’s ERG Theory was another content theory that adopted its assumptions from Maslow’s Needs’ Hierarchy theory. He merged the five need categories of Maslow into three main categories that can be separately activated: The second category of motivation theories is the Process Theories which attempt to describe the interaction between variables in their relationship to job satisfaction such as Equity Theory, Expectancy Theory and Situational Theory. According to Equity Theory, the equity norm is used to express the positive relationship between an employee’s efforts and his/her performance.

Moreover, Vroom’ Expectancy theory tried to explain the human behaviour by illustrating the individual differences regarding motivation and behaviour. Although the process theories have more empirical support than the content theories, it cannot be claimed that there is a comprehensive theory of work motivation that can be adopted by all organizations. No theory can claim to explain job satisfaction fully because each one has its limitations and shortcomings. It means that each theory accounts for some particular aspect of job satisfaction but not all of them.

Job satisfaction has a variety of outcomes. These outcomes can have both positive and negative consequences for both individuals and organisations. Several factors
correlate with job satisfaction, whether in a positive or negative way. However, the importance of the various factors appears to change from one situation to another. It means that individuals who perform the same job in the same environment and at the same time do not derive the same degree of job satisfaction.

Although researchers have found many factors that affect job satisfaction, the majority of these factors can be listed into two groups; (a) personal factors and (b) organisational factors. Although these factors are utilised as distinctly competing models of job satisfaction, researchers argue that the organisational factors are a better predictor of job satisfaction than personal factors that are of little use in understanding job satisfaction.

Following for the above review, the next chapter provides a theoretical analysis of Job Characteristics Model (JCM) which was derived from the studies of job satisfaction and its outcomes in order to develop a theoretical framework for this study.
CHAPTER FOUR
THE JOB CHARACTERISTIC MODEL AND JOB SATISFACTION: A THEORITICAL ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction
The purpose of this chapter is to achieve two main objectives; 1) to analyse the job characteristics model in order to develop a theoretical framework for this research, and 2) to review some of the previous studies of job satisfaction and job characteristics. The review of previous theories and studies provides a better understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. Therefore, the chapter includes three main sections: The first section provides a description and analysis of the components of the Job Characteristics Model developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975) as a theoretical basis for this study. The second section provides a review of some of the main studies that have examined the implementation of the job characteristics model. Finally, the chapter concludes with a description of the main points of the theoretical framework developed for this study.

4.2 The Job Characteristics Model (JCM)
Hackman and Oldham (1975) developed the Job Characteristics Model (JCM), which suggests that job features induce psychological states, which in turn, lead to work outcomes. The job features or core characteristics consist of five dimensions, defined by Hackman and Oldham (1975:161-162), as follows:
1. Skill Variety (SV)
Skill variety is described as “the degree to which a job requires a variety of different activities in carrying out the work, which involves the use of a number of different skills and talents of the employees” (Garg and Rastogi, 2005: 575). In other words, Skill Variety refers to the extent to which the job requires the person to use multiple high-level skills. For example, a car wash employee whose job consists of directing employees into the automated carwash demonstrates low levels of skill variety, whereas a car wash employee who acts as a cashier, maintains carwash equipment, and manages the inventory of chemicals demonstrates high skill variety. Another example of a job with low skill variety would be that of a painter employed in a construction activity to paint walls.

2. Task Identity (TI)
Task identity is described as “the degree to which the job requires completion of a whole and identifiable piece of work, which is, doing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome” (Hackman and Oldham, 1980:78). In other words, Task Identity refers to the degree to which the person completes a piece of work from start to finish. For instance, a web designer who designs parts of a web site will have low task identity because the work blends in with other web designers’ work, and in the end, it will be hard for the person to claim responsibility for the final output. Whereas, the webmaster who designs the entire web site will have high task identity (Coelho and Augusto, 2010).
3. Task Significance (TS)
Task significance is described as “the degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives or work of other people, whether in the immediate organisation or in the external environment” (Hackman and Oldham, 1980:79). In other words, Task Significance refers to whether the person’s job substantially affects other people’s work, health, or well-being. For example, a janitor who cleans the floor at an office building may find the job low in significance, thinking it is not an important job. However, the janitor who cleans the floor at a hospital may see his/her task as essential in helping patients’ recover in a healthy environment. When they see their tasks as significant, employees tend to feel that they are making an impact on their environment and their feelings of self-worth are boosted (Grant, 2008).

4. Autonomy
Autonomy is described as “the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence and discretion to the employee in scheduling the work and determining the procedures to be used in carrying them out” (Debnath et al., 2007:814). In other words, autonomy is about the degree to which the person has the freedom to decide how to perform tasks. For example, a teacher who is required to follow particular curriculum, cover a given list of topics, and use a specified list of classroom activities has low autonomy, while a teacher who is free to choose the textbook, design the course content, and use any materials he/she sees fit, has higher levels of autonomy. Thus, not only autonomy increases motivation at work but it also has other benefits such as self-achievement, self-confidence, high level of
performance and a high level of job satisfaction. Autonomous workers often have the ability to be creative and developed. This gives them a great opportunity to train themselves through the practice of their works independently (Morgeson et al., 2005).

5. Feedback

Feedback is described as “the degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job result in the employee obtaining direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his or her performance” (Hackman and Oldham, 1980:80). In other words, Feedback refers to the degree to which a person learns how effective he/she is at work. Feedback may come from other people such as supervisors, peers, subordinates, customers, or from the job itself. For example, a salesperson who gives presentations to potential clients but is not informed of the clients’ decisions, has low feedback at work. If this person receives notification that a sale was made based on the presentation, feedback will be high. However, whether the sign of feedback was (positive or negative), whether the person is ready to receive the feedback, and the way in which feedback was given will all determine whether employees feel motivated or unmotivated as a result of feedback (Kluger et al., 1996).

Hackman and Oldham (1975) argued that skill variety, task identity and task significance together lead to a sense of meaningfulness at work while autonomy leads to feelings of responsibility and feedback leads to knowledge of results (see Figure 4.1 below).
The five core dimensions are thought to lead to three psychological states that, which in turn, lead to a number of beneficial outcomes for the employee and the organisation such as motivation, high satisfaction with the work, and low absenteeism and turnover. According to Hackman and Oldham (1975), when these critical psychological states are experienced, work motivation, job satisfaction and performance will be high. In contrast, absenteeism and turnover will be low. Several studies, across many different types of jobs have found that each of the five
core dimensions of the Job Characteristics Model was related to job satisfaction (Spector, 2006). For example, a study conducted by Kass et al., (2011) examined the application of the Job Characteristics Model in the college education and found a significant correlation between the five core dimensions (i.e., skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback) and various affective (e.g., satisfaction) and behavioural (e.g., absenteeism) outcomes.

In order to measure the five core dimensions of the Job Characteristics Model, Hackman and Oldham (1975) developed an instrument called the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS). Scores on the JDS are combined to create a Motivating Potential Score (MPS), which indicates the degree to which a job is capable of motivating people. Hackman and Oldham (1975) came up with a formula for Motivation Potential Score (MPS). This formula is used to measure the propensity of each job to be motivating. It can be assessed by using the following formula:

\[
\text{MPS} = \frac{SV + TI + TS}{3} \times (\text{Autonomy}) \times (\text{Feedback})
\]

Hackman and Oldham (1975) added that autonomy and feedback are important in the job characteristics model. If they are non-existent in the job design, the job may have no motivation potential. Therefore, they argued that it is necessary to design the job that includes autonomy and feedback. As it can be seen from the formula, a near zero score of a job on either autonomy or feedback will reduce the overall MPS.
to near zero; whereas a near zero score on one of the three job dimensions that contribute to experienced meaningfulness cannot, by itself (Spector, 2006). In other words, the above formula shows that an increase in one of the five job characteristics will increase the MPS. This implies that the five core dimensions of the Job Characteristics Model have a positive effect on work motivation. Because of the multiplicative relationship between the three major components (1- skill variety, task significance and task identity; 2- autonomy; and 3- job feedback) the MPS will also be low if one of the major components is low (Hackman and Oldham, 1975).

The model also highlights three individual differences that act as moderators which influence individuals’ preferences in how their jobs are designed. Since individuals have different needs for personal accomplishment, they will react in their jobs differently. Therefore, the connection from job characteristics to psychological states and to outcomes holds true mainly for individuals who score highly for growth need strength (GNS). Individuals who have a high GNS score are likely to respond more positively to jobs that are rated highly on the five core dimensions (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). Also, people whose capabilities fit the demands of enriched jobs are predicted to feel good about their job and perform well. However, job enrichment can fail when job requirements are increased beyond the level of individual capabilities (Hackman and Oldham, 1975; Schermerhorn et al., 2005).

However, according to Steers and Porter (1991), a number of scholars believe that the model does not give sufficient attention to individual differences and assumes that job enrichment benefits all employees. Although the model has been partly supported and used widely in predicting job satisfaction and applying job
enrichment, research has revealed a number of significant weaknesses that requested the model to be assessed as shown in the next section.

4.3 Evaluation of the Job Characteristics Model

The Job Characteristics Model (JCM) proposed by Hackman and Oldham (1975) is the most widely cited model in job design literature. There are many theoretical developments which have been either direct extensions of it or have been strongly influenced by it (Jed DeVaro et al., 2007). It has supported and served as the basis for scores of studies on job redesign interventions (Fried and Ferris, 1987; Loher et al., 1985; Taber and Taylor, 1990; Scott, 2012). For instance, Fried and Ferris (1987) found positive work outcomes to be more related to perceived increases in core dimensions rather than critical psychological states. Whereas, Renn and Vandenberg (1995) questioned the applicability of using the critical psychological states as a mediating variable. Also, the majority of research has supported the overall validity of the JCM (Steven, 2011; Hala and Neamat, 2012), although critiques and modifications have been offered and the role of the critical psychological states (CPS) has been questioned by Roberts and Glick (1981), Salancik and Pfeffer (1978), and Boonzair and Ficker (2001) as follows:

- The model says little about changes in job characteristics that lead to changes in motivation, satisfaction and performance. In other words, although some studies found strong relationships between job characteristics and job satisfaction, the five core dimensions and Motivating Potential Score play a different role in affecting job satisfaction (Arnold et al., 2005).
• The model stated that workers who have a high growth need strength (GNS) score are likely to respond more positively to jobs that are scored highly on the five core dimensions. At the same time, the model says very little about how to redesign jobs for workers with a low growth need strength and how to identify what might motivate them (Spector, 2008).

• The composite measure of motivation potential score (MPS) is not perfect because it neglected important aspects of jobs such as pay and job security (Roberts and Glick, 1987). Moreover, the equation algorithm for computing the (MPS) was not based on a very strong theoretical rationale (Roberts and Glick, 1987).

• The model applies only to jobs that are carried out independently and cannot be directly used to design work to be conducted by teams, although it may be of some use to teams (Hackman and Oldham, 1980).

• The model does not address interpersonal techniques or situational moderators of how people react to their work. This may be problematic because Hackman and Oldham (1980) found that interpersonal relationships were a critical moderator between job characteristics and internal motivation.

• Bhagat and Chassie (1980) conducted extensive experimental studies in organizational settings providing strong evidence that employees were responding to managerial expectations resulting from change. This finding casts
doubt on the whole motivational basis of the model particularly the causal relationship between job characteristics and outcomes.

- An extensive literature review of research done using the Job Characteristics Model conducted by Roberts and Glick (1981) concluded that the research had not moved beyond an exploratory stage. They described the statement of the theory as occasionally ambiguous and unclear, with important distinctions among the variables being frequently overlooked or weakly conceptualized.

### 4.4 Studies of Job Characteristics Model (JCM)

Numerous studies have been conducted on the Job Characteristics Model since its inception in the late 1970s (Ambrose and Kulik 1999; Jed DeVaro et al., 2007; Steven et al., 2011; Naresh and Vandana, 2011; Hala and Neamat, 2012). Such studies considered the determinants of attitudinal and behavioural outcomes, and reviewed the results of more than two decades of empirical research inspired by the JCM. For example, Aizzat et al., (2005) investigated the influence of employee involvement in total production maintenance practices on job characteristic in manufacturing companies in Malaysia. The main goal of the study was to examine whether the extent of involvement in Total Productive Maintenance (TPM) practices had a positive effect on job characteristics. The data were collected from a sample of 184 respondents. Also, regression analysis was used to determine the nature of the relationship among the five core dimensions of JCM model. However, the results showed that the extent of employees’ involvement in TPM practices was positively
related to the five core job dimensions (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback).

Also, De Varo et al., (2007) conducted a study on the job characteristics model (JCM) using representative data from a survey of British establishments. The study attempted to assess the Job Characteristics Model of Hackman and Oldham in the modern organizational environment using representative data from a survey of British firms. The study was driven by two considerations: First, the JCM remains a theoretical focal point in discussions of work design. Second, some aspects of the model have been largely supported in previous researches, and others have not. Thus, there remains a need to accomplish additional empirical tests. The data contain information on a large number of establishments and multiple workers within each of the British firms that included in this empirical study. The results generally support the Job Characteristics Model’s predictions that task variety and worker autonomy are positively associated with labour productivity and product quality. Moreover, the work autonomy was positively associated with job satisfaction. By contrast, the study pointed out that task variety was strongly and positively associated with the model outcomes in general such as job satisfaction, performance, work motivation and low absenteeism and turnover.

Moreover, Chen and Chiu (2009) studied the JCM by collecting data from 323 employees and their supervisors from seven companies in Taiwan. The purpose of the study was to investigate the mediating role of job involvement in the relationship between job characteristics and organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). The
study concluded that the three job characteristics (task identity, task significance, and autonomy) were positively influenced by the display of an employee’s OCB. By contrast, skill variety had a negative effect on OCB while no relationship was found between feedback and job involvement. By contrast, bivariate correlations between skill variety and job involvement were positive. Also, feedback and job involvement were positive and statistically significant. Generally, the study found that job characteristics with motivating potential could increase employees’ display of OCB. In other word, managers were able to design and redesign jobs in order to give employees the ability to control their jobs from the beginning to the end. In other words, jobs were designed to the extent that gives workers more wish of doing their jobs. (i.e., task identity), to feel the importance of their jobs to the whole organization (i.e., task significance), and to increase independence and freedom in doing their jobs (i.e., autonomy). Consequently, employees’ job motivation was increased and the meaningfulness of employees’ work was strengthened too.

Another study by McKnight et al., (2009) has shown that employees’ perception of their workplace characteristics such as job significance and task autonomy may affect employee’s turnover. The study was conducted in IT department of a large publicly traded United States food products organization and was aimed to determine whether workplace characteristics or job characteristics reduced employees’ turnover. The study concluded that both job and workplace characteristics (i.e., job significance and task autonomy) had a significant effect on employees’ turnover. However, work place characteristics or organisational
workplace factors had the greatest impact on employees’ turnover than job characteristics.

Similarly, Evangelia et al.,(2011) investigated the relationship between organizational structure, job characteristics (represented in job autonomy and job variety) and work outcomes in export sales organizations in the UK. They found that formalization and centralization had a positive impact on job feedback. Moreover, centralization was related negatively to job autonomy and job variety. By contrast, higher levels of job autonomy, job variety and job feedback increased the job satisfaction of export sales managers and enabled export sales managers to use their discretion when planning their visits to export markets. Moreover, these job characteristics allow the development of appropriate selling strategies and tactics. Based on export sales managers’ judgment, the needs and preferences of specific export customers would be satisfied. Also, job feedback had motivational potentials as it provided export sales managers with direct and clear information in relation to the effectiveness and outputs of their efforts in export markets. Moreover, motivation was strengthened by feedback through introducing, directing and assistance to improve performance and professional development. Thus, although centralization had an overall negative influence on job autonomy, this effect was significantly stronger among less experienced export sales managers. Also, export sales managers’ job satisfaction was related positively to organizational commitment. In other word, export sales managers who were more satisfied with their work had been more committed to the organization. Therefore, it was concluded that job satisfaction was an effective response to specific work-related
outcomes while organizational commitment represented an effective response to the whole organization.

In the same context, a study by Coelho et al., (2010) investigated the main and interactive effects of job characteristics on the creativity of frontline service employees. They concluded that to promote creative behaviours, service managers should consider increasing employee job autonomy, variety, feedback, and task identity. They added that in order to find the right balance between the five core job characteristics, it was important to build an environment that stimulated creative performance. The study tested the JCM with 460 employees from a service setting and showed that consideration of the effects of each job characteristic had an explanatory power beyond that of job complexity. It was found that job creativity was influenced by the react of job characteristics components with each other. However, they concluded that the right balance between the five core dimensions in order to build a good environment to stimulate creative performance.

A recent study by Kumar and Singh (2011) explored the relationship between job satisfaction and significant variables such as job characteristics, job expectations and work motivation in Indian companies. The sample included 100 employees of Tata Consultancy Services from various development canters in Bangalore, Chennai, Lucknow, Delhi, Mumbai and Gurgaon. The findings of the study illustrated that the work environment presents the opportunities to the workers in order to satisfy their needs in terms of recognition, achievement, autonomy and personal growth.
Moreover, they found that task variety, autonomy and task significance of the Job Characteristics Model were motivating factors. Generally, the results of the study showed that the workers in Tata Consultancy Services were highly motivated and were moderately satisfied with their jobs.

Similarly, the relationships between task identity, job autonomy and burnout of nurses in Jos, Nigeria, were subjected to the test by a study conducted by Sulaiman and Ifenna (2011). A total of 79 nurses participated in the study. They found that task identity and job autonomy had negative significant correlation with nurses’ experience of burnout. In other words, when the nurses had a high conception or visualization of task identity, they were more likely to face a low degree of overwork or burnt of task identity which addressed with employees’ capability to do their job from beginning to the end with a visible outcome.

Also, a study by Steven et al., (2011), aimed to apply the job characteristics model to the college education University Parkway, Pensacola, FL. The number of students who participated in this survey was 293. The results confirmed that the existence of the five core dimensions led to increased job satisfaction and decreased absenteeism and boredom. Generally, the study upholds the applicability of the JCM to enriching the university setting. For instance, students need to have the opportunity to use skill variety in their classes. Therefore, practice or application of these skills may allow them to see the link between what they learned and the way within which it was applied.
More recently, Hala and Neamat (2012) carried out a study to redesign nursing care delivery system by restructuring the role of staff nurses using the job characteristic model. They found no significant relationship between the nurses’ job characteristics and their job satisfaction. Most of the nurses reported moderate or low mean score for perceiving their job characteristics and job satisfaction. Also, the results indicated that only 29.83% of nurses’ time was spent on direct care activities. Generally, the study concluded that organizations should include information and experience opportunities in respect to the importance of job characteristics model to improve nurses’ satisfaction.

Another recent study by Bahram (2012) aimed to extend job characteristics model (JCM) to become eight factors instead of five factors as follows; (1) ability (2) experience, (3) feedback, (4) personality, (5) task significance, (6) task identity (7) Autonomy, (8) skill variety. This action has been taken in order to explore a new optimal model of job design for governmental banks. The sample of the study included all the employees of Mellat Bank branches, human resources experts at university and headquarters of Mellat Bank. The study illustrated that there was a possibility to modify Hackman and Oldham’s model. It means that all the assumptions of the study were accepted through testing and three characteristics of experience, personality, and competence were added to the five core dimensions of Hackman and Oldham Job Characteristics Model JCM. Thus, the model was changed into an eight factor model in line with enhancing the performance.
Likewise, a study by Sheng et al., (2011) aimed to examine the correlation among job characteristics and workers creativity between several kinds of jobs in travel agencies. Data were collected from 289 employees of 63 consolidated travel agencies headquartered in Taipei. The sample included tour managers, route controllers, operators and salespersons. Overall, the results show that both job characteristics and employee creativity differ with the four job kinds. These differences in job kinds related to the effect of the five core dimensions of the Job Characteristics Model employee creativity was medium. Also, since the characteristics of each job are different, the level of autonomy is also different. For example, more autonomy in pricing helped stimulate the salesperson to think about ways to increase company’s profit. The salesperson could therefore negotiate businesses according to a price that customers can accept, and that would increase the possibility of striking a deal. For the tour manager and route controller, a free hand in managing tours and developing paths could stimulate their willingness to design creative services and launch different travel products.

Another study conducted by Jon et al., (2009) on a sample of teaching staff in the School of Business and Economics, University of Minnesota. The study aimed to modify the job characteristics model of Hackman and Oldham (1975) theoretically. They integrated the research on the psycho which means the link between job design, the motives facilitating psychological ownership, the methods of psychological ownership, and the employee level outcomes such as emotional, attitudinal, motivational, and behavioural have been improved by them. The result of
the job design–psychological ownership relationship showed that there were several emergent effects. Moreover, the introduction of psychological ownership as a part of the psychology of job designs. Also, the study stated that there may be a number of negative effects such as stress, burden of responsibility, unwillingness to share, resistance to change, isolation, anger, and a variety of defensive and deviant behaviours in the workplace. By contrast, there were also a number of positive effects that appeared to be associated with complex job design as a result of the link with psychological ownership such as quality in role performance, citizenship behaviour, stewardship, nurturance, and self-sacrificing and protective behaviours.

Another very recent study by Deegahawature (2014) examined the role of job characteristics in open innovation tendency. It attempted to assess the impact of the five job characteristics (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback) on the managers’ tendency to Open Innovation (OI) which means;

\[
A \textit{paradigm that assumes that firms can and should use external ideas as well as internal ideas, and internal and external paths to market, as the firms look to advance their technology} \text{ (Chesbrough 2006:1).}
\]

The findings of the study reveal that the five core dimensions of job characteristics model affect the inability to predict technology environment influence managers’ tendency to OI in different ways. However, the study shows that job characteristics have mixed influence on OI tendency. For instance, Skill variety had a positive impact while task identity had a negative impact on OI tendency. Also, the results indicate that there was no significant relationship between task significance,
autonomy, feedback and OI tendency. Overall, the study’s findings suggest that the firms that adapt open innovation should be cautious in job design and environment turbulence.

It can be concluded from the above discussion that a positive relationship between job characteristics and job satisfaction was supported by a significant number of studies. Also, according to the Job Characteristics Model, employees who work in jobs with high job range are more motivated and satisfied than those who do not. The studies have shown that the jobs that are designed to increase the job range are likely to be positively realized by employees. Therefore, change in the design of jobs to include the five core dimensions of JCM, has a positive effects on outcomes such as employees’ satisfaction, motivation, and performance. Based on the above studies, the following hypotheses have been developed:

\[ H_1: \text{There is a positive correlation between the five core dimensions of JCM and job satisfaction} \]

The above hypothesis leads to sub hypotheses as following:

\[ H_{1a}: \text{There is a positive correlation between autonomy and job satisfaction} \]

\[ H_{1b}: \text{There is a positive correlation between skill variety and job satisfaction} \]

\[ H_{1c}: \text{There is a positive correlation between task identity and job satisfaction} \]

\[ H_{1d}: \text{There is a positive correlation between task significance and job satisfaction} \]
There is a positive correlation between feedback and job satisfaction

There is a positive correlation between the five core dimensions and employees’ turnover

The second hypothesis leads to sub hypotheses as following:

There is a positive correlation between autonomy and employees’ turnover

There is a positive correlation between skill variety and employees’ turnover

There is a positive correlation between task identity and employees’ turnover

There is a positive correlation between task significance and Employees’ turnover

There is a positive correlation between feedback and employees’ turnover

4.5 Job Satisfaction and Employee 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 found to be generally weak (Spector, 1997; Amah, 2009; Griffeth at el., 2000). Some studies reported that there is a strong and positive relationship between the length of service of workers and their intention to stay and continue in their jobs (Vandenberg and Nelson 1999; Sourdif, 2004; Gilmour et al., 2005). For instance, in an evaluation of special education teachers’ intent to stay in teaching, Cross and Billingsley (1994)
found the strongest direct effect on intent to stay in teaching was job satisfaction. Also, some researchers have focused on the effect of intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction on employees’ turnover. For instance, extrinsic factors such as dissatisfaction with pay were consistently found to affect some worker’s levels of satisfaction and organizational commitment (Fleishman, 1998; Gilmour et al., 2005). Moreover, Sourdif (2004) and Kuzyk (2008) found that intrinsic rewards, such as satisfaction from helping others, were more important to those staying with rather than leaving an organization. Furthermore, some studies (Maertz and Griffith, 2004; Sourdif, 2004; Robinson and Pillemer, 2007) found that the impact of job dissatisfaction was on thoughts about intention to leave rather than on actual turnover behaviours.

According to Vandenberg and Nelson (1999), organisational commitment is the major contributor to employee’s turnover rather than job dissatisfaction. Moreover, another study conducted by Morgan (2008) found that organizational commitment was the most influential factor than job satisfaction when studying workers’ staying with or leaving their organizations. However, some researchers propose that job satisfaction and organizational commitment work together as the main factor leading to employees’ turnover (Robinson and Pillemer, 2007; Gow et al., 2008). Also, research findings consistently identified a relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment regarding their direct effect on employee turnover. Therefore, it can be concluded that the relationship between employee turnover and job satisfaction is not clear. Generally, both job satisfaction and organizational
commitment are interrelated in terms of their influence on employees’ turnover. However, employee turnover remains one of the results of job dissatisfaction (Griffeth et al., 2000). Based on the above discussion, the following hypothesis has been developed:

\[ H_3: \text{There is a positive correlation between employees’ turnover and job satisfaction} \]

4.6 Job satisfaction studies

Job satisfaction has been a popular topic in a wide range of disciplines, public administration, business and higher education (Metle, 2003; Toker, 2011; Mateja and Brigita, 2012). For example, the study carried out by Mateja and Brigita (2012) shows that job satisfaction plays a crucial role in an organization’s success. Thus, organizations must be aware of the importance of employees’ job satisfaction. Also, Metle (2003) states that job satisfaction is an attitudinal variable and can be considered as a global feeling about the job or as related groups of attitudes about various aspects or facets of the job. Therefore, the main concern for researchers in this field is to identify the factors that affect the level of satisfaction of employees in the workplace (Grunberg, 1979; Mullins, 2006; Spector, 2008).

Overall, some researchers such as Purohit (2004) and Baron (1986) suggest that job satisfaction is a general attitude determined by three factors namely; the individual, the nature of the job and situational variables. Also, Mullins (2006) states that job satisfaction is affected by a wide range of variables including individual, social, cultural, organisational factors. Likewise, a study by Spector (2008) classifies the factors that may affect job satisfaction into three models. These models illustrate (1)
the impact of the job environment, (2) the impact of personality, and (3) the joint influence of the environment and personality on job satisfaction. He added that although personality has been shown to have a connection with job satisfaction, the reasons are not well clarified. Therefore, more studies are needed to identify why personality relates to job satisfaction (Spector, 2008).

Although researchers such as Purohit (2004), Baron (1986), and Glisson and Durick (1988), have found many factors that are related to job satisfaction, the majority of these factors can be categorised into two groups: (a) demographic factors, and (b) organisational factors. By contrast, Boke and Nalla (2009) stated that the work environment was a better indicator of job satisfaction than individual demographic variables. This is supported by other researchers such as Carlan et al., (2007), Davey et al., (2001), Ellickson and Logsdon, (2001), Zhao et al., (1999), and Forsyth and Copes (1994) who found that demographic variables were relatively poor indicators of job satisfaction. However, the studies which dealt with the two groups are presented in the next section.

4.6.1 Job satisfaction and demographic factors
A large body of research has found a link between job satisfaction and a wide range of demographic characteristics. For instance, Oshagbemi (2003) studied academics’ job satisfaction in the UK by examining the relationship between age, gender, and the length of service and job satisfaction, and found that the length of service for those who work within higher education are significant predictors of the level of the individual's overall job satisfaction. However, while academic rank was positively
and very strongly correlated with the overall job satisfaction, gender, age and the length of service in higher education were negatively related job satisfaction. The study concluded that there was a statistically significant correlation between pay and rank of employees and their level of job satisfaction.

Another study of the effects of demographic factor on levels of job satisfaction among academics in eight Turkish universities by Boran (2011) revealed that professors showed a higher level of job satisfaction as compared to instructors and research assistants. Also, social status was ranked as the highest. In contrast, compensation was ranked as the lowest of the examined items. In terms of the demographic variables, age and length of service were significantly related to job satisfaction. However, generally, the study has shown that the interrelationship between demographic characteristics and satisfaction in the Universities of Turkey were high (Bokar 2011).

Similarly, Abdulla et al., (2011) examined the relative effects of demographic factors on employees’ job satisfaction among Dubai police employees such as age, race, gender, education level, and years of work experience and organizational factors such as skills variety, task significance, autonomy and interaction with co-workers, and found that organizational factors such as relationship with co-workers and supervision were better predictors of job satisfaction than demographic factors.

Also, a recent study by Urosevic and Milijic (2012) examined the impact of demographic factors such as professional qualification, years of working experience and age, on a sample of 328 employees in the telecommunications sector in Serbia.
The study showed that the professional qualification had influence on employee satisfaction and motivation. The level of qualification is considered as a significant factor related to achieving the organisation’s goals. It was also found that professional qualifications of different employees’ age group did not have any impact on job satisfaction and motivation. This means that workers who had the same professional qualifications, regardless of their age, had the feeling of job satisfaction and motivation. Also, the study showed that the years of working experience did not influence job satisfaction and motivation.

4.6.2 Job satisfaction and organisational factors

Organisational factors have been widely researched and are considered as the major determinants of the level of employees’ job satisfaction. For example, a study by Sook (2008) examined the job satisfaction of library information technology (IT) workers in relation to reward factors such as a feeling of acceptance, salary, job autonomy, and promotion opportunities in the United States. A total of 443 questionnaires were sent to a sample of IT workers in 30 university libraries. The study found that salary, job autonomy, and promotion opportunities were related to job satisfaction. It provided some explanation as to why some IT workers were more satisfied with their jobs than others. Also the research suggests that recognizing any achievements by individual IT workers or providing feedback about their performance may increase their feelings of satisfaction. Moreover, library IT workers who were aware that their experience was related to promotion
opportunities were more satisfied with their jobs than those who did not. Finally, salary was also an influential factor in the job satisfaction of library IT workers.

Moreover, Seung et al., (2011) examined the determinants of job satisfaction in a sample of 400 officers in South Korean. The five factors that were identified were pay, promotion opportunities, supervisor, and co-worker. The study revealed that all these organisational factors had a significant impact on job satisfaction. Also, they added that the findings of their study could improve public managers’ understanding of the issue of job satisfaction. It means that when the public organisations need to increase employees’ performance and productivity, it should take into account how to keep them satisfied in the workplace. This feeling of satisfaction usually leads to an increase in both performance and productivity.

Similarly, a study by Spagnoli et al., (2011) examined the management practices, rewards, work climate and the work itself in order to identify the level of job satisfaction in a service organization. They found that reward, management, work climate and the work itself contribute differently to overall job satisfaction. They concluded that managers should develop human resource practices that contribute to each of the four job aspects considered. Thus, managers should take these results into account in order to enhance different aspects of job satisfaction across time through monitoring job satisfaction aspects frequently, especially during organizational restructuring process.
Another study by Macaia et al., (2012) studied job satisfaction in five control centres of a Brazilian companies’ electrical system. They compared workers’ job satisfaction in accordance to their job titles such as supervisors, operators and trainees. The results have shown that there was no significant difference in job satisfaction in terms of job title. The study was conducted in different branches following the main Brazilian electricity company. There were statistically significant differences in the findings in comparison with the Brazilian control centres. Therefore, the environmental and regulatory conditions varied from place to place. However, the study found that a single organizational factor could not be applied to several branches due to the differences mentioned above, since each branch had its own characteristics (Macaia et al., 2012).

Moreover, a study by Tagreed (2012) examined the level of job satisfaction in Jordanian kindergarten teachers in relation to dimensions such as working conditions, physical environment, children’s behaviours, and parent participation as well as socio-demographic variables such as age, marital status, and level of education. The study was conducted using a sample of 264 teachers working in private kindergartens in Amman, Jordan. The findings of the study indicated that Jordan’s kindergarten teachers showed an overall average level of job satisfaction. Also, the teachers were highly satisfied with their kindergarten classroom physical environment and their relationships within the school. Moreover, the teachers revealed average satisfaction levels with their working conditions, children’s social behaviours, and parent participation.
It can be concluded from the studies reviewed above that those factors such as professional promotion, salary, aspects of work itself and co-workers increase employee’s satisfaction. Thus, it is important to shed light on these factors in respect to their relationships with job satisfaction as well as job characteristics. Based on the above discussion, the following hypothesis has been developed:

\[ H_4: \text{There is a positive correlation between job satisfaction and organisational factors (i.e. pay/reward, supervision, promotion opportunity, co-workers, and work conditions).} \]

Therefore, the next section presents a theoretical framework for this study by putting all the above studies and hypotheses together.

4.7 Theoretical framework

Miles and Huberman (1994:18) defined a theoretical framework as "a visual or written product, one that explains, either graphically or in narrative form, the main things to be studied - the key factors, concepts, or variables - and the presumed interrelations among them". Also, Cline and Clark (2000) stated that a theoretical framework is a brief description of the major variables related to the problem under investigation together with the researcher's vision of how the independent and dependent variables work together to produce a more comprehensive model of relevant phenomena than has previously been available for shedding light on the problem.

The theoretical framework used for this study includes the key elements related to the Job Characteristics Model and will act as the basic structural model incorporating the dimensions of the job characteristics model and the organisational
factors identified in this chapter, and the inter-relationships between them.

Taking into consideration the gaps in the literature, specifically the absence of a comprehensive model that identifies all the influential factors which lead to outcomes such as employees’ turnover.

Also, the development of the theoretical framework in this study will play an important role in the process of selecting the appropriate methodology to achieve the aim of this study. (see Figure 4.2).

**Figure 4.2: The theoretical framework**

Developed by the researcher

As mentioned earlier, the purpose of this study is to test the application of the job characteristics model and to identify the gap in this topic in the Libyan oil companies. Moreover, the theoretical framework will guide the primary research by
providing the broad foundation within which data collection and analysis, and theory development could take place. Therefore, the development of the theoretical framework of the phenomenon under analysis is entirely appropriate within the context of this study because it is being created in order to build and test the theory of Job Characteristics Model which was being developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975).

4.8 Conclusion
In this chapter, studies of job satisfaction and Job Characteristics Model are reviewed in order to develop a theoretical framework for the study of job satisfaction and job characteristics in the Libyan oil companies. Job satisfaction is one of the elements that lead to increasing organisational performance through improving job performance. One of the main models of job satisfaction is the Job Characteristics Model developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975; 1980). The model took into consideration the needs of the worker as well as the productivity goals of the organization. Several studies have supported the model but others have experienced problems with it. Furthermore, there has been a need to integrate the Job Characteristics Model with the organisational factors which lead to job satisfaction. A number of hypotheses have been developed in relation to the core dimensions of the Job Characteristics Model, job satisfaction and demographic and organisational factors. The methodology that is used to test the hypotheses is presented in the next chapter.
CHAPTER FIVE
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction
The main aim of this chapter is to provide and justify the research approaches and methods that have been adopted in this study. The chapter begins with a discussion of the research philosophy and then the research approach and methods. This is followed by a detailed discussion of the main components of the chosen research design, including quantitative, qualitative and triangulation method. Also, an explanation of the sampling process, including the target population and determination of the sample size is explained before describing the questionnaire as the main method of collecting the research data, including the questionnaire construction, translation, covering letter, the pilot study and the distribution of the questionnaire. This chapter also includes a discussion of ethical considerations, and validity and reliability issues. Finally a brief discussion of the data analysis methods and techniques that have been used to analyse the data are explained before concluding the chapter.

5.2 Research Philosophy
Collis and Hussey (2009:1) pointed out that although research is an important element and central to business and academic activities, there is no agreement in the literature about how it should be defined. They stated that “research means different
things to different people”. For example, Saunders et al., (2009:5) defined research as:

*Something that people undertake in order to find out things in a systematic way, thereby increasing their knowledge about the phenomenon under study.*

Whereas, Krishnaswami and Satyaprasad (2010:2) stated that:

*Research simply means a search for facts- answers to questions and solutions to problems. It is a purposive investigation. It is an “organised inquiry”. It seeks to find explanations to unexplained phenomenon, to clarify the doubtful propositions and to correct the misconceived facts. How is this search made? What are possible methods or approaches?*

However, the process of conducting any research depends on the research philosophy and the research paradigm adopted by the researcher. The research process is influenced by the researcher’s thoughts about the nature of social science and the development of knowledge. Burrell and Morgan (1979) stated that there are various philosophical assumptions which have a direct implication for adopting a specific research methodology and influencing the selection process of an appropriate research paradigm. These assumptions are views about the nature of reality, the nature of knowledge and of human nature. These philosophical assumptions influence the research process of examining, collecting, analysing and interpreting research findings.
Nwokah et al., (2009) argued that business research is treated as a component of social science because it deals with humans and organisations that cannot be predicted. Therefore, any social study should consider the various philosophical assumptions about the nature of social science and the nature of society. Easterby-Smith et al., (2002) discussed issues of research philosophy and the importance of use of the philosophy of research. They identified at least three reasons why an understanding of philosophical assumptions and issues is very useful.First, understanding of philosophical assumptions can assist researchers in clarifying issues regarding their research design. For example, it helps to consider what kind of evidence is required, gathered and interpreted, in addition to helping to provide answers to the research questions. Second, such knowledge can also assist researchers in recognising what is appropriate to achieve their research objectives. Third, an understanding of research philosophy can help researchers to create and/or identify research designs that may be new in their substantive field.

It might be useful before starting the discussion about the best research methodology which will be adapted to this study, to provide an explanation of the main orientations of research philosophies in social science. There are several philosophical schools of thought, which according to Collis and Hussey (2009) can be categorised into two main research philosophies or approaches: positivistic (objectivism) and phenomenological (subjectivism). The key idea of objectivism is based on the belief or assumption that the social reality and social phenomena are independent of us and exist regardless of whether or not we are aware of it.
Therefore, the act of investigating reality does not have an effect on the reality (Collis and Hussey, 2009). Easterby-Smith et al., (2002) explained that the objectivist approach in social sciences assumes that the social world exists externally, and its characteristics should be measured by objective scientific methods as are used in the natural sciences such as physics and chemistry, rather than being inferred subjectively through sensation or inspiration and reflection. Easterby Smith et al., (2002) further clarified that the objectivist approach contains two main assumptions. First, an ontological assumption of objectivism sees that reality is external and objective; and second, an epistemological assumption which sees that knowledge is only significant if it is based on observation of external reality.

By contrast, the key idea of the subjective approach is based on the belief or assumption that the world is socially constructed and has subjective consciousness. It sees that social reality and social phenomena are determined by social actors’ actions and perceptions (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002) and it is within us. Therefore, the act of investigating reality affects reality. The subjectivist approach focuses on meaning and is concerned with understanding human behaviour involved in the social phenomenon from the participant’s own frame of reference (Collis and Hussey, 2009). Easterby-Smith et al.,(2002) explained that the subjectivist approach focuses on what social actors individually and collectively are thinking and feeling about the social phenomenon under research. They pointed out that in a subjectivist approach, researchers may try to explain why people have different thoughts or experiences rather than seek for external causes and
fundamental laws to explain their behaviour. Bryman and Bell (2007) illustrated that the central point of the difference between these two research philosophies or approaches is concerned with the question of whether social entities can be considered as objective entities having a reality external to social actors or whether they should be considered as social constructions built up from the perception and action of social actors.

However, Easterby-Smith et al., (2002) states that most researchers do not hold to a single approach. They added that management researchers who adopt a pragmatic view use combined methods, especially when it comes to the use of quantitative or qualitative methods and designing the research strategy because this provides fuller perspectives on the phenomena being investigated. For example, the multi-method approach is used in many studies of job satisfaction (Bryman and Bell 2007). Positivism looks for the existence of predictive relationships between variables (Collis and Hussey 2003; Saunders et al., 2007; and Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). Thus, the current research can therefore be described as an example of positivist work because the researcher has formulated and tested hypotheses.

5.3 Research approach
Research approach is the next step that researchers undertake following the formulation of the research objectives and questions (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 2008). Punch (2005) noted that it is important to establish the research approach after setting out the research questions. Creswell (2003) states that there
are three approaches that the research can take: quantitative, qualitative and mixed method (Triangulation). These approaches are discussed below:

5.3.1 Quantitative Research
Quantitative research methods deal with the measurements of concepts with scales that either directly or indirectly provides numeric values (Hussey and Hussey, 1997; Gillham, 2000; Zikmund et al., 2010). In other words, the quantitative method emphasises the measurement and testing of hypothesised or causal relationships between variables through the collection of data in their numerical form (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994). Therefore, they can be easily measured or counted and analysed using statistical procedures in order to determine whether it is possible to generalize the study findings to the general population (Creswell, 2003). Also, Cicourel (1982) stated that quantitative research methods represent the analysis process of the relationships between variables which may create a static view of social life or social processes.

According to Holland and Campbell (2005), quantitative research has the advantage of generating standardised numerical data, along with describing and predicting a relationship for a large population with a high degree of confidence. Also, quantitative research can provide stronger forms of measurement and establish more reliability, causality, and generalisation capability of the study findings (Bryman, 2001). Moreover, the quantitative approach can deal with a large number of samples within a relatively short period of time, which helps to increase the method’s generalisation capacity (Berg, 2001).
Furthermore, Maxwell (2005) refers to quantitative research as a structured approach that helps to ensure the comparability and generalisation ability of data across individuals, times, settings and researchers. However, there are some advantages which run from the point that quantitative methods attempt to neutralise the researcher and reduce or eliminate the researcher’s influence on the research (Collins, 1992; Lamnek, 1988). Also, Robson (2002:599) pointed out several disadvantages of quantitative research, referring to it as “a field where it is not difficult at all to carry out an analysis which is simply wrong or inappropriate for your purposes”.

5.3.2 Qualitative Research
Qualitative research involves the interpretation of phenomena without depending on numerical measurements or statistical methods. It is mainly concerned with observing, listening and interpreting phenomena (Zikmund et al., 2010). The main data collection method is through in-depth interviews, observations or focus groups. Moreover, the qualitative approach is an alternative approach which is “subjective in nature and involves examining and reflecting on perceptions in order to gain an understanding of social and human activities” (Collis and Hussey, 2003:53).

Qualitative data involve more in-depth descriptions, concerning individuals (Alvesson and Deetz, 2000) and their perception of the world (Bell, 1993). This method takes into account the need for flexibility (Sarantakos, 1994) and offers high validity (Collis and Hussey, 2003). Generally, qualitative research is viewed as less reliable because the data are more subjective than the data obtained by quantitative
methods. In qualitative research, sample sizes are commonly too small to allow the researcher to generalise the data beyond the sample selected (Dillon et al., 1993).

Nevertheless, qualitative methods are favoured when constructing a new scale relating to a subject about explaining human feelings and thoughts such as an employee’s experiences of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. It relies heavily on the acquisition of information on people’s understanding and knowledge. Therefore, a qualitative approach accomplishes exploration beyond the quantitative method.

To sum up, qualitative methods are suitable for addressing questions of how and why things occur, whereas quantitative methods are more appropriate for answering what and how questions (Yin, 1994). Although there have been many controversial issues regarding which approach is better or more scientific, especially before the 1990s, the choice of which method to use depends on the research problem and the purposes for which the research was conducted (Jankowicz, 1991; Hathaway, 1995). Decisions about which kind of research method to adopt may also be based on the researcher's own experience and preference, the population being researched, the proposed audience for the findings, and the availability of time and other resources. Both quantitative and qualitative approaches can provide a precious contribution to the world of research. There is no restriction on using just one approach at a time, as the use of any of them is mainly dependent on the nature of the research being carried out. According to Das (1983), cited in Amaratunga et al., (2002: 23):
Qualitative and quantitative methodologies are not antithetic or divergent, rather they focus on the different dimensions of the same phenomenon. Sometimes, these dimensions may appear to be confluent; but even in these instances, where they apparently diverge, the underlying unity may become visible on deeper penetration... The situational contingencies and objectives of the researcher would seem to play a decisive role in the design and execution of the study.

Based on the foregoing discussion, the researcher can obtain benefits of the advantages of each methodology and strengthen the research design, which may help in gaining more accurate information and thus more understanding of the research topic.

5.3.3 Triangulation or mixed method
The concept of using mixed methods is called triangulation. According to Mangan et al., (2004), there are four types of triangulation, namely:

(1) Data triangulation, where data are collected from different sources or in different times.

(2) Investigator triangulation, where data are collected by independent investigators.

(3) Methodological triangulation, where both qualitative and quantitative techniques are used.

(4) Triangulation of theories, where one theory forms a specific discipline which is used to explain a phenomenon that belongs to another discipline.

Moreover, by using a mixed method, the researcher will be sure that the bias that may accrue when using particular data sources, investigations or methods would be
eliminated when used in combination with other data sources, investigations, or methods (Creswell, 1994). Therefore, multiple methods should be used to fully understand the phenomena under investigation and to enhance the validity and reliability of the research.

The logic of using triangulation in social research has been illustrated by Denzin (1978), Van Maanen (1979), and Burgess (1984). They argued that no single method is adequate for solving a research problem because each method reveals different aspects of empirical reality. Moreover, Greene et al., (1989) cited in Creswell, (1994:175) gave five reasons for combining different methods in one single study. These are:

1. When convergence of results is needed.
2. Complementary, in those overlapping and different facets of a phenomenon may emerge.
3. For developmental proposes, when the first method is used sequentially to help inform the second method.
4. Initiation, wherein contradictions and fresh perspectives emerge.
5. Expansion, wherein the mixed methods add scope and breadth to a study.

Triangulation, using qualitative, quantitative methods and documentary data, is a better method of collecting data for this research because of the wide range of issues covered in this study. Therefore, the qualitative and quantitative methods conducted and supplemented with some observations and documentary data are feasible because all the organisations studied are located in Benghazi city.
The quantitative method is represented by using both self-administrated- Minnesota questionnaire (MSQ) and Job-Diagnostic-Survey (JDS) - while the qualitative method is represented by using semi structured interviews, field observations and documentations to generate the data that serve the exploratory nature of the study.

5.4 Research design

Research design is the plan and structure of investigation that enables the researcher to obtain answers to the research question (Kerlinger, 1986). The choice of a research design is guided by the purpose of the study, the type of investigation, the extent of researcher involvement, the stage of knowledge in the field, the time period over which the data is to be collected and the type of analysis to be carried out (i.e. whether quantitative or qualitative) (Sekaran, 2003). According to Sarantakos (2005), any research required two basic stages; the first is the planning stage, in which the researcher constructs the design and the plan of his/her research, and the second is the execution stage, in which the researcher collects and analyses his/her data. Sarantakos (2005:106) summarized the main purpose of the research design in the following:

1- To provide the researcher with the essential framework for collecting and analysing his data and reflect the succession of the research process.

2- To offer a systematic approach to the research operation, thus guaranteeing that all aspects of the study will be addressed and that they will be executed in the right sequence.
3- To make the steps of the research design clear, enabling the researchers to foresee and prevent eventual errors, bias and distortions.

Moreover, Babbie (2004) argued that if the researchers clearly specify what they want to find out and specify the right research design, they will be able to reach their objectives. Due to the choice of a mixed methods approach in this study, the qualitative approach first helped to generate insightful information to test the Job Characteristics Model (JCM) and identify the level of job satisfaction. The quantitative approach helped to facilitate understanding the correlations among the variables included in the JCM. On this basis, the research design adopted for this study involved sequential procedures as follows
Figure 5.1: Research design overview

Research problem

Conceptual analysis of Motivation theories and job satisfaction

Theoretical analysis of the Job Characteristics Model (JCM)

Data collection

Quantitative Data (Questionnaire)

Qualitative Data (Interviews, observations and documentations)

Data Analysis and Results (SPSS.19)

Interpretative analysis

Discussion (Relations and Explanation)

Conclusions and Recommendations
5.5 Research population

The population of this study has included all employees in various levels of management in the oil companies located in Benghazi city. There are four companies which represent the population of the study as follows: Gulf Arabian Company; El Brega Company for Oil Marketing; Al Jouf Oil Technology Company; and Zueitina Oil Company. These companies have been targeted to be the population of the study to test the Job Characteristics Model, job satisfaction level, and the relation of both to employee turnover. A description of the companies under study was given in the chapter 2, section 2.11.

5.6 Determination of the sample size

The sample size for this study was identified using a formula developed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970). In order to simplify the process of sample size determination for researchers, Krejcie and Morgan created a table (see Appendix D) based on the formula which shows the population of the study and the expected sample size; thus ensuring that the researcher obtained a representative sample for the study. The formula and the table are shown below:

\[ S = \frac{x^2np(1-P)}{d^2(n-1)} + x^2p(1-P) \]

\( S \) = the required sample size.

\( X^2 \) = the table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level (i.e. 3.841).

\( N \) = the population size.
\( P \) = the population proportion (assumed to be 0.50 since this could provide the maximum sample size).

\( d \) = the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion.

To determine a sample size from a given population, the researcher was able to identify the respondents with the help of the Human Resource Department of each company, where the total research population was 4320 employees. In accordance with Krejcie and Morgan formula, the sample size from the given population should be 351 (see Appendix D) as the sum of the total number of firms under study. Therefore, by dividing the number of employees, which represents population of the study in each company on the total sample which represents 351, the researcher was able to obtain the sample size of each company as shown in the following table:

**Table 5.1: Total sample for each company**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of companies</th>
<th>Number of employees (N)</th>
<th>Sample size (S)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gulf Arab Oil Company</td>
<td>1275</td>
<td>1275/4320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>( .30 \times 351 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>El Brega Company for Oil Marketing</td>
<td>1438</td>
<td>1438/4320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>( .33 \times 351 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al Jouf Company for Oil Technology</td>
<td>912</td>
<td>912/4320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>( .21 \times 351 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zueitina Oil Company</td>
<td>695</td>
<td>695/4320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>( .16 \times 351 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>4320</td>
<td>351</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

133
However, every person in the population has to be listed before the corresponding random numbers can be read. Therefore, the sample was not selected from volunteers. It was arranged carefully so that each participant in each company had a fair chance of selection.

5.7 Data collection methods

Data collection methods are instruments and mechanisms used to acquire research data (Collis and Hussey, 2007). Examples of these methods are questionnaires, observation, and interviews. Some of these techniques are qualitative such as interview and observation, and some are quantitative such as survey questionnaires (Fisher, 2007). Thus, researchers are required to adopt a strategy that tends to place the research in either the quantitative or qualitative methods, or a mix of them (Creswell, 2002).

The quantitative method comprises of data collection techniques and data analysis procedures which generate the use of numerical data (White, 2003, Bryman and Bell, 2007). The method was originally developed to investigate natural phenomenon. However, this aspect of research method is currently extensively utilized in business and management studies. Quantitative methods can also include surveys and laboratory experiments (Coleman and Briggs, 2007). A qualitative method is an inquiry process for understanding a social study that is based on building a complex holistic picture (Zikmund et al., 2010).
In this study, as mentioned above, in order to answer the research questions and meet the objectives of the study, the decision was made to adopt a mixed method approach through applying both face-to-face semi structured interviews and self-administrated questionnaires (delivered and collected by the researcher).

5.7.1 The Questionnaire
The self-administered questionnaire was used to collect the quantitative data. According to May (1996) and Bryman (2004), there are some advantages of using this type of questionnaire. One of these advantages is the low cost involved when compared with administering interviews, as it can save the researcher’s time by covering a wider area and a large quantity of data at the same time. Another advantage is that it is more convenient for respondents as it gives them the freedom to answer the questions in their own time and at their own pace. Moreover, it eliminates the interviewer effect. However, it cannot be claimed that the questionnaire is perfect, as there are some disadvantages attached to this kind of data collection. For example, there is no one who can help the respondents when they need some clarifications about answering some questions. Another disadvantage is that, if the respondent begins by reading the whole questionnaire before answering the first question, this may lead to the loss of the question’s independency. In other words, overlap process may occur with some questions because usually the questions are convergent and sequential. Also, there is a probability of losing data when the respondent does not answer certain questions. It is also not possible to know who actually filled in the questionnaire. Finally, there is a probability of getting a low responses rate (Bryman, 2004).
5.7.1.1 Construction of the questionnaire

The questionnaire was developed after a careful review of the literature, and the researcher’s frequent discussions with his supervisor. As well as understanding the main question which aims to test the job characteristics model of Hackman and Oldham (1976) in the Libyan oil companies to identify the correlations between the five core dimensions of the job characteristics model (JCM) which are autonomy, skill variety, task identity, task significance and feedback and some outputs such as job satisfaction and employees’ turnover. Also, the study aims to explore the level of overall job satisfaction as well as identify the organisational factors that may affect job satisfaction. Based on the above, the questionnaire developed for the current study was adopted after reviewing a number of questionnaires associated with the studies conducted to understand how to apply the Job Characteristics Model in relationships with job satisfaction and employees’ turnover in the Libyan oil companies. Therefore, after excluding some items and adding others, the final draft of the questionnaire that was developed and adopted for the current study includes four sections (see Appendix B). The first section includes general information about the respondents’ gender, age, qualification, career level, and length of service. The second section includes 35 statements related to job satisfaction adapted from Abid’s (1990) and developed from the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). This part was developed and re-written to make it suitable for using in the Libyan companies. The third section of the questionnaire represents the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) that was developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975) and includes 23 statements to measure the level of the five core dimensions of autonomy, skill
variety, task identity, task significance and feedback of the Job Characteristics Model in the Libyan oil companies under study.

The fourth section includes four statements which were adopted from an instrument reported by Price (2001) to explore employees’ turnover among a range of categories of workers. This consists of four statements. The response options for each of the statements in the four sections were based on five point Likert – scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

5.7.1.2 Translation of the Questionnaire
Once the questionnaire design had been approved by the Research Ethics Committee of the Dundee Business School and accepted by the researcher’s supervisor, it was necessary to translate it from English to Arabic. It was very important to make sure that the English version of the questionnaire was similar to the Arabic one and reflected the same meaning. The original questionnaire was translated from English to Arabic by the researcher, in consultation with two academic members of the Management Department in Benghazi University in Libya, who both independently repeated the translation from Arabic to English. Then, differences were discussed with an expert translator in Libya to ensure the identification of the meaning in both versions. Finally agreement about the Arabic edition of the questionnaire was reached. This reverse translation confirms that the Arabic questionnaire was valid and reliable for this study.
5.7.1.3 The Covering Letter
A formal covering letter from the researcher requesting the recipients to facilitate the research mission and to provide him with necessary information for the intended study was written in English and then translated into Arabic. According to Saunders et al. (2003) most self–administrated questionnaires are accompanied by a covering or explanatory letter to explain the purpose of the research. The covering letter helps to increase the response rate. Also, the covering letter in this study was written on a single page and used the University of Abertay Dundee letterhead. It explained the aim and importance of the study, encouraged the participants to cooperate by providing accurate data, urged them to return the completed questionnaire, and assured them of the confidentiality of the information (see Appendix A).

5.7.1.4 The Pilot study
A pilot study is one of the most important steps and necessary for the success of any research and to achieve a better understanding of the research context and phenomenon. It is the final stage prior to collecting the actual data from the field. Saunders et al., (2003:308) state that “the purpose of the pilot test is to refine the questionnaire so that respondents will have no problems in answering the questions and there will be no problems in recording the data. It also enables the researcher to obtain some assessment of the question validity and the likely reliability of the data that will be collected”. The aim of the pilot survey is to establish that the proposed questionnaire is understandable and clear to the members of the target population. It is useful to pilot the questionnaire with a small sample of respondents to check its
suitability for achieving the research aims and objectives (Hussey and Hussey, 1997).

To ensure that the data that would be obtained from the questionnaire would be valid and reliable, the researcher carried out a pilot study in the oil companies using 20 employees. They were asked if there were any questions that they believed to be important to be included or not. The following questions were also asked in the pilot study:

• Are the instructions clear enough?
• Which, if any, questions are unclear or ambiguous?
• Which, if any, questions did you feel uneasy about answering?
• Are there, in your opinion, any significant topic omissions?
• Will you please add any comments or suggestions?

The researcher sat with some of the respondents with whom he was already familiar and discussed the questionnaire in an attempt to achieve the best wording of the questions. Minor modifications, as a result, were made on the basis of the responses from the pilot study, and the discussion with relevant people. The researcher was able to confirm that his questionnaire was suitable and appropriate to the aim and objectives of the study.

5.7.2 Distribution of the questionnaire
The fieldwork of this study was conducted in Libya - the country of the researcher - from October 2012 to December 2012. During the time of this study the political situation was stable and therefore suitable for the conduct of this study.
An initial stage of the fieldwork process was a personal visit to each organisation's headquarters from the oil companies located in Benghazi city by the researcher to introduce himself and his study. This kind of visit was very important to build trust with the participants, to encourage them to participate and to determine a deadline for completing the questionnaires. It is important to mention that the questionnaires were distributed and collected by the researcher himself. Because all the surveyed organisations were located in the same area in Benghazi City, so it was easy for the researcher to move from one to another. The questionnaires were distributed on 3 October 2012 to each participant personally and gave them two weeks to fill them in their own time. The advantage of this type of questionnaire collection is its ability to establish a good bond with the respondents (Sekaran, 2003).

5.7. 3 Semi-Structured Interviews
The second research method employed in this study is semi-structured interviews. Interviews can be defined as a conversation between two or more people, where questions are asked by the researcher to obtain relevant information from the interviewee about the phenomenon under investigation (Powney and Watts, 1987). Interviews, as a research method, are qualitative in nature and are associated with using both positivist and phenomenological methodologies and are considered one of the most useful methods of data collection (May, 2005). It helps to generate rich insights into interviewees’ perceptions, experiences, values, attitudes and feelings. However, there are three types of interviews namely; structured interviews, semi-structured interviews, and unstructured interviews. These three types of interview represent a continuum of formality, moving from rigidly structured
interviews with closed questions to unstructured interviews with open questions; the semi-structured interview falls in the middle of this continuum. Semi-structured interviews are more flexible than structured interviews and less flexible than unstructured interviews. Bryman and Bell (2007:474) described the semi-structured interviews as:

*The researcher has a list of questions on fairly specific topics to be covered, often referred to as an interview guide, but the interviewee has a great deal of leeway in how to reply. Questions may not follow on exactly in the way outlined on the schedule. Questions that are not included in the guide may be asked as the interviewer picks up on things said by interviewees. But, by and large, all of the questions will be asked and a similar wording will be used from interviewee to interviewee.*

Semi-structured interviews contain a number of predetermined questions about specific topics related to the research questions. Each interviewee is asked all questions in a systematic and consistent order, but the interviewers are allowed freedom to digress (Berg, 2007) and keep strictly to the time (Kumar, 2005). One of the main aspects of the semi-structured interview is the degree of flexibility to manage and to manipulate the developing conversation. This aspect allows the researcher to raise questions that emerge from the issues being investigated as the interview progresses. Moreover, it also gives interviewees the opportunity to freely express their views, behaviours and beliefs in relation to developing discussion and at the same time maintain an element of structure which simplifies analysis and comparison of interviews (May, 2005). Also, semi-structured interviews enable the researcher to explore the uncovered issues in prearranged questions or to gain rich information on a particular research topic. Bryman and Bell (2007) argued that the
flexibility and comparability of semi-structured interviews can help the researcher to concentrate on the main objective of the interview since the interviewer can make sure that all the questions are being covered.

Based on above, this study used a semi-structured interview to support the questionnaire in order to explore workers’ perceptions towards the application of the Job Characteristics Model (JCM) and to identify the level of overall job satisfaction and its relationship with the five core dimensions of the JCM and employees’ turnover in the Libyan oil companies located in Benghazi City.

The interview process was very similar to that of the questionnaire. Also, the interviews were conducted during the months of October 2012 to December 2012 with the workers in the Libyan oil companies located in Benghazi city. Twenty employees were chosen randomly from the total sample of 351. All of them agreed to take part in the interview. The average duration of each interview was close to one hour, and all interviews were recorded with the permission of the interviewees. Interview recordings were later transcribed in Arabic and then relevant parts were translated into English. However, the interviews that were carried out for this study are considered as open discussions in general because they allow the respondents to provide more important information related issues. At the end of each interview the researcher thanked the respondent for his time and assured utmost confidentiality of the data provided.
5.7.4 Direct Observation
Observational evidence is a method by which to generate additional data about the research topic and help the researcher to gain a better understanding of the research topic (Yin, 1994). The researcher spent close to three months in conducting his fieldwork in the Libyan oil companies. This long period of time gave the researcher the chance to take field-notes about the work environment (work spaces, lighting, airing, furnishing, and work facilities), managerial practices, workers’ behaviour, and the personal relationships between managers in the actual work settings. These observations were easy for the researcher since he shares the respondents their language and social background. The researcher wrote all the things that draw his attention. These observations helped to form a general understanding of the work environment, work systems, and work problems in the companies studied and provided another valuable source of data. It also gave the researcher a deeper and more comprehensive understanding of workers’ perceptions towards the different factors studied.

5.7.5 Publications and Official Documents
Because of their value, documents play an important role in the data collection process (Yin, 2003). In this study, publications and official documents were other sources of generating data as they helped in building the grounds of this study. For example, there was a pressing need to find out the rules and the regulations which organise the oil sector in general and the organizational structure of the companies studied. Therefore, during the field study, the researcher managed to collect the required documents from each library of the companies studied as well as the reports and the documents saved in the companies’ archives across different departments.
5.8 Ethical Considerations

Ethical issues were considered by the researcher during the entire research process in relation to research design, data collection and analysis. The most important issues and concerns that the researcher had to consider and fulfil were:

• Informing the participants in details about their involvements in the research (informing consent).

• Avoiding harm and risk.

• Allowing free choice.

• Ensuring privacy.

• Confidentiality.

• Anonymity.

All these issues were addressed clearly by the researcher in the ethical approval application submitted to the University of Abertay - Dundee Business School, UK. The researcher explained and justified how the participants would be informed about the project and how the data would be collected. Also, assurances for avoiding any harm and risk to the researcher and the participants during the data collection and analysis process were given as well as the free choice of withdrawing from the study at any time was assured. Likewise, ensuring privacy, confidentiality and anonymity of the respondents during the data collection and analysis process were provided for in the ethical application form. As a result, all the collected data remained confidential and anonymous. Moreover, the researcher clearly explained the purpose of the research in the questionnaire covering letter. During the data analysis stage, the researcher had to maintain objectivity to ensure that there is no
misinterpretation of the data that had been collected. Lack of objectivity at this stage was likely to distort the conclusions and any course of action that may arise from the study (Saunders et al., 2007).

5.9 Response Rate
As mentioned earlier, the population of this study included all employees in various levels of management in the four oil companies located in Benghazi city.

The sample size was calculated by using the schedule of Krejcie and Morgan (1970). A total of 331 questionnaires were returned and usable, after excluding the questionnaires which were not valid to use for the statistical analysis. The result was a response rate of about 82.75%. To some extent, this ratio represents a high rate for the following reasons:

• The way by which the questionnaire (self-administered) affects the response rate. This method is recommended as a good way of data collection (Oppenheim, 1992; Hussey and Hussey, 1997; Sekaran, 2003). The rationale for the use of this method is its ability to assure a high response rate. In addition, there are other advantages, such as low cost and little time spent in collecting the questionnaire.

• The covering letter and the supervisor's letter accompanied the questionnaires explained the research objectives clearly.

• The respondents were assured that their co-operation was important to the success of this study.
• Personal visits were conducted to remind the respondents to answer the questionnaire and clarify any questions that were not clear.

Table 5.2 Response Rates from each company studied

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Companies</th>
<th>Distributed</th>
<th>Return response</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gulf Arab</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>82.5 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>El Brega</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>80 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al Jouf</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>81.2 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zueitina</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>90 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>400</strong></td>
<td><strong>331</strong></td>
<td><strong>82.75 %</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.10 Validity and Reliability Evaluation

According to Bryman and Bell (2007), reliability is concerned with the consistency of the research measures and findings. Collis and Hussey (2009) explained that research, measurements or findings can be reliable if they give the same results by re-testing them with the same test at a different time. According to Field (2009), reliability is a measure that consistently reflects the construct that is measured. In the case of questionnaire surveys and interviews, there are three common ways to look at reliability of the participants’ responses to the questions: test and re-test method; split-half; and internal consistency method (Collis and Hussey, 2009).
However, Field (2009) considered that the internal consistency method which is based on Cronbach’s Alpha Test is statistically the best way to assess the reliability of questionnaire responses. The Cronbach’s Alpha Test ranges between zero and one. The higher the coefficient alpha is the more reliable the response. According to Field (2009), a value of 0.70 is a minimum acceptable value for Cronbach’s Alpha Test. However, Kline (2000) suggests that values below 0.70 can also be realistically expected in the case of psychological constructs because of the diversity of the constructs being measured. In this study, the Cronbach’s Alpha Test was used to measure the reliability of questionnaire responses. The result of this test indicates that almost all the questions lay within the normal and accepted range and the overall alpha value for the whole sample was 0.68, confirming the reliability of respondents’ answers (see Appendix F).

According to Kumar (2005), validity refers to whether a research tool is able to measure what it is designed to measure. Kirk and Miller (1986) explained that validity is concerned with the extent to which a research tool gives the correct answer. Therefore, it is important to ensure that a research tool (i.e. interview or questionnaire survey) carefully reflects the correct meanings and connects to the research questions. Saunders et al., (2009) stated that a research tool should be pilot tested before conducting the empirical research to assess its validity. In this study, the validity of the questionnaires was assessed by academics through a pilot test, as outlined earlier in this chapter.
5.11 Data Analysis
To analyse the quantitative data in this study, the simplest form of statistical application was performed. The SPSS statistical package was used for the organisation and analysis of the data. Once the data had been gathered and categorised, a frequency distribution of all items were computed for all variables in each category. Correlation coefficients were computed between each dependent and independent variables to show the extent to which the values in one variable are related to the other variables. Means and standard deviations of the subset of each of the performance variables were also calculated.

A descriptive analysis of the data collected is presented in the next chapter in order to obtain a comprehensive picture of the research findings. The researcher found that the descriptive method was the most appropriate since the nature of the study objectives and questions was to explore and discover the relationship between job characteristics model, job satisfaction and employees’ turnover in the Libyan oil companies.

To analyse the qualitative data from the interviews for this study, an interpretive approach was considered. Since the interviews data were considered significantly and used to support the questionnaire data, there was no significant advantage was anticipated in using a computer programme and it was therefore decided to conduct the analysis manually.

5.12 Conclusion
This chapter began with a review of the main research approaches in order to reach the appropriate methodology that can be adopted to achieve the objectives of this
research. The nature of this research required an in-depth understanding of the phenomena under investigation. Therefore, triangulation was the chosen approach for collecting the research data, as using triangulation helped the researcher to gain advantages of each of the data collection methods. The quantitative approach was represented by using a self-administrated questionnaire, and the qualitative approach was represented by using semi-structured interviews as the second phase of data collection. Also, the chapter has explained how the pilot study was carried out to adopt the questionnaire, how it was conducted, and the benefits that had been gained from the pilot study. The necessary steps for determining the research sample from the Libyan oil companies located in Benghazi city have been explained. The self-administrated questionnaire was the main technique used to gather the quantitative data as it helped the researcher to cover a wider area at a low cost. The quantitative data were analysed by using the SPSS.18, while a content analysis was used to analyse the qualitative data. Moreover, observations, publications and official documents were used to gain a better understanding of the topics under investigation. Thus, the analysis of the findings derived from the interviews and the questionnaire survey are presented in the next chapter.
CHAPTER SIX: ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF
THE FINDINGS

6.1 Introduction
This chapter the correlations amongst the five factors included in the JCM with job
satisfaction and employees’ turnover. The first section provides an analysis of the
background of the respondents. The second section shows the inferential statistics
which include the results of the hypotheses test. Also, the chapter concludes with a
summary of the main findings. The main aim of this study is to apply Hackman and
Oldham`s (1975) Job Characteristics Model in the Libyan oil companies. A total of
400 questionnaires were distributed to employees in four oil companies located in
Benghazi city. The number of questionnaires which were returned was 331. This
represents a response rate of 82.75 percent. The number was valid for statistical
analysis. Further, the study examined the relationship among the variables included
in the Job Characteristics Model.

6.2 Background of the Respondents
It is important to introduce the background of the respondents who participated in
the survey to understand their characteristics and more within the organisations
studied. Findings in relation to gender, age, education level, career level, and work
experience are presented in this section in order to have a better understanding of the
sample selected for this study.
6.2.1 Gender
It can be seen from Table 6.1 below that the majority of the respondents were male. Out of the 331 respondents only 38.1 % (126) were female while 61.9 % (205) were male. This is not surprising but a significant representation of female employees in a dominated society where the majority of employees are male.

Table 6.1 Distribution of the sample by Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal information</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>61.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>38.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.2.2 Age group
It can be seen from Table 6.2 below that the largest proportions of the respondents were between 31 and 40 years old. It represents 30 % of the respondents. Only 7.6% of the respondents were over the age of 60. The ages between 20 to 30 represent 26.6% while the ages between 41 to 50 represent 20.8% of the respondents. It can be concluded that 57.1% of the respondents were young employees. It means that most of the respondents were in the middle of their working careers and still they have many more years of services within their companies.
Table 6.2: Distribution of the sample by Age group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age group</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20-30 years</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>26.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40 years</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>30.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50 years</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>20.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-61 years</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 61 years</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>331</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.00</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.2.3 Educational level

It can be seen from Table 6.3 below that the higher qualification in terms of educational level was for those who have a Bachelor degree; they represent 56.2% of the respondents. While the number of those who have Diploma and PhD plus Master came in the second place respectively. It means that the majority of the respondents are university graduates.

Table 6.3: Distribution of the sample by Educational level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education level</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>26.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>56.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD +Master</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>331</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.00</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.2.4 Career Level
It can be seen from Table 6.4 below that the majority (58.3 %) of the respondents were in the middle-management. The senior management came in the second place representing 23.6% of the sample. It means that the middle management's job is restricted by only handling the flow of information both from upper management to the workers and from the workers up to the members of the senior management staff.

Table 6.4: Distribution of the sample by Career level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career Level</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senior Management</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>23.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Management</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>58.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior Management</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>18.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>331</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.00</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.2.5 Work experience
Table 6.5 below shows that the majority of the respondents (31.7%) had a work experience ranging from 1 to 10 years. About 12.1 % of the respondents had less than one year of work experience and 17.2% had more than 31 years of work experience. It means that most of the sample had reasonable experience in working in the Libyan oil companies.
Table 6.5: Distribution of the sample by work experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Total work Experience</th>
<th>Personal information</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than one year</td>
<td></td>
<td>40</td>
<td>12.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-10 years</td>
<td></td>
<td>105</td>
<td>31.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20 years</td>
<td></td>
<td>67</td>
<td>20.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30 years</td>
<td></td>
<td>62</td>
<td>18.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 31 years</td>
<td></td>
<td>57</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td></td>
<td>331</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.3 Core dimensions of the job characteristics model

The five core dimensions of the job characteristics model (Autonomy, skill variety, task identity, task significance and feedback) were measured using the frequencies, mean and standard deviation in order to calculate the motivation potential score (MPS). The analysis of the data in relation to the five dimensions is presented in the next sections.

6.3.1 Autonomy

Table 6.6 below presents the frequency of responses (in percentages) towards the statements included in the questionnaire in relation to the level of autonomy that the respondents had in their workplace.
Table 6.6: The level of Autonomy (%), Mean and SD.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>Std</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have almost complete responsibility for deciding how and when the work is to be done.</td>
<td>33 (10%)</td>
<td>30 (9.1%)</td>
<td>92 (27.8%)</td>
<td>90 (27.2%)</td>
<td>86 (26%)</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have very little freedom in deciding how the work is to be done.</td>
<td>61 (18.4%)</td>
<td>110 (33.2%)</td>
<td>62 (18.7%)</td>
<td>44 (13.3%)</td>
<td>54 (16.3%)</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>1.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My job does not allow me an opportunity to use discretion or participate in decision making.</td>
<td>72 (21.8%)</td>
<td>80 (24.2%)</td>
<td>56 (16.9%)</td>
<td>62 (18.7%)</td>
<td>61 (18.4%)</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>1.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My job gives me considerable freedom in doing the work.</td>
<td>36 (10.9%)</td>
<td>50 (15.1%)</td>
<td>57 (17.2%)</td>
<td>102 (30.8%)</td>
<td>86 (26%)</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>1.31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.6 shows that 53.2 % of the respondents agree with the first statement, “I have almost complete responsibility for deciding how and when the work is to be done.”
done”. This represents a total of 176 employees. By contrast, only 19.1% of the respondents disagreed with the first statement. It means that the majority of the respondents have the autonomy for deciding how and when the work is to be done. Also, whereas, the mean values were 3.50, the standard deviation was 1.25. It can be seen that the employees have a degree of responsibility with regard to how and when the work is to be done, and they have the right to decide it by themselves.

Also, Table 6.6 shows that 51.6% of the respondents disagreed with the second statement “I have very little freedom in deciding how the work is to be done”. This percentage represents the majority of the respondents. However only, the minority of the respondents were neutral as the percentage was 18.7%. Furthermore, the mean and the standard deviation of the respondents are calculated as 2.71 and 1.34 respectively. It can be seen with regard to the second statement that the employees have a degree of freedom to decide how the work should be done.

Despite these positive statistical results, one manager stated that just a few months before the Libyan uprising, the condition in the Libyan oil companies were different completely. He said:

Actually we are managers without any authority. To reach this post I am supposed to be qualified and capable of managing the department competently. Nevertheless, I have discovered that most of my authorities are not on hand and are conditioned to the approval of my direct boss.

Again, some other managers shared the same opinion, considering themselves as non-influential persons who had to follow their superiors’ orders and were told what
to do. That was seen a logical consequence of the centralization of decision making in the Libyan organisations and society. As one of the respondents illustrated:

The autonomy here is reduced and not increased. It is taken and not given. Everything is decided by the sector head.

Another manager in the El Brega Company from the operation level said:

In this company, we are suffering from the bureaucratic red tape as it is impossible to get anything done with just one single signature, as at least four signatures are needed to pass a decision. That means decisions are delayed and so are actions. I think if authority delegation is really applied, a lot of time will be saved and operations will become easier and streamlined.

Moreover, the majority (46%) of the respondents disagreed with the third statement, “my job does not allow me an opportunity to use discretion or participate in decision making”, while 37.1% of the respondents agree. The minority of the respondents were neutral as the ratio was 16.9%. It can be concluded that the job gives not only the opportunity to the employees to participate in making decision in terms of their own workers but also gives them comprehensive autonomy to decide how the work will be done. For instance, the engineers confirm that technical activities undertaken by them were approved by the engineering department completely without intervention of senior management. Also, another respondent said that the managers were qualified to develop the necessary plans to complete their task on the district level, and report the appropriate way to accomplish it.
Regarding the fourth statement “my job gives me considerable freedom in doing the work”, the majority (56.8%) of the respondents agree, while the minority (26%) of the respondents disagree. Furthermore, the mean and standard deviation were 3.46 and 1.31 respectively. It can be concluded that the level of autonomy for the respondents was moderate. In addition, the employees who work in the Libyan oil companies had the freedom and independence, both as individuals, and as a department.

6.3.2 Skill variety
Table 6.7 below shows the five statements and the frequencies of responses (in percentages) toward the skill variety task characteristics, which means the range of abilities needed to perform a specific job. For example, positions which require an individual to possess different skill sets in order to perform job duties are known to have a high skill variety. The majority (50.7%) of the respondents agreed with the first statement, “I have a chance to do a number of different tasks, using a wide variety of different skills and talent”. The ratio of employees who disagreed with this statement was 17.8%. It can be concluded that the respondents had enough chance to do a variety of different activities so the employee can use various skills and talents to carryout his/her work. In this respect, one of the employees in the companies studied mentioned that skills variety required allowing the employee to structure the tasks according to his/her own optimal work patterns. For example, the respondent who worked a morning shift may arrange his/her work day to put the most challenging tasks in the morning and leave the easier tasks for the afternoon. He added that this system was approved in the companies studied. Moreover, the
companies with these policies could have diverse jobs. As one the employees in the El Brega Company said:

*To increase skills and reduce the feeling of boredom among workers, the company has to prepare training programs for workers annually in order to increase their experience process and reduce the feeling bored of survival for a long time doing the same work.*

Moreover, it has been found that 47.4% of the respondents agree with the second statement, “*I get to use a number of complex skills on this job*”. This percentage represents the majority of the respondents. Only 19.7 % of the respondents disagreed with the second statement while the rest of the respondents prefer to be neutral. Therefore, it can be calculated that the respondents had a number of skills that enabled them to do their jobs efficiently. For instance, an employee in senior management said that their companies regulations and polices provided employees with the opportunity to take on skills of greater complexity in their current roles. He explained that such regulations enable the employee to learn new tasks in a supported environment and to develop the skills needed to progress in his/her career. Nevertheless the reason of this is illustrated by one of the mangers in El Berega as follows:

*Since I am an employee in the Libyan oil companies, I realize that my job duties are not boring or repetitive and I did not have to do the same things every day. In other words, as the respondent I feel that the jobs that I am doing keep me able to increase my skill due to the diversity of my task.*
### Table 6.7: The level of Skill variety (%), Mean and SD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>Std</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have a chance to do a number of different asks, using a wide variety of different skills and talents.</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I get to use a number of complex skills on this job.</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The job is quite simple and repetitive.</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My job involves doing a number of different tasks.</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The demands of my job are highly routine and predictable.</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Also, Table 6.7 above shows the responses of the participants in relation to the third statement, “the job is quite simple and repetitive”. It can be seen that most of the
respondents (44.1%) agreed with this statement. This percentage represents the majority, while a significant minority (33.2%) of the respondents disagreed.

Also, it can be seen that the majority (68.6%) of the respondents agreed with the statement, “my job involves doing a number of different tasks”, while the minority (12.9%) of the respondents who preferred to be neutral.

In response to the last statement associated with the skill variety, “the demands of my job are highly routine and predictable”, and it is clear from Table 6.7 that 46% of the respondents agreed. However, only 22.1% of the respondents preferred to be neutral. Also, the score of the mean and standard deviation in relation to the last statement were 3.21 and 1.35 respectively. Moreover, the following quotations show the views of some managers in the middle management of the actual situations which they experience in their career in the Gulf Arab Oil Company, and how the variety of the job can affect their satisfaction and motivation in their workplace.

*It is better to do many different tasks than doing the same thing many times. Yes, specializing in a particular job leads to proficiency, but a variety of work tasks gives you more experience which will increase your self-confidence and, accordingly, your satisfaction. For example, when facing a sudden problem, you know how to handle it as you have the necessary flexibility.* (Manger A)

*Every business deal I do is different from the other, and that makes me feel that my job is always renewed, it is not a rigid job.* (Manger B)
Yes I have an interesting job. I deal with different cases, sometimes I travel to attend international conferences in many European or Arabian countries and that enables me to get acquainted with new cultures and civilizations. (Manger C)

The source of interest in my job is the size of responsibilities I have. I enjoy being always involved in situations that need wise and quick thinking. It is like playing chess where you have to take a quick, wise decision. (Manger D)

It can be concluded therefore that the theory behind providing skill variety in job design is that it will reduce boredom, thereby increasing job satisfaction and motivation. This is likely to be true as long as the employee feels that gain more skills can be useful for his/her jobs in particular and for the whole company in general. Overall, it can be seen from the above statistics that skill variety was applicable in the Libyan oil companies.

6.3.3 Task identity

Table 6.8 below provides the frequencies of responses (in percentages) toward the four statements included in the questionnaire regarding the task identity level. It is clear from the Table that the majority (60.7 %) of the respondents agreed with the first statement, “I do a complete task from start to finish, and the results of my efforts are clearly visible and identifiable”. Only 9.6% of the respondents disagreed with the statement. The Table shows the score of mean 3.82 and standard deviation 1.06. In this respect, one of the respondents reported that the sales management changed its customer service processes so that when a customer calls with a
problem, one employee, the Customer Care Advocate, handles most or all facets of the problem from maintenance to repair. As a result, more than 40% of customer problems are resolved by one person. Previously, less than 1% of the customer problems were resolved immediately because the customer service representative had to complete paperwork and forward it to operations, which then followed a number of separate steps using different people to resolve problems. In the current system, the Customer Care Advocate can identify more closely with solving a customer’s problem. Therefore, it can be noticed that task identity is the visible outcome of completing a task from start to finish. Moreover, each step of the task was completed and nothing was left out or skipped over. It does not include just doing a portion of a job, task identity is very important to having job satisfaction.

In response to the second statement, “I make insignificant contributions to the final product or service”, the majority (59.9%) of the respondents disagreed. However, about 16.4% of the respondents agreed with the statement. It can be seen that the respondents have the ability based on the organisation’s system to make a significant contribution to the final product.

In response to the third statement, “my job is arranged so that I do not have a chance to do an entire piece of work from beginning to end”, the majority (38.4%) preferred to be neutral while 25.1% of the respondents agreed with the statement.
Also, the mean score of 2.82 and the standard deviation of 1.17 are recorded. One of the respondents who was an accountant in financial management, from those who preferred to be neutral, said that although the job in his department was arranged in advance, he still had a big chance to finish the work by himself. Whereas an employee in production management who agreed with the statement said that the work he did, was restricted by a set of technical specifications so that he would not be able to add any modifications to the final product.

Also, Table 6.8 shows the responses of the participants regarding to the fourth statement, “My job provides me with the chance to finish completely any work I start”, the majority (60.2%) of the respondents agreed while only 14.2% of the respondents disagreed with the statement. Further the Table includes the mean score and standard deviation of 3.65 and 1.09 respectively. It can be concluded that most of the Libyan oil workers who participated in this study believed that their jobs granted them a big chance to carry out their works by themselves.
Table 6.8: The level of Task identity (%), Mean and SD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>Std</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I do a complete task from start to finish. The results of my efforts are</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clearly visible and identifiable.</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
<td>29.6%</td>
<td>26.9%</td>
<td>33.8%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I make insignificant contributions to the final product or service.</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My job is arranged so that I do not have a chance to do an entire piece</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of work from beginning to end.</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>20.5%</td>
<td>38.4%</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My job provides me with the chance to finish completely any work I start.</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.3.4 Task significance

The fourth core dimension of the Job Characteristics Model is task significance which indicates how important the task is to the others in the company. It is important for showing employees how the work they do fits in with what is done in the rest of the organization. Table 6.9 below shows that most of the respondents (48.3%) were neutral in their response to the first statement, “What I do affects the well-being of other people in very important ways”. However, only 20% of the respondents disagreed with the statement. Therefore, the mean score of 3.21, and standard deviation of 1.14, were recorded. It may be possible that the respondents choose the neutral option because they did not have specific information to know how what they did affect the well-being of other people who worked with them in the same organisation. However, 31.7% of the respondents agreed with the statement, “What I do affects the well-being of other people in very important ways”.

Moreover, in response to the second statement, “what I do is of little consequence to anyone else”, the majority (65%) of the respondents disagreed. Only about 15.4% of the respondents agreed with the statement. Also, Table 6.9 shows the mean score of 2, 82 and standard deviation of 1.19 of the responses of the participants in response to the second statement. This result means that most of the respondents believed in that the consequences of what they were doing had a weak effect on the other employees who worked with them in the same organisation. For example, an employee from the senior management in Zueitina Oil Company stated:
Many things do not make us think of leaving our current career. One of them is the importance of the work that we do not only for ourselves but also for the company and the community where we live, in addition to the benefits that we get that makes us happy and satisfied in doing our job.

This view is supported by other managers in Zueitina Company, for example one of them said:

We feel the importance of the work we do through its positive effect on those who work with us in the same company and this make us feel happy, excited and satisfied to continue to perform the same work.

Table 6.9: The level of Task Significance (%), Mean and SD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>Std</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What I do affects the well-being of other people in very important ways.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9.1%</td>
<td>10.9%</td>
<td>48.3%</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
<td>18.4%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What I do is of little consequence to anyone else.</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>26.9%</td>
<td>38.1%</td>
<td>19.6%</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
<td>8.5%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My job is not very important to the company's survival.</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8.5%</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>25.1%</td>
<td>22.1%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many people are affected by the job I do.</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>42.3%</td>
<td>34.7%</td>
<td>10.9%</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In response to the third statement, “my job is not very important to the company's survival”, Table 6.9 shows that 39% of the respondents preferred to be neutral. The statement was formulated negatively, but 47% of the respondents agreed with it. Furthermore, 13.9 % of the respondents disagreed with the statement. Also, mean score of 3.47 and the standard deviation of 1.14 were recorded.

In response to the fourth statement, “many people are affected by the job I do”, the majority (77%) of the respondents disagreed. Only 12.1% of the respondents agreed with the statement. The mean score and standard deviation which reflect the responses of the participants are 2.01 and 1.19 respectively. In this respect, one of the respondents from the Oil Arab Gulf Company said:

I am working for ten years, I feel year after year as I am the only one who has the right to decide the way that how to finish my task without intervention of the my supervisor.

6.3.5 Feedback
The fifth core dimension in the job characteristics model is feedback. Six statements were used to examine the degree of Feedback in the organizations studied. In response to the first statement, “my manager provides me with constant feedback about how I am doing”, Table 6.10 below shows that the majority (49.6%) of the respondents agreed. Only 20.5 % of the respondents disagreed with the statement. Moreover, Table 6.10 includes the mean score of 3.41 and standard deviation of 1.33.

In response to the second statement, “the work itself provides me with information about how well I am doing”, the great majority (76.1%) of the respondents agreed.
About 10.8% of the respondents disagreed with the statement. Also, Table 6.10 below shows the mean score of 3.94 and standard deviation of 1.12, which mean that work design allows the workers to receive information representing feedback about how well they were doing. This may increase the efficiency of the job and the performance of the employees themselves.

In response to the third statement, "Just doing the work provides me with opportunities to figure out how well I am doing", 76.8% of the respondents agreed. Only about 11.1% of the respondents disagreed with the statement. However, this result confirms that the work design presents information representing feedback about how well the work has been done. Moreover, employee job satisfaction can be enhanced when employees perceive a high degree of feedback. For example, one of the respondents from the junior management level in Al Jouf Company for Oil Technology said:

\[I \text{ feel the desire to work whenever my supervisor’s responses positive toward what I am doing at the job.}\]

In response to the fourth statement, "my supervisors or co-workers rarely give me feedback on how well I am doing the job", the participants were very close. About 37.5% of the respondents disagreed with the statement and 35.3% of the respondents agreed. Also, 27.2% of the respondents choose to be neutral. Moreover, the mean score of 3.04 and standard deviation of 1.35 were recorded. It can be noticed that the respondents liked to know the results of their work. In other words, they did better when they had feedback from their supervisors on how well they did in their work. For example, a middle manager in Al Jouf Company said:
As long as the annual reports that come from my executive manager include positive remarks on what I am doing, I will never ever think of leaving my job under any circumstances.

Table 6.10: The level of Feedback (%), Mean and SD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>Std</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My manager provides me with constant feedback about how I am doing.</td>
<td>14.2%</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
<td>29.9%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>26.6%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The work itself provides me with information about how well I am doing.</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>40.5%</td>
<td>35.6%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Just doing the work provides me with opportunities to figure out how well I am doing.</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
<td>38.4%</td>
<td>38.4%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My supervisors or co-workers rarely give me feedback on how well I am doing the job.</td>
<td>14.8%</td>
<td>22.7%</td>
<td>27.2%</td>
<td>14.2%</td>
<td>21.1%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisors let us know how well they think we are doing.</td>
<td>14.2%</td>
<td>24.2%</td>
<td>27.2%</td>
<td>16.9%</td>
<td>17.2%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>1.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My job provides few clues about whether I'm performing adequately.</td>
<td>20.8%</td>
<td>20.5%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>13.6%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Also, Table 6.10 shows that the majority (38.7%) of the respondents disagreed with the fifth statement, and 35.3% of the respondents agreed. However, 27.2% of the respondents choose to be neutral. Furthermore, the Table shows the mean score of 2.98, and standard deviation of 1.29. Another middle manager in Al Jouf Company said:

*I am really satisfied with the notices have been given to me by top managers, although I possess all the powers that enable me to perform my work with a great satisfaction, certainly taking into account all the notes issued by the senior management.*

Also, the majority (41.3%) of the respondents disagreed with the sixth statement, “my job provides few clues about whether I’m performing adequately”. The minority (26.6%) of the respondents agreed with the statement. For example, a junior manager in Zueitina Oil Company said:

*I can confirm that the information I received as feedback in relation to my Job is very few; nevertheless, I keep them in update constantly with what have already accomplished what should be done in the near future so I can avoid falling into any mistakes.*

It can be concluded that from the responses to all the statements in respect to the five core dimensions in the job characteristic model that the majority of workers have enough freedom as well as a complete responsibility for deciding how and when the work is to be done. Also, the results show that the respondents had the opportunity to participate in the decision making process that affected their jobs. Almost all the respondents had the chance to do a number of different tasks using a
wide variety of different skills and talents. Moreover, they had enough opportunities to do a complete task from start to finish. It is also clear that the results of their efforts were clearly visible and recognised.

It was also found that most of the respondents were affected by the jobs they did. In other words, they believed in that what they did had great consequences to anyone else in the company. Furthermore, they thought that just doing the work provided them with opportunities to know how well they were doing. They recognised that the work itself provided them enough information about how well they completed their tasks.

6.4 Organisational factors of job satisfaction

The second section of the questionnaire consists of 35 statements associated with the organisational factors as the determinants of job satisfaction. They are pay/rewards, work conditions, promotion opportunities, relationship with co-workers and supervision. The responses of the participants are analysed in the next section in relation to these factors in order to measure the overall job satisfaction of employee in the Libyan Oil Companies.

6.4.1 Pay/rewards

The first factor which was tested to identify the level of overall job satisfaction is pay and rewards. Table 6.11 below, includes twelve statements related to pay and rewards with the responses of the participants as follows: in response of the first statement, “I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do”, the majority
(64%) of the respondents strongly agreed and agreed with the statement, whereas, 22% of the respondents strongly disagreed and disagreed with the statement. Also, in response to the fourth statement, “I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases”, about 60.1% of the participants strongly agreed and agreed with the statement. Moreover, the participants who agreed with the statement, “There are benefits we do not have which we should have”, represent 71.3% whilst 3.6% of the participants disagreed. As one of the mangers in the Gulf company stated:

I prefer to work in the oil fields far away from the family as long as what is paid for me of wage is equal twice or more for what I can get it if had stayed in the headquarter of the company.

Also, by looking to the responses of the participants concerning the statement, “The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer”, it is clear that the responses of the participants are very close (see Table 6.11). Accordingly, it can be seen that the majority of the respondents were not satisfied with the wages and salaries system that had been applied by the Libyan Oil Companies. For example, one of the mangers in headquarters of Gulf Oil Company explained:

After 33 years of work, when I compare myself with my colleagues in the private sector I find them earning a respectable salary, having their own houses and cars, but I have nothing but good health. If I could turn back the time I would choose their way.

However, most of the respondents believed that their salaries would be increased in the near future especially after the 17 February 2011 revolution.
Table 6.11: Pay/rewards (%)  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly agree %</th>
<th>Agree %</th>
<th>Neutral %</th>
<th>Disagree %</th>
<th>Strongly disagree %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raises are too few and far between.</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel unappreciated by the organisation when I think about what they pay me</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The benefits we receive are as good as most other organisations offer.</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The benefit package we have is equitable.</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are benefits we do not have which we should have.</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are few rewards for those who work here.</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


6.4.2 Supervision
Table 6.12 includes four statements associated with supervision as determinants of job satisfaction. The majority (71.3%) of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed with the statement, “I like my supervisor”. Only 5.1% of the respondents strongly disagreed or disagreed with the statement. Moreover, the number of the sample who strongly agreed or agreed with the statement, “My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job” represents 48.7%. However, the rest of the responses were various as it is clear from Table 6.12 below.

Generally, it can be seen that the majority of the respondents were satisfied with the level of supervision in their organisations. As one junior manger in El Berga Company for Oil Marketing said:

Friendship and good relations with my supervisor are factors that affect both my job satisfaction and motivation. I cannot imagine working in a place where I don’t get on well with supervisors. I am sure that bad relationships would generate an uncomfortable atmosphere which in turn would influence my efficiency, ability, and performance as well.

Another junior manger in the same company added:

I am fully satisfied with the personal relationships with my supervisor, he treats all the employees like brothers and our relations with him are based on mutual respect and trust.
Table 6.1: Supervision (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly agree %</th>
<th>Agree %</th>
<th>Neutral %</th>
<th>Disagree %</th>
<th>Strongly disagree %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23.30 %</td>
<td>25.40 %</td>
<td>36.60 %</td>
<td>3.90 %</td>
<td>10.90 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My supervisor is unfair to me.</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8.20 %</td>
<td>4.50 %</td>
<td>28.10 %</td>
<td>30.2 %</td>
<td>29.00 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12.10 %</td>
<td>8.80 %</td>
<td>32.90 %</td>
<td>28.7 %</td>
<td>17.50 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like my supervisor.</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>40.50 %</td>
<td>30.80 %</td>
<td>23.60 %</td>
<td>3.00 %</td>
<td>2.10 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.4.3 Promotion opportunities

Table 6.13 below shows the frequency of the responses to the promotion statements that are considered important elements in determining the level of job satisfaction.

A total of 53.8% of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed with the statement, “Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted”, but a total of 52.2% of the respondent strongly disagreed and disagreed with the statement, “There is really too little chance for promotion on my job”. Also, 54.1% of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed with the statement, “I am satisfied with my chances for promotion”. In response to the third statement, “people get ahead as fast here as they do in other places”, the majority (48.9%) of the respondents chose to be neutral.
Overall, it can be seen that the respondents were satisfied with their chances of promotion. In other words, they deserved to be promoted based on their seniority or based on the quality and efficiency of the work they did were satisfied with the rules and regulations applied in the organisations studied. For example, a manager in middle level in the Gulf Oil Company said:

Indeed, the promotion policy is acceptable. I department manager for four years and therefore have priority to be promoted. I have fulfilled all the required requirements; I have been promoted to general manager position. Honestly, I am very satisfied with the system.

Similarly a junior manager in Zueitina Oil Company illustrated:

The relationship with your direct supervisors is the most important factor in determining your promotion. If you have a good personal relationship with him, you will surely be promoted regardless of whether your performance is good or bad.

However, senior manager from El Berga Company for Oil Marketing said:

I have been doing my best to prove myself and my competence. I had expected that my efficiency and experience would be taken into consideration. Although I was promoted this year, I am not happy at all because I have been in my previous position for eight years without any promotion. This has negatively affected my satisfaction and motivation towards any work.
Table 6.13: Promotion opportunities (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly agree %</th>
<th>Agree %</th>
<th>Neutral %</th>
<th>Disagree %</th>
<th>Strongly disagree %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There is really too little chance for promotion in my job.</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17.2 %</td>
<td>10.6 %</td>
<td>19.9 %</td>
<td>35.0 %</td>
<td>17.2 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>28.1 %</td>
<td>25.7 %</td>
<td>24.2 %</td>
<td>9.10 %</td>
<td>13.0 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9.70 %</td>
<td>6.6 %</td>
<td>48.9 %</td>
<td>20.5 %</td>
<td>14.2 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22.4 %</td>
<td>31.7 %</td>
<td>23.0 %</td>
<td>9.70 %</td>
<td>13.3 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.4.4 Relationship with Co-workers

Table 6.14 includes four statements related to the relationship with co-workers in the workplace to identify the level of job satisfaction among the respondents studied. It shows that the majority of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed with most of the statements. For instance, in response to the statement, “There is too much bickering and fighting at work”, about 50.1% of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed. Also, 81.5% of the respondents agreed with the first statement, “I like the people I work with”. In response to the second statement, “I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with”, the majority (44.1%) of the respondents choose to be neutral. It can be seen that most of the respondents liked the people they worked with, although 50.1% of the respondents recognised that there was too much bickering and fighting at work. This may be because the Libyan employees are influenced by Islamic religion and tribal tradition.
which support social relations. For example, a middle manager in the Al Jouf Company for Oil Technology stated:

*Our relationship with co-workers is considered good, although the issue is not without some bickering and conflicts that often be caused by pressures of work, the spirit of friendliness and cooperation soon comes back due to the Islamic family values and social composition which characterize the Libyan society.*

Another manager in the same company mentioned:

*The good personal relationship with co-workers is one of the reasons for my job satisfaction. Such relations create a good and healthy work atmosphere and a place where all employees have the opportunity for achievements.*

Also a manager in the Gulf Oil Companies said:

*Ever since I got the position of general manager, I have been keen on creating some kind of friendship between me and my subordinates, because such rapport will guarantee harmony between workers and their leaders.*

Another, manager in the same company added:

*I cannot imagine working in company where the relations between me and my subordinates and my colleagues are not good. That is why I am very careful to create good relationships with them. Such relationship facilitates working with them. Furthermore, I don’t want to be disliked because that might affect my work performance, as I would be exposed to stress coming from the detestation of my subordinates and colleagues.*

Also a junior manager in Zueitina Company stated:

*Such good relationship encouraged me to accomplish my tasks without being afraid of making mistakes or of being bullied by anyone. So I can say that these excellent relations with my co–workers trigger my energies and hidden capabilities.*
Table 6.14: Relationship with Co-workers (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly agree %</th>
<th>Agree %</th>
<th>Neutral %</th>
<th>Disagree %</th>
<th>Strongly disagree %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I like the people I work with.</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>48.3%</td>
<td>33.2%</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
<td>3.30%</td>
<td>1.80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13.3%</td>
<td>18.1%</td>
<td>44.1%</td>
<td>10.9%</td>
<td>13.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy my co-workers.</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>50.8%</td>
<td>32.6%</td>
<td>12.7%</td>
<td>2.10%</td>
<td>1.80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is too much bickering and fighting at work.</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>32.0%</td>
<td>18.1%</td>
<td>34.4%</td>
<td>8.80%</td>
<td>6.60%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.4.5 Work conditions

Table 6.15 below of six statements associated with work conditions. It can be seen that most of the respondents agreed with the statements except the first statement, “I sometimes feel my job is meaningless”, where 74.7% of the respondents strongly disagreed or disagreed with it. However, 64.3% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the statement, “My job is enjoyable”. Also, 34.1% of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed with the second statement, “I like doing the things I do at work”. Whilst, 65.3% of the respondents disagreed with the last statement, “The goals of this organization are not clear to me”. In this respect, a junior manager in the Al Jouf Company for said:
Every company’s conditions are convenient compared to other public sector companies, but the only thing that may bothers us is the low level of wages paid to us because of the law number 15 in relation to the maximum and minimum wages but this situation has changed after the revolution, praise be to God.

Another manager at the same level but form a different company stated:

For me, work setting is very suitable, any deficiency or problem can be treated easily and if I need anything, I can ask my supervisor for it. As you see, I have my own office with my own computer, air conditioning, a conference room and I also have a personal secretary.

Also, a middle manager in the El Brega Oil Marketing Company said:

I think I am lucky when I compare my working conditions with my counterparts in other public sector units. I have sufficient facilities and good surroundings that help me to carry out my work efficiently.

Table 6.15: The work conditions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly agree %</th>
<th>Agree %</th>
<th>Neutral %</th>
<th>Disagree %</th>
<th>Strongly disagree %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.</td>
<td>23 6.90 %</td>
<td>14 4.20 %</td>
<td>47 14.2 %</td>
<td>120 36.3 %</td>
<td>127 38.4 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like doing the things I do at work.</td>
<td>113 34.1 %</td>
<td>161 48.6 %</td>
<td>31 9.40 %</td>
<td>13 3.90 %</td>
<td>13 3.90 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.</td>
<td>176 53.2 %</td>
<td>96 29.0 %</td>
<td>40 12.1%</td>
<td>11 3.30 %</td>
<td>8 2.40 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My job is enjoyable.</td>
<td>101 30.5 %</td>
<td>112 33.8 %</td>
<td>78 23.6 %</td>
<td>17 5.10 %</td>
<td>23 6.90 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organisation</td>
<td>119 36.0 %</td>
<td>44 13.3 %</td>
<td>51 15.4 %</td>
<td>86 26.0 %</td>
<td>31 9.40 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The goals of this organization are not clear to me</td>
<td>51 15.4 %</td>
<td>18 5.40 %</td>
<td>46 13.9 %</td>
<td>139 42.0 %</td>
<td>77 23.3 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It can be seen also that most of the respondents had a sense of pride in doing their jobs. Some of them confirmed that their jobs were enjoyable. For example, one of the managers in the Jouf Company for Oil Technology said:

Good working conditions are necessary to increase my motivation and both the quality and quantity of my performance. I enjoy my job because of the good working conditions in this company.

Another middle manager in El Jouf Oil technology from the middle management stated:

The only thing that makes us feel satisfied is the good working conditions we have. We are low paid compared with our counterparts in other sectors but working in such good conditions somehow makes up for that.

It can be concluded that the level of job satisfaction with organisational factors such as pay/reward, supervision, and relationship with co-workers, promotion opportunity, and work conditions, was high as the majority of the respondents in the Libyan oil companies were satisfied. These results confirm that the regulations followed by the organisations studied are successful and may be able to ensure employees’ satisfaction.

6.5 Overall job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is an important aspect of employees’ work. When employees are satisfied with their work, their performance can be enhanced, and their communications with customers are more likely to be effective. Thus, job satisfaction could be viewed as being important not only from the individual’s
perspective, but also from an organisational viewpoint. Therefore, in this section, employees’ job satisfaction with all factors is presented. Table 6.16 below shows that the mean score and standard deviation of the responses to all statements related to organisational factors. It can be seen that the mean score is 4.28, and the standard deviation is .31. The mean score of co-workers is the highest as the mean was 4.28, versus standard deviation .90. However, in terms of the rest of the mean score and standard deviation of the responses of the participants, including the mean score of overall job satisfaction which is 4.28 and standard deviation .31, it appears that the employees in the Libyan oil companies located in Benghazi are relatively satisfied with the work conditions, co-workers, promotion opportunity, pay/rewards. By contrast, the employees are less satisfied with the supervision. It means that the performance of the supervisors is very weak relatively in terms of the objectives and immediate information given to the workers on their performance. Also, the participants showed relatively some kind of boredom and lack of innovation but not to the extent that affects the level of their satisfaction in the workplace. In this respect, a senior manager in Gulf Oil Company illustrated:

*I am proud and satisfied of being a senior manager, it is the top of the managerial ladder and it is simply the dream of every employee. Getting this title was the crown of my career.*

Another senior manager in Zueitina Oil Company said:

*It is a privilege to be one of this company’s staff. Moreover, my title as a senior manager in one of the famous companies in the Benghazi city gave me high prestige inside and outside the company, of course this keep me satisfied in my job.*
Also, one manager in El Berga Company for Oil Marketing in junior level said:

*I did not get any additional privileges except a personal office. That was the only change accompanying my new position.*

Another manager at the same level from Al Jouf Company for Oil Technology states:

*When I acquired the title of general manager, I was very pleased and proud. But now, after so many years, exactly seven years in the same position, I feel that this position does not fit me anymore and the title has become too tight for me. Generally, I feel that I am satisfied with my job when comparing it with organisations.*

### Table 6.16: The Mean and St. Deviation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pay / reward</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>1.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion opportunities</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>1.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co- workers</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work conditions</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>1.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Job satisfaction</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid N (list wise)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.6 Employee’s turnover

Table 6.17, below, includes four statements concerning employee turnover. It shows that the majority of the respondents are not willing to leave their jobs under any circumstances or plan. In response to the statement, “I plan to leave my present employer as soon as possible”, the majority (60.45 %) of the respondents strongly disagreed or disagreed. Also, 45.9% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the statement, “I plan to stay with my present employer as long as possible”.

However, 30.8% of the respondents are neutral with the same statement.

The following quotations have been given from some of the managers in the organisations studied. For example a junior manager in El Berga Company for Oil Technology said:

*I spent more than 20 years working in this company, although the working circumstances ten years ago were not good, I never thought leaving my job. Now it can be seen that the situation became better than before and I feel day after day that all the advantages have been given to me became in the level that I required."

Another middle manager in Zueitina Oil Company added:

*I feel that the company where I work as my second home because the hours I spent it in the job more than those in which I will be at home, so just think of leaving the work is something totally unlikely."
It can be concluded that the majority of the participants were not willing to quit their jobs under any circumstances because they felt satisfied with their jobs. The rules and regulations applied by the Libyan oil companies guarantee them at least the minimum level of job satisfaction. This shows that job satisfaction plays a significant role in influencing employees’ turnover. People who are satisfied with their jobs do their work with full commitment and loyalty and usually have low intent to quit their jobs.

Table 6.17: Employee Turnover (%), Mean and SD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly agree %</th>
<th>Agree %</th>
<th>Neutral %</th>
<th>Disagree %</th>
<th>Strongly disagree %</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>std</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I would like to leave my present employer.</td>
<td>26 7.90%</td>
<td>24 7.30%</td>
<td>77 23.3%</td>
<td>90 27.2%</td>
<td>114 34.4%</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>1.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I plan to leave my present employer as soon as possible.</td>
<td>34 10.3%</td>
<td>22 6.60%</td>
<td>75 22.7%</td>
<td>54 16.3%</td>
<td>146 44.1%</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I plan to stay with my present employer as long as possible.</td>
<td>82 24.8%</td>
<td>70 21.1%</td>
<td>102 30.8</td>
<td>36 10.9%</td>
<td>41 12.4%</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>1.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under no circumstances will I leave my present employer</td>
<td>49 14.8%</td>
<td>54 16.3%</td>
<td>126 38.1</td>
<td>41 12.4%</td>
<td>61 18.4%</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.7 Analytical Statistics

The analytical or inferential method is the process whereby conclusions and generalisations are derived from the raw data. This study employs analytical statistics for two purposes: 1) to calculate the motivation potential score (MPS) using the formula below;

$$ MPS = \frac{SV + TI + TS}{3} \times (Autonomy) \times (Feedback) $$

The Job characteristics Model developed by Hackman and Oldham can be used in two different ways, analysis of characteristics as shown in section 6.3 or as a single index which reflects the overall MPS, based on the perceived job characteristics of a job to foster internal work motivation (Hackman and Oldham, 1975). This study has applied both, the five core dimensions of autonomy, skill variety, task identity, task significance and feedback of JCM in the Libyan Oil Companies as shown in section 6.3 above and the MPS as shown in the section (6.7.1).

2) To analyse the correlations amongst the five core dimensions mentioned above and the outputs of the work (job satisfaction and employees’ turnover). This analysis is provided in this section (6.7.2).

6.7.1 The motivating potential score (MPS)

Table 6.18 shows the average of the mean score and standard deviation of the five core dimensions separately in relation to the 23 statements included in the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS).
Table 6.18: the mean and standard deviation of the five core dimensions of JCM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Autonomy</th>
<th>Skill variety</th>
<th>Task identity</th>
<th>Task significance</th>
<th>Feedback</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>4.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. deviation</td>
<td>.562</td>
<td>.585</td>
<td>.623</td>
<td>.575</td>
<td>.585</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In other words, the mean score of the responses in relation to the four statements to measure the level of autonomy is 4.36 in total, while the mean score of the responses in relation to the five statements to determine the level of skill variety is 4.26 in total. Also, the mean score 4.15 of the responses of the four statements is presented to show the level of task identity. Four statements are used to measure the level of task significance as the mean score in total is 3.75. Finally, the mean score 4.43 of the responses of six statements used to identify the level of feedback.

However, all means score in Table 6.18 are used to calculate the MPS as follows:

$$\text{MPS} = \frac{4.26 + 4.15 + 3.75}{3}X(4.36)X(4.43) = 78.3$$

It can be seen from the above formula that the Motivating Potential Score was 78.3. The score of the previous studies ranged between 1 to 156, according to Hackman and Oldham (1975). Thus, the output of the above formula is consistent with the previous studies using the JDS developed by Hackman and Oldham. Also, to calculate the level of each of the five core dimensions separately using the JDS that includes 23 statements and analyzing the data depending on the frequencies and
percentages was acceptable for each dimension and of course this result is supported by the calculation of the MPS which calculate the five core dimensions all together as one dimension.

6.7.2 The correlations between the variables of the study
The main goal of the study is to apply the Job Characteristics Model in the Libyan oil companies by testing the nature of the correlations amongst the dependent variables which represent the five core dimensions included in the Job Characteristics Model (Autonomy, skill variety, task identity, task significance and feedback) and the independent variables included in the model which represent the outputs (job satisfaction and employee turnover) without using the critical psychological state as a mediator, where there are many studies which examined the Job Characteristics Model without using the critical psychological state as a mediator and all of them was successful.

6.7.2.1 The correlation between job satisfaction and the five core dimensions of JCM
Table 6.19 shows the correlations amongst the variables at the level of significance (P-Value = .01). It reveals a positive correlation between autonomy and job satisfaction with coefficient value of (r =.266**). Also, the Table shows a significant correlation between skill variety and job satisfaction with coefficient value of r =.299**. Moreover, job satisfaction has a positive and a significant correlation with task identity, task significance and feedback with (P-Value = .01) as (r = .301**, r = .163**, r = .359**) respectively. However, it can be seen that there is a strong and
significant correlation with the five core dimensions included in the job characteristics model as shown on Table 6.19 below. Therefore, the following alternative hypotheses:

\( H_{1a} \): There is a positive correlation between autonomy and job satisfaction

\( H_{1b} \): There is a positive correlation between skill variety and job satisfaction

\( H_{1c} \): There is a positive correlation between task identity and job satisfaction

\( H_{1d} \): There is a positive correlation between task significance and job satisfaction

\( H_{1e} \): There is a positive correlation between feedback and job satisfaction,

are accepted.
Table 6.19: The correlation between job satisfaction and the five core dimensions of JCM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Autonomy</th>
<th>Skill variety</th>
<th>Task identity</th>
<th>Task significance</th>
<th>Feedback</th>
<th>Job satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skill variety</td>
<td>.235**</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.331</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.331</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task identity</td>
<td>.198**</td>
<td>.263**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.331</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.331</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task significance</td>
<td>.107</td>
<td>.182**</td>
<td>.133*</td>
<td></td>
<td>.015</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.053</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
<td>.015</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.331</td>
<td>.331</td>
<td>.331</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback</td>
<td>.191**</td>
<td>.204**</td>
<td>.253**</td>
<td>-.012</td>
<td>.831</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
<td>.831</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.331</td>
<td>.331</td>
<td>.331</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
<td>.266**</td>
<td>.299**</td>
<td>.301**</td>
<td>.163**</td>
<td>.359**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.331</td>
<td>.331</td>
<td>.331</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.7.2.2 The correlation between job satisfaction and the overall JCM

By the same way and using the same statistical tools, Table 6.20 reveals the correlation between job satisfaction and the overall job characteristics model. It is clear from the table that there is a positive correlation at the level of significance ($P$-Value = .01) with coefficient value of $r = .476^{**}$. This correlation is consistent with the result shown on Table 6.19 and confirms the acceptance of $H_1$. 

191
Table 6.20: The correlation between job satisfaction and the overall of JCM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job satisfaction</th>
<th>Job characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.476**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>331</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job characteristics</th>
<th>Job satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.476**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>331</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level. * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.7.2.3 The correlation between the five core dimensions of JCM and employees’ turnover

Table 6.21 below shows the correlations among the five core dimensions and employees’ turnover. It is clear from the Table that there is a negative correlation between autonomy and employees’ turnover as \( r = -0.126^* \). Meanwhile, the correlation between task significance and turnover was negative too as \( r = -0.144^{**} \). These outputs of the coefficient row were at a confidence level \((p\text{-value}=0.01)\) and \((p\text{-value}=0.05)\) respectively.

Also, the result indicates that the correlations between task identity and feedback are negative as \( r = -0.041 \) and \( r = -0.107 \) respectively. Therefore, the null hypotheses are accepted. Based on the results above, the following alternative hypotheses:
$H_{2a}: $ There is a positive correlation between autonomy and employees’ turnover

$H_{2c}: $ There is a positive correlation between task identity and employees’ turnover

$H_{2d}: $ There is a positive correlation between task significance and employees’ turnover

$H_{2e}: $ There is a positive correlation between feedback and employees’ turnover

are all rejected.

However, there is no correlation between skill variety and employees’ turnover as the coefficient row was (r=0.14). This number has no statistical significance in accordance with the null hypothesis below:

$H_{2b}: $ There is no correlation between skill variety and employees’ turnover

is accepted.
Table 6.2: The correlation between the five core dimensions of JCM model and employees’ turnover

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Autonomy</th>
<th>Skill variety</th>
<th>Task identity</th>
<th>Task significance</th>
<th>Feedback</th>
<th>Turnover</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy Correlation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>331</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skill variety Correlation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.235**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task identity Correlation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.198**</td>
<td>.263**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task significance Pearson correlation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.107</td>
<td>.182**</td>
<td>.133*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>.053</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback Correlation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.191**</td>
<td>.204**</td>
<td>.253**</td>
<td>-.012</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.831</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turnover Correlation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>-.126*</td>
<td>-.014</td>
<td>-.041*</td>
<td>-.144**</td>
<td>-107*</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>.022</td>
<td>.801</td>
<td>.455</td>
<td>.009</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level / * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.
6.7.2.4 The correlation between overall job satisfaction and employees’ turnover

Table 6.22 shows a negative correlation between the overall job satisfaction and employee’s turnover. The coefficient value \( r = -0.234^{**} \) at the level of significance (P- Value = .01) means that as long as the workers in the Libyan oil companies are feeling satisfied with their jobs, they would not think of leaving their companies.

The result in the table below shows negative correlation. Thus, the alternative hypothesis namely,

\[
H_3: \text{There is a positive correlation between employees’ turnover and job satisfaction}
\]

is rejected.

Table 6.22: The correlation between overall job satisfaction and employees’ turnover

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Job satisfaction</th>
<th>Turnover</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turnover</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-0.234**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>331</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level / *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.
6.7.2.5 The correlation among the organisational determinants of satisfaction and overall job satisfaction

Table 6.23 below shows the correlations among the organisational factors of job satisfaction (pay/reward, supervision, promotion opportunities, relationship with co-workers, and work conditions) and overall job satisfaction. Therefore, the correlation is significant at (P-Value = 0.01) level. It is clear from the Table that there are positive correlations among the organisational factors as determinants of satisfaction and overall job satisfaction as the coefficient values were significant. For instance, the coefficient value of pay/rewards was (r = .335**) in the level of significance (P-Value = .01). Also, the correlation of overall satisfaction with supervision was very significant as (r = .280**) and (P-Value = .01). Generally, there are significant correlations among all factors included in the table by using the Bivariate Pearson correlation. Therefore, based on the analysis above, the alternative hypothesis,

\[ H_4: \text{There is a positive correlation between job satisfaction and organisational factors (i.e. pay/reward, supervision, promotion opportunity, co-workers, and work conditions).} \]

is accepted.
Table 6.23: The correlation between organisational determinants of job satisfaction and overall job Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisational factors</th>
<th>Overall Job satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pay /rewards Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion opportunities</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship with Co-workers</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work conditions</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.**
6.8 Summary of the main findings of the study

Based on the data analysis provided above, the main findings of the study can be summarised as follows:

1- Job satisfaction is positively correlated to the five core dimensions of the JCM (Autonomy, skill variety, task identify, task significant and feedback). It means that the respondents in the Libyan oil companies recognise that they are satisfied with their working conditions as well as the policies and the rules regulating the work, which gives them the freedom to act in accordance with the interest of the organization in which they work. Moreover, their responses prove that the five core dimensions of the JCM model are present in their jobs.

2- Employees of the Libyan Oil Companies have no desire to leave their jobs and they are happy to stay in their workplaces. This result is confirmed from the correlation among Job satisfaction and employees’ turnover which was negative. It means that whenever the level of job satisfaction is increased, the rate of employees’ turnover is decreased.

3- There was a negative correlation between autonomy and employees’ turnover. The correlation between task significance and employees’ turnover was also negative. This result means that as long as the respondents in the Libyan oil companies have a wide range of freedom in deciding how the work is to be done, they would not like or even think of leaving their present employer. Also, the
correlations among task identity, feedback and employees’ turnover were negative. This means that if the employees in the Libyan Oil Companies were provided the opportunities to know how well they were doing, they would not leave their jobs. Also, if they believe that their jobs give them a big chance to end their tasks by themselves completely, they would not leave their jobs. However, the results indicate that there are no correlations at all among skill variety and employees’ turnover. It means that the employees in the Libyan Oil Companies will stay in their job even if they are not given enough chance to do a variety of different activities. In other words, skill variety can be ensured by providing training and re-training to the employees in cross functional areas although such attempts may be acceptable from the perspective of the senior management. Managers in various administrative functions do not care about the process of increasing skills varieties and the need for more training courses for the subordinates as long as they are able to do the their tasks in an integrated manner and without constant interference in the smallest details of the work from their supervisors.

4- The correlation between the motivating potential score (MPS) which was developed to reflect the psychological state of workers, motivational characteristics of the work, and personal attributes that affect on the responses of challenging and complex jobs between the employees in the Libyan oil companies and overall job satisfaction, was highly significant. It means that overall job satisfaction increased depending on the level of motivating potential
score (MPS) which is considered as an integrated tool used for assessing the capacity of a job to motivate. This tool is useful in informing managers in the Libyan Oil Companies concerning employee performance, the motivation and the need for work redesign. In other words, the utility in this equation lies in its ability to pinpoint particular problems for a specific job. Then, having pinpointed the problem, the job can be "re-designed" to correct the shortcomings in one or more of the five core dimensions. During job redesign, the five core dimensions of JMC model should be included and applied in improving motivation and productivity of workers. In other words, the positive correlation between (MPS) and job satisfaction is supported by the output of MPS formula which was high. It means that employees in the Libyan Oil Companies are satisfied with their jobs as long as they are characterised by the five core dimensions which lead to higher job satisfaction and productivity. However, for a job to be intrinsically motivating, all the five core dimensions of the Job Characteristics Model must be simultaneously present, to some extent.

5- The employees who work in the Libyan oil companies located in Benghazi were relatively satisfied with the work conditions, co-workers, promotion opportunities and pay/rewards. However, they were less satisfied with the supervision. In other words, the performance of the supervisors is weak so far in terms of the objectives and immediate information given to the employees on their performance. The above findings will be discussed in the next chapter.
CHAPTER SEVEN
DISCUSSION

7.1 Introduction
The main purpose of this chapter is to discuss the findings that have emerged from the data analysis presented in chapter six, to provide an answer to the research questions and to meet the objectives of the study. It attempts to interpret the findings resulting from the study and discuss them in relation to the literature reviewed earlier. This chapter comprises of five sections. The first section provides a discussion of the findings of the correlation among job satisfaction and the five core dimensions of job characteristics model (JCM) in the Libyan oil companies. The second section discusses the correlation between job satisfaction and employees’ turnover. The third section discusses the correlation between the five core dimensions of JCM and employees’ turnover. The fourth section discusses the correlation between motivation potential scores (MPS) and job satisfaction. The last section discusses the correlation between the determining factors of pay/rewards, supervision, and promotion opportunity, relationship with co-workers and work conditions and job satisfaction in the Libyan Oil Companies. The chapter concludes with a theoretical model of job satisfaction, job characteristics and employees’ turnover as developed from this study.
7.2 Job satisfaction and the five core dimensions of the Job Characteristics Model (JCM)

The five core dimensions of the Job Characteristics Model (autonomy, skill variety, task identity, task significance and feedback) play an important role in identifying differences and similarities between jobs and in determining internal work motivation and job satisfaction. Overall, the results of the present study show a significantly positive correlation between job characteristics and job satisfaction in the Libyan Oil Companies. The majority of the respondents are satisfied and they confirmed that this feeling of satisfaction was the result of a radical change in some policies, laws and regulations which was led to restriction of freedom of creativity and innovation for employees in general. These laws and legislations changed immediately after the revolution of the 17th February 2011. These changes have led to the end of the Relationship between the central government and the Ministry of Energy located in Tripoli city and the National Oil Corporation (NOC). An example of these changes is Law number 15/1981 which was issued in 1981 by the Libyan government in order to unify the salaries in all sectors of the state, including the oil sector regardless of the financial ability of the sector. The result of changing the above law is better salaries than the previous salaries which were below the level required to meet the basic needs. The results of the current study are consistent with most of the previous studies which indicated that the five core dimensions of job characteristics model (JCM) and job satisfaction are positively related (e.g. Rousseau, 1977; Head and Sorensen, 1985; Fried and Ferries; 1987; Robert M. et al., 2002; Sarminah Samad, 2006; Liye, 2009). For instance, the study conducted by Liye (2009) confirmed the correlation between the five core dimensions of Job
Characteristics Model (JCM) and job satisfaction. However, the study conducted by Zi Yang (1997) did not reveal any correlation between the job characteristics model (JCM) and job satisfaction. Similarly, Hala and Neamat (2012) found that there were no significant relationships between the job characteristics model (JCM) and job satisfaction and most of the respondents reported moderate or low mean score for confirming the validity of Job Characteristics Model (JCM). The results of these studies are not consistent with the findings of this study because of the differences in the regulations and policies applicable in the Libyan oil companies, and possibly the different socio–economic and cultural context of Libya.

Moreover, the findings of the present study are not consistent with Hoonaker et al., (2004) study results which show that the Job Characteristics Model is not a significant model to predict job satisfaction, while Hadi and Adil (2010) predictive validity of job characteristics in relation to work motivation and job satisfaction is supported. Also, the findings of this study are supported by Parker et al., (2001) who found that the effects of the five core dimensions of autonomy, skill variety, task identity, task significance and feedback of the JCM on the satisfaction and motivation of the respondents have been largely supported. In other words, the many studies have shown that the nature of the relationships between the five core dimensions of JCM model and job satisfaction was positive which means the level of job satisfaction is increased as long as the organisations applies the JCM model.

This study also supports the findings of Mohr and Burgess (2011) who examined whether physicians who were involved with research had greater job satisfaction and
more positive job characteristics perceptions, and found that physicians who spent part of their time involved with research activities were more likely to report favourable job characteristics ratings. In the Libyan Oil Companies, the employees who had a high degree of autonomy as well as appropriate training opportunities that allowed them to increase their professional skills and their ability to evaluate their performance had a high job satisfaction. Also, the result of the current study in relation to task identity is consistent with Katrinli et al., (2009) who found that job dimensions of task identity play a significant role in increasing job satisfaction.

Also, the findings of the present study revealed that there was a significant correlation between the core dimension of task significance of the Job Characteristics Model (JCM) and workers’ job satisfaction in the Libyan Oil Companies. Task Significance is giving an opportunity to an employee in the Libyan companies to do work that has a positive impact on the well-being of other people in the same company. In other words, the Libyan employees allow a high social contribution of helping co-workers or other people. It is a benefit that helps other people in the work place which in turn increases employee motivation. It also increases the employees’ desire to work longer hour and to do a job well done. This result supports the work of Moosazadeh et al., (2011) who found that the mean of this dimension was higher than standard score in paramedical job categories.
Similarly, the result in relation to the correlation between skill variety and job satisfaction was positive, as the employees in the Libyan companies with a diversity of skills which allow them to use different talents and skills in their jobs. Therefore, greater skill variety may foster greater meaning in work because it allows employees to express more aspects of their personalities in the workplace. Thus, it may be good for the Libyan oil companies to keep designing jobs with significant skill variety. This result supports the study of Richard and Seogk (2000) which found a positive correlation between skill variety and the feeling of satisfaction towards the task that the worker do in particular and towards the organisation in general.

7.3 Job satisfaction and employees’ turnover
The statistical analysis showed a clear negative correlation between job satisfaction and employees’ turnover. It means that when the level of job satisfaction between the employees in the Libyan oil companies is increased, the level of employees’ turnover is decreased. This result is consistent with the results of many researchers such as Vanden berg and Nelson (1999), Sourdif (2004), and Gilmour et al., (2005). They reported that job satisfaction influenced the length of time which workers intended to stay. It means if the workers believe that their jobs do not provide them the appropriate conditions including the work setting, lighting, ventilation, workspace, and all job facilities, they would not feel satisfied. In general, satisfied workers are less likely to quit than those who are dissatisfied. But it is also a fact that some dissatisfied workers never leave, and some satisfied workers do take jobs in other organisations. It is often the cause that dissatisfaction with extrinsic factors such as pay/rewards leads to employees’ turnover. This result supports the work of
the researchers who reported the direct effect of intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction on employees’ turnover (Fleishman, 1998 and Gilmour et al., 2005).

The current study confirms the view that workers generally do not want to leave or change their jobs as long as they are satisfied with the working conditions that can affect their decisions to leave their work. Some workers consider that the main reason to stay in a job is the good income that they receive while others believe that the work environment including co-workers, work conditions and promotion opportunity are important determinant of their decision to stay. Also, employees prefer to stay when they feel that the policies governing the work are based on treating everyone fairly and equally. It means employees will evaluate how much they receive from the job (outcomes) in relation to their contribution (inputs). Each employee compares his or her ratio to the ratios of employees working inside or outside the organisation. When workers perceive their compensation as being equal to what other workers receive for similar contributions, they will believe that their treatment is fair and equitable.

Also, the results of the present study support the findings of the study conducted by Cross and Billingsley (1994) that evaluated the special education teachers’ intent to stay in teaching, and found that the strongest direct effect on employees’ turnover in teaching was job satisfaction. Moreover, the findings of the study carried out by Sourdif (2004) and Kuzyk (2008) found that intrinsic rewards which lead to increased levels of job satisfaction were more important to those who wanted to stay
with rather than leave the organization. The same situation is found in the Libyan oil companies. It had been noticed that most of the employees regardless of the differences in their jobs and management level they were not thinking of leaving their jobs at all because the Libyan oil companies provide them with appropriate working conditions

Also, the findings of this study support the study conducted by Wong (1989) who examined the impact of job satisfaction on the intention to change jobs among secondary school teachers in Hong Kong, and found that reduction in teachers’ job satisfaction tend to have reduction in the level of commitment and productivity. Moreover, the teachers were prepared to leave teaching if a job alternative offering a higher salary became available. Similarly, employees in the Libyan Oil Companies always look forward to increase their salaries and the only chance for them to do so was to leave the headquarters of the companies and move to work in the oil fields. The managers prefer to move away from the headquarters in the city of Benghazi due to the advantages given to them in terms of benefits, allowances, and bonuses.

However, the employees in the Libyan oil companies located in Benghazi city do not think of leaving or retiring from their jobs as long as they feel satisfied with everything related to their jobs such as working conditions, salaries and rewarding scheme, good supervision and the work itself. All of these have a positive effect on increasing the level of performance, productivity and creativity.
Also, the researcher noticed after that the Libyan uprising an increase in the number of employees who moved from the oil fields to the headquarters of the companies located in Benghazi city. This kind of movement is named internal rate of labour turnover, even though the benefits and the facilities given to the managers in the oil field, including the salaries, exceed those that are given to the managers who work in the headquarters of the companies. However, the main reason for this transition is the desire of the married workers who have spent many years working in the oil fields to settle and live in the cities where their families live. This reason was reported by many employees who left the oil fields. For example, one of the employees who recently moved to the headquarters said that it was not easy to spend more than 10 years working far away from the family, although he had been single. It became more difficult after marriage to work in the oil fields and preferred to move to the city in order to stay with their families even if the move requires them to dispense with many of the incentives that were given to them during working in the oil fields.

Moreover, the findings of this study indicated that the correlation between job satisfaction and employees’ turnover was negative. This result supports the findings of the study carried out by Amah (2009) who stressed that job satisfaction was found to have a direct negative effect on employees’ turnover. However, it can be seen from the results of this study that the effect of job satisfaction on employees’ turnover can be enhanced in two ways; namely, when employees find congruence between their job and their self-identity, and when involvement in such jobs
enhances their overall life satisfaction. In other words, the workers are always looking forward to the jobs which harmonious with their professional abilities and provide them an adequate level of satisfaction during doing their jobs. When the workers get these kinds of jobs, of course this will reflect on their lifestyle positively.

This situation is applicable in the Libyan Oil Companies. Therefore, this opinion was confirmed by the researcher’s observations while carrying out the field study. He noticed that the working conditions in the Libyan oil companies, including the work setting, lighting, ventilation, workspace, and all job facilities, are considered very good when compared to their counterparts in other units of the public sector, as 95% had their own, independent office fitted with good lighting, suitable airing, with sufficient space.

Another reason for leaving their employment in the oil sector is the change of career after further training and education. The managers reported that many employees, especially those holding higher university degrees usually took advantage of long term overseas training to change from their originally-sanctioned training programme, to study as postgraduates through that they gain either MSc or PhD qualifications, which later allow them to work in the higher education institutions, and in the main, universities. By following this line of action, they are able to obtain work in the cities and be close to their families, as was confirmed by many respondents in the organisations studied who stated that they wanted postgraduate
qualifications from overseas training in order to leave their companies. The records of the companies showed that the majority of employees who gained higher qualifications had left their jobs to work in other public sector institutions, mainly in Libyan education and government positions.

Other reason behind the move of employees from the oil fields in the desert to the headquarters in the city is the security factor that appeared visibly after the Libyan uprising and the outbreak of the war between Gaddafi forces and the rebels in the eastern region following the establishment of the Transitional National Council (NTC) in Benghazi. Several oil fields located in the desert were attacked by Kaddafi forces for revenge. This reason was a strong motive for many employees to move to the headquarters in search of security and safety, especially in the first months of the beginning of the 17 February Libyan Revolution.

7.4 The five core dimensions of the JCM model and employees’ turnover

The results of this study show that the five core dimensions of autonomy, skill variety, task identity, task significance and feedback are directly related to employee’s turnover. Each core dimension of the Job Characteristics Model is discussed as follows:

7.4.1 Work autonomy and employees’ turnover

This study findings show that there is a negative correlation between autonomy and employees’ turnover and this confirms the result of a study conducted by Katrinli et
al., (2009) who found that increasing employees’ autonomy leads to a sense of personal responsibility factor on the success or failure of which may affect the work and willing to accept any personal accountability for the outcomes of his/her job. Also, Moosazadeh et al., (2011) argued that the lack of autonomy might have destructive effects on employees whose need level for independence is high. Similarly, Varjus et al., (2011) found that factors such as supportive management, education, experience, lower workload and empowerment enhance the autonomy of employees. Moreover, Tonges (2005) argues that when employees have opportunities to make independent decisions which are related to interventions that they use with their tasks, they develop emotional ties with patients and their work. Thus, incorporating autonomy to employees’ jobs and increasing their acceptance of responsibility and personal accountability can have direct effects on their own department and to the whole organisation. Furthermore, acceptable levels of task autonomy should be incorporated into the jobs in the Libyan oil companies in order to retain qualified and satisfied employees who are able to participate in the development of the companies and improve the level of performance, thus increasing the level of production and gaining a better position in the global competition market.

7.4.2 Task identity and employees’ turnover
The findings of this study showed a negative correlation between task identity and employees’ turnover. It can be confirmed from the researcher’s observation that the four oil companies studied adopt a clear organizational structure that shows job requirements of each function within the framework of all departments in an
integrated manner which is known as job description. Also, the study showed that the employees in the Libyan companies have the freedom to recognise how to finish their work from the beginning to the end with a visible outcome without intervention from their supervisors. Thus, they never think of quitting their jobs as long as they do their tasks without any pressure exerted on them from the upper levels of management. Furthermore, the study by Katrinli et al., (2009) shows that the job dimensions of task identity plays significant role in employees’ job involvement. Hence, they recommended that managers in the senior level must consider these findings while designing jobs for their employees. Also, the findings of this study support the results of the study conducted by Hoonaker et al., (2004) who considered task identity as significant dimension predicting job satisfaction which in turn decrease employees’ turnover. Likewise, Yen et al., (2007) found that the more enriched the job, the greater the job satisfaction and less intention to leave the job. Moreover, Hadi and Adil (2010) predictive validity of job characteristics in general and the dimension of task identity in particular in relation to work motivation and job satisfaction and employees’ turnover. Also, the results of this study support the view of Parker et al., (2001) that the collective effects of the core job characteristics generally and task identity particularly on responses of satisfaction and motivation and employees’ turnover.

7.4.3 Skill variety and employees’ turnover
The results of this study revealed that there are no correlations at all between skill variety and employees’ turnover. This means no impact (negative or positive) was found on employees ‘turnover in relation to skill variety. It means that whether the
level of skill variety as the independent variables was high or low it will not affect employees’ intentions to quit their jobs. This result supports the findings of the study carried out by Bline et al., (1991) and Meyer and Allen (1997). Moreover, the findings of this study tend to suggest that job characteristics and job satisfaction were perceived as the factors that linked to employees’ turnover among employees in the Libyan oil companies.

However, a number of employees expressed their dissatisfaction with the degree of variety and interest in their jobs. For example, it was found that there was no variety in their jobs because of their routine administrative nature.

The reason for this was to the lack of training programmes for the managers across different managerial levels and also the lack of good planning of HRM developed in order to increase individual skills for all workers. This of course could lead to increased job satisfaction which in turn would lead to decreased employees’ turnover.

7.4.4 Task significance and employees’ turnover
The findings of this study indicated that there is a negative correlation between task significance and employees’ turnover. It means that whenever the importance of the job is increased, the employee confidence is increased too. Therefore, it is expected that the working conditions are improving significantly due to the importance of what the employee does. This results support the study conducted by Jed DeVaro et al., (2007) who confirmed upon the importance of the task for the workers
themselves and for the people they work with. He adds that enhancement of the importance of the career can lead to increased job satisfaction which in turn lead to decreased employees’ turnover. The current study confirm that the Libyan oil companies give importance to the managers in any level whether in the junior level or in the senior level. Therefore, employees always expect to receive recognition from their organisation when they make important contributions to the organisation. This is certainly due to the organisations policies which clarify the significance of each function and not only for the person who already employed the function but also for the whole company in order to accomplish the organisations goals which mostly include increased of job satisfaction that lead to increase productivity and employees performance and reduce employees’ turnover.

7.4.5 Feedback and employees’ turnover
In terms of feedback, the results of this study show that there is a negative correlation between feedback and employees’ turnover. This may be attributed to employees having Feedback or knowledge of actual results of work activities and close relationships between supervisors and employees. These factors that can lead them to be motivated employees lower rate of employees’ turnover. Employees in the Libyan oil companies like any other employees like to know the results of their work. They do better when they get positive feedback from their supervisors and colleagues on how well they are do their jobs.
7.5 Motivation potential scores (MPS) and job satisfaction

The results of this study show a positive correlation between job satisfaction and motivating potential score (MPS). It means that whenever the score result of the formula which calculates the motivating potential score of employees in the Libyan oil companies is high, the job satisfaction will be high too. The MPS in this study was calculated as follows:

\[
\text{MPS} = \frac{(4.26 + 4.15 + 3.75)}{3} \times (4.36) \times (4.43) = 78.3
\]

This MPS is satisfactory in comparison with Hackman and Oldham’s study which was 128. It can be seen that the MPS in this study is lower than that of Hackman and Oldham’s study, but the level of overall job satisfaction of the respondents in the Libyan oil companies was accepted as the score mean of overall job satisfaction was 4.28. The reason for this difference in the MPS output between the two studies is that the number of respondents in Hackman and Oldham’s study was 658 while the number of the respondents in this study was 331. The second reason is that this study used only 23 statements of Hackman and Oldham’s (1975) study scale of job diagnosis survey (JDS) which originally included 68 statements. The third reason is that the overall job satisfaction was measured using Minnesota questionnaire (Abid, 1990) which includes 35 statements instead of Hackman and Oldham’s (1975) Job Diagnostic Survey JDS. Therefore, the reliability of Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire was higher than the JDS scale. This could be an interpretation of why the result of MPS of this study is different from that of
Hackman and Oldham’s (1975). However, the MPS in this study is consistent with the level of job satisfaction of the employees in the organisations studied. Also, the study’s results are supported by the correlation between MPS and job satisfaction which was positive.

The individuals may respond to each of the five core dimensions of autonomy, skill variety, task identity, task significance and feedback of the Job Characteristics Model (JCM) differently. For instance, two different people may produce a different MPS for the same job. Thus, the utility in this equation lies in its ability to identify particular problems for a specific job and then the job can be re-designed to correct the shortcomings in one or more of the five core dimensions. This situation was available in the Libyan oil companies in accordance with the new rules and legislations that were introduced by the National Transition Council (NTC) because they were consistent with the aspirations and hopes of employees in the organisations’ studied. One of these legislations is to stop working with the law 15/1981 on the salaries of employees in the public sector.

7.6 Organisational determinants of job satisfaction

This section is concerned with the correlations among organisational factors (pay/rewards, job itself, supervision, promotion opportunities, relationship with co-workers and work conditions) and job satisfaction. Therefore, the research findings related to each of these factors are discussed in this section within the context of the literature review as follows:
7.6.1 Pay /Rewards and job satisfaction

Pay and rewards are considered the most powerful factors of job satisfaction. The result of this study, based on Pearson correlation, indicates that there is a positive correlation of \( r = .335^{**} \) between pay / rewards and job satisfaction. These findings are consistent with previous studies (for example, Seo et al., 2004; Ellickson and Logsdon, 2001; Karatepe et al., 2003; Ting, 1997; Farheen and Zahra, 2011; Asad et al., 2013) which found pay and rewards to be an important positive determinant of job satisfaction. Moreover, Al-Fadley (1996), in his research among 269 employees in the police department in Cairo, found a significant association between pay (salary) and rewards (fringe benefits) and overall levels of job satisfaction. Also, the study of Al-Enezi (2000) among Kuwaiti managers and employees in 15 government sectors, found pay and recognition to be the strongest predictors of job satisfaction. However, before discussing the results related to the pay factor, it is necessary to shed light on some important points that may help the reader to understand what shapes the respondents’ opinions toward their pay in the Libyan oil companies studied.

The first point is related to the method of calculating the salary, as there seems to be no direct relationship between the salaries of employees and their job performance. Salaries are fixed and paid on a monthly basis and rise annually by 10% of the basic salary according to the law number 15/1981. Actually, the salary depends on two basic criteria; the length of service and the seniority of position. Thus, workers receive equal salaries if they occupy the same managerial positions and have been working for the same period. Efficiency and performance have no effect on
calculating salaries, as employees with an excellent performance are equal to those with a weak performance.

The second point relates to the economic conditions of Libya. Although it is considered one of the biggest exporting oil countries around the world, it has been suffering from deteriorating economic conditions since Kaddafi regime. In spite of the passing of more than two years after the end of Gaddafi’s regime, the consequences of this deterioration, represented in the spread of the culture of corruption and bribery is still ongoing. This is mainly because of the laws that were introduced in the former regime are still applied and have not changed yet.

The third point is related to the low pay in the headquarters of Libyan oil companies compared with oil fields located in the desert. Those who work in the oil fields are paid higher than those who work in the headquarters. They also get more rewards for working overtime and they get more benefits and allowances such as allowances for travelling and accommodation. This point which may have a negative influence on workers’ satisfaction with pay is the fact that their salary is not sufficient enough to cover their basic needs. Also, many employees feel that their salaries do not match their efforts and experience. Thus, they compared their work inputs such as education, experience, hours, skills, effort, ability and loyalty with their pay/rewards. Other employees feel that their pay is determined by seniority rather than performance.

The fourth point is the low discrepancy in pay between middle and senior managers. The researcher’s informal discussions with some managers during the semi structure
interviews revealed that the monthly ceiling limit of salary for both managerial levels ranges between 1000 to 3000 Libyan dinar (500 to 1500 GBP).

The fifth point is the comparison between pay structures in the private and public sectors. Those who work in the private sector may get paid double those in the public sector. This discrepancy has negatively influenced job satisfaction and increased dissatisfaction among the employees in the Libyan oil companies which are considered a public sector.

This result supports Adams ‘equity theory (1965) and is consistent with the findings of Dawson and Lane (1973), Messe and Radinsky (1973), and Austin and Walster (1974), in that an individual may feel inequity and thus dissatisfaction when he/she feels that his/her pay is less than his/her counterparts within the same organization or in comparing with those in other organisations.

Also, the respondents were asked about the reasons for their commitment to their work in the Libyan oil companies despite the low pay, and why they did not leave to work in the private sector. The workers gave various reasons but job security was the most important factor which many workers in the private sector may not have. Also, the respondents said that they really liked their jobs regardless of the Low wages that they get due to another number of factors that represent their job outputs such as knowledge, recognition and achievement. This result is consistent with Analoui’s (2000) findings’ that senior managers stayed in their job despite their low salaries because they liked their job and wished to maximize their learning, knowledge, skills, competence and self-development.
Moreover, the respondents believed in that getting another job was easy at the beginning of their careers but the long years they had spent at their companies had increased their loyalty and commitment to stay in their current jobs. Thus, the decision to leave the company and to search for a new job has become a kind of unconsidered and undesirable adventure. This finding seems to be consistent with the findings of Williams’s et al., (1977), Cotton and Tuttle (1986), and Slocum and Cron (1985) that the length of service and career stages are negatively related to the decision to leave the job.

The other factor which increases the wishes of the employees to stay within their companies is the recent Libyan uprising which brought hopes and desires to improve the conditions of the workers including the cancelation of Law No. 15/1981 that restricts the maximum wages among all sectors of the state, including the oil sector.

This study has found that pay is the most important context factor contributing to employees’ satisfaction, and one of the context factors that is most likely to produce a great motivating effect on the Libyan oil employees. However, this finding seems to contradict Herzberg’s theory (1959) and other studies which consider pay as a hygiene factor that cannot contribute to the enhancement of job satisfaction.
Furthermore, issues related to fairness and equity within the organisations studied was found to be important. For instance, when introducing incentives such as pay and other rewards, organisations have to consider the fact that employees often compare their job inputs and outputs in relation to those of others inside the organisation. This supports Handy’s (1993) view that a high level of pay is not often an issue in many cases but fair and equitable levels which are based on a comparison made by workers is. Also, the situation in the originations studied is in line with Adam’s (1963) equity theory which suggests that job satisfaction is the result of the comparison between the inputs that represent what the individual gives and outcomes that represent what the individual gets. Therefore, fairness and equal treatment have a great impact on increasing job satisfaction.

7.6.2 Supervision and job satisfaction

This study has found a strong relationship between supervision and job satisfaction. Most of the respondents related this to the need for being supported by leaders, some others saw it as a means of getting promoted, and others associated it with harmony and understanding at the workplace. In general, most of the respondents showed a higher job satisfaction with their relationship with their superiors. This finding of this study is consistent with Vroom’s (1964) theory that the supervisor who is competent, democratic, considerate to his subordinates, and has a good relationship with his employees will cause the workers to have positive feelings towards their jobs. When relations, trust and communication with the supervisors are poor, employees may feel stressed and this may eventually lead to dissatisfaction (Wech, 2002). Moreover, this finding study supports many research findings which reported
a positive association between supervision and job satisfaction (e.g. Ting, 1997; Bennett, 1997; Seo et al., 2004; Stringer, 2006; Nurullah, 2010).

However, the relationship between satisfaction and supervision is seriously a sensitive issue, particularly in an environment in which supervisors could hinder their subordinates from receiving certain allowances. Brunetto and Farr-Wharton (2003) mentioned that previous research concludes that workers will feel most satisfied and committed when they are involved in decision making, feel supported by their superiors and receive adequate levels of feedback about their job tasks, performance and expectations. Hence, taking this important issue concerning subordinates into consideration might significantly improve satisfaction levels.

It should be noted that some respondents, especially senior managers, refused to reveal their opinions about the relationships with their superiors and the reason was their desire to be appointed as the company advisors after retirement, since this position mainly depends on the recommendation of their supervisors. They avoided talking about the quality of their relationships with their superiors for personal reasons and future gains, and hence confirming Vroom’s (1964) expectancy theory of job satisfaction.

Therefore, it can be concluded that employees in the Libyan oil companies are satisfied with their relationships with their supervisors despite the differences in personal characteristics of employees, which sometimes cause the differences in their views toward assessing the nature of the relationship with their superiors.
7.6.3 Promotion opportunities and job satisfaction

The findings of the current study are in parallel with those from previous studies which found promotional opportunities to be positively related to job satisfaction (for example, Ting, 1997; Fosam et al., 1998; Ellickson and Logsdon, 2001). However, promotion as one of the content promotion factors is usually accompanied by many tangible and intangible advantages because it gives more authority, higher autonomy, higher income and fringe benefits, high social status, and more involvement in decision making (Arnolds and Boshoff, 2001). Satisfaction with promotion has a positive impact on job performance, especially for top managers. Moreover, the findings of this study have shown that, among all job content factors, promotion was one of the main sources of job satisfaction for the respondents in the organisations studied and that promotion was perceived from two different angles. The availability of promotion opportunities and the fairness of the promotion system applied. However, there were some obstacles regarding promotion. For instance, the first obstacle is that there is a lack of transparency in the promotion policy because one employee cannot know the basis on which the promotion decision was made. Thus, everyone who has not been promoted believes that he/she deserves such position. The second obstacle is related to the limited promotion opportunities which can be traced back to the inefficient hiring policy, as appointments in the first place were not executed according to the actual work requirements. The third obstacle was related to the unjust and subjective structure of the promotion system, and the exclusive control of the direct superior over the promotion decision. Also, family connections and the quality of personal relationships with superiors influence the
nomination to promotion, and personal likes or dislikes can affect the promotion decision.

Moreover, the fact that promotion depends mainly on seniority means that although the management in the Libyan oil companies claimed that promotion is based on a candidate’s performance, the employees were assured that it was heavily dependent on seniority, and that competence was in most cases being neglected.

It was also found that the delay of promotion, as most employees have waited for more than 6 years on average to get their promotion as a factor of manager concern. It was not surprising that the promotion lost its positive effect because many managers had their promotion just before their retirement. Thus they did not have many chances to make effective use of their new positions nor did something significant for their companies.

Nevertheless, it can be concluded that promotion is identified as a significant motivator for employees in the Libyan oil companies according to the findings of this study. The respondents illustrated that promotion was a main source of authority, autonomy, high social status, and involvement in decision making, and can make up for their poor salary. This result is consistent with the study of Analoui (2000) that emphasized the importance of motivating factors such as promotion.

7.6.4 Relationship with Co-workers and job satisfaction

The findings of this study show a positive correlation between job satisfaction and relationships with co-workers. This is consistent with a number of studies of
motivation and job satisfaction. For example, in Maslow hierarchy of needs, the need for belonging and love as a social need draws attention to the importance of interpersonal relationships and socialisation in the workplace. Also, Vroom (1964) indicates that individuals who are in isolated positions have a higher turnover rate than those in positions that involve a certain amount of interaction. The result of the current study also supports Al-Enezi’s (2000) study of in the Kuwait government sectors, which found that relations with colleagues were the main source of job satisfaction. The respondents from the organisations studied believe that good relationships with co-workers and subordinates are one of their main sources of job satisfaction. They showed the importance of such relations by referring to themes such as; avoiding conflicts, friendly work environment, mutual respect, exchanging experiences, work harmony, team work, good work communication, healthy work atmosphere and feeling of brotherhood.

Also, the Islamic religion emphasises strong relationships between groups of people whenever and wherever they exist. According to Al-Bahi (1996), the goal of life in Islam is not only life itself but also struggling to introduce messages of values, cooperation and love. In other words, according to Islam, the relationships between organizational members are based on mutual respect and trustfulness. The Prophet Mohammed (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).
The importance of relationships is also consistent with previous research in Western cultures. For example, researchers such as Ting (1997), and Ellickson and Logsdon (2001), found that positive relationships with co-workers resulted in increased job satisfaction. Based on the importance of team spirit between the employees in the Libyan oil companies, the oil sector could be seen as being more motivating by practising a philosophy that adopts working in professional and secure teams. Therefore, the major point in building a team is to meet the needs of individuals, as well as the groups. To be good team players, employees in the Libyan oil companies should be effective, supportive, co-operative, human-oriented, analytical, planners and promoters of team concepts. This necessitates removing barriers between workers, enhancing honest competition, and encouraging friendship. Also, effective interaction between workers can more easily achieve organisational goals. According to Lambert et al., (2001), organisations must draw the policies which in turn lead to facilitate the process of integration of individuals in groups in the way which leads to increase cohesion between the members of the group and between the groups and the organization and departments. This, in turn, increases job satisfaction, job involvement and decreases employees’ turnover.

7.6.5. Work conditions and job satisfaction
The results of this study show a positive correlation between work conditions and job satisfaction in the Libyan oil companies. The respondents in the organisations studied consider the physical working conditions to be very good comparing with the other sectors. This result is consistent with Luthan’s (1998) views that if people work in a clean and friendly environment they will find it easier to come to work.
However, if the opposite should happen, they will find it difficult to accomplish their tasks. Also, the findings of this study show that working conditions occupy the highest position on employees’ job satisfaction. Moreover, all the respondents in the Libyan companies studied believe that their working conditions are excellent when comparing with those of other public sector companies in Libya. This result supports the study of Vorster (1992) who maintains that working conditions are only likely to have a significant impact on job satisfaction when, for example, the working conditions are either extremely good or extremely poor. Thus, employee complaints regarding working conditions are frequently related to manifestations of underlying problems (Luthans, 1992; Visser, 1990; Vorster, 1992). This view is also confirmed by this researcher’s observations while carrying out the field study. He found that the working conditions in the Libyan oil companies, including the work setting, lighting, ventilation, workspace, and all job facilities, to be considered very good when compared to their counterparts in other companies of the public sector. He also found that the majority of the respondents had their own, independent office fitted with good lighting, suitable airing, with sufficient space.

Moreover, the Libyan oil companies provide social services such as social clubs, prayer places, and restaurants as well as a private clinic for employees. In general, the working conditions in the Libyan oil companies seem to be suitable for the employees’ needs, expectations and aspirations. Theses working conditions may be due to different reasons. The most important one being adequate planning from the government with respect to the possible future growth for these companies that are
working in the oil field which is considered the backbone of the national economy including improving the circumstances for the employees in general. These results support Metwally’s study (2002) which found that the inappropriate working conditions is considered the most outstanding obstacle which affects the employees’ job satisfactions and even their job motivation.

7.7 Conclusion
The main aim of this study is to test the five core dimensions of autonomy, skill variety, task identity, task significance and feedback of JCM model in the Libyan oil companies by examining their correlations with employees’ job satisfaction. Also, the current study aimed to examine several organisational factors such as pay/reward, supervision, opportunity promotion, relationship with co-workers and work condition in relation to job satisfaction. However, based on the discussion in this chapter and the theoretical framework that was developed on chapter 4, a revised research model that incorporates the JCM and organisational factors as the determinants of job satisfaction can be suggested (see Figure 7.1 below).

The model includes the dependent variables that represent the organisational factors which lead to increase employees’ job satisfaction which in turn decrease employees’ turnover and the independents variables of the five core dimensions of JCM. Overall, the proposed model is useful for job redesign purposes in the Libyan sectors in general and oil sector in particular. This is for two reasons. First, the findings to which it gives rise generalize to homogeneous groups of employees. Second, even though the critical psychological states in Hackman and Oldham
(1975) do not represent the complete causal link, the direct relationships that exist between the core job dimensions of JCM model and the output variables (job satisfaction and employees’ turnover) have the same general implications for job redesign practices

**Figure 7.1: Research Conceptual Model**
CHAPTER EIGHT
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH AND RECOMMENDATION

8.1 Introduction
This chapter provides a summary of the main findings and discussion of the extent to which the objectives of the study have been achieved. Therefore, the contribution of this study to knowledge in theory and practice is outlined. Finally, the limitation of the study are explained and followed by suggestions for future research.

8.2 Summary
As an overall summary, and in the light of the analyses of the quantitative and qualitative data, presented in chapter six and discussed in chapter seven, the following points and issues can be derived from this study.

1. Although many studies have explored the topic of job satisfaction, there has been less agreement about how to measure that satisfaction, what factors to consider when examining it, and the possibility of applying the scale to other cultures. Some publications about the factors contributing to job satisfaction have tended to be contradictory and vary considerably. Some studies found that salary for instance plays a key role in determining job satisfaction, while others found that salary was not found a significant factor. This diversity can be partly related to the complexity of human beings, their cultures and demographic trends and/or to the use of different scales in measuring job satisfaction. Other reasons include the type of organisation and the nature of work that employees do in that organisation. According to
researchers like Hackman and Oldham (1975) the feature and nature of the work is considered the main determinant of employees’ satisfaction with their jobs. Therefore, the main aim of this research was: (1) to test and apply the Job Characteristics Model in the Libyan Oil Companies; and (2) to develop a conceptual model that combines between the five core dimensions of autonomy, skill variety, task identity, task significance and feedback and organisational factors that determine job satisfaction and employees’ turnover such as pay/reward, supervision, promotion opportunity, co-workers and work conditions. In order to achieve these goals, qualitative and quantitative methods conducted and supplemented with some observations were used to collect the data.

The quantitative method is represented by using both self-administrated; Minnesota questionnaire (MSQ) and Job-Diagnostic-Survey (JDS); while the qualitative method is represented by using semi-structured interviews, field observations and documentations to generate the data that serve the exploratory nature of the study.

Based on the results of this study, the determinants of job satisfaction among the respondents in the Libyan Oil Companies were identified including the five core dimensions of JCM. The findings support the conclusion of previous research that the application of JCM model leads to increased job satisfaction which in turn leads to decreased employees’ turnover. Therefore, it can be concluded that the main question -to what extent are the five core dimensions of JCM applicable in the Libyan oil companies, located in Benghazi, and if they affect job satisfaction- has been answered clearly. The analysis of the findings in relation to the extent to which each core dimension leads to job satisfaction it can be concluded:
• Employees of Libyan oil companies are able to accomplish their jobs from start to finish. In other words, the findings of the study show that the workers have the freedom to do their jobs in the manner that they chose by themselves without intervention from their supervisors.

• The study shows that the workers in the Libyan oil companies had the ability to perform a number of different types of skills to finish their jobs. Also, in terms of task identity, the study found that greater task identity is associated with greater perceived meaningfulness of work in the Libyan Oil Companies.

• The work that employees do in the Libyan Oil Companies has a real impact not only in the employees’ jobs but also on the whole organisation. The workers feel that they are making a significant contribution to the organization in which enhances a sense of self-esteem in particular, and of belonging to the company in general.

• The feedback from employees’ supervisors in the Libyan Oil Companies was positive and the worker’s performance and job satisfaction tends to be high.

2. The motivating potential score (MPS) of the five core dimensions of autonomy, skill variety, task identity, task significance and feedback was 78.3, which means that the job characteristics for all participants in the Libyan oil companies located in Benghazi have a positive effect on work motivation.

3. The results show a positive correlation between each of the five core dimensions and job satisfaction and the MPS. In contrast, there was a negative correlation
between MPS and employees’ turnover. Also, the correlation between job satisfaction and employees’ turnover was negative. This means that the inclusion of the five core dimensions of JCM when redesigning jobs in the Libyan oil companies leads to job satisfaction of employees, which in turn leads to a decrease in employees’ turnover.

4. The statistical analysis of the relationship between organisational factors such as pay/rewards, promotion opportunity, co-workers, supervision and work conditions with job satisfaction has shown a positive correlation between all organisational factors and job satisfaction in the Libyan Oil Companies studied.

8.3 Reconsideration of the research objectives

The main aim of this study was to test the job characteristics model in the Libyan Oil Companies located in Benghazi by examining the correlations between the five core dimensions and its relationship with job satisfaction and employees’ turnover. Also, to identify the level of job satisfaction and determine its relationship with organisation factors. Eventually, this aim has been met and investigated through meeting the study objectives as follows:

8.3.1 Research objective one: To explore the current situation in relation to the application of the five core dimensions of JCM namely; autonomy, skill variety, task identity, task significance and feedback in the Libyan oil companies.
To meet this objective the study relied on three main sources to obtain the required data:

- Job diagnostic survey (JDS) questionnaire was used to collect data from the Libyan oil companies using a random sampling method. This survey includes 23 statements to examine the five core dimensions of Autonomy, skill, variety, task identity, task significance and feedback in the Libyan oil companies in order to test and apply the Job Characteristics Model of Hackman and Oldham.

- Semi-structured interviews were used to ascertain the views of the workers on the five core dimensions of JCM model. These interviews were adopted to confirm the responses that were obtained from the survey.

- Other sources of data were also collected and used, such as documents and observations. In other words, the researcher was given permission to access the organisations archives to find important reports and documents which are relevant to this study. Therefore, it can be argued that this objective has been met through the collection of participants’ responses and analysing them.

**8.3.2 Research objective two: To explore the level of job satisfaction for the employees in the Libyan oil companies located in Benghazi.**

In order to accomplish this objective three steps were adopted by the researcher as follows:
• Minnesota questionnaire scale was used to identify the job satisfaction level for participants. This survey includes 35 statements related to employees’ job satisfaction.

• Semi-structured interviews with 20 participants were used to confirm the responses of the respondents. Also, these interviews were used to confirm the responses that were obtained from the participants in the Libyan oil companies located in Benghazi.

• The observation method was used to explore the physical working environment and to examine the policies and laws that regulated jobs in the Libyan oil companies.

Therefore, it was concluded that the employees in the Libyan oil companies were satisfied with their working conditions. Therefore, the second objective was met successfully.

8.3.3 Research objective three: To test the motivating potential score of MPS formula that was developed by Hackman and Oldham to determinate the level of motivation which in turn leads to increased job satisfaction for the workers in the Libyan oil companies.

To meet this objective, the following formula was used after calculating the mean score of each one of the five core dimensions:
\[
\text{MPS} = \frac{(4.26+4.15+3.75) \times (4.36) \times (4.43)}{3} = 78.3
\]

It can be seen that the motivating potential score is high which in turn leads to increase in job satisfaction. This analysis confirms the objective above regarding the exploration of the level of job satisfaction which was high too. Based on the above, the MPS formula was successfully checked. In other word, MPS score, as integrated tool, is used to examine the effect of the five core dimensions as a whole on the level of employees’ job satisfaction. Also, the level of employees’ job satisfaction in the Libyan oil companies was examined using Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) which includes 35 statements. It shows that the level of employees’ satisfaction is high and this result is consistent with the above MPS formula score.

**8.3.4 Research objective four: To discuss the relationships between the MPS and job satisfaction and employees’ turnover**

To meet this objective, Pearson correlation was used to explore these relationships. Also, this objective was successfully examined as the correlation among MPS and job satisfaction was positive while the correlation among MPS and turnover was negative. In other word, this result is consistent with the previous objective (8.3.4) as it indicates that the level of employees’ job satisfaction in the Libyan oil companies whether using the MPS formula, developed by Hackman and Oldham, or using Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) was high. This result is supported by
using Pearson correlation tool which shows a positive correlation between MPS and employees’ job satisfaction. Therefore, the objective has been met.

8.3.5 Research objective five: To examine the relationships between some of the organisational factors such as pay/reward, promotion opportunity, supervision, co-workers and work conditions and job satisfaction.

To accomplish this objective, Pearson correlation was used to identify this relationship. Therefore, these correlations were successfully achieved. In other words, the results of the Pearson correlations of the five organisational factors as shown (pay/reward = .335**, supervision= .280**, promotion opportunity = .280** relation co-workers = .296**, and work condition = .221*). These positive numbers with two stars above each number mean statistically that the correlation between the five organisational factors and job satisfaction is significantly positive. Also, it means that high-level salaries, excellent relationship with co-workers, fair chances for promotion, good supervision of workers as well as adequate working conditions, all of these together lead to increased job satisfaction. Therefore the objective has been met.

8.3.6 Research objective seven: To develop a conceptual model that combines between the five core dimensions of JCM and the organisational factors that may help the Libyan oil companies to improve their performance level and increase productivity in the future.
To meet this objective, motivation theories have been reviewed and the consequences of job satisfaction and job satisfaction components have been discussed. Therefore, it can be concluded that this objective was successfully met. The conceptual model is developed after a review of the main motivation theories and the five core dimensions of Job Characters Model as well as organisational factors as determinants of job satisfaction (see figure 7.1). Also, the model is adopted from observation of physical environment of the Libyan Oil Companies in order to suggest solutions of the current problems or to build the plans that in the end lead to increased job satisfaction of employees, which in turn lead to decreased employees’ turnover. Of course, this represents the main goal for the Libyan Oil Companies in particular and the other organisations in general.

8.4 Theoretical and Practical contributions of the study
This study is a step forward towards a better understanding of the job characteristics model, job satisfaction and employees’ turnover in the Libyan oil companies. It provides several contributions to the field of management and employee relations as follows:

8.4.1 Theoretical contribution
Extensive review of the literature was carried out in this research in order to explore availability and usefulness of the relevant literature in relation to the research aim and objectives and to identify any gaps that would enable this research to make a contribution. Therefore, it can be concluded that this research’s findings have added to the literature in three main areas as follows:
• To the best of the author’s knowledge, this research is the first to apply the job characteristics model (JCM) in the Libyan environment in general and the oil companies in particular as most prior studies have been conducted in developed countries. Thus, the main contribution of this study is to narrow the gap in the literature related to the theories which deal with job design such as the Job Characteristic Model. Also, this study sheds light on the job redesign in the Libyan oil companies which it should include the five core dimensions of autonomy, skill variety, task identity, task significance and feedback of JCM. Therefore, such results may be very helpful in the assignment of individuals to particular jobs in the future.

• To the best of the author’s knowledge, the current study is the first to use two different scales to measure the job satisfaction level on the same sample. The first scale is the job diagnostic survey of JCM by Hackman and Oldham which includes 23 statements and the second is Minnesota scale which includes 35 statements.

• The researcher explored organisational factors, which were ignored in the JCM model, in relation to their correlations with job satisfaction and employees’ turnover. These factors have been added to JCM model in addition to the five core dimensions. Also, the conceptual model developed by the researcher includes two important factors which were not taken into account in the previous studies and found that they have a direct impact on the movement of staff from the oil fields scattered across the desert to the main headquarters. These factors are social and security factors. The social factors are the transition from bachelor status to marriage
life while security factors are loss of security in the oil fields scattered in the desert and far from the main headquarters that are located in Benghazi city. It was clear that both factors have influenced employees’ turnover as most of the employees in the oil field are likely to move to the headquarters as soon as their social status changed. Also, it has been noticed during the Libyan revolution that a big number of managers in the oil field decided to move to the main departments located in the cites due to the security factor which significantly decreased after the Libyan uprising. Based on above the discussion, the researcher developed a conceptual model which includes all the factors which became influential of job satisfaction and employees’ turnover as well as the five core dimensions of JCM model developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975) and the organisational factors such as pay/reward, supervision, promotion opportunity, co-workers, and work conditions, as the determinants of job satisfaction see the conceptual model Figure (7.1) on page 228.

8.4.2 Practical contributions
Although this thesis has focused on the Libyan oil companies, it is possible to apply the results of this study in the whole public sector of Libya. There are some implications for Libyan employees, organisations and society.

- This study gave the employees an opportunity to express their views and feelings towards their work environment. The findings show that employees have made valuable relationships with colleagues in their organisations and they have good working conditions. Also, they recognized the benefits and incentives that they gained from their jobs. This feeling makes them give all their time and effort for the
advancement of their institutions and afford positive attitudes for those employees to stay in their organisations.

- The job characteristics model can be used after adding some organisational factors as the determinants of job satisfaction such as pay/reward, supervision, promotion opportunity, co- workers and work conditions not only by the Libyan oil companies studied but also by all the Libyan organisations with different activities to shed light on the significance of the five core dimensions in increasing the level of job satisfaction of the employees which in turn increases their performance.

- The lack of job characteristics such as autonomy, skill variety and feedback could create a climate of dissatisfaction and lack of commitment among employees and low performance. This study suggests that work attitudes will be improved if the Libyan oil companies keep moving towards decentralisation through the delegation of authority to lower levels. This will increase autonomy and responsibilities as well as enhance participation and more involvement in decisions making process. So, these outcomes would generate self-confidence and greater commitment to exert extra efforts towards the implementation of the company policies and the achievement of its goals.

- This study has also shown that employees whether managers, supervisors or workers are an important resource and a valuable asset in improving the organisations’ performance. All employees should be encouraged, motivated and developed to be able to deal with the problems which they usually face in their
companies. However, the lack of managerial skills in the Libyan oil companies has contributed to the existence of mismanagement which in turn has adversely affected employees' attitudes and performance. This study confirms that effective managers are more likely to have positive effects on employees' motivation, satisfaction, attitudes and performance.

- Lack of training opportunities, autonomy and independence, and advancement and promotion have all contributed to produce poor attitudes in the workplace and adversely affect employees’ job satisfaction. The Libyan companies have experienced high levels of internal turnover from the oil fields to the headquarters of the organisations due to the change in social situations of employees such as the move from bachelorhood life to married life. These issues should be taken into account when drawing the company's policies in the future.

- This study suggests that Libyan oil companies should recognise the advantages that they can get from employees' loyalty and good relationships between management and employees to achieve the organisational goals. They should also understand better the factors that make employees more satisfied with their jobs and more committed to their organisations.

**8.5 Limitations of the study**

Every research study is limited by some constraints such as time, effort and cost, and this study is no exception. The limitations of this study are as follows:
• The study sample has been restricted to the Libyan oil companies located in Benghazi. Thus, the generalisation of the findings of the present study may be limited to the oil companies which follow the National Oil Corporation (NOC). The researcher's decision about the number of companies chosen was affected by the cost, time and security circumstances. Thus, it could be argued that the findings of the study are not necessarily to be generalized to other business sectors in Libya due to the differences in the organisational environment and context.

• It can be argued that conducting more interviews could have obtained deeper insight into the JCM model. However, the interview survey was only one of the two data collection methods adopted in the study and the main objective of the interview survey was to complement and support the questionnaire survey methods which represents the main data collection tools by acquiring more insight so that the findings obtained from the questionnaire survey could be more reliable.

• The job characteristics model is considered as the most influential theories of job design. So, the issue of job design is multi-dimensional. Therefore, it is very difficult to analyse all its aspects in one study due to the time and the financial constraints. In other words, this study was limited to the application of the job characteristics model through exploring the relationship between the five core dimensions and some of the outputs such as job satisfaction and employees’
turnover without using the critical psychological states as mediator of the relations between them.

8.6 Suggestions for future research

- This is probably the only study conducted on job characteristics model in the Libyan context especially in the oil companies in the city of Benghazi. So it can be replicated in other regions of Libya and in different sectors to generalize the applicability of job characteristics model.

- This research has only considered the personal outcomes such as job satisfaction and employees’ turnover. Thus, the effect of job characteristics model can also be tested on behavioural outcomes such as performance and absenteeism as predicted and tested in the original model and by many other researchers as well.

- The mediating role of psychological states and moderating role of growth need strength has also been ignored in most of the job characteristics model research studies and it would be interesting to test them to check the implications of job characteristics model as a whole.

8.7 Recommendations

In light of the findings and conclusions referred to above, the following recommendations may be adopted to improve the job satisfaction which may lead to the reduction on employee’ turnover.
1. According to the findings, there is acceptable job satisfaction among managers in the Libyan Oil Companies. However, Libyan policy makers should always find ways of reducing problems confronting the employees especially in relation to job satisfaction. They should not ignore the human factor which is considered as the most important factor through which success may be able to be achieved for the whole organisation. Therefore, they must understand that the success of the oil companies depends on meeting the needs of its staff, especially managers, as it is questionable whether a dissatisfied manager can perform well or can even motivate his subordinates. Consequently, policy makers should deal seriously with the issue of job satisfaction as the key for success in the Libyan Oil Organizations.

2. Policy makers should understand that job satisfaction is a complex phenomenon and it needs a thorough investigation. Conducting a survey about job satisfaction is a useful tool to secure information about this phenomenon and to discover the problems that the organization may suffer from and detect any deficiency in the Libyan Oil Companies. Therefore, it should be conducted periodically, at least once a year. This instrument can help policy makers to learn more about employees’ behaviour and attitude towards their work. Moreover, it can be used as a guide in making decisions that can improve job conditions and can positively affect managers’ job satisfaction. This will in turn, enhance the oil companies’ efficiency and effectiveness.

However, to ensure the objectivity and validity of the results; and to protect the privacy of managers who take part in these surveys; and to obtain their free opinions
without the fear of being victimised, it should be conducted by independent researchers outside academic centres.

Additionally, moral and physical support should be given to the independent academic researchers who are investigating employees’ behaviour in order to obtain benefits from their findings and recommendations.

3. Policy makers should consider the personal differences between managers and the impact of personal characteristics such as gender, age, level, experience, training, education, and tenure on their behaviour and job satisfaction. An understanding of these factors will help in recognizing better ways of motivating managers.

4. Policy makers and planners should be aware that the salary is not the only motivator that influences managers’ satisfaction. When they face any problem or a strike, they are quick to promise an increase in pay or incentives. However, they can manage these crises better by showing more interest in the work content factors such as, autonomy, skill variety, and the work itself. The importance of these factors was clearly confirmed by this research.
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Appendices
Appendix A: Covering letter

Dear Staff

First of all, thank you for your participation in this survey. The aim of this survey is to examine the five core dimension of Autonomy, Skill Variety, Task Identity, Task Significance of job characteristics model of Hackman and Oldham and its correlations with employees’ job satisfaction and employees’ turnover as a part of the requirements to obtain the degree of doctorate in business administration from the University of Abertay, Dundee business school, UK.

The questionnaire is divided into three parts, in each of which various kinds of questions are expected to be answered. There are no correct or standard answers to these questions. So, would you please fill out this questionnaire carefully and accurately as this has a positive impact on the results of the study and we highly appreciated your best and faithfulness scientific, and your concern for the success of this study which we hope will be a promise of usefulness to everyone. It worth to mention that the data and information that you provide will be used for research purposes only. Also, it will be treated strictly confidential, and we will provide you the results after the completion of the study if you wish.

Thanks again for your support and assistance

Asaad Elomami
PhD student /University of Abertay
Appendix B: Questionnaire

First part: personal characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1) Sex</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>(        )</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2) Age</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 20 years</td>
<td>(    )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From 20-30 years</td>
<td>(    )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From 31-40 years</td>
<td>(    )</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>From 41-50 years</td>
<td>(    )</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>From 51-61 years</td>
<td>(    )</td>
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<tr>
<td>Above 61 years</td>
<td>(    )</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>3) Qualification</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary school or its equivalent</td>
<td>(    )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate or less of high school</td>
<td>(    )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school or its equivalent</td>
<td>(    )</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>University degree or its equivalent</td>
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<tr>
<td>Graduate MS - Ph.D.</td>
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<tr>
<th>4) Career Level</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senior management</td>
<td>(    )</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Middle management</td>
<td>(    )</td>
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<tr>
<td>Junior management</td>
<td>(    )</td>
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<tr>
<th>5) length of service</th>
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<tr>
<td>Less a year</td>
<td>(    )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From one year to 10</td>
<td>(    )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From 11 to 20</td>
<td>(    )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From 21 to 30</td>
<td>(    )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From 31 to above</td>
<td>(    )</td>
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</table>
Second part: Job characteristics

Please read each of the following statements carefully and select your choice by circling the number that you see fit and represents your point of view, the answer degree fall from the weakest to the strongest (As 1= strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree) as shown in the figure below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answers Degree</th>
<th>I disagree completely</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>I agree completely</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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</table>

To calculate the degree of motivation of potential employees through the following equation:

\[ MPS = \frac{SV + TI + TS}{3} \times (Auto\text{nym}) \times (Feedback) \]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1 AU</th>
<th>I have almost full responsibility for deciding how and when the work needs to be done.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2 AU</td>
<td>I have very little freedom in deciding how the work is to be done.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 AU</td>
<td>My job does not allow me an opportunity to use discretion or participate in decision making.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 AU</td>
<td>My job gives me considerable freedom in doing the work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 SV</td>
<td>I have a chance to do a number of different tasks, using a wide variety of different skills and talents.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 SV</td>
<td>I get to use a number of complex skills on this job.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 SV</td>
<td>The job is quite simple and repetitive.</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 SV</td>
<td>My job involves doing a number of different tasks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 SV</td>
<td>The demands of my job are highly routine and predictable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 TI</td>
<td>I do a complete task from start to finish. The results of my efforts are clearly visible and identifiable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 TI</td>
<td>I make insignificant contributions to the final product or service.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 TI</td>
<td>My job is arranged so that I do not have a chance to do an entire piece of work from beginning to end.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 TI</td>
<td>My job provides me with the chance to finish completely any work I start.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 TS</td>
<td>What I do affects the well-being of other people in very important ways.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 TS</td>
<td>What I do is of little consequence to anyone else.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 TS</td>
<td>My job is not very important to the company’s survival.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 TS</td>
<td>Many people are affected by the job I do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 FB</td>
<td>My manager provides me with constant feedback about how I am doing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 FB</td>
<td>The work itself provides me with information about how well I am doing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 FB</td>
<td>Just doing the work provides me with opportunities to figure out how well I am doing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 FB</td>
<td>My supervisors or co-workers rarely give me feedback on how well I am doing the job.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 FB</td>
<td>Supervisors let us know how well they think we are doing.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Autonym (AU)/Skill variety (SV)/Task identity (TI)/ Task significance (TS)/ Feedback (FB)

**Third part: Job satisfaction**

How you feel about different aspects of your job?

In this section, please circle the one number for each of the 35 questions or statements that comes closest to reflecting your opinion about it:

*Strongly disagree= (1) / Disagree = (2) /Neutral (3) = Agree = (4)/Strongly agree= (5)*

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>23 FB</td>
<td>23. My job provides few clues about whether I’m performing adequately.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>There is really too little chance for promotion on my job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>My immediate line manager is quite competent in doing his/her job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I am not satisfied with the fringe benefits I receive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>When I do a good job I receive the recognition for it that I should receive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I like the people I work with</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I sometimes feel my job is meaningless</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Pay increases are too few and far between</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>My immediate line manager is unfair to me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>The fringe benefits we get are as good as most other organizations offer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>I have to work harder at my job due to the incompetence of colleagues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>I like doing the things I do at work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>The goals of this organization are not clear to me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what I am paid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>My line manager shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>The fringe benefits package we have is fair and reasonable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>There are few rewards for those who work here</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>I have too much to do at work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>I like being with my colleagues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>I feel a sense of pride in doing my job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>There are fringe benefits we do not have which we should have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>I like my line manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>I have too much paperwork</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>---</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>I am satisfied with my chances for promotion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>There is too much bickering and fighting at work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>My job is enjoyable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>Work assignments are not fully explained</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Fourth part: employees ‘turnover**

How you feel about different aspects of your job?

In this section, please circle the one number for each of the 36 questions or statements that comes closest to reflecting your opinion about it:

1= Strongly disagree

2= Disagree

3= Neutral

4= Agree

5= Strongly agree

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I would like to leave my present employer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I plan to leave my present employer as soon as possible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I plan to stay with my present employer as long as possible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Under no circumstances will I leave my present employer</td>
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</table>
Thank you for completing this questionnaire, if you have any comments or suggestions to improving the level of job satisfaction, please add and included them here:

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Appendix C: The interview protocol

Time:
Date:
Place:
Name of interviewee:
Position of interviewee:
Questions:

1. Please provide a bibliographical description of yourself, including age, sex or gender, educational history, academic field and marital status.

2. What do you like most about your job?

3. What do you dislike about your job?

4. How satisfied are you with your job overall?

5. What is the most important factor when choosing or deciding to keep your job?

6. How satisfied are you with extrinsic job aspects, e.g. pay/reward, supervision, promotion opportunity, co-workers and work condition?

7. How satisfied are you with, e.g., physical environment, and human relationships, facilities, and organisations policies?

8. What sources contribute to job satisfaction?

9. What sources contribute to job dissatisfaction?

10. Do you have any intention to leave your present job in the next couple of years? If so, why?

11. Please describe your work and the situation in which you work.

12. What are recent changes that seem to have had significant impacts on the working lives?

13. Is there anything else that you want to talk about in relation to your working life?

Thank the individual for participating in the interview. Request follow-up information, if needed. Assure him or her of the confidentiality of the interview and any potential future interviews.
## Appendix D: Table of Krejcie and Morgan of Determining sample size from a given population

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</tr>
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</table>

Notes: N = Population size; S = Sample size

Source: Krejcie and Morgan (1970, p.608)
Appendix E: Normal distribution of the sample

Normal P-P Plot of Job characteristics

Normal P-P Plot of Job satisfaction
Appendix F: Reliability Statistics of tools measurements scale

Case Processing Summary

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A. List wise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

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