

**AN EXAMINATION OF JOB SATISFACTION AND ITS RELATION TO
MOTIVATION NEEDS AND SOME DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES IN
TWO DIFFERENT CULTURES (SAUDI ARABIA AND THE UK)**

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DEDICATED
TO
MY MOTHER
FOR HER LOVE AND AFFECTION THROUGHOUT MY LIFE
MAY SHE REST IN PEACE

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ABSTRACT

This research considers job satisfaction in two different cultures using a quantitative perspective. Questionnaires were used to collect the data for this study. The questionnaire has four parts: a job satisfaction scale developed by the researcher specifically for this study, the consequences of the level of job satisfaction part developed by the researcher, Manifest Need Questionnaire (MNQ), and the demographic part developed by the researcher. The subjects of this study were 406 middle managers from private organisations in Saudi Arabia, and 154 middle managers from private organisations in the North East region, England, UK. This thesis explores job satisfaction and its relation to the satisfaction with six job facets, satisfaction with co-worker, work itself, promotion, pay, supervision, and recognition. The six job facets were also examined in relation to the satisfaction with some variables associated with them. This thesis also examines the relationship between job satisfaction and motivation needs and some demographic variables. Significant positive relationships between the overall job satisfaction and the satisfaction with these job facets were hypothesized; and also significant positive relationships between job satisfaction and the four motivation needs (need for achievement, need for affiliation, need for dominance, and need for autonomy) were hypothesized in this study.

Factor analysis gave us similar structure in the two samples. The two sets of factors contain exactly the same items, suggesting that using the items in this survey, managers in the two countries conceptualise job satisfaction components in the same way. T-tests results suggest that there are statistically significant differences in the average satisfaction with co-worker, work itself, promotion, and supervision between the two samples, and no significant differences in the average satisfaction with pay, recognition, and overall job satisfaction were found between the two samples.

The findings of this study support the notion that the level of job satisfaction has an effect on the employee's attitude towards the job and the organisation. It was found that satisfaction with the job accompanied favourable consequences and vice versa in the two samples. Job satisfaction was found to have very weak correlations with the four motivation needs in the two samples. Positive significant moderately weak relationships between job satisfaction and age, annual salary, working in the same organisation, education, and number of dependants; and a very weak relation with the length of service in the Saudi sample. In the UK sample, very weak correlations were found between job satisfaction and the demographic variables; correlation with education was a significant but negative one and correlation with number of dependants was negative also.

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation test was employed to test the research hypothesis. Significant positive relationships between the overall job satisfaction and the satisfaction with the six job facets were found, and hypotheses regarding the relationship between the four motivation needs and job satisfaction were rejected.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

1. Introduction

Economic growth and development issues pose major problems to developing countries (Al-salamah, 1994). According to Al-salamah, one of the major causes of economic backwardness in developing countries as a whole and in Saudi Arabia in particular is not a lack of resources or specific geographical disadvantage, but the lack of well qualified and experienced managers.

According to Alqonabet (1998), there is a desperate need in Saudi Arabia to develop effective management in both private and public sectors of the economy. He argued that industrialisation and economic development of Saudi Arabia depends on the existence of efficient and dedicated managers who are motivated to work hard to achieve the goals of the organisation.

One of the greatest problems facing management in developing countries such as Saudi Arabia is how to motivate and support their work forces in order to generate maximum individual and collective efforts (Machungwa and Schmitt, 1983; At-Twajiri et al, 1995). Problems of motivation and job satisfaction have continued to plague many developing countries like Saudi Arabia, and are evident from the very low productivity, inefficiencies, and lack of will to work hard on the part of the work force of these nations (Machungwa and Schmitt, 1983).

The issues of motivation and job satisfaction in Saudi Arabia have been the subjects of a controversy. Management experts and scholars in Saudi Arabia are divided on this issue. Proponents of one school of thought argue that Saudi employees are mainly motivated by the use of monetary rewards (e.g. Al-nimr, 1993). Theorists from the other school argue that Saudi employees can be motivated towards higher job satisfaction by using non-monetary rewards such as giving employees more autonomy, power, and responsibility (e.g. At-Twajiri et al, 1995). These scholars have stated that motivation of employees, either by the use of monetary or non-monetary means, plays an important role in determining employees' job satisfaction.

Researchers in the developed countries have shown that there is a relationship between motivation needs and job satisfaction (e.g., Parker and Chusmir, 1991; Herzberg, 1987; Herzberg et al., 1959; Porter, 1961). In addition, other factors can also play an important role in determining employee job satisfaction. Overall job satisfaction depends on a large number of interacting variables. Family size is a cultural factor that may have influence on an employee's job satisfaction (Locke, 1976). Other factors such as age, education and income can also affect an individual's job satisfaction (Clark et al, 1996, Gruneberg, 1981).

This study is an attempt to improve our understanding of job satisfaction and its relationship with motivation needs and some demographic factors. Data for this study will be collected from a Saudi sample, where modern industrial organisations are relatively new and the field appears ripe for study, and from a UK sample to use as a bench mark for comparison.

The purpose of this research, therefore, is to explore factors that affect job satisfaction, measure the level of satisfaction with these factors and the overall job satisfaction, and examine the relationship of job satisfaction and motivation needs and some demographic variables among managers employed in the private sector in Saudi Arabia and in the UK.

2. Research Objectives

1. Examine the extent of the overall job satisfaction for managers in the Saudi and UK samples.
2. Examine the level of satisfaction with: work group, work itself, promotion, pay, supervision, and recognition and their relation to the overall job satisfaction in the two samples.
3. Explore the relationship of job satisfaction and motivation needs in the two samples.
4. Explore the relationship of job satisfaction and some demographic variables in the two samples.

3. Research Questions

This research will try to answer the following questions:

1. Is there a significant difference in the average satisfaction with work group between the Saudi and UK managers?
2. Is there a significant difference in the average satisfaction with work itself between the Saudi and UK managers?
3. Is there a significant difference in the average satisfaction with promotion between the Saudi and UK managers?
4. Is there a significant difference in the average satisfaction with pay between the Saudi and UK managers?
5. Is there a significant difference in the average satisfaction with supervision between the Saudi and UK managers?
6. Is there a significant difference in the average satisfaction with recognition between the Saudi and UK managers?
7. Is there a significant difference in the average of overall job satisfaction between the Saudi and UK managers?
8. Does job satisfaction have a similar relationship with some consequences of the level of job satisfaction in the two samples?
9. To what extent do age, education, salary, length of service, and number of dependants contribute to job satisfaction among managers in the two samples?
10. To what extent do the four motivational needs contribute to job satisfaction among managers in the two samples?
11. Are there any differences in the importance of job factors for managers in the two different cultures?
12. Is there a significant difference in the need for achievement between the Saudi and UK managers?
13. Is there a significant difference in the need for affiliation between the Saudi and UK managers?
14. Is there a significant difference in the need for autonomy between the Saudi and UK managers?
15. Is there a significant difference in the need for dominance between the Saudi and UK managers?

4. Research Hypotheses

The research hypotheses will be the basis for the collection and analysis of data in this study. The study has six hypotheses:

1. There will be a significant positive relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with the work group and the whole job satisfaction in the two samples.
2. There will be a significant positive relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with work itself and the whole job satisfaction in the two samples.
3. There will be a significant positive relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with promotion and the whole job satisfaction in the two samples.
4. There will be a significant positive relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with pay and the whole job satisfaction in the two samples.
5. There will be a significant positive relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with supervision and the whole job satisfaction in the two samples.
6. There will be a significant positive relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with recognition and the whole job satisfaction in the two samples.
7. There will be a significant positive relationship between the need for achievement and job satisfaction among managers in the two samples.
8. There will be a significant positive relationship between the need for affiliation and job satisfaction among managers in the two samples.
9. There will be a significant positive relationship between the need for autonomy and job satisfaction among managers in the two samples.
10. There will be a significant positive relationship between the need for dominance and job satisfaction among managers in the two samples.

5. Research Methodology

5.1 Research Design

This study will follow a cross-sectional survey. According to Babbie (1998), a cross-sectional design is the most appropriate and the most frequently used research design. The survey method is one of the most important data collection methods in the social sciences, and as such, it is used extensively to collect information on numerous subjects of research (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996). If the researcher's aim is a single time description, then a cross-sectional survey is the most appropriate.

5.2 Data Collection Instrument

The mail survey was used to collect data from the assigned sample. Babbie (1998) stated that survey research is the best possible choice of research instrument when attempting to collect meaningful data on populations too large to observe directly, and may be utilised effectively for descriptive, explanatory, or exploratory purposes. Dillman (1978) states that surveys are good vehicles for measuring the attitude and orientations of a large sample. The mail survey has been the most commonly utilised form of respondent self-administered questionnaire (Dillman, 1978; Churchill, 1987).

5.3 The employed scales

The questionnaire has four parts: (1) the job satisfaction part, (2) the consequences of the level of job satisfaction, (3) motivation needs part, and (4) the demographic part. In the next section, we shed some light on each part.

Part (1): The job satisfaction part:

This part is intended to measure job satisfaction and factors associated with it. The questionnaire that was used in this study to measure job satisfaction was constructed and developed especially for this research making use of many books, articles, and theses relevant to job satisfaction.

This part of the questionnaire comprised 32 items aimed to measure job satisfaction. A six points Likert scale was used. Respondents were asked to rate their level of satisfaction on a scale starting from very satisfied (1) through rather satisfied, satisfied, rather dissatisfied, dissatisfied, to very dissatisfied (6).

Part (2): The consequences of the level of job satisfaction part

This part was developed by the researcher to test some of the consequences of the level of job satisfaction. Four statements were included in this part. Respondents were asked to record their responses on a six point Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 6=strongly agree for the first three statements, and ranging from 1=strongly agree to 6=strongly disagree for the fourth statement.

Part (3): The motivation needs part

The Manifest Needs Questionnaire (MNQ), developed by Steers and Braunstein (1976), was used in this part to elicit responses on the strength of motivation needs.

Part (4): The demographic part

The demographic part was developed by the researcher to gather information about respondents' age, annual gross salary, length of service in the current job, length of service for the same organisation, the level of formal education, and the number of dependants.

5.4 Research population and sample

The population for this study consists of managers employed in organisations in the private sector in the North East region of the UK and in the private sector in Saudi Arabia. The sampling frame for the UK sample will be D & B Business Register, North East Volume, and for the Saudi sample will be the "A-Z" Organisational Directory. Managers were selected as the subjects of the empirical research due to their organisations.

Total questionnaires sent in the UK were 1000, 158 returned, 154 questionnaires were usable giving a response rate of 15.4%. Total of questionnaires sent in Saudi Arabia were 800, 415 questionnaires were collected; of them 406 were usable giving a response rate of about 51%. Therefore, the result of data analysis presented in this study is based on 406 responses from Saudi Arabia and 154 responses from the North East of England.

6. Data analysis

The data for this research were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). The analysis was based on two samples: the Saudi sample (N = 406); and the UK sample (N = 154), which will be used as a bench mark for comparison. During the course of data entry, two checks were made to verify the accuracy of the data entry, one in the middle of data entry, and the second at the end. No non-response bias, at the 0.05 level of significant, was found in the two samples as assessed by two-sample t-tests of the measured means on several variables such as age, annual salary, education, length of services, and number of dependents.

A number of criteria are proposed by Tabachnick and Fidell (1989) to select an appropriate statistical technique, two of which are the appropriateness of the technique to the research questions, and the characteristics of data. Accordingly, different statistical techniques were used in the analysis based on their relevance to the research objectives, questions and hypotheses. Among the techniques that have been used where applicable are frequencies analysis, factor analysis, t-test, Pearson Product-Moment Correlation, and Fisher's Z-transformation.

7. Results and findings

Exploratory factor analysis was utilised in this research to search for structure among variables. Factor analysis gave us similar structure in the two samples. The two sets of factors contain exactly the same items, suggesting that using the items in this survey, managers in the two countries conceptualise job satisfaction components in the same way. A Cronbach reliability test was conducted; all reliability coefficients were over .60, which mean that they are acceptable. This indicates that the measurement scales are acceptably reliable, and provides support for the statistical analysis.

T-tests results suggest that there are statistically significant differences in the average satisfaction with co-worker, work itself, promotion, and supervision between the two samples. No significant differences in the average satisfaction with pay, recognition, and overall job satisfaction were found between the two samples.

The findings of this study support the notion that the level of job satisfaction has an effect on the employee's attitude towards the job and the organisation. It was found that satisfaction with the job accompanied favourable consequences and vice versa. Job satisfaction was found to have strong positive correlations with the disagreement of resigning from work, disagreement of thinking of finding another job, disagreement of hating to go to work, and the agreement of feeling happy at work in both samples. Tests for significant differences between correlations in the two samples were conducted. No differences were found except correlation between job satisfaction and thinking of finding a job outside the organisation.

In the Saudi sample, job satisfaction was found to have significant but weak correlations with the need for autonomy and need for dominance; and no significant correlation with the need for achievement and the need for affiliation. In the UK sample, job satisfaction has no significant correlation with all the four motivation needs. Tests for significant differences between correlations in the two samples revealed no significant differences between them.

Positive significant moderately weak relationships between job satisfaction and age, annual salary, working in the same organisation, education, and number of dependents; and a very weak

relation with the length of service in the Saudi sample. In the UK sample, very weak correlations were found between job satisfaction and the demographic variables; correlation with education was a significant but negative one and correlation with number of dependants was negative also.

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation test was employed to test the research hypotheses. Significant positive relationships between the overall job satisfaction and the satisfaction with the six job facets were found, and hypotheses regarding the relationship between the four motivation needs and job satisfaction were rejected.

8. Conclusion

The research's hypotheses regarding job satisfaction relationship with the six job facets were supported in this study. Significant correlations were found between the overall job satisfaction and the satisfaction with co-worker, work itself, promotion, pay, supervision and recognition in the two samples. Although the same variables have significant correlations with the overall job satisfaction in the two samples, the tests for correlation differences show some significant differences. This led us to conclude that the same variables have some influence on employees' job satisfaction in two different cultures, but with some differences in strength. Hypotheses regarding the relationship between the four motivation needs and job satisfaction were rejected.

The level of satisfaction with the job has an effect on the attitude and behaviour of employees towards their jobs and organisations. Job satisfaction was found to accompany favourable consequences and vice versa. The more highly satisfied an employee is, the more likely he will stay in his job, have fewer absences and feel happier at work.

From the results of the relationship between the overall job satisfaction and the four motivation needs, one could conclude that the four motivation needs did not have a major influence on the managers' job satisfaction surveyed this study.

Differences were found between the two samples in the relationship between job satisfaction and some demographic variables. One could conclude from these results that demographic variables may have different influences on job satisfaction from one culture to another.

Although results of the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Test examining the relationship between job satisfaction and the satisfaction with the six job facets, and the satisfaction with each job facet and the satisfaction with the variables associated with it show some strong correlations among them in both samples, tests for significant differences between correlation show that Saudi scored higher in some and UK scored higher in others. These results lead one to conclude that the variables that have been investigated in this study have affected managers' job satisfaction in the two different cultures, but with different strength.

DECLARATION

No portion of the work referred to in this thesis has been submitted in support of an application for another degree or qualification at any other university or other institute of learning.

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Chapter one: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Economic growth and development issues pose major problems to developing countries (Al-salamah, 1994). According to Al-salamah, one of the major causes of economic backwardness in developing countries as a whole and in Saudi Arabia in particular, is not a lack of resources or specific geographical disadvantage, but the lack of well qualified and experienced managers.

Management plays a central role in the economic and industrial growth of a nation. Management experts and theorists have indicated that effective management is a critical element in both national economic growth and the success of organisations and that developing economy must be able to accumulate, retain, and use managerial resources effectively and efficiently to achieve desired industrial and economic growth (Drucker, 1972; Alsenanee, 1997; Alqonabet, 1998). Researchers have also indicated that there is a need for qualified and experienced managers in developing countries, such as Saudi Arabia, to pilot economic development and growth efforts (Alqonabet, 1998).

According to Alqonabet (1998), there is a desperate need in Saudi Arabia to develop effective management in both private and public sectors of the economy. He argued that industrialisation and economic development of Saudi Arabia depends on the existence of efficient and dedicated managers who are motivated to work hard to achieve the goals of the organisation.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

One of the greatest problems facing management in developing countries such as Saudi Arabia is how to motivate and support their work forces in order to generate maximum individual and collective efforts (Machungwa and Schmitt, 1983; At-Twajiri et al, 1995). Problems of motivation and job satisfaction have continued to plague many developing countries like Saudi Arabia, and

are evident from the very low productivity, inefficiencies, and lack of will to work hard on the part of the work force of these nations (Machungwa and Schmitt, 1983).

The issues of motivation and job satisfaction in Saudi Arabia have been the subjects of a controversy. Management experts and scholars in Saudi Arabia are divided on this issue. Proponents of one school of thought argue that Saudi employees are mainly motivated by the use of monetary rewards (e.g. Al-nimr, 1993). Theorists from the other school argue that Saudi employees can be motivated towards higher job satisfaction by using non-monetary rewards such as giving employees more autonomy, power, and responsibility (e.g. At-Twajiri et al, 1995). These scholars have stated that motivation of employees, either by the use of monetary or non-monetary means, plays an important role in determining employees' job satisfaction.

Despite the arguments advanced by each group, no serious attempt has been made to investigate the relationship of motivation needs and job satisfaction of managers in Saudi Arabia, particularly in the private sector. An extensive search of the relevant literature on Saudi Arabia showed that very little research has been done on the issue of job satisfaction in the private sector, and no research was found about the issue of the relationship of job satisfaction and the motivation needs. Therefore, the question that still remains unanswered is whether there is a relationship between motivation needs and job satisfaction among managers in Saudi Arabia.

Researchers in the developed countries have shown that there is a relationship between motivation needs and job satisfaction (e.g., Parker and Chusmir, 1991; Herzberg, 1987; Herzberg et al 1959; Porter, 1961). In addition, other factors can also play an important role in determining employee job satisfaction. Overall job satisfaction depends on a large number of interacting variables (Locke, 1976). In the Saudi context, family size is a cultural factor that may have influence on

employee's job satisfaction. Other factors such as age, education and income can also affect an individual's job satisfaction (Clark et al, 1996, Gruenberg, 1981).

Although a number of research studies have been conducted on motivation and job satisfaction, these studies have been conducted primarily in developed countries such as USA and UK. Very little research has been done in developing countries such as Saudi Arabia, and it is precisely as these nations are developing that research is essential if this development is to be maximised within the business and industrial sector.

This study is an attempt to improve our understanding of job satisfaction and its relationship with motivation needs and some demographic factors. Data for this study will be collected by sample in Saudi, where modern industrial organisations are relatively new and the field appears ripe for study, and from a UK sample to use as a bench mark for comparison.

The purpose of this research, therefore, is to explore factors that affect job satisfaction, measure the level of satisfaction with these factors and the overall job satisfaction, and examine the relationship of job satisfaction and motivation needs and some demographic factors among managers employed in the private sector in Saudi Arabia and in the UK.

1.3 Significant of the Problem

The study of job satisfaction and motivation is important because of its relationship to cost reduction through increased individual productivity which in turn leads to economic and industrial growth. Smith (1992) stated that job satisfaction can lead to cost reduction by reducing absences, errors, and turnover. Both management theorists and practitioners are concerned with methods for improving job satisfaction, because greater job satisfaction equates to a better quality of life, better

health both mental and physical, more job stability, and potentially greater performance and productivity (Cranny et al, 1992). According to Cranny et al (1992), the first step toward improving job satisfaction is to determine its causes and correlation. Being aware of what causes job satisfaction among employees can enable management to take steps that will ensure commitment and involvement from employees.

There is a need for this study of job satisfaction and motivation among managers in Saudi Arabia because little research has been conducted in Saudi Arabia to examine their causes and correlation. Based on the data that will be collected, the researcher will be able to locate some of the factors that influence managers' job satisfaction in Saudi Arabia. This study is also needed because no other study has been undertaken to address this issue in Saudi Arabia and in the UK and compare them. The result of this study will have important implications for those in business and counselling who are involved in the training and hiring of employees. This study is also important for researchers and organisations interested in cross-cultural studies and may also serve as a guideline for further related studies both in Saudi Arabia and other developing countries.

1.4 Theoretical Rational

The need theories of motivation provide the theoretical rationale for this study. Need theories have been among the most important models of work motivation, and one of the most pervasive concepts in the area of work motivation is that of human needs (Hay and Mescal, 1991). Several need theories can be identified in the literature, for example, Maslow's (1970) need hierarchy, Herzberg's (1959) motivation- hygiene theory, and Murray's (1938) manifest needs theory. All these theories, while differing in some respects, have their own merits and limitations; all have argued that human needs represent a primary driving force behind employee behaviour in organisational setting (Hay and Mescal, 1991; Steers and Porter, 1991). Murray's (1938) manifest

needs theory is the most appropriate for this study because Murray does not suggest that needs are arranged in a hierarchical form as do some other need theorists such as Maslow. Murray's theory allows for considerable flexibility in describing people. Using Murray's theory, researchers can describe individuals as having high needs for achievement and autonomy and low needs for affiliation and power simultaneously. Murray recognises individual differences and has specified content with which to measure needs, for example, need for achievement, autonomy, affiliation, and dominance.

1.5 Research Objectives

The objectives of this research can be summarised as follows:

1. Examine the extent of the overall job satisfaction for managers in the Saudi and UK samples.
2. Examine the level of satisfaction with: work group, work itself, promotion, pay, supervision, and recognition and their relation to the overall job satisfaction in the two samples.
3. Explore the relationship of job satisfaction and motivation needs in the two samples.
4. Explore the relationship of job satisfaction and some demographic variables in the two samples.

1.6 Research Questions

This research will try to answer the following questions:

1. Is there a significant difference in the average satisfaction with work groups between Saudi and UK managers?
2. Is there a significant difference in the average satisfaction with work itself between the Saudi and UK managers?

3. Is there a significant difference in the average satisfaction with promotion between the Saudi and UK managers?
4. Is there a significant difference in the average satisfaction with pay between the Saudi and UK managers?
5. Is there a significant difference in the average satisfaction with supervision between the Saudi and UK managers?
6. Is there a significant difference in the average satisfaction with recognition between the Saudi and UK managers?
7. Is there a significant difference in the average of overall job satisfaction between the Saudi and UK managers?
8. Does job satisfaction have a similar relationship with some consequences of the level of job satisfaction in the two samples?
9. To what extent do age, education, salary, length of service, and number of dependants contribute to job satisfaction among managers in the two samples?
10. To what extent do the four motivational needs contribute to job satisfaction among managers in the two samples?
11. Are there any differences in the importance of job factors for managers in the two different cultures?
12. Is there a significant difference in the need for achievement between the Saudi and UK managers?
13. Is there a significant difference in the need for affiliation between the Saudi and UK managers?
14. Is there a significant difference in the need for autonomy between the Saudi and UK managers?
15. Is there a significant difference in the need for dominance between the Saudi and UK managers?

1.7 Research Hypotheses

The research hypotheses will be the basis for the collection and analysis of data in this study. The study has ten hypotheses:

1. There will be a significant positive relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with the work group and the whole job satisfaction in the two samples.
2. There will be a significant positive relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with work itself and the whole job satisfaction in the two samples.
3. There will be a significant positive relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with promotion and the whole job satisfaction in the two samples.
4. There will be a significant positive relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with pay and the whole job satisfaction in the two samples.
5. There will be a significant positive relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with supervision and the whole job satisfaction in the two samples.
6. There will be a significant positive relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with recognition and the whole job satisfaction in the two samples.
7. There will be a significant positive relationship between the need for achievement and job satisfaction among managers in the two samples.
8. There will be a significant positive relationship between the need for affiliation and job satisfaction among managers in the two samples.
9. There will be a significant positive relationship between the need for autonomy and job satisfaction among managers in the two samples.
10. There will be a significant positive relationship between the need for dominance and job satisfaction among managers in the two samples.

1.8 Organisation of the Study

This study is organised into eight chapters. Chapter one will function as the introduction, dealing with the problem perceived, the purpose and significance of the study. Chapter two reviews the existing literature on job satisfaction, covering this area by discussing the existing definition, theories, associated factors, motivational needs, consequences of the level of satisfaction, and finally measurements of job satisfaction. Chapter three will present the concept of culture and show how cultural differences relate to differences in jobs and work-related behaviour. Chapter four will present brief information about Saudi Arabia and the North East region of England, UK.

Chapter five contains the research design and the methods utilised in this research. Chapter six presents a descriptive analysis of the data and data reduction using factor analysis. Chapter seven contains the results of the study and tests for the research hypotheses. The final chapter, chapter eight, contains *discussion of the overall findings, conclusion, and recommendations for future research*. References and appendices will be presented in the last part of this thesis.

Chapter Two: Literature review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter is divided into eleven sections. Section one will have an overview about job satisfaction. Section two and three discuss various definitions of job satisfaction and motivation. Section four presents job satisfaction theories. Section five is about the relation between job satisfaction and motivation. Section six is devoted to the factors associated with job satisfaction. Section seven sheds some light on the consequences of the level of job satisfaction. Section eight is about measuring job satisfaction. Section nine covers the motivational needs and job satisfaction issue. Section ten is about managers as a focal point of study. And lastly, section eleven is a summary of the chapter.

2.2 Overview

The issue of what constitutes job satisfaction has attracted the interest of researchers for the past forty years (Locke, 1976). These studies have developed gradually from a simple evaluation of basic theories to more complex issues and in-depth investigation to determine the causes and consequences of job satisfaction. Furthermore, a range of suggestions has been made by several social scientists and researchers resulting from various studies using a variety of academic methods in different organisations. All these suggestions are related to the various aspects of job satisfaction.

The complex subject of job satisfaction can be broken down to into separate factors such as pay, supervision and the work itself, but alongside these one must also consider the nature of the employee to ascertain whether he gets satisfaction and, if so, the degree of that satisfaction. Because workers spend nearly a third of their lives and the best years of life at work, it is important that they should be happy at work. Most successful organisations focus attention on

improving their workers' attitudes and increasing their satisfaction. This is essential as job dissatisfaction has an enormous effect on performance and productivity (Petty et al., 1984).

Schulz (1998) emphasises the importance of job satisfaction studies in almost all fields and especially in business, industry and the educational field.

2.3 Definition of Job Satisfaction

There are many definitions that have been proposed to define job satisfaction. These definitions are not identical because they reflect researchers' perceptions, knowledge and experience in researching this subject. The core of these definitions is that job satisfaction is the state when an employee has a positive emotional feeling towards his job. Vroom (1964) proposed a basic or simple definition; he used the terms "job satisfaction" and "job attitude" to refer to the "effective orientation on the part of the individual towards work roles which they are presently occupying". Blum and Naylor (1968) perceived job satisfaction as the general attitude which reflects specific job factors, individual characteristics, and group relationship outside the job. This definition is more sophisticated than Vroom's definition because it shows some source of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Salancik and Pfeffer (1977) see job satisfaction as a term which describes the state of correspondence between the job situation or job characteristics and a person's needs. Thus if an individual is satisfied with his job, his job characteristics presumably fit his needs.

One of the most popular definitions was proposed by Locke (1976) who defined job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences". Knoop (1994) describes job satisfaction as "an attitude that refers to the extent to which individuals perceive what they value at work to be fulfilled".

Attitude was defined as “the degree of effect towards an object;” such feelings towards work are usually assessed via measures of job satisfaction” (Ribeaux and Poppleton, 1981). A similar orientation was shown by Armstrong (1996) when he defined job satisfaction as “the attitudes and feelings people have about their job. Positive and favourable attitudes towards the job indicate job satisfaction, and negative and unfavourable attitudes towards the job indicate job dissatisfaction”.

A general definition was suggested by Cuming (1993) when he said that satisfaction in the work place is the opposite of frustration and the latter is a result of dissatisfaction which linked to tension, poor physical conditions, and failings in the job concerned and work mates. In contrast, Herzberg (1968) said that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not opposites of each other. He postulated that the opposite of job satisfaction is not job dissatisfaction but, rather no job satisfaction; and similarly, the opposite of job dissatisfaction is not job satisfaction but, no job dissatisfaction; which in fact means a feeling of indifference.

On that account, the present researcher’s definition is that job satisfaction is the attitude and feeling that an employee has about his job resulting from the assessment made based on his experience in the job. Job satisfaction represents a positive attitude towards the job, while negative or unfavourable attitudes towards the job indicate job dissatisfaction.

2.4 Definition of Motivation

Motivation as a management concept has been associated with the way employees, including managers, behave in their jobs and with the way they accomplish their tasks in these jobs.

Motivation, as a management concept (or function), is complex and multi-faceted. However, this

does not preclude stating some definitions tried by many researchers. Among these are the following reflective definitions:

“A motive is what perhaps prompts a person to act in a certain way or at least develop a propensity for specific behaviour” (Kast and Rosenzweig, 1979, pp244).

“We view the central problem of motivation as the explanation of choices made by organisms among different voluntary responses” (Vroom, 1964, pp5).

“Motivation is the degree to which an individual wants and chooses to engage in certain behaviour” (Hunt, 1992, pp23).

From an organisational psychology perspective, the above mentioned definitions relate motivation to the way in which people act to achieve their purpose and objectives in order to fulfil their needs, desires, and goals in their jobs.

From an organisational psychology and social-psychology perspective, the level of attaining individuals' needs (or goals) is mutually dependent in the work organisation. That is to say, the level of goal congruence between the organisation (implied top level management and owners' goals) and individuals' goals determine the way individuals attain their objectives. This goal congruence is determined by many different factors including the way jobs are structured, and the relationship between superiors and subordinate, in addition to rewards and values in both employees and organisations (Kast and Rosenzweig, 1979).

2.5 Job Satisfaction Theories

A great deal of effort has been done by researchers in an attempt to explain and understand job satisfaction. This effort stems from the contention that job satisfaction among employees in a

particular organisation is associated with other important factors such as adequate financial resources, use of modern technology, competent administrative policy, and these are the key factors to that organisation's success. The human resource is no longer ignored since both organisations and employees perceive how important it is to satisfy the employees' needs.

Understanding job satisfaction is as complex as understanding a human-being because what satisfies employees today might not satisfy them tomorrow; and what satisfies them in one place might not satisfy them elsewhere. One must also consider the major individual differences in human beings as they affect job satisfaction. Furnham (1994) Muchinsky (1993) and Mullins (1996) stated that despite the several theories which have emerged in an attempt to sound out and explain this phenomenon, none of these theories has succeeded in embracing all the circumstances surrounding job satisfaction.

Work motivation theories may be divided into two general categories: content (e.g. Maslow's Need Hierarchy) and process (e.g. Expectancy Theory) theories. Content theories "attempt to explain those specific things which actually motivate the individual at work"; while process theories "attempt to identify the relationship among the dynamic variables which make up motivation" (Mullins, 1996) and are concerned with identifying an individual's needs and strengths, and the goals aimed for in order to satisfy these needs. Content theories concentrate on what motivates. In contrast, process theories concern the actual process of motivation. These theories try to find out how behaviour is initiated, directed and sustained (Mullins, 1996).

Most research in international human resource management has been content oriented, because these theories explore motivation in more general terms and are more useful in creating a complete picture of employee motivation in a particular country (Hodgetts and Luthans, 1991).

Content theories of motivation are related more to job satisfaction than process theories (Mullins, 1996). Process theories are more sophisticated and tend to focus more on individual behaviour in specific settings and thus have less value to the study of employee motivation in international settings (Orpen and Nkohande, 1977).

Reviewing all theories of job satisfaction and what has been said about them is not the purpose of this chapter; nevertheless, a brief overview of the main and related ideas of some of the most popular job satisfaction theories among researchers might well serve a useful purpose.

2.5.1 Maslow's Need Hierarchy

According to Maslow (1943), human motive emerges following a hierarchy of five needs, psychological needs, safety/security, social or affiliation, achievement and esteem, and self-actualisation needs. There are three premises of this theory (Callahan et al., 1986). First, a satisfied need is not a motivator of behaviour. Second, the needs are arranged in a hierarchy. Third, there are more ways to satisfy higher-level needs than lower-level needs.

Despite its central position in the literature, Maslow's theory has received weak or no empirical support (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1977; Callahan et al., 1986). Lawler and Suttle (1972) report only two levels of needs - a biological level, and a global level covering the higher level needs. In a review of thirteen studies, Wahba and Bridwell (1976) concluded that the concept of hierarchy was only partially supported.

The confusion between needs and values in Maslow's theory was criticised by Locke (1976) when he stated that the hierarchy may differ with each man, and that a given hierarchy and an individual's actual needs may not correspond.

Alderfer (1969) has redefined Maslow's need hierarchy as three broad categories of needs: existence, relatedness, and growth. He was less concerned with the hierarchical arrangement of the need categories (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1977). However, Alderfer shares the belief with Maslow that need structure was virtually universal among individuals.

Although Maslow did not intend that the need hierarchy should be applied to the work situation, it still remains popular as a theory of motivation at work. Despite theoretical criticisms and limited support, the theory has influenced practical management approaches to motivation and organisation design to meet employees' needs. It is a suitable framework for looking at the different needs and expectations that people have, and the different motivators that might be applied to people at different levels (Mullins, 1996).

2.5.2 Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory

Herzberg et al. (1959) considers job satisfaction and dissatisfaction as two dimensions. They argue that factors that lead to job satisfaction (e.g. motivators) are separate and distinct from those leading to job dissatisfaction (e.g. hygiene). In general, hygiene factors are extrinsic, preventing employees from being dissatisfied or unhappy, but their presence does not lead to job satisfaction. On the other hand, motivators are intrinsic so that when present they contribute to employees' job satisfaction. According to this theory, a job will enhance work motivation only to the extent that motivations are designed into the work itself; changes that deal solely with hygiene factors will not generate improvement (Hackman, 1980).

Herzberg's theory is a source of frequent debate. Studies testing it have produced mixed conclusions (Brockman, 1971). However, it has been attacked by a number of writers. For

example, Vroom (1964) argues that the theory was only one conclusion that could be drawn from the research.

House and Wigder (1967) draw attention to the influence of individual differences. A factor which causes job satisfaction for one person may cause dissatisfaction for another. They conclude that the theory over-simplified. Also, they criticised Herzberg's methodology. They claim that the critical incident method and the description of events giving to good or bad feeling influence the results. When studies have been conducted without the use of the critical incident method, results generally are different from those predicted by the two-factor theory (Hulin and Smith, 1967).

In spite of the methodological criticism that has been levelled against the Herzberg theory, it is important in that it was one of the first attempts to draw the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1977). It still enjoys popularity and has become widely known among managers and has inspired a number of successful change projects involving the redesign of work (Hackman, 1980; Callahan et al., 1986).

The assumption of universal human needs by Maslow and Herzberg et al was strongly questioned by Turner and Lawrence (1965). Different individuals may have different needs, or at least different strengths of the same needs (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1977), and hence will respond differently to the same job characteristics (Hackman and Lawler, 1971; Hackman and Oldham, 1976; and Hackman and Oldham, 1980).

2.5.3 Expectancy Theory

The expectancy theory, as formed by Vroom (1964), is built on the notion of individuals' choices of the type of behaviour which brings them a higher reward of satisfaction or the lowest negative outcome (or avoidance) of dissatisfaction. The rational/economic concept of "preferences" among different alternatives with different values constitutes a major part in the development of the theory.

The theory relates the estimated energy or effort (as a reflection of the degree of motivation) a person puts in towards the attainment or avoidance of specific outcome(s) depending upon a person's "belief" that the values (or valence) of attainment or avoidance of these specific outcome(s) is (are) to be "believed" positively or negatively related to the performance expected from his/her behaviour. The theory is represented in the following formula:

$$F = f_i (E \times V)$$

The clarification of the four elements in the model is as follows:

Force (F) : refers to the energy a person puts towards performance which is estimated and reflects the degree of motivation.

Expectancy (E) : refers to the probability (belief) that an action will lead to performance.

Instrumentality: refers to the linkage between performance and other outcome(s) which depends on belief.

Valence: desirability of estimated value of different outcome(s) upon a person's belief.

It is to be noted that both valence (values) and expectancy are combined together "multiplicatively" in order to produce the expected effort. In other words, a person should perceive the consequences of the outcome(s) which could be positive, negative or neutral. At the same time one should perceive the expectancy (probability), which ranges from zero to one, of

the action (performance), in order to estimate the level of effort of motivation needed. Based on the summation of expectancies multiplied by valences a person will act on which ever is higher to perform or lower to avoid.

Evidence for the validity of the expectancy model is mixed (Miller and Grush, 1988; Mitchell, 1988). Although the expectancy equation may oversimplify the motivational process, managers can still use it to diagnose motivational problems or to evaluate effective motivation.

2.5.4 Equity Theory

One of the popular cognitive explanations of human behaviour in work organisations is equity theory. In equity theory, people are motivated to maintain “fair relationships with others and rectify unfair relationships by making them fair” (Baron, 1983). Three key factors used in explaining and understanding motivation in equity theory are: inputs, outcomes, and referents (Adams, 1965). Inputs are what a person brings to the job such as age and skills. Outcomes are things that the person perceives to be received as a result of work. They may be positive factors such as pay and recognition, or negative such as unsafe working conditions and pressure from management. Referent is the focus of comparison for the person, either other individuals or other groups.

While equity theory basically makes strong intuitive sense, the empirical evidence has been mixed (Kopelman, 1977; Carrell and Dittrich, 1976; Cosier and Dalton, 1983). The concept of ‘equity sensitivity’ plays a role in explaining these findings by suggesting that individuals have different preferences for equity that cause them to react consistently but differently to perceive equity and inequity (Huseman et al., 1987). Differences in intelligence, social values,

personality, and gender may also influence an individual's perception of equity (Carrell and Dittrich, 1976).

Equity theory oversimplifies the motivational issues by not explicitly considering individual needs, values, or personalities (Gordon, 1996). This oversimplification becomes extremely important when the work force becomes more diverse. Cross-cultural differences may play a role in preference for equity in addition to the preferred responses to inequitable situations.

2.5.5 Goal-Setting Theory

Another cognitive theory of motivation is goal setting theory. Goal-setting theory is based on a simple premise: performance is caused by a person's intention to perform (Locke and Latham, 1990). Goals are "what a person is trying to accomplish" or intends to do (Locke, 1968).

Researches showed that goal-setting programs improve performance at both managerial and non-managerial levels in different organisations (Latham and Yukl, 1975). It also conceived the role that feedback plays on goal setting. Individuals required information about their effectiveness in meeting their goals as part of continuing to work towards them (Bannister and Balkin, 1990; Larson, 1984; Liden and Mitchell, 1985). Good feedback can engender a sense of achievement, accomplishment, recognition, and can produce improvement and more creative effort (Latham and Locke, 1979).

Erez et al. (1985) has suggested that characteristics of the participants in goal setting, such as their authority or education, may have an impact on its effectiveness. Erez and Zidon (1984) reported that the difficulty and acceptance of goals are major determinants for workers to perform a task. The effect of goal setting, however, may differ across culture (Erez and Earley, 1987).

2.5.6 Control Theory

A control theory model of human motivation is put forward by Lord and Hanges (1987). Control theory is a cognitive phenomenon relating to the degree that individuals perceive they are in control of their own lives, or are in control of their jobs, (Luthans, 1995). Studies have shown that those who believe they have such personal control tolerate unpleasant events and experience less stress on the job than those who do not perceive such control (Ganster and Fusilier, 1989; Fox et al., 1993). There is also some evidence that perceived control will affect job satisfaction and absenteeism (Dwyer and Ganster, 1991).

In addition to the theories mentioned above, other theories and studies have been found in the literature regarding job satisfaction, and these are now considered:

- Self-determination theory (Deci and Ryan, 1985) suggests that individuals in a given social context will be more self-motivated and experience greater well-being to the extent that they feel competent, autonomous (or self-determined), and related (or connected) to others.
- Hackman and Oldham's (1980) Job Characteristic Model suggests that work satisfaction is determined by one's critical psychological states which in turn are caused by the five core job characteristic dimensions of task variety, task significant, task autonomy, task identity, and feedback. Employee growth strength moderates the relationship.
- The Situational Occurrence Theory of job satisfaction (Quarstein et al., 1993) holds that job satisfaction is determined by "situational characteristics" (those facets that applicants tend to evaluate prior to accepting a job, such as pay, promotional opportunities, working conditions, company policies, and supervision) and "situational occurrence" (positive or negative facets that

tend not to be pre-evaluated). The latter are relevant after the applicant has accepted the job, and may be unexpected to the individual.

To conclude, the various theories of motivation that have been discussed all focus on causes of human behaviour, although each uses different psychological concepts to explain behaviour. It is important to note that various theories have boundaries. There is no one best theory of motivation and some seem better suited to deal with certain topics than others. Landy and Becker (1987) points out that need theories are most widely used to study satisfaction and work effort. Expectancy theory can be used to predict job and organisational choices and withdrawal behaviour. Goal-setting theory has been related to choice and performance.

Understanding each of these different approaches to motivation is useful because it gives the manager several ways to look at problems. As a result, he or she may arrive at better solutions more quickly and effectively.

2.6 Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Motivation

Since the early studies of job satisfaction, many researchers have given considerable attention to the subject of motivation in an attempt to clarify and explain how job satisfaction is constructed. As the research on job satisfaction evolved, researchers tried to separate the concept of job satisfaction from that of motivation. For example, McCormick and Ilgen (1992) believe that although job satisfaction and work motivation are related to each other to a high degree and sometimes found in the literature in a single section, the two topics are considered as distinct subjects. They pointed out that while job satisfaction is related to one's feeling towards one's job, work motivation is concerned with the employee's behaviour in the work place.

Nevertheless, they went on to say that the theories of motivation are to some extent theories of job satisfaction.

A similar orientation was shown by Dubrin (1972), when he distinguished between the two topics, defining them differently. He perceived motivation as the expenditure of effort towards accomplishing a goal, while job satisfaction was seen as a positive feeling towards work.

The relationship between job satisfaction and motivation might be viewed according to the construct of the theory concerned. For example, from the two-factor theory perspective (Herzberg et al. (1959), the relationship can be seen as a direct one. According to the two-factor theory, the job content factors (the motivators), if considered, will lead to job satisfaction.

If the relationship is viewed from the expectancy theory, it becomes indirect. According to this theory, job satisfaction is far from being a direct influence on motivated behaviour towards achieving tasks or goals which expected to lead to rewards (or first level outcomes). This in turn might meet individuals' needs (or second level outcomes), where effort or performance (which is dependent on individuals' choices) are moulded according to this chain (Campbell et al., 1970). According to this theory, job satisfaction is a function of rewards which may or may not be direct function of behaviour (Campbell et al., 1970).

Despite the very close relationship between job satisfaction and work motivation to the extent that it is difficult to distinguish between the two topics, it can be dealt with in the academic researches separately. Schultz (1998) agreed with that when he suggested that:

“The concepts of motivation and job satisfaction are interrelated, satisfaction can result from the fulfillment of motivation, and new sources

of satisfaction can generate other motivations. From an academic and theoretical standpoint we can separate the two and discuss them individually”

Mullins (1996) suggested that job satisfaction and motivation are usually related but the nature of this relationship is not clear. He asserted that job satisfaction is more of an attitude, an internal state, while motivation is a process which may lead to job satisfaction. Organisations should know that a highly motivated employee does not mean a very satisfied employee and vice versa (Steers and Porter, 1991).

In the present study, distinction will be drawn between the two topics and will use motivation and job satisfaction as interlinked concepts. However, job satisfaction is, and will be, the main concern of the research.

2.7 Factors Associated with Job Satisfaction

The interests of many scholars in job satisfaction stem from their belief that job satisfaction represents an important theme in understanding organisations and the individuals within. This belief provides an indispensable justification for the studies of job satisfaction, showing and emphasising its relatedness to individuals and organisations. Therefore, literature on work motivation in general and in job satisfaction in particular is voluminous and not all of the literature produced is directly related to this study. Hence, a selected subset has been reviewed which has a direct relevant to the current study.

Researchers have examined several variables and outcomes that correlate with or contribute to job satisfaction, whether in a positive, neutral, or negative manner. Glisson and Durick (1988) classified these variables into three categories:

“(1) Variables that describe characteristics of the job tasks performed by the workers; (2) variables that describe characteristics of the organisations in which the tasks are performed; and (3) variables that describe characteristics of the workers who perform the task.” P.61

The present study will be focused on variables related to the first and third categories. Variables such as pay, work itself, promotion, co-worker, recognition, and supervisor will be explored as first category variables (work factors). Variables such as age, annual gross salary, length of service, number of years doing the same job, education, and number of dependents will be explored as third category variables (personal factors).

2.7.1 Work Factors

The present study will be focused on the satisfaction with the most common researched job facets which are satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with work itself, satisfaction with co-workers, satisfaction with supervisors, satisfaction with promotion, and satisfaction with recognition.

2.7.1.1 Satisfaction with Pay

Pay is arguably one of the most critical, if not the most critical, outcome of organisational membership for employees (Gupta & Shaw, 1998). This factor has attracted several researchers who have tried to explore its effect on job satisfaction. This attention was derived from the old belief that to satisfy workers one should pay them more. Locke (1984) pointed out that it is the universal means of exchange. (Kadushin and Kulys, 1995) considered pay as a predictor of job satisfaction. Lawler (1973) believes that pay satisfaction is one of the strongest factors in job satisfaction. The trend of investigating pay has moved from studying actual pay and people's attitude about it towards concentrating on the precursors of different kinds of pay attributes such as pay satisfaction and perception of pay fairness (Shaw & Gupta, 2001). The Equity theory

(Adam, 1963) and the Discrepancy theory (Lawler, 1971, 1981) postulate that pay satisfaction is the result of social comparison with respect to relevant referents. Inequity in pay was found to be associated with low pay satisfaction (Carr et al, 1996; Perry, 1993; Summers & DeNisi, 1990; Sweeny, 1990). Employees could have internal or external referent when judging pay fairness. Leavitt (1996) emphasised the important of pay but said that high pay by itself will not alleviate problems of low employee job satisfaction.

2.7.1.2 Satisfaction with Work Itself

This factor has been widely discussed by many researchers in this field and considered a major factor in determining job satisfaction (Gruneberg, 1981; Zeffan, 1994). People usually seek a job where they can practice their skills, see their output, and have responsibility and autonomy to strive for success (Jaffe et al, 1994, and Dodd & Ganster, 1996). Dale et al (1997) and Evans & Lindsay (1996) stated that employee satisfaction can be enhanced if a job incorporates task significance, autonomy, skill variety, task identity, and feed back about performance which corresponds with Hackman and Oldham (1976), Hackman and Lawler (1971), Locke (1984). Dahlgaard et al (1998) found that a job has to fulfil the human and mental needs of the employees, and this in turn will increase morale and motivation leading to improvement of quality and productivity. Locke (1976) asserted that a job has to have a sense of challenge.

2.7.1.3 Satisfaction with Co-Worker

It is self-evident that people have social characteristics, and they enjoy being with others. Maslow (1970) considers this need as one of the third category “the social needs”. In this category, Maslow meant the need for belonging and love that employees pursue to fulfilled. Therefore, assigning an employee to an isolated job may cause dissatisfaction (Armstrong, 1996). Thus, the work group is another important factor and source of satisfaction and

dissatisfaction. When a worker interacts socially and positively with his co-workers, the sense of co-operation will lead him/her to experience satisfaction (Gruneberg, 1981). Interpersonal relationships are an important part of job satisfaction (Leppa, 1996). An employee seeks satisfaction through his work mates to provide him with recognition, security, status, and the feeling of being wanted (Gilmer, 1966).

A job that has more positive social outcomes should be more satisfying to the worker (Lawler, 1973). When a person interacts and is accepted by his co-workers, he will be satisfied especially in terms of social needs. Peer-groups can help in raising an employee's perception about his input and outcome that leads ultimately to satisfaction. The higher the cohesiveness and productivity of the group, the higher the feeling of happiness in the work place (Gilmer, 1966). In fact, work group cohesion has a causal effect on the decision process of employees to stay or leave an organisation (Iverson and Roy, 1994).

2.7.1.4 Satisfaction with Promotion

Promotion to a higher job is considered as a means of satisfaction and dissatisfaction in the work place because promotion is usually followed by an increase in pay, responsibility, challenge, change in actual tasks, and to some extent a change in co-workers. Some employees seek promotion to enable them to change the actual tasks they perform or to increase their income or change co-workers. Satisfaction with promotional opportunities has a direct positive effect on job satisfaction (Quarles, 1994; Wiley, 1997). Sometimes, the promotional effect on job satisfaction is temporary (Kiely, 1986). Opportunity for promotion is considered also as a favoured motivating item by employees (Ahmad, 1989, Vinokur-kaplan et al, 1994). Lack of status and promotion could result in employee's job dissatisfaction (Travers and Cooper, 1993).

Fairness issues are important factors in any organisation (Greenberg, 1990). Tyagi (1990) found that inequity in promotion has a negative association with the extrinsic motivator.

2.7.1.5 Satisfaction with Supervisor

This factor plays a vital role in the work place. Supervision is a critical factor in both job satisfaction and performance. It was found that commitment to do well in the workplace and to increase the level of satisfaction is related to supervisory treatment, trust and feedback (Bruce and Blackburn, 1992; Deluga, 1998). Vroom (1964) pointed out that supervision style may cause satisfaction or dissatisfaction, in other words, 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.

(Lawler, 1973) considers supervision as one of the most influential factors in determining overall job satisfaction and in particular satisfying social needs for most people. The supervisor who seems to share his subordinates' values and take a personal interest in them will have a positive effect on employee satisfaction (Locke, 1976). Furthermore, employees will be satisfied with their supervisor to the extent to which he or she helps and facilitates the attaining of job values, such as challenging goals, or rewards such as pay increase and promotion (Gerstner & Day, 1997; London & Larsen, 1999). Fairness of supervision is a key predictor of employee's job satisfaction (Bettencourt and Brown, 1997).

2.7.1.6 Satisfaction with Recognition

One of the most important outcomes that an employee always seeks is recognition. In fact, it is true that the employee who feels a lack of recognition may react negatively to his job (Persson et al, 1993). Koch (1990) and Stuart (1992) asserted that recognition of a job well done or full

appreciation for work done from supervisor and top management is often among the top motivators of employees, and involves feedback. Positive feedback follows the principles of the Reinforcement Theory, which states that behaviour is contingent on reinforcement. Examples of positive reinforcement in this context include a thanks letter from top management, a bonus pay, verbal acknowledgement from supervisor or colleagues (Blegen et al, 1992; Knippen & Green, 1990; Steele, 1992). Recognition is considered as one of the most important factors affecting the level of satisfaction regardless of the occupational level (Starcevich, 1972).

2.7.2 Personal Factors

Various personal factors were found in the literature to be associated with job satisfaction. Age, education, and gender are among the most investigated factors. Five third category variables (personal factors) will be examined in relation to job satisfaction in the present study. Variables such as age, annual gross salary, length of service, number of years doing the same job, education, and number of dependents will be examined in relation to job satisfaction.

2.7.2.1 Age

Age is considered one of the important factors that influence job satisfaction. Age differences were found to be affecting employee's job satisfaction more than those associated with other personal factors such as education and gender (Weaver, 1980). There are many studies that reported a positive relationship between age and job satisfaction (e.g. Rhodes, 1983; Doering et al, 1983). However, there are convincing arguments and some empirical studies that the relationship is U-shaped or curvilinear. Warr (1992) in his study of two axes of job related well-being found a U-shape pattern with a high at the youngest. Clark et al (1996) also found a U-shape pattern. Zeitz (1990) reported three distinct age-satisfaction curves among three employees groups: a U-shaped curve among professionals, an upward-sloping double-bend curve among

elite professionals, and a downward sloping among ordinary professionals. Luthans and Thomas (1989) reported a positive curvilinear relationship between age and job satisfaction, a clear deviation from the linear assumption.

The issue of whether age and job satisfaction has a linear relationship or a curvilinear pattern remain undetermined. However, the existence of a relationship between an employee's age and job satisfaction seems to be conclusive.

2.7.2.2 Annual Gross Salary

This factor has been found to have a strong, positive relationship with job satisfaction (Schneider et al, 1992; Sweeney et al, 1990). Schneider and Vaught (1993) compared job satisfaction between public and private managers and found that annual salary is also related to job satisfaction. Based on their findings they concluded that higher income is related to higher job satisfaction.

2.7.2.3 Length of Service in Current Job and in Current Organisation

Time spent working for a specific organisation doing the same job or different jobs are variables that could affect the level of job satisfaction. Time suggests that an employee has internalised the work system and learned how to behave and cope with it, and also indicates that an employee has socialised with other employees within the organisation. In this case it is expected that the organisation loyalty and citizenship of an employee will be established and enhanced. This would presumably have a positive effect on the job satisfaction an employee experiences. Heskett et al (1997) found that length of service correlates positively with employees' loyalty and satisfaction, indirectly leading to customer satisfaction. Shokry (1991) reported that more time spent working in the same job leads to more job satisfaction.

2.7.2.4 Education

The literature on job satisfaction indicated that employees' attitudes and motivation are influenced by their level of education. Education is considered to be a prerequisite for participating in the labour force. Despite that, the relationship between education and work motivation is quite problematic (Gruneberg, 1981; Hall 1986) and inconsistent in that some studies have failed to record strong positive relationship between the two variables (Glenn & Waver 1982). Hodson (1985) reported that employees with high education levels always express dissatisfaction with their jobs, while the findings of Al-Helelah (1993) and Al-Saddi (1996) failed to confirm any correlation between education and job satisfaction. It could be concluded from the previous studies that there is no seemingly reciprocal relationship between educational level and job satisfaction.

2.7.2.5 Number of Dependents (family size)

Culture has a major effect in people's beliefs, attitudes and behaviour (Hofstede, 1980; Hunt, 1992). Family size is one of the cultural differences that could be found across cultures. Western countries (e.g. UK and USA) tend to have a small family size, while countries in Africa and Arab countries tend to have big families (extended family). Culture also may have an effect on how people view the responsibilities towards work and family (Aryee, 1999), which in turn will affect the work attitude. Ejiofor (1987) found that financial and social pressures from the extended family may lead to job dissatisfaction.

2.8 The Consequences of the Level of Job Satisfaction

The consequence of the level of satisfaction with jobs is one of the factors that have attracted investigations by scientists and researchers. Many behaviours and employees' outcomes have been hypothesized to be the result of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. These include work

variables such as turnover and absenteeism, and non-work variables such as health and life satisfaction.

Staff turnover represents a significant cost to any organisation in terms of lost money and time spent training and recruiting competent new employees, not to mention the potential disruption in the organisation's programmes and projects. Although there are many reasons for leaving a job, job satisfaction is considered as one of the central causes (Miner, 1992). Studies have been reasonably consistent in showing a correlation between job satisfaction and turnover (Eby et al 1999; Nagy, 2002). Oliver (1998) imposed an ability to secure employment elsewhere for the negative relation between job satisfaction and turnover. Branch (1998) and Tello & Greene (1996) have asserted that it is not only money that makes employees happy and stay in the organisation, but other things like job satisfaction and the ability to balance life and work.

Theories of absence hypothesise that job satisfaction plays a critical role in an employee's decision to be absent (Steers and Rhodes 1978). Absenteeism and turnover are often viewed as reaction to noxious work environments (Bartel, 1979; Gupta & Jenkins, 1991). People who dislike their jobs should be expected to avoid coming to work. Correlations between job satisfaction and absence have been inconsistent across studies. Nicholson et al (1977) in a review of 29 studies concluded that job satisfaction and absence from work are tenuously related. On the contrary, Shaw and Gupta (2001) found that job satisfaction significantly predicts job search intention and absenteeism.

Studies have established that the correlation between job satisfaction and performance is rather modest (Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985; Petty et al, 1984). Performance leads to satisfaction only

if performance will lead the worker to desired and fair rewards (Lawler, 1973; Huczynski & Buchanan, 2001).

Because work is considered as a main component of life for employed people, it seems clear that job satisfaction and life satisfaction should be related (Spector, 1997). Studies consistently find that the two variables are moderately correlated (e. g, Schaubroeck et al, 1992; Judge & Watanabe, 1993).

Most studies found in the literature support the notion that satisfaction with the job accompanied favourable consequences and vice versa.

2.9 Measuring Job Satisfaction

The measurement of job satisfaction is one of the most important areas that have received considerable attention. The importance of this aspect of job satisfaction stems from the fact that if unreliable methods are used in measuring job satisfaction the result will consequently be incorrect. A clear example of that is the criticism and low validity of Herzberg's Two Factors Theory mainly because of the way in which Herzberg and his associates collected their data.

It should be mentioned that there is no perfect or accurate measure of job satisfaction since job satisfaction is related directly to the complexity of human feeling. For example, the attitude of an employee about one aspect of his job may change during the course of a single day as a result of any potential change in the circumstances such as not being included in a promotion change which may cause feeling of frustration or receiving warning of criticism from a supervisor.

Job satisfaction may be measured by interviews, group meetings, critical incidents, (Riggio, 1990). The rating scale instrument is one of the most frequently used for measuring job satisfaction (Thierry and Koopman, 1984) and (Kiely, 1986). Several instruments have been suggested and received support from the researchers in this field. Cook, Hepworth, Wall, and Warr (1981) reviewed 249 measures of job satisfaction. In this method employees are asked to rate their feelings about specific job facets such as pay, work itself, co-workers, and recognition. Each facet commonly has five or three options, each option having a score that represents the value or the degree of satisfaction related to this item.

A logical distinction, however, was drawn by Cook et al (1981) between a questionnaire which measures each facet (e.g. pay) through posing one question with multiple responses (e.g. To what extent are you satisfied with your pay?) and another kind of questionnaire which aims to weigh this particular facet precisely through posing more than one question on it (e.g. 1- To what extent are your needs satisfied by the pay and benefits you receive? 2- Considering what it costs to live in this area, my pay is:..., 3- How does the amount of money you now make influence your overall attitude towards your job?).

The rating scale approach has been by far the most commonly used method of measuring job satisfaction (Locke, 1976). Among popular job satisfaction scales are the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), Job Descriptive Index (JDI), Minnesota satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). These will be dealt with in more detail below.

2.9.1 The job Satisfaction Survey

The job satisfaction survey (JSS; Spector, 1985) assesses nine facets of job satisfaction and overall satisfaction. The scale has 36 items and uses a summated rating scale format. Each of the

nine facet subscales contain four items, and a total satisfaction score can be computed by adding all of the items. Respondents are asked to circle one of six numbers that represent their agreement or disagreement about each item. Coefficient alpha range from .6 for co-worker subscale to .91 for the total scale in a sample of 3067 individuals who completed the JSS (Spector, 1997).

2.9.2 The Job Descriptive Index

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969) includes five subscales relevant to work, pay, promotions, co-worker and supervision. The entire scale contains 72 items with either 9 or 18 items per subscale. This model contains lists of adjectives requiring a “Yes”, “No”, or “?” response. This scale may have been the most carefully developed and validated (Spector, 1997). The restraint of this scale is that it is limited to five facets only.

2.9.3 The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ; Weiss et al, 1967) is another satisfaction scale that has been very widespread among researchers. The MSQ comes in two forms, a 100-item form and 20-item form. This scale attempts to investigate satisfaction with intrinsic, extrinsic and general satisfaction factors, such as working conditions and colleagues. Several studies have reported acceptable internal consistency reliability for the extrinsic, intrinsic and total scores (Spector, 1997).

As mentioned above there are several standardised, reliable and tested methods to assess job satisfaction, but where the aim is to measure satisfaction in a particular organisation some adaptations should be carried out to obtain the best possible result. For example Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire are the most popular of standardised

surveys (Riggio, 1990). The JDI contains five job facets: work, supervision, pay, promotion, and co-workers to measure overall job satisfaction. Facets, like recognition, play a vital role in determining job satisfaction even though they are not included in the job descriptive index. Hence, using the JDI to measure satisfaction in any organisation that has problems or lack of recognition would probably not serve the purpose required unless some adaptation was made.

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), however, contains twenty facets. One statement and five offered answers represent each facet (e.g., my pay and amount of work I do: very dissatisfied; dissatisfied; I cannot decide; satisfied; very satisfied). Although this questionnaire is considered more comprehensive than the job descriptive index, there are nevertheless some aspects of the job which need more than one question. For example, working conditions need more than one question to enable the researcher or the management to know exactly which aspect of working conditions the respondent means.

There is scope, as Muchinsky (1993) pointed out, for researchers to develop additional questionnaires to measure job satisfaction; he pointed out two important points regarding the selection of questionnaire:

1. It should provide reliable and valid assessment;
2. It should measure the facets of satisfaction that are of greatest interest to the researchers.

It has been recommended to consider the aim and the particular attributes of any study before implementing the methods (Berry, 1998). Wanous and Lawler (1972) believe that the best measure of satisfaction is the one that covers all the dependent and independent variables in a particular study. Thus, the questionnaire that was used in this study to measure job satisfaction

was constructed and developed especially for this research making use of many books, articles, and theses relevant to job satisfaction.

2.10 Job Satisfaction and Motivation Needs

The theoretical foundation for this study is provided by Murray's (1938) theory along with theories of job satisfaction. Murray theorised that individuals can be classified according to the strengths of various needs, for example, need for achievement, affiliation, autonomy, and dominance. Murray posited that individuals have about two dozen needs, including the need for achievement, affiliation, autonomy, and dominance. Although the manifest need theory encompasses an entire set of needs, most researchers in an organisational setting have focused on the four needs of achievement, affiliation, autonomy, and dominance or power. Murray believed that these needs are mostly learned rather than inherent, and are activated by cues from external environment. When the need is not cued, the need is said to be latent or not activated. These four needs are particularly related to understanding people at work (McClelland & Burnham, 1995; Steers, 1991).

The most prominent need from the standpoint of studying work-related behaviour is the need for achievement (Steers, 1991; Steers and Braunstein 1976). A high need for achievement is characterised by a strong desire to assume personal responsibility for finding solutions to problems, a tendency to set a moderately difficult goal and take calculated risks; strong desire for concrete feedback on task performance; and a single preoccupation with task and task accomplishment. According to Steers (1991) the need for achievement is important for an organisation because many managerial and entrepreneurial positions require this type of drive for success.

With regard to the need for affiliation, Steers (1991) stated that people with high need for affiliation are typified by strong desire for approval and reassurance from others, a tendency to conform to the wishes and norms of others when pressured by people whose friendship they value, and a sincere interest in the feelings of others. This concept is important for organisations because if management can create a cooperative and supportive work environment for managers with a high need for affiliation they would tend to be more productive and job satisfied.

With regard to the need for autonomy, individuals with high need for autonomy prefer situations where they work alone, control their own work pace, and are not hampered by excessive rules or procedures (Steers, 1991). When individuals with high need for autonomy are allowed the freedom to control their work pace they tend to perform better, leading to a higher need and job satisfaction.

The fourth need that is important in understanding organisational behaviour is an individual's need for dominance. An individual's ability to have influence over the environment positively affects his or her satisfaction (Daft & Steers, 1986). People with a high need for dominance usually attempt to influence others directly by making suggestions, by giving their opinions and evaluations, and by trying to talk others into things. Thus, individuals with a high need for dominance gain job satisfaction in a work environment where they have the ability to influence the activities of others.

Steers and Braunstein (1976) developed the Manifest Needs Questionnaire (MNQ) based on Murray's (1938) theory. The instrument was designed to measure four of Murray's need categories: need for achievement, affiliation, autonomy, and dominance. To test the validity and

reliability of the MNQ, Steers and Braunstein conducted both laboratory and field research, and their findings revealed that the instrument exhibited acceptable levels of convergent, discriminant, and predictive validity as well as reasonable high test-retest reliability and internal consistency. They also found that the four needs: the need for achievement, affiliation, autonomy, and dominance were all related to job attitudes such as job satisfaction.

Since the development of the Manifest Needs Questionnaire (MNQ) by Steers and Braunstein (1976) researchers have used it to examine the relationship of motivation needs and job attitude. Etuk (1980), Obi (1981), Parker & Chusmir (1991), and Nkereuwem (1992) have found a strong positive correlation between motivation needs and job satisfaction. Langan-Fox and Roth (1995) found a negative correlation between need for achievement and job satisfaction.

In a study of managerial motivation in Arab countries, Yasin and Stahl (1990) examined the relationship among the needs for achievement, affiliation, and power and job satisfaction among Arab managers. They found that middle-level Arab managers have profiles that are high in affiliation and achievement, rather than power oriented. The authors concluded that this may be due to cultural factors such as religion and family upbringing. Relationship between these motivation needs and job satisfaction were found.

The needs for achievement, dominance, autonomy, and affiliation have been given considerable attention as possible determinants of person-occupation fit. In spite of some methodological concerns, it has been shown empirically that levels of these needs predict job satisfaction in a number of occupations, particularly management (Chusmir, 1985; House, 1988; McClelland & Boyatzis, 1982; Medcof, 1985, Medcof & Wegner, 1992).

2.11 Managers as a Focal Point of Study

This research investigates level of job satisfaction among managers working in the private sector in Saudi Arabia and the UK; therefore, emphasis will be on studies which have been conducted on managers. Managers' levels of job satisfaction largely differ from non managers (Porter 1961 and 1962; Rosen and Weaver, 1960), particularly in satisfying autonomy in the job.

There is no universally accepted definition of the term “manager”, and actually, the usage of the term differs from one organisation to another and from one country to another (Scase and Goffee, 1989). Some organisations link the term to the rank of a person, others to the pay, and others to the function, but in general it can be said that a common criteria among managers in the different levels of management in most organisations is their involvement in managing others (subordinates).

According to Scase and Goffee (1989):

“The use of the term managers varies considerably from one organisational setting to another. In some it is used to designate levels of status or personal prestige, while in others it delineates a variety of functional responsibilities” (pp 17).

In addition to their definition of managers as “those who, in one way or another, and to varying degrees, co-ordinate and control the behaviour of others”; this research will also use the term to refer to those individuals who are differentiated from other employees in the organisation through their job title and managerial responsibilities such as supervisors.

When asked about managers' role in any organisation, most people respond that managers plan, organise, direct, and control. These four management roles were first suggested at the beginning of this century, and for many years they dominated the literature of

management. However, these four roles do not adequately describe what managers actually do (Cherrington, 1994).

A significant contribution toward understanding managerial work was by Henry Mintzberg (1979). According to Mintzberg's research, managerial work encompasses ten roles. Three roles focus in *interpersonal* contact – figurehead, leader, and liaison. Three roles involve mainly *information processing* – monitor, disseminator, spokesman. Four roles relate to *decision making* – entrepreneur, disturbance, handler, resource allocator, and negotiator. Although these roles are described separately in the literature, in practice they are highly integrated. The importance of each role varies according to the managerial level. Some roles are more important for top-level managers, while other roles have greater importance to first-level managers.

Based on the available evidence of published research, it can be said as revealed by, for example, Mintzberg (1979) and Stewart (1985) empirical findings that, in general, managers' jobs are characterised as unstructured, varied and non routine especially in high level positions.

Middle managers are role models who interpret and represent the established management policy and make it alive to their reporting managers and their staff. They are key persons in communicating and tracking different kinds of goals and in making information flow up and down (Franzén and Hardake, 1994).

The middle management function is where all the stakeholder needs come together (Franzén and Hardake, 1994). Middle managers decisions are focused and bound by:

- customer needs (deliver products and services with requirements that fit)

- employee needs (job satisfaction, safety, career ambitions)
- organizational restrictions (policies, budgets)
- shareholder demands (profit)

Middle managers have a key role. Today's businesses are under intense pressure to be more effective and efficient than ever before, while adapting to a constantly changing environment.

Middle managers have to lead these changes, and act as role models to first line managers and their people. Thus, middle managers bear a great responsibility for maintaining and developing their organisation (Franzén and Hardake, 1994).

2.12 Summary

This chapter has been an attempt to review analytically the main issues in job satisfaction. The researcher will propose his own definition which is a combination of Locke's (1976) definition and the definition of Armstrong (1996). The researcher's definition is that job satisfaction is the attitude and feeling that an employee has about his job which results from the assessment he made based on his job experience. Job satisfaction represents a positive attitude towards the job, while negative or unfavourable attitudes towards the job indicate job dissatisfaction.

Job satisfaction is seen by researchers in this field as closely related to motivation to the extent that a majority of the motivation theories are considered as satisfaction theories. The main nature of their relationship is that motivation causes or contributes significantly to job satisfaction but it does not guarantee it. Researchers agree that the relationship between job satisfaction and motivation is very strong, but at the same time they are definitely different topics.

The theories of job satisfaction tried to explain this phenomenon in a distinctive way. The overall ideas from these theories have emphasised fulfilling the needs of employees such as biological, economic, social and psychological needs. Fulfilling these needs could be achieved by strengthening and improving some factors related to the context and content of the job such as recognition, supervision, pay and promotion. Moreover, people compare themselves with other employees or situations, hence the idea of expected, equivalent and desired rewards and the general outcome, were seen to play a role in determining the overall level of job satisfaction.

It was found that satisfaction with the job accompanied favourable consequences and vice versa. Measuring job satisfaction is one of the research's objectives. The findings in this area revealed that job satisfaction could be measured by using two main methods, a questionnaire and interviews.

This chapter has covered all the issues that will be dealt with in the empirical part of this research. It will function as a basis for the present research.

Chapter Three: Culture

3.1 Introduction

People of different cultural backgrounds come to work with different values related to their work. These values include individual orientation and attitudes towards work itself, towards relationships with other employees in the organisation, toward the organisation, and so forth (Hofstede, 1991; Matsumoto, 2000). It is becoming clear that effective management practices in one country are often ineffective when applied to another country (Nzelibe, 1986). Culture can affect managerial attitudes (Kelley et al. 1987), managerial ideology (Miyajima, 1986). Further, culture affects how people think and behave. Huo and Steers (1993) argue that culture is one of the factors that affects degree of motivation, which affects the intensity of needs.

This chapter will present an overview of culture and its effect on motivation and job satisfaction. First, a definition of culture will be presented. Secondly, the issue of differences in national culture and its effect on employees' work-related values in the workplace will be covered and Hofstede's model will be presented. Thirdly, a few of the consequences of cultural differences will be looked at, including group behaviour, leadership and management style, motivation, and job satisfaction. Lastly, a summary will conclude this chapter.

3.2 Definition of Culture

Barnouw (1963) defines culture as “ a way of life of a group of people, the configuration of all the more or less stereotyped patterns of learned behaviour, which are handed down from one generation to the next through the means of language and imitation ” (p. 6). Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1963) offered one of the most comprehensive and generally accepted definitions: “Culture consists of patterns, explicit and implicit of and for behaviour acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievement of human groups, including their embodiment in artefacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e., historically

derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values; culture system may, on the one hand, be considered as products of action, on the other, as conditioning elements of future action” (p.81). Carrol (1982) sees culture as something that is shared by all members of some social group, the oldest of the group try to pass on to the younger members, and that shapes behaviour or structures one’s perception of the world. Hofstede (1991) defines culture as “ the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another...Culture, in this sense, includes systems of values; and values are among the building blocks of culture” (p.25). The definition proposed by Tepstra and David (1985), which is good for this research, delineates what is meant by world culture in the global management context:

“Culture is a learned, shared, compelling, interrelated set of symbols whose meaning provides a set of orientations for members of a society. These orientations, taken together, provide solutions to problems that all societies must solve if they are to remain viable.” P.10

3.3 Differences in National Cultures

There are different ways to describe national cultures. One interesting way is the use of cultural metaphors (Gannon, 1993). Another way to view culture is the density of the social context (Hall, 1989; Hall & Hall, 1990). There can be high and low context cultures. In a low context culture, represented by individualised cultures such as Germany and the United States, people tend to use mechanical equipment (for example, computers and telephones) to acquire information and relate to one another. In a high context culture (like China and Japan), people have a high emotional involvement with each other and information flows more indirectly from one person to another or from the social system to the person.

In order to assess cultural similarities and differences, it is important to have a framework from which to work. A variety of proposed models examining cultural differences are found in the

literature. The best-known study of work-related values was conducted by Hofstede (1980, 1984) (Matsumoto, 2000). His study involved employees at IBM. In his original study (1980), Hofstede reported data collected from workers in 40 different countries. In a later study (1984), he reported data from an additional 10 countries.

Hofstede's study was a major impetus to viewing and understanding cultures using dimensional approach. Moreover, the findings of this study have served as the foundation for much of the work that has been done since on culture and organisations (Matsumoto, 2000).

Research by other scholars has shed additional light on the nature of cultural differences in work-related values around the world (for example; Trompenaars, 1993; Smith, Dugan, and Trompenaars, 1996; Furnham and associates 1993). Collectively, the findings of these researches suggest that many of Hofstede's findings may be appropriate for describing ecological level differences in cultural values across countries (Matsumoto, 2000). Therefore, Hofstede's model only will be reviewed in this study.

3.3.1 Hofstede's Model

Hofstede (1980, 1984, and 1991) has conducted the most extensive research on cultural differences. Hofstede found highly significant differences in behaviour and attitudes of employees and managers from different countries who worked for a multinational corporation (IBM). Hofstede found that national culture explained more of the differences in work-related values and attitudes than did occupation, age, or gender. Hofstede initially found that managers and employees differ in four main dimensions: power distance (PD), individualism / collectivism (IC), masculinity (MA), and uncertainty avoidance (UA). Later, a fifth dimension, Confucian dynamism was added. Each dimension was measured by calculating a score indicating its level

of strength; scores range from zero, as the lowest, to 100 as the highest. These dimensions differentiated one culture from another and are the basis of attitudes and behaviours, organisation practices, and social practices such as marriages and religious ceremonies.

3.3.1.1 Power Distance

Power is the ability of one person to affect or control another. Power distance (PD) is the degree to which differences in power and status are accepted in a culture. High differences in power and authority between members of different social classes or occupational levels are accepted in some nations while in others they are not (Hofstede, 1991). In organisations, power distance measures the range to which less powerful members of organisations accept an unequal allotment of power (Adler, 1997). According to Hofstede (1991), PD scores tell us about dependence relationships in a country. In low power distance countries there is limited dependence of subordinates on bosses; while in high power distance countries there is considerable dependence of subordinates on bosses.

Hofstede (1991) reported that Malaysia, Panama, Philippines, and Mexico had the highest scores on PD. These findings suggest that the culture underlying these countries maintained strong status differences. Denmark, Austria, and New Zealand had the lowest scores on PD, suggesting that the cultures underlying these countries maintain low (or weak) status and power differences. Of the 50 countries and 3 regions included in Hofstede's study Arab countries, including Saudi Arabia, scored 80 out of 100 and were ranked seventh, while Great Britain scored 35 and was ranked 42/44, which indicates differences between these countries.

According to Hofstede (1991), cultural differences on PD are related to individual differences in behaviour that have consequences for their work. For example, managers in high PD cultures

tend not to interact socially with subordinates and do not expect to negotiate work assignments with them. In low PD cultures, worker groups demand and have a great deal of power over work assignments and conditions of work (Adler, 1997; Cole, 1989). Managers in high PD societies feel that they must have specific answers to questions raised by subordinates about work.

Laurent (1986), in a cross-national study, found that only 10% of the Swedish managers (Low PD) thought it important to have precise answers to subordinate questions, but in countries high in PD, 65% of the Italian managers, 45% of the German managers, and 30% of the English managers thought so. Subordinates in low PD countries prefer managers who consult them and delegate responsibility for them to do their work. In high PD countries, subordinates' preference for manager's decision-making style polarized between autocratic-paternalistic and majority rule (Hofstede, 1991).

3.3.1.2 Individualism-Collectivism

Individualism-collectivism (IC) refers to whether individual or collective action is the preferred approach to deal with issues. People in individualistic cultures (such as the United States and Great Britain) tend to emphasise their individual needs and concerns and interests over those of their group and organisations, while the opposite is true in collectivistic cultures (e.g., Japan and Taiwan). Of the 50 countries and 3 regions included in Hofstede's study Arab countries, including Saudi Arabia, scored 38 were ranked 26/27, while Great Britain scored 89 and was ranked third (Hofstede, 1991), demonstrating a degree of difference between the these countries.

IC differences between countries and cultures are associated with concrete differences in worker attitudes, beliefs, values, and behaviour about work and their companies. For example, people in individualistic cultures place more importance on freedom and challenge in their jobs, and initiative is usually encouraged in the job, while it is the opposite in a collectivistic culture.

People in collective cultures expect members of their particular in-group to take care of their members, protect them, and give them security in exchange for members' loyalty. For example, Muna (1980) reported that two-third of Arab executives thought employee loyalty was more important than efficiency. Certain work behaviour may also be affected. For example, in an individualistic culture such as U.S., there is a tendency for people to avoid group assignments as opposed to individual tasks. This tendency toward social loafing was not present in the collectivist cultures such as Taiwan (Grabrenya et. al., 1985, Early, 1993).

3.3.1.3 Masculinity

According to Hofstede (1991), masculinity (MA) refers to the degree to which cultures foster or maintain differences between the genders in work related values. The greatest degree of gender differences in work related values was found in cultures high in MA such as Japan and Austria. Cultures low in MA, such as Denmark and Norway, had the fewest differences between genders. Of the 53 countries and regions included in Hofstede's study, Great Britain scored 66 and was ranked 9/10, and Arab countries, including Saudi Arabia, scored 53 and were ranked 23; indicating a moderately masculine score.

Cultural differences on MA were associated with very concrete differences between workers and organisations. For example, managers in high MA cultures are interested in leadership, independence, and self-realization; low MA cultures placed less importance on these constructs. Employees in high MA cultures regarded recognition, advancement, and challenge relatively more important than did employees in low MA cultures (Hofstede, 1991). The more masculine the culture is, the greater the importance of work is. England's (1978) study show that Japanese (the most masculine in Hofstede's study) employees agree more strongly that 'work is central to life' than do comparable Americans and Germans.

3.3.1.4 Uncertainty Avoidance

Uncertainty avoidance (UA) describes the degree to which different societies and cultures develop ways to deal with the anxiety and stress of uncertainty. Cultures high in UA (e.g., Japan and Greece) develop highly refined rules that are mandated and become part of the company's normal way of operation. Cultures low in UA (e.g., Sweden and Denmark) are less concerned with rules. Companies in low UA cultures have a relaxed attitude towards uncertainty and have fewer rules for their employees (Brislin, 1993). Of the 53 countries and regions included in Hofstede's study, Great Britain scored 35 and was ranked 47/48 and Arab countries, including Saudi Arabia, scored 68 and were ranked 27. These scores represent medium high for the Arab countries and low for the British in Hofstede's scale, indicating a small culture gap between these countries.

Cultural differences on UA are directly related to concrete differences in jobs and work-related behaviour. For example, managers in high UA countries are selected on the basis of seniority, have low ambition for individual advancement, high job stress, and tendency to stay with the employer. On the other hand, managers in low UA countries are selected by other criteria than seniority, have strong ambition for individual advancement, low job stress, and less hesitation in changing employers (Hofstede, 1991). In nations low in uncertainty avoidance like the UK, there is less acceptance of rules and less conformity to the wishes of authority figures than in high uncertainty avoidance nations like Japan (Brislin, 1993). For example, absenteeism and lateness are serious issues in Japan while it is an acceptable issue in other low uncertainty avoidance such as Sweden.

3.3.1.5 Confucian Dynamism

In his original study of managers, Hofstede found only the four dimensions above. Hofstede and Bond (1988) have studied the work-related values and psychological characteristics of workers and organisations in Asian countries and have identified a fifth important dimension of work-related values: Confucian dynamism. This dimension is that of short-term versus long-term orientation that they adapt from a Confucian idea of virtue versus truth. “Confucius teachings are lessons in practical ethics without any religious content. Confucianism is not a religion but a set of pragmatic rules for daily life derived from what Confucius saw as the lessons of Chinese history”. The key principles of Confucian teaching are:

- The stability of society is based on unequal relationships between people.
- The family is the prototype of all social organisations.
- Treat the people the same way you want them to treat you.
- One’s task in life consists of trying to acquire skills and education, working hard, not spending more than necessary, being patient and persevering.

The Confucian dynamism dimension differentiates between two cultural orientations, long-term and short-term orientation, each having different values (Hofstede, 1991). In countries with a long term orientation, planning can be expected to have a longer time horizon. Firms are willing to make substantial investments in employee training and development, while there will be longer term job security and promotion will come slowly (Jackofsky et al., 1988; Ouchi, 1981).

3.3.1.6 Comments concerning Hofstede’s Model

Hofstede’s study was based on employees within one organisation- IBM. Certain types of individual will be attracted to such organisations, and this will be reflected in their responses.

This study, therefore, should not be interpreted as an accurate description of national culture as a

whole; rather, it should be seen as indicating similarities and differences that one might expect to find among employees in organisations in different countries. Researchers (e.g. Triandis, 1982; Hunt, 1981; Goodstein, 1981) have expressed concern regarding the survey instrument used in Hofstede's research, and the validity of the measure has been questioned. Researchers question whether the country scores provided are representative of the normal population and whether the important cultural variables are the ones being measured.

In defending his sampling methods, Hofstede defends the use of IBM and the narrowness of his samples. He emphasises that IBM was used to satisfy the principle requirement in cross-cultural surveys for functional equivalence and points out that the measures focus upon the differences between the samples rather than the absolute numbers.

In spite of these concerns, from a practical point of view, the cultural variables described by the model are appealing because of their apparent relationship to the management process.

3.4 Organisations and Cultural Differences

There are many ways in which cultural differences may be noticed in organisations. For example, in cultures that are high in uncertainty avoidance and low in power distance, as in Austria, organisations run effectively by clearly defining roles and procedures rather than by actively using hierarchy (Adler, 1997). Cultural differences appear to be related to differences in a number of work-related behaviours and attitude, including group behaviour, supervision and leadership, motivation, and job satisfaction.

3.4.1 Culture and Group Behaviour

The individualism-collectivism dimension is considered the best one to understand cultural differences in group behaviour (Triandis et al., 1988). Cole (1989) found that formal assignments to work groups are used more frequently in collectivistic culture (such as Japan) than in individualistic cultures (such as American). This dimension is also found to have some affect on performance. Early (1993) found that employees from individualistic cultures perform better when working alone than when working in groups.

3.4.2 Culture and Supervision and Leadership

Many studies have documented cross-cultural differences in supervisory and leadership style. Howell et al (1995) found cultural differences in decision making and contingent punishment in Japan, Taiwan, Mexico, and the United States. Child (1981) found differences in leadership style in Germany, France, and the United Kingdom. In Germany and France, leadership and control tends to be more centralised while in the UK managers tend to delegate and decentralise.

The findings of these studies are relatively consistent with Hofstede's power distant (PD) dimension. Hofstede (1984) believes that this dimension has important implications for leadership and supervision.

3.4.3 Culture and Motivation

Motivation is probably one of the most researched areas of management. If a manager can grasp what will motivate his/her employees, that manager will have more productive force (Mullins, 1996). Differences among cultures affect the way people prioritise their goals (Hunt, 1992)

There are many competing theories which attempt to explain the nature of motivation, and most have been developed and tested in the United States (Hammer, 1979). Each theory seeks to rationalize the behaviour of human beings and what managers can do to affect their employees' behaviour. In this section, we will look at a few of the historically well recognised motivation theories and their applications across cultures.

3.4.3.1 Maslow's Need Hierarchy

Maslow's (1943) Hierarchy of Need Theory was clearly derived in America, but does this theory hold for employees elsewhere? Hofstede (1980) argues that it does not. Hofstede (1991) report that in countries high on uncertainty avoidance (i.e. Japan) as compared with countries low on uncertainty avoidance (i.e. USA), security motivates employees more than does self-actualisation. Countries where feminine culture is dominant (i.e. Sweden and Norway) tend to stress the quality of life over productivity (masculinity culture) ; social needs tend to dominate the motivation of employees. Employees in collective countries, such as China, tend to stress social needs over the more individual ego and self-actualisation needs (Hofstede, 1991).

Hofstede (1984) relates the issue of motivational differences to cultural differences. He argues that Maslow's self-actualisation as a presumed need is a product of an individualist society and that this American value cannot be held up as a model for the rest of the world.

Numerous research studies testing Maslow's hierarchy reveal similar but not identical rank ordering of needs across cultures. Studies include research on different cultures such as India (Jaggi, 1979), Mexico (Reitz and Grof, 1973). Howell et al (1975) study shows that Liberian managers express needs similar to the managers in South Africa, Argentina, Chile, India, and other developing countries, while demonstrating higher security and self-esteem needs than managers in more developed countries. Badawy (1979, 1980) found that among Arab managers

in Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Abu Dhabi, Bahrain, Oman, and the United Arab Emirates, the highest need was autonomy. At-Twajiri (1989) compared Saudi and American expatriate managers working in Saudi Arabia on Maslow's needs hierarchy. The Saudis were much more concerned about issues in the social need category and less concerned about self-actualisation needs than the Americans. Burea and Glueck in their (1979) study of the need hierarchy of Libyan executives found it different from that need in the United States, concluding that Maslow's hierarchy varies from culture to culture.

Another study found results consistent with Maslow's finding. In a study of eight countries (USA, Mexico, Puerto Rico, Venezuela, Japan, Thailand, Turkey, and Yugoslavia), employees in the twenty-six surveyed industrial plants ranked self-actualisation most highly and security among the two least important needs. Haire et al. (1963) in a fourteen country study, reports that managers in each culture want similar outcomes from their jobs, but differ in what they think their jobs are currently giving them.

The conflicting patterns of research fail to be definitive, which strongly indicates that one should not assume the universality of Maslow's need hierarchy. As O'Reilly and Roberts (1973) summarised:

"Studies have found that an individual's frame of reference will determine the order of important of his needs. It has also been found that his frame of reference is in part determined by his culture. Therefore, it can be said that an individual's needs are partially bound by culture" p.298

While the notion of a hierarchy has only limited support, there is clear evidence that the need types in Maslow's model do manifest themselves across cultures. Adler (1997) noted in her review of this research that studies testing Maslow's hierarchy demonstrate similar but not identical rank ordering of needs across cultures.

3.4.3.2 McClelland's Three Motives

McClelland et al. (1953) suggested that three motives drive workers, the needs for achievement, power, and affiliation. Comparative research on McClelland's achievement motivation has shown it to be relatively vigorous across cultures. For example, Hines (1973a) reported that managers in New Zealand seem to follow the model developed in the United States. Hofstede (1980) questions the universality of McClelland's theory. Hofstede points out that the concept of achievement common to many Western models of organisational behaviour is difficult even to translate into other languages and applying it to other cultures would be even more difficult. Hofstede (1980) found that countries with high need for achievement have also high need to produce (masculinity dimension) and a strong willingness to accept risk (Low uncertainty avoidance). McClelland's three motives help in understanding human behaviour, however they have not been shown to be universal (Adler, 1997).

3.4.3.3 Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

Herzberg et al. (1959) suggested that certain intrinsic factors motivate behaviour, while extrinsic factors de-motivate. Herzberg's extrinsic (hygiene) factors are similar to Maslow's physiological and safety needs. They include factors such as supervision, working conditions, and salary.

Herzberg's intrinsic factors are similar to Maslow's higher order needs. They include factors such as recognition, achievement, and the work itself.

Hofstede (1980) points out that culture influences factors that motivate and demotivate behaviour. He reports that individualistic, productivity-oriented cultures (such as American) focus on job enrichment, while feminine and collective cultures (such as Norway) focus on socio-technical systems and new methods to the quality of working life.

Herzberg's two-factor theory has been tested outside of the United States. Hines (1973b) reported that supervision and interpersonal relationships in New Zealand seem to contribute significantly to satisfaction and not only to reducing dissatisfaction, failing to replicate those in the United States. Crabbs (1973) found that non-united state citizens cited certain extrinsic factors as satisfiers with greater frequencies than did their American counterparts.

In general, the universality of Herzberg's two-factor theory cannot be presumed. Each culture has some factors that act as motivators and others that act as hygiene factors. These factors and their relative importance appear particular to each culture. Managers should be aware of that, and should not suppose that their experience is transmissible.

3.4.3.4 Motivation is Culture Bound

Motivation theories in use today are Western in their origin and many have been developed in The United States or at least influenced by American theoretical work. However, concepts such as achievement and esteem may have different meaning in other societies. The American individualistic culture has led scholars to put emphasis on rational and individual thought as the primary basis of human behaviour (Adler, 1997). The importance given to achievement is not surprising knowing American concern for performance and their willingness to accept risk. The theories consequently do not give universal explanations of motivation, rather, they reflect the values system of Americans (Hofstede, 1980).

Managers worldwide tend to treat motivation theories developed in the US as the only way to understand motivation (Illman, 1980). These motivation theories have failed to provide consistently useful explanations outside the United States, although assumed to be universal. Managers must therefore be cautious when using American Management theories on their

multinational business practices (Adler and Boyyacigiller, 1996). Managers should consider both the general and the specific influences that affect work motivation in particular cultures.

3.4.4 Culture and Job Satisfaction

Comparisons have been made of the job satisfaction of employees from different countries. Feelings about the job are likely to differ across different countries. In a 1995 Gallup Organisation poll, national differences in life satisfaction, which includes job satisfaction, were found. Overall, eighteen countries were included in the survey, 46% of the people reported being satisfied with their job. What factors or variables affect job satisfaction across countries? The Hugick & Leonard (1991) survey included 16 aspects of work, as well as overall satisfaction. They reported that Americans overall like their jobs, but they did not feel the same about all facets of work. Spector & Wimalasiri (1986) found that Americans and Singaporeans had approximately the same overall job satisfaction, but the facets satisfaction profiles were different. Similar results were reported by Marion-Landais (1993) when comparing Dominican and Americans. Adigun & Stephenson (1992) reported that the same variables affect British and Nigerian employees' job satisfaction but with different strengths.

It has been suggested (e.g., Kilby, 1960) that employees in developing countries (like Saudi Arabia) place more value on extrinsic job rewards (such as pay, supervision, and relations with work group), and those in developed countries value intrinsic rewards (such as work itself, promotion, and recognition). In other words, satisfaction with the extrinsic factors will play more roles in the overall job satisfaction in a developing country than in a developed country, and the intrinsic factors will play more roles in the developed country than in the developing country. One way of deciding the importance of this role is to consider how much of the variability of the scores in one variable can be explained by the variability of the scores of the other variable

(Hinton, 1995). One of the questions this study is trying to answer is if there are any differences in the importance of job factors for managers in the two different cultures.

All these studies utilised almost similar aspects of work. These studies show clearly that there are differences in job satisfaction and in patterns of facets satisfaction across countries, which could be caused by different cultural experiences and different needs strength. Results found in the literature and in this study lead to the conclusion that culture has an effect on the importance and strength of the factors related to job satisfaction. As Adler (1997) stated;

“Human needs may well include fundamental or universal aspects, but their importance and the ways in which they express themselves differ across cultures” p.160

3.5 Summary

The concept of culture was presented in this chapter. A model of cultural dimensions was discussed. Culture was found to have a major influence on people motivation. Studies of motivation and job satisfaction across cultures gave different results regarding the strengths of needs, the order of needs, and the strength of effect work variables have on job satisfaction. These differences support the notion that the human needs may have common aspects but their importance and the way they express themselves differ across cultures.

Chapter Four: Brief Information about Saudi Arabia and the North East Region

4.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to provide the reader with general information about Saudi Arabia and the North East region of in terms of the population, the private sector, and the labour market in the private sector.

4.2 Saudi Arabia

4.2.1 Location and Population

The kingdom of Saudi Arabia is located in the heart of the Arabian Peninsula in the Middle East. It occupies an area of about 2,240,000 square kilometres, about 80% of the Arabian Peninsula. Saudi Arabia's population was 16.9 million in its last official census taken in 1992. According to the Central Department of Statistics, the Kingdom's total population reached 23.37 million in mid-2002, compared with 22.69 in mid-2001, denoting an annual growth rate of 3 percent. The population is estimated to reach 24,293,844 by mid 2003 (includes 5,576,076 non-nationals) with an Age structure as follow:

0-14 years: 42.3% (male 5,245,413; female 5,028,595)

15-64 years: 54.8% (male 7,700,121; female 5,622,099)

65 years and over: 2.9% (male 393,173; female 304,443)

The labour force is estimated to be 7 million in the year 2003 (*note:* 35% of the population in the 15-64 age groups is non-national). Unemployment is expected to be between 15% and 20%.

The performance of the Saudi Arabian economy was strong in 2002, fuelled by high oil revenues and robust private sector growth. Saudi Arabia's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) experienced a real growth of 0.74 percent, increasing to \$172.7 billion in 2002 from \$171 billion in 2001 (GDP

per capita \$11,400; 2002). The economy's resilience is shown through continued economic expansion within the non-oil sector, resulting in an increase of 3.5 percent in private sector growth in 2001 and an increase of 4.2 percent in the same sector during 2002. The non-oil industrial sector grew by 5.7 percent in 2002, and the construction sector increased by 3.0 percent to reach \$12.0 billion. The electricity, gas and water sectors grew by 4.5 percent, while the transport and communications sectors increased by 7.1 percent in 2002.

The importance of Saudi Arabia to the world can be attributed to its strategic location, oil reserves and production, and religious position for the Islamic nations.

4.2.2 Background to the Saudi Private Sector

The concept of the private sector refers to all economic activities that are not performed by government owned organisations. The importance of the private sector can be ascribed to its increased contribution to the GDP

The strategic long-term private sector-oriented objectives dictate that this sector should continue expanding its share in the economy and its position as a leading force for economic progress and growth in the future. Thus, there are four principal contributions identified by the 6th Development Plan to the long-term economic objectives of the Kingdom, which are expected to be fulfilled by the private sector. Below are the principles as listed in the 6DP (1995):

1. Diversifying the economy.
2. Providing productive employment for the Saudi labour force.
3. Deploying private capital in the economy.
4. Strengthening the adaptive capacity of the economy.

These principles are evidence of the increased importance of the private sector. The second principle is of particular (indirect) importance for our context.

4.2.3. Privatization and Economic Reform

For more than 25 years, Saudi Arabian economic development has been broadly governed by five-year economic development plans. The first five plans emphasized the development of the Kingdom's infrastructure, with later plans having an increasing focus on human resource and private sector development. The Saudi Government placed even greater emphasis on economic diversification and increased private sector participation, especially in the industrial and agricultural sectors of the economy, during the Sixth Development Plan. As a result, the Kingdom launched plans for the privatization of key government facilities in 1998.

The objectives of this privatization programme are to provide the necessary services to citizens and to increase job opportunities for the Saudi population. Through the programme, the government hopes to boost private citizens' participation in the stock market, to raise private sector investment, and at the same time to reduce the burden on the national budget. Saudi Arabia has continued its path toward liberalization and reform and has taken concrete steps to put these concepts into action through the Seventh National Development Plan (2000-2004).

Saudi Arabia's Seventh National Development Plan places even greater emphasis on the goals of training and employment of the Saudi population while continuing the Kingdom's strong drive toward economic diversification. The Plan confirms the Kingdom's accelerated pace toward integration into the global economy, including accession to the World Trade Organization (WTO) and enhancement of technological developments within the country. It emphasizes continued efforts to reduce the importance of crude oil exports as the main source of government revenues

and to expand the production base of the services, agricultural, and industrial sectors of the economy.

Saudi Arabia's privatization and economic diversification efforts also have gained further momentum since the creation of the Supreme Economic Council (SEC) in 1999. The purpose of the Council is to speed economic reforms aimed at opening Saudi markets and ensure stability for investors. It is designed to be a decision-making body that responds more quickly and effectively to regional and international economic changes.

The SEC has been officially responsible for the Kingdom's privatization efforts since early 2001. Since that time, privatization and economic reform have been the driving forces behind Saudi economic policy. With the SEC in the lead, Saudi Arabia continued its commitment to privatization throughout 2002 and 2003. In June 2002, the SEC released its official Privatization Strategy, which charted the course for increasing the role of the private sector in the national economy. Saudi Arabia's push for privatization has several objectives, including increasing competition and efficiency in the economy, encouraging domestic and foreign investment in the Saudi economy, and increasing employment opportunities for Saudis.

4.2.4 Saudization in the Public and Private Sectors

The concept of Saudization refers to the appointment of Saudi manpower in newly created jobs, besides the replacements of non-Saudi manpower with Saudi manpower. This concept was first introduced in the Third Development Plan (TDP) 1980, which recognised the influence of foreign manpower on the development of Saudi manpower. The fourth Plan (1985) has also emphasised Saudization, as did the Fifth Plan (1990). Although the priority for Saudization in the plans may vary according to the priority of other strategic goals, it has gradually increased to become a top

priority of the Fifth Plan. However, the Fifth plan (1990) in regard to Saudization has acknowledged the fact that during the later part of the Third Plan and Fourth Plan years most new Saudi labour market entrants were employed in the government rather than the private sector. At the same time the numbers of non-Saudis increased, which led to Saudization as well as overstaffing of some government agencies whereas the private sector is still dependent on foreign manpower (5DP, 1990).

In the light of Saudization goals, the Sixth Plan has pointed out that Saudization will depend upon the implementation of appropriate policy to resolve the following major labour market issues:

1. To improve labour market information.
2. To improve Saudi labour skills.
3. To close the gap between Saudi and non-Saudi wages.
4. To improve Saudi employment opportunities.
5. To reduce wastage in the education system.
6. To expand labour market services.

4.2.5 Manpower and the Private Sector

The Saudi private sector is the largest employer in the country. It utilises over 85% of the total employment. Labour Law, Article 45, has stated that:

“The number of Saudi workmen of the Employer shall not be less than 75% of the total number of his workmen, and their wages shall not be less than 51% of the total wages of his workmen” (p.21).

The same article has also mentioned that the Minister of Labour has the right to temporary exemption from this ratio if technical skills or educational qualifications are not available. It was clear that the early years of development saw huge manpower quantitative and qualitative

shortage, and this has asserted the exemptions of this act. But, nowadays the situation is different, Saudi manpower supply has increased to the extent exceeding labour market demand for them (Al-Eqtisadiyah, 1999). As such, unemployment among Saudis has increased as foreign manpower numbers continue to grow.

The 5DP (1990) marked a departure from the previous pattern of a growing proportion of Saudi manpower being employed in the government sector, to place limits on further growth in government employment. It was expected that over 95% of employment growth during the Plan years would take place in the private sector. The objectives have not been met, and this made the government put more emphasis on employing Saudi manpower in the private sector during the 6DP (1996-2000) (Al-Eqtisadiyah, 1999). Thus, the private sector will increasingly be the locus of employment opportunities and longer-term career aspirations of Saudi nationals in this new stage of development.

The preceding discussion reveals the importance of maintaining and recruiting Saudi workmen in the private sector organisations if they are to cope with the government intention to replace expatriates in private sector organisations, and with the government move towards Saudization in both the public and the private sectors.

4.3 The North East

4.3.1 Regional Profile

The North East of England is amongst the most dynamic regions in Europe. It includes four counties: Tyne and Wear, County Durham, Northumberland, and Tees Valley. The Region has a long track record as one of the principal centres of economic activity in the UK and is an integral part of the world's largest market, the European Economic Area (EEA). The North East of England has a first-class industrial and commercial infrastructure and excellent communication links. Some general statistics on the North East of England are given in table 4.1 below:

Table 4.1: General statistics of the North East of England

Area	8,592 sq. km (3,317 sq. miles)
Population	2,603,000 (2001)
Employees	962,055 (2000)
New Graduates	15,500
GDP Per Head	£10,024
Unemployment	7.3% (Nov 2001)
Economic Activity	79.3%

Source: Regional Facts and Figures, 2002.

The levels of natural resources in the North East have greatly influenced the development of the industrial base in the North East of England, with the availability of coal and iron ore leading to the growth of traditional industries such as shipbuilding, coal mining and steel production. The Region now hosts a broad range of industrial sectors, encompassing the old and the state-of-the-

art, ranging from engineering and chemicals, through high volume manufacturing, to microelectronics and life sciences. The Region is also a major player in the service sector with globally recognised companies represented in the professional services, through to software development, call centres and shared service facilities. This on-going process has been supported by leading edge R&D within the Universities and the development of a higher skilled and adaptable workforce (Regional facts and figures, 2002).

4.3.2 Labour Force and Labour Market

The North East's Labour Market continues to be the weakest in the UK. The employment rate (67%) is about 7 percentage points lower than the UK average. Only Northern Ireland is lower, and it has been rapidly closing the gap on the UK. To close this gap would require nearly an extra 100,000 people in work (Labour Force Survey Historical Supplement 1984-2000).

The unemployment rate understates this severe labour market weakness. The North East ILO unemployment rate (9% in 2000) is about 3 percentage points above the UK average. This is the highest of any UK region. Moreover the differential for the North East has widened in the 1990s, unlike in other comparable regions. Since 1994, the North East has replaced Northern Ireland as the UK region with the highest unemployment rate. Also, since 1998 the North East's unemployment rate has risen, unlike comparator regions.

Since the early 1990s growth of employment in the North East has been very weak at about 1%, whilst in the UK employment has grown by about 2m jobs. If the growth of employment had matched the UK rate over 50,000 more people in the North East would now be in work (Labour Force Survey Historical Supplement 1984-2000).

In 2000, the average full-time employee in the North East region earned around £366 per week. This is eleven percent below the Great Britain average of £411 per week (pw) and the lowest of any region (New Earnings Survey, 2000).

4.4 Summary

Brief information about Saudi Arabia and the North East region of England was presented in this chapter. Such information was essential to have an idea of the context of the two samples. Information about the region, the industry, the people, and the labour market was presented in this chapter.

Chapter five: The Research Methodology

5.1 Introduction

The main objective of this chapter is to shed light on the methodological issues and procedures adopted for this study. This chapter includes a description of the research design, population, sample, data collection procedures, instruments and statistical analysis techniques used in this study.

This study is mainly concerned with measuring job satisfaction and examining its relationship with motivation needs and some demographic factors for middle managers working in the private sector in Saudi Arabia. To give the reader a better picture for this study, the idea of a UK sample came to be used as a bench mark for comparison between a Saudi (developing country) and a UK (developed country) sample.

The original intention for this study was to do a case study on three or four organisations in each country and interview a few managers from each organisation. Interview, then, was the intended method for collecting data for this research. In an interview, it is possible to get extensive information as subjects can elaborate about the research topic. In addition, respondents can generate their own areas of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Therefore, the intention was to collect information from the managers regarding the sources of job satisfaction/dissatisfaction in a semi structure interview. In addition, it was hoped to collect more information regarding the organisations, such as the hierarchy of the organisation and the promotion system, to help in analysing and understanding the research topic. But, unfortunately, access to organisations in both countries was denied leading to a change in the research method and some objectives. The researcher chose a questionnaire as a means of collecting the data required for this study (see section 2.9 for more detail). The job facets to be investigated in relation to job satisfaction were limited to six facets only as one will see in section 5.6.

After tremendous efforts to get access, all approaches were denied. Time was running out and the researcher had to come up with something to continue the research process, since he is limited in time and money. The best option the researcher had was to do a mail survey, and treat the UK as a whole as an economic region. After consulting and discussing with colleagues and friends, the researcher reached the conclusion that it would be a better idea if he took one region and treated it as an economic region. The UK economy is so complex and diverse that it is difficult to give a good picture of it in just a few short pages, so it is much better to consider one region only. This idea gained the acceptance and support of the researcher's supervisor, Dr. Joan Harvey, and the head of the department, Professor Ian McLoughlin. The researcher, faced with the constraints surrounding him, has decided to take this approach and chose to study the North East region. Two main reasons favour the North East over other regions:

- The North East was traditionally recognised for its strengths in shipping, coalmining, steel manufacturing and related industries. The industrial base has diversified over the last three decades to cover a wide range of modern technologies and developing services industries with a major impetus having been provided by inward investment in the region from overseas. Key manufacturing sectors today are electronics and semiconductors, automobiles and automotive components, mechanical and precision engineering, offshore technology, chemicals and pharmaceuticals, information technology, food and drink, clothing and textiles and plastic processing. From that, one can see that the North East is a good representative of the UK economy as a whole. In addition, most of the Saudi organisation sample belongs to industries similar to those found in the North East.
- The researcher lives in Newcastle-upon-Tyne, in the North East, so it is convenient for him to contact organisations in the region, contact local authorities for information such as the North East Chamber Of commerce, One North East, etc.

5.2 Research Design

This study will follow a cross-sectional survey. According to Babbie (1998), a cross-sectional design is the most appropriate and the most frequently used research design. He supported the use of this type of survey when he said:

“Data are collected at one point in time from a sample selected to describe some larger population at that time. Such a survey can be used not only for purpose of description, but also for determination of relationship between variables at the time of study” (P. 56).

The survey method is one of the most important data collection methods in the social sciences, and as such, it is used extensively to collect information on numerous subjects of research (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996). If the researcher’s aim is a single time description, then a cross-sectional survey is the most appropriate.

5.3 Data Collection Instrument

The mail survey was used to collect data from the assigned sample. Babbie (1998) stated that survey research is the best possible choice of research instrument when attempting to collect meaningful data on populations too large to observe directly, and may be utilised effectively for descriptive, explanatory, or exploratory purposes. Dillman (1978) states that surveys are good vehicles for measuring the attitude and orientations of a large sample. The mail survey has been the most commonly utilised form of respondent self-administered questionnaire (Dillman, 1978; Churchill, 1987).

The biggest disadvantage of a mail questionnaire is the fact that it usually produces a low response rate, especially if it is conducted in a developing country such as Saudi Arabia (Tuncalp 1988). It is believed that the main problem that usually causes the poor response rate is the

collection mechanism. In Saudi Arabia, the postal system is still under-developed. Neither collection services through street collection boxes nor a free reply system exist. Senders must go to a post office to send letters. Delivery services to home or site address are still not in existence. Firms must have post office box numbers in order to receive their mail.

To counter potential difficulties and increase response rate, Dillman (1978) suggests the adoption of “Total Design Method” TDM which requires the inclusion of all the mailing package contents and survey design/implementation process. Based on his TDM method, several actions were taken in order for a better designing of the questionnaire and mailing packages as follows:

- **Covering Letter**

The questionnaire was accompanied by a covering letter using the King Saud University letterhead for the Saudi sample, and University of Newcastle upon Tyne letterhead for the UK sample. It described the nature, purpose and significance of the research, as well as the importance of the respondent’s participation, and it assured the complete confidentiality of information.

- **Questionnaire Design**

The questionnaire was designed to include close-ended questions to ease and simplify the process. All the informant needed to do was just to mark the appropriate answers. Demographics questions were put in last section of the questionnaire.

- **Mailing Process**

Dillman (1978) recommends mailing out in the early days of the week, and also avoiding mailings close to holidays or during the entire month of December. Based on his advice, mailing in the UK was usually sent out on Fridays because mails would normally be

delivered to the respondents within 1-2 days after a mail-out and thus the respondents receive it on Monday or Tuesday of the following week. A pre-addressed return envelope, including a pre-paid stamp, was included with each questionnaire to encourage the participation of the respondents. No questionnaire was sent out during the month of December. In Saudi Arabia, owing to the bad status of the postal system and the fact that Saudis are not used to survey research, a personal approach was used to deliver and collect questionnaires. The researcher delivered the questionnaire either directly to the respondents, or indirectly in bulk to a person in the Personnel Department or the Public Relations Department who then delivered them to the respondents. A collection box was set up in the reception office or in the security office. A 24-hour facsimile number was provided for respondents who preferred to respond by facsimile.

5.4 Translating the Questionnaire

Even though English is the international language for conducting business in many countries in the Middle East, the majority of Saudi Arabian subjects lack sufficient skills in the English language to answer a questionnaire accurately. Therefore, the original form of the questionnaire was translated into Arabic using the back-translation method (Douglas and Carige, 1983; Brislin, 1970). This approach involves two steps. In the first, the English version of the questionnaire is translated into Arabic by an interpreter. In the second phase, the Arabic version is translated back into English by another interpreter. The initial English version is then compared with the second English to assess the effectiveness of the translation process.

The research questionnaire was first translated into Arabic by an Arabic native speaker who is fluent in both languages and studying for a PhD in Arabic/English, English/Arabic translation. Secondly, another Arabic native speaker, who is fluent in both languages and holds a Master's

degree in linguistics, independently translated the Arabic version into its original and re-translated versions were compared and differences were clarified in a way that would yield the most precise translation. (English and Arabic questionnaires are included in appendixes 1 and 2).

5.5 Pilot Study

A pilot study was undertaken to discover any possible problem related to the design of the questionnaire in terms of the degree of clarity and its validity. Two stages, for each version, were conducted for the purpose of testing the validity, objectivity, and clarity of the questionnaire. For the English version first, fifteen questionnaires were handed to part time PhD students and part time MBA students (the majority of them have a full time job). They were asked to answer the questionnaire in the presence of the researcher. The participants were asked to give their comments and suggestions about the questions and of the questionnaire as a whole. Based on the results of this stage of piloting, some questions that were not clear or led to a misunderstanding were modified, and some minor amendments were made to the questionnaire consequence and length.

Secondly, the questionnaire was mailed to a random sample of 40 managers drawn from the sample frame. The basic aim was to evaluate the validity and objectivity of the study, and to assess the method and the procedure of collecting the questionnaire. Only 5 questionnaires were returned giving a response rate of 12.5%. The pilot result raised no major questions and the respondents did not have any difficulty in understanding and answering the questions.

For the Arabic version, ten questionnaires were first handed to Saudi PhD students who have work experience either in the public or the private sector in Saudi Arabia. Based on their comments and suggestions, some minor amendments were made for the wording of the

questionnaire. Secondly, when arriving in Saudi Arabia, the researcher delivered 20 questionnaires to managers drawn randomly from the sample frame. Only 9 questionnaires were collected giving a response rate of 49%. The pilot study in Saudi Arabia raised no major questions and the respondents did not have any difficulty in understanding and answering the questions.

5.6 The Development of the Questionnaire

The research questionnaire was designed to obtain the data on job satisfaction, consequences of the level of job satisfaction, motivation needs, and demographic variables. Therefore, the questionnaire has four parts: (1) the job satisfaction part, (2) the consequences of the level of job satisfaction, (3) motivation needs part, and (4) the demographic part. In the next section, we shed some light on each part.

5.6.1 Part (1): The job satisfaction part

This part is intended to measure job satisfaction and factors associated with it. Most research in this topic is done with questionnaires and in some cases, interviews are used (Spector, 1997).

The questionnaire method of measuring job satisfaction is the most widely used one as it can be standardised to suit any requirement or it can be developed specifically for the organisation (Al-Saadi, 1996). The use of a questionnaire as the main tool has important advantages such as its ability to glean information and cover a wide data needed in this study , not to mention the fact that the respondents could fill it in easily and quickly (Luthans, 1995). Since the questionnaire has been used widely, there will be good opportunities for making further comparisons with both future and previous studies in this field.

However, it was not possible to implement a standardised questionnaire such as the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), Job Description Index (JDI), and Porter Need Satisfaction Questionnaire (NSQ), because, despite their reliability and validity, and the wide application of them, they are general ones (as explained in section 2.9). It has been recommended to consider the aim and the particular attributes of any study before implementing the methods (Berry, 1998). Wanous and Lawler (1972) believe that the best measure of satisfaction is the one that covers all the dependent and independent variables in a particular study. Thus, the questionnaire that was used in this study to measure job satisfaction was constructed and developed especially for this research, as mentioned in section 2.9, taking into account the following vital points:

1. An acceptable degree of reliability, which means that the questionnaire could be used to measure job satisfaction amongst middle managers time after time. The present questionnaire has obtained a satisfactory level of reliability by doing a reliability analysis test using Cronbach's Alpha model.
2. The validity of the questionnaire. A questionnaire is considered valid if it measures what it is supposed to measure (Bagozzi, 1996). Consequently, the design of the questionnaire went through several stages in order to ensure its capability to collect the relevant data needed to conduct this study:
 - The questionnaire was reviewed by the researcher's supervisor Dr Joan Harvey and by Dr George Erdos from the Psychology Department. Based on their suggestions and recommendations the questionnaire was amended. Some questions were added, some were cancelled, and others that were not clear or led to misunderstanding were modified.
 - Several PhD students and MBA part-time students reviewed the English version of the questionnaire for the purpose of testing the clarity and the use of appropriate language and terminology. In addition, the questionnaire was pre-tested in the pilot study and improved thereafter.
 - After the translation of the questionnaire, the Arabic version as well as the English one was reviewed by two academic staff from King Saud University, Saudi Arabia.

- Several business managers reviewed the Arabic version of the questionnaire for the purpose of testing the clarity, and the use of appropriate language and terminology. In addition, the questionnaire was pre-tested in the pilot study and improved thereafter.
3. The present questionnaire made the best possible use of the previous questionnaires that had been used in similar studies in job satisfaction and proved to have a satisfactory level of validity and reliability.

The Likert scale is the main scale used in the questionnaire in order to measure the construct. It is composed of six balanced response choices (except the demographic part) rating from 1=very satisfied (strongly agree) to 6=very dissatisfied (strongly disagree). The issue of the number of points in the rating scale and whether to be an odd or even number has not been solved. There are no certain rules in the literature to determine the choice of the number of points included in the scale. In general, discriminating between the numbers of points included in the scale depends upon the nature of the subjects being investigated (Tull and Hawkins 1993, Parasuraman 1991). A rating scale that has between five and nine points is commonly used in most surveys (Tull and Hawkins 1993). In this study, a six point Likert scale was used to avoid the midpoint phenomenon.

This part of the questionnaire comprised 32 items aimed to measure job satisfaction. Twenty five questions are for measuring the satisfaction with different job variables that are related to six job facets which are: the work group, the work itself, promotion, pay, supervision, and recognition. Six questions are used to measure the overall satisfaction with each job facet. The objective of using questions requiring overall satisfaction with each job facet is to compare the respondents' answer to this question and the average response to the questions related to this job facet. If the two correlate strongly, then this gives us an indication that the respondents have truly expressed

their feeling towards their jobs. Correlations between the overall questions and variables related to each job facet will be investigated to see how much the satisfaction with these variables affects the overall satisfaction with the job facet in each group, and to test if there are any differences between the Saudi and UK samples.

The last question in part 1 of the questionnaire, question 32, is about the overall job satisfaction. Alongside each item were six choices. Respondents were asked their level of satisfaction on a scale starting from very satisfied (1) through rather satisfied, satisfied, rather dissatisfied, dissatisfied, to very dissatisfied (6). Questions related to each job facet are discussed below.

5.6.1.1 Questions related to the satisfaction with work group

After reviewing the literature related to satisfaction with work groups, and examining some theses and studies investigating job satisfaction the researcher found that personal and work relations were important for satisfaction with the work group. Therefore, as for this study, three items were included in the questionnaire in relation to the satisfaction with this job facet:

1. The satisfaction with the personal relation one has with one's colleagues.
2. The satisfaction with work relations one has with one's subordinates.
3. The satisfaction with personal relations one has with one's subordinates.

An overall question about the satisfaction with this facet was also added in the questionnaire.

The objective of this question, as explained before, was to compare respondents' answers to this question and the average response to the questions related to this job facet. If the two correlate strongly, then this gives us an indication that the respondents have truly expressed their feelings towards their jobs. The four items related to the satisfaction with the work group are number 1, 2, 3 and 4 in the questionnaire.

5.6.1.2 Questions related to the satisfaction with work itself

The literature related to the satisfaction with work itself suggested that the satisfaction with the following six variables have the most effect in the overall satisfaction with this job facet, these variables are:

1. The opportunity to use one's skills.
2. The variety of the work.
3. The opportunity to learn new things.
4. The degree of challenge.
5. The responsibility one has to plan one's own work
6. The responsibility one has in doing the work.

An overall question about the satisfaction with this facet was also added in the questionnaire.

The seven questions related to this job facet took the numbers 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11 in the questionnaire.

5.6.1.3 Questions related to the satisfaction with promotion

Two popular variables were found in the literature that related to the satisfaction with the promotion facet, these variables are:

1. The opportunity for promotion in one's job
2. The fairness of the promotion system in the organisation.

These two variables were included in the questionnaire as number 12 and 13 respectively. A third question, question 14, was added to measure the overall satisfaction with this facet.

5.6.1.4 Question related to the satisfaction with pay

After reviewing the literature and looking into various theses and questionnaires, the researcher has extracted the following variables that have the most effect in the overall satisfaction with pay:

1. The pay in relation to the cost of living.
2. The pay in relation to the work one does.
3. The pay compared to one's expectation when joining the organisation.
4. The pay compared to other's pay holding a similar position in the organisation.
5. The pay compared to other's pay holding a similar position in different organisations.

These variables took the numbers 15, 16,17,18,19 in the questionnaire. Question 20 was added as an overall question to the satisfaction with pay.

5.6.1.5 Questions related to the satisfaction with supervision

This job facet was reviewed thoroughly and the variables that were used extensively by the researcher to measure the degree of satisfaction with this facet were as follow:

1. The competence of the supervisor in making decisions.
2. The supervisor's delegation of responsibility.
3. The feedback one gets from the supervisor.
4. The personal relation with the supervisor.
5. The help one gets from the supervisor.

These variables were used in the questionnaire as items 21, 22, 23, 24, 25. An overall question to measure the overall satisfaction with this job facet was added as item 26.

5.6.1.6 Questions related to the satisfaction with recognition

The literature has suggested some variables that have a great effect in the satisfaction with this job facet. The most used variables in investigating job satisfaction are:

1. The financial recognition.
2. The praise one gets from top management.
3. The praise one gets from a supervisor.
4. The praise one gets from colleagues.

These variables were used in this study to measure the satisfaction with recognition and they took numbers 27, 28, 29, 30 in the questionnaire. An overall question to measure the overall satisfaction with this job facet was also added as item 31. The last item in part (1) of the questionnaire (item 32) is a question about the overall job satisfaction.

5.6.2 Part (2): The consequences of the level of job satisfaction part

The consequence of the level of satisfaction with the job is one of the factors that have attracted investigations by scientists and researchers. Most studies found in the literature support the notion that satisfaction with the job accompanied favourable consequences and vice versa. This part was developed by the researcher to test some of the consequences of the level of job satisfaction. Four statements were included in this part (items 33, 34, 35 and 36) which are:

1. Finding a job outside the organisation
2. Resigning from the job.
3. Hate going to work.
4. Feel happy when at work.

Respondents were asked to record their responses on a six point Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 6=strongly agree for the first three statements, and ranging from 1=strongly agree to 6=strongly disagree for the fourth statement. The relationship between these four statements and the overall job satisfaction will be examined using a correlation coefficient test.

5.6.3 Part (3): The motivation needs part

The Manifest Needs Questionnaire (MNQ), developed by Steers and Braunstein (1976), was used in this part to elicit responses on the strength of motivation needs. The MNQ measures

motivation needs, and consists of four sub-scales which describe the need for achievement, affiliation, autonomy and dominance of employees. The instruments include a total of 20 items. Each of the 20 items consists of a list of statements. Items 1-5 relate to need for achievement, items 6-10 to need for affiliation, items 11-15 need for autonomy and items 16-20 the need for dominance. Respondents were asked to record their responses on a six point Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly agree to 6=strongly disagree. The maximum possible raw score for each subscale for each respondent is 30. Each need's score is determined by adding up the respondent's points for the five statements measuring each need. Norms for each of the need's strength are as follows: 5-8 points indicate a very low need strength =6, 9-12 indicate a low need strength =5, 13-16 indicate a rather low need strength =4, 17-20 indicate a rather high need strength =3, 21-24 indicate a high need strength =2, and 25-30 indicate a very high need strength =1. The relationship between overall job satisfaction and the four motivation needs will be examined using a correlation coefficient test.

5.6.4 Part (4): The demographic part

The demographic part was developed by the researcher to gather information about respondents' age, annual gross salary, length of service in the current job, length of service for the same organisation, the level of formal education, and the number of dependants (Tables 5.1 – 5.6). The relationship between overall job satisfaction and the demographic variables will be examined using a correlation coefficient test.

Table 5.1: The age categories

The age Categories	Up to 30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61 or more
The code	5	4	3	2	1

Table 5.2: The annual gross salary categories

The annual gross salary	Up to 12000£	12001-18000	18001-24000	24001-30000	30001-36000	More than 36000
The code	6	5	4	3	2	1

Table 5.3: The length of services categories

You have been doing this job in this organisation for:	Less than 1 year	1-3 years	4-6 years	7-9 years	More than 9 years
The code	5	4	3	2	1

Table 5.4: The length of services categories

You have been working in this organisation for:	Less than 1 year	1-3 years	4-6 years	7-9 years	More than 9 years
The code	5	4	3	2	1

Table 5.5: The level of formal education

Your level of formal education	High school	Diploma	Bachelor	Master	PhD
The code	5	4	3	2	1

Table 5.6: Number of dependents

Number of dependents	None	1-3	4-6	7-9	More than 9
The code	5	4	3	2	1

Developing and designing the questionnaire was one of the major tasks of this research. The process is usually based on learning from experience. Bagozzi (1996) states that, in the process of designing the questionnaire there is no substitute for experience based on trial and error.

5.7 Population of the Study

The population for this study consists of managers employed in organisations in the private sector represented in the D & B Business Register, North East Volume, issued by Dun & Bradstreet Ltd. (for the UK sample); and "A-Z" Organisational Directory of Saudi Arabia

published by the Council of Saudi Chambers of Commerce & Industry. Managers were selected as the subjects of the empirical research due to their organisations.

5.8 Sampling

Sampling is an important component of any research project. The significance of sampling comes from the fact that the precision of conducting the sampling procedures will determine the extent to which the research findings are generalizable (Nachmias and Nachmias 1996).

Sampling refers to the selection of a subset of elements from a large group of objects, for the purpose of drawing a general conclusion about the entire population. Determining the sample size is a debatable issue in the literature. Parasuraman (1991) states that relative time, cost and desired degree of precision determines the sample plan and size. Beside these considerations, sample size is determined on the common response rates to the questionnaires in similar studies, the pilot study, and the number of valid and completed questionnaires needed to conduct a meaningful cross-sectional data analysis. According to McDaniel and Gates (1993), 100 cases should be available to make a statistical analysis like multiple regressions. Hair et al (1998) indicate that as a general rule, there should be at least five observations for each independent variable; however, the desirable level for the results to be generalizable is between 15-20 observations for each independent variable. Jackson (1995) stated that it is not necessarily the case that larger samples are more accurate than smaller ones; it is the case that the sample should represent the characteristics of the population.

Determining the sample size from which a desirable number of questionnaires will be generated is not clear-cut in a developing country such as Saudi Arabia. In Saudi Arabia, the response rate for mail questionnaire survey and social research in general is not available. According to the experience of the Research Centre of the Chamber of Commerce in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, the

response rate for mail questionnaires does not exceed 10%. In fact, researchers usually avoid collecting questionnaires by mail.

Personal collection and a collection box are the common approaches of collecting questionnaires in Saudi Arabia in order to yield a high response rate (Tuncalp 1988). Hence, the average rate for studies conducted in Saudi Arabia is usually high. It ranges between 40 and 60 percent (Abu Nab'a 1981, Tuncalp 1988). In this study, the pilot study conducted in Saudi Arabia yielded a 49% response rate. In the UK, based on experts' opinions, PhD research students' opinions, social science surveys, the response rate for a mail questionnaire ranges between 10 and 20 percent. In this research, the pilot study conducted yielded a 12.5% response rate.

Based on the above illustration, a target of usable questionnaires was set in the region of 130-160 for the UK sample; requiring a sample size of about 1000 managers. A target of usable questionnaires was set on the region of 400-430 for the Saudi sample, requiring a sample size of about 800 managers.

It was decided to use systematic random sampling since this kind of sampling gives every unit of the population an equal chance of being selected from the population under study (Jackson, 1995). In systematic random sampling, one selects every n th unit from a population after having selected the first by a random method. The sampling frame for the UK sample will be D & B Business Register, North East Volume, and for the Saudi sample will be the "A-Z" Directory.

5.9 Data Collection Procedures

The sampling frame in selecting the UK sample will be D&B Business Register, North East volume. The D&B business Registers, issued by Dun & Bradstreet Ltd., lists local companies

alphabetically broken down by town within the county. In selecting the sample from the North East, the researcher used a systematic sampling method. Organisations with 30 employees or more were given a number from 1 to N. Two hundred organisations were selected.

During the month of September 1998, the researcher contacted these organisations asking for their agreement to participate in this survey, and asking for the number and title of middle managers and supervisors in their organisation. 187 organisations agreed to take part in this survey. In most cases the contact person was in the personnel or HRM department. The researcher collected titles and addresses of 1200 middle managers and supervisors.

By the first week of October 1998, 300 questionnaires containing a pre-paid self returned address envelope and accompanied by a support letter from the supervisor were sent to the subjects. By the second week of October 1998, 380 questionnaires were mailed, and by the third week of October 1998, 320 questionnaires were mailed to subjects. Total questionnaires sent was 1000, 158 returned, 154 questionnaires were usable giving a response rate of 15.4%.

Most questionnaires were sent directly to the subjects; some, on the request of the contact person, were sent in bulk to a person who then delivered them to the subjects.

The sample frame for the Saudi sample will be the “A-Z” Organisational Directory of Saudi Arabia. The directory lists the names, addresses, and major activities of major organisations in Saudi Arabia. The Council of Saudi Chambers of Commerce & Industry publishes the directory every year. Managers employed by these organisations will be our subjects. A systematic sampling method will be used to select organisations from the Directory. Organisations with 30

employees or more were given a number from 1 to N. One hundred and fifty organisations were selected.

The field work in Saudi Arabia started in January 1999 for three months. Upon arriving in Saudi Arabia, the researcher contacted the selected organisations asking them for permission to distribute the questionnaires among their managers and about the number of managers in their organisations. The contact person was the Personnel Manager or the Human Resource Manager. Some organisations requested a verification letter from the sponsor. A support letter from the Dean of the College of Business and Economics, King Saud University was obtained and sent to the organisations (appendix 3). Ninety-two organisations agreed to take part in the survey. Owing to the bad status of the postal service in Saudi Arabia, questionnaires were personally delivered and collected. Questionnaires were either directly delivered to managers or indirectly in bulk to a person in the Personnel Department or the Public Relations Department who then delivered them to the selected managers.

A collection box was set in every organisation either in the reception office or in the security office, and a 24-hour facsimile number was provided for subjects who preferred to respond by facsimile. In the first month, 537 questionnaires were delivered accompanied by a support letter from the Dean of the College of Business & Economics, King Saud University (appendix 3).

More subjects were required to reach the sample size of 800 respondents. Therefore, a sample of 100 organisations was systematically chosen from the sampling frame. Fifty-three organisations agreed to participate in this survey. Another 263 questionnaires were delivered giving a total of 800 questionnaires.

415 questionnaires were collected; of them 406 were usable giving a response rate of about 51%. Therefore, the result of data analysis presented in this study is based on 406 responses from Saudi Arabia and 154 responses from the North East of England.

5.10 Treatment of the Data

Upon the researcher's return to the UK in April 1999, all returned questionnaires were personally checked again for accuracy by the researcher. All the variables were coded then entered to a PC. Data entered to the computer were checked for accuracy twice, in the middle of the process and at the end.

5.11 Research Hypotheses

The research hypothesis will be the basis for the collection and analysis of data in this study.

The study has six hypotheses:

1. There will be a significant positive relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with the work group and the whole job satisfaction in the two samples.
2. There will be a significant positive relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with work itself and the whole job satisfaction in the two samples.
3. There will be a significant positive relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with promotion and the whole job satisfaction in the two samples.
4. There will be a significant positive relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with pay and the whole job satisfaction in the two samples.
5. There will be a significant positive relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with supervision and the whole job satisfaction in the two samples.
6. There will be a significant positive relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with recognition and the whole job satisfaction in the two samples.
7. There will be a significant positive relationship between the need for achievement and job satisfaction among managers in the two samples.

8. There will be a significant positive relationship between the need for affiliation and job satisfaction among managers in the two samples.
9. There will be a significant positive relationship between the need for autonomy and job satisfaction among managers in the two samples.
10. There will be a significant positive relationship between the need for dominance and job satisfaction among managers in the two samples.

5.12 Statistical Analysis Technique

A number of criteria are proposed by Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) to select an appropriate statistical technique, two of which are the appropriateness of the technique to the research question, and the characteristics of data. Accordingly, different statistical techniques were used in the analysis based on their relevance to the research objectives, questions and hypotheses. Among the techniques that have been used where applicable are frequencies analysis, factor analysis, t-test, Pearson Product-Moment Correlation, and Fisher's Z-transformation.

Frequency analysis produces a table of frequency counts and percentage for the value of individual variables. It was used in this research to provide descriptive information of the data such as frequency, means, standard deviation, and to summarise the responses of each question.

The second statistical technique used was factor analysis. Factor analysis allows researchers to identify the relationships among a large number of variables by defining a set of common dimensions. Variables that are correlated with one another but largely independent of other subsets of variables are combined into factors. There are two factor analytic techniques available for the researcher to use, exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis. Exploratory factor analysis is used when the aim of the research is to explore the field to discover the main constructs or factors. Exploratory factor analysis is ideal where the data are complex and the

researcher is not sure what the significant or important variables are (Kline, 94). Confirmatory factor analysis, on the other hand, is used when the researcher has a hypothetical loading for each variable in the study based on other previous studies. Then confirmatory factor analysis can be used to fit these loadings in the targeted matrix as closely as possible (Kline, 94).

The objective of using factor analysis in this research was to search for structure among variables. In this research, the job satisfaction questionnaire (part one in the questionnaire) has twenty-five items that are intended to measure the degree of satisfaction with various aspects of the job; factor analysis will be utilised to see how these items group, in other words, how many factors there are. Therefore, exploratory factor analysis is appropriate for this study, as will be explained in section 6.6.

This study focuses on measuring the attitude of middle managers towards their job and finding out how various job facets influence the middle managers' level of job satisfaction. The main statistical technique that is used in attitude measurements is the correlation coefficient (r) (Oskamp, 1977) and this will be used to report the findings of the study. Because the aim of the study is to find the strength of association between several independent factors and a dependent factor, Pearson Product-Moment measure of association will be used. In this technique, values of association between two variables range from -1 to 1. The closer the value to 1 or -1, the stronger the association between the variables. The value of absolute 1 or -1 indicates a perfect correlation coefficient between the two variables. Moreover, the minus sign of the coefficient indicates the direction of the association.

One must be careful when interpreting a significant correlation coefficient. The first point to note is that a smaller value of r is needed for significance as N (the sample size) increases. In deciding

the importance of a correlation, one has to consider how much of the variability of the scores in one variable can be explained by the variability of scores of the other variable. There may be a significant correlation but if it only explains a small amount of the variability then it may not be of much importance. The square of the correlation coefficient, called the coefficient of determination, is used to explain the proportion of the variability in a correlation. A high correlation, such as $r = 0.8$, yields an r square of 0.64 which tells us more than half of the variability in one variable can be explained by changes in the other variable. With an $r = 0.3$, then only 0.09 of the variability of one variable's score can be explained by the correlation with the other variable (Hinton, 1995; Sekaran, 1992).

T-test technique was also used in this study. The choice of a significant test (e.g., t , F ,) depends on the research question and the design of the study. If one is interested in comparing the means of two groups only, the t -test will then be a convenient method (Rosnow and Rosenthal, 1996). The F and t tests are statistically related; $F = t$ square when there are only two groups to be compared. Larger t 's are associated with differences between means that are more statistically significant, which means that there is no difference between the means.

The last statistical technique that will be used in this study is Fisher's Z-transformation test. This test is a meta- analysis test that has begun to be used widely in behaviour research and psychology studies and other fields (Rosnow and Rosenthal, 1996). Fisher's z-transformation test is simply a transformation of Pearson r 's, making equal differences equally detectable.

5.13 Methodological Issues in Cross-Cultural Research

Cross-cultural research should consider a framework which can incorporate a range of methodological possibilities in investigating a variety of topics. In cross-cultural methodology

the framework is known as emics and etics (Malpass, 1977; Brislin, 1983). The emic approach attempts to obtain the best possible description of a phenomenon occurring in a particular local population by utilizing concepts employed in that population. It is allegedly the most accurate description of a phenomenon. However, emic data cannot be compared across cultures because, by definition, the concepts developed in a single culture may not be universal. In short, emics are culture-specific concepts. The etic approach studies a phenomenon by utilizing concepts with generality beyond a single local population, i.e., culture-general or universal concepts. The present study adopted the etic approach.

Among the many methodological issues affecting cross-cultural research are those involving equivalence, bias, sampling adequacy, and language and translation issues.

5.13.1 Equivalence

One concept that is important in conducting cross-cultural research is that of equivalence.

Equivalence in cross-cultural research can be defined as:

“A state or condition of similarity in conceptual meaning and empirical methods between cultures that allows comparisons to be meaningful” Matsumoto, 2000.

There are four types of equivalence proposed by Hui and Triandis (1985), namely conceptual/functional, construct operationalization, item, and scalar equivalences. Similarity in meaning of a construct of a concept in the two cultures refers to conceptual equivalence. That is, the construct can be meaningfully discussed in the cultures concerned. This construct is then manifested and operationalized in similar ways in both cultures. Thus, the construct operationalization equivalence has been achieved. Next, in order to fulfil the item equivalence

requirement, the operationalized construct should be measured by the same instrument for both cultural groups. Only by doing this can cultures be numerically compared. Lastly, the instrument will have scalar equivalence when a numerical value on the scale of the instrument refers to the same degree, intensity, or magnitude of the construct regardless of the population of which the respondent is a member.

The previous descriptions on measures and procedures of the present study indicate that the four types of equivalence which are required for cross-cultural studies were fulfilled. The job satisfaction concept is familiar to both groups. Thus, there is arguably reasonable construct equivalence of the concept between the two groups. Moreover, this construct has been operationalized in this study in the form of items in the questionnaire distributed to both groups. The questionnaire has been back-translated and uses the same scaling. Thus, the other three requirements were fulfilled.

5.13.2 Bias

Bias and equivalence are two closely related concepts that play a major role in cross-cultural comparisons (Poortinga, 1989). From a theoretical perspective, the two concepts are the opposite of each other; scores are equivalent when they are unbiased (Van de Vijver and Leung, 1997). As mentioned above, equivalence is usually associated with the measurements level at which scores obtained in different cultural groups can be compared; whereas bias shows the presence of factors that challenge the validity of cross-cultural comparisons (Van de Vijver and Leung, 1997). In this study, equivalence was established as explained in the last section; therefore bias was overpowered.

5.13.3 Sampling Adequacy

Cross-cultural researchers need to pay careful attention to issues of sampling in the conduct of their research (Matsumoto, 2000). A certain requirement applies to research subjects in order to get similarity or equivalence among the subjects from different cultures. This similarity is known as dimensional identity (Berry, 1980; Frijda & Jahoda, 1966). The dimensional identity requires the structural and behavioural equivalence of the subjects in certain aspects, such as occupation in the case of a job satisfaction study. In this study, an adequate sampling procedure was followed, as explained in this chapter.

5.13.4 Language and Translation Issues

A main issue in cross-cultural research is the linguistic equivalence of the research instrument. If a researcher wants to compare questionnaire responses of two samples from two different countries speaking different languages, the researcher needs to have both language versions of the questionnaire (Matsumoto, 2000). To ensure that the two questionnaires are equivalent, researchers usually use the back-translation method (Brislin, 1970), which was utilized in this study as explained in section 5.4. This process serves to de-centre the original language (Brislin, 1970, 1993), eliminating any culture-specific concepts of the original language.

5.14 Summary

This chapter contains the method and statistical techniques used in this research. Survey research design was used to conduct this study. The sampling unit consisted of middle managers employed by organisations of the private sector in Saudi Arabia and the North East of England. The questionnaire had four parts: (1) job satisfaction part, (2) the consequences of the level of job satisfaction part, (3) MNQ (Manifest Need Questionnaire), and (4) the demographic part.

The survey generated 406 usable responses for data analysis for the Saudi sample and 154 usable responses for data analysis from the UK sample. The chapter ended by discussing main issues in cross-cultural methods.

Chapter Six: Descriptive Statistics and Data Reduction

6.1 Introduction

The data for this research were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). The analysis was based on two samples: the Saudi sample (N = 406); and the UK sample (N = 154), which will be used as a bench mark for comparison. During the course of data entry, two checks were made to verify the accuracy of the data entry, one in the middle of data entry, and the second at the end.

This chapter is divided into four sections: section one presents descriptive results of the response rate and the assessment of the non-response bias. Section two is the descriptive analysis of the demographic variables (part four of the questionnaire). In section three, descriptive analysis will be presented for the motivation needs, which is the third part of the questionnaire. In section four, factor analysis will be utilised to explain the relationship among the variables and factors in job satisfaction and the adequacy of sample size for this research. Analysis for the two samples, the Saudi sample and the UK sample, will be presented.

In the following chapter, results and findings will be presented regarding job satisfaction factors, overall job satisfaction, testing the research hypothesis and answering the research questions.

6.2 Response Rate

As indicated in the last chapter (the methodology chapter), 800 questionnaires were delivered to managers and supervisors working in the private sector in Saudi Arabia. The return of completed questionnaires presented some difficulties. First, collection of the questionnaires took a long time. Things happen more slowly in Saudi Arabia. Promptness and immediateness are not valued as strongly as they are in western countries (Tuncalp, 1988). Over three months were spent on delivering and collecting questionnaires, 415 questionnaires were collected. Of the 415 responses, 9 questionnaires were unusable. Among these excluded questionnaires, five were

missing key information and four were returned empty. Thus the usable returned questionnaires were 406 representing a response rate of 51%. This is similar to studies using the same methods in Saudi Arabia (Alkassim, 1996; Alsouhem, 1996; Algaber, 1995).

In the UK, 1000 questionnaires were mailed to managers and supervisors in the North East of England. Questionnaires were either sent directly to the manager or the supervisors, or sent to the Personal Manager (Human Resource Manager) in bulk to distribute them among managers and supervisors in his/her organisation. Return envelopes were enclosed with each questionnaire. 158 questionnaires were returned; of them 4 were unusable owing to missing key information. Thus the usable returned questionnaires were 154 representing a response rate of 15.4%.

6.3 Non-response Assessment

Non-response bias evaluation ensures that the conclusions drawn from the analysis are attributable to the population of the research, and not some subset of this population (Churchill, 1987). In other words, non-response bias investigates whether the respondents to the survey are different from those who did not respond. In order to assess any potential non-response bias amongst the sampling frame, early versus late respondent bias testing will be undertaken for a comparison. Despite its drawback, it is generally accepted as a practical measure for non-response bias (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996). Accordingly, the assessment of non-response bias will be based on comparing some of the characteristics of early respondents to that of late respondents. Therefore, the first 50 respondents collected was compared with the last 50 collected in the Saudi sample; and the first 50 respondents received was compared with the last 50 received in the UK sample. Two-sample independent t-tests were employed to compare the mean differences between the two groups in each sample on several variables such as age, annual salary, education, length of service, number of dependants. No bias was found at the 0.05

level of significance. Therefore, it was felt that the responding managers well represent the overall sample.

6.4 Descriptive Analysis of the Demographic Variables

This section includes a descriptive analysis of the participating subjects. The objectives of such analysis are; first, to give a brief description of the characteristics of the subjects included in our samples; and secondly, to compare the subjects in the two samples. Frequency analysis will be used to describe the participant according to the following characteristics:

- Age.
- Annual gross salary.
- Number of years doing this job in the current organisation.
- Number of years working for the current organisation.
- Level of education.
- Number of dependants.

6.4.1 Age

Table 6.1 represents the distribution of the Saudi respondents and the UK respondents by age. The table shows that the majority of the Saudi respondents (37.7%) and the UK respondents (40.9%) were in the 31-40 range.

Table 6.1: Age Distribution for the Saudi and UK Samples

Age range	The Saudi Sample			The UK sample		
	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative
> 60 years	14	3.4	3.4%	3	2	2%
51-60	34	8.4	11.8%	21	13.6	15.6%
41-50	95	23.4	35.2%	51	33	48.6%
31-40	153	37.7	72.9%	63	41	89.6%
< 30	110	27.1	100%	16	10.4	100%
Total	406	100%		154	100%	

Table 6.1 suggests that, relatively speaking, younger employees in Saudi Arabia occupy these positions than those in the UK. This could be attributed to one of two reasons; first, the shortage of the Saudi manpower that forces the organisations to recruit younger, less experienced

employees as middle managers. Secondly, by recruiting young, possibly new graduates, organisations are following the Government move toward Saudization.

6.4.2 Annual gross salary

In the Arabic questionnaire which was distributed in Saudi Arabia, salaries were converted into Saudi Ryals (1£ = 6.5 SR). Table 6.2 shows that the modal range of the Saudi sample annual gross salary is between 12001 and 24000£ while the modal range of the UK sample range between 24001 and 30000£.

Table 6.2: Annual gross salary distribution for the Saudi and UK samples

The salary range	The Saudi Sample			The UK sample		
	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative
> 36000£	50	12.3	12.3%	28	18.2	18.2%
30001-36000£	62	15.3	27.7%	27	17.5	35.7%
24001-30000£	85	20.9	48.5%	41	26.6	62.4%
18001-24000£	72	17.7	66.2%	27	17.5	79.9%
12001-18000£	88	21.7	87.9%	29	18.8	98.7%
<12000£	49	12.1	100%	2	1.3	100%
Total	406	100%		154	100%	

Table 6.2 may suggest that middle managers in the UK earn more money than their counterpart mangers in Saudi Arabia.

6.4.3 Length of services on current job

Looking at Table 6.3, it seems that managers in the UK sample change their jobs inside their current employer more frequently than their counterpart in the Saudi sample.

Table 6.3: Saudi and UK managers’ length of service in current job

Length of service	The Saudi sample			The UK sample		
	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative
> 9 years	84	20.7	20.7%	36	23.4	23.4%
7-9	57	14.0	34.7%	6	3.9	27.3%
4-6	105	25.9	60.6%	35	22.7	50.0%
1-3	136	33.5	94.1%	48	31.2	81.2%
< 1 year	24	5.9	100%	29	18.8	100%
Total	406	100%		154	100%	

6.4.4 Number of years working for the current organisation

Comparing percentages in Table 6.4, it suggests that the Saudi subjects are less mobile than their counterpart UK managers are. This could mean that the UK employees have more openings or opportunities to move to other organisations.

Table 6.4: Saudi and UK managers' length of service in current organisation

Length of service	The Saudi sample			The UK sample		
	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative
> 9 years	145	35.7	35.7%	69	44.8	44.8%
7-9	73	18.1	53.8%	9	5.8	50.6%
4-6	109	26.8	80.6%	32	20.8	71.4%
1-3	68	16.7	97.3%	30	19.5	90.9%
< 1 year	11	2.7	100%	14	9.1	100%
Total	406	100%		154	100%	

6.4.5 Level of education

Table 6.5 may suggest that education (specifically bachelor degree or more) is an important qualification holding a middle manager position in the Saudi organisations. However, the Saudi group have no managers with doctorates. It is interesting to note that the degrees might not all be equivalent, depending on where they were obtained.

Table 6.5: Level of education distribution for the Saudi and UK samples

Education level	The Saudi sample			The UK sample		
	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative
PhD	0	0.0	0.0%	7	4.6	4.6%
Master	60	14.8	14.8%	17	11.0	15.6%
Bachelor	280	68.9	83.7%	41	26.6	42.2%
Diploma	32	7.9	91.6%	50	32.5	74.7%
High school	34	8.4	100%	39	25.3	100%
Total	406	100%		154	100%	

6.4.6 Number of dependants

Table 6.6 presents the frequency and percent of the Saudi and UK samples. These data show very large differences between the samples.

Table 6.6: Number of dependence distribution for the Saudi and UK samples

Number of dependants	The Saudi sample			The UK sample		
	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative
> 9	48	11.8	11.8%	0	0.0	0%
7-9	64	15.8	27.6%	0	0.0	0%
4-6	147	36.2	63.8%	3	2.0	2%
1-3	110	27.1	90.9%	104	67.5	69.5%
none	37	9.1	100%	47	30.5	100%
Total	406	100%		154	100%	

Cultural differences are a likely explanation of the data. Families in Saudi Arabia tend to be bigger because dependants include parents and other relatives.

6.5 Descriptive Analysis of the Motivational Needs

This section presents the descriptive analysis for the motivation needs, which is the third part of the questionnaire. Frequencies and descriptive statistics are presented for each motivational need; need for achievement, need for affiliation, need for autonomy, and need for dominance in Tables 6.7 – 6.10; bearing in mind that 1 indicates a very strong need and 6 indicates a very low need. Means of the strength of each need are presented along with its standard deviation for the two samples.

Table 6.7: Saudi and UK samples distribution of the strength of need for achievement: frequencies and percentages.

The strength	The Saudi sample			The UK sample		
	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative
1	160	39.4	39.4	32	20.8	20.8
2	193	47.5	86.9	65	42.2	63.0
3	53	13.1	100%	51	33.1	96.1
4	0	0.0		6	3.9	100%
5	0	0.0		0	0.0	
6	0	0.0		0	0.0	
Total	406	100%		154	100%	

	N	Mean	Std. Dev
Saudi	406	1.74	0.68
UK	154	2.20	0.81

Table 6.8: Saudi and UK samples distribution of the strength of need for affiliation: frequencies and percentages.

The strength	The Saudi sample			The UK sample		
	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative
1	10	2.5	2.5	0	0.0	0.0
2	28	6.9	9.4	18	11.7	11.7
3	191	47.0	56.4	67	43.5	55.2
4	167	41.1	97.5	66	42.9	98.1
5	10	2.5	100%	3	1.9	100%
6	0	0.0		0	0.0	
Total	406	100%		154	100%	

	N	Mean	Std. Dev
Saudi	406	3.34	0.75
UK	154	3.35	0.71

Table 6.9: Saudi and UK samples distribution of the strength of need for autonomy: frequencies and percentages.

The strength	The Saudi sample			The UK sample		
	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative
1	10	2.5	2.5	0	0.0	0
2	22	5.4	7.9	2	1.3	1.3
3	101	24.9	32.8	30	19.5	20.8
4	182	44.8	77.6	80	51.9	72.7
5	91	22.4	100%	38	24.7	97.4
6	0	0.0		4	2.6	100%
Total	406	100%		154	100%	

	N	Mean	Std. Dev
Saudi	406	3.79	0.93
UK	154	4.08	0.77

Table 6.10: Saudi and UK samples distribution of the strength of need for dominance: frequencies and percentages.

The strength	The Saudi sample			The UK sample		
	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative
1	15	3.7	3.7	18	11.7	11.7
2	81	20.0	23.6	48	31.2	42.9
3	191	47.0	70.7	58	37.7	80.5
4	103	25.4	96.1	25	16.2	96.8
5	16	3.9	100%	5	3.2	100%
6	0	0.0		0	0.0	
Total	406	100%		154	100%	

	N	Mean	Std. Dev
Saudi	406	3.06	0.87
UK	154	2.68	0.99

6.6 Factor Analysis

“Factor analysis is a statistical technique widely used in psychology and the social sciences. Indeed in some branches of psychology, especially those in which tests or questionnaires have been administered, it is a necessity” (Kline, 1994:1).

Factor analysis as Hair et al (1998) define it is a class of multivariate statistical methods whose primary purpose is to define the underlying structure in a data matrix. Using factor analysis, the researcher will then be able to identify the separate dimensions of a structure and then determine the extent to which each variable is explained by each dimension or factor.

Factor analytic techniques can accomplish their objectives from either an exploratory or confirmatory perspective. There is continued argument regarding the appropriate role for factor analysis. Many researchers consider it only exploratory, useful in searching for structure among sets of variables or as a data reduction method. In this standpoint, factor analytic techniques “take what the data give you” and do not set any priori constraints on the estimation of components or the number of components to be extracted. For many-if not most- applications, this use of factor analysis is appropriate. However, in some cases, factor loadings for the variables are hypothesized based upon previous studies or on relevant theory. Confirmatory factor analysis can then be used to fit these loadings in the targeted matrix as closely as possible (Kline, 1994; Hair et al 1998). In the social science it is often so difficult to specify with any precision what the factor loadings should be (Kline, 1994). An objection to exploratory factor analysis is always that it is exploratory whereas science usually proceeds by hypothesis testing. In addition, confirmatory analysis is not simply an algorithm but has a statistical basis. These arguments are, in principle, true, although exploratory can be used to test hypotheses. Thus if a factor is hypothesized with loading on certain variables and this appears in a simple structure

analysis, it is acceptable to debate that the hypothesis has not been refuted and that in the opposing case it has been refused.

In this study, although variables were carefully selected based on thorough review of the literature, any variable that does not load on a factor will be excluded from the study. Also, factor analysis will be utilised in this research to see how these variables group, in other words, how many factors there are. Therefore, exploratory factor analysis is appropriate for this research.

The job satisfaction questionnaire (part 1 in the questionnaire) has 32 items related to job satisfaction. Twenty five items are questions to measure the satisfaction with various job related aspects. Six items are overall questions to measure the overall satisfaction with some job facets. The last item, 32, is a question to measure the overall job satisfaction. In factor analysis, only the twenty five items intended to measure the satisfaction with various job aspects were included. Therefore, items 4, 11, 14, 20, 26, 31, and 32 were excluded.

Kline (1994) said that results from factor analysis can not be trusted without proper rotation of factors, "*much of the scientific value of factor analysis depends on proper rotation*". So in the next section rotation methods will be discussed briefly pointing out which method shall be used in this research.

6.6.1 Rotation of Factors

Hair et al (1998) has defined factor rotation as "*a process of manipulating or adjusting the factor axes to achieve a simpler and pragmatically more meaningful factor solution*". The two most widely used rotation methods are Orthogonal and Oblique. In Orthogonal rotation, factors are

rotated in a position that they always at right angles to each other, while in Oblique, factor axes may take any position in the factor space (Kline, 94). Varimax and Oblimin are the most common methods used in Orthogonal and Oblique rotations respectively (Hair et al, 98; Kline, 94).

The main objective of rotation of factors is to reach a simple structure or best position of the factor axes. Cattell (1978) has argued that controversies in factor analysis as in the number and nature of factors is mainly caused by failing to reach simple structure. Cattell (1978) has put certain technical criteria that have to be met in order to reach a simple structure. According to Kline (1994), the most important criteria are:

- *Good sampling of variables*
- *Good sampling of subjects*
- *Large sample, with 100 as the minimum*
- *A ratio of subjects to variables of at least 2:1*
- *The use of principle component or maximum likelihood factor analysis*
- *The use of a Scree test or statistical test to obtain the number of factors*
- *The use of Varimax rotation or, if Oblique, Direct Oblimin rotation.*

In the following section, the two samples used in this research and our procedures in employing factor analysis in this research will be tested against each criterion mentioned above.

6.6.1.1 Sampling of variables

In the methodology chapter, it was shown that an adequate literature review has been conducted to reach the variables used in the questionnaire. Content validity of the questionnaire has been achieved. So, the first criterion has been met.

6.6.1.2 Sampling of subjects

Kline (1994) asserted that “*heterogeneous and properly sampled groups should be used in factor analysis*”. From the descriptive analysis of the two samples presented in this chapter, we can see that subjects differ in age, in education, in family size, etc., indicating a heterogeneous groups. Also, from the methodology chapter, it was clear that a sound method of sampling procedures has been followed when sampling subjects from the population. The second criterion has been fulfilled.

6.6.1.3 Sample size

According to Hair et al (1998), a researcher would not factor analyse a sample that has less than 50 observations, and preferably the sample size should exceed 100. Kline (1994) suggests that if factor analysis used with fewer than 100 subjects, then results need replication in other samples. In this research, the Saudi sample has 406 subjects, and the UK sample has 154. Therefore, the third criterion has been met.

6.6.1.4 Subjects to variable ratio

Kline (1994) suggests a 2:1 ratio as the minimum and 10:1 as the highest. Hair et al (1998) suggest a 5:1 ratio as a minimum and 10:1 as the highest. Both agreed that the bigger the ratio the better. In this factor analysis, there are 25 variables. The Saudi sample has 406 subjects, which means about 16: 1 ratio. The UK sample has 154 subjects, that is 6:1 ratio.

6.6.2 Other Criteria

When employing factor analysis in this research, the researcher intends to use a Scree test to obtain the number of factors. In addition, an orthogonal and an oblique rotation will be used. In orthogonal rotation, Varimax will be used with Principle component, and in oblique, Oblimin

will be used with maximum likelihood as recommended by factorists (e.g., Cattell, 78; Kline, 94; Hair et al, 98).

To conclude, it seems that all the important technical criteria suggested by Kline (1994) to reach a simple structure have been met. In the following section, factor analysis results for each sample the Saudi and the UK will be presented respectively. Comparing the results and reliability analysis will follow.

6.7 Factor Analysis for the Saudi Sample

The purpose of using factor analysis in this research is to identify the structure of relationships among variables not respondents; therefore R-type factor analysis not Q-type will be used here. Principal component, Scree test were employed to decide the number of factors to be extracted. The Scree test is derived by plotting the latent roots against the number of factors in their order of extraction, the cut-off point for factor rotation is where the curve changes slope. A scree plot for the Saudi sample is presented in Appendix 4. The Scree test suggested six factors. Kline (1994) comments on the subjectivity of the Scree test, saying that when there is a disagreement it is sensible to compare the Scree test with another method like the eigenvalues greater than one. The selected factors were rotated first to oblique simple structure using Direct Oblimin, and then they were rotated to orthogonal by Varimax.

Table 6.11 presents summary information of the results for the extraction of component factors. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (MSA) and Bartlett Test of Sphericity are presented in Table 6.11 also.

Table 6.11: Summary information of the results of the extraction of component along with KMO test and Bartlett's tests (Saudi sample)

Factor	Eigenvalue	%of Variance	Cumulative %
Factor 1	12.204	48.816	48.816
Factor 2	2.357	9.429	58.245
Factor 3	1.695	6.779	65.024
Factor 4	1.406	5.622	70.646
Factor 5	1.124	4.496	75.142
Factor 6	.830	3.320	78.462
KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy = .921			
Significant of Bartlett test of Sphercity = .000			

From Table 6.11, we can see that the six factors together that have been extracted explain 78.462% of the variation in the data, and the KMO measure of sampling adequacy is .921, along with a significant Bartlett test of Sphericity.

6.7.1 Oblique Rotation

Oblique rotation provides two factor matrices. The first is the factor pattern matrix, which has loading that represents the unique contribution of each variable to the factor. The second is the factor structure matrix, which has correlation between variables and factors, but these loadings contain both the unique variance between variables and factors and the correlation among factors (Hair et al, 1998). According to Kline (1994), the pattern, not the structure matrix, should be interpreted.

To identify the highest loading for each variable, the interpretation must start with the first variable on the first factor moving horizontally from left to right and selecting the highest loading for that variable on any factor. If it is significant, then it loads to this factor. The procedure should continue for each variable. Table 6.12 presents the factor pattern matrix for the Saudi sample using Direct Oblimin as rotation method and maximum likelihood as an extraction method.

Table 6.12: The factor pattern matrix (Saudi sample) (all loading > 0.5)

Variables	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6
Pay 16	.915		.718		-.508	
Pay 17	.889				-.556	
Pay 18	.873				-.512	
Pay 19	.867	.538			-.565	
Pay 15	.791					
F.Recog 27	.781			.783		
Feedback 23	.536	.879		.559		
Delegation 22	.552	.863		.580		
Competence 21		.850				
Help 25		.849				
Sup.rel 24		.655				.533
Responsibility 9	.530		.911	.661		
Responsibility 10	.539		.889	.674		
Challenge 8			.857	.640		
Variety 6		.602	.855			
Learn new 7		.566	.786			
Skills 5			.723			
Praise 28		.610		.864	-.580	
Praise 29		.657		.859	-.562	
Praise 30				.823	-.514	
Fairprom 13	.590				-.715	
Promotion 12	.588			.579	-.697	
Subordinate 3		.549				.888
Colleague 1						.705
Subordinate 2			.621			.640
Eigenvalue	12.204	2.357	1.695	1.406	1.124	.830

Extraction Method: Maximum likelihood.

Rotation Method: Direct Oblimin

In deciding which factor loadings are worth considering, Kline (1994) regards factor loading as high if they are greater than 0.6 (regardless of the sign), and moderately high if they are above 0.3 and they are acceptable. Hair et al (1998) asserts that the researcher has to take two things into consideration: the practical significant and the statistical significant. They suggest a rule of thumb when looking at the practical significant. Factor loading greater than .3 are considered to meet the minimum level; factor loading greater than .4 are considered more important; loading greater than .5 are considered practically significant. Regarding the statistical significance, sample size is necessary for each factor loading to be considered significant. In a sample having 150 respondents, for example, factor loading of .45 and above are significant; factor loading of .30 considered significant for a sample of 350 respondents (Hair et al. 1998). In this research, factor loading of .5 (for the Saudi and UK samples) are chosen to meet the practical and the

statistical significant requirements. Therefore, the pattern matrix will show only factor loading of .5 and above.

6.7.2 Interpretation of Factors

Starting from the first variable moving horizontally from left to right looking for the highest loading for that variable on any factor, and doing that for the entire variables, the results are as follow:

Factor 1:

This is clearly the satisfaction with pay factor. Variables “pay 16”, “pay 17”, “pay 18”, “pay19”, and “pay15” are loaded significantly and highly on factor 1, so this factor will be named satisfaction with pay (**Satpay**). Looking at Table 7.12 again, one sees that variable “F.Recog 27” significantly loads on factor 1 and factor 4, but it loads higher for factor 4, therefore it loaded on factor 4.

Factor 2:

Variables “feedback 23”, “delegation 22”, “competence 21”, “help 25”, and “sup.rel 24” are loaded on factor 2. This is a clear satisfaction with supervision factor, so factor 2 is named as satisfaction with supervision (**Satsup**). Although variables 22 and 23 are significantly loaded on factors 1 and 4 also, they were much higher for factor 2 and therefore loaded onto that factor.

Factor 3:

This is clearly the satisfaction with work factor, so it is named satisfaction with work (**Satwork**). Again, some variables load onto other factors, but are highest in this factor.

Factor 4:

By looking at the highest loading, it is clear that this factor is the satisfaction with recognition (**Satreceg**). Variables “F. Recog27”, “praise 28”, “praise 29”, “praise 30” are loaded on this factor.

Factor 5:

Variables “fairprom 13” and “promotion 12” have the highest loading on factor 5. Since these two variables intended to measure satisfaction with promotion, then this is clearly the satisfaction with promotional opportunity factor (**Satprom**).

Factor 6:

By looking at the highest loading, it is clear that this factor is the satisfaction with colleagues (**Satcoll**). Variables “subordinate 3”, “colleagues 2”, and “subordinate 1” have the highest loading on this factor.

After presenting the results of the Saudi sample using an oblique rotation method in the last section, results using an orthogonal rotation method will be presented.

6.7.3 Orthogonal Rotation

In orthogonal rotation, the factor structure matrix and the factor pattern matrix are identical (Kline, 94). Varimax is the best rotation method in orthogonal rotation (Kline, 94; Hair et al, 98).

In orthogonal rotation, correlation between the factors is ignored, only correlation between variables and factors are calculated.

The results of the Saudi sample using Varimax as rotation method and principal component as an extraction method are given in Appendix 5. The factor structure is almost identical to that in table 6.12, although some loadings vary in magnitude.

To summarise, both factor structures show six overall job satisfaction factors for the Saudi sample shown in Table 6.13.

Table 6.13: Factors extracted for the Saudi sample and their names

Factors	Name of the factor
Factor 1	Satisfaction with pay (Satpay)
Factor 2	Satisfaction with supervision (Satsup)
Factor 3	Satisfaction with work (Satwork)
Factor 4	Satisfaction with recognition (Satrecg)
Factor 5	Satisfaction with promotion (Satprom)
Factor 6	Satisfaction with colleagues (Satcoll)

In conclusion, the above results indicate that construct validity is obtained for the main construct of overall job satisfaction for the Saudi sample. The results from the two rotation methods are similar. The correlation among most of the variables appears to be high. So, from data summarisation prospective, factor analysis has provided us with a clear understanding of which variables may act in concert together and how many variables have impact in the analysis.

6.8 Factor Analysis for the UK Sample

A Scree plot for the UK sample is presented in Appendix 6. The Scree test suggested six factors, or possibly one or two factors more. According to Kline (1994), when there is a disagreement on the number of factors the Scree test suggests, it is sensible to compare the Scree test with another method like the Eigenvalues. The Eigenvalues suggests six factors. The selected factors were rotated first to oblique simple structure using Direct Oblimin, and then they were rotated to orthogonal by Varimax.

Table 6.14 presents summary information of the results for the extraction of component factors. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (MSA) and Bartlett Test of Sphericity are presented in Table 6.14 also.

Table 6.14: summary information of the results of the extraction of component along with KMO test and Bartlett's tests (UK sample).

KMO Test and Bartlett's tests (SPSS sample):			
Factor	Eigenvalue	%of Variance	Cumulative %
Factor 1	9.970	39.881	38.881
Factor 2	3.498	13.991	53.873
Factor 3	1.769	7.077	60.950
Factor 4	1.573	6.293	67.243
Factor 5	1.132	4.528	71.771
Factor 6	.981	3.925	75.696
KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy = .875			
Significant of Bartlett test of Sphercity = .000			

From Table 6.14, we can see that the six factors together that have been extracted explain 75.696% of the variation in the data, and the KMO measure of sampling adequacy is .875, along with a significant Bartlett test of Sphericity.

6.8.1 Oblique Rotation

Table 6.15 presents the factor pattern matrix for the UK sample using Direct Oblimin as rotation method and maximum likelihood as an extraction method

Table 6.15: the factor pattern matrix (UK sample) (all loadings > 0.5)

Variables	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6
Pay 16	.950		.719			
Pay 19	.899					
Pay 15	.863					
Pay 17	.857					
F.Recog 27	.817			.815		
Pay 18	.773					
Help 25		.915	.522			.541
Sup.rel 24		.858				.530
Feedback 23		.795		.511		
Competence 21		.770				
Delegation 22		.606				.503
Variety 6		.590	.910			
Responsibility 10		.583	.850			
Responsibility 9			.833		.607	
Challenge 8			.618			
Learn new 7			.610	.512		
Skills 5			.589		.502	
Praise 29		.529		.889		
Praise 28				.710		
Praise 30				.625		.518
Fairprom 13	.635				.773	
Promotion 12	.529				.627	
Colleagues 1		.518				.706
Subordinate 3						.586
Subordinate 2			.511			.583
Eigenvalue	9.970	3.498	1.769	1.573	1.132	.981
Extraction Method: Maximum likelihood.						
Rotation Method: Direct Oblimin						

6.8.2 Interpretation of Factors

Starting from the first variable moving horizontally from left to right looking for the highest loading for that variable on any factor, and doing that for the entire variables, the results are as follows:

Factor 1:

Variables “pay 16”, “pay 19”, “pay 15”, “pay17”, and “pay18” all load significantly and highly on factor 1, named satisfaction with pay (**Satpay**). Item 16 loads highly on factor 3, but is high in this factor so that it is included here. Variable “F.Recog 27” loads highly on factor 1 and factor 4

and their loading value is almost the same (.817 and .815). Since this factor related more to recognition than to pay, then it will be included in factor 4.

Factor 2:

Variables “help 25”, “Sup.rel 24”, “feedback 23”, “competence 21”, and “delegation 22” are loaded on factor 2. This is a clear satisfaction with supervision factor, so factor 2 is named as satisfaction with supervision (**Satsup**).

Factor 3:

This is clearly the satisfaction with work factor, so it is named satisfaction with work (**Satwork**).

The highest loading of variables “Varity 6”, “responsibility 10”, “responsibility 9”, “challenge 8”, , “learn new 7”, and “skills 5” are on factor 3, therefore they were loaded on factor 3 only.

Factor 4:

By looking at the highest loading, it is clear that this factor is the satisfaction with recognition (**Satreceg**). Variables “F.Recg.27”, “praise 29”, “praise 28”, “praise 30” are loaded on this factor.

Factor 5:

Variables “fairprom 13” and “promotion 12” have the highest loading on factor 5. Since these two variables intended to measure satisfaction with promotion, then this is clearly the satisfaction with promotional opportunity factor (**Satprom**).

Factor 6:

By looking at the highest loading, it is clear that this factor is the satisfaction with colleagues (**Satcoll**). Variables “subordinate 1”, “subordinate 3”, and “colleagues 2” have the highest loading on this factor.

6.8.3 Orthogonal Rotation

The results of the UK sample using Varimax as rotation method and principal component as an extraction method are included in appendix 7. The factor structure remains very similar to that in Table 6.15, although loadings vary to some extent. It can be concluded that the orthogonal and oblique rotations yield the same factors.

To summarise, the six overall job satisfaction factors for the UK sample using oblique and orthogonal rotation methods are shown in Table 6.16

Table 6.16: Factors extracted for the UK sample and their names

<u>Factors</u>	Name of the factor
Factor 1	Satisfaction with pay (Satpay)
Factor 2	Satisfaction with supervision (Satsup)
Factor 3	Satisfaction with work (Satwork)
Factor 4	Satisfaction with recognition (Satrecg)
Factor 5	Satisfaction with promotion (Satprom)
Factor 6	Satisfaction with colleagues (Satcoll)

In conclusion, the above results indicate that construct validity is obtained for the main construct of overall job satisfaction for the UK sample. The results from the two rotation methods are similar. The correlation among most of the variables appears to be high. So, from data summarisation prospective, factor analysis has provided us with a clear understanding of which variables may act in concert together and how many variables have impact in the analysis.

6.9 Comparing Results of the Two Samples

Factor analysis gave us similar structure in the two samples. The two sets of factors contain exactly the same items, suggesting that using the items in this survey, managers in the two countries conceptualise job satisfaction components in the same way.

6.10 Reliability Analysis

Table 6.17 presents alpha coefficients for each factor extracted by factor analysis, and for all the variables taken together for the two samples, the Saudi sample and the UK sample. A high score

implies more reliability in the measurement scale. Nunnally (1978) suggests that a reliability score approaching .80 is desirable. However, in exploratory work, a value over .60 is often reasonable.

Table 6.17: The results of the reliability test for the Saudi sample.

Factors	Cronbach's Alpha	
	Saudi	UK
Factor 1	.9355	.9374
Factor 2	.9201	.8864
Factor 3	.9240	.8843
Factor 4	.7918	.7614
Factor 5	.8765	.8650
Factor 6	.7668	.7005
All variables loaded to a factor	.9529	.9309

Table 6.17 shows that all the reliability coefficients are over .60, which mean that they are acceptable. This indicates that the measurement scales are acceptably reliable, and provides support for the statistical analysis.

6.11 Comparing the Overall Question with the Averages for each Job Facets

As mentioned in section 5.6.1, overall questions of each job facet will be compared to the average response to the questions related to this job facet. Table 6.18 and 6.19 present the correlations of the overall questions and the averages of each facet for the Saudi and UK samples.

Table 6.18: overall questions and averages correlations for the Saudi sample

	Average sat. with co-worker	Average sat. with work	Average sat. with promotion	Average sat. with pay	Average sat. with supervision	Average sat with recognition
Overall Sat. with co-worker	0.769**					
Overall sat. with work		0.811**				
Overall sat. with promotion			0.897**			
Overall sat. with pay				0.909**		
Overall sat. with supervision					0.893**	
Overall sat. with recognition						0.699**

**** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).**

Table 6.19: overall questions and averages correlations for the UK sample

	Average sat. with co-worker	Average sat. with work	Average sat. with promotion	Average sat. with pay	Average sat. with supervision	Average sat with recognition
Overall Sat. with co-worker	0.743**					
Overall sat. with work		0.834**				
Overall sat. with promotion			0.925**			
Overall sat. with pay				0.950**		
Overall sat. with supervision					0.853**	
Overall sat. with recognition						0.835**

**** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).**

Table 6.18 and 6.19 showed us that each overall question and the average response to the questions related to this job facet are very strongly correlated and all the correlations are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). These results give us an indication that subjects in our samples have truly conveyed what they really feel about each variable in the questionnaire. The strong correlations between the overall questions and the averages lead us to treat them as equal responses, which gives us the chance to choose either one for the analysis without affecting the results. In this study, the researcher has chosen the overall questions to be used for data analysis.

6.12 Summary

This chapter presented an aggregate analysis of the data and the statistical findings of the survey. It contained four parts. The first part presented the response rate and the assessment of the non-response bias. The result of the assessment suggested that non-response bias was not a concern in this research. The second and third parts presented the descriptive analysis for the demographics variables and the motivation needs descriptive statistics respectively. The objective of such analysis was to provide a general view of the characteristics of the managers surveyed in this research. The fourth part factor analysis was employed. Factor analysis gave us similar structure in the two samples. Cronbach's alpha coefficients indicate that the measurement scales are acceptably reliable.

Chapter Seven: Results of the Study

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the overall research results and will be presented in several sections. The first section will present the job satisfaction findings for the Saudi and the UK samples. The second section will present the consequences of the level of job satisfaction. The third section will present the motivation needs findings. The fourth section will present the demographic findings in relation to overall job satisfaction. The fifth section will present the research's hypotheses testing. The sixth and last section will contain a summary of the chapter.

7.2 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction and the factors associated with it were measured by a six-item scale.

Respondents indicated their degree of satisfaction by selecting the most appropriate answer to their feelings, for instance; “very satisfied (1), satisfied (2), rather satisfied (3), rather dissatisfied (4), dissatisfied (5), very dissatisfied (6)”. Means, Standard Deviations and Inter-item Correlations for the Job Satisfaction variables for the Saudi and UK samples are presented in appendices 8 and 9.

7.2.1 Satisfaction with co-worker

Table 7.1 presents the frequencies and cumulative percentage of the satisfaction with work group factor for the Saudi and UK samples. 99% of the Saudi subjects were rather satisfied or more with their working group compare to 91.6% of the UK subjects. Table 7.2 presents the means and the Std. deviations.

Table 7.1: Satisfaction with co-workers

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Saudi sample	Very satisfied	94	23.2	23.2
	Satisfied	245	60.3	83.5
	Rather satisfied	63	15.5	99.0
	Rather dissatisfied	3	.7	99.8
	Very dissatisfied	1	.2	100%
	Total	406	100%	
UK sample	Very satisfied	35	22.7	22.7
	Satisfied	73	47.4	70.1
	Rather satisfied	33	21.4	91.6
	Rather dissatisfied	13	8.4	100%
	Total	154	100%	

Table 7.2: Means and Std. Deviations for the satisfaction with co-worker

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Saudi sample	1.95	0.67
UK sample	2.16	0.87

One of the research questions under consideration in the present study is: Is there a significant difference on satisfaction with the work group between the two samples? A two-sample t-test was performed to investigate the mean differences between the two groups. Table 7.3 reports the results of the t-test.

Table 7.3 T-Test results based on satisfaction with co-worker

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
sat.w.group 4	Equal variances assumed	22.432	.000	-2.990	558	.003	-.21	6.94E-02	-.34	-7.12E-02
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.668	225.842	.008	-.21	7.78E-02	-.36	-5.43E-02

The findings suggest that there is a statistically significant difference in the average satisfaction with work groups between the two samples. Table 7.1 shows that, on average, Saudi subjects are more satisfied with their work group than UK subjects.

Satisfaction with the work group was the first factor in this study to be considered in relation to overall job satisfaction. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of satisfaction to the three statements related to the satisfaction with the work group, which are: the personal relations with colleagues, the work relation with subordinates, and the personal relations with subordinates.

A comparison of correlation coefficients of the two samples will be conducted to see if there are any significant differences between correlations in the two samples. A Z value will be calculated using the following formulas:

$$Z \text{ (calculated)} = \frac{Z_1 - Z_2}{\sqrt{(1/n_1 - 3) + (1/n_2 - 3)}}$$

Where:

$$Z_1 = 1.1513 \log_{10} ((1 + r_1) / (1 - r_1)),$$

$$Z_2 = 1.1513 \log_{10} ((1 + r_2) / (1 - r_2)).$$

Then, the Z calculated will be compared to $Z = 2.576$ ($\alpha = 0.01$). If $Z \text{ cal.} > 2.576$, then there is a significant difference, and if $Z \text{ cal.} < 2.576$, then there is no significant difference.

Table 7.4 shows that the satisfaction with work group factor has a significant correlation at the 0.01 level (2-tailed) with all the three statements in both the Saudi and UK sample. There are no significant differences at the 1% level in the colleagues and subordinate-1 correlation, but a significant difference in the subordinate-2 correlation. The high correlation between the satisfaction with work and the three statements means that they co-vary. Since the correlation is

positive, this means that the more highly the managers are satisfied with the three variables, the higher the chance that they will be satisfied with the work group. All the three variables are significantly important for the satisfaction with the work group in the two samples, but the personal relations one has with subordinates is significantly more important for the Saudi managers than for UK managers.

Table 7.4: Satisfaction with co-worker correlations and test for significant differences between correlations.

Variables	Saudi	UK	Z calculated compared to Z table	Significant differences
Colleagues	.666**	.684**	0.35 < 2.576	Not significant
Subordinate-1	.593**	.503**	1.36 < 2.576	Not significant
Subordinate-2	.707**	.508**	3.38 > 2.576	Significant

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

7.2.2 Satisfaction with work

Table 7.5 presents the subjects responses to the satisfaction with work question and table 7.6 presents the mean and Std. deviation for the Saudi and UK samples.

Table 7.5: Satisfaction with work

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Saudi sample	Very satisfied	46	11.3	11.3
	Satisfied	185	45.6	56.9
	Rather satisfied	121	29.8	86.7
	Rather dissatisfied	40	9.9	96.6
	Dissatisfied	13	3.2	99.8
	Very dissatisfied	1	2	100%
	Total	406	100%	
UK sample	Very satisfied	38	24.7	24.7
	Satisfied	72	46.8	71.4
	Rather satisfied	31	20.1	91.6
	Rather dissatisfied	10	6.5	98.1
	Dissatisfied	2	1.3	99.4
	Very dissatisfied	1	.6	100%
	Total	154	100%	

Table 7.6: Means and Std. Deviation for the satisfaction with work

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Saudi sample	2.49	0.95
UK sample	2.15	0.96

Another research question under consideration in this study is: Is there a significant difference in satisfaction with work between the two samples? A t-test was performed to investigate the mean differences between the two groups. Table 7.7 reports the results of the t-test.

Table 7.7: T-Test results based on satisfaction with work

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
sat.w.work 11	Equal variances assumed	1.952	.163	3.765	558	.000	.34	8.99E-02	.16	.51
	Equal variances not assumed			3.751	274.072	.000	.34	9.02E-02	.16	.52

The t-test said yes there is a significant difference between the average satisfaction with work between the two samples. Table 7.5 shows that 71.4% of the UK subjects were satisfied or more with work while only 56.9% of the Saudi subjects were satisfied or more with work.

In exploring the satisfaction with work itself in this study, respondents were asked to indicate their level of satisfaction to six statements related to the work factor, which are: the opportunity to use skills, the variety of the work, learning new things, the challenge of doing the work, the responsibility in planning the work, and the responsibility in doing the work. Table 7.8 shows that the satisfaction with the work itself factor has a significant correlation with all the six statements in both the Saudi and the UK samples. Also it shows that there are no significant

differences at the 1% level in all work factor correlations. The significant positive correlations mean that these variables play a positive role in shaping up the satisfaction with work. The more managers are satisfied with the variables, the better the chance that they will be satisfied with their work. Results also demonstrated that these variables are of equal importance for managers in the two samples.

Table 7.8: Satisfaction with work correlations and test for significant differences between correlations.

Variables	Saudi	UK	Z calculated compared to Z table	Significant differences
Skills	.637**	.594**	.726 < 2.576	Not significant
Variety	.681**	.753**	1.57 < 2.576	Not significant
Learn new	.649**	.596**	.916 < 2.576	Not significant
Challenge	.685**	.698**	.253 < 2.576	Not significant
Resp. -1	.794**	.724**	1.75 < 2.576	Not significant
Resp.-2	.773**	.744**	.716 < 2.576	Not significant

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

7.2.3 Satisfaction with promotion

Table 7.9 presents the frequencies and cumulative percentage of the satisfaction with promotion factor for the Saudi and UK samples. Means and Std. deviations for the two samples are presented in table 7.10.

Table 7.9: Satisfaction with promotion

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Saudi sample	Very satisfied	7	1.7	1.7
	Satisfied	58	14.3	16.0
	Rather satisfied	126	31.0	47.0
	Rather dissatisfied	114	28.1	75.1
	Dissatisfied	67	16.5	91.6
	Very dissatisfied	34	8.4	100%
	Total	406	100%	
UK sample	Very satisfied	12	7.8	7.8
	Satisfied	44	28.6	36.4
	Rather satisfied	36	23.4	59.7
	Rather dissatisfied	31	20.1	79.9
	Dissatisfied	15	9.7	89.6
	Very dissatisfied	16	10.4	100%
	Total	154	100%	

Table 7.10: Means and Std. Deviation for the satisfaction with promotion

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Saudi sample	3.68	1.20
UK sample	3.27	1.44

One of the research questions under consideration in this study is: Is there a significant difference in satisfaction with promotion between the Saudi and UK samples? A t-test suggests that there is a statistically significant difference in the average of satisfaction with promotion between the two samples. Table 7.11 reports the results of the t-test. Table 7.9 shows that, on average, more UK subjects were satisfied with promotion than Saudi subjects.

Table 7.11: T-Test results based on satisfaction with promotion

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
sat.w.prom 14	Equal variances assumed	9.359	.002	3.482	558	.001	.42	.12	.18	.65
	Equal variances not assumed			3.213	238.372	.001	.42	.13	.16	.68

Satisfaction with promotion was a third factor in this study to be considered in relation to the overall job satisfaction. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of satisfaction to two statements related to the satisfaction with promotion, which are: the opportunity for promotion and the fairness of the promotion system. Table 7.12 shows that the satisfaction with promotion factor has a significant correlation with the two statements in both samples. No differences were found between correlations in the promotion factor at the 1% level. These results mean that the two variables play a major role in forming the overall satisfaction with promotion. Any increase in these two variables is more likely to be accompanied by an increase in the overall satisfaction with promotion. The importance of the two variables is equal in the two samples.

Table 7.12: Satisfaction with promotion correlations and test for significant differences between correlations

Variables	Saudi	UK	Z calculated compared to Z table	Significant differences
App. promotion	.836**	.795**	1.32 < 2.576	Not significant
Fair promotion	.860**	.881**	.950 < 2.576	Not significant

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

7.2.4 Satisfaction with pay

Table 7.13 presents the Saudi and UK subjects' responses to the satisfaction with pay question and table 7.14 presents the means and Std. deviations for the two samples.

Table 7.13: Satisfaction with pay

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Saudi sample	Very satisfied	22	5.4	5.4
	Satisfied	165	40.6	46.1
	Rather satisfied	97	23.9	70.0
	Rather dissatisfied	69	17.0	86.9
	Dissatisfied	42	10.3	97.3
	Very dissatisfied	11	2.7	100%
	Total	406	100%	
UK sample	Very satisfied	11	7.1	7.1
	Satisfied	53	34.4	41.6
	Rather satisfied	46	29.9	71.4
	Rather dissatisfied	22	14.3	85.7
	Dissatisfied	12	7.8	93.5
	Very dissatisfied	10	6.5	100%
	Total	154	100%	

Table 7.14: Means and Std. Deviation for the satisfaction with pay

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Saudi sample	2.94	1.20
UK sample	3.01	1.30

One of the questions this study is investigating is: Is there a significant difference in satisfaction with pay between the Saudi and UK samples? The independent samples t-test that was conducted said no. Table 7.15 presents the results of the t-test. We observed no statistically significant

difference on the satisfaction with pay factor. This means that, on average, subjects on both samples were similar in their responses.

Table 7.15: T-Test results based on satisfaction with pay

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
sat.w.pay 20	Equal variances assumed	.007	.933	-.542	558	.588	-6.31E-02	.12	-.29	.17
	Equal variances not assumed			-.525	259.188	.600	-6.31E-02	.12	-.30	.17

Satisfaction with pay was the fourth factor in this study to be considered in relation to the overall job satisfaction. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of satisfaction to five statements related to the satisfaction with pay, which are: pay in relation to the cost of living (pay1), pay in relation to the work one does (pay2), pay compared to expectations when joining the organisation (pay3), pay compared to others’ pay holding similar positions in the organisation (pay4), and pay compared to others’ pay in different organisations (pay5). Table 7.16 shows that the satisfaction with pay has a significant correlation with all the five statements in both samples. A significant difference was found in the pay2 correlation at the 1% level, but no significant difference in all other correlations.

These results demonstrate that these variables co-vary with the satisfaction with pay. A high satisfaction with these variables is more likely to lead to a high satisfaction with pay in both samples. Results also demonstrated that these variables will significantly have the same effect in the overall satisfaction with pay in the two samples except the satisfaction with pay in relation to one does, which may have a higher effect in the UK sample than in the Saudi sample.

Table 7.16: Satisfaction with pay correlations and test for significant differences between correlations

Variables	Saudi	UK	Z calculated compared to Z table	Significant differences
Pay1	.779**	.848**	2.21 < 2.576	Not significant
Pay2	.854**	.911**	2.76 > 2.576	Significant
Pay3	.833**	.830**	0.11 < 2.576	Not significant
Pay4	.812**	.792**	0.58 < 2.576	Not significant
Pay5	.801**	.853**	1.79 < 2.576	Not significant

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

7.2.5 Satisfaction with Supervision

Table 7.17 shows the frequencies and cumulative percentage of the Saudi and UK samples regarding the satisfaction with supervision factor. The means and the Std. deviations are presented in table 7.18 for the two samples.

Table 7.17: Satisfaction with supervision

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Saudi sample	Very satisfied	69	17.0	17.0
	Satisfied	182	44.8	61.8
	Rather satisfied	113	27.8	89.7
	Rather dissatisfied	35	8.6	98.3
	Dissatisfied	4	1.0	99.3
	Very dissatisfied	3	.7	100.0
	Total	406	100.0	
UK sample	Very satisfied	27	17.5	17.5
	Satisfied	41	26.6	44.2
	Rather satisfied	46	29.9	74.0
	Rather dissatisfied	25	16.2	90.3
	Dissatisfied	9	5.8	96.1
	Very dissatisfied	6	3.9	100.0
	Total	154	100.0	

Table 7.18: Means and Std. Deviation for the satisfaction with supervision

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Saudi sample	2.34	0.99
UK sample	2.78	1.29

One of the questions this study is trying to answer is: Is there a significant difference in the average satisfaction with supervision between the two samples? Table 7.19 presents the results of a t-test. We observed a statistically significant difference in the average of satisfaction with supervision between the two samples.

Table 7.19: T-Test results based on satisfaction with supervision

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
sat.w.sup 26	Equal variances assumed	22.516	.000	-4.420	558	.000	-.44	9.94E-02	-.63	-.24
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.843	217.243	.000	-.44	.11	-.66	-.21

Satisfaction with supervision was the fifth factor in this study to be considered in relation to the overall job satisfaction. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of satisfaction to five statements related to the satisfaction with supervision factor, which are: the competence of the supervisor in making decisions, the supervisor’s delegation and responsibilities, the feedback you get from your supervisor, the personal relations with the supervisor, and the help you get from the supervisor.

Table 7.20 shows that the satisfaction with supervision has a significant correlation with all the five variables in both samples. All correlations are significantly different at the 1% level except the relation correlation. The positive correlation between the overall satisfaction with supervision and the five variables indicates that any increase in any variable, or all of them, an increase in the overall satisfaction with supervision is highly expected. Results also demonstrated that the five variables had different effects in the two samples in shaping the satisfaction with supervision

except the satisfaction with the personal relations one has with the supervisor had a similar effect in the two samples.

Table 7.20: Satisfaction with supervision correlations and test for significant differences between correlations

Variables	Saudi	UK	Z calculated compared to Z table	Significant differences
Competence	.824**	.657**	4 > 2.576	Significant
Delegation	.827**	.570**	5.6 > 2.576	Significant
Feedback	.851**	.716**	3.79 > 2.576	Significant
Relation	.786**	.769**	.432 < 2.576	Not significant
Help	.816**	.910**	4 > 2.576	Significant

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

7.2.6 Satisfaction with recognition

Table 7.21 presents the subjects of the Saudi and UK samples responses to the satisfaction with recognition factor and table 7.22 presents the means and std. deviations for the two samples.

Table 7.21: Satisfaction with Recognition

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Saudi sample	Very satisfied	13	3.2	3.2
	Satisfied	150	36.9	40.1
	Rather satisfied	170	41.9	82.0
	Rather dissatisfied	45	11.1	93.1
	Dissatisfied	15	3.7	96.8
	Very dissatisfied	13	3.2	100.0
	Total	406	100.0	
UK sample	Very satisfied	6	3.9	3.9
	Satisfied	60	39.0	42.9
	Rather satisfied	41	26.6	69.5
	Rather dissatisfied	27	17.5	87.0
	Dissatisfied	11	7.1	94.2
	Very dissatisfied	9	5.8	100.0
	Total	154	100.0	

Table 7.22: Means and Std. Deviation for the satisfaction with recognition

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Saudi sample	2.85	1.01
UK sample	3.03	1.24

Another research question this study is trying to answer is: Is there a significant difference in the satisfaction with recognition between the two samples? The results of the t-test as it shown in table 7.23 say that there is no statistically significant difference in the satisfaction with recognition between the Saudi and UK subjects.

Table 7.23: T-Test results based on satisfaction with recognition

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
sat.w.rec 31	Equal variances assumed	11.434	.001	-1.749	558	.081	-.18	.10	-.38	2.20E-02
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.596	234.146	.112	-.18	.11	-.40	4.19E-02

Satisfaction with recognition was the sixth and last factor in this study to be considered in relation to the overall job satisfaction. Respondents were asked to indicate their satisfaction with four statements related to the satisfaction with recognition, which are: the financial recognition from top management, the praise from top management, the praise from the supervisor and the praise from the colleagues. Table 7.24 shows that satisfaction with recognition has a significant correlation with all of the four statements in both the Saudi and the UK samples. All correlations are not significantly different at the 1% level. These results demonstrate that these variables co-vary with the satisfaction with recognition. A high satisfaction with these variables is more likely to lead to a high satisfaction with recognition in both samples. Results also demonstrated that these variables will significantly have the same effect in the overall satisfaction with recognition in the two samples.

Table 7.24: Satisfaction with recognition correlations and test for significant differences between correlations

Variables	Saudi	UK	Z calculated compared to Z table	Significant differences
F.recog	.549**	.559**	0.116 < 2.576	Not significant
Praise-1	.663**	.736**	1.50 < 2.576	Not significant
Praise-2	.653**	.838**	0.43 < 2.576	Not significant
Praise-3	.607**	.651**	0.80 < 2.576	Not significant

**** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).**

7.2.7 Whole Satisfaction

Table 7.25 presents the frequencies and cumulative percentage of the job satisfaction factor. The means and Std. deviations for the whole satisfaction factor for the Saudi sample and the UK samples are presented in table 7.26.

Table 7.25: Whole satisfaction

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Saudi sample	Very satisfied	45	11.1	11.1
	Satisfied	193	47.5	58.6
	Rather satisfied	92	22.7	81.3
	Rather dissatisfied	49	12.1	93.3
	Dissatisfied	18	4.4	97.8
	Very dissatisfied	9	2.2	100.0
	Total	406	100.0	
UK sample	Very satisfied	16	10.4	10.4
	Satisfied	78	50.6	61.0
	Rather satisfied	35	22.7	83.8
	Rather dissatisfied	15	9.7	93.5
	Dissatisfied	6	3.9	97.4
	Very dissatisfied	4	2.6	100.0
	Total	154	100.0	

Table 7.26: Means and Std. Deviation for the satisfaction with the whole job satisfaction

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Saudi sample	2.58	1.11
UK sample	2.54	1.10

One of the research questions under consideration in the present study is: Is there a significant difference on the whole satisfaction between the Saudi and the UK samples? The results of the t-test in table 7.27 indicate that there is no statistically significant difference in the average of the whole satisfaction between the two samples.

Table 7.27: T-Test results based on satisfaction with whole satisfaction

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
wholesat 32	Equal vanances assumed	.306	.580	.379	558	.704	3.99E-02	.11	-.17	.25
	Equal variances not assumed			.382	279.919	.703	3.99E-02	.10	-.17	.25

Another research question under consideration in this study is to find out if there are any differences in the importance of job factors for managers in the two different cultures. Table 7.28 presents the correlations between the overall satisfaction and job facets along with *r* squares for the two samples. Significant correlations were found between all job facets and overall job satisfaction in the two samples. R squares indicate that co-worker, promotion, and recognition were found to explain more the variability in the relationship with the overall satisfaction in the UK sample than in the Saudi sample; pointing out that managers in the UK sample may value these factors more than the Saudi managers. On the other hand, factors like work itself, pay, and supervision may be valued more by the Saudi managers.

Table 7.28: Overall satisfaction correlation with the six factors in the two samples

Variables	Saudi (r)	Saudi r square	UK (r)	UK r square
Co-worker	.333**	0.111	.417**	0.174
Work itself	.766**	0.587	.696**	0.484
Promotion	.654**	0.428	.663**	0.440
Pay	.692**	0.479	.590**	0.350
Supervisor	.619**	0.383	.434**	0.188
Recognition	.709**	0.503	.733**	0.537

**** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).**

7.3 Consequences of the Level Job Satisfaction

The consequences of job satisfaction are one of the topics that attracted researchers. In the literature review, we talked about some of these consequences such as turnover, absenteeism and resigning from jobs. To evaluate the impact of the degree of job satisfaction on some behaviour, subjects were asked in this study to indicate their agreement and disagreement with some statements. Each statement was measured by a six-item scale. Respondents indicate their degree of agreement by selecting the most appropriate answer to their feelings as: “Strongly agree (6), agree (5), rather agree (4), rather disagree (3), disagree (2) and strongly disagree (1).”

The first statement subjects were presented with was “I am thinking of finding a job outside this organisation”. A Pearson Correlation Test was conducted to test the relationship between the level of job satisfaction and subjects’ responses to the first statement. The findings suggest that there is a significant strong relationship between the level of job satisfaction and subjects’ responses. In the Saudi sample, $r=0.763$ and $r=0.618$ in the UK sample. This means that, in this study, there is a significant strong relationship between a high level of job satisfaction and a strong disagreement to thinking of finding a job outside the organisation.

The second statement was “I am thinking of resigning from my job”. In the Saudi sample $r=0.610$ and $r=0.485$ in the UK sample. This means that there is a significant strong relationship in the Saudi sample and a moderately strong relationship in the UK sample between the high level of job satisfaction and a strong disagreement from resigning from work.

The third statement was: “I hate going to work”. Since $r=0.500$ in the Saudi sample and $r=0.553$ in the UK sample, this means that there is a significant moderately strong relationship between the high level of job satisfaction and high disagreement of the above statement.

The last statement was “I feel happy when I am at work”. This statement has a reverse scoring given (1) to strongly agree and (6) to strongly disagree. The findings suggest that there is a positive correlation between the level of satisfaction and happiness at work. The correlation coefficient (r) = 0.595 in the Saudi sample and (r) = 0.644 in the UK sample means, in this study, that there is a significant moderately strong relationship in the Saudi sample and significant strong relationship in the UK sample between the high level of job satisfaction and strong agreement with happiness at work.

Table 7.29 presents the test for significant difference between correlations. There is a significant difference at the 1% level in the “finding a job outside the organisation” correlation; all other correlations are not significantly different at the 1% level.

Table 7.29: Test for significant differences between correlations for consequences of the level of job satisfaction

Correlation	Z calculated compared to Z table	Result
Finding a job outside the organisation	2.96 > 2.576	Significant
Resigning from job	1.88 < 2.576	Not significant
Hate going to work	0.77 < 2.576	Not significant
Feel happy when I am at work	0.842 < 2.576	Not significant

7.4 Motivational Needs

This section includes a descriptive analysis of the strengths of the four motivational needs for the participating subjects. Frequencies, percents, cumulative percentage, means and Std. deviations for each group will be provided. Norms for each of the need’s strength are as follows : 6 = very low need strength, 5 = low need strength, 4 = rather low needs strength, 3 = rather high need strength, 2 = high need strength and 1 = very high need strength. T-test results will also be presented in this section to try to answer the research questions regarding the significant

differences of the average strength of each motivational need between the Saudi and UK samples. Hypotheses regarding the relationship of the motivational needs and job satisfaction will be tested in the hypotheses testing section (section 7.6). Further discussion of results will be presented in following chapter (section 8.3).

7.4.1 The need for achievement

Table 7.30 presents the frequencies, percents, and cumulative percentage of the strength of the need for achievements for subjects in the two samples. Table 7.31 provides the means and Std. deviations for the two groups.

Table 7.30: Frequencies and percentages of the need for achievement

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Saudi sample	Very high	160	49.4	39.9
	High	193	47.5	86.9
	Rather high	53	13.1	100%
	Total	406	100%	
UK sample	Very high	32	20.8	20.8
	High	65	42.2	63.0
	Rather high	51	33.1	96.1
	Rather low	6	3.9	100%
	Total	154	100%	

Table 7.31: Means and Std. deviations for the need for achievement

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Saudi sample	1.74	0.675
UK sample	2.20	0.812

Table 7.30 shows that 86.9% or more from the Saudi subjects have a high need for achievement or more, while 63% of the UK subjects have a high need for achievement or more. One of the research questions under consideration in this study is: Is there a significant difference in the average need for achievement between the two groups? An independent sample t-test was conducted; results are presented in table 7.32. Results show that there is a statistically significant

difference in the average need for achievement between the Saudi sample and the UK sample.

Table 7.31 shows that, on average, Saudi subjects have a higher need for achievement than UK subjects.

Table 7.32: T-test results based on the need for achievement

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
N.ach 37	Equal variances assumed	6.144	.013	-6.866	558	.000	-.46	6.77E-02	-.60	-.33
	Equal variances not assumed			-6.326	237.784	.000	-.46	7.35E-02	-.61	-.32

7.4.2 The need for affiliation

Frequencies and percentages for the two samples regarding the need for affiliation are presented in table 7.33, and table 7.34 provides the means and Std. deviations.

Table 7.33: Frequencies and percentages for the need for affiliation

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Saudi sample	Very high	10	2.5	2.5
	High	28	6.9	9.4
	Rather high	191	47.0	56.4
	Rather low	167	41.1	97.5
	Low	10	2.5	100%
	Total	406	100%	
UK sample	High	18	11.7	11.7
	Rather high	67	43.5	55.2
	Rather low	66	42.9	98.1
	Low	3	1.9	100%
	Total	154	100%	

Table 7.34: Means and Std. deviations for the need for affiliation

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Saudi sample	3.34	0.749
UK sample	3.35	0.710

Table 7.33 shows that more than half the subjects in both samples have a rather high need for affiliation or more. The averages for the need for affiliations in the two groups are almost the same as table 7.34 shows. Another research question under consideration in this study regarding the motivational needs is: Is there a significant difference on the average need for affiliation between the two samples? T-test results presented in table 7.35 show no significant differences between the two samples.

Table 7.35: T-test results based on the need for affiliation

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
N.aff 38	Equal variances assumed	.002	.961	-.119	558	.906	-8.28E-03	6.99E-02	-.15	.13
	Equal variances not assumed			-.121	290.150	.903	-8.28E-03	6.82E-02	-.14	.13

7.4.3 The need for autonomy

In table 7.36, frequencies and percentages of the need for autonomy for the two groups are provided. Table 7.37 provides the means and Std. deviations.

Table 7.36: Frequencies and percentages for the need for autonomy

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Saudi sample	Very high	10	2.5	2.5
	High	22	5.4	7.9
	Rather high	101	24.9	32.8
	Rather low	182	44.8	77.6
	Low	91	22.4	100%
	Total	406	100%	
UK sample	High	2	1.3	1.3
	Rather high	30	19.5	20.8
	Rather low	80	51.9	72.7
	Low	38	24.7	97.4
	Very low	4	2.6	100%
	Total	154	100%	

Table 7.37: Means and Std. deviations for the need for autonomy

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Saudi sample	3.79	0.933
UK sample	4.08	0.771

Table 7.36 shows that the majority of the subjects in the two samples have a rather low need for autonomy, 44.8% of the Saudi subjects and 51.9% of the UK subjects. 32.8% of the Saudi subjects have rather high need for autonomy or higher compared to 20.8% of the UK subjects.

One of the questions this study is investigating is: Is there a significant difference on the average need for autonomy between the Saudi and UK samples? Table 7.38 presents the results of a t-test conducted to investigate this issue and the results show that there is a significant difference between the two samples.

Table 7.38: T-test results based on the need for autonomy

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
N.aut 39	Equal variances assumed	10.084	.002	-3.375	558	.001	-.28	8.44E-02	-.45	-.12
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.674	331.354	.000	-.28	7.75E-02	-.44	-.13

7.4.4 The need for dominance

Table 7.39 presents the frequencies and percentages of the need for dominance for subjects in the Saudi and UK samples. Table 7.40 provides the means and Std. deviations for the two groups.

Table 7.39: Frequencies and percentages for the need for dominance

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Saudi sample	Very high	15	3.7	3.7
	High	81	20.0	23.6
	Rather high	191	47.0	70.7
	Rather low	103	25.4	96.1
	Low	16	3.9	100%
	Total	406	100%	
UK sample	Very high	18	11.7	11.7
	High	48	31.2	42.9
	Rather high	58	37.7	80.5
	Rather low	25	16.2	96.8
	Low	5	3.2	100%
	Total	154	100%	

Table 7.40: Means and Std. deviations for the need for dominance

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Saudi sample	3.06	0.870
UK sample	2.68	0.988

The majorities of subjects of the two groups fall in the rather high category, 47% of the Saudi and 37.7% of the UK subjects. While there are 80.5% of the UK subjects having a rather high need for dominance or higher, there are only 70.7% of the Saudi subjects. A difference in means is noticeable in table 7.40. Another research question under consideration in this study regarding the motivational needs is: Is there a significant difference in the average need for dominance between the two samples? T-test results presented in table 7.41 show a significant difference between the two samples.

Table 7.41: T-test results based on the need for dominance

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
N.dom 40	Equal variances assumed	11.471	.001	4.410	558	.000	.38	8.56E-02	.21	.55
	Equal variances not assumed			4.165	248.099	.000	.38	9.06E-02	.20	.56

Table 7.42 presents the test for significant difference between correlations of whole job satisfaction and the four motivational needs. There is no significant difference at the 1% level.

Table 7.42: Test for significant differences between correlations

	N. Ach.	N. Aff.	N. Aut.	N. Dom.
Whole satisfaction	Not Significant	Not Significant	Not Significant	Not Significant

7.5 Job Satisfaction and the Demographic Variables

In this section the results of the relationship between job satisfaction and the demographic variables are presented. To test the direction and strength of such relationships, the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation (r) was used. Table 7.43 provides us with the results for the two samples plus tests for significant difference between correlations. There is a significant difference at the 1% level in the annual salary, education, and number of dependents factors. All other correlations are not significantly different at the 1% level.

Table 7.43: Test for significant differences between correlations

Variables	Saudi	UK	Z calculated compared to Z table	Result
Age	.249**	.041	2.24 < 2.576	Not significant
Annual salary	.452**	.105	4.10 > 2.576	Significant
Same job	.073	.042	0.33 < 2.576	Not significant
Same org	.178**	.091	0.94 < 2.576	Not significant
Education	.154**	-.194*	3.75 > 2.576	Significant
Dependents	.254**	-.117	3.97 > 2.576	Significant

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2 – tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2 – tailed).

The results indicate a positive significant moderately weak relationship between age and job satisfaction for the Saudi sample. A non-significant positive very weak relationship is shown for the UK sample.

The age categories, as mentioned in section 6.6.4, are as follow:

The age Categories	Up to 30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61 or more
The code	5	4	3	2	1

Job satisfaction varies from 1 = very satisfied to 6 = very dissatisfied. Looking at figure 1 which presents the scatter of job satisfaction and age for the Saudi sample, one cannot decide exactly what shape the relationship between age and job satisfaction is. Table 7.43 showed that job satisfaction and age has a significant positive moderately weak relationship, and figure 7.1 shows that all managers who are 50 yeas of age or above are either satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs. This may give an indication for a positive pattern.

Figure 7.1: Scatter of job satisfaction and age for the Saudi sample

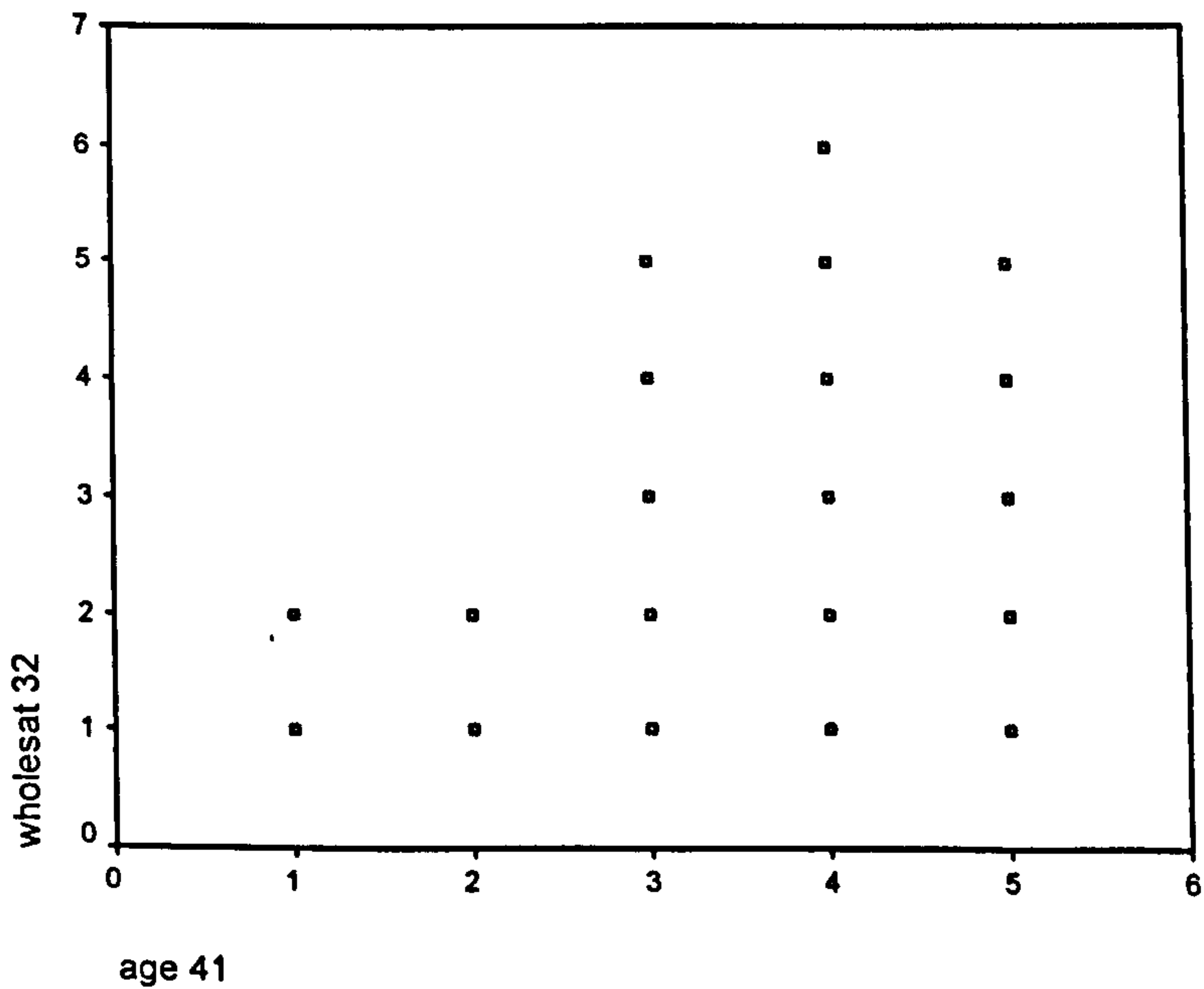
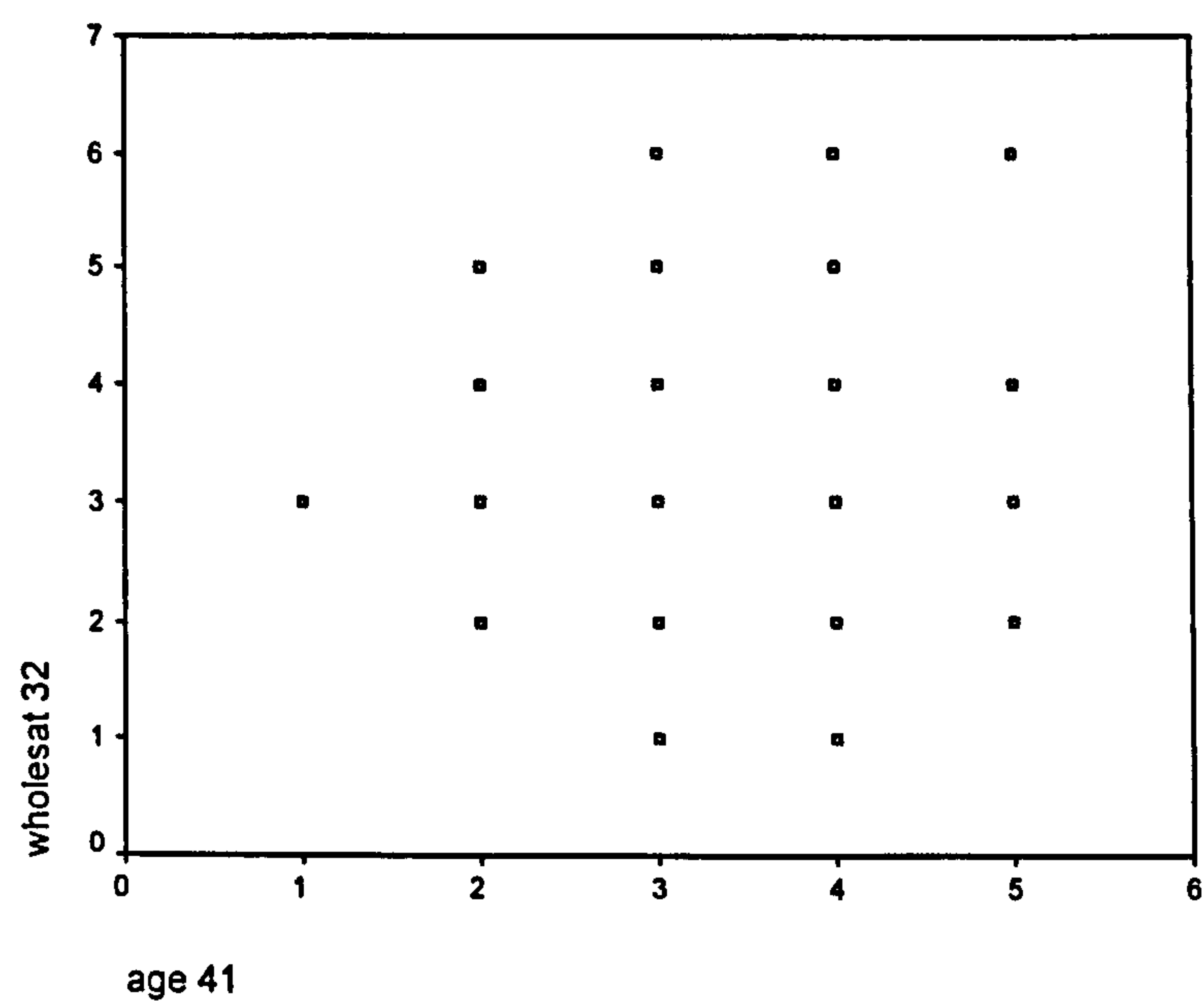


Figure 7.2 presents the scatter of job satisfaction and age for the UK sample. No clear pattern can be detected from this relationship. This ambiguous pattern is presented in the non-significant very weak correlation between age and job satisfaction in the UK sample.

Figure 7.2: Scatter of job satisfaction and age for the UK sample



Annual salary has a significant positive moderately strong relationship with job satisfaction in the Saudi sample. On the other hand, it has a very weak positive non-significant relationship in the UK sample.

The length of service in the current job for managers in both samples has a very weak relationship with job satisfaction. Job satisfaction correlates positively with the number of years working for the current organisation in the Saudi sample. The relationship between the two variables is significant but very weak. In the UK sample, the relationship between the two variables is a positive, non-significant very weak relationship.

Education correlates positively with job satisfaction in the Saudi sample, and it is a very weak but significant relationship. Education, on the other hand, correlates negatively with job satisfaction in the UK sample. This relationship is significant and also considered as a very weak relationship.

In the Saudi sample, the number of dependants has a positive, significant moderately weak relationship with job satisfaction. The relationship between the two variables in the UK sample is a negative, non-significant very weak relationship.

7.6 Testing the Hypotheses

The basic theme of the hypotheses was to examine whether there is an association between the whole satisfaction with factors associated with job satisfaction which had been clarified previously. There have been several studies conducted in the West which have revealed the association but no such study has taken place in the private sector in Saudi Arabia. The researcher is intending to demonstrate whether Western theories are applicable to a developing country like Saudi Arabia despite the differences of cultural values, beliefs and standard of living.

Hypothesis One:

- H There is a significant relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with the work group and the whole job satisfaction.
- Ho There is no significant relationship between the respondent's satisfaction the with work group and the whole job satisfaction.

A Pearson Correlation Coefficient was performed and it was found that $r = 0.333$ for the Saudi sample and $r = 0.417$ for the UK sample. Both were significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Therefore, the null hypothesis that there is no significant relationship was rejected.

Hypothesis Two:

H There is a significant relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with work itself and the whole job satisfaction.

Ho There is no significant relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with work itself and the whole job satisfaction.

A Pearson Correlation was conducted and it was found that $r = 0.766$ for the Saudi sample and $r = 0.696$ for the UK sample. Both were significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). Therefore, the null hypothesis that there is no significant relationship was rejected.

Hypothesis Three:

H There is a significant relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with promotion and the whole job satisfaction.

Ho There is no significant relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with promotion and the whole job satisfaction.

A Pearson Correlation was performed and it was found that $r = 0.654$ for the Saudi sample and $r = 0.663$ for the UK sample. Both were significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). Therefore, the null hypothesis that there is no significant relationship was rejected.

Hypothesis Four:

- H There is a significant relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with pay and the whole job satisfaction.
- H₀ There is no significant relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with pay and the whole job satisfaction.

A Pearson Correlation was conducted and it was found that $r = 0.692$ for the Saudi sample and $r = 0.590$ for the UK sample. Both were significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). Therefore, the null hypothesis that there is no significant relationship was rejected.

Hypothesis Five:

- H There is a significant relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with supervision and the whole job satisfaction.
- H₀ There is no significant relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with supervision and the whole job satisfaction.

A Pearson Correlation was performed and it was found that $r = 0.619$ for the Saudi sample and $r = 0.434$ for the UK sample. Both were significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). Therefore, the null hypothesis that there is no significant relationship was rejected.

Hypothesis Six:

- H There is a significant relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with recognition and the whole job satisfaction.

Ho There is no significant relationship between the respondent's satisfaction with recognition and the whole job satisfaction.

A Pearson Correlation was performed and it was found that $r=0.709$ for the Saudi sample and $r=0.733$ for the UK sample. Both were significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). Therefore, the null hypothesis that there is no relationship was rejected.

Hypothesis Seven:

H There is a significant positive relationship between the need for achievement and job satisfaction of managers in the two samples.

Ho There is no significant positive relationship between the need for achievement and job satisfaction of managers in the two samples.

This hypothesis was tested correlating the degree of need for achievement and the whole job satisfaction for managers in the two samples. A Pearson Correlation was performed and it was found that $r = -0.092$ for the Saudi sample and $r = 0.002$ for the UK sample. Both were non significant and the correlation in the Saudi sample is negative as the sign indicates. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there is no significant relationship was accepted.

Hypothesis Eight:

H There is a significant positive relationship between the need for affiliation and job satisfaction of managers in the two samples.

Ho There is no significant positive relationship between the need for affiliation and job satisfaction of managers in the two samples.

A Pearson Correlation was performed to test this hypothesis and it was found that $r = 0.040$ for the Saudi sample and $r = -0.001$ for the UK sample. Both were non significant and the correlation in the UK sample is negative as the sign indicates. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there is no significant relationship was accepted.

Hypothesis Nine:

H There is a significant positive relationship between the need for autonomy and job satisfaction of managers in the two samples.

H₀ There is no significant positive relationship between the need for autonomy and job satisfaction of managers in the two samples.

This hypothesis was tested using a Pearson Correlation and it was found that $r = -0.134$ for the Saudi sample and $r = -0.065$ for the UK sample. Only the correlation in the Saudi sample was significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed) but negative as the sign indicates. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there is no significant positive relationship was accepted.

Hypothesis Ten:

H There is a significant positive relationship between the need for dominance and job satisfaction of managers in the two samples.

H₀ There is no significant positive relationship between the need for dominance and job satisfaction of managers in the two samples.

A Pearson Correlation and was conducted to test this hypothesis and it was found that $r = -0.168$ for the Saudi sample and $r = -0.004$ for the UK sample. Only the correlation in the Saudi sample was significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed) and both correlations were negative as the signs

indicate. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there is no significant positive relationship was accepted.

7.7 Summary

Job satisfaction findings were presented in this chapter. Significant differences were found between the Saudi and UK samples in the average satisfaction with work groups, average satisfaction with work itself, average satisfaction with promotion, average satisfaction with supervision. No significant differences were found between the two groups in the average satisfaction with pay, average satisfaction with recognition, and the average of the whole satisfaction.

Consequences of the level of job satisfaction were investigated in this chapter. The findings correspond with several previous findings reported in the literature review which stress that satisfaction with the job accompanied favourable consequences and vice versa.

Job satisfaction relations to motivation needs were investigated in this chapter. It was found that job satisfaction has a very weak relationship with the four motivation needs in the two samples, rolling out motivation needs as an important factor in determining the level of satisfaction for the managers surveyed in this study. Demographic variable and its relationships to job satisfaction in both samples were also presented in this chapter. Hypotheses of this research were tested and results were presented.

Chapter Eight:
Discussion, Conclusion and Recommendations for Future Research

8.1 Introduction

Six main themes emerge from the findings of this study. The first theme is that the factor structures are the same for the two cultures. The second theme is that the four motivation needs did not play a major role in determining job satisfaction in the two cultures. The third theme is that consequences of the level of job satisfaction are the same in the two cultures. The fourth theme is that similar variables affect job satisfaction in the two cultures but with different strengths. The fifth theme is that demographic variables correlate slightly differently in the two cultures. The sixth theme is that the findings of this study are consistent with cross-cultural studies of job satisfaction.

This chapter is presented in three sections. The first section will be devoted to discussion of the six themes. The second section will draw conclusions based on the findings of the study. In the third section, recommendations are made for future studies.

8.2 Factor Analysis

The primary purpose of factor analysis is to define the underlying structure in a data matrix (Hair et al, 1998). An exploratory factor analysis was utilised in this research to search for structure among job satisfaction variables. Factor analysis gave us similar structure in the two samples. The two sets of factors contain exactly the same items, suggesting that using the items in this survey, managers in the two countries conceptualise job satisfaction components in the same way.

This finding suggests that Saudi managers, to some extent, have adopted Western values. These results are fairly consistent with the traditionalism or modernity values structure proposed by Barrett and Bass (1976). According to this values structure, the more the country is open to

Western nations, the more likely individuals from the developing world are to take on Western values. In Saudi Arabia, Western work theories are taught in universities, multinational companies have existed in Saudi Arabia for a long time, business and trade with Western nations have been established for decades, and overseas training is one approach that many companies use to train employees. All these factors helped Saudi managers to imbibe Western values and thoughts about jobs. This is clear in this study when factor analysis gave us similar structure in the two samples.

8.3 Motivation Needs and Job Satisfaction

The needs for achievement, dominance, autonomy, and affiliation have been given considerable attention as possible determinants of person-occupation fit. In spite of some methodological concerns, it has been shown empirically that levels of these needs predict job satisfaction in a number of occupations, particularly management (Chusmir, 1985; House, 1988; McClelland & Boyatzis, 1982; Medcof, 1985, 1990; Medcof & Wegner, 1992).

Results regarding the need for achievement showed that managers in Saudi Arabia have a profile that is high in need for achievement, which is consistent with Yasin and Stahl (1990) findings. Managers in the UK have a rather high profile. T-test results showed that, on average, the two groups are statistically different in the strength of the need for achievement. The need for achievement was found in this study to have no significant relationship with job satisfaction in the Saudi sample and in the UK sample, which did not support hypothesis seven. These results are inconsistent with what has been found in the literature such as Etuk (1980), Obi (1981), and Yasin and Stahl (1990). Based on this finding, it can be concluded that the need for achievement is not an important element to be considered when evaluating job satisfaction for managers surveyed in this study.

The majority of the subjects in both samples had a rather high need for affiliation as results in chapter 7 showed. No significance differences were found in the average need for affiliation between the two groups indicating a similarity between the two samples. It was also found in this study that job satisfaction has no significant relationship with the need for affiliation in the Saudi and the UK sample. These results are incompatible with the literature (e.g., Etuk 1980; Nkereuwem, 1992). So, based on the findings, it can be concluded that the need for affiliation is not an important element in the job satisfaction of the managers surveyed in this study and that increasing the need for affiliation for subjects surveyed in this research may not lead to an increase in job satisfaction.

While the majority of the subjects in the two samples have a rather low need for autonomy, 32.8% of the Saudi subjects have rather high need for autonomy or higher compared to 20.8% of the UK subjects. Differences in the means are noticeable between the two samples. T-test results statistically confirm these differences. A very weak, negative relationship was found in this study between job satisfaction and the need for autonomy in the Saudi sample, but no relationship was found in the UK sample. These results are in conflict with what has been reported in the literature such as Etuk (1980), Obi (1981), and Nkereuwem (1992). Based on these findings, it can be concluded that the need for autonomy does not play a major role in managers' job satisfaction surveyed in this study.

Results regarding the need for dominance showed that managers in Saudi Arabia have a profile that is high in need for dominance, which is consistent with Yasin and Stahl (1990) findings. Managers in the UK also have a high profile. A difference in means is noticeable between the two groups. This difference was statistically confirmed by t-test. The need for dominance was found in this study to have a significant but very weak, negative relationship with job satisfaction

in the Saudi sample, and none for the UK sample. These results are incompatible with what has been found in the literature (e.g., Etuk 1980, Parker and Chusmir 1991). These findings suggest that increase in the need for dominance for managers surveyed in this study may not lead to greater job satisfaction. Based on these findings, it can be concluded that the need for dominance is not an important element to be considered when evaluating job satisfaction for managers surveyed in this study.

8.4 The Consequences of the Level of Job Satisfaction

The consequences of the level of job satisfaction are one of the topics that have been investigated in this study. Absenteeism and staff turnover are areas on which attention is focused in this subject. Absenteeism and turnover often viewed as reaction to noxious work environments (Bartel, 1979; Gupta & Jenkins, 1991). Nicholson et al (1977) in a review of 29 studies concluded that job satisfaction and absence from work are tenuously related. On the contrary, Shaw and Gupta (2001) found that job satisfaction significantly predict job search intention and absenteeism. Eby et al (1999) and Nagy (2002) found a significant, negative relation between job satisfaction and turnover. Oliver (1998) imposed an ability to secure employment elsewhere for the negative relation between job satisfaction and turnover. Branch (1998) and Tello & Greene (1996) have asserted that it is not only money that makes employees happy and stay in the organisation, there are other things like job satisfaction and the ability to balance life and work. All studies reported in the literature review support the notion that satisfaction with the job accompanied favourable consequences and vice versa.

The findings of this study support the notion that the level of job satisfaction has an effect on an employee's attitude towards the job and the organisation. Job satisfaction was found to have a strong positive correlation with the disagreement of thinking to find a job outside the

organisation, disagreement of resigning from work, disagreement of hating to go to work, and the agreement of feeling of happiness while at work in both samples.

Tests for significant differences between correlations in the two samples were conducted in the last chapter. No differences were found except correlation between job satisfaction and thinking of finding a job outside the organisation. Saudi managers scored significantly higher than UK managers. Saudi managers may have more jobs openings in the labour market than the UK managers so that the Saudis are more sensitive to job dissatisfactions than UKs.

These findings demonstrate the resemblance of the importance of job satisfaction and the impact that it has on employees' attitudes and behaviour towards their jobs and organisations in the two different cultures.

The findings of this study correspond with previous findings reported in the literature review which stressed that satisfaction with the job accompanied favourable consequences and vice versa.

8.5 Discussion of Job Satisfaction

Results for overall job satisfaction and job satisfaction factors of both the Saudi and UK samples revealed interesting information in terms of their relationships. At a job facet level, although there are differences in the average satisfaction with some job facet (co-worker, work itself, promotion, and supervision), both samples show a correlation between job facet and variables associated with it. Differences in the strength of the correlation do exist between the two samples.

Again, when correlating job facets satisfaction and overall job satisfaction, a strong correlation between a job facet and overall job satisfaction was shown in each sample, but with different strengths. The rest of this section will be devoted to discussing job satisfaction results.

8.5.1 Satisfaction with work group

Satisfaction with the work group was the first factor in this study to be considered in relation to overall job satisfaction. This study suggests that personal and work relations are highly related to the satisfaction with the work group. It is self-evident that people have social characteristics, and they enjoy being with others. Maslow (1970) considers this need as one of the third category “the social needs”. In this category, Maslow meant the need for belonging and love that employees pursue to be fulfilled; which draws attention to the importance of interpersonal relations and socialisation on the overall job satisfaction (Armstrong, 1996). Leppa (1996) stated that interpersonal relations are an important part of job satisfaction.

This study proved that the personal and work relations a respondent has in the work place contribute significantly to his satisfaction with co-workers. It was found that the overall satisfaction with co-workers correlates significantly in both samples with the variables associated with this factor in this study. However, tests for significant differences between correlations showed that Saudi managers scored significantly higher than UK managers in the personal relation with subordinates variable. This indicates that this variable plays more role in the satisfaction with co-workers in the Saudi sample than in the UK sample.

The findings of this study imply that the variables that have been investigated in this study in relation to the satisfaction with co-workers are good predictors to the satisfaction with the co-worker factor in two different cultures.

8.5.2 Satisfaction with work itself

This factor has been widely discussed by many researchers in this field and considered a major factor in determining job satisfaction (Gruneberg, 1981). The findings of this study indicate that satisfaction with the work itself requires the satisfaction with different aspects of the job such as: the autonomy, the variety of the job. In this study, satisfaction with the variety and the autonomy of the job was found to contribute significantly to the satisfaction with the work itself. Dale et al (1997) and Evans & Lindsay (1996) stated that employee satisfaction can be enhanced if a job incorporates task significance, autonomy, skill variety, task identity, and feedback about performance. The findings of these studies correspond with other previous studies such as: Hackman & Oldham (1976), Hackman & Lawler (1971), Locke (1984), Jaffe et al (1994), and Dodd & Ganster (1996). Locke (1976) added that a job has to have a sense of challenge.

This research finding coincides with the previous research findings. Employee satisfaction with the work itself was found to have strong correlations with all the variables associated with this factor in this study in both samples. The research findings also support the notion which believes that jobs have to be designed to fulfil the human/mental needs of the employees, which will increase the morale and motivation leading to improvement of quality and productivity (Dahlgaard et al, 1998).

It was found in the literature that it is important for managers in low PD cultures (like the UK) to have a great deal of power over work assignments and conditions of work while it less important for managers in high PD (like Saudi Arabia) (Adler, 1997; Cole, 1989). It was found in this study that the responsibility one has in planning one's work and the responsibility one has in doing one's work variables had a significant correlation with the overall satisfaction with work itself. But this significant correlation was stronger in the Saudi sample than in the UK sample, which

means that these two variables explain more of the variability of the relationship in the Saudi sample than in the UK sample (Hinton, 1995; Sekaran, 1992). This is inconsistent with what has been found in the literature.

Also it was reported in the literature that employees in individualistic cultures (such as UK) place more importance on freedom and challenge in their jobs and initiative is usually encouraged in the job, while it is the opposite in a collectivistic culture (such as Saudi Arabia) (Hofstede, 1991). It was found in this study that satisfaction with challenges one faced in doing the job had a stronger correlation with the overall satisfaction with work itself in the UK sample than in the Saudi sample, indicating its importance for managers in the two samples. This result is consistent with Hofstede's report.

Tests for significant differences between correlations in the two samples found no significant differences. One could conclude that managers' perception of the work itself factor is the same in two different cultures. This implies that, significantly, the same variables are good measures for the satisfaction with work itself in two different cultures.

8.5.3 Satisfaction with promotion

Satisfaction with promotion was the third factor in this study to be considered in relation to the overall job satisfaction. Satisfaction with promotion was examined in this study from two angles: the opportunity one has for promotion in one's job, and the fairness of the promotion system in the organisation. It was found in the literature that opportunity for promotion was considered as favoured motivating items by employees (Ahmad, 1989; Quarles, 1994; Vinokur-Kaplan et al, 1994). Fairness issues are important factors in any organisation (Greenberg, 1990). Tyagi (1990) found that inequity in promotion has a negative association with the extrinsic motivator.

The finding of this study corresponds with what been found in the literature. It was found that satisfaction with promotion has strong correlations with satisfaction with the opportunity for promotion in the job and the fairness of the promotion system in the organisation in both samples. Also, no significant differences between correlations were found.

These results imply that managers in the two samples perceive the two variables investigated in this study in relation to promotion in the same way despite the cultural differences.

8.5.4 Satisfaction with pay

Satisfaction with pay was the fourth factor in this study to be considered in relation to overall job satisfaction. Pay is arguably one of the most critical, if not the most critical, outcome of organisational membership for employees (Gupta & Shaw, 1998). The trend of investigating pay has moved from studying actual pay and people's attitude about it towards concentrating on the precursors of different kinds of pay attributes such as pay satisfaction and perception of pay fairness (Shaw & Gupta, 2001). The Equity theory (Adam, 1963) and the Discrepancy theory (Lawler, 1971, 1981) postulate that pay satisfaction is the result of social comparison with respect to relevant referents. Inequity in pay was found to be associated with low pay satisfaction (Carr et al, 1996; Perry, 1993; Summers & DeNisi, 1990; Sweeny, 1990). Employees could have internal or external referents when judging pay fairness.

The findings of this study are in the same domain of those in the literature. Satisfaction with pay in the Saudi and the UK sample was found to correlate significantly with satisfaction with pay compared to the pay of others holding similar positions in the same organisation and in different organisations, pay compared to one's expectation when joining the organisation, and pay in relation to the cost of living in the two samples. However, Saudi managers scored significantly

higher in pay in relation to work one does than UK managers; indicating that Saudis are more sensitive to these variables than UK managers.

From these results, one could conclude that the variables investigated in this study in relation to the satisfaction with pay factor are good predictors for the satisfaction with pay in two different cultures.

8.5.5 Satisfaction with supervision

Satisfaction with supervision was the fifth factor in this study to be considered in relation to overall job satisfaction. Vroom (1964) stated 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 feeling towards their jobs. In the literature, it was found that relationship between supervisors and subordinates, feedback from supervisors, supervisor support, and fair treatment were among the most influential variables to the satisfaction with supervisors (Bruce & Blackburn, 1992; Bettencourt & Brown, 1997; Deluga, 1998; Gerstner & Day, 1997; London & Larsen, 1999).

In this study, the results were consistent with what have been found in the literature. The overall satisfaction with the supervisor correlate strongly with the competence of the supervisor, the delegation of responsibility, the feedback, and the personal relations and the help one gets from one's supervisor in the two samples. However, significant differences between correlations were found in the two samples, which could be due to the respondents' preferences.

It was found in this study that the supervisor's delegation of responsibility to one to do the work had a significant correlation with the overall satisfaction with the supervisor in the two samples

($r = 0.570$ for the UK sample, the lowest amongst the five variables, and $r = 0.827$ for the Saudi sample, the second highest amongst the five variables); then r square is 0.33 for the UK sample and 0.67 for the Saudi sample. This indicates that this variable is more important for managers in the Saudi sample than in the UK sample for overall satisfaction with the supervisor. This result contradicts what has been found in the literature. It was found in the literature that subordinates in low PD countries (like the UK) prefer managers who consult them and delegate responsibility for them to do their work. In high PD countries (like Saudi Arabia), subordinates' preference for a manager's decision-making style polarized between autocratic-paternalistic and majority rule (Hofstede, 1991).

The significant correlations between satisfaction with supervision and the variables associated with it in both samples imply that these variables are good measures of the satisfaction with supervision in two different cultures.

8.5.6 Satisfaction with recognition

Satisfaction with recognition was the sixth and last factor in this study to be considered in relation to the overall job satisfaction. Recognition of a job well done or full appreciation for work done from supervisors and top management is often among the top motivator of employees (Koch, 1990; Stuart, 1992), and involves feedback. Positive feedback follows the principles of the Reinforcement Theory, which states that behaviour is contingent on reinforcement. Examples of positive reinforcement in this context include a thanks letter from top management, a bonus pay, verbal acknowledgement from supervisor or colleagues (Blegen et al, 1992; Knippen & Green, 1990; Steele, 1992).

The findings of this study correspond with what has been found in the literature. It was found that satisfaction with recognition correlate significantly in both samples with the satisfaction with the financial recognition from top management, the satisfaction with praise from top management, the satisfaction with praise from the supervisor, and the satisfaction with praise from colleagues in both samples. No significant differences between correlations were found.

These results imply that managers in both samples seek similar requirements or needs from their organisation regarding the recognition factors.

8.5.7 Overall job satisfaction

Researches on job satisfaction have revealed several job facets or factors that have significant effect on the level of job satisfaction. Six factors were examined in this study in relation to the overall job satisfaction, which are: co-worker (workgroup), work itself, promotion, pay, supervision, and recognition.

In the literature, it was found that satisfaction with the workgroup has a positive impact on the level of overall job satisfaction (Gruneberg, 1981; Lawler, 1973; Leppa, 1996). Overall job satisfaction was found in this study to have a significant correlation with the satisfaction with the work group factor in both samples implying the importance of this factor for managers in both samples although they came from two different cultures.

The result of this study regarding the relationship between the overall satisfaction with work itself and the overall job satisfaction corresponds with what has been found in the literature.

Satisfaction with the work itself is considered, in the literature, as a major factor in determining job satisfaction (Gruneberg, 1981; Locke, 1984; Zeffan, 1994). In this study, a strong significant

correlation was found between the two variables in the two samples, indicating the role this factor plays in relation to the overall job satisfaction regardless of the cultural differences.

Previous studies about satisfaction with promotion reported that this job facet has a direct effect on job satisfaction (Quarles, 1994; Wiley, 1997). Lack of status and promotion could result in an employee's job dissatisfaction (Travers and Cooper, 1993). The finding of this study corresponds with previous ones. Job satisfaction was found to have a strong, significant relationship with the satisfaction with promotion in the two samples, which leads one to realise the important of this factor across cultures.

Pay is considered a predictor of job satisfaction (Kadushin and Kulys, 1995). Lawler (1973) believes that pay satisfaction is one of the strongest factors in job satisfaction. The importance of pay in relation to job satisfaction was clear in this study. Overall job satisfaction has a significant correlation with the satisfaction with pay in the two samples asserting the important of this factor in relation to the overall job satisfaction in the two different cultures.

Supervision was found to be one of the most influential factors in determining the overall job satisfaction (Lawler, 1973; Locke, 1976). This study support previous findings. Overall job satisfaction was found to have a significant correlation with the satisfaction with supervisors in the two samples, which implies that this factor is a major contributor to the overall job satisfaction for managers despite the different counties.

Recognition is considered as one of the important factors affecting the level of job satisfaction regardless of the occupational level (Persson et al, 1993; Starcevich, 1972). In this study, recognition was also found to be an important factor in determining overall job satisfaction since

there was a strong correlation in the two samples, underlying the importance of this factor in relation to job satisfaction in the two different cultures.

One of the research questions under consideration in this study was to find out if there are any differences in the importance of job factors for managers in the two different cultures. In deciding the importance of a correlation, one has to consider how much of the variability of the scores in one variable can be explained by the variability of scores of the other variable. There may be a significant correlation, but if it only explains a small amount of the variability then it may not be of much importance. The square of the correlation coefficient, called the coefficient of determination, is used to explain the proportion of the variability in a correlation (Hinton, 1995; Sekaran, 1992). Based on this, results presented in the last chapter showed that co-worker, promotion, and recognition have explained more the variability in the relationship with the overall satisfaction in the UK sample than in the Saudi sample, pointing out that managers in the UK sample may value these factors more than the Saudi managers. On the other hand, factors like work itself, pay, and supervisions may be valued more by the Saudi managers.

These results are consistent with what has been found in the literature to a great extent. In Hofstede's Masculinity cultural dimension, employees in high MA cultures (such as Great Britain) regarded recognition, advancement, and challenge relatively more important than did employees in lower MA cultures (such as Saudi Arabia) (Hofstede, 1991). It has been suggested (e.g., Kilby, 1960) that employees in developing countries (like Saudi Arabia) place more value on factors such as pay, supervision, and relations with the work group, and those in developed countries (like UK) value factors such as work itself, promotion, and recognition. Results of this study are consistent with other studies except the co-worker and work itself factors have

deviated. It was found that these two factors are relatively more important for Saudi managers than for UK managers.

The last chapter demonstrated a significant difference between the two samples in the average satisfaction with co-worker, work itself, promotion, supervisor; but no significant difference in the average satisfaction with pay, recognition, and overall job satisfaction. Also, tests for significant differences between correlations revealed no differences except in the supervisor factor. The strong relationship between each factor and the variables associated with it in both samples suggest that the difference/no difference may be a result of the subjects' personal preference towards the variables. These results are in agreement with Adler's (1997) opinion that human needs may have universal form, but their importance and the ways in which they show themselves differ across cultures.

8.6 Job Satisfaction and Demographic Variables

Demographic variables fall in the third category of (Glisson and Durick, 1988) classified categories that correlate or contribute to job satisfaction. Third category variables describe characteristics of the workers who perform the tasks. Six factors were selected to be examined in relation to overall job satisfaction: age, annual gross salary, length of service in current job, length of service for current organisation, education, and number of dependants (family size).

Age is considered one of the important factors that influence job satisfaction (Weaver, 1980).

There is no agreement on the shape or pattern of the relationship between age and job satisfaction. Three patterns were found: a positive (Doering et al, 1983; Rhodes, 1983), U-shape (Clark et al, 1996; Warr, 1992), and curvilinear relationship (Zeitz, 1990). In this study, age was found to have a significant correlation with job satisfaction in the Saudi sample, and a non-

significant, very weak relationship in the UK sample. Age and job satisfaction relationship in the Saudi sample may support the positive pattern of the kind of relationship between age and job satisfaction; while in the UK it may support the U-shape one. However, tests for significant differences between correlations show that there are no significant differences implying that age has the same influence in job satisfaction in the two samples.

Annual gross salary was found in the literature to be related to job satisfaction (Sheider & Vaught, 1993; Sweeny et al, 1990). In this study, job satisfaction and annual salary were found to have a moderately strong, significant relationship in the Saudi sample, and a very weak non-significant in the UK sample. A significant difference between the two correlations was found, this indicate that annual salary in this study has played a more important role in the Saudi sample than in the UK sample in shaping the satisfaction with the job.

Length of service in the current job was found to have a very weak or non-significant relationship with job satisfaction in both the Saudi and UK samples. The number of years working for the same organisation correlates significantly with job satisfaction in the Saudi sample, but this relationship is very weak, and a non-significant, very weak positive relationship was found in the UK sample. However, no significant differences were found between correlations, indicating that these two variables significantly have the same influence on job satisfaction in the two different cultures. These findings do not correspond with Shokry's finding (1991) who reported a very strong, significant relationship between the time one spends in the job and in the organisation and job satisfaction.

It is interesting to notice the relationship between education and job satisfaction in the study.

Although the relationship is significant in the Saudi sample, it is a very weak, positive one. In the

UK sample, the relationship is significant but a very weak negative one. Test for significant differences between correlations show a significant difference, implying that education influence job satisfaction differently in the two samples. These findings support the conclusion from previous studies that there is no seemingly reciprocal relationship between educational levels and job satisfaction (Al-Helelah, 1993; Al-Saadi, 1996, Glenn & Waver, 1982).

Numbers of dependants played a significant but weak role in the level of managers' job satisfaction in the Saudi sample, and a non-significant, very weak role in the UK sample. This is clear from the relationships that this factor has with job satisfaction in each sample. It has a positive and moderately weak correlation with job satisfaction in the Saudi sample, and a negative very weak correlation in the UK sample. Significant difference between correlations was reported in the last chapter implying that the number of dependants has different influences in the two cultures.

8.7 Cross-Cultural Comparison in Job Satisfaction

Comparisons have been made of the job satisfaction of employees from different countries.

Feelings about the job are likely to differ across different countries. In a 1995 Gallup Organisation poll, countries differences in life satisfaction, which include job satisfaction, were found. Overall, eighteen country were included in the survey, 46% of the people reported being satisfied with their job. What factors or variables affect job satisfaction across countries? The Hugick & Leonard (1991) survey included 16 aspects of work, as well as overall satisfaction. They reported that Americans overall like their jobs, but they did not feel the same about all facets of work. Spector & Wimalasiri (1986) found that Americans and Singaporeans had approximately the same overall job satisfaction, but the facets satisfaction profiles were different. Similar results were reported by Marion-Landais (1993) when he compared Dominican and

Americans. Adigun & Stephenson (1992) reported that the same variables affect British and Nigerian employees' job satisfaction but with different strength. Results of this study correspond with previous research in this area. Both samples have the same factor structure, but significant differences were found in the average satisfaction in some job facets and the influence these variables has on a job facet or overall job satisfaction. This implies that the same variables affect Saudi and UK managers but with different strengths.

All these studies utilised almost similar aspects of work. These studies show clearly that there are differences in job satisfaction and in patterns of facets satisfaction across countries, which could be caused by different cultural experiences and different needs strength. Results found in the literature and in this study lead to the conclusion that culture has an effect on the importance and strength of the factors related to job satisfaction. As Adler (1997) stated;

"Human needs may well include fundamental or universal aspects, but their importance and the ways in which they express themselves differ across cultures"
p.160

8.8 Conclusion

Understanding and studying job satisfaction is a complex issue; many factors may contribute to the overall level of job satisfaction either directly or indirectly. The results of the study agree with the idea that different people have different attitudes towards their job despite the similarity of the circumstances surrounding them. In other words, respondents are not always alike when it comes to their emotional feelings towards their job even when they share similar characteristics such as age or education.

Satisfaction with co-workers was found to be a significant factor in determining the overall level of job satisfaction for managers in the two samples of this study. Organisations should pay close attention to variables such as the personal and work relations between employees because they correlate strongly with the satisfaction with co-workers. These findings are consistent with other previous studies and with what has been discussed in the literature review.

In the present study, satisfaction with the work itself has played a significant positive role in constructing the overall job satisfaction in both samples. Variables such as the opportunity to use one skill, the variety of the work, the degree of challenge, and the responsibility of planning and doing the work are variables that organisations should look at when designing jobs because such variables correlate strongly with the satisfaction with work itself. These findings agreed with several previous studies presented in the literature review.

With regard to satisfaction with promotion, it was found that it has played a significant role in the overall level of job satisfaction in the Saudi and UK samples. The fairness of the promotion system and opportunity for promotion affect significantly the chance for a manager to get ahead in the future. These findings are consistent with previous studies.

In this study also satisfaction with pay was found to correlate positively and strongly with the overall job satisfaction in both samples. This means that satisfaction with pay plays a significant role in determining the overall job satisfaction. These findings are consistent with previous studies. It was found also that the same variables affect managers' satisfaction with pay in both samples.

Supervision was found to be a key factor in determining the overall level of job satisfaction in this study for the Saudi and UK samples. The findings in this study are consistent with other studies which found that commitment to do well in the work place and to increase the level of job satisfaction are related to the supervisory treatment, trust and feedback. It was found also that the variables that have been studied in relation to the satisfaction with supervision correlate positively and strongly with it in both samples.

Satisfaction with recognition was found to be a major factor in determining the overall job satisfaction in our study. Recognition satisfaction was tested against variables that measure tangible recognition like financial recognition, and intangible ones like praise. Strong positive correlation was found between satisfaction with recognition and all the other variables in both samples. Our findings are consistent with similar previous studies.

✓ A statistical significant difference was found between the Saudi and UK samples in the average satisfaction with work groups, work itself, promotion, and supervision. No statistical significant difference was found between the two samples in the average satisfaction with pay, recognition and overall satisfaction.

The findings in this study in both samples correspond with several previous studies reported in the literature review chapter which stress that satisfaction with the job accompanied favourable consequences and vice versa.

✓ Job satisfaction was found in this study to have a very weak or almost no relationship with four motivation needs in both samples. This leads us to conclude that need for achievement, need for

affiliation, need for autonomy, and need for dominance did not play an important role in the job satisfaction of managers surveyed in this study.

Age was found to have a positive moderately weak relationship with job satisfaction in the Saudi sample and a positive very weak relationship in the UK sample. These findings tend to support the notion that job satisfaction increases with age. One should notice the different minor effect that age has on job satisfaction in two different cultures.

Annual gross salary was found to have a moderately strong positive relationship with job satisfaction in the Saudi sample and a positive very weak relationship in the UK sample. The positive effect of salary on job satisfaction that was found in the literature is obvious in the Saudi sample, but it is not the same in the UK sample.

Length of service in the current job was found to have a very weak or no relationship with job satisfaction in both the Saudi and UK samples. Number of years working for the same organisation correlate significantly with job satisfaction in the Saudi sample but this relationship is very weak. A non-significant, very weak positive relationship was found in the UK sample.

It is interesting to notice the relationship between education and job satisfaction in the study.

Although the relationship is significant in the Saudi sample, it is a very weak positive one. In the UK sample, the relationship is significant but a very weak negative one. These findings support the conclusion from previous studies that there is no seemingly reciprocal relationship between educational levels and job satisfaction.

Numbers of dependants played a moderately weak role in the level of managers' job satisfaction in the Saudi sample, and a very weak role in the UK sample. This is clear from the relationships that this factor has with job satisfaction in each sample. It has a positive and moderately weak correlation with job satisfaction in the Saudi sample, and a negative very weak correlation in the UK sample. It is interesting to see how the number of dependants affects job satisfaction differently in two different cultures.

8.9 Limitations of the Study and Lessons to be learned

Generalizing on the basis of this study which is done within a limited data and time constraint is difficult and might well be risky to make. However, we have found something which might usefully be learned from this study.

As has been mentioned in previous chapters, the scope of this study is limited to middle managers working in the private sector in Saudi Arabia and the North East region in the UK. In this case, a generalization of the results can only be made, cautiously, if they are limited to similar respondents.

In this study it was not possible to do analysis of participating organisations and make interviews with respondents owing to the full access denial by the organisations, as mentioned in earlier chapters. It is recommended that a full analysis of organisations and interviews to be included in future researches.

There are other points to be considered from this study. First, the application of the motivation theories that go beyond the laboratory should recognise the factors that apply in a real life

context, where behaviour is influenced by social values, group and family pressure, job requirements, and other mandatory conditions.

Second, it is important to remember that the level of satisfaction with the overall job satisfaction or with a job factor may vary from time to time depending on the degree of satisfaction with the variables associated with it. The main concern of this study was to explore the variables associated with job satisfaction, not only measuring the job satisfaction.

Third, the idealistic situation, employees are motivated to do their work to benefit from this work in fulfilling some needs and get compensation from this job such as pay. If the outcome from the work is less than what one desires, negative behaviour such as absenteeism and turnover are likely to occur.

Fourth, doing research in a developing country is a difficult task. Researchers may be faced with some obstacles such as the lack of consciousness of the importance of research and time, the shortage of data bases, and the deficiency of the communication system. One obstacle that the researcher encountered in doing this research was the bad status of the postal service in Saudi Arabia, as mentioned in the methodology chapter, forcing the researcher to deliver the questionnaires personally. One may question the differences in the methods of distributing the questionnaires between the two samples. This could be justified by asserting that the researcher was working as a “Post-Man” only, and it was the only way to deliver the questionnaires and carry on with this research.

Finally, it is important to indicate that the overall job satisfaction has significant relationships with job content factors (such as work itself and recognition) and job context factors (such as pay

and interpersonal relations) in both samples. These findings underline the importance of these factors in relation to job satisfaction in two different cultures.

8. 10 Recommendation for Management Practice

The purpose of this section is to highlight several recommendations derived from the present study. The aim of these recommendations is to find ways to boost job satisfaction among middle managers. The researcher would like to propose the following recommendations:

1. Management practitioners should treat job satisfaction as a key measure of the quality of life in organisations. People spend part of their lives at work; therefore, the topic of job satisfaction is relevant and important to organisations and to society in general because of the humanitarian perspective which suggests that people deserve to be treated fairly and with respect. Thus, job satisfaction is, perhaps, a reflection of good treatment.
2. An overall job satisfaction does exist amongst managers surveyed in this research; however, there are certain areas of job dissatisfaction.
3. The factor which provides the most dissatisfaction and might, therefore, warrant attention is the promotion factor. More than half of the Saudi sample and about 41% of the UK sample were rather dissatisfied or more with this factor. A positive change may be needed to bring about positive satisfaction with the promotion factor.
4. Maintaining good work and personal relationships among employees in the organisation are big incentive for job satisfaction.
5. Financial recognition was not the only recognition contributing towards the overall job satisfaction, but the praise one gets from colleagues, supervisors, and top management were also important. Management practitioners should be aware of this point.

6. The responsibility one has to do and plan one's own job was found to have a major influence on the overall job satisfaction. So, these variables have to be taken into consideration when setting tasks.
7. Employees always compare their pay with others in their organisation or in other organisations. Therefore, pay has to be fair in the organisation and competitive compare to other organisations. Also, the pay system has to take the cost of living into consideration.
8. A dissatisfied employee may leave the organisation at anytime. It was found in this study that job dissatisfaction has a strong positive correlation with looking for another job, hated of going to work, and thinking of resigning from work. Turnover and absenteeism were found to be not only costly, but also cause disruptions for organisations. Therefore, maintaining employees and making work appealing is a major task facing management.
9. Measuring job satisfaction regularly is a good way of detecting any deficiency in the organisation, and it is a good method of communication between top management and employees.

8.11 Recommendations for Future Research

Recommendations are made in this section for researchers who are interested in cross-cultural study, international management, and those studying attitudes of workers in developing countries such as Saudi Arabia. Based on the findings, discussion, and conclusions of this study, the following areas of research are recommended for future study:

1. As with most studies, replication of this study is suggested for cross validation purposes.

2. A replication of the present study using a different sample of non-managerial and supervisory ranks would help to improve our knowledge regarding the impact of motivation and job satisfaction in a non-western work environment.
3. A comparison of private versus public institutional managers using a national sample to determine the level of overall job satisfaction of these managers and their impact on motivation and cultural variables.
4. A replication of the present study using samples of public managers.
5. A case study form of research among a wide variety of industries would give a strong indication of what the results findings would mean when compared with the present form of basing the degree of relationship of job satisfaction, motivation, and cultural factors on quantitative factors.
6. A study to determine whether differences exist in motivation and job satisfaction of managers in Saudi Arabia and their counterparts in other related developing Arab countries.
7. Future research should look at the non-western culture to expand motivation theories. Non-western cultures such as the African, Asian, Middle Eastern, South and Central American cultures many have different interpretation of instruments based on the western theories and cultures. Therefore, it is recommended that follow up studies be conducted to address this issue.

8.12 A Final Comment

Having reached the end of this section, the researcher may say that all the research questions have been addressed and hopefully the present research has been able to provide some insights into job satisfaction in the Saudi and UK organisations, and to the field of job satisfaction in general. It is also hoped that this study has fulfilled a gap particularly in the field of job satisfaction and has opened the gates to new thought and studies.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: English Questionnaire

UNIVERSITY OF
NEWCASTLE



School of Management
Armstrong Building
University of Newcastle
Newcastle upon Tyne NE1 7RU
Chief Executive
Dr Roger Vaughan FEng

Dear Sir/Madam

I am a doctoral student in the School of Management at Newcastle University. I am conducting a study for my Ph.D. research to investigate the relationship of motivation needs, job satisfaction and some demographic and cultural factors in the private sector in both the UK and Saudi Arabia.

I am hoping that you will be able to assist me in my study. My research depends totally on this questionnaire you are holding, so I would be grateful if you would spend 7 to 10 minutes to complete it for me. I guarantee that it is completely anonymous and all information will be held in strictest confidence.

There are two measurements in this questionnaire. The first one, which I constructed myself, is to measure the level of satisfaction with various aspects of your job. The second measure is a published one, and it measures the motivational needs. For each statement or question on the following pages, please tick the box that describes your feeling or opinion. There are also some biographical questions about you, which are needed for comparison reasons only when I do the analysis.

You will see that no names are required, and no one will be able to identify the names of participants. All responses will be kept strictly confidential, and will be used for research purposes only. Nobody other than the researcher will see any responses that you have given in your completed questionnaire.

Your participation is very important. Your reply is vital to complete this study. Please do not put down and forget it, I need a high response rate if my findings are to mean anything!

Your co-operation in this research effort is deeply appreciated.

Yours faithfully

Fahad Alnoeim

Direct dial · 0191 222 8010
Switchboard · 0191 222 6000
Fax · 0191 222 8131
e-mail · roger.vaughan@ncl.ac.uk

- This part concerns with your satisfaction/dissatisfaction at present with various aspects of your job. Please tick on each line the level that you feel to express.

	Very satisfied	Satisfied	Rather satisfied	Rather dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied
1. The personal relation you have with your colleagues.						
2. The work relations you have with your subordinate.						
3. The personal relations you have with your subordinate.						
4. All in all, how satisfied are you with your work-group?						
5. The opportunity to use your skills in doing your work.						
6. The variety of your work.						
7. The opportunity to learn new things at work.						
8. The degree of challenge you are faced with in doing your work.						
9. The responsibility you have in planning your own work.						
10. The responsibility you have in doing your own work.						
11. All in all, how satisfied are you with the work you do?						
12. the opportunity for promotion in your job						
13. The fairness of the promotion system for all employees.						
14. All in all, how satisfied are you with your chance for promotion in this organisation in the future?						
15. Your net pay in relation to the cost of living in the city you live in.						
16. Your pay in relation to the work you do.						
17. Your present pay compared to your expectation when you joined the organisation.						
18. Your pay compared to others' pay holding similar positions in the organisation.						
19. Your pay compared to others' pay holding similar positions in different organisations.						
20. All in all, how satisfied are you with your pay?						
21. The competence of your supervisor in making decision at work.						
22. Your supervisor's delegation of responsibilities to you to do your work.						
23. The feedback you get from your supervisor regarding your performance.						
24. The personal relations between you and your supervisor.						
25. The help you get from your supervisor when you are faced with any problem at work.						
26. All in all, how satisfied are you with your supervisor?						

	Very satisfied	Satisfied	Rather satisfied	Rather dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied
27. The financial recognition you get from top management for a job well done.						
28. The praise you get from top management for a job well done.						
29. The praise you get from your supervisor for a job well done.						
30. The praise you get from your colleagues for a job well done.						
31. All in all, how satisfied are you with the recognition you get in this organisation?						
32. On the whole, how satisfied are you with your job?						

- Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements:

	Strongly agree	Agree	Rather agree	Rather disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
33. I am thinking of finding a job outside this organisation.						
34. I am thinking of resigning from my job.						
35. I hate going to work.						
36. I feel happy when I am at work.						

- Below are listed some statements that describe various things you might do, or try to do, in your job (or the way you feel about it). Please indicate below by marking the appropriate box how much you agree with each statement.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Rather agree	Rather disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
37. I do my best work when my job assignments are fairly difficult.						
38. I try very hard to improve my past performance at work.						
39. I take moderate risks and stick my neck out to get ahead at work.						
40. I try to avoid any added responsibility in my job.						
41. I try to perform better than my co-worker.						
42. When I have a chance, I prefer to work in a group instead of by myself.						
43. I pay a good deal of attention to the feeling of others at work.						
44. I prefer to do my own work and let others do theirs.						
45. I express my disagreement with others openly.						
46. I find myself talking to those around me about non-business related matters.						
47. In my work assignments, I try to be my own boss.						

	Strongly agree	Agree	Rather agree	Rather disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
48. I go my own way at work, regardless of the opinions of others.						
49. I disregard rules and regulations that hamper my personal freedom at work.						
50. I consider myself a "team player" at work.						
51. I try my best to work alone at work.						
52. I seek an active role in the leadership of any group with which I am involved.						
53. I avoid trying to influence those around me to see things my way.						
54. I find myself organising and directing the activities of others.						
55. I strive to gain more control over the events around me at work.						
56. I strive to be "in command" when I am working in a group.						

- This part contains some biographical questions about you. It is needed for comparison reasons only when I do the analysis. Please tick the appropriate box.

	Up to 30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61 or over
1. your age is:					

	Up to 12000£	12001-18000£	18001-24000£	24001-30000£	30001-36000£	More than 36000£
2. Your annual gross salary is:						

	Less than 1 year	1-3 years	4-6 years	7-9 years	More than 9 years
3. You have been doing this job in this organisation for:					

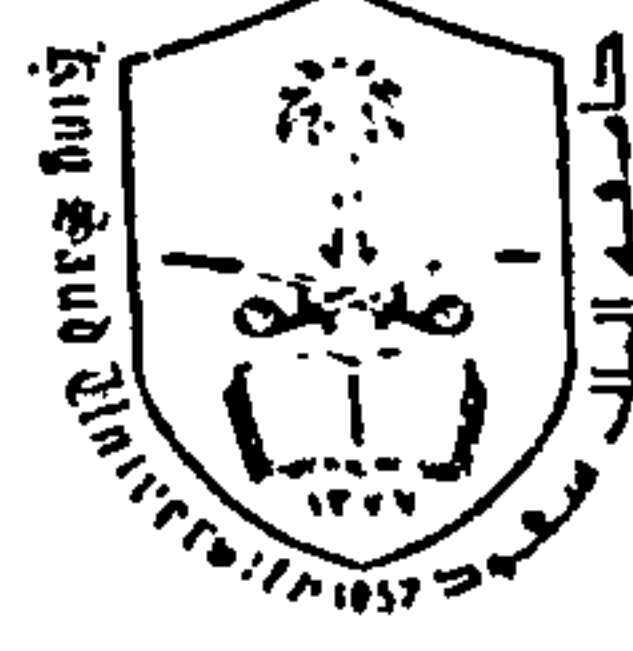
	Less than 1 year	1-3 years	4-6 years	7-9 years	More than 9 years
4. You have been doing this job in this organisation for:					

	High school	Diploma	Bachelor	Master	PhD
5. your level of education					

	None	1-3	4-6	7-9	More than 9
6. Number of dependants:					

7. Name of your organisation	
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Appendix 2: Arabic Questionnaire



الرقم: التاريخ: ١٤ / / الموضوع:

سعادة المدير / المشرف الإداري

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته وبعد

أفيدكم بأنني مبتعث من قبل جامعة الملك سعود، كلية الاقتصاد والإدارة بالقصيم لدراسة الدكتوراة في بريطانيا وأنا الآن في مرحلة جمع المعلومات حيث يتعلق البحث بقياس مدى الرضا الوظيفي في القطاع الخاص في المملكة العربية السعودية ودراسة العلاقة بين الرضا الوظيفي وبين احتياجات التحفيز وكذلك بين بعض العوامل الخارجية.

البحث يعتمد كلياً على المعلومات التي سوف يتم جمعها من خلال قائمة الاستبيان التي بين يديك، لذلك فإن مساهمتك في تعبئة هذه القائمة مهمة جداً لتكملة هذا البحث. فرجاءاً أن تمنحنا حوالي عشر دقائق من وقتك الثمين لتعبئة هذا الاستبيان ولكم مني جزيل الشكر.

تحتوي هذه القائمة على مجموعة من الاسئلة والعبارات التي تتعلق بنواحي عديدة من عملك. الرجاء وضع اشارة في المكان المناسب لبيان مدى رضائك (أو موافقتك) للعبارة أو السؤال. هناك بعض الاسئلة عن بعض المعلومات الشخصية والتي سوف تستخدم من أجل المقارنة فقط.

أحب ان اذكركم أن جميع المعلومات التي سوف أجمعها ستكون سرية ولن يطلع عليها أحد غري وسوف تستخدم في مجال بحثي الأكاديمي فقط. كما ترى من القائمة أنه لا يمكن التعرف على من قام بتعبئة الاستمارة، لذلك ارجو ان تعبر عن شعورك تجاه وظيفتك بكل صدق وصراحة.

مساهمتم في تعبئة هذا الاستبيان مهمة جداً لتكملة بحثي الأكاديمي. لذا ارجو التكرم بتعبئتها ولكم مني جزيل الشكر ومن الله الاجر والثواب.

والسلام عليكم ورحمة الله

مبتعث جامعة الملك سعود
لبل درجة الدكتوراة

فهد بن عبد الله النعيم

- الهدف من هذا الجزء من الاستبيان هو بيان مدى رضاك فيما يتعلق بجوانب عديدة من وظيفتك . لكل جملة أو سؤال، فضلا ضع إشارة (أي إشارة) في إحدى الخانات التي تتلاءم مع ما يعبر عن شعورك نحو عملك في الجملة أو السؤال .

	راضى جدا	راضى	راضى نوعا ما	غير راضى نوعا ما	غير راضى إطلاقاً
1 . العلاقات الشخصية مع زملائك في العمل.					
2 . علاقات العمل مع مرءوسيك.					
3 . العلاقات الشخصية مع مرءوسيك.					
4 . بشكل عام، ما مدى رضائك عن زملاء العمل؟					
5 . الفرصة المتاحة لك لاستخدام مهاراتك في أداء عملك.					
6 . التنوع في عملك.					
7 . فرصتك في تعلم أشياء جديدة في عملك.					
8 . درجة التحدي التي تواجهك في أداءك لعملك.					
9 . المسؤولية الموكلة إليك للتخطيط لعملك.					
10 . المسؤوليات التي لديك لأداء عملك.					
11 . بصفة عامة، ما مدى رضائك عن العمل الذي تقوم به الآن؟					
12 . فرصتك في الترقية في عملك.					
13 . مدى عدالة نظام الترقيات لجميع الموظفين.					
14 . بشكل عام، ما مدى رضائك عن فرصتك في الترقية في هذه الشركة في المستقبل؟					
15 . مرتبك مقارنة بتكاليف المعيشة في المدينة التي تقيم فيها.					
16 . مرتبك مقارنة بالعمل الذي تقوم به.					
17 . مرتبك الحالي مقارنة بتوقعاتك عندما التحقت بهذه الشركة.					
18 . مرتبك مقارنة برواتب آخرين يشغلون نفس المكانة (المستوى الوظيفي) في نفس الشركة.					
19 . مرتبك مقارنة برواتب آخرين يشغلون نفس المكانة (المستوى الوظيفي) في شركات أخرى.					
20 . بشكل عام، ما مدى رضائك عن مرتبك؟					
21 . كفاءة رئيسك في اتخاذ القرارات الخاصة في مجال العمل.					
22 . الصلاحيات التي يعطيك إياها رئيسك لأداء عملك.					
23 . المعلومات التي تحصل عليها من رئيسك فيما يتعلق بأدائك الوظيفي.					
24 . العلاقات الشخصية بينك وبين رئيسك المباشر.					
25 . المساعدة التي تحصل عليها من رئيسك عندما تواجه أي مشكلة في العمل.					
26 . بشكل عام، ما مدى رضائك عن رئيسك المباشر في العمل؟					
27 . التقدير المالي الذي تحصل عليه من الإدارة العليا نظير أداء عملك بإتقان.					
28 . الثناء الذي تحصل عليه من الإدارة العليا عند أداء عملك بإتقان.					
29 . ثناء رئيسك المباشر عليك عند أداء عملك بإتقان.					
30 . ثناء زملائك في العمل عليك عند أداء عملك بإتقان.					
31 . بصفة عامة، ما مدى رضائك عن التقدير بشكل عام والذي تحصل عليه في هذه الشركة؟					
32 . بشكل عام، ما مدى رضائك عن وظيفتك؟					

- الرجاء التعبير عن مدى موافقتك لكل جملة من الجمل التالية وذلك بوضع إشارة (أي إشارة) في الخانة التي تعتقد أنها أقرب لرأيك الشخصي.

موافق جدا	موافق	موافق نوعا ما	غير موافق نوعا ما	غير موافق	غير موافق إطلاقا
					33 . أنا أفكر بالبحث عن عمل خارج هذه الشركة.
					34 . أنا أفكر بالاستقالة من عملي.
					35 . أكره الذهاب إلى عملي.
					36 . أشعر بالسعادة عندما أكون في مقر العمل.

- فيما يلي بعض العبارات التي تصف أشياء ربما تقوم بها ، أو تحاول أن تقوم بها ، في عملك . الرجاء التعبير عن مدى موافقتك لكل عبارة من خلال وضع إشارة (أي إشارة) في الخانة التي تعتقد أنها تعبر عن رأيك الشخصي في عملك .

موافق جدا	موافق	موافق نوعا ما	غير موافق نوعا ما	غير موافق	غير موافق إطلاقا
					37 . أبداع في عملي عندما تكون المهمة التي أؤديها صعبة نوعا ما.
					38 . أحاول جاهدا أن أطور أدائي الماضي في العمل.
					39 . أقبل بالمخاطرة بشكل معتدل وأحاول البروز من أجل التقدم في العمل.
					40 . أحاول تجنب أي زيادة في مسؤوليات عملي.
					41 . أحاول أن أعمل بشكل أفضل من زملائي في العمل.
					42 . إذا كان لي الاختيار، أفضل العمل مع مجموعة بدلا من العمل منفردا.
					43 . أراعي شعور الآخرين في العمل.
					44 . أفضل أداء عملي وترك الآخرين يؤدون أعمالهم.
					45 . أعبر عن اختلافي مع الآخرين بشكل صريح.
					46 . أجد نفسي أتحدث مع الآخرين حولي عن أشياء لا علاقة لها بالعمل.
					47 . عند أدائي لعملي، أحاول أن أكون رئيس نفسي.
					48 . أعمل بطريقتي الخاصة بغض النظر عن آراء الآخرين.
					49 . أتجاهل القواعد و القوانين التي تحد من حريتي الشخصية في العمل.
					50 . في العمل ، أعتبر نفسي " فرد في جماعة ".
					51 . في العمل ، أحاول جاهدا العمل بمفردي.
					52 . أبحث عن دور قيادي في أي جماعة عمل أنضم إليها.
					53 . أتجنب التأثير على الآخرين لرؤية الأشياء كما أراها أنا.
					54 . أجد نفسي أنظم و أوجه نشاطات الآخرين.
					55 . أحاول إحكام السيطرة على الأحداث التي تدور حولي أثناء العمل.
					56 . أحاول السيطرة إذا عملت ضمن مجموعة.

- يتضمن هذا الجزء من الاستبيان بعض الأسئلة و العبارات المتعلقة ببعض الخلفيات و المعلومات الشخصية و العنمية والتي سوف تستخدم من أجل المقارنة فقط عند إجراء التحليل العلمي. الرجاء وضع إشارة (أي إشارة) في الخانة المناسبة.

أقل من 30 سنة	40-31	50-41	60-51	أكثر من 60 سنة
1 . عمرك هو:				

أقل من 6000	9000- 6001	12000- 9001	12001 - 15000	أكثر من 15000 ريال
2 . مرتبك الشهري هو:				

أقل من سنة	1- 3 سنوات	4- 6 سنوات	7- 9 سنوات	أكثر من 9 سنوات
3 . منذ كم سنة وأنت تعمل في وظيفتك الحالية؟				

أقل من سنة	1- 3 سنوات	4- 6 سنوات	7- 9 سنوات	أكثر من 9 سنوات
4 . منذ كم سنة وأنت تعمل في هذه الشركة؟				

ثانوي	دبلوم	بكالوريوس	ماجستير	دكتوراه
5 . المستوى التعليمي هو:				

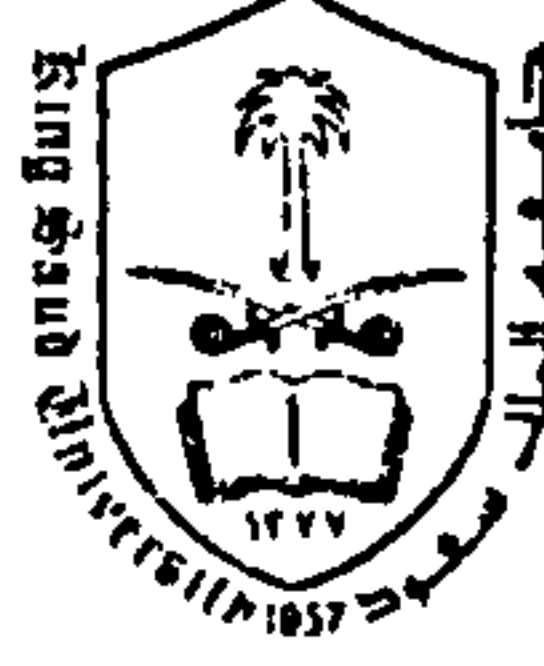
لا يوجد	3-1	4-6	7-9	أكثر من 9
6 . كم عدد المعتمدين عليك ماليا من أفراد أسرتك؟				

7 . اسم الشركة أو المؤسسة التي تعمل بها:	
--	--

- شكرا لتعاونكم ومساعدتكم. إذا كان لديك أي ملاحظة أو إضافة، فضلا كتابتها في الأسفل أو في ورقة خارجية إن احتجت لذلك .

Appendix 3: Letter from the Dean

Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
Ministry of Higher Education
KING SAUD UNIVERSITY
Qassim Branch
COLLEGE OF BUSINESS & ECONOMICS
Dean's Office



المملكة العربية السعودية
وزارة التعليم العالي
جامعة الملك سعود
فرع القصيم
كلية الاقتصاد والإدارة
مكتب العميد

الرقم: التاريخ: ١٤ / / ١٤٤٠ الموضوع:

الى من يهمه الامر

نفيدكم بأن الاستاذ/ فهد بن عبد الله النعيم أحد مبتعثي الكلية لنيل درجة الدكتوراة من بريطانيا وهو الآن في مرحلة جمع المعلومات وبجته يتعلق بقياس مدى الرضا الوظيفي في القطاع الخاص في المملكة العربية السعودية ودراسة العلاقة بين الرضا الوظيفي وبين احتياجات التحفيز وكذلك بين بعض العوامل الخارجية.

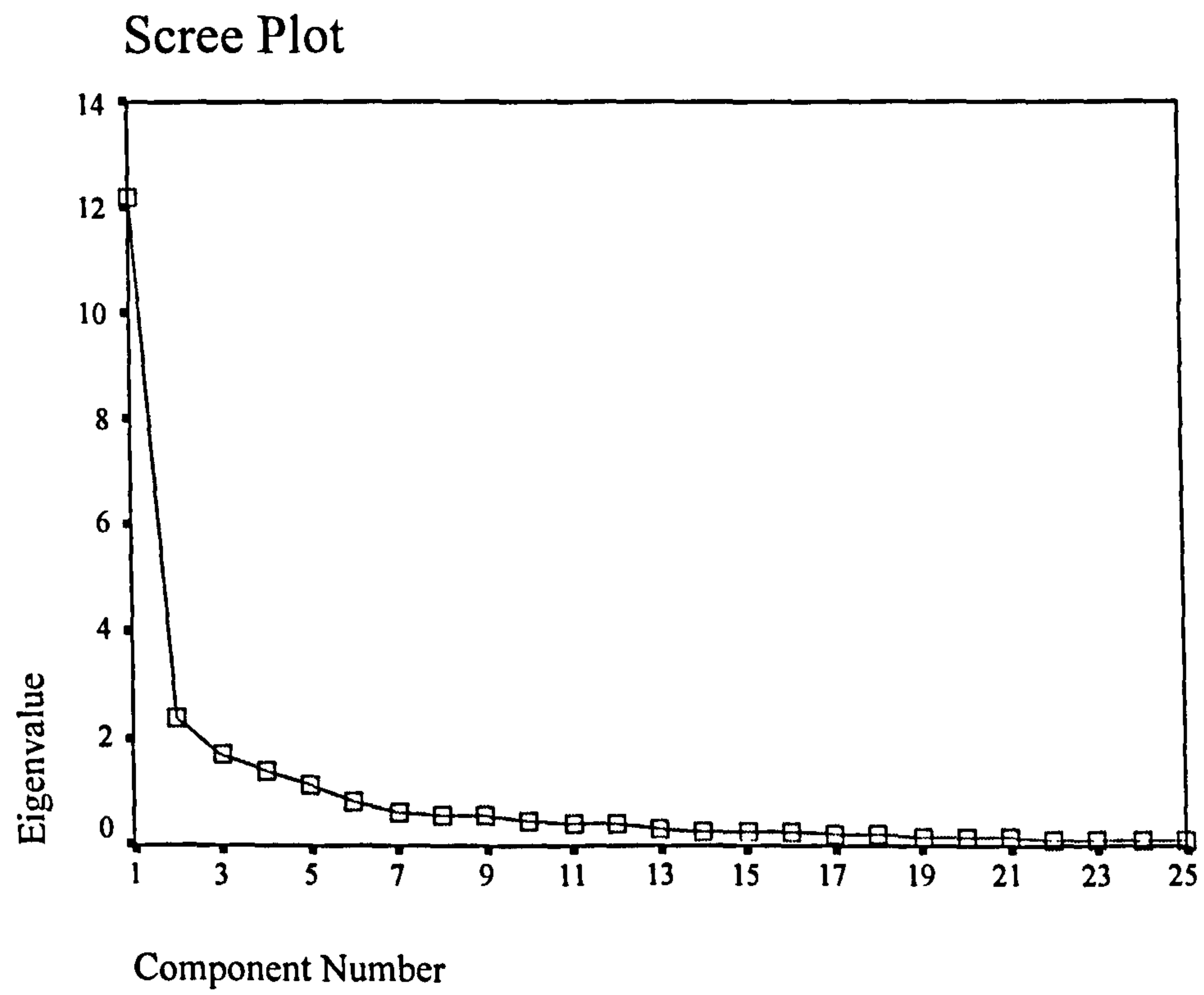
نأمل في الحصول على تعاونكم معه علما بأن البيانات التي سيحصل عليها لن تستخدم الا في مجال البحث الأكاديمي ولن يسمح لأحد بالاطلاع عليها.

شاكرين حسن تعاونكم،

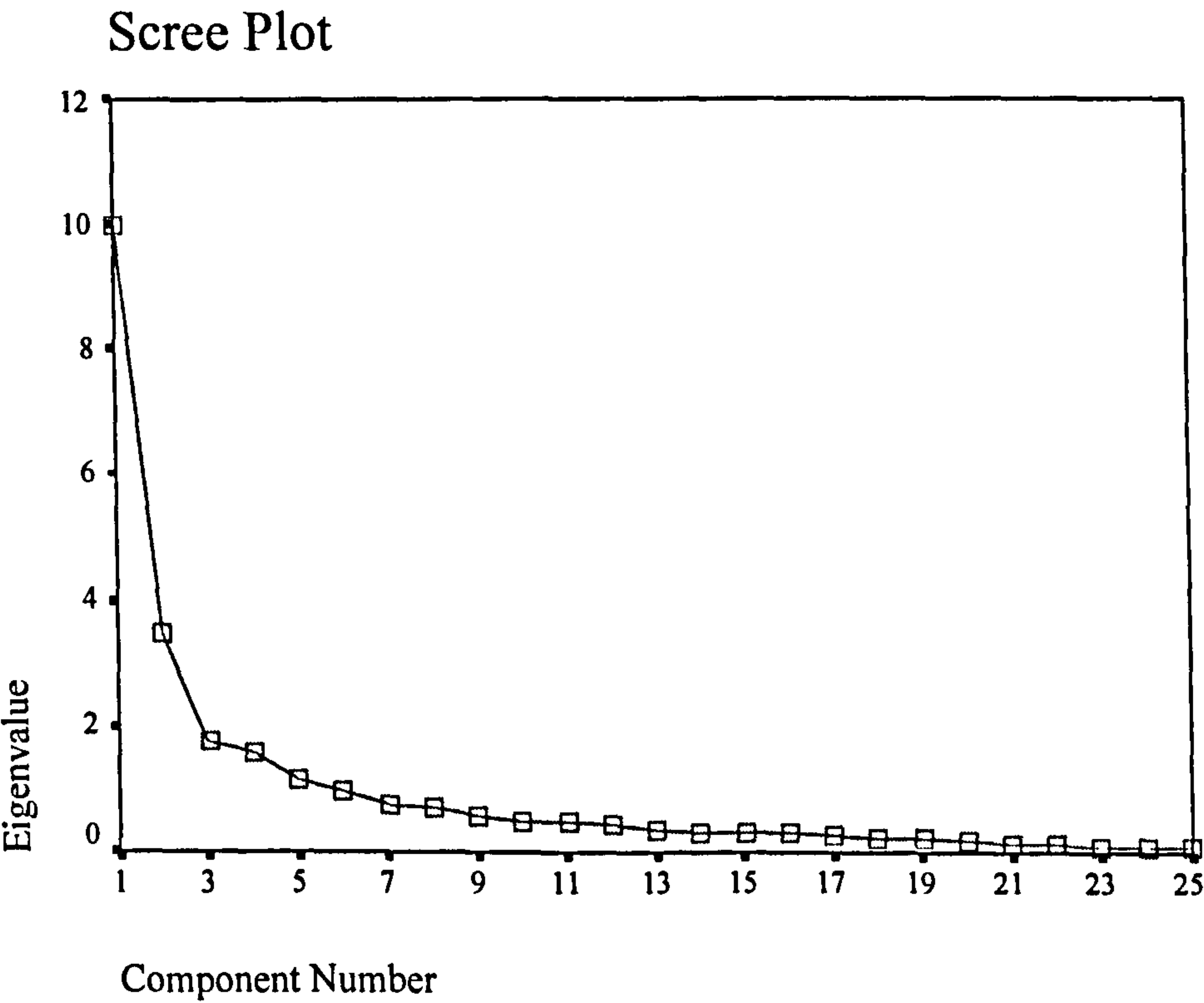
د. عبد الله بن سليمان العزاز

عميد كلية الاقتصاد والإدارة

Appendix 4: Scree plot for the Saudi sample



Appendix 5: Scree plot for the UK sample



Appendix 6: The factor matrix Saudi sample (Orthogonal Rotation)

Variables	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6
Pay 16	.852					
Pay 17	.836					
Pay 18	.821					
Pay 15	.808					
Pay 19	.763					
Competence 21		.830				
Delegation 22		.808				
Feedback 23		.773				
Help 25		.761				
Sup.rel 24		.636				
Variety 6			.839			
Learn new 7			.812			
Skills 5			.770			
Responsibility 10			.634			
Responsibility 9			.621			
Challenge 8			.584			
F.Recog 27	.751			.792		
Praise 28				.754		
Praise 29				.724		
Praise 30				.502		
Fairprom 13					.672	
Promotion 12					.647	
Subordinate 3						.844
Colleague 1						.839
Subordinate 2						.600
Eigenvalue	12.204	2.357	1.695	1.406	1.124	.830

Extraction Method: Principal Component.
Rotation Method: Varimax.

Appendix 7: The factor matrix UK sample (Orthogonal Rotation)

Variables	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6
Pay 16	.932					
Pay 19	.904					
Pay 15	.877					
Pay 1517	.859					
Pay 18	.805					
F.Recog 27	.765			.683		
Help 25		.878				
Sup.rel 24		.828				
Feedback 23		.771				
Competence 21		.757				
Delegation 22		.549				
Variety 6			.817			
Responsibility 10			.807			
Responsibility 9			.759			
Challenge 8			.630			
Skills 5			.586			
Learn new 7			.582			
Praise 29				.811		
Praise 30				.719		
Praise 28				.524		
Promotion 12					.801	
Fairprom 13					.793	
Colleague 1						.789
Subordinate 2						.745
Subordinate 3						.687
Eigenvalue	9.970	3.498	1.769	1.573	1.132	.981

Extraction Method: Principal Component.

Rotation Method: Varimax.

Appendix 8: Inter-items Correlations, Mean, and St. Deviation for the Job Satisfaction Variables (Saudi sample)

Vs	Mean	St. Dev	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7	V8	V9	V10	V11	V12	V13	V14	V15
V1	1.69	.64	1.00														
V2	2.02	.84	.388	1.00													
V3	1.94	.69	.617	.603	1.00												
V4	1.95	.67	.666	.593	.707	1.00											
V5	2.40	.90	.233	.349	.295	.328	1.00										
V6	2.44	.99	.131	.328	.300	.274	.759	1.00									
V7	2.43	.95	.151	.388	.300	.292	.715	.816	1.00								
V8	2.63	.95	.216	.342	.379	.358	.558	.583	.607	1.00							
V9	2.68	1.08	.199	.374	.383	.335	.620	.587	.631	.728	1.00						
V10	2.59	1.03	.178	.422	.351	.343	.610	.601	.658	.690	.893	1.00					
V11	2.49	.95	.223	.479	.401	.376	.637	.681	.649	.685	.794	.773	1.00				
V12	3.55	1.06	.166	.403	.346	.298	.499	.505	.559	.570	.646	.668	.698	1.00			
V13	3.80	1.20	.144	.305	.364	.322	.410	.469	.499	.497	.597	.600	.614	.786	1.00		
V14	3.68	1.20	.130	.372	.293	.279	.395	.467	.554	.511	.577	.613	.648	.836	.860	1.00	
V15	2.47	1.11	.045	.323	.257	.270	.258	.288	.334	.362	.404	.440	.469	.442	.528	.517	1.00
V16	2.87	1.08	.133	.309	.316	.300	.400	.420	.415	.436	.479	.522	.497	.593	.581	.541	.748
V17	2.69	1.09	.108	.329	.318	.268	.357	.343	.399	.423	.466	.523	.535	.566	.559	.542	.737
V18	2.88	1.23	.097	.344	.360	.276	.449	.407	.425	.417	.491	.503	.546	.553	.581	.492	.634
V19	3.52	1.27	.092	.242	.315	.219	.406	.402	.433	.496	.524	.529	.548	.640	.663	.621	.635
V20	2.94	1.20	.080	.327	.306	.304	.354	.408	.417	.424	.477	.555	.557	.602	.627	.624	.779
V21	2.28	.93	.204	.266	.299	.287	.490	.383	.467	.409	.480	.451	.497	.427	.435	.400	.187
V22	2.51	1.05	.222	.267	.317	.275	.574	.513	.546	.485	.595	.555	.552	.471	.428	.407	.237
V23	2.62	1.14	.284	.365	.376	.341	.562	.480	.562	.534	.576	.557	.566	.502	.479	.477	.302
V24	1.98	.79	.393	.293	.490	.481	.453	.396	.419	.441	.461	.438	.495	.428	.454	.419	.270
V25	2.43	.94	.362	.373	.371	.393	.515	.486	.523	.529	.539	.534	.615	.540	.476	.513	.270
V26	2.34	.94	.346	.397	.374	.394	.523	.464	.540	.515	.550	.543	.614	.527	.496	.554	.313
V27	4.08	1.22	.151	.321	.281	.342	.383	.396	.399	.469	.522	.548	.576	.713	.666	.679	.492
V28	3.68	1.22	.171	.396	.335	.374	.376	.418	.461	.479	.515	.541	.605	.659	.663	.702	.497
V29	2.96	1.00	.222	.404	.325	.378	.438	.434	.506	.535	.504	.512	.551	.558	.544	.617	.402
V30	2.35	.86	.219	.389	.270	.380	.214	.192	.283	.207	.323	.267	.349	.315	.382	.392	.207
V31	2.85	1.01	.171	.465	.356	.361	.453	.426	.475	.463	.574	.604	.634	.652	.579	.617	.477
V32	2.58	1.11	.184	.408	.346	.333	.530	.530	.565	.567	.671	.706	.766	.671	.627	.654	.559

App. 8- continue

Vs	V16	V17	V18	V19	V20	V21	V22	V23	V24	V25	V26	V27	V28	V29	V30	V31	V32
V1																	
V2																	
V3																	
V4																	
V5																	
V6																	
V7																	
V8																	
V9																	
V10																	
V11																	
V12																	
V13																	
V14																	
V15																	
V16	1.00																
V17	.814	1.00															
V18	.781	.794	1.00														
V19	.790	.738	.811	1.00													
V20	.854	.833	.812	.801	1.00												
V21	.364	.344	.367	.399	.326	1.00											
V22	.437	.418	.442	.481	.419	.771	1.00										
V23	.455	.443	.462	.528	.429	.759	.799	1.00									
V24	.383	.408	.409	.392	.363	.572	.602	.570	1.00								
V25	.429	.416	.383	.468	.411	.716	.751	.804	.650	1.00							
V26	.409	.450	.427	.464	.435	.824	.827	.851	.786	.816	1.00						
V27	.570	.591	.538	.631	.652	.360	.439	.442	.366	.500	.495	1.00					
V28	.521	.558	.531	.566	.605	.435	.446	.457	.451	.538	.578	.828	1.00				
V29	.444	.516	.492	.497	.477	.544	.542	.585	.598	.653	.728	.584	.745	1.00			
V30	.265	.298	.318	.260	.288	.376	.294	.370	.381	.379	.458	.345	.441	.504	1.00		
V31	.579	.615	.614	.578	.643	.433	.517	.565	.414	.574	.583	.549	.663	.653	.607	1.00	
V32	.608	.633	.646	.662	.692	.467	.537	.602	.429	.582	.619	.615	.641	.578	.373	.709	1.00

Appendix 9: Inter-term Correlation, Mean and St. Deviation for Job Satisfaction variables (UK sample)

Vs	Mean	St. dev	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7	V8	V9	V10	V11	V12	V13	V14	V15
V1	2.03	.89	1.00														
V2	2.01	.78	.404	1.00													
V3	2.10	.72	.364	.585	1.00												
V4	2.16	.87	.684	.503	.508	1.00											
V5	2.34	1.05	.374	.348	.248	.469	1.00										
V6	1.97	.94	.274	.286	.316	.430	.681	1.00									
V7	2.46	1.25	.312	.158	.173	.342	.531	.604	1.00								
V8	2.18	1.13	.437	.192	.245	.411	.573	.648	.630	1.00							
V9	1.92	1.07	.262	.274	.182	.308	.630	.432	.518	.515	1.00						
V10	1.81	.97	.217	.296	.189	.275	.578	.453	.456	.744	.727	1.00					
V11	2.15	.96	.371	.297	.283	.427	.594	.753	.596	.698	.724	.744	1.00				
V12	3.21	1.30	.490	.192	.151	.373	.457	.401	.606	.548	.509	.503	.515	1.00			
V13	3.38	1.36	.407	.232	.215	.342	.353	.353	.425	.384	.435	.367	.385	.763	1.00		
V14	3.27	1.44	.468	.249	.164	.379	.450	.384	.543	.479	.490	.440	.490	.795	.881	1.00	
V15	2.72	1.24	.361	.110	.092	.210	.220	.149	.118	.227	.184	.103	.262	.430	.409	.515	1.00
V16	3.10	1.32	.336	.082	.093	.287	.300	.197	.226	.260	.259	.122	.304	.443	.471	.516	.842
V17	2.85	1.31	.316	.122	.003	.169	.313	.150	.258	.270	.353	.219	.284	.470	.457	.558	.786
V18	3.14	1.37	.217	.110	.079	.251	.267	.273	.254	.226	.293	.182	.209	.424	.461	.520	.597
V19	3.40	1.42	.266	.063	.049	.282	.280	.256	.227	.238	.233	.227	.293	.420	.451	.461	.761
V20	3.01	1.30	.328	.129	.084	.231	.301	.188	.208	.259	.306	.188	.321	.487	.470	.553	.848
V21	2.55	1.26	.203	.150	.219	.368	.474	.502	.449	.420	.350	.354	.437	.338	.352	.319	.154
V22	2.44	1.18	.350	.289	.186	.353	.527	.421	.346	.404	.454	.509	.517	.475	.476	.455	.224
V23	3.16	1.43	.303	.157	.207	.373	.437	.402	.555	.485	.468	.407	.518	.486	.500	.475	.142
V24	2.46	1.17	.334	.198	.310	.372	.254	.312	.392	.356	.272	.181	.331	.304	.397	.293	.040
V25	2.68	1.33	.326	.210	.213	.392	.317	.264	.399	.268	.320	.242	.279	.427	.482	.451	.191
V26	2.78	1.29	.356	.222	.208	.407	.354	.306	.415	.327	.363	.316	.328	.493	.546	.523	.202
V27	3.31	1.36	.417	.152	.167	.332	.485	.324	.306	.393	.424	.356	.440	.583	.606	.607	.670
V28	3.24	1.40	.507	.286	.275	.446	.423	.279	.389	.425	.484	.366	.467	.587	.591	.624	.528
V29	2.92	1.31	.325	.154	.232	.343	.391	.432	.590	.527	.464	.316	.479	.534	.472	.535	.250
V30	2.71	1.05	.435	.235	.302	.379	.304	.317	.332	.381	.252	.269	.416	.352	.283	.351	.261
V31	3.03	1.24	.495	.277	.196	.425	.439	.304	.427	.445	.517	.455	.509	.651	.576	.692	.553
V32	2.54	1.10	.526	.317	.245	.417	.609	.487	.509	.615	.622	.508	.696	.668	.547	.663	.544

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Vs	V16	V17	V18	V19	V20	V21	V22	V23	V24	V25	V26	V27	V28	V29	V30	V31	V32
V1																	
V2																	
V3																	
V4																	
V5																	
V6																	
V7																	
V8																	
V9																	
V10																	
V11																	
V12																	
V13																	
V14																	
V15																	
V16	1.00																
V17	.811	1.00															
V18	.741	.656	1.00														
V19	.851	.729	.744	1.00													
V20	.911	.830	.792	.853	1.00												
V21	.176	.102	.195	.238	.182	1.00											
V22	.241	.284	.194	.218	.277	.638	1.00										
V23	.257	.186	.299	.210	.256	.637	.548	1.00									
V24	.094	.062	.132	.073	.076	.569	.427	.668	1.00								
V25	.207	.182	.275	.190	.240	.679	.515	.690	.722	1.00							
V26	.268	.246	.346	.238	.281	.657	.570	.716	.769	.910	1.00						
V27	.747	.690	.607	.739	.760	.291	.402	.343	.242	.310	.413	1.00					
V28	.552	.517	.396	.471	.521	.355	.439	.486	.376	.395	.473	.720	1.00				
V29	.306	.228	.290	.180	.269	.543	.451	.726	.525	.575	.604	.350	.668	1.00			
V30	.228	.126	.096	.246	.257	.210	.188	.309	.189	.159	.165	.305	.440	.430	1.00		
V31	.556	.568	.456	.503	.581	.317	.453	.549	.353	.436	.524	.559	.736	.838	.651	1.00	
V32	.545	.596	.425	.478	.590	.436	.548	.503	.341	.364	.434	.659	.664	.549	.431	.733	1.00