# JOB SATISFACTION AND JOB PERFORMANCE OF WAREHOUSING EMPLOYEES IN IRAQI INDUSTRY

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A THESIS SUBMITTED FOR THE
DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
TO THE DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT STUDIES,
GLASGOW BUSINESS SCHOOL
UNIVERSITY OF GLASGOW

July 1990

## DEDICATION

*To my beloved wife, Rawdha, my son Ehssan, and my daughter Salwan, with deepest respect and appreciation.*

## DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this work is the result of my own research. My indebtedness to other sources is indicated in the text and in the bibliography. I further declare that this work has not already been accepted in substance for any degree, and is not being concurrently submitted in candidature for any degree.

relatively similar. A moderate positive relationship between job satisfaction and job performance was found. Job performance influences and causes job satisfaction; job satisfaction influences and causes job performance. A cause/effect relationship exists and job satisfaction is the strongest effective variable.

The results indicated that more effort should be put into improving job characteristics as the most important determinant of employees' satisfaction and performance. Emphasis on job design and redesign, including techniques of job enrichment should be adopted. The results of this study also indicated that supervisory style has a major impact on employees' satisfaction and performance. It is imperative that supervisors grasp the consequences of the particular style of supervision that they adopt for their subordinates. To create an organisational climate of satisfied employees, participative and considerate styles of supervision should be adopted.

All in all, perhaps the common thread from the results of the study is to involve employees more in their own jobs by giving them an increased sense that warehousing jobs allow them more responsibility, achievements, ability utilisation, the feeling of doing things for other people and a higher degree of autonomy. It is, in fact, the management's responsibility to analyse the situation in warehousing and its particular needs, so that the management can choose the best possible course of action from the various alternatives.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

To express appreciation for the quality of support and encouragement I have received over the past three years would require more wit than I can muster here at the end of the task and the beginning of the finished work. To compute the quality of help from what seems numberless people and places would be a work in itself. My only hope is that the unnamed will never read this and feel themselves excluded; what follows is a necessarily abridged list of obligations.

I am indebted to Professor D.W. Weir, former chairman of Glasgow Business School, for his guidance and support .

My supervisor, Dr. James Wilson, has been and continued to be patient, generous, friendly, helpful and wise; without him this thesis would have never been completed.

I would like to thank all the staff of the Management Studies Department who have been helpful and kind during all the period of my study.

Special thanks are also due for staff of the computer centre and statistical department whom spent countless hours offering helpful time.

Thanks are also extended to my colleague Miss Naima Hamlaoui for her assistance in carrying out the proofreading of this thesis. My debt is immeasurable for her friendly help.

I feel it incumbent on me to express my deep debt of gratitude to the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research in Iraq for their financial support, and the companies that took part in this study.

I am deeply grateful to my mother and mother-in-law who never faltered, even when I did, for the compassion they offered to my two children (Ehssan & Salwan) who had lost some of the parental passion during my stay here together with their mother.

My Wife whose patience, understanding, encouragement and love kept me on the right path.

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# CHAPTER ONE

# INTRODUCTION

## 1.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the research problem, research objectives, and research questions. Special attention is devoted to the importance and the need for the study. The chapter explains certain limitations that have been encountered throughout the research, and also describes the layout of this study.

## 1.2. Research problem

Job satisfaction is one of the most intriguing and popular concepts found in human resource administrator's vocabulary. Beginning in the era of scientific management and continuing to the present, the twin goals of employees satisfaction and organisational performance have been touted as the ultimate managerial objective (Klingner, 1983).

Possibly a major limitation of many organisations now is a lack of understanding about what motivates their employees. Numerous organisations cling to systems and structures that do not motivate their employees to exploit their capabilities. An examination of studies on job satisfaction and performance reveals that we still do not understand what motivates an individual to work. Classifying the literature on job satisfaction, two different categories are identified. In the first category we find researches which examine the components of job satisfaction, their antecedents and results of each, and assesses the relationships between personal characteristics and job satisfaction. The second category reveals three schools of thought emphasising job satisfaction/job performance relationship. Job satisfaction in the first school is considered as a cause of job performance. In the second school it is not directly

related to job performance. Finally, the third school considers it as a result of job performance.

Despite numerous attempts at explaining employees satisfaction and performance, there is still much to be learnt about the factors that lead to job satisfaction and high performance. And that is related to the lack of agreement over what affects employees' satisfaction with their jobs, and the impact of various levels of satisfaction on performance. In addition, the evidence suggests that the exact nature of the job satisfaction/job performance relationship remains unclear and further research is needed (Greene, 1972; Phillips & Freedman, 1985; Locke & Henne, 1986).

In Iraq, employees' satisfaction and performance in warehousing are often major problems in most industrial companies, and the following indicators confirm this:

1. The turnover rate for warehousing employees is high as a result of high mobility and transfers (Arabic Labour Organisation "ALO", 1975). This problem remains unsolved by the majority of warehousing departments (Material Management) in the Iraqi public sector. One main cause of this problem could be job dissatisfaction. This view is supported by discussions held throughout the country investigating the causes of low productivity in Iraqi industrial companies. A manager in a manufacturing company said, "the most important problem in my company is the high rate of employees turnover. Workers come to my company but they do not stay. Workers are so dissatisfied with their jobs that they quit . . . we quite understand that this problem has had a bad impact on our company's activities" (Iraq: The discussions of the working paper on the reasons of low productivity in Iraqi industrial sector, 1978: 8). Furthermore, the public sector loses a large number of warehousing workers to the private sector (Salih, 1985). A major reason for employees quitting is a dissatisfaction generated by the lack of opportunities for better pay, fringe benefits, poor

working image and other relative to these factors found in the private sector. High turnover rates have lead to some serious problems that range from managerial to economic ones. On the managerial level, low morale between management and employees has lead to poor performance and losses. For example, losses may increase due to deterioration in the stock or materials, greater delays in service or delivery to production or assembly lines/customers/other departments, etc.

2. Absenteeism is high. Tardiness and falsified illness increases (Naser, 1987). This might be an indicator of employees' frustration which creates an intention to leave their jobs to search for other more satisfying one. The literature has shown a negative direct effect between job satisfaction and absenteeism ( see Steers & Rhodes 1984; Nicholson, Brown, & Chadwick-Jones, 1976; Johns & Nicholson, 1982; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; McShane, 1984; Brook & Price, 1989; Hackett & Guion, 1985; Hackett, 1989). It is important to note that some employees believe that working in or transferring to warehousing is a form of punishment. Therefore, they are not prepared for the job, and have lost job aspirations (Al-Jassem, 1975).

3. Widespread of carelessness and poor morale among warehousing employees result in apathy in their work and the absence of ambition (NCCMD, 1980). These factors might effect the employees' performance.

4. Complaints about poor pay and the lack of promotional opportunities, poor working conditions, routine work, and the routine activities with monotonous work.

Consequently, some Iraqi manufacturing companies have become aware of employee dissatisfaction in general and in warehousing in particular. They have begun to collect the necessary information to investigate this and have encouraged studies to address such problems. Few studies exist (NCCMD, 1980; Naser, 1987; Hazeem, 1987; Al-Taie & Halabi, 1988), so the need for further research has motivated the present study which sets out to investigate the

widespread feeling of job dissatisfaction among warehousing employees, and to explore the relationship between this feeling and employees' performance.

### 1.3. Research Objectives

The purpose of this study is threefold: first, to determine the effect of selected variables on job satisfaction and performance of warehousing employees in the Iraqi industrial sector. Second, to determine if there is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and job performance, and what variables are related to it. Third, to explain this relationship and its importance to warehousing management. This is by providing information that may allow management to be more effective in its warehousing activities.

More specifically it addresses the following concerns:

1. To identify significant interaction effects as well as the main effects of the study variables (e.g., employees characteristics, work values, job characteristics, supervisory style, and perceived rewards) on the relationship between employee satisfaction and performance. It will determine which variables are most important for understanding the satisfaction and performance of warehousing employees.

2. To identify fundamental job characteristics in order to define the relationship between these variables (job characteristics) and job satisfaction, job performance, and employees' characteristics (e.g., age, sex, educational level, positional level, training, length of service, etc.).

3. To investigate the work values in warehousing and identify their impact on job satisfaction, performance, and employees' characteristics.

4. To analyse supervisory styles in warehousing (i.e., participative and considerate supervisory styles) in relation to job satisfaction and job performance to find the extent to which satisfaction and performance are influenced by supervisory style.

5. To clarify the meaning and importance of these relationships for warehousing managers. This provides great assistance to management in interpreting and discovering better methods of satisfying the needs of its employees.

6. To lay the foundation for future research in this area (i.e. warehousing management) in particular and in other fields in the Arabian management in general.

With these objectives in mind, answers to the following questions are sought in this research:

1. What is the relationship between job satisfaction or job performance and ***one*** of the following variables: age, sex, marital status, number of dependents (i.e. children, parents, etc.), job position, education, pay level, experience (length of service), and warehousing training programmes?

2. What is the relationship between job satisfaction or job performance and any ***combination*** of: age, sex, marital status, number of dependents, job position, education, pay level, warehousing training programmes, and experience (length of service)?

3. What effect does the supervisory style (considerate and participative) have on the employees' job satisfaction and job performance?

4. What is the relationship between perceived rewards and job satisfaction or job performance? Do perceived rewards influence job satisfaction/performance relationship, if suppose there is a relationship?

5. What is the relationship between work values and job satisfaction, job performance, and employees' characteristics? Do work values have any effect on job satisfaction/job performance relationship, if suppose there is a relationship?

6. What are the relationships between job characteristics (i.e., degree of autonomy, variety, performance feedback, task-significance, opportunity for learning, dealing with other people, and friendship opportunity) and job

satisfaction, job performance, and employees characteristics? Do these characteristics, as a set, have any effects on job satisfaction/performance relationship?

7. Are the employees who were initially employed in warehousing more satisfied or do they perform better than those who were transferred in?

8. Are the employees who attended training programmes in warehousing better satisfied or higher performers than those who have never attended such training programmes?

The previous set of questions shows coherence in relation to measurement of research problems.

As regards questions one and two, several studies ( MacEachron, 1977; Weaver, 1978, 1980; El-Safy, 1985) have indicated that demographic variables such as age, sex, educational level, positional level, and length of service are correlates of job satisfaction. It also seems logical that demographic variables are correlates of job performance. According to Korman (1970), an ego-enhancing work environment increases performance level. Therefore, the relationship of these variables to job performance is questioned. Besides, several investigations concerning correlates of job satisfaction/job performance relationship (e.g., Triandis, 1959; Abdel-Halim, 1980; Lawler & Porter, 1967) found that demographic variables that are correlate of both satisfaction and performance could also be correlates of the relationship between these two variables.

Supervisory style, including participative (or democratic) and considerate (or supportive) is the most frequently researched factor affecting job satisfaction and performance. Supervisory style, like job satisfaction, is considered as a multi-faceted construct. The two most frequent used facets to identify supervisory style are participatory and considerate styles (Srivastva et al., 1977). However, much of the research findings indicated that participative and considerate styles are related to job satisfaction and performance. For instance,

Solcum (1971), Stogdill (1974), Gilmore, Beehr, & Richter (1979), Tjosvold (1984), and others who found that subordinates feel open with, want to work with, feel attracted to, and are satisfied with a supervisor (leader) who communicates with them warmly. The impact of supervisor behaviour reflects positive attitudes towards subordinates' performance; a subordinate who dislikes his supervisor may want to avoid him, or persuade him to change his ways, or file a grievance against him, or refuse to do favours for him, or possibly quit the job altogether (Locke 1970). Therefore, it is required to investigate the supervisory style in the warehousing setting to find whether this style caused a significant difference in employees' satisfaction and performance.

Reward is one of the major determinants of employees' satisfaction and performance. According to Locke (1970), one reason why numerous studies of job satisfaction and performance have been inconclusive was their failure to identify and measure rewards pertaining to the individual performance. Locke (1976) writes "among the important...conditions conducive to job satisfaction are...rewards to performance which are just, informative, and in line with the individual's personal aspiration". Vroom (1964) conceptualised his expectancy theory based on the central idea that "the strength of an expectancy is that the act will be followed by a given consequence (rewards)". He identified both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards as factors affecting job satisfaction. Other writers such as Siegel and Bowen (1971) found that the validity of the prevailing notion that a happy worker is a more productive worker, dose not stem from enjoyment of rewards earned through prior performance, rather than from an anticipation of future rewards or any motivational effect of rewards obtained prior to performance. Studies have concentrated on the extrinsic rewards such as level of pay as a measure of rewards, intrinsic rewards also play a vital role in the satisfaction/performance relationship. This relationship seems to increase in strength with more intrinsic rewards, which are derived from high job

performance. This means that high job performance tends to bring about higher satisfaction or higher-order needs, given that employees possess such higher-order needs (Abdel-Halim, 1980). It also means that low job performance tends to bring about lower job satisfaction (Porter & Lawler, 1967). Higher order needs such as recognition, status, prestige, self-esteem, and self actualization are primarily derived from the job itself. Such intrinsic rewards tend to increase with increasing positive amount of job characteristics (question six), which are regarded as intrinsic rewards. Therefore, this study takes into consideration perceived extrinsic as well as intrinsic rewards and their influence on employees' satisfaction and performance.

Question five advanced the idea that work values influence employees' attitudes toward their performance. Regardless of general theoretical and empirical support for the view that satisfaction results from value getting. Several issues remain and need to be addressed, namely: "What is the relation of value importance to satisfaction? How do the various value judgments that an individual makes combine to produce overall job satisfaction? and what happens when an individual's values contradict or conflict with his needs?" (Locke, 1976: 1304). Further, Locke (1970) finds that the lack of a significant relationship between job satisfaction and performance is attributable to several factors. One of these is the failure to identify job-related values. Few empirical studies have examined this relationship. They have found that the more important a job component, the greater will be the level of job satisfaction. So, work values play a role in determining job satisfaction and performance relationship. Few studies in the Arabian management have investigated the effect of this aspect (i.e., work values) on the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance (Musa & Stephan, 1985). It is important in this study to investigate the influence of work values on the employees' satisfaction and performance.

Question six is in line with the results of several investigations, particularly in industrial settings. Empirical studies have shown that job characteristics are a major determinants of job satisfaction (e.g., Argyris, 1957, 1964; Herzberg et al., 1959; Likert, 1967; Orpen, 1979; Kiggundu, 1980). If an organisation manages to design jobs so that some basic psychological requirements are met the quality of job performance is likely to increase, and alienation is likely to decrease (Seeman, 1961; Wexley & Yukl, 1964). However, there are few studies of public sector employees, which leave a gap in the literature on job satisfaction/job characteristics relationships (Lee et al., 1983). Hackman and Oldham (1976), for instance, proposed that relationships between job characteristics and job satisfaction should be higher for workers with high higher order needs strength than for workers with low higher order needs strength. This research has never been replicated and cross validated with the public sector employees (Lee et al., 1983). Public sector employees differ from employees in the private sector because government organisations usually have a strong service and nonprofit orientation. Therefore, an important task in this study is to clarify fundamental job characteristics to investigate the relationship between job characteristics and job satisfaction/ performance. Identifying job content will greatly assist management in discovering the best methods to increase the employees' satisfaction and improve their performance.

### 1.4. Research variables

In reviewing the literature on job satisfaction and performance one can identify several categories of variables from the different schools of thought (Srivastva et al., 1977). The variable categories included: the work itself, job characteristics, rewards (i.e., intrinsic and extrinsic), supervisory style, personal characteristics, internal states, working conditions, interpersonal relationships, work values, role factors, job fit, and organisational factors etc. However, some of these variables such as work values have been theorized but

not empirically tested as influencing job satisfaction and performance, (Locke, 1970).

From the above categories, the following variables have been selected for an investigation of warehousing employees attitudes in the Iraqi Industrial Public Sector: (1) job characteristics, (2) supervisory style, (3) perceived rewards, (4) work values, (5) Training programmes in warehousing, (6) job positional level, (7) educational level (8) plan for future employment, (9) years of experience (length of service), (10) employees' characteristics (11) job satisfaction, and (12) job performance.

This study will be limited itself to the above variables for several reasons:

First, several studies (e.g., Herzberg et al., 1959; Likert, 1967; Argyris, 1964; Scott, 1966; and others) have indicated that job characteristics are major determinants of job satisfaction. Thus, an important task is to identify and measure the characteristics of warehousing job in the Iraqi Industrial Public Sector, and to investigate the relationship between these variables and both job satisfaction and job performance.

Second, these variables could be considered as an appropriate representation of the major schools of thought in job satisfaction theories.

Third, some of the previous variables such as work values, perceived rewards, have been theorized but not empirically tested (Srivastva et. al., 1977; Campbell & Pritchard, 1976; Billings & Cornelius, 1980; Elizur, 1984).

### 1.5. Importance of the study

The study of employees' satisfaction and performance is an area of both theoretical and practical importance in organisational behaviour.Its importance is reflected in the following:

1. Job satisfaction: employees work for more than one third of their lives, this underscores the importance of job satisfaction. Although some frustration,

anxiety, and conflict are normal experiences for all individuals, over prolonged periods of time, and in extreme forms they may provide the basis for unhealthy and socially undesirable behaviour, which is evidenced by alienation and a sense of personal futility (Sneed, 1971: 4). In addition to the personal and social values of job satisfaction, there is a value to the organisation in terms of future profitability. Management is interested in employees' satisfaction not only because of its intrinsic importance, but also because it has significant managerial consequences. In fact, much of interest in job satisfaction has been the result of management's desire to increase employee efficiency. A generally accepted premise is that an employee who achieves his personal goals in work tends to show satisfaction with the job and contributes more to the organisation success (Costello & Lee, 1974). Therefore, it is necessary for management to answer the fundamental question "*What do the employees seek from their jobs*?". Management has very little meaning without an effective realization of the value of human resources as a basic element. Therefore, management can benefit materially if it knows what individual attitudes contribute to job satisfaction. This knowledge will be used in better future selection procedures.

Employees cannot be productive if management policies and plans are not compatible with their values and attitudes. Individuals are human beings, and they an effective factor in the production of things. They should be respected, stimulated, and properly prepared to do their job efficiently. Wise managers recognize this fact, and lead employees to greater achievement and higher performance. It is believed that increased job satisfaction leads to increased productivity, improved quality of goods and services, and ultimately, increased profitability. The study of job satisfaction is necessary and valuable for understanding a variety of behaviour of individuals and groups in the organisation.

2. Job performance: the significance of this study is also seen as derived from the impact of employees' performance on their companies' performance. Productivity or performance is a major concern in the Iraqi economy since it is essential for economic pregress such as, creating new jobs, increasing job opportunities and wages, so everyone gains more when performance increases, and consequently that leads to social prosperity. Therefore the high standard of living can be achieved through increases in workers productivity. Changes in productivity and factors affecting it have many implications for many facets of the national life. Recognition of this is confirmed by the interest in productivity in every level of manufacturing processes. Studying employee's satisfaction is not an end in itself, but intends to understand its influence in organisational performance. The potential value of this study is to provide specific and meaningful aspects of employees' satisfaction and performance to the relevant companies. Management in these companies will then be in a better position to understand and cope with its employees' attitudes problem.

3. Job satisfaction/performance relationship: Studies of the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance, found in the literature, are abundant. Several questions, however, remain unanswered due to contradictory results. The findings fall into at least three distinct groups:

The first group suggests that job satisfaction influences performance (This is the oldest school of thought "Human Relation Movement", Bernberg, 1952; Gadel & Kridet, 1952; Baxter et al., 1953; Organ, 1977).

The second group suggests that satisfaction and performance are not causally related, but are associated only through the effects of moderator variables (e.g., Triandis, 1959; Dawis et al., 1968; Lawler & Porter, 1967; Korman, 1970; Schwab & Cummings, 1970; Siegel & Bowen, 1971; Greenhaus & Badin, 1974; Steers, 1975; Inkson, 1978; Orpen, 1978).

The third group views satisfaction and performance as interacting variables

with performance as the stronger causal factor. This was widely accepted among the early researchers (e.g., Porter & Lawler, 1967, 1968; Locke, 1970, 1976; Sheridan & Slocum, 1975; Wanous, 1974; Fisher, 1980; Bhagat, 1982; Lopez, 1982, and others).

In summary, the picture that emerges from these findings show that confusion exists concerning the precise nature of job satisfaction/job performance relationship, and it seems to be complex (Jacobs & Soloman, 1977; Gruneberg, 1979; Petty et al., 1984; Phillips & Freedman, 1985; Locke & Henne, 1986).

4. Storage activities: the importance of warehousing for field work derives from its importance not only in the Iraqi industrial sector but also because of the general scarcity of empirical research in this area.

The warehousing function is a vital part of any industrial establishment. It is organized to assist in the production and distribution of goods or services, and no industrial organisation can be managed efficiently without it. In Iraq the importance of the warehousing function is increasingly recognized, and greater attention is now given to this function. The government is building an industrial base to use the natural resources more efficiently. The modern industrial sector with specialized production, increasingly complex products and processes, requires a very high standard of organisation and performance in the warehousing work. Warehousing is largely inter dependent in any industry, and any inefficiency or lack of co-operation with other departments, inside or outside the organisation, will affect the progress and the productivity or performance of these departments.

The importance of warehousing function in the Iraqi economy can be attributed to:

(a) Iraq, like most developing countries, depends on the import and storage of goods. Table (1.1) shows the importance of imports in the industrial sector in the Iraqi economy. Any goods imported or exported typically need storage

facilities. So, warehousing function plays an additional role in the economic life of this country.

(b) The financial risks involved in warehousing (e.g., capital invested in the raw materials, purchased components, intermediate manufactured parts, spare parts, and finished products) is at least one third of the total invested capital (Musa & Stephan, 1985: 5). Employees who deal with this investment should be properly recognized and rewarded to carry out their duties effectively.

(c) The expansion in the Iraqi industrial sector leads to increasing demands on the labour force (see Appendix VI), some of this will be imposed upon the warehousing labour which needs more attention and efficient management.

**Table (1.1)**

The material required for production in Iraqi industry, 1983-1985.

( 000 ID )

| Sector | 1983 | | | 1985 | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Import | Local | Total | Import | Local | Total |
| Food | 115606 | 22731 | 138337 | 115613 | 26520 | 142133 |
| Textile | 29239 | 12731 | 41970 | 35463 | 22006 | 57469 |
| Engineering | 22904 | 12713 | 35617 | 28164 | 9558 | 37722 |
| Chemical | 42999 | 31705 | 74704 | 45732 | 33175 | 78907 |
| Construction | 15288 | 17630 | 23918 | 11335 | 17490 | 28825 |
| Total | 226036 | 97514 | 314546 | 236307 | 108749 | 345056 |

Source: Iraq, Ministry of Industry and Minerals, Statistics and Productivity Department, unpublished report, 1983-1985.

4. In addition, the potential contribution of this study is to test research findings from developed countries in a developing country (i.e., Iraq). Job satisfaction has been extensively researched in the developed countries (e.g., U.K & U.S.A.). Workers included in these investigations has covered a wide

range; for instance, insurance agents, retail sales clerk, post office counter workers, nurses, etc. (See Minnesota Studies in Vocational Rehabilitation, Bulletin, 41-49). However, only one study has considered warehousing employees. In the developing countries, the research lacks an empirical foundation. This study should contribute to the literature of employees' satisfaction and performance in developing countries.

Most of the studies on job satisfaction are conducted in western countries, which are characterized by a free economy, more advanced education and professional levels, and a particular set of cultural values. Unlike most previous research, this study was undertaken in Iraq. Iraq like most developing countries, is still characterized by centralized planning, limited economic development, limited educational levels, and a different set of cultural values (Salih, 1985: 12). Iraq is also a socialist country and the authoritarian aspects of the culture imposed in the organisations may influence behaviour and attitudes towards problems of dissatisfaction.

The potential value of this study is in providing specific information to the the Iraqi industrial companies. In identifying real and meaningful reasons for warehousing employees' satisfaction. The companies and their managers will then be in a better position to cope with dissatisfaction problems. It is anticipated that management will find the results of this study helpful in reducing employees' dissatisfaction and increasing their productivity.

### 1.6. Limitations of the study

Despite its achieved results, this study did not proceed without some drawbacks which include:

1. Limitation of pertinent statistical information: it is impossible to determine the number of employees in warehousing due to the country's political situation and the absence of written and published materials.

2. limitation of the area of the study: this study only covered the publicly owned Iraqi manufacturing companies since they significantly contribute to the fundamental economic and social changes in Iraq, and they have absorbed a considerable percentage of the Iraqi labourforce (Salih, 1985).

3. The inability of visiting some industries due to security reasons.

4. Questionnaire response problems: some employees were not willing to take the questionnaire and others failed to complete it properly. In spite of the clarity of the instrument used and efforts made to assure the respondents that their responses would be confidential and only for the academic purpose.

5. Limitation of the study to warehouse keepers, assistant warehouse keepers, and clerks. This leaves out some of the employees who are working on a part-time basis, others in related departments, and menial such as cleaners and coolies.

### 1.7. Organisation of The Study

The present study is organized into nine chapters as follows:

Chapter one covers the description of the research problem and its objectives, the questions that seek answers, a discussion on the importance and need for the study, the limitations, and the layout of the study.

Chapter two reviews the related literature on the concepts, ambiguities in terminology and problems with job satisfaction, and the theories of job satisfaction.

Chapter three reviews the literature related to the different schools of thought on job satisfaction/job performance relationships.

Chapter four deals with the research methods and procedures; the population and the sample utilised in the study, the instruments used in measuring and collecting data, and the statistical techniques used in the analysis.

Chapter five presents a general analysis (descriptive statistics), of all the

study variables.

Chapter six analyses and interprets employees' characteristics in relation to job satisfaction and job performance.

Chapter seven tackles a different problem, namely, an analysis and interpretation of the employees reaction to work values, job characteristics, and supervisory style.

Chapter eight analyse of the main effects as well as the interaction effects of the study variables (employees characteristics, job characteristics, work values, received rewards, and supervisory style) on satisfaction/job performance relationship. This chapter concludes with an identification of the important variables in relation to job satisfaction or job performance.

Finally, Chapter nine gives a summary and the major conclusions of the study, with recommendations for future research, and a discussion of the managerial implications of this work.

# CHAPTER TWO

# THE CONCEPTS AND THEORIES OF JOB SATISFACTION

## 2.1. Introduction

Job satisfaction is a major area of interest in industrial and organisational psychology. During the past five decades much research has been done in this field. The term 'Job satisfaction', in particular, has become popular in studying the relationships between the workers and their jobs. It has proliferated about 3350 articles or dissertations prior to 1972, and this continually increases (Locke, 1976: 1297). However, most investigations of job satisfaction have originated from few basic theories such as: Needs Theory (Maslow, 1954), Two-Factor Theory (Herzberg et al., 1959), X and Y Theory (McGregor, 1960) and Expectancy Theory (Vroom, 1964), which are concerned with job satisfaction and its psychological implications.

This chapter presents a review of major job satisfaction theories. It deals with the concepts and the confusion in terminology, the importance of job satisfaction, and with both historical and current perspectives on job satisfaction theories.

## 2.2. Job Satisfaction Concept and Ambiguity in Terminology

Job satisfaction is one of the oldest concepts in the field of industrial psychology; yet it is one of the most controversial concepts found in human resource administration. Beginning with Fredrick Taylor in the era of "Scientific Management" and up to the present, the twin goals of employees' job satisfaction and organisational productivity have been confirmed as the ultimate managerial objective (Blake & Mouton, 1964 in Klingner, 1983).

Job satisfaction plays a vital role in all motivation theories "it is a question as to what extent a particular need has been met or a goal achieved" (Thierry & Koopman-Iwema, 1984: 153).

A review of the literature has revealed that job satisfaction concept exemplified by the diversity of research is quite complex, due to its multifaceted nature. A conceptual analysis of job satisfaction is important to any study to understand its nature. Locke (1976) writes:

> Psychologists have long been convinced that the way to understand a phenomenon was first to measure it and then to correlate it with every thing in sight. This has been the pattern followed in numerous studies of job satisfaction. It has not worked. ... To understand a phenomenon, one must begin with a conceptual analysis ... if one does not grasp something about the nature of that which one is measuring to start with, understanding will not be achieved by correlating an arbitrarily chosen measures. To explain job satisfaction ... the policy of correlation without explanation must be abandoned. The first question ... is not "How can I measure it?" but rather, "What is it?".

Job satisfaction, in several motivation theories, has been given a specific meaning. In Maslow's terms (1954), for instance, it decides whether a higher level need in the hierarchy is going to evoke behaviour, while, Herzberg et al., (1959), in their "Two-factor Theory" have affirmed the exclusive effects that they are assumed to cause: satisfiers and dissatisfiers. Smith et al., (1969: 6) define it as

> the feelings a worker has about his job...these feelings associated with perceived difference between what is expected as a fair and reasonable return and what is experienced, in relation to the alternatives available in a given situation.

Campbell et al., (1970: 378) describe it as the "positive or negative aspect of an individual's attitude of feeling toward his job or some specific

feature of his job".

From an epistemological perspective, satisfaction is an emotional response and the meaning of the concept can, therefore, be identified and understood through a process of introspection, "an act of conceptual identification directed to one's mental contents and processes" (Locke, 1969). Locke (1976) continues:

> By introspection, man can observe that he experiences different degree of pleasure or displeasure on different jobs and/or with different aspects of the same job. Job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are, then, complex emotional reactions to the job ... Man's consciousness has three basic biological functions ... a) cognition, the identification of existent (e.g. things, objects, actions, etc.); b) evaluation, the estimate of the beneficial or harmful relationship of perceived existent to one self, and c) the regulation of action ... Man's most basic emotions are those of pleasure and displeasure ... the consequences of (perceived) value achievement.

Job satisfaction can be defined as "the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the perception of one's job as fulfilling or allowing the fulfillment of one's important job values, providing these values are compatible with one's needs" Locke (1976: 1342). Locke finds most industrial psychologists agree with this definition, at least by implication. In practice it is common to find an "operational definition". The most well known definitions have been reviewed by Evans (1969) and Wanous and Lawler (1972). Evans (1969) explains the conceptual and operational relationships between overall job satisfaction, level of attainment, and level of importance, while Wanous and Lawler (1972) reviewed nine different operational definitions. They identified three types of definitions: (1) those concerned with overall job satisfaction (JS), (2) those focusing on a particular facet of one's job called job facet satisfaction (JFS), and (3) some combination of the 1 and 2. The different job facets include satisfaction with pay, promotion, supervision, company policies, the work itself, and co-workers.

From the above definitions, one may conclude that the lack of a definition of job satisfaction makes the task of conceptualising it difficult and leads to confusion. However, a survey of many studies has shown that job satisfaction is anything that an author chooses when he thinks that he is measuring "job satisfaction". Blum and Naylor (1968: 364) mentioned that

> some studies have dealt only with attitudes on specific job factors but have been called job satisfaction studies. Others have other job factors and have also been called job satisfaction research. Still others have considered the individual factors and the job factors, and few have attempted to measure parts of all three areas.

As such, this confusion is further compounded by the confusion among the terms "job attitude", "job satisfaction", and "morale". Although they are often used interchangeably, they are not synonymous. An "attitude" is not "job satisfaction" although it may contribute to job satisfaction since it is the result of an individual possessing various attitudes. Similarly, job satisfaction is not the same as morale, although it may contribute to morale. Viteles (1953: 284 as cited by Locke, 1976) suggests that morale is "an attitude of satisfaction with, desire to continue in, and willingness to strive for the goal of a particular group or organisation". Locke points out two differences in emphasis from the concept of job satisfaction:

> First, morale is more future-oriented, while satisfaction is more present and past-oriented. Second, morale often has a group referent (based on a sense of common purpose and the belief that group goals can be attained and compatible with individual goals), while satisfaction typically refers to the appraisal made by a single individual of his job situation.

Locke (1976: 1300) adds that job satisfaction should not be confused with job involvement since:

> the job-involved person is one for whom work is a very important part of life, and as one who is affected very much personally by his whole job situation: the work itself, his co-worker, the company, etc. On the other hand, the non-job involved worker does his living off the job.

Thus, an employee who is highly involved in his job, should be more likely to feel extremely satisfied or extremely dissatisfied, while uninvolved employees would show less extreme emotional reactions to the same or analogous job experiences.

Other problems related to the job satisfaction concept can be summarized as follows:

a. Researchers and practitioners are not sure about the causes of job satisfaction (Klingner, 1983). Most managers tend to attribute job satisfaction to employee personality, working conditions, and pay, while other researchers have tended to focus instead on the causes and results of motivation. Herzberg's Theory (1959) distinguishes between motivation factors (satisfiers) and hygiene factors (dissatisfiers). Maslow's need theory draw attention to a hierarchy of causal variables which fluctuates in importance depending on circumstances. Expectancy Theory (Vroom, 1964; Lawler, 1973) assumes that each person's intrinsic motivation is determined by his perceptions of desirability of reward and the chances of attaining them. Although all of these theories have been the subject of number of research, none have been convincingly validated by research findings (Klingner, 1983).

b. Neither managers nor researchers are sure that satisfied workers will perform better than dissatisfied ones. Several studies show low correlation between job satisfaction and performance (Landy & Trumbo, 1980; Klingner, 1983).

c. The relationship between intrinsic motivation and performance is not always clear (Klingner, 1983). First, some theories particularly Expectancy Theory, claims that intrinsic motivation correlates with increased performance

(Pelts and Bruning, 1980). But researchers failed to provide evidence for this claim (Greene, 1972). Second, an alternative relationship is that performance causes intrinsic motivation. Employees are made happy because they derive intrinsic satisfaction from doing their jobs well (Locke, 1976). A third belief holds that there is no direct relationship between intrinsic motivation and performance; rather, extrinsic motivation causes both present satisfaction and performance (Fossum, 1979).

From the preceding discussion, a closer look at the results of problems of defining job satisfaction reveals that (Klingner, 1983)[1]

> they have instead emphasized four areas in which job satisfaction relates to human resource management: as a focus of scientific research, as a link between individuals (employees) and organisational productivity, as a value emphasizing the worth of employees, and as a symbol of human resource administrators' concern for the quality of the relationships between employees and the organisation.

Klingner finds this analysis of evolution in the concept of job satisfaction difficult in defining the concept, establishing its causes, and relating it to either individual performance improvement or organisational productivity. Thus, further research for a clearer conceptualization and operationalisation of the concept are needed. This would lead to more methodologically rigorous multivariate analysis of the relationships (i.e. causal, correlative, or intervening) among relevant individual and organisational variables.

## 2.3. Importance of Job Satisfaction

The role of human resources in management is observed in developing societies, where manual labour still dominates the process of management and productivity. With this fact in mind, considerable attention has been given to the importance of the human factor in organisation. Human beings are individuals in

[1] Further details came in the following sections.

the first place, and are an important factor in the production or performance of things or services. Pigors et. al., (1973) argue that management means getting effective results with people. Management is the development of people and not the direction of things. Wise managers are aware of this fact and tend to build strong relations with the people they supervise, leading as such, the people to greater achievement and higher performance. What must always be kept in mind is what people want and take pleasure in and what their leaders think is good for them (Portigal 1976: 7).

Job satisfaction is, basically, an individual matter. Individuals look for aspects of job which are related to their own value systems, some placing greater value on security, some on social status, some on income, others on the type of work, etc. But, while individuals differ in their sets of values, there is at least some moderate consistency in the values of individuals within specific groups. An understanding of the value systems of employees can be very useful to management in developing personnel programs (Tiffin and McCormick, 1968: 358).

From the preceding discussion, one important question could be drawn: what is really very important to satisfy the employee? An answer provided by Sayles and Strauss (1960: 64) in their conclusion of the importance and unimportance of job satisfaction:

| Job Satisfaction Important | Job Satisfaction Unimportant |
|---|---|
| 1.People want self-actualization. | 1.Some people prefer unchallenging work. |
| 2.Those who don't obtain job satisfaction never reach psychological maturity. | 2.Individual's personality becomes fixed before people start working. Work is not to blame. |
| 3.Those who fail to obtain job satisfaction become frustrated. | 3.Most people have a relatively low level of job satisfaction and accept only routine jobs. |
| 4.The job is control of the man's life. | 4.Many people focus their lives on family and community. |
| 5.Those without work are unhappy. They want to work even when they don't have to. | 5.Even though there are social pressures to have a job, this does not mean the job must be challenging. |
| 6.Lack of challenging work leads to mental health. | 6.Poor mental health may be due to low income or low status of routine jobs. |

| Job Satisfaction Important | Job Satisfaction Unimportant |
|---|---|
| 7.Work and leisure patterns spill into each other.Those with an uncreative job engage in an uncreative reaction. | 7. A new bohemianism on the job will make up for increasing boredom at work. |
| 8-Lack of job satisfaction, alienation from work leads to lower morale, lower productivity, and unhealthy society. | 8-We can provide challenging work for every body only at the cost of eliminating our mass production technology and high standard of living, and society is unwilling to pay this price. |

From all this, one can conclude that people differ not only in the importance they assign to work, but also the jobs themselves differ in the type of satisfaction they offer. Hence, it is necessary for management to keep all its employees satisfied, and it is necessary to identify the causes of job dissatisfaction, so that they can be avoided. The preceding discussion of the flaws in the concept and importance of job satisfaction, undoubtly, need clarification in the theoretical background in order to link this background to the practice of this study.

## 2.4. Historical Perspective of Job Satisfaction Theories

Early industrial psychologists exclude the psychological welfare of workers in their studies of the organisation. Rather, emphasis was placed on improving productivity through changes in physical environment (i.e., Scientific Management). Later studies marked the next phase of significance in measuring productivity and job satisfaction. In these studies, human relation was given a great attention, rather than the change in physical conditions (Hawthorne Studies). In the following pages, we shall discuss the effort made in this era of management life.

### 2.4.1. Scientific Management

The best way to start historically reviewing job satisfaction and its effect on people is with Frederick W. Taylor. Taylor in the early 20th century proposed a way of making the conduct of work-related activities more efficient by studying each work performance in order to ascertain scientifically the "one way" of doing each kind of work. Such approach makes the results of such study into a set of rules which each worker is obliged to follow to the letter if he is to earn the premium offered for the increased output that would result. This theory determines that the most efficient way workers can do their job depends upon Taylor's assumption (Landy and Trumbo 1976:340). Taylor, therefore, defines scientific management not as an efficiency device but as a changed mental attitude (Locke 1976: 1298):

> scientific management is not any efficiency device ... not a system of figuring costs ... not a piece work system...not bound system ... not a premium system ... it is not a holding a stop watch on a man and writing things down about him...it is not time-study ... it is not motion study ... it is not any of the devices which the average man calls to mind when scientific management is spoken of ... in its essence scientific management involves a complete mental revolution on the part of those on the managements side ... the great revolution that takes place in the mental attitude of the two parties under scientific management is that both sides take their eyes of the division of the surplus as the all ... important matter, and together turn their attention toward increasing the size of the surplus until this surplus becomes so large ... that there is ample room for a large increase in ways for the workmen and an equally large increase in profits for the manufacturer" (quoted in Bendix, 1956:276). Taylor by attitude meant much more than just feeling; he meant the worker philosophy concerning cooperation with management and their own self interest. He implicitly assumed that a worker who accepted the scientific management philosophy and who received the highest possible earnings with the least amount of fatigue would be satisfied and productive.

Locke clarifies that work can be improved by providing the right tools, selecting the right man for the job, and giving proper incentives if the job is to be done correctly.

Researchers in the United States as well as Great Britain and Germany have begun to concentrate on identifying the antecedents and consequences of fatigue (Viteles, 1932; Burtt, 1931). From these early works, a new trend of thought has emerged; the key to understanding job satisfaction is to focus on the physical working conditions and the pay of workers. This trend has been used by early theorists and was known as the "Physical-Economic School" (Locke 1976). A new pattern of job satisfaction studies has shifted emphasis from the economic and physical working conditions to one of "Attitudes" and "Human Relations".

### 2.4.2. Human Relations

Elton Mayo, in 1920s, and his colleagues (the initiator of this new departure in management studies) studied the effect of technical and physical changes in the work methods and other conditions of work on the productivity of selected employees. In experiments (at the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company) they tested how peoples' behaviours are effected when other variables change. These studies spanned a period over 12 years, and actually deserve some attention for several reasons (Landy and Trumbo, 1980: 391):

1. The authors conclude with the radical suggestion that workers have a feeling that affect their work behaviour.

2. Their approach of field experimentation demonstrates both the strength and weakness of the particular research method.

3. They suggest that the way in which workers "perceive" objective reality may be more important in understanding behaviour than the facts of objective reality.

The early studies are similar in their focusing to that of the Taylor's tradition. The impact of changes in physical conditions on productivity has been examined. The initial results indicate that the members in the experiments improved in performance as a result of changes in physical condition. This is known as a "Hawthorne Effect". It is one of the oldest and best established findings in industrial psychology. It states that almost any change, even trivial

changes in working environment or job will bring about an improvement in productivity because, presumably, employees respond to the interest that is being taken in them.The Hawthorn effect adds many complications to the scientific evaluation of changes in working method. This result led to other Hawthorn studies to examine why productivity increases despite deterioration in physical conditions. The Hawthorne studies signaled the need for management to study and understand the relationships among people and management action. The most significant factor affecting organisation productivity was found to be the interpersonal relationships that are developed in the job rather than pay and working conditions. A new departure of studies began to emerge in the 1930s. This is known as the social or human relation school. This departure stresses the friendly employee-management relations, good supervision, and cohesive work groups (Locke, 1976). However, these studies have been criticised. Alex Carey (in Klein, 1971: 137) claims that the studies' methodology is poor. The major issue revolves around the small sample size and fundamental prediction of the basic data. Landsberger (1958) points out that the most important economic influences of the period are ignored - the "depression and the rise of trade unionism", these two factors have affected workers' responses.

Despite the above criticisms, the Hawthorne experiments provide two basic contributions: the first is related to the informal groups, which can be a powerful factor in employees' behaviour. The second, besides the fact that behavioural research can lead to deeper understanding of the dynamics of behaviour in organisation (Klein, 1971: 137).

Two years after Mayo's preliminary report on Hawthorne studies began to appear, Hoppock (1935) published the first intensive study of job satisfaction. His work marked one of the earliest studies to use survey methods and attitude scales to examine the problem. Accordingly, if a variable in the work situation leads to satisfaction, then its absence results in job dissatisfaction. This view has been carried over contemporary schools of thought. Hoppock suggests that people are not too easily satisfied. Locke (1976: 1299) argues that Hoppock's orientation is not toward any particular management philosophy; rather, his result and interpretations emphasise the multiplicity of factors that could affect

job satisfaction, including both factors that have been studied previously (e.g., fatigue, monotony, working condition, supervision).

In the same era Schaffer attempted another approach. He gave priority to variables "within" the individual as contributing to satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Arguing on a different line, Hoppock suggested that certain variables "outside" the individual affect levels of satisfaction variables as an occupational group. Schaffer found that some psychological "sets" or mechanisms operate to make people satisfied or dissatisfied in general. He concluded that the individual has a set of twelve basic needs (e.g., recognition, affection, mastery, and economic security). These needs have the same characteristics as Maslow's five needs and the Adlfer's three basic needs (these two models will be discussed in the following section). According to Schaffer, the overall job satisfaction of an individual could be predicted from information concerning only the first two most important needs of that individual. If these two important needs are being satisfied by the job, the individual would give an account of overall job satisfaction, if not being satisfied overall dissatisfaction would be notified (Landy and Trumbo, 1980: 395). The importance of Schaffer's study lies in its clarify of individuals' differences in their importance of needs, rather than identification of the two important needs for an individual.

In conclusion, earlier schools of thought have laid down a strong foundation for the majority of the trends in job satisfaction and performance studies.

## 2.5. Current Theories of Job Satisfaction

Campbell et al., (1970: 341) provide an interesting assessment by dividing job satisfaction theories into two categories, Mechanic or process theories and Substantive or content theories. This assessment will be discussed in the following sections.

### 2.5.1. Content Theories

Content theories "try to explain and describe the process of how behaviour is energized, how it is directed, how it is sustained, and how it is stopped" (Campbell et al., 1970: 341). It accounts for factors influencing job satisfaction, and its researchers are interested in identifying the factors which result in job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Maslow's need theory (1954), Herzberg et al., Two-Factor theory (1959), and McGregor (1960) are examples of these theories. The most contemporary views of job satisfaction have in fact emerged from these theories and won the widest acceptance among people in the field of psychology and management research (Campbell et al., 1970).

#### 2.5.1.1. Maslow's Hierarchical Theory

Abraham Maslow (1954) proposes one of the most widely mentioned theories concerning human needs and their effect on human behaviour. He states that human motives develop sequentially according to a hierarchy of five levels of need. These needs come in a specific order or hierarchy so that one level of needs must be met before a person progresses to satisfy the higher levels. The five levels of needs are: (1954: 35-46): physiological, safety (security), belongingness and love, esteem, and self-actualization. A dynamic relationship among these need categories is postulated in the association mode: a hierarchy of prepotency, with physiological needs being most prepotent. In the application mode Maslow suggests that facilitation of self actualization leads to beneficial consequences both for the individual and society.

Maslow's Need-Hierarchy has been subjected to considerable research (Davis, 1946; Centers, 1948; Morse & Weiss, 1955; Layman 1955; Veroff, Atkinson, Feld, and Gurin, 1960; Pellegrin & coates, 1957; Porter 1961, 1962, 1963; Glaser, 1964; Bray & Grants, 1966; Hall & Nougaim, 1968; Alderfer, 1969, 1972; Lawler & Suttle, 1972; and others). These studies used Maslow's

theory as a frame of reference for understanding management in industry. When the need hierarchy is translated into the behavioural science literature, and its attendant pragmatic, capitalist, industrial culture, it becomes part of a concern not with general human psychology, but with specific ends and outcomes. In other words, Maslow hierarchy is translated into a different communicational context. For instance, Douglas McGregor (1960) in his book "the human side of enterprise" typically encountered Maslow's form and presented the conventional "Theory X" and "Theory Y" (This theory will be discussed later in this chapter).

Alderfer (1969, 1972) reconstructed the Maslow's hierarchy into a set of three basic needs labeled Existence, Relatedness, and Growth needs (ERG). He (1972) listed a number of suggestions dealing with interrelationships between the desire for the objects incorporated by a certain need and the satisfaction/frustration with those objects. These suggestions are: (1) the less a need is satisfied the more it is desired; (2) the less a "higher-order" need is satisfied the more lower needs are desired; and (3) the more a need is satisfied the more higher-order needs are desired. It is clear that higher-order is not used in the Maslow sense but refers to the level of the concreteness in the need objects.

Despite its popularity, Maslow's theory faced a number of criticisms. For example, Buchanan and Huczynski (1985: 55) mention two main problems related to this theory. First, "it is difficult to see how it can predict behaviour. The amount of satisfaction that they has to be achieved before one may progress from one step to the next in the hierarchy is difficult to define and measure". Second, this theory is "more like a social philosophy than a psychological theory". However, Maslow's work provided a fruitful area and has stimulated a lot of thinking and research and, also, lead some organisations to change their practices for motivating employees. Therefore, Maslow is clearly correct to draw attention to the fact that human behaviour is influenced by a number of different

motives (Buchanan & Huczynski 1985: 55) and his efforts mark one of the most important developments for many years.

### 2.5.1.2. Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory

Herzberg et al., (1959) extend Maslow's work and developed a theory of work motivation that has broad implications for management and human behaviour. Unlike Maslow, Herzberg and his associates believe that lower needs never get satisfied. Maslow's system has not worked in application because the biological and psychological needs of man are parallel systems, rather than one or the other assuming initial importance (Rethmeyer, 1975: 21). Herzberg took this into consideration and built his well-known theory that this material and moral motives of human beings are not separated. In other words, Herzberg argued that people have two different categories of needs instead of five (i.e., Maslow's needs). These needs are essentially independent of each other and affect behaviour in different ways.

Two categories of causal factors have been identified: One is closely related to the job content and task performance, which includes achievement, recognition, challenging work, advancement, and growth in job. These variables originating satisfaction called "motivators" or "satisfiers". If one of these variables is not in operation, this will not lead to dissatisfaction. The other category of variables is related to the context and the organisation of work: they include company policy and administration, supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relationships, salary, status, job security, and personal life. These variables may cause dissatisfaction, but will not motivate people. They are called "hygiene" or "maintenance" factors. If there is a lack of these variables, dissatisfaction will arise unless they are met. If there is nothing lacking about these variables (e.g., the work is well organized), it will not lead to satisfaction.

In short, Herzberg et al., insist that improvement of hygiene factors might reduce dissatisfaction but could not provide much satisfaction. Thus improvement of working conditions or salary might serve to reduce dissatisfaction but supposedly would not "cure" motivational problems directly concerned with the nature of the work content and task performance. Also, it has been found that people with a high need to achieve tend to (1) seek and assume high degree of personal responsibility; (2) take calculated risks; (3) set challenging but realistic goals for themselves; (4) develop comprehensive plans to help them achieve their goals; (5) seek and use concrete measurable feedback of the result of their actions; and (6) seek out business opportunities where their desire to achieve will not be thwarted (McClelland, 1961).

Herzberg's efforts have been heavily criticized, particularly because the research is based entirely on what people said about good and bad work experiences. Several commentators have noted that people often attribute unpleasant events to forces outside themselves while taking personal credit for successes (Bolman & Deal 1984: 85). The "story-telling method" does not describe the specific means in jobs that lead to satisfaction but rather refers to processes (e.g., achievement, recognition), which result from behaviour (Cooper 1977: 32-33).

The research on Herzberg's theory has produced finding in disagreement with their basic postulates. There is no clear-cut distinction between the hygiene and motivator factors. Herzberg arrives at this classification through the data he collected. In a sense, the factor categories are empirically derived. However, it has been found that what is a motivator in one organisation can be a hygiene in another (King, 1970). Locke (1969) remarks that nearly all the studies designed to test Herzberg's theory, which have not used his method or his classification system, have failed to support the theory (e.g., Ewen et al., 1966; Friedlander, 1964; Graen, 1968; Hulin & smith, 1967; Lindsay et al., 1967; Wernimont,

1966). A persistent finding of these studies is that factors related to the work itself (e.g., achievement, failure) are potent determinants of both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. However, in a later study Herzberg (1968) developed the Two-Factor theory based on his research with managers and workers in the study of "job enrichment programme". He proposed that the only way you can give people an opportunity to satisfy motivator needs is to provide them with interesting work, through job enrichment because "job enrichment provides the opportunity for the employees psychological growth". Herzberg's study explains how to enrich an employee's job and suggests the principle and practical steps that have emerged from several experiments. According to Herzberg's new approach enrichment is not the same as "Horizontal job enlargement" by adding more dull tasks to an already dull job does not enrich it. This enrichment is by "vertical job loading", giving the individual more freedom and authority, more accountability, more feed back, more challenge, and the use of more skills (Bolman & Deal, 1984: 85). Herzberg (1968) gives the main points of the argument in his well-known phrase:

> If you have someone on a job use him, if you can't use him get rid of him, either via automation or by selecting someone with lesser ability. If you can't use him and you can't get rid of him, you will have a motivation problem.

This approach has found support, many theories point in the direction of job enrichment as a way to produce a better fit between the individual's needs and the organisation. Buchanan (1979: 45), however, states that job enrichment is not a panacea "the success of job enrichment as a managerial technique is dependent upon correct diagnosis of the presenting problem to ensure that job enrichment is the appropriate solution".

Finally, employees as human beings are difficult to motivate by hygiene factor alone, especially today's employees, who are more educated, more independent, and less submissive. There is no doubt that Herzberg's effort has

contributed substantially to the study of motivation. It extended and enriched Maslow's work and made it more applicable to work motivation.

### 2.5.1.3. X and Y Theories

Douglas McGregor's work (1960) is one of the most influential works on human relations and motivation in management. He establishes two theories (Theory X and Theory Y) on the way people should be managed. He believes that organisations should recognize the employee's need hierarchy and try to arrange conditions (such as satisfying their own needs), so that the employee can contribute maximally to the goals of the organisation.

In theory X McGregor assumes that the workers is just another resource of production which should be manipulated by management to assure the greatest efficiency. This theory ignores motivation as the basic factor. Lately agreed to be the most important one in stimulating people to work effectively. The assumption is very similar to the view of scientific management about human nature and human motivation. Theory X also assumes that people generally dislike work, are lazy and must be directed, have little desire for responsibility, are self seeking, and primarily motivated by money, fringe benefits, and threat of punishment, and will take advantage of the organisation if given too much freedom.

Specifically, theory X is characterised by the following assumptions ( as cited by Dalton and Lawrence 1971: 304-305):

1. Management is responsible for organizing the elements of productive enterprise - money, material, equipment, people, - in the interest of economic ends.

2. With respect to people, this is a process of directing their effort, motivating them, controlling their actions, modifying their behaviour to fit the needs of the organisation.

3. Without this active intervention by management, people would be passive, even resistant to organisational needs. They must therefore be persuaded, rewarded, punished, controlled-their activities must be directed.

4. The average man is by nature indolent - he works as little as possible.

5. He lacks ambition, dislikes responsibility, prefers to be led.

6. He is inherently self-centered, indifferent to organisational needs.

7. He is, by nature, resistant to change.

Under the above assumptions, top management has to direct every single movement in management. It has to plan, organise, direct, and closely supervise and control the efforts of employees. This means that employees have only to follow directions from above. Authority, according to theory X, is the central indispensable means of managerial control.

McGregor went further and questioned the validity of this theory, as to whether this view of human nature is correct and if many practices based upon it are appropriate in today's society. He also asked how, if people are living in a democratic society, with its increasing educational level and standard of living, and capable of more natural behaviour, such assumption could be their way of thinking. McGregor concludes that theory X assumptions, when universally applied, are often inaccurate and that management approaches which are developed from these assumptions may fail to motivate people to work towards organisational goals. For these and many other reasons, he develops another theory (i.e., Theory Y) of managing people, based on the following assumptions (cited in Dalton & Lawrence, 1971: 310):

1. People are not by nature passive or resistant to organisational needs. They have become so as a result of experience in organisations.

2. People don't have to be threatened to work; people have the ability to develop a sense of objective, which makes them more productive.

3. The motivation, the potential for development, the capacity for assuming responsibility, the readiness to direct behaviour toward organisational goals are all present in people. Management does not put them there, it is a responsibility of management to make it possible for people to recognize and develop these human characteristics for themselves.

4. The essential task of management is to arrange organisational conditions and methods of operation so that people can achieve their own goals best on their own toward organisational objectives.

Theory Y, which is the opposite to the traditionally oriented theory X, is based on the assumption that people have the potential, the desire, and the capability of doing their assigned work effectively if they are given self-respect and recognition. Thus, the manger's essential task is to arrange organisational conditions and methods of operation, so people can best achieve their own goals by directing their efforts toward the subjectives of the organisation. It is clear that the assumption of this theory is similar to the contextual of the original Maslow's work.

Clearly, McGregor's theories alone can not solve all motivational problems any more than another approaches (Fischman, 1976). Clearly, theory Y , for example, does not deny the need for authority, but such authority should be recognised as merely one of several methods of managerial control, one that is appropriate some of time but not all of the time. However, both theories have provided a clear and provocative set of assumptions about the working environment. Much depends upon the attitudes of top management, but the manager or supervisor can play a vital role to influence the attitudes that manifest in his division, department, or section. Finally, theory X and Y have provided a helpful and instructive perspective on motivational possibilities for modern management to consider.

### 2.5.2. Process Theories

In the former section the content theories of job satisfaction have been discussed. Contrary to these, there are a number of theories called process theories which "attempt to provide an account of the process by which variables such as needs, values, and expectation interact with the characteristics of the job, thereby, producing job satisfaction (Campbell et al., 1970: 341). Equity, Fulfillment, Discrepancy, and VIE (Valence-Instrumentality-Expectancy) theory, are examples of process theories. Its classified as process theories - in contrast to a content theories - "primarily because it attempts to identify relationships among variables in a dynamic state as they affect individual behaviour" (Steers & Porter, 1979: 210).

The following section deals with the relevant process theories to this research.

#### 2.5.2.1. Equity Theory

Adams (1963,1965) proposes that satisfaction is evaluated by a person through comparing employees' perceived inputs to outcomes. At the essence of the theory is the idea that people seek a balance in the input-output relationship. If the rewards from an exchange in the work situation are perceived by the worker as exceeding the level of input provided by that individual, a feeling of guilt will result. If, however, the reward level is perceived as not measuring up to the quantity of input he/she will believe they are providing a feeling of being cheated develops.

In the early research, Adams and Rosenbaum (1962) extended the implication of cognitive dissonance theory. They examined the pay inequities and workers' productivity. They found that overpayment (perceived as more than equitable) on an hourly basis led to increased productivity, while overpayment as a piecework

basis led to decreased productivity. They induced feelings of equity or inequity in their subjects by holding the pay rate constant and experimantally altering self-perception of qualification through an attitude induction process. Later, Adams and Jacobsen (1964) investigated the efforts of pay inequities on quality of output and test a plausible none dissonance explanation of the observed effects of inequity. The data of this study supports only a dissonance theory interpretation. Specifically job insecurity or high/low job prospects do not influence the behaviour of the subjects.

Many studies have explored various formulations of equity theory, considered various alternative hypotheses, and used a wide diversity of alternative research designs to empirically investigate equity consideration.[2] Steers and Porter (1979: 129-133) widely review Equity Theory studies and remark that

> studies suggested general support for equity theory predictions. In the overpayment-hourly condition, a number of studies have provided some support for the prediction that overpaid subjects will produce higher quantity than equitably paid subjects (Adams & Rosenbaum, 1962; Goadman & Friedman, 1968; Lawler, 1968; Pritchard, Dunnette & Jorgenson, 1972; Wiener, 1970)...In the overpayment-piece rate condition, support for this theory has been found by Adams (1963), Adams & Jacobsen(1964), Adams & Rosenbaum(1962), Andrews(1967), and Goodman & Friedman(1969). Mixed or marginal support for the theory was provided by Lawler, Koplin, Young, and Fadem(1968), and Wood and Lawler(1970).

On the other hand, a number of writers (Campbell & Pritchard, 1970; Goodman & Friedman, 1970; Pritchard, 1969; Lawler, 1968) criticize equity theory studies. They, for instance, state that all experimental work on equity theory has suffered from two major limitations. First, the various modifications

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2 The wide review of literature related to equity theory can be found in Opsahl & Dunnette (1966) ; Pritchard (1969) ; Lawler (1968) ; Goodman & Firedman (1971) ; Campbell & Pritchard (1976) ; Steers & Porter (1979) ; Koopman-Iwema (1980)

on Adam's work all continue to depend upon an experimental manipulation of the subjects' perception of either his qualifications or the job requirements depending upon this to achieve feelings of equity or inequity, as did the original experiments. This is a relatively weak and imprecise procedure, and has a reasonably high probability of producing artificial results. Second, the reported experiments have generally been structured around experimental designs having the subjects work alone (e.g. conducting on the street interviews) and do not consider the interactive or social effects of one's peers.

Several writers have seriously questioned the extent to which overpayment in work organisations may lead to perceived inequity (Steers and Porter, 1979: 134). Locke (1976) for instance, argues that employees are seldom told they are overpaid or made to feel incompetent to perform their job duties as is the case in laboratory experiments. Campbell and Pritchard (1970) also point out that employer-employee relationships are highly impersonal when compared to exchanges between two close friends. Perceived overpayment inequity may more likely in the latter exchange relationship than in the former. Individuals may react to overpayment inequity only when they believe their actions have led to someone else's being treated unfairly. In sum, the theory is able to supply a useful explanation research regarding the human tendency to evaluate itself by means of comparison with one or more others.

### 2.5.2.2. Discrepancy Theory

Discrepancy Theory has been developed in an effort to account for individual differences in evaluating job outcomes (Lawler, 1973). Katzell (1964) and Locke (1969) have probably presented the most completely developed discrepancy theory approaches to satisfaction. They maintain that satisfaction is determined by differences between the actual rewards a person receives and some other rewards or outcome level. Lawler states that theories differ widely in their

definitions of this other outcome level, he points "For some theories it is the outcome level the person feels should be received, and for other theories it is the outcome level the person expects to receive" (pp. 66-67). Katzell (1964: 341) also states in his version of the theory, that it "attempts to link job satisfaction, incumbents' personal values, job environment, out-of job environment, participation in and withdrawal from jobs and occupations, and job performance or achievement". He understands job satisfaction as based on the discrepancy between actual and some desired amount. With both the magnitude and importance of the amount considered in the evaluation. Katzell's basic formula is:

$$\text{Satisfaction} = 1-( [X-V]/V) \qquad (1)$$

Where: X = actual amount of the outcome
V = the amount most desired of the outcome

Locke (1969) points out two important critiques of Katzell's formula: first, the formula is based on actual X-V discrepancies whereas, it is clear, the individuals who perceived discrepancies that determined affect; second, the formula indicates that the more one wants of some element (holding importance constant) the less dissatisfying a given discrepancy will be. Therefore, he embarks on a new line of research using a value-precept discrepancy model to predict satisfaction. He presents a similar approach to Katzell's model, but emphasises two important differences (cited by Lawler, 1973: 67):

> first, he emphasizes that perceived discrepancy, not the actual discrepancy, is important. Second, satisfaction is determined by the simple difference between what the person wants and what he perceives he receives. The more his want exceeds what he receives, the greater his dissatisfaction.

Locke's assumption is that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one's job

and what one perceives it as offering. According to Locke (1969) this assumption depends upon three elements (1) the perception of some aspect of the job; (2) an implicit or explicit value standard; and (3) a conscious or subconscious judgment of the relationship between one's perception and one's value.

Another discrepancy theory is the Personality-Environment fit (P-E) model[3]. Thierry and Koopman-Imewa (1984: 156) state that this model relates satisfaction to the individual's degree of "adjustment", this adjustment depending on the extent to which the characteristics of himself as a person and those of his environment (e.g., his work) are attuned to each other. This model is applied especially in connection with research on stress on the job.

#### 2.5.2.3. Fulfillment Theory

The preceding sections have shown that individuals differ in what they want from their job. The essential goal of discrepancy theories is to examine the way such differences operate in relation to job satisfaction. Fulfillment theory determines satisfaction by the extent to which the individual's work and working situation afford him outcomes which he holds as valuable (Vroom, 1964; Lawler, 1973). The essential points here are, in terms of expectancy theory, values and valence. Satisfaction is not only related to the already achieved outcomes, but also to those which are expected to be achieved (Thierry and Koopman-Iwema, 1984: 155). A number of researchers have adopted the fulfillment theory to measure people's satisfaction. They simply ask the subjects how much of a given facet or outcomes they are receiving. So, they view satisfaction as depending on how much of a given outcome (or group of outcomes) a person receives (Lawler, 1973: 65).

Fulfillment theorists have considered how facet satisfaction measures combine to determine overall satisfaction. Three types of studies provide this

3 For more details see French et al., 1974, Kahn, 1981.

evidence. The first type has attempted to improve the prediction of overall job satisfaction multiplying the individual's satisfaction rating for each job aspect by his important rating for that aspect (e.g., Schaffer, 1953; Decker, 1955; Ewen, 1967; Mikes & Hulin, 1968). The second, is concerned with the relationship between satisfaction and importance (e.g., Schaffer, 1953; Friedlander, 1965; Decker, 1955; Ewen, 1967; Mobely and Locke, 1970; Locke, 1969). Finally, the third type examined the shape of the relationship between the average importance attached to a job aspect and the degree of satisfaction with that aspect (e.g., Friedlander, 1965; Dachler and Hulin, 1969). These studies suggest that those aspects with which there is extreme satisfaction or dissatisfaction will be rated as more important than those aspect about which there are more neutral feelings.

Both empirical and theoretical evidence of fulfillment theory suggest that effect rating does reflect value importance. Empirical studies indicate that people's satisfaction is a function of both how much they receive and of how much they feel they should or want to receive (Locke, 1969). Lawler comments on this view(1973: 66):

> the point is that people's reactions to what they receive are not simply a function of how much they receive; their reactions are strongly influenced by such individual-difference factors as what they want and what they feel they should receive. Individuals difference factors are the shortcoming point in this theory, and this suggests that the fulfillment theory approach is not valid to job satisfaction, since this approach fails to take into account differences in people's feelings about what outcomes they should received.

Moreover, Grunenberg (1979: 25) criticises this theory, by showing that it ignores the importance of particular needs. Thus, a view of job satisfaction which does not take into account the relative importance of needs is misleading.

### 2.5.2.4. Expectancy Theory

Expectancy theories have created a vast quantity of empirical studies and the most widely accepted theories among today's industrial and organisational psychologists. Therefore, it is worth paying more attention to dealing with these theories.

The two original statements and developments of expectancy theory have been made by Tolman (1932) and Lewin (1938). These theories depend on the conception that (Porter and Lawler 1968: 9)

> people have behaviour response 'expectation' or 'anticipation' about future events...that take the form of beliefs concerning with the likelihood that particular acts will be followed by particular outcomes.

Historically, many writers (e.g., Edwards, 1954; Peak, 1955; Atkinson, 1957; Davidson et al., 1959; Georgopoulos et al., 1957; and Tolman, 1959; and later, Victor H. Vroom, 1964) contributed to the development of these theories. The authors have explicitly formulated three basic concepts of the theory. These concepts are: Valence, Instrumentality, and Expectancy (VIE). Vroom (1964) proposes three related models, the first being job satisfaction, the second work motivation, and the third job performance. Regarding the job satisfaction model he states that: "the valence (or satisfaction) of an outcome to a person is a monotonically increasing function of the algebraic sum of the products of the valence of all other outcomes and his conceptions of its instrumentality for the attainment of these other outcomes" (P.17). The equation of this proposition is as follows:

$$V_j = F_i[\Sigma(V_k \times I_{jk})] \qquad (2)$$

Where: $V_j$ = Valence of outcome j

$V_K$ = Valence of outcome k

$I_{jk}$ = the organized Instrumentality = (-1<Ijk,1) of outcome j for the attainment of outcome k.

According to Vroom, "valence" expresses an individual's "effective" orientation toward particular outcomes. The valence can take a wide range of positive and negative values between -1 and +1. Leed (1979) argues that Vroom's conceptualization of valence is related to, and derives from, the one postulated by Lewin (1938) and Tolman (1959), as well as the concept of incentive (Atkinson, 1958), attitude (Peak, 1955), and expected utility (Edward, 1954; Davidson, Suppes and Siegel, 1957). However, Vroom defined instrumentality as "an outcome-outcome association". It is the degree to which an individual sees an outcome in question as leading to the attainment of other outcomes.

The earlier treatment of instrumentality concept includes the "instrumental relation" in attitude structure (Rosenberg, 1956), as well as the "Path-goal instrumentality" of Georgopoulose et al. (1957).

Vroom's model has been used in many studies to predict job satisfaction. The studies include: Vroom, (1966); Graen, (1969); Mitchell and Albright, (1972); Reinharth, (1974); Lawler, Kuleck, Rhode and Sorensen, (1975); Schneider, (1976). In the field of occupational preference such as, Peters, Hundert & Beer, (1968); Sheard, (1970); Mitchell & Kundsen, (1973), and finally in good performance like, Pritchard & Deleo, (1973); Reinharth, (1974); Gailbraith and Cummings, (1967).

Vroom's second model of work motivation based on the proposition that "the force on a person to perform an act is a monotonically increasing function of the algebraic sum of the products of the valence of all outcomes and the strength of his expectation that the act well followed the expressed mathematical proposition", as follows:

$$F_i = f_i[\Sigma(E_{ij} \times V_j)] \qquad (3)$$

Where: F=force(motivation) to perform an act.
E=Expectancy that act i will be followed by outcome j.
V=The valence of outcome j.

The force concept has been defined by Vroom as the direction and strength of the motivation for an individual to choose from alternative actions in expectancy energy. The expectancy has been defined as "a momentary belief concerning the likelihood that a particular act will be followed by a particular outcome" (Vroom, 1964: 17).

Vroom's second equation has become known a "behavioural Choice or Job Effort" model (Mitchell, 1974). This model also has gained popularity in studies who used it to predict effort (e.g., Hakman & Porter, 1968; Lawler & Suttle, 1972; Jorgenson, Dunnette & Pritchard, 1973; Pritchard & Sanders, 1973; Kopelman, 1974) and occupational choice (Arnold 1976; Solomon, Messmer, & Liddell, 1977) and to predict performance (Graen 1969; Goodman, Rose, & Furcon, 1970; Lawler & Suttle, 1973; Pritchard & Sanders, 1973; Turney, 1974).

In the third model of job performance, Vroom proposes that job performance is the function of the interaction between ability and motivation as in the following formula:

$$P = f(\text{Ability} \times \text{Motivation}) \qquad (4)$$

Where ability= intelligence, personality, learning, skill, etc.

There are several modifications and developments of Vroom's formulations. Galbraith and Cummings (1967) distinguish between first and second order outcomes. First order outcomes are the direct result of an individual's effort to act (e.g., performance, training), while second order outcomes, those outcomes which are contingent upon first order outcomes (e. g., pay, promotion, self

esteem, etc). This is to consider valence, instrumentality, and expectancy stimulanceously, they chose to combine the first and the second equation, by substituting ($\Sigma$IV) for (Vj), Their equation is:

$$W = f[E.(\Sigma I_{ij} \times V_j)] \quad (5)$$

Where W=effort.

Porter and Lawler (1968) further expanded the model by including the role perception about the work situation. They hypothesized that performance is a function of the three ways interaction among exerted effort (E) or motivation, ability (A) and role perception (R) as in the following equation:

$$P = f\ (E \times A \times R) \quad (6)$$

House and Wahba (1972) presented 14 studies to test the expectancy theory. The test indicates that two classes of predictor (expectancy II and valence of extrinsic rewards) most consistently yielded moderately high regression coefficients of performance, and the multiplicative interaction of these two predictors hold rather consistently, whereas multiplicative combinations of expectancy I and intrinsic or extrinsic valence are seldom supported. They find that there is evidence that the predictive validity of intrinsic valence associates with work behaviour. From the evidence of their study they support the following formulation (Wahba and House, 1974):

$$M = IV_a, E_i, IV_b + \Sigma(E_2 + EV_n) \quad (7)$$

M=motivation to work

$IV_a$=intrinsic valence of work goal accomplishment

$E_i$=expectancy that effort will lead to work goal accomplishment

$IV_b$=intrinsic valence associated with work goal behaviour

$E_2$=expectancies that goal accomplishment will lead to extrinsic outcome.

$EV_n$= valence of extrinsic outcomes.

In short, Vroom's models have undergone four development (1) the

distinction between first and second level outcomes; (2) identification of intrinsic sources of valence; (3) the distinction between expectancy I and expectancy II; (4) elaboration to predict the effect of given additional variables in the work situation (e.g., the incorporation of ability and role perception to explain job performance, and the concept of equity to explain job satisfaction etc.).

## 2.6. Summary and Conclusions

Job satisfaction is considered one of the most researched topics in the industrial and organisational studies. One reason for this popularity is that job satisfaction is important to every one's well-being, since a large portion of people's lives is spent in working. Another reason is related to the increasing belief that job satisfaction leads to an increase in productivity and ultimately an increase in profitability and quality of goods and services. So this topic has been the focus of numerous studies for more than five decades, beginning with Scientific Management in the early 1920s and continuing up to the present time.

Basic job satisfaction theories have been divided into two categories: Content Theories and Process Theories.The first one attempts to identify the factors which contribute to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. Maslow's Need Theory (1954); Herzberg et al., Two-Factor Theory (1959); and McGregor's X and Y Theory (1960), have been described as content theories because, they are primarily an "attempt to specify the particular needs that must be attained for an individual to be satisfied with his job" (Locke, 1976: 1300). Contrary to these theories, the Process Theories attempt to describe the interaction between variables in their relationship to job satisfaction. Due to these theories, "job satisfaction is determined by the extent of discrepancy between what the job offers and what the individual expects; what the individual needs; and what the individual values" (Granenberg, 1979: 19). Discrepancy

Theory, Fulfillment Theory, and Expectancy Theory are an example of these theories.

According to the previous theoretical background, there is still confusion in defining job satisfaction concept, its causes, and its relationship to job performance due to the differences in perspective. From the perspective of scientific research, human resource administrators are not sure what definition of job satisfaction is. It has been defined by diversity of research as motivation, morale, or job attitude, each term specifying but not clarifying the nature of the relationship between an employee and his work organisation (Lawler, 1972). On the other hand, researchers are not sure about the causes of job satisfaction. They have tended to focus instead on the causes and consequences of motivation. Herzberg's theory distinguishes between satisfiers (motivators) and dissatisfiers (hygiene). Maslow assumes a hierarchy of causal variables which fluctuate in importance depending on circumstances. Expectancy theories, such as those developed by Vroom (1964) and Lawler (1973), are based on the assumption that each person's intrinsic motivation is determined by his perceptions of the desirability of rewards and the chances of attaining them. Fulfillment theory places the emphasis on a workers' evaluation of job-related outcomes. Discrepancy theory developed to account for individual differences in evaluating job outcomes. However, none of these theories have been convincingly validated by research findings (Klingner, 1983). On the subject of its relationship to job performance, the conclusion that can be drawn job satisfaction/job performance is quite complex one (The next chapter deals with this matter in detail).

Finally, what has been discussed above clearly shows that there are aspects of implications which the present study is going to deal with regarding employees' attitudes in warehousing. On the one hand, It has provided a useful framework for looking at research trends in job satisfaction and productivity. On the other hand, it has provided a basis for future research in job satisfaction and

performance. So it shed light on how to work out through a more appropriate and practical approach depending on the failure and the success of the related theories. However, the present study is different from the foregoing studies, since it investigates the satisfaction and performance of specific group of employees (warehousing employees) in a number of firms and organisations in the industrial sector in a developing country (Iraq).

As a conclusion, several approaches to satisfaction and work performance have been dealt with in this chapter. Each approach has its own specific areas of emphasis and implication. However, it appears that no theory of job satisfaction can explain all its aspects in different organisational settings. Herzberg's approach, for example, lies in its emphasis on satisfaction/dissatisfaction criteria to the extent of neglecting behavioural criteria such as performance, absenteeism, and labour turnover. So, it has never been successfully replicated because this methodological shortcoming. This leads one to question the validity of his findings. Therefore, this study pursues this idea further through its results of an analysis of job satisfaction and job performance in warehouse settings in a developing country.

# CHAPTER THREE
# REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE ON SATISFACTION/PERFORMANCE RELATIONSHIP

## 3.1. Introduction

In the course of the previous chapter we have considered the basic theories in which our investigation has its roots. This chapter identifies the major schools of thought concerning the relationship between satisfaction and performance and focuses attention on research bearing on the efficacy of each research.

In reviewing and evaluating the literature on job satisfaction/job performance relationship, several directions of this relationship distinguish between these two variables. Some studies suggest that satisfaction has a low but consistent effect on performance; others, hold that performance causes, in effect, satisfaction (i.e., performance influences satisfaction). The third group of studies deny any causal or direct relationship between these two variables. They rather maintain such a relationship which is mediated by a third variable.

These schools of thought will be the major subject in the following sections, containing the relevant literature to the present study.

## 3.2. Job Satisfaction Causes Job Performance

Studies in human behavior indicate that well motivated people are happy, active, cooperative, and productive at their work place. Poorly motivated people, show unhappiness with their jobs, are more costly to the firm in terms of unsatisfactory performance, and tend to show excessive turnover and absenteeism. The concept that a person's satisfaction with his job will affect his performance level rose in the Hawthorne studies era (see Chapter 2). The belief that happy workers will be productive workers is a very attractive concept and

thus has been welcomed too readily.

A number of authors claim that satisfaction contributes to improve performance. Many researchers assume that a positive correlation between these two variables, means that satisfaction causes performance. Some researchers have also over made this assumption in the absence of significant correlational data. In the fifties, for example, Bernberg (1952) finds no relationship between job satisfaction and job performance in a sample of one-thousand industrial workers. Although he admitted that his findings failed to confirm his hypothesis, he still asserts that satisfaction causes performance. Similarly, in the same year Gadel and Kriedt (1952) claim that satisfaction led to performance even though their study failed to show any relationship between these variables. Whereas, Baxter and his associate (1953) report a significant positive correlation between satisfaction and performance in a sample of two hundred life insurance agents. Therefore, these authors conclude that greater satisfaction led to better performance. Similar findings have accumulated in the literature in that era, but the popularity of the belief that "Satisfaction causes Performance" has declined since the mid 1950s.

This decline is mainly due to the findings of Brayfield and Crockett (1955). After reviewing more than fifty empirical studies, they concluded that there is little evidence of any simple or appreciable relationship between employees' attitudes and the effectiveness of their performance (Vroom, 1964:181). These authors condemn the practice of applying "satisfaction causes performance" beliefs in organizational settings. Brayfield and Crockett's analysis does not, however, lead to a reassessment of the belief that happy workers will be productive workers. Rather, it resulted in further attempts to support and provide justification for this belief. Herzberg et al. (1959) support this school of thought by developing "two factors theory" of motivation (theoretical background has been discussed in the previous chapter). They examine studies in which the effect of job attitudes on productivity has been measured. Their

findings indicated that in 54 percent of the reported surveys, high morale was associated with high productivity. Although the correlation in many of these studies was low; they concluded that there was "frequent evidence for the often suggested opinion that positive job attitudes are favorable to increased productivity".

The work of Herzberg and his associates has been questioned in several studies considering the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. Earlier in Chapter 2, it has been mentioned that the theory itself and the research have their supporters and opponents. For example, Schwab and Cummings (1970) argue that Herzberg's work shows that satisfaction/performance findings of the motivation to work are being over interpreted in the same way as Roethlisberger and Dickson's findings (1939) in management/work relationship. However, the authors have pointed out relevant research strategies for the study of satisfaction/performance relationship. They have encouraged investigations into the nature of moderator variables and also proposed similar studies on the identification of specific conditions (i.e., potential moderators) under which performance and satisfaction may be related.

Vroom (1964: 184-185), in a review of twenty studies relating satisfaction and performance conducted between 1949 and 1963, found correlations ranging from -0.31 to 0.86, with a median correlation of 0.14. He concluded that the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance was positive, but of a low magnitude.

Another theoretical formulation of "satisfaction causes performance" view has been provided by Organ (1977, 1978) in an interesting application of social exchange theory. According to Organ, workers who have gained satisfaction through receipt of valued rewards may feel compelled to reciprocate or repay the organisation. He (1978: 514) suggested that the most likely form of reciprocation would be high performance, thus completing an exchange sequence

which would result in a "satisfaction causes performance" effect. The social exchange theory has received some attention in the literature but it has not been empirically tested (Organ, 1978; Lorenzi, 1978; Prestwich, 1980). Therefore, it cannot yet be considered as a major development in satisfaction studies.

Another major theoretical position is also reflected in the existence of satisfaction/performance relationship, but it is, in fact, the reversal of assumed causal direction. Lawler and Porter (1967), the principal proponents of this position, claim that the relationship between these variables depends on the status of moderator variables.

### 3.3. Moderator Variables

The major departures of this school depends on an intervening variable as a moderator between job satisfaction and performance. This school emphasises that moderating variables have influence on the relationship between satisfaction and performance. It is important to note that a moderator variable does not necessarily causally affect the other variables. Rather, it is associated with differences in the relationship between these variables (Prestwich, 1980: 10). That is, the relationship between satisfaction and performance changes as a function of the moderator variables.

A number of studies have tested several potential moderators such as pressure for production (Triandis, 1959; Ewen, 1973; Bhagat, 1982); degree of job fit (Carlson, 1969; Dawis et al., 1968); occupational group (Doll & Gunderson 1969; Centers & Bugental, 1966); Supervisory level (Slocum, 1971; Stogdill, 1974; Tjosvold, 1984); self-esteem (Jacobs & Solomon, 1977; Korman, 1967, 1970 1974; Inkson, 1978; Terborg et al., 1980; Alder, 1980); need for achievement (Steers, 1975); and job involvement (Baird, 1976; Bigoness & Grigsby, 1979).

Triandis (1959) suggested a third variable as an intervening variable, namely "pressure for high production". This variable influences the direction of satisfaction/performance relationship. He showed that pressure for production might concomitantly decrease satisfaction and increase productivity. He also suggested that performance and satisfaction should be directly and most strongly linked under the imaginary conditions of no pressure to performance (Bhagat, 1982). In an attempt to test the moderating influence of pressure, Ewen (1973) collected data from a number of students at New york University and showed that course pressure moderated the relationship between expected grade and satisfaction with course. The results of this study provided modest support for the Triandis hypothesis, although, as Ewen (1973) claimed, the study was not designed to provide a complete test of Triandis hypothesis and, therefore, was limited in scope.

Bhagat (1982) tried to support the moderator school by testing two hypotheses derived from Triandis notion. In the first hypothesis, he assumed that "organisational pressure for performance will be a strong situational moderator of the job performance/satisfaction relationship". In the second, he hypothesized that "the degree of experienced time pressure could be a strong situational moderator of the performance/satisfaction relationship". Bhagat found varying degrees of correlation with both performance (independent variable) and job satisfaction (dependent variable). He concluded that under the condition of high pressure to perform, there should be external justification for performance. However, when pressure to perform is low, external justification for performance would be limited. Another trend of this school of thought is the model proposed by March and Simon (1958), namely "satisfaction and the motivation to produce". In this model both satisfaction and performance can serve as dependent variables. March and Simon hypothesized that performance is not necessary for satisfaction, while dissatisfaction is necessary but not a

sufficient condition for performance. It is necessary because dissatisfaction of some sort is assumed to be required to activate the organism toward such behavior. It lacks sufficiency, however, because a dissatisfied person may not perceive performance leading to satisfaction or may perceive no performance as leading to greater perceived satisfaction. The authors, apparently focued primarily on two motivational determinants of performance. They mainly expected the value of rewards and aspiration levels. Schwab and Cummings (1970) stated that "March and Simon model perhaps best bridges the theoretical gap between the satisfaction/performance view of the human relationist and the satisfaction-performance view".

Another moderator variable has been tested by Dawis et al., (1968) in an attempt to develop a theoretical basis for this school of thought by using work adjustment theory. According to this theory, satisfaction and performance are linked through the variable "worker job-fit". When the worker and the job are well matched, the worker will perform better and be more satisfied with his/her work. A poor match, conversely, produces both dissatisfaction and low performance. When either of these conditions holds, a positive relationship between satisfaction and performance is hypothesized. Few researchers have tested Dawis et al. proposition. Carlson (1969), for instance, in a study of 500 white-collar and blue-collar employees has offered some evidence. His findings tend to substantiate the hypothesis that "job satisfaction will be correlated with job performance in samples of workers whose ability levels correspond closely to the ability levels required by their job".

Lawler and Porter (1967) achieved a popular study by carrying out a study in which they establish their theory from the approach discussed previously (i.e., satisfaction causes performance) by including rewards as an intervening variable. They suggested that extrinsic rewards would be imperfectly related to performance, and that intrinsic rewards should be very directly tied to

performance. According to Lawler and Porter, the imperfect relationship between rewards and performance and the moderating influence of perceived equity would be expected to produce low but positive relationships between performance and satisfaction. Cherrington et al. (1971) attempt to test the rewards as moderator variables depend upon how workers perceived the relationship between performance and rewards. They assume that when performance/rewards expectancies are positive, workers would exert greater effort and, consequently, perform better. Moreover, since satisfaction is determined by rewards, greater rewards under this condition are hypothesised to result in higher satisfaction. Conversely, when performance/rewards expectancies are negative, workers would exert little or no effort and would perform poorly, but would still be highly satisfied as a result of high rewards. The results of this study strongly supported the hypothesis that the subjects' experiences moderate the satisfaction/performance relationship and are consistent with the predictions of Lawler and Porter's (1968) model despite the fact that the theoretical bases of their study differ from this model. An example for this would be Porter and Lawler's model implies that, under expectancy rewards conditions, performance causes satisfaction. This is because performance leads to rewards which, in turn, cause satisfaction. Cherrington et al. (1971) clarify that their theory implies no cause/effect relationship between performance and satisfaction, instead, it stresses the performance/reinforcing as well as satisfaction-increasing potential of contingent reinforces.

Another line concerned with job satisfaction/job performance relationship has investigated the moderating effects of self-esteem on the correlation between satisfaction and performance (e.g., Korman, 1966, 1967, 1970, 1974; Gavin, 1973; Greenhause & Badin, 1974; Jacobs & Solomon, 1977; Inkson, 1978; Lopez, 1982; and others).

Korman (1970), For example, in his consistency model, which is derived from Porter and Lawler expectancy model, hypothesises that job performance

should predict job satisfaction only for "high self esteem" persons, whereas job satisfaction should predict job performance only for "low self esteem" persons. He assumes that there are three sources of self esteem/chronic, task specific and socially influences/determines a person level of self perceived competence and ability for the task at hand which, in turn, directly affects the level of job performance. The implication of these assumptions indicates that "individuals of high self esteem would find situations of internal control (implying high competence of themselves) as being more satisfying than situations of high external control, whereas for individuals of low self-esteem, this would not be the case". Gavin (1973) examined Korman's assumptions. Among his findings, however, there is a weak support for Korman's model. Greenhaus & Badin (1974) repeat the investigation among the three sources of self esteem (as outlined by Korman) and job performance as well as the moderating effects of task-specific self-esteem on the relationship between satisfaction and performance. The outlets of the test indicates that workers with high self-esteem exhibit stronger positive relationships between task linking and performance. The suggestion was that self-esteem may play an important role in shaping task performance and satisfaction. In the same way, Lopez (1982) examines the relationship among the three sources of self-esteem. His findings support the idea that self-esteem moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. The findings of Jacobs and Solomon's (1977) study, at three different levels in a national corporation, indicate that self-esteem (along with reward contingency) serves as a moderator variable in the satisfaction/performance relationship. Dipboye et al., (1978) also examine Korman's prediction on the sample of scientists and engineers. Their findings indicate that a person with high self-esteem would exhibit a significant positive correlation between interest and intrinsic satisfaction, while low self-esteem persons show no significant correlation. Inkson's (1978) study findings also

agreed with Korman's model; self-esteem is found to have a significant moderating effect on correlation between intrinsic satisfaction and performance. In short, the reason for the interest of searching self-esteem has been clarified by Tharenou (1979). He stated that many studies suggest that low self-esteem persons have certain characteristics which would seem to inhibit creativity, performance, and the effective interpersonal relations and conflict resolution at work. Low self-esteem persons as compared to high and medium, are more likely to "(a) exhibit anxiety, depression, and neurotic behaviors, (b) perform less effectively under stress and failure, (c) exhibit poorer social skills and less sociability, (d) be more persuasible and conforming, (e) lack initiative and assertiveness, and (f) have lower aspiration and expectation of success".

Another series of studies have examined job involvement as a moderator variable. Researchers like Wood (1974), Baird (1976), Ivancevich (1979), and Bigoness & Grigsby (1979) assume that the job involvement plays a moderator role in job satisfaction/job performance relationship. Generally, all of them note that the satisfaction/performance relationship depends upon workers' job involvement.

Another trend of moderator variable stressed the importance of the "supervisory style" and effect on subordinate satisfaction and performance. Solcum (1971), Stogdill (1974), Gilmore, Beehr and Richter (1979) Tjosvold (1984), and others found that subordinates feel open, want to work with, feel attracted to, and are satisfied with the leader who communicates with them warmly. The impact of these leaders reflects positive attitudes on the subordinates' job performance depending on whether the leader is directive or non-directive (Tjosvold, 1984). "A subordinate who dislikes his supervisor will want to avoid him or persuade him to change his ways or file a grievance against him or refuse to do favors for him or possibly quit the job altogether" (Locke, 1970). Stogdill (1974: 395) concluded that the most effective leader is the one

who provides high initiating structure and high consideration for subordinates. Gilmore, Beehr & Richter (1979) confirmed that "manipulated leaders behaviors caused significant differences in subordinates performance".

Occupational group as a moderator of the satisfaction/performance relationship has gained attention among researchers such as Centers & Bugental (1966), Doll & Gunderson (1969).

Need for achievement and autonomy has gained great attention in many eminent studies as a moderator variable (e.g., Steers, 1975; Stone, Mowday & Porter, 1977; Morris & Snyder, 1979; Johnson & Stinson, 1975; Farh & Scott, 1983; and others). Steers (1975), for example, hypothesizes that the need for achievement has an important effect on the relationship between satisfaction and performance. His study reports a significant relation for both performance/satisfaction relations for high need achievement. He concludes that people "high need achievement will tend to place a higher valence on the attainment of their performance objectives than will low need achievement people". Whereas, no significant relation was found for low need achievement people. Morris and Snyder (1979) examine the moderating influences on need autonomy and need achievement as well as on role perception/outcome relationship.Their findings, however, provide little support for the general proposition of the study.

Other moderator variables include organisational control systems (Tucotte, 1974), cultural socialization processes (Orpen 1974, 1978) and organisational structure (Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1975) in addition to many other variables which have been tested as moderator variables between job satisfaction and job performance. As a result, the satisfaction/moderator/performance school has improved the quality of satisfaction/performance research. Compared with "satisfaction causes performance" school, moderator variable school; consequently, it has generated an unsystematic pattern of empirical findings.

More important mentioning, moderator variable studies have failed to demonstrate that satisfaction and performance are not causally related. These deficiencies have resulted in the development of a third approach which, in contrast with the "satisfaction causes performance" and "moderator variable" approaches, has been primarily theoretical.

### 3.4. Mutual Causality

The performance/satisfaction approach represents an important departure from earlier views about the relationship between these two variables. Later on, moderator school focused on the complexity of the relationship using various intervening variables to account for frequently ambiguous findings of empirical studies. The third school, while it retains the idea of intervening variables, stresses the importance of variations in effort and performance as causes of variations in job satisfaction (Schwab & Cummings 1970). The development of the third school which bears that satisfaction and performance are mutually-causal variables, whereas performance is a stronger cause of a satisfaction than satisfaction of performance. Many theorists and practitioners have contributed for developing and discussing this school (e.g., Herzberg et al., 1959; Vroom 1964; Porter and Lawler, 1967, 1968; Locke, 1967, 1970, 1976; Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Sutermeister, 1971; Lawler, 1969, 1970, 1973; Slocum, 1970, 1971; Wanous, 1974; Sheridan & Slocum, 1975, 1977; Locke & Henne, 1986; and others).

The first explicit theoretical framework has been developed by Vroom (1964) in his Valence-Instrumentality Theory, when he views that "performance causes satisfaction", where the effect is relatively direct while the "satisfaction causes performance" effect is viewed as indirect. Locke (1969, 1970) has also proposed a conceptual model which predicts that "performance causes satisfaction". He suggests that satisfaction is primarily a result of performance and only indirectly a cause of performance. The strength of this relationship, he

says, "depends on the degree of which performance entails or leads to the attainment of the individuals' important job values" (1970: 485). Porter and Lawler (1967) have also presented a major theoretical contribution in this school. It is worthwhile discussing this theory in more detail, because Porter and Lawler create an attempt to integrate theories of motivation, job satisfaction and job performance. Their model is, in fact, based on the following assumptions (Lawler, 1973: 49):

1. People have performance among the various outcomes that are potentially available to them.

2. People have expectancies about the likelihood that an action (effort) on their part will lead to the intended behavior or performance.

3. People have expectancies (instrumentation) about the likelihood that certain outcomes will follow their behavior.

4. In any situation, the action a person chooses to take is determined by the expectancies and the preferences the person has at the time. This model is designed to relate effort, performance, satisfaction in a circular pattern as in Figure (3-1). This figure shows that the most direct linkage has got performance as the causal and satisfaction as the dependent variable. The relationship is moderated by the rewards (Extrinsic and Intrinsic rewards) and the perceived equity of the rewards. When performance leads to rewards which are seen by the individuals as equitable, it is hypothesised that high satisfaction will result (Schwab & Cummings, 1970). That is, efforts and rewards are integrated together to produce performance, and once performance is achieved, satisfaction is assumed to be the result. These variables are included and they have an impact on these constructs and the relationship between them. The value of rewards is one of these variables which has been defined "to how attractive or desirable is a potential outcome of an individual's behavior in the work situation" (Porter & Lawler, 1968: 18). This variable is included to account for individuals'

differences in what is desired by the worker from the job. This aspect is worth considering because it is the mediating variable in a satisfaction and performance feedback loop. This loop indicates that satisfaction which results from received rewards will affect the values attached to subsequent rewards. For example, receipt of sum rewards, such as pay, could reduce the need for additional pay decreasing, as such, its value (Belcher, 1974).

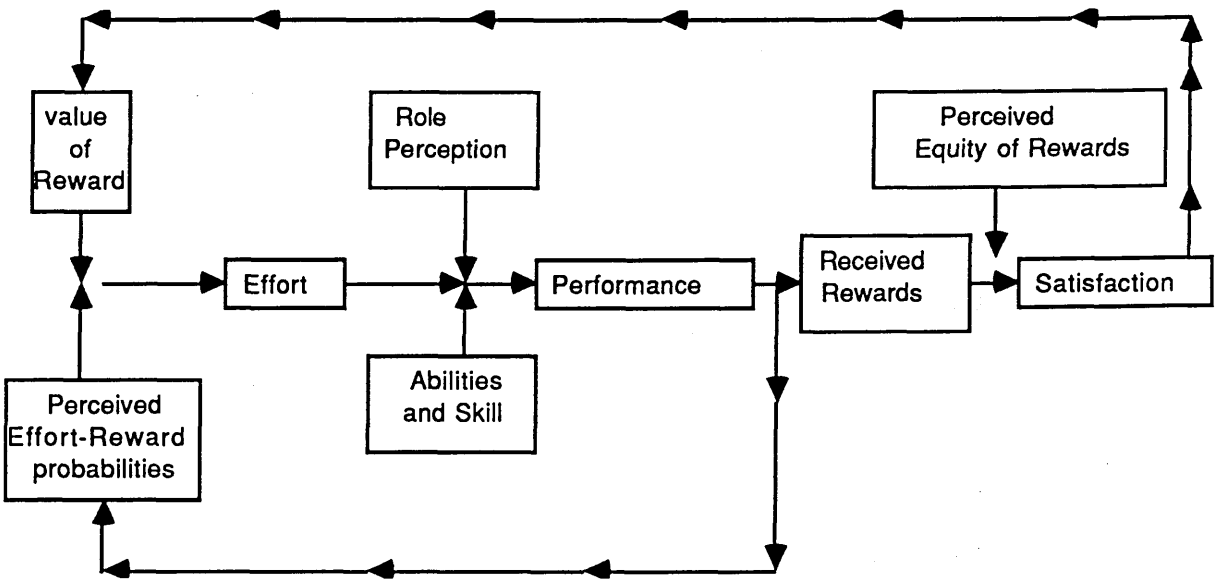



Figure (3-1) The Porter-Lawler Model

Source: Porter & Lawler, 1968:17

Satisfaction resulting from other rewards could generate an opposite cycle, as might be the case with feelings of achievement, where initial achievement increases the value placed on future achievement (Sutermeister, 1971; Greene, 1972; Greene & Craft, 1977). The second feedback loop indicates that actual performance/reward contingencies affect performance/rewards probabilities. Porter and Lawler (1968: 39) stated that this loop is important from a theoretical point of view "because of the failure of most expectancy theories to deal with

past learning". This loop implies that the way in which an organisation rewards an employee following his performance will affect his perception of the linkage of rewards to performance, which will in turn, affect his expectancies. That effort, of course, leads to rewards. Porter and Lawler's model utilizes past learning experiences as a factor in determining expectancies about the future. Their model appears superior to alternative models for several reasons: First, it is more clearly stated than other models and applies variables which have been used in many previous empirical research. Second, Porter and Lawler have presented evidence indicating general support for their models' prediction (Lawler, 1968). Third, the model provides a theoretical framework within which the findings of previous "satisfaction/Performance" studies may be interpreted. All in all, Porter and Lawler's model creates a fruitful area of thinking and practicing in the third school of thought.

Sheridan & Slocum (1975) conduct a study similar to Porter & Lawler. They use crossed-lagged correlational design, and they found out that job satisfaction is the result of prior job performance for managers. A global satisfaction variable is used despite the inclusion of intrinsic and extrinsic components in the satisfaction measure. For workers in low position levels, the findings indicate that need definitely provided the push for the future job performance. Siegal & Bowen (1971) examined the causal effect between satisfaction and performance in a classroom environment. They found that students' performance caused satisfaction. However, these researchers measured satisfaction and performance rather than tasks. It is difficult as such, to compare their findings to other studies. Cherrington et al., (1971) also in a laboratory experiment, find that rewards are contingent on performance and satisfaction / performance are positively related when rewards are determined randomly to high performers and low performers. Whereas, performance and satisfaction are unrelated negatively and correlation is obtained when low performance is

rewarded and high performance is not. Other researchers such as Schuster, Clark, & Rogers (1971) derive two hypotheses from Porter and Lawler's model. The first hypothesis is "the more employees believe that performance factors influence pay, the harder they will work to improve their performance", and the second is "Individual when see pay as a satisfier will try to perform more satisfactory". These hypotheses are confirmed in an environment where the pay-performance relationship is probably stronger than the case in organisations used by Porter and Lawler. Schusster et al., conclude that effort is important primarily because it is believed to result in performance. The individual first sees that this performance will lead him to the desired reward. Since he feels that effort expended leads to performance, he will, then, exert effort which, if role perceptions are accurate, will result in the performance that will attain for him the desired reward of pay.

The findings of Wanous (1974) add a clear picture to the causal-correlational field study by comparing the strength of both causal relationships. His findings indicated that performance causes intrinsic satisfaction, and extrinsic satisfaction causes performance. However, Feldman (1975) comments on Wanous findings and states that he does not attempt to correct the cross-lagged correlations for changes in measurement reliability over time. Furthermore, Wanous also did not rule out alternative explanations for the result (Ivancevich, 1979).

Baird (1976) presents an interesting idea that task stimulation can improve our standing of the performance/satisfaction relationship. In a study of 214 employees examined the relationship between satisfaction and performance. He hypothesised that on stimulating jobs, satisfaction would be positively related to performance. Analysis of variance an correlational analysis revealed that the relationships between performance and satisfaction were exactly opposite to those hypothesised. Therefore Baird study did not address the issue of causal inference; it relied only on static correlational analysis to draw conclusions.

Kesselman et al., (1974) compared the relationship between satisfaction and performance in two separate groups. The first group works under a merit reward system while the second group is rewarded on the basis of seniority. The findings show that performance/satisfaction are more closely related under the merit system than under seniority system.

Sutermeister (1971) investigated the relationship between satisfaction and performance in terms of a series of cycles. This author mentions that Porter and Lawler do not collect data to predict how "changes in level of need satisfaction affect the further values of certain rewards", and builds his framework on this major point to describe the degree of satisfaction at the end of one performance-satisfaction cycle. Sutermeister noticed that individual's position in his life style or cycle (climber, coserver, slider) will affect and determine the level of aspiration to the person raised. The value of the reward and perceived effort/reward probability appears satisfactory to him. However, he will be motivated to improve his effort and performance in the new cycle. If the level of aspiration remains the same and the value of reward and perceived of effort/reward probability remains the same, he will be motivated to continue his previous level of effort in the new cycle. If his level of aspiration is lowered, he will reduce his effort in the new cycle, regardless of the value of reward and perceived effort-reward probability. Based on this explanation, Sutermeister proposes his cyclical model for the relationship between satisfaction and performance as shown in Figure (3-2).

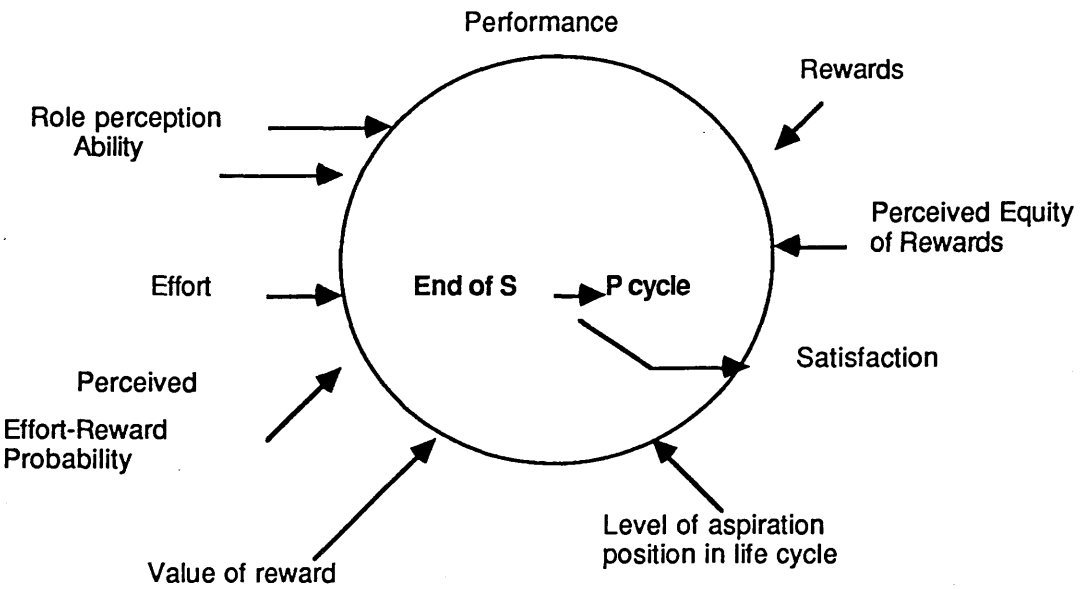



Figure (3-2) The Circular Satisfaction -Performance Relationship

Source: Sutermeister (1971)

Finally, from previous studies and the third school of thought which is well summerised in the major studies done by Porter and Lawler, Locke, and Sutermeister, one can conclude that the linkage between satisfaction and performance runs from performance to satisfaction and they are in agreement that satisfaction and performance are mutually-causal variables, but performance is a much stronger cause of satisfaction than satisfaction is of performance.

### 3.5. Current Status of the Controversy

The previous literature indicates that three different approaches have been developed to explain the relationship between satisfaction and performance. The precise nature of the relationship now remains unclear although it seems to be complex (Jacobs & Soloman, 1977; Gruneberg, 1979; Petty, Mcgee &

Cavender, 1984; Freedman & Phillips, 1985). Consequently, more recent studies have focused on specific conditions under which these two variables relate (Inkson, 1978; Fisher, 1980; Abdel-Halim, 1980). Empirical support for each of the theoretical positions to the three schools of thought have been weak, casting doubt on their correctness.

As regards the first school, which considers performance as a function of satisfaction, Steers (1981: 309) stated that "the fact that workers are satisfied does not mean they will necessarily produce more, only that they are satisfied". Recent research indicates that this approach has acquired little empirical support.

The second school has improved upon satisfaction-performance relationship research by accounting for the moderating influences of intervening variables. This school has generated an unsystematic pattern of empirical findings. Besides, the studies related to this school have failed to demonstrate that satisfaction and performance are not causally related. Moreover, Fisher (1980) mentioned that the relationship may be sufficient to warrant further study.

The third school views that satisfaction and performance are mutually-causal variables with performance as the stronger causal factor. This approach has been more accepted among recent researchers than other approaches. Such research include Fisher's theoretical efforts (1980) and empirical studies of Bhagat (1982) and Lopez (1982), which discredit the earlier belief "Satisfaction causes Performance". Despite the arguments for this relationship, Steers (1981: 310) states that "there is no compelling argument that performance must necessarily cause satisfaction, particularly if performance goes unrewarded". Also Petty et al. (1984), by using Meta-Analysis, find that individuals' satisfaction and job performance are positively correlated. They interpret these findings in terms of "performance causes satisfaction", even though "satisfaction is unlikely to lead to higher performance, dissatisfaction could result in lower performance" (Locke & Henne, 1986: 22).

It appears from the preceding that none of the three schools, in their theoretical position, has received resounding empirical support yet, "the relationship offers sufficient intuitive appeal and practical importance to remain of interest" (Petty et al., 1984). Meanwhile, Schwab & Cummings (1970) after reviewing the literature related to this relationship, are disappointed in the empirical results. However, they suggest some research strategies for studying the relationship and more consideration of the directionality of this linkage. They encourage investigations into the nature of potential moderator variables of the relationship. In short, Locke & Henne, 1986), in their recent review of the work motivation theories, suggest that

> much more research needs to be done, however, on the extent to which workers actually behave in a manner which would allow for (1) the systematic categorization of behavior, and (2) the prediction of behavioral categories from job attitudes measures.

### 3.6. The role of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Rewards

Numerous studies have been carried out on whether or not individuals are satisfied with the rewards they receive. These studies indicate that satisfaction is a complex reaction to situation and is influenced by a number of factors. Lawler in fact (1981: 12-15) summarizes the types of these researches in four conclusions:

1. Satisfaction with rewards is a function of how much is received and how much the individual feels should be received (Adams, 1965; Lawler, 1971; Locke, 1976).

2. People's feelings of satisfaction are influenced by comparison with what happens to others (Patchen, 1961; Lawler, 1966; Porter et al., 1975).

3. People often misperceive the reward of others (Lawler, 1972, 1977).

4. Overall job satisfaction is influenced by how satisfied employees are with both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards they receive from their job (Vroom,

1964; Lawler, 1971; Quinn & Staines, 1979).

The importance of the rewards to the employees has been the focal point of a great deal of controversy. One group of writers believe that money is the issue, while another group think that interesting work is the most important (Lawler, 1981: 23). People differ substantially as to what is important to them. Some people, because of their background and present situation, value extrinsic rewards more than other groups, whereas for other people the value of the interesting job (intrinsic rewards) matters more highly to them. That is, because of the different personal and background characteristics.

In the following sections the researcher will display theoretical controversy role of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards in the job satisfaction and performance. The focus will be on its importance to the subjects of this study. This is to shed light on reward and its effect on employees' attitudes and, in turn, its influence on their productivity.

### 3.6.1. The Role of Extrinsic Rewards

Extrinsic rewards are "external to the job, but in the context of the job" (Greene & Craft, 1977: 195). These rewards are bestowed to the person from others, such as, the supervisor, other persons, or organisation, and generally relate to the satisfaction of the lower level of needs (i.e., pay, promotion, fringe benefits, working conditions, etc.). The giving and deducting of these rewards has an enormous influence on motivation and satisfaction, as shown by a sum of studies in this area (Lawler, 1973: 112). The amount of influence a particular extrinsic reward can be determined by how important it is to the person. Studies such as Herzberg et al., (1959) conclude that extrinsic rewards like promotion and interpersonal relationships are high in importance. Lawler also reviews a number of studies, and find that pay is ranked closer to third on a scale of importance.

Research on reward importance suggests that promotion and pay are the two most important extrinsic rewards that most organisations have to offer. However, research also suggests that there are large individual differences in the degree to which these rewards are valued. This could be the first in importance for an individual because it satisfies his strong need for security, for another individual, it might be the first because it satisfies his need for esteem. However, pay and promotion for other individual might still be the last in importance, because they cannot satisfy his strong social needs (Lawler, 1973: 113).

A great deal of research has been done in marketing management and researchers have achieved a number of studies regarding the importance of the extrinsic rewards. In a study by Darmon (1974) concerning, "saleman's response to financial incentives", the findings indicate that salesman determine the level of income they desire, and they adjust their level of effort to achieve this chosen figure. In the same time Walker, Churchill and Ford (1977), after assessing the available research on compensation and incentive plans, conclude that most of the work is based on two assumptions. The first is that monetary rewards are the primary motivator. Second, the pay package is the basic motivator with other financial incentives performing a lesser role.

The amount of monetary compensation a worker receives, and its relationship to the importance of, and satisfaction with, pay is an aspect of extrinsic rewards that is receiving increasing attention. Lawler (1971) concludes that there is a negative relationship between workers valence for pay and their satisfaction with it. A positive relationship is indicated between pay level and satisfaction, with a negative relationship between pay level and valence. Lawler (1981) states several positive aspects derived from an employee's pay and other extrinsic rewards on the job performance of that individual regarding recruiting, achievement-oriented individuals are more likely to be attracted to organisations

that utilise a contingent reward system.

From an equity perspective, employees who perform greater, expect to obtain higher reward levels than low performance employees. Failure to provide larger rewards to more productive employees may cost the organisation these valued employees. Under non-contingent reward systems, leaving becomes attractive to higher performance; while individuals with output levels below the norm remain on the job. A final benefit for contingent rewards is an indication that workers are more satisfied with their pay when they see it as being tied to their performance. For example, in a laboratory experiment, Cherrington et al., (1971) find that when rewards are contingent on performance, performance and satisfaction are positively related. When the rewards are given randomly to high performers and low performers, performance and satisfaction become unrelated. Negative correlations are obtained when low performers are rewarded and high performers are not. These findings indicate for organisations using a contingent rewards system, the potential existence of a feedback loop from extrinsic satisfaction to performance. Other experiments have shown higher levels of performance by subjects who are told that their earnings are contingent on the effectiveness of their performance (Atkinson, 1958). Kesselman, et al., (1974) also examine the relationship between job satisfaction and performance under contingent and non-contingent reward systems. They find that in the performance contingent sample, significant relations between performance and satisfaction with work itself, pay, and promotions, while in the non-contingent sample (seniority), performance also relates strongly to satisfaction with an interpersonal factor (i.e., supervisor and co-worker) than the case of contingency sample.

A number of studies have indicated that extrinsic rewards will motivate the performance, particularly these studies which have shown that tying pay to performance does increase motivation. But another case study has documented

the negative side effects of trying promotion to performance, which include lack of cooperation among peers competing for the same promotion, tying to make their own performance look better than it actually is" (Lawler, 1973: 121).

Based on the former discussion in literature regarding the role of extrinsic rewards, one might ask a question: whether or not the role of extrinsic rewards as motivator is appropriate? Certainly, the area is an important one for future investigation if pay, promotion, and other extrinsic rewards are truly incentives, or if they play a different, but still an important role. This case will be the subject of greater consideration in this study in an effort to find a sound answer to its raised questions.

### 3.7.2. The Role Of Intrinsic Rewards

Intrinsic rewards refer to desirable outcomes of a person which is provided by himself as a result of having some thing worthwhile (Lawler & Porter, 1967). These rewards satisfy high order needs, such as need for achievement, growth, responsibility, and recognition. Such needs have been considered as the essential key to push approximately all individuals towards the work. Earlier investigations (Morse & Weiss, 1955) have shown that 80% of all employees would continue to work even if they could live comfortably without their financial rewards from employment. A recent study by Vecchio (1980) determines if the drive and desire to work are still alive? The findings indicate that over 72% of the workers would still remain on the job. Thus the activity of working is still important enough to keep nearly three out of four workers on the job.

Peters and Waterman (1982: 72) in their book In Search of Excellence, evaluated the importance of intrinsic rewards in the following illustration, "...the larger context of high performance, we believe, is in motivation". The results of their research indicate that excellent companies have focused on the

intrinsic motivation of the workers. They also report from their interviews, another important need to the workers: the need of the individuals to control their own destiny, known as autonomy, accordingly this need will cause employees to continue the task of their job. Intrinsic motivation refers to motivation to perform a task or activity when no apparent reward is received except the one directly involved with itself (White, 1959). These rewards have been the focal point of a great deal of controversy from social and industrial psychologists' points of view.

In the social psychology, much of the current conceptual work in motivation is included in the 1970s work of Deci (1971, 1975; Deci et al., 1974; Deci & Ryan, 1980) in his "Cognitive Evaluation Theory". In a Cognitive Evaluation Theory Deci explains the change in the intrinsic motivation. It concentrates on a person's perception of why he is doing the activity.

> When the person is 'intrinsically motivated', the perceived locus of causality of that behavior within himself. He is doing it because it provides him with the same sort of internal satisfaction. However, when an individual receives extrinsic reward such as money, for task behavior, he comes to perceive that he is doing it for the money.

What is important here is that, according to Deci, providing an extrinsic reward on an intrinsically satisfying task leads to a shift from internal to external locus of causality (Steers & Porter, 1979: 250). Later on, this theory has been developed. Deci (1975: 131) suggests that intrinsically motivated behavior that allows a person to feel competent and self determining. Rewards push people, they are competent or self-determining, tend to increase their intrinsic motivation to perform. But the rewards that persuade people that they are not competent or self-determining tend to decrease intrinsic motivation. Deci's notions are important from the aspect of both theory and application and have, in fact, encouraged a rather large number of empirical studies into their validity, as well as, the search for the mutual relationship between extrinsic and intrinsic

motivation and what affects job attitude and task performance. Generally speaking, these studies reveal that the relationship between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic rewards are much more complicated than Deci has assumed (Thierry &Koopman-Iwema, 1984: 141). Researchers like Calder & Staw, (1975); Kruglanski et al., (1975); Prichard et al., (1977); and Daniel & Esser, (1980) all examine Deci's theory. Calder & Staw (1975) prove that although monetary rewards tend to decrease intrinsic motivation on interesting tasks, rewards may actually increase intrinsic motivation on a boring task, while Kruglanski et al., (1975) find that if the reward is perceived as an integral part of the work itself, the reward may lead to an increase in one's intrinsic motivation.

> When the negative effects of a change in one's locus of causality are minimal (as in a task of low initial interest) or prevented (as in a task in which the reward is integral), the major effect of rewards is to associate pleasant affect (a roused by the reward) with the task, thereby increasing the attractiveness of the task (Daniel & Esser, 1980).

Pritchard et al., (1977) in their study strongly support Deci's hypothesis that extrinsic reward makes contingency on performance decrease intrinsic motivation. Daniel & Esser (1980) comment, after reviewing the literature related to Deci's efforts, that recent findings seems to be breaking down the traditional belief that external and internal rewards act on intrinsic motivation in an additive fashion. In fact, evidence seem to indicate that contingent extrinsic rewards cause a decrease in intrinsic motivation. It appears from various studies that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation may indeed be mutually reinforcing, this, consequently increases intrinsic motivation, While others disproved the relation between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation (Thierry & Koopman-Iwema, 1984: 141). In spite of this support, criticism have been expressed against Deci's theory, like Calder and Staw who blame Deci for using the piece rate in one

condition that could result in increased performance for the pay group, and also criticises the use of the free-time behavior as the only measure of intrinsic motivation. Whereas, Carver & Scheier (1981: 141) (in Thierry & Koopman-Iwema, 1984) argue that,

> reinforcement concept has two components, informative and rewarding component. The informative is often underestimated by psychologists. Thus, if the attention is paid to the information transmitted, the result will show that an extrinsic reward provides some knowledge as to the outcomes so far. Then "if the individual believes that his goal has not yet been reached, he will continue to achieve it. If, however, the information make evident that the goal has been achieved, the individual will no longer exert himself. He may then regard the reward as the motive for his efforts, and concluded from that, that the task is not really interesting. Yet the intrinsic reward may just as well increase his intrinsic motivation, especially if it informs him that others find him competent, doing a good job, etc. Thus the individual may be incited to continue his activities.

In the industrial psychology the clearest example of the intrinsic motivation can seen in "Job Enrichment" efforts. The main argument is that providing more challenging tasks will increase one's intrinsic desire to perform (Steers & Porter, 1979: 249). One of the earliest efforts in this area is achieved by Fredreck Herzberg (1968). He proposes that job enrichment is the vehicle by which individuals could be motivated to do high quality work, and that job enrichment would lead to increase satisfaction on the part of the employees. The main principles of the earlier research in this area is to make the work "more challenging". Distinctions are made between increasing challenge (job enrichment) and increasing diversity (job enlargement) (Landy & Trimbo, 1980: 500).

After the attack on "Two Factor Theory" (1959), Herzberg (1968) explained the basic need of man and the need to satisfy the desire for growth. He states

two sets of psychological needs: the constant need for crucial stimulation and the need for the psychological growth, the latter has six characteristics, three in a cognitive category and three in motivational category as follows (as cited by Buchanan, 1979: 39): Cognitive characteristics: (1) Knowing more, (2) acquiring relationships in knowledge, and (3) creativity. Motivational characteristics: (1) effectiveness in ambiguity, (2) Individuation and (3) real growth (perception of reality, self perception). Buchanan (1979:43) summarized Herzberg efforts in job enrichment as in Figure (3-3):

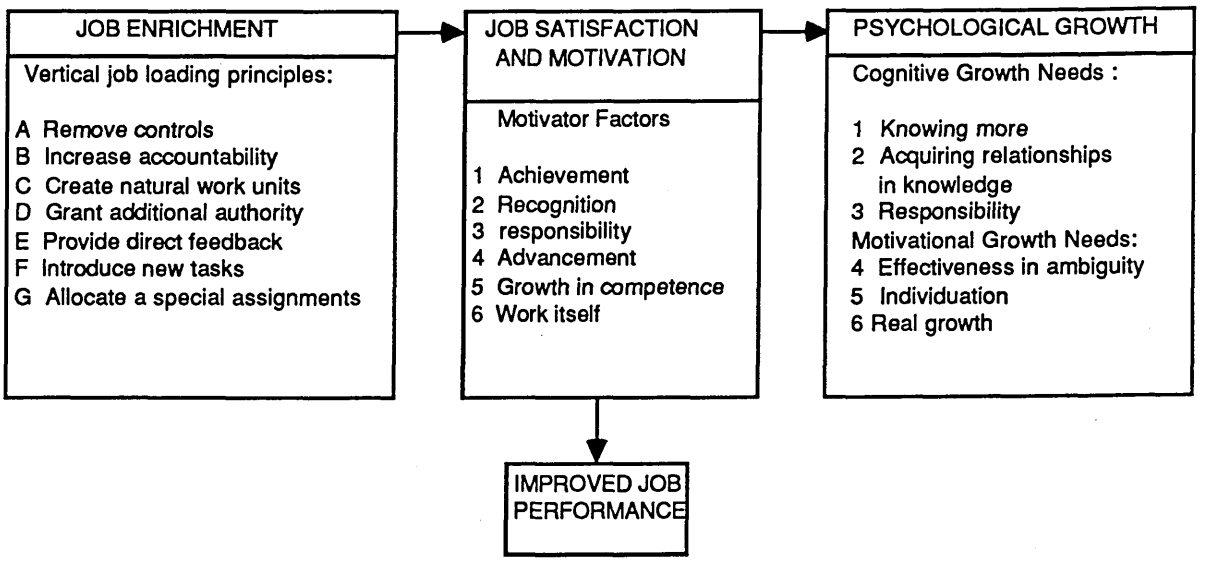



Figure (3-3) Herzberg and Job Enrichment

Source: Buchanan (1979)

Herzberg (1968) concludes that job enrichment will not be a one-time proposition, but a continuous management function. The initial changes, however, should last for a very long period of time for a number of reasons:

1. The changes should bring the job up to the level of challenge commensurate with skill that is hired.

2. Those who have still more ability eventually will be able to demonstrate it better and win promotion to higher level jobs.

3. The very nature of motivators, as opposed to hygiene factors, is that they have a much longer-term effect on employee's attitude. Perhaps the job will have to be enriched again, but this will not occur frequently as the need for hygiene. Obviously, Job Enrichment redesigned jobs by incorporating the opportunities to fulfill higher level needs (intrinsic motivation) (Newport, 1976: 184). It also gave employees more responsibility, and allowed them to do the job freely as if it is their own job. The primary concern of job enrichment is to introduce satisfiers into the work in order to make the task as personally meaningful and rewarding as possible. The reinforcement of an employee's evaluation of intrinsic aspects of the job through job enrichment has been an important field of the study for researchers and academician alike. Lawler (1973: 152) stresses that

> any studies have attempted to measure the effect of job enrichment programmes. Almost without exception, these studies showed that some positive gains are derived when jobs are enriched. In most cases, productivity is higher after enrichment.

A review of the literature by the same author in 1969 reveals that in six out of ten studies, productivity increases after the job is enriched, and in all ten studies, job enrichment led to higher work quality. Despite these encouraging results, the long-term benefits from job enrichment have never been a field of inquiry.

Oldham and Hackman (1980: 249) propose that the reason for the generally poor long-term results from attempts to enhance intrinsic rewards. Levels lie in the implementation phase. Organisations have failed to make substantial changes in organisational structure; even when this is a key area for modification. The changes which are implemented many times are "safe, feasible, inexpensive, and ineffectual". Adjustments of the type result in job enlargement as opposed to job enrichment. Herzberg (1968) distinguishes between job enrichment and job

enlargement as follows: "Job enrichment provides the opportunty for the employees' psychological growth, while job enlargement merely makes the job structurally bigger".

The long-term success of job enrichment efforts have been binded by organisations making employees do more work rather than making the work they do more meaningful. Another failure with attempts to enrich jobs on intrinsic dimensions is the mistaken treatment of job enrichment as a panacea for all organisations.

Locke (1975) classifies two individual components affecting employees' reactions to expansion in jobs: Cognitive complexity and higher order need strength. According to this classification, Oldham & Hackman (1980) conclude that

> there are employees for whom job enrichment is ineffective, and in fact its utilization can be determental to their performance level. Employees with a weak drive for high level needs may respond negatively to efforts directed at increasing their job responsibility and providing opportunities for personal growth and accomplishment.

Locke et al (1976) state the following limitations which hampered job enrichment in practices:

1.The technology. There are trade-offs between making the work varied and interesting and making it efficient.

2.The improper implementation. Sirota & Wolfson (1972) have argued that without such factors as careful diagnosis, proper training advance planning, and upper management commitments, job enrichment is likely to fail.

3.The type of employees involved. A number of studies have found that none middle-class, blue-collar, employees from urban and industrial backgrounds who work in large organisations are more likely to value "hygiene" factors (e.g., pay, promotion, benefits, etc.) in their job and less likely to value

"motivator" factors (e.g., achievement, interesting work, etc.) than employees with the opposite background (Locke, 1976).

White (1978) (in Cherrington & England, 1980) strongly attacks job enrichment approach in his review of 29 empirical investigations of individual differences. He concludes that there is no substantial evidence showing that the type of individual moderated the effects of job enrichment because the results are inconsistent and subsequent studies failed to replicate the results of earlier studies. White called for an end to this line of research "Why continue" (p: 278). However, Cherrington & England (1980) disagreed with White's invitation, because replication of the approach in other cultures have demonstrated significant moderating effects of the job enrichment/job satisfaction relationship. Orpen (1976), for example, found a positive association between job enrichment and job satisfaction in South Africa. Anyhow, there are frequent studies of prodigious success. Job enrichment seems to increase satisfaction, decrease absenteeism and turnover, increase motivation, and improve the quantity and quality of performance. (Landy & Trimbo, 1980: 500; Locke et al., 1976). Furthermore, Steers & Porter (1979: 395) state that probably Herzberg's efforts deserve a good deal of credit for acting as a stimulus to other researchers who have advocated alternative theories of work motivation. A number of researches, articles have been created as a result of the so-called "Herzberg controversy". Some findings of these studies have been highly encouraging of Herzberg position, while others criticize his efforts as have been mentioned earlier in this chapter.

Finally and according to what have been noted from the previous arguments in this section, both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards can have important effects on a person's satisfaction and performance. Extrinsic rewards, may direct and a control a person activity on a task and create an important source of satisfaction. Besides, it can motivate task-related behavior and bring

satisfaction. However, the joint effect of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards may be quite complex (Steers & Porter, 1979: 265). The complexity of the joint effect "not only may intrinsic and extrinsic factors not be additive in their overall effect on motivation and satisfaction, but the interaction of intrinsic and extrinsic factors may under some conditions be positive and other conditions negative. Understanding the role of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards and its effect on job satisfaction and performance is so important to manage and achieve the organisational requirements and human goals through manipulating the rewards.

## 3.7. Summary and Conclusion

The discussion in this chapter provided an overview of the literature in job satisfaction/job performance relationship and its relevance to this study. This has been achieved through the focus of numerous studies for many decades. These studies indicate that there are different approaches that have been developed to explain this controversial relationship. The first approach, appeared due to the early belief that "satisfaction causes performance". It was believed that an effective management strategy is to improve those factors that affect job satisfaction. The net results would be increased level of performance. Unfortunately, the majority of research in this school has used correlational methodologies that were incapable of assessing causal relationships. Many researchers have apparently assumed that a positive correlation between these variables means that satisfaction causes performance, and some researchers have even made this assumption in the absence of significant correlational data. Therefore, this approach (school) has not been supported by empirical research. The second approach accounts for "the moderating influences of additional variables". The result of these researches provided evidence to support the position that other factors (moderating variables) have influence on the relationship between job satisfaction and performance. So this relationship

changes as a function of the moderator variables such as supervisory style, occupational level, need for achievement, etc. However, this approach has not developed a theoretical groundwork and may even be regarded as a methodological variant on earlier work. The most recent approach has focused on specific conditions under which these two variables relate. This approach views satisfaction and performance as "mutual-causal variables", and the performance is the stronger causal factor. This approach is predominantly theoretical and research testing it propositions has appeared recently only in the professional literatures.

Despite these efforts, in recent studies, the controversy still remains. The interest of implication this crucial relationship issue in management in general and in the present study in particular, stems from the fact that the employees' performance level is perceived to influence the level of satisfaction and vice versa through internally and externally mediated variables. Employees' characteristics, job characteristics, supervisory style, and perceived rewards might have an influence on the employees' satisfaction and performance. This is to shed light on the research questions of this study and to seek a way in which satisfaction and performance can be improved in warehousing settings.

# CHAPTER FOUR

# RESEARCH METHODS AND PROCEDURES

## 4.1. Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a description of how this study was carried out. It deals with: (1) research design; (2) population and sample of employees who took part; (3) criterion instruments; (4) the way in which data was collected; and (5) the statistical techniques for data analysis.

## 4.2. Research Design

Research design is "the plan, structure, and strategy of investigation conceived so as to obtain answers to research questions and to control variance" (Kerlinger, 1981: 300). Therefore, research design is the programme that guides the investigator in the process of collecting, analysing and interpreting information regarding a special phenomenon. In accordance with this, it is necessary to deal with the key design differences briefly to understand the reason behind choices and practicalities of the design of this study. This is because "all professionals social scientists have acknowledged research design includes an imaginative, creative, innovative element that cannot be taught or planned" (Hakim, 1987: 13). However, the major types of research design are:

(i) Experimental Design.

(ii) Quasi-experimental Design.

(iii) Non-experimental Design.

Understanding the basic principles and major advantages and drawbacks of each approach is necessary to select the methodology which best suits the purpose of this study.

### 4.2.1. Experimental Design

Experimental designs are those that allow for manipulation of a study's independent variables and subsequent assessment of the impact, if any, such manipulation have had on the study's dependent variables (Stone, 1978: 92).

Experimental designs are a widely accepted research process in uncovering causal relationships among variables (in the physical & natural sciences as they are applied in business). In such experiments control and randomization, potential confounding effects can be removed from the study. They are conclusive because they involve principles and control randomization and comparison.

Stone (1978: 119) points out the major advantages of this design:

(1) Measurement is generally more precise than with other research strategies, because it takes place under highly controlled conditions.

(2) Causality can be inferred from the results of a laboratory experiment since internal threats to internal validity can be reduced or eliminated through the use of control groups.

(3) The independent variables can be precisely and unambiguously defined by the experimenter through the manipulation used to produce them.

(4) Experimental studies (lab) can be replicated.

But experimental design has its limitation (Stone, 1978: 119):

(1) The generality (i.e., external validity) of results produced may be limited.

(2) Some phenomena cannot be studied in the laboratory, (e.g., attitudes and behaviour).

(3) A number of variables cannot be manipulated by experiments, (e.g., age, sex, race, intelligence, etc.).

(4) There are ethical and moral concerns with the manipulations associated

with some experiments (i.e., subjects may experience psychological and/or physical pain).

(5) Laboratory setting may lack realism (i.e., a high degree of correspondence between a laboratory setting and naturally occurring phenomena).

The above barriers are especially true for the environment in which the present study was conducted. Consequently, the value of the experimental design is limited for the purposes of this study.

### 4.2.2. Quasi-Experimental Design

Quasi-experimental refers to "empirical inquiry in which the scientist does not have direct control of dependent variables because their manifestations have already occurred or because they are inherently not manipulatable. Inferences about relations among variables are made, without direct intervention, from concomitant variation of independent and dependent variables" (Kerlinger, 1981: 379).

The one-shot case study is an example of a quasi-experimental design; it can be described as a study in which:

(a) The researcher intensely examines a single unit (e.g., a person, a group, or organisation).

(b) Data are often collected by several methods (e.g., interviews, observation, etc.)

(c) Phenomena are studied in a natural setting

(d) The strategy is suited more to the generation of hypotheses than their testing.

In fact, not only "generalization" (i.e. external validity) is problematic with the case study, but the certainty of what one has really discovered (internal validity), using this research strategy is also dubious. The advantages of the

case study approach: (a) the full complexity of the unit under study can be taken into consideration, (b) data collection is flexible, (c) it is a useful vehicle for the generation of research hypotheses and insights. However, this approach is not without limitations since research has shown that:

(a) Causal inferences from case study data are impossible since there is no control over confounding variables.

(b) Hypotheses testing is not possible using case study data.

(c) Generalization from a case study's findings is not possible.

### 4.2.3. Non-experimental Design

In non-experimental (survey) design the investigator has virtually no control over the study's independent variables. Two factors may be responsible for this lack of control (Stone,1978:104): first, the independent variable(s) may act upon the study's subjects before the investigator is in a position to determine who will get the treatment and when they will get it. Second, the study's independent variable(s) may not be manipulatable. For instance, in this study, the researcher is concerned with individual differences, (e.g., sex, age, education, tenure, ...etc.), influence on job satisfaction or job performance in warehousing. This must take the study's participants as they exist. The study's independent variables, (sex, age, education, number of dependents,...etc.), in this case cannot be manipulated by the researcher. In non-experimental (ex post facto) studies the researcher can commonly measure both the independent and dependent variables. If the two are found to be related to one another, one can conclude that the "independent" variable is responsible for changes in the "dependent" variable. The investigator often knows little or nothing about numerous other variables may have some impact on either or both of the study's "independent" and "dependent" variables.

The non-experimental studies take one of the two forms: (1) correlational or (2) the cross-sectional (Stone, 1978: 104).

In correlational studies the investigator gathers data on the study's independent and dependent variables. The data are then used to assess strength of relationship between the two variables. This relationship alone does not allow support for arguments of causality, that is, just because two variables can be shown to be related to one another, the argument that one causes the other is not justified.

In cross-sectional studies the investigator compares scores on the study's dependent variables for groups that have been differentially exposed to the study's independent variables. The inherent in cross-sectional studies is the problem of lack of control over independent variables. Consequently, statements about causal relationships between independent and dependent variables cannot be safely made (Stone, 1978: 105). However, this design is adopted in most field studies, in which attempts are made to approximate experimental design using various data analysis techniques. The design broadly involves the following steps (Buchanon, 1986):

(1) question the sample about their properties and dispositions.

(2) divide the sample into groups at the analysis stage, according to the key properties, such as age, sex, education, salary, and occupation.

(3) tabulate against disposition, i.e., control for the key variables. Dispositions might include attitude to inflation, income policy, and voting behaviour. In this way associations between properties and dispositions can be explored by examining the various relationships in the categories.

Both types of design in non-experimental studies have been and continue to be widely used in organisational research. Studies of this type help to extend our knowledge about human behaviour and organisation in several ways (Stone, 1978: 108):

First, this kind of study may result in hypotheses that can be tested in a more rigorous fashion (i.e., experimental and quasi-experimental).

Second, the findings of experimental studies are made more credible by being corroborated in less rigorously controlled field research.

Finally, in many instances we cannot manipulate some independent variables. If we relied exclusively on experimental and quasi-experimental research for generating knowledge, numerous important relationships could not be investigated.

### 4.3. The Study Research Design

From the above discussion it appears that one of the most important tasks for any researcher is to select the appropriate design for his research. The selection must consider (Campbell & Stanley, 1966):

1. Comparison. The comparison which underlies the concept of covariation, is an association between two or more variables. An appropriate design enables the researcher to carry out the covariation in the context of his problem.

2. Manipulation. Establishment of association is usually not enough, the researcher being more concerned with causality. To establish causality, the time sequence of the events studied must be clear. Where the researcher is able to manipulate the nature and timing of the independent variables ( also refereed to as the experimental stimulus) there is no problem. While experimental setting permit this kind of manipulation, this can rarely be achieved outside the laboratory (Buchanan, 1986).

3. Control. It is another feature of causality which requires that other factors be ruled out as rival explanation of the observed association between the variables under investigation. Such factors could invalidate the inference that the variables are causally related (Campbell & Stanlly, 1966).

4. Generalisability. Control is a crucial aspect of social research. An additional significant question lies in the extent to which the research findings can be generalized to a larger population.

In the light of the previous discussion appear that experimental design is strong on control (internal validity). The case-study design is weak on both external and internal validity. While the non-experimental (survey) design is weak in internal validity and strong in external validity. If researcher wishes to be able to apply sample findings to some wider population, internal validity may need to be sacrificed in the cause of strengthening external validity. On this basis a cross-sectional (survey) design seems more logical and practical in facilitating control of variance and thereby strengthens the conclusions of the study. Because the study is considered principally the variables involved, (i.e., job satisfaction, job performance, work values, perceived rewards, job characteristics, supervisory style, and employees' characteristics), experimental or quasi-experimental approaches are found inappropriate. Therefore, non-experimental design is employed in this study on the previous rational explanation (section 4.2.3) combined with the following:

(a) It is an exploratory study which seeks to generalise its findings for a large population (warehousing employees in Iraqi industrial sector), a field study offered much richer source of data as well as an increase in external validity.

(b) The study requires a natural setting. This means that independent variables, (such as age, sex, education, supervisory style, etc.), and external environment are not manipulated by the researcher. In other words, there is no control of independent variables because their manifestations have already occurred.

(c) The realism of non-experimental studies, because they are closer to real life. Proper measurement of job satisfaction, perceived rewards, and work values require a realistic setting because the employee usually holds a job for some time before forming stable attitudes about it. It would be difficult to conduct a laboratory experiment of sufficient duration and realism to successfully measure the variables. (Kerlinger, 1981: 408).

(d) The study intends to identify the warehousing employees' attitudes toward their work by examining the effect of a wide array of variables.

(e) It is highly heuristic (Kerlinger, 1981: 407). Any researcher knows that one of the research difficulties is to keep himself contained within the limits of his problem. The field study is rich in discovery potentiality.

### 4.4. Population and Achieved Sample

The population of this study was made up of the warehousing employees in the companies from the state organisations in the Ministry of Industry and Minerals in the Iraqi industrial sector.

The companies which are selected in this study constitute the most important part of the industrial sector. Manufacturing companies are regarded as the key industries for stimulating and developing the economy of Iraq. In the focus upon manufacturing companies two consideration were uppermost:

First, industrialisation is regarded as the major way of solving the problem of under-development in Iraq. In addition, industrialisation can alter the present economic and social structures in the country to make it more conductive to achieve a higher level of economic development.

Secondly, the Ministry of Industry and Minerals has been selected from the industrial sector in the country because it covers more than 70% of the large industrial companies. The companies represent a wide range of sizes of industries, capital invested, complexity of products, and its major contribution to the gross national income (GNI) of Iraq. This could help to study warehousing employees in different environments.

Table (5.1) represents all Iraqi industrial sectors. The selected population used in this study was the large-scale manufacturing companies, with the majority of light industries due to:

1. Large-scale manufacturing companies in the public sector play a dominant role in economic development. Therefore, the economic development

strategy depends mainly on the public sector. Despite the Gulf War, the value of production in this sector was 2250596 ID in 1985, while the medium and small sectors produced 357286, 100595 respectively (Ministry of Planning, 1987: 102-106).

2. The average of employees' number per company in small, medium, and large enterprises is 2, 13, and 606 respectively. This shows the significance of large industries to employment.

3. the majority of the small-scale manufacturing companies are found in the private sector, while the majority of the medium and large-scale ones are found in the mixed and public sector. It is worth mentioning that the public sector companies have increased dramatically after 1964. For the present, a high percentage of industrial companies are controlled by public entities that are especially set up to achieve the aims of the National Development Plans in the country.

Moreover, the objectives in selecting warehousing employees from manufacturing companies were:

First, to control the major differences or variance in technology and the nature of the job, (i.e., warehousing), in an effort to minimize the confounding influence of the variables studied.

Second, to control major differences in the scope of personnel programmes and work environments.

Third, to control major differences in organisational goals and structure.

Fourth, warehousing in manufacturing companies are relatively similar in working conditions.

Finally, the manufacturing operations depend highly on the storage activities compared with other organisations.

The sample of this study has been drawn from this population in several stages:

First, there are 28 state organisations and a number of special departments managed by the Ministry of Industry and Minerals (see Appendix VI for more details). For the purpose of the study, these state organisations were categorized, according to the type of products, into six sectors: Food, Textile, Engineering, Chemical, Construction, and Medical. The study excluded the Mining and Extraction sectors, because the sort of warehouses in this sector differ from those in other sectors. The storing methods depend on the nature of the materials involved in this sector such as, phosphates, sulphur, and limestone.

Second, a decision was made to select state organisations from each sector, to represent all sectors in the sample as follows: initially, large-scale manufacturing companies were selected, and factories within these manufacturing companies were sampled. Eventually a sample of warehousing in selected factories was reached. Then employees in warehousing in each factory became the subjects of this study.

In modern sampling theory, a basic distinction is made between probability and non-probability sampling. The distinguishing characteristics of probability sampling is that one can specify, for each sampling unit of the population, the probability that it will be included in the sample. By contrast, in non-probability sampling, there is no way of specifying the probability that each unit has of being included in the sample; there is no assurance that every unit has the same chance of being included.

In this study non-probability convenience sample design was adopted, because this type of sampling is of non-random nature in collecting data from one or more elements of the population that are available at the time.

**Table (4.1)**

Number of Iraqi Industrial Establishments and Number of the Employees (1985)

| INDUSTRY | Small | | Medium | | Large[1] | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Industry | Employee | Industry | Employee | Industry | Employee |
| Extraction: | 12 | 53 | - | - | 4 | 3827 |
| Foodstuffs: | 1664 | 5734 | 99 | 1388 | 49 | 26158 |
| Tobacco: | 6 | 7 | - | - | 2 | 4949 |
| Textile: | 758 | 1999 | 110 | 1530 | 11 | 23657 |
| Tailoring: | 2799 | 4857 | 40 | 572 | 5 | 2542 |
| Leather Products: | 489 | 1730 | 15 | 181 | 1[2] | 4958 |
| Wood & Furniture: | 2467 | 5340 | 8 | 117 | 19 | 1687 |
| paper products & Printing: | 156 | 511 | 9 | 136 | 19 | 8702 |
| Chemical & Oil Products: | 129 | 558 | 39 | 569[3] | 82 | 27474 |
| Metallic Products: | 2514 | 6028 | 30 | 427 | 08[4] | 5551 |
| Non-Metallic Minerals Products: | 830 | 2934 | 34 | 372 | 35 | 24589 |
| Machines: | 409 | 913 | 21 | 305 | 7[5] | 12649 |
| Other Industry:[6] | --- | 8588 | 15252 | 08 | 109 | -- |
| Total | 20821 | 45919 | 413 | 5696 | 242 | 146743 |

Note

(1) Figures represent only the public sector.

(2) Only shoe manufacturing.

(3) Only Chemical product Industries.

(4) Figure includes two basic metallic industries and six Metallic product industries.

(5) Figure includes one manufacturing and repair of machinery, five manufactures of electrical machinery, apparatus & appliances,and one manufactures of transport equipment & repairs.

(6) Figures include industrial service industries and traditional small industries such as jewels industry.

Source: Ministry Of Planning, Annual Abstract of Statistic 1986, PP. 91-94, 105-109

Some warehousing was excluded from the sample, though it is a part of the relevant population. This restriction is related to the country situation, which made some of the sampled companies less cooperative. This situation was expected by the researcher, which was one of the reasons behind the selection of this type of sampling. Further, convenience sampling is probably the most frequently used sampling strategy in organisational behaviour research (Stone, 1978: 82).

Thus, the sample of this study was selected from warehousing employees in the Iraqi industrial sector with whatever sampling units were conveniently available. It is worth noticing that there is no way of estimating the representativeness of the convenience sample, as well as not being able to estimate the standard errors of the sample results (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1981: 299).

At an early stage, the investigator intended to base the analysis on a sample of 300 employees from the various large-scale manufacturing companies, with the assumption that this sample would be representative, though it is a convenience sample: first, it includes the employees in warehousing in various industrial sectors. Secondly, It covers the frame of the study by including an proportion from the factories in each sector (See Table 4.3). Thirdly, it avoid the bias in sampling error. Finally, this size of sample will facilitate the processes to achieve the aim of this study.

The final sample of 267 subjects was obtained from various sectors. Table (4.2) and Figure (4-1) summarise the various factories from which a sample of 267 subjects participated in this study.

The sample contains the "full-time" white collar employees in warehousing. Full-time employees receive, in addition to their monthly salary, company fringe benefit packages and technical allowances. Part-time employees (e.g., Clerks, cleaners, etc.) however, are on temporary contracts , they do not receive fringe benefit packages and are paid daily.

**Table (4.2)**
The Sample of the Study

| Sector | Subjects | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| Food | 77 | 28.8% |
| Textile | 56 | 21.0% |
| Construction | 31 | 11.6% |
| Engineering | 45 | 16.9% |
| Chemical | 42 | 15.7% |
| Medical | 16 | 06.0% |
| Total | 267 | 100 |

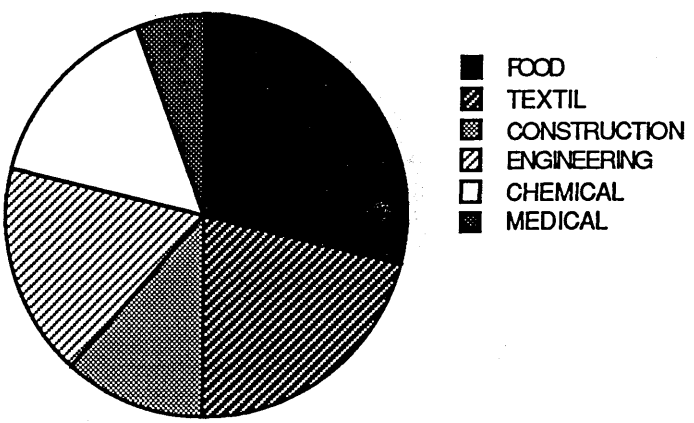



Figure (4-1) The Sample of the Study

**Table (4.3)**

Distribution of the Population and the Sample according to industrial state.

| Type Of Organisation | Companies in selected population | Companies in Selected sample | % | Subjects in selected sample | % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| State Organisation for Vegetable Oil | 12 | 3 | 25.0 | 31 | 11.6 |
| State Organisation for Drink & Food Canning | 22 | 4 | 18.2 | 36 | 13.5 |
| State Organisation for Dairy Products | 09 | 2 | 22.2 | 11 | 4.1 |
| State Organisation for Woollen Textiles Manufacturing | 06 | 2 | 33.3 | 21 | 7.8 |
| State Organisation for Cotton Textiles Manufacturing | 04 | 1 | 25.0 | 07 | 2.6 |
| State Organisation for Rayon Textiles Manufacturing | 03 | 2 | 66.7 | 19 | 7.1 |
| Tailoring of Clothes State organisation | 05 | 2 | 40.0 | 09 | 3.4 |
| State Organisation for Battery Manufacturing | 04 | 4 | 100 | 21 | 7.8 |
| AL-Qadisiya Organisation for Electrical Manufacturing | 01 | 1 | 100 | 24 | 8.9 |
| State organisation for Class & Ceramic Industry | 01 | 1 | 100 | 11 | 4.1 |
| Iraqi Cement State organisation | 11 | 2 | 18.2 | 13 | 4.8 |
| State Organisation for Construction Manufacturing | 13 | 1 | 07.7 | 07 | 2.6 |
| State Organisation for Rubber Manufacturing | 04 | 3 | 75.0 | 31 | 11.6 |
| State Organisation for Leather Manufacturing | 01 | 1 | 100 | 06 | 2.2 |
| Tobacco & Cigarettes State Organisation | 04 | 1 | 25.0 | 05 | 1.9 |
| Medical Accessory State Company | 03 | 2 | 66.7 | 16 | 6.0 |
| Total | 103 | 32 | 31.06 | 267 | 100 |

Source: Ministry of Industry & Minerals,Iraq.

The part-time employees are excluded from the sample in an attempt to control extraneous variables. The factories or organisations considered in this study are located in Baghdad, Babylon, Kerbala, Sammara, Anbar, Najaf, Diala, and Qadisiya. However, the majority are located in Baghdad the capital of the country. The sampled companies shown in Table (4.3) produce different types of products including foodstuffs, (vegetable oils, beverages, food canning, sugars, diary products..etc), textiles, (woolen textiles, cotton textiles, fine textiles, rayon, carpets...etc), tailoring, electrical manufacturing, (televisions, electrical boilers, refrigerators, various fans, air cooler,...etc), batteries, (different dry batteries, liquid batteries), rubber manufacturing, (different kinds of tubes and tires), tobacco and cigarettes, construction materials, (ordinary cement, resistant cement, brick, thermeston brick, glass and ceramic), and medical accessories manufacturing.

### 4.5. Research Methods

Research methods are a system of work used by the researcher for the purpose of data collection. Among the various methods used in data collection in organisations one can list: the observation of behaviour, the personal interview, the questionnaire, and the telephone survey. These methods can be subsumed under the concept of survey research (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1981: 179). In any organisational study, one or more of these techniques may be employed to collect data (Stone, 1978: 61).

Observational methods are suitable for investigating phenomena that can be observed directly by the researcher. However, not all phenomena are accessible to the investigator's direct observation. This barrier is specially true for collecting data related to phenomena like job satisfaction, work values, perceived rewards, etc. Consequently, this method was conducted as a tool for collecting data in this study.

The personal interview can be recorded as face-to-face interpersonal role situation in which the interviewer asks respondents questions designed to obtain answers pertinent to the research questions (or hypotheses) (Nachiams & Nachmias, 1981:188). There are many advantages associated with data collecting via interviewing (Stone, 1978: 68-69):

1. The interviewer can approach the discussion of the interview topic in a wide variety of ways.

2. The interviewer can observe and record details about the behaviour of the interviewee.

3. The interview, especially the free response type, is often a more appropriate means of collecting data in early phases of the study.

However, the main disadvantages of this technique are:

1. The interview allows for greater flexibility, which is its chief advantage. However, sometimes this leaves room for personal influence and bias the interviewer (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1981: 193).

2. The interviewer may (because of fatigue, decreased interest,etc.) alter the manner in which questions are put to interviewees, and/or the fidelity with which responses are recorded for interview to the next etc. As a consequence, the validity and reliability of obtained data may suffer (Stone, 1978: 69).

3. The interview lacks anonymity, which the questionnaire typically provides.

Considering the strength and weakness of these techniques, the researcher concludes that interviews are better at obtaining rich data. But covering a wide range of issues as it is required in this study would be difficult.

Questionnaires are probably the most frequent used data gathering device in behavioural research in organisations. But questionnaires have their limitations: the method gives no opportunity to probe, (answers have to be accepted as final), and no control over who fills out the questionnaire. Although the researcher was aware of the limitations of the questionnaire, he was also aware

of its advantages. Among the advantages are (Stone, 1978: 63):

1. The questionnaire is a relatively inexpensive mode of data collection.

2. The questionnaire reduces *Biasing errors* that might result from the personal characteristics of the interviewer and from variabilities in his skills.

3. The questionnaire anonymity, the assurance of anonymity with questionnaire is especially helpful when the survey deals with sensitive issues.

4. The questionnaire permits wider geographic contact with minimal cost.

After prolonged deliberation and analysis, bearing in mind that each technique has its weaknesses, and given the resources available for the researcher, a fully structured questionnaire has been selected. This is because it reduces biasing error and covers a wide range of required issues. It can be easily self-administered, and the validity and reliability in using this device extensively in many languages. Therefore, its cross-validated.

### 4.6. Instrumentation

As a preface to study job satisfaction and its relationship with other variables, the review of the literature indicates several approaches that may be taken to measure these variables concerning employees' attitudes toward their work.

Looking for the best instrument to use in this study, the researcher studied a number of different types of techniques. The fact is that job satisfaction is a complex concept and has received a great deal of attention. However, the instrument should be chosen according to the following criteria:

1. It must be grounded in a theoretical understanding of job satisfaction as a dynamic phenomenon which involves matching the individual's needs, values, and expectations to what the job offers.

2. It must be a comprehensive measure to be able to explain the many variables which influence an individual's overall job satisfaction.

3. It must have been widely used and found to be both a reliable, and a valid measure of job satisfaction.

4. It must be a more open and truthful subjects, especially on a sensitive controversial topic like job satisfaction.

Bearing in mind the discussion in previous section (4.5), six different types of questionnaire, (job satisfaction, job characteristics, work values, job performance, and personal background 'see Appendix I'), are prepared to be fully structured and undisguised. The purpose for this particular division is to improve the ease of self-administration for the respondent, and to ensure that the questions, as well as the responses, are provided with an additional incentive to respond.

In addition to the instruction for each part of the questionnaire, two covering letters were prepared and accompanied the questionnaires, one for the employees and the other for the supervisors.

### 4.6.1. Employees' characteristics

The first part of employees questionnaire was designed to obtain descriptive data from each employee regarding, name of the organisation (factory), occupation (job position level), age, sex, martial status, number of children, number of dependents (parents or relatives), monthly salary, educational level, years of experience in and outside warehousing (length of service), training in warehousing work, the initial recruitment (employment), and prospects to be transferred to other departments or organisations. In addition, two open-ended questions were designed to determine employees' reasons for wishing to be transferred to other departments or remaining in warehousing.

### 4.6.2. Measuring Job Satisfaction

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire was used to measure study satisfaction variables. This questionnaire has two basic forms, a short form dealing with 20-item, and a long form dealing with 100-item. Studies of Pritchard and Peters (1974), Katz (1978), Schriesheim (1978), and others modified and tested the two forms. they conclude that they yield a sound answer of overall job satisfaction. Then the short form of MSQ after modification, by adding two additional dimensions seemed to meet the previous criteria. The original form was used to measure intrinsic job satisfaction, (characteristics of the job), extrinsic job satisfaction, (characteristics of conditions surrounding the job), and general (overall) job satisfaction (Weiss et al., 1967). The MSQ has been extensively used in past research and has proved to be a reliable and valid measure of job satisfaction (Cook, et al., 1981: 22). The reliability of the MSQ short and long form(s) was determined by Hoyt reliability Coefficients for several occupational groups, including a group of 205 warehousemen, with reliability coefficients ranging from 0.77 to 0.93 for the twenty dimensions of job satisfaction, and 0.89 for the General Satisfaction Scale (Weiss, et al., 1967: 86). The MSQ appears to yield a sound measure of overall job satisfaction, although some items may not represent universally valued features such as "being able to keep busy all the time"; this is a problem which faces many scales requiring responses to specific job features (Cook et al., 1981: 24). Some reservations appear in relation to the assignment of items to the Intrinsic and Extrinsic Satisfaction sub-scales. For example, "steady employment" are used as intrinsic job satisfaction, while working condition, company policies and practices, and supervision are omitted. However, the short form of MSQ which includes three scales: intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall satisfaction was prepared to include the original twenty dimensions plus two items, namely, working Image and Autonomy, to elicit responses on employees' attitudes towards their

jobs in warehousing.

The intrinsic scale considered factors such as (characteristics of the job itself): ability utilization, achievement, activity, advancement, creativity, independence, moral value, social service, responsibility, autonomy and authority. The extrinsic scale considered (characteristics of the condition surrounding the job): recognition, company policies and practices, supervision-human, supervision-technical, working conditions, co-workers, security, compensations, social status and working conditions. General (overall) satisfaction includes all the items (i.e., 1 to 22 items in Appendix I).

Respondents (non-supervisory workers) were requested to rate the degree of their satisfaction towards their jobs on a scale where the ratings ranged in: Very Dissatisfied; Dissatisfied; Neither; Satisfied; Very Satisfied. These responses were assigned numeric values from one to five respectively.

### 4.6.3. Measuring Job Characteristics

In a study of Turner and Lawrence (1965) six measures of job characteristics were used: variety, autonomy, required interaction, optional interaction, required knowledge and skill, and responsibility. They formulate a linear combination of these measures, which are found to be closely related to each other. Hackman and Lawler (1971) developed six core job characteristics; two of them are same as in the Turner and Lawrence study. Stone and Porter (1975) applied a modified version of the Hackman and Lawler (1971) instrument. Hackman and Oldham (1975) revised the Hackman and Lawler instrument from 1971 and included the task significance dimension. This index of job characteristics is called the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS). This index is widely used to measure self-perceived job content (Sims, Szilagyi, & Keller, 1976; Dunham, 1976; Pierce & Dunham, 1978; Dunham, Aldag, & Brief, 1977) in organisational studies.

Sims et al. (1976) developed an improved measure of perceived job

characteristics from the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS). The authors have retained the initial four "Core" dimensions and the two original "interpersonal" dimensions. The job Characteristics Inventory (JCI) is a comprehensive tool found in the literature to measure the different dimensions of the job and to indicate which characteristic influences the employees' attitudes and behaviour. This survey tool is widely used to measure self-perceived job content (Cook et al.,1981: 186).

In deciding how to measure job characteristic, in this study, the researcher derived guidelines on the basis of the existing tool and decided to use the JCI. However, for the purpose of this study task identity core was omitted and two dimensions have been included, namely, task-significance from Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS), and opportunity for learning. Although the last characteristic (i.e., opportunity for learning) has not been widely tested except in few cases by Rousseau (1977; 1978). The researcher selected and added this variable due to the expectation that this variable may affect the employees satisfaction and performance. For example, the lack of opportunity for learning from the job may lead to a decrease in satisfaction and to less than optimal effort. When an individual feels that he learned from his job, his performance and satisfaction may increase. In summary, the instrument of job characteristics, in this study, include 21-item adopted to examine seven dimensions (Degree of Autonomy, Dealing with other, Feedback on Performance, Task-significance, Learning Opportunity, Variety, and the Friendship Opportunity) of job characteristics in warehousing setting. Employees are requested to identify how much of the characteristics are presented in their jobs. Five alternative score-answers are provided: Very little or None, A little Amount, A Moderate Amount, Great Amount, and a Very Great Amount. The statements of questions are reported in Appendix I.

### 4.6.4. Measuring work values

Fourteen statements were taken from Herzberg et al. (1959) study, in part, to identify work values. The statements are worded in such a way as to use them

in different job settings. The items are factor analyzed by Freidlander (1963) in a study focusing on the relationship of work values to job satisfaction. The measures were found to be valid and reliable in other studies ( Freidlander & Margulies, 1969).

In this study, it is important to test the value of the higher and lower-order need satisfaction to be appropriate with the instruments which are used to measure intrinsic, extrinsic and overall job satisfaction. The higher Order Need Satisfaction which was prepared by Hackman and Lawler (1971) was selected to be used in this study. This scale comprises 12 items, which measures the strength of an individual's desire to obtain higher need satisfaction. Numerous studies used this scale or modifications of it (Cook et al., 1981: 145). For purposes of this study, the Hackman and Lawlers' (1971) scale as well as the statements of Herzberg et al., (1959), (recognition, achievement, possibility of growth, advancement, salary, interpersonal relationship, supervision, responsibility, company policy, working conditions, work itself, factor in personal life, status, and job security), have been designed and adopted in eighteen items (questions). The employees were requested to evaluate how important each of these values in their jobs. On a scale where the evaluation ranged in five multiple-choice categories: not important, little important, moderately important, important, very important.(see Appendix I).

### 4.6.5. Measuring Supervisory Style

Fourteen statements were designed to find out the feeling of the employees towards their supervision, in relation to "Participation Scale" (Hackman & Oldham, 1974) and "Supportive Leadership Scale" (House & Dessler, 1974). The statements were intended to obtain descriptions of the individuals' leadership behavior regarding the people who supervise them. Half of these items presents a modified version of "supportive leadership-scale" (It is directed

toward testing a supportive supervision "considerate supervisory style"), and the other half presents a modified version of the "participation scale" (It is directed towards testing participative supervisory style). Both scales, (participative & considerate), were tested for reliability and validity by many studies (e.g., Hackman & Oldham, 1974; House & Dessier, 1974; Teas, 1981).

The employees were requested to evaluate supervisory style in their departments by selecting one of the five alternative categories ranged from very dissatisfied to very satisfied, respectively. The statement of questions is shown in Appendix I.

### 4.6.6. Measuring Perceived Rewards

Nine attitudinal statements in a multiple-choice, five-point scale format, were used to operationalise perceived reward variable. These items were developed and adopted from studies focusing on motivation and organisational climate (for a list of these studies see Cook et al. 1981). This is in order to include personal salary and recognition items as measure of perceived rewards. The subjects were asked about their perceptions of each of nine statements according the selected scale, which is ranged from 1, Strongly Disagree, to 5, Strongly Agree, as shown in Appendix I.

### 4.6.7. Measuring Job Performance

Past studies show that the appraisal systems for performance criteria fall into basically three different kinds: personality characteristics, performance characteristics, and attainment of objective. The first two kinds are usually applied across a variety of appraises (Stewart & Stewart, 1979: 37). Therefore, the employees' performance is rated in several popular dimensions used in various studies, as follows: ability to learn, quantity of work, quality of work, knowledge of work, personal quality, initiative, accepting supervision and

organisational procedures, amount of effort spent in work, ability to work with minimum supervision, leadership characteristics, and overall job performance. The supervisors were requested to evaluate their subordinates on the basis of the actual work he/she is currently performing. This evaluation required identifying one of the five alternative answers for each job performance dimension: Very Dissatisfactory, Dissatisfactory, Fairly Satisfactory, Satisfactory, Very Satisfactory (see Appendix I).

### 4.7. Procedures of Data Collection

The previous sections in this chapter discussed the basic measurements and properties of measures for each variable in this study, one can now consider the way in which data are actually collected. The procedure of collecting the study data as follows:

The data were gathered in June, July, and August, 1988. Thirty-two manufacturing companies in the Iraqi public sector were involved.

The researcher had permission to do research in the country (Iraq) as well as to visit the factories related to this study. Information on state organisations was gathered from the annual statistical abstracts and the names and locations of the factories were obtained from the Ministry of Industry and Minerals in Iraq. The organisations, (factories), were selected according to their location and the type of products. The data and time for visiting each of these factories was planned.

Gathering information from organisations was as follows:

First of all, the personnel office in each factory was visited, in order to get the names of the employees according to the type of warehouses they worked in. This step was taken because the names of responding employees are needed in their statements of questionnaire to match the respondents names in the performance evaluation (supervisors ratings). The names of the employees were

ignored in the statement of the questionnaire, so as to give them more confidence in their responses.

Then, supervisors were visited next, in order to acquaint them with the purpose of the study. They were asked to evaluate the performance of their employees, except unskilled employees, in warehousing according to the information requested in the performance evaluation questionnaire. The supervisors were assured that these evaluations would be treated confidentially.

Afterwards, warehouses in each factory were visited. Warehouse keepers and some assistants as well as clerks, if any, were met. Before distributed the questionnaire, the employees were informed of the purpose of the study and assured of the confidentiality of their individual responses.

It is worthwhile mentioning some constraints which faced the investigator during data- collection.

- The minimum number of visits to each factory was two.

- A minimum of 20 minutes meeting to explain the purpose of the study and to hand out the questionnaire were required.

- The investigator could not manage to meet some of the supervisors in the first visit for various reasons.

- A number of employees were evaluated by their supervisors though they unavailable when the questionnaire was delivered. This required additional visits to the factories where these employees were absent.

### 4.8. Statistical Procedures for Data analysis

To analyse the data of this study, numerous statistical techniques, (univariate and multivariate analysis), are employed. In each statistical procedure job satisfaction is determined by the dimensions of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, the criterion instrument.

Frequency distribution is used to describe the demographics of each characteristic related to the subjects, (which are obtained from the first part of

the questionnaire: age, sex, level of education, martial status, number of dependents, etc.). The mean is selected from the measures of central tendency to describe the important aspects of the study variables. Percentile was used to test the variability, or dispersion, of two or more variables around their means. The ogives of the percentile was plotted to give a clear picture of the variability of the variables in the analysis toward the dependent variables.

Cross-tabulation is used to examine the association between variables, and Chi-square ($X^2$) is computed to assess the statistical significance of the association in the cross-tabulation. The Pearson-Product moment correlation coefficient test is computed between each dependent and independent variable, to show to what extent the values in one variable are related to the values in other variables. Analysis Of Variance is used in some cases according to the nature of the variables, especially when the dependent variable is an interval measure and the predicting variables, (independents), are nominal. ANOVA also allows to study the effects of nominal and interval variables together (Hedderson, 1987: 114). In addition, more advanced statistical techniques are used in the analysis. Factor Analysis is used to measure general variables or factors, underlying a large set of variables. In other words, this technique is used to reduce the number of dimensions of variables and to discover a group of dimensions having a certain characteristic in common.

To determine the interaction effects and the main effect of perceived rewards, job characteristics, work values, supervisory style, and employees' characteristics on job satisfaction as well as job performance. There is really no definite way to select the best model because practical considerations vary with given sets of circumstances. Specific needs, means, and circumstances may enter into the selection process. In this study theoretical consideration as well as statistical considerations come into play. All possible multiple regression, stepwise, and moderated regression techniques were computed. This is to determine the effects of the combination and separation of the study variables on job satisfaction and job performance relationship.

Multiple regression is selected at this stage of analysis for many reasons: firstly, this technique shows both combined effects of a set of independent variables and the separate effects of each independent variable by controlling others (Hedderson, 1987: 103-104). Secondly, it has been widely used and its rationale underlies most other multivariate techniques. Thirdly, it can handle continuous and categorical variables, and it can handle two, three, four and more variables (Kerlinger & Pedhazur, 1973: 3). Further, " Multiple Regression is a very flexible data analysis system that may be used whenever a quantitative variable, (the dependent), is to be studied as a function of, or in relation to, any factors of interest" (Cohen & Cohen, 1975: 3). In multiple regression one can assign relative importance to each independent variable. For example, in research questions we want to know whether the educational level, for instance, is more important in explaining or predicting employees' satisfaction or performance than previous work experience or the salary the employees received. One may want to know the role of some independent variables individually or combined in the relationship of employees' satisfaction and performance, such work values, supervisory style, and job characteristics. This can be found through the regression analysis technique. Therefore, in order to test warehousing employees' satisfaction and performance many equations, depending on the research questions, will be solved through the appropriate regression analysis techniques. This also enables the researcher to put his results in a one line of the different school of thought in the satisfaction-performance relationship.

The responses of two open questions were not included in the statistical computation .

### 4.9. Summary of Procedures

The study is a field study which analyses cross-sectional data drawn from the selected warehousing employees from the large-scale manufacturing companies in six of the Iraqi industrial public sector. The mining and extraction sector are not included in the study.

A sample of 267 warehousing employees in various Iraqi industrial public sectors are selected in a non-probability convenience sampling design.

The questionnaire was used for data-collecting approach. Six different types of questionnaire were prepared as fully structured and undisguised, in order to ease self-administration for respondents. Part one of the questionnaire presents the personal historical background. Part two contains the modified version of the short form of MSQ. The third part is prepared to examine the job characteristics from the modified Job Characteristics Inventory (JCI) in seven job characteristics dimensions. Part four of the questionnaire is to identify the work values; it is derived from an instrument developed by Herzberg et al., (1959) study and Hackman and Lawler scale (1971). The fifth part is set to examine the feelings of the employees regarding their supervisors, (participative and considerate supervisory). The final part of the questionnaire prepared to evaluate employees' performance. The supervisors' ratings were used in several dimensions of work (i.e., quality, quantity, knowledge, ability to learn, initiative, accepting supervision, personal quality, leadership characteristics and overall job performance).

The statistical techniques applied in this study are based on the types of variables: Chi-square, Pearson correlation coefficient, factor analysis. All possible multiple regression analyses were also used.

# CHAPTER FIVE

# GENERAL ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

## 5.1. Introduction

This chapter presents an analysis of the following variables: (1) the Iraqi warehousing employees' extrinsic, intrinsic, and general job satisfaction, (2) job characteristics dimensions: degree of freedom, dealing with other people, feedback on performance, task significance, opportunity for learning, job variety, and friendship opportunities, (3) perceived rewards, (4) work values, (5) supervisory style (participative and considerate) and (6) employees' job performance.

## 5.2. Findings of Job Satisfaction

As mentioned in Chapter Four, the short form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss et al., 1967) has been used to measure intrinsic, (characteristics of the job itself), extrinsic, (i.e., characteristics of conditions surrounding the job), and general (overall) job satisfaction of the employees in warehousing. The Means ($\overline{X}$), Standard Deviation (S.D), Standard Error of Mean ($SE_M$) and the Rank have been computed for each of the 22 job satisfaction items as well as for the extrinsic, intrinsic, and general job satisfaction aggregates.

Table (5.1) shows the $\overline{X}$, S.D., $SE_M$, and the Rank of the participants' responses. The highest mean satisfaction scores and the ranks are obtained on scale items co-workers (3.89), social service (3.74), and supervision-technical (3.57). This suggests that the warehousing employees are, relatively, satisfied with the "way their co-workers get along with each other", and the "chance they have to do things for other people". On the other hand, the lowest mean scores and ranks are associated with the scale items: advancement (2.33), compensation (2.36), social status (2.50), ability utilization (2.51), and recognition (2,67).

**(Table 5.1)**

Mean, S.D., $SE_M$ & Ranks of warehousing Employees Responses to 22 Job Satisfaction Dimensions

| Scale Items | $\bar{X}$ | S.D. | $SE_M$[1] | Rank |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Ability Utilization | 2.51 | 1.11 | 0.068 | 19 |
| 2. Achievement | 2.76 | 1.08 | 0.066 | 14 |
| 3. Activity | 3.28 | 0.88 | 0.054 | 05 |
| 4. Advancement | 2.33 | 1.02 | 0.062 | 22 |
| 5. Authority | 3.33 | 0.67 | 0.041 | 04 |
| 6. Autonomy[2] | 3.13 | 0.99 | 0.061 | 08 |
| 7. Company Policies & Practice | 2.96 | 0.82 | 0.050 | 11.5 |
| 8. Compensation | 2.36 | 0.99 | 0.061 | 21 |
| 9. Co-Workers | 3.89 | 0.85 | 0.053 | 01 |
| 10. Creativity | 2.69 | 1.03 | 0.063 | 16 |
| 11. Independence | 2.95 | 0.80 | 0.049 | 13 |
| 12. Moral Values | 3.20 | 0.92 | 0.056 | 06 |
| 13. Recognition | 2.67 | 1.31 | 0.081 | 18 |
| 14. Responsibility | 3.02 | 1.04 | 0.064 | 10 |
| 15. Security | 3.15 | 0.93 | 0.057 | 07 |
| 16. Social Service | 3.74 | 0.74 | 0.046 | 02 |
| 17. Social Status | 2.50 | 0.96 | 0.059 | 20 |
| 18. Supervision-Human Relations | 3.03 | 1.63 | 0.100 | 09 |
| 19. Supervision-Technical | 3.57 | 0.82 | 0.050 | 03 |
| 20. Variety | 2.96 | 0.72 | 0.044 | 11.5 |
| 21. Working Conditions | 2.68 | 1.10 | 0.068 | 17 |
| 22. Working Image[2] | 2.75 | 0.92 | 0.057 | 15 |
| Extrinsic Job Satisfaction | 2.96[3] | .78 | 0.04 | |
| Intrinsic Job satisfaction | 2.99[3] | .75 | 0.04 | |
| General Job satisfaction | 71.41 | 18.07 | | |

N = 267

[1] $SE_M = \frac{S.D}{\sqrt{N}}$ (Champion, 1970: 94)

[2] These two items added to the original MSQ short form.

[3] 29.60/10 = 2.96 (out of possible 50)
35.95/12 = 2.99 (out of possible 60)

This indicates that the employees in warehousing are dissatisfied with their "chance for advancement", "the salary is not fair with the kind of job they do", they "can not have a definite place in the community", and the "opportunity to perform up to their abilities".

The extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction scale findings are as follows: extrinsic satisfaction, composed of scale items 7, 8, 9, 13, 15, 17, 18, 19, 21 and 22 of Table (5.1), has a mean score of 2.96 ($1 \leq \bar{x} \leq 5$) and a standard deviation of 0.78. Intrinsic satisfaction, which includes scale items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 10, 11, 12, 14, 16 and 20 of Table (5.1), has a mean score of 2.99 ($1 \leq \bar{x} \leq 5$) with a standard deviation of 0.75. From this result, one can conclude that the subjects' responses towards intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction scores are slightly different. To prove the difference between the two means (extrinsic and intrinsic), none parametric Wilcoxon test has been computed. The findings show that the Z value is -1.6 which is not statistically significant ( $P<.107$ ) for non-directional two-tailed test. One can concludes, from these results, that there is no significant differences in employees responses towards extrinsic and intrinsic satisfiers in warehousing.

Overall job satisfaction, which is composed of items scale 1-22, has a mean of 71.41 (out of possible 110) with a standard deviation of 18.07. This can be interpreted by using the percentile score of the employees' satisfaction (see Appendix II). The average score for the group should be 50 or higher to be considered as a satisfied group. However, the score of 75 or higher is ordinarily taken to present a high degree of satisfaction; a score of 25 or lower would represent a low level of satisfaction; and scores in the middle range (26 to 74) would indicate average satisfaction (Weiss et al., 1967). On this basis and as seen from the ogive in Figure (5-1), that over 50 percent of the total score falls in the 25th percentile. This means that the employees whose score falls into this percentile are dissatisfied, and about 30 percent whose score falls between 26th to 74th percentile, and about 20 percent of those whose score falls in the 75 percentile and over. From these results appear that employees in warehousing are not highly satisfied with their work in general. The following chapters deal with the factors that have to be investigated and the solution, if any, that can be achieved and considered.

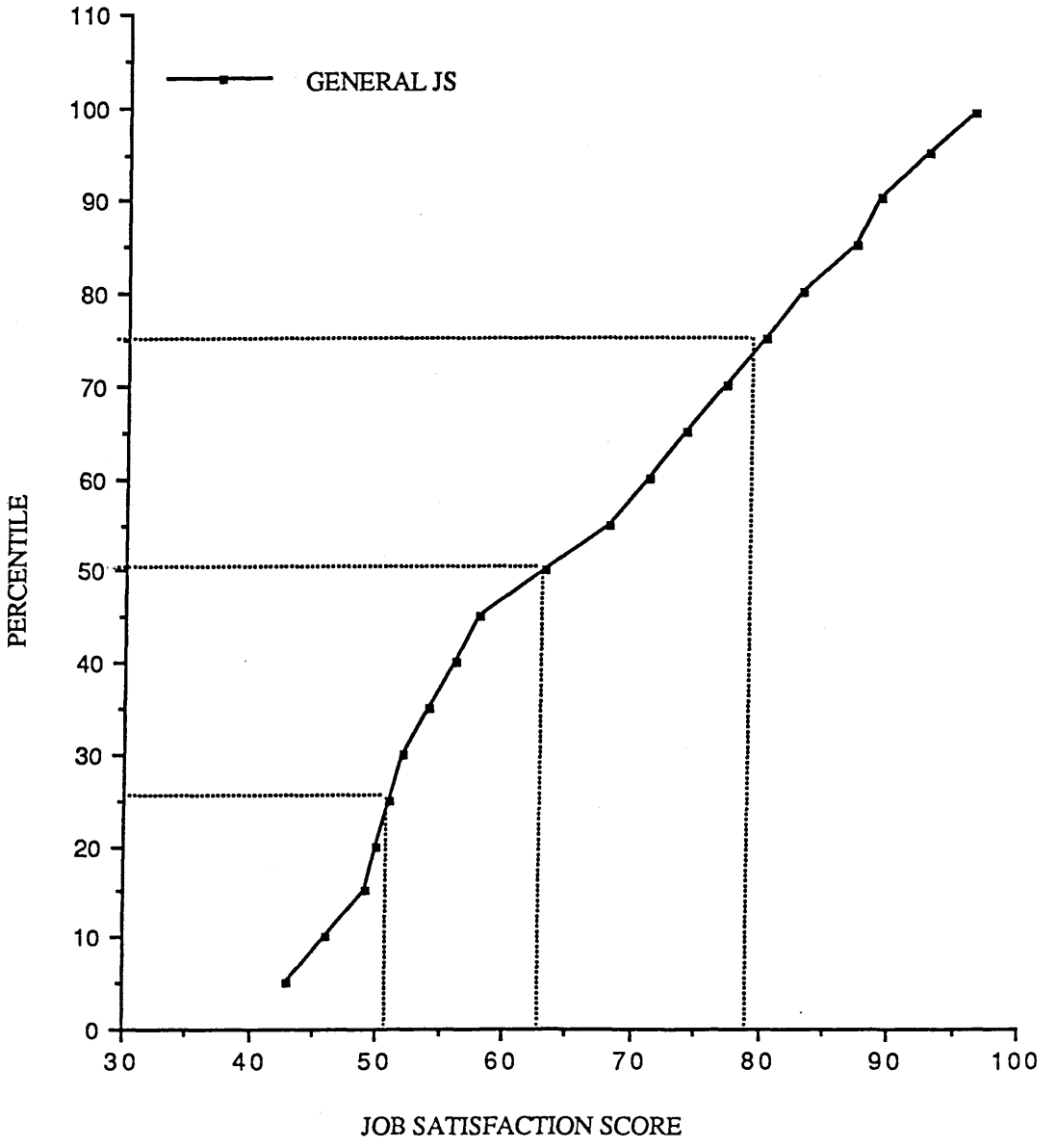



**Figure (5-1)**

Ogive of Percentile Scores for Overall Job satisfaction

### 5.2.1. Internal consistency and Factorial composition of Satisfaction Sub-Scales

To test the internal consistency reliability to assure that the items within each scale are achieving their measurement purposes, Alpha Model (Cronbach's $\alpha$) has been used.

Regarding the intrinsic satisfiers Alpha model (Cronbach's $\alpha$) has been computed to test the reliability coefficient for all sub-scale items. The findings show an internal consistency reliability of 0.94 (Cronbach's $\alpha$). This high coefficient shows that the proportion on internal individual scores variance, can be reliably attributed to individual differences among the respondents. In other words, Cronbach's Alpha shows the inter-scale reliabilities, which assure that the items within each scale are measuring consistently the extrinsic satisfiers.

Moreover, to find whether or not these variables have something in common or not, it is necessary to know the nature of the correlations between each pair of variables. Therefore, the intercorrelation coefficients matrix is computed and displayed in Table (5.2). All correlations are positive ranging from 0.46 to 0.81 and statistically significant at $P<.001$ level. Some of the items are weakly correlated with each other, such as variety with each of the following: achievement, social service, advancement, activity, creativity, moral values and ability utilization.

Regarding the extrinsic satisfiers, the internal consistency reliability coefficient (Cronbach's $\alpha$ ) is 0.89. This shows the inter-scale reliabilities within each scale measures consistently the extrinsic satisfaction aspects. The correlation coefficient matrix between all the extrinsic satisfiers was computed and presented in Table (5.3). All correlations are positive ranging from 0.23 to 0.80 and are statistically significant at the $p< .001$ level. 'Working conditions' is weakly correlated with the following intrinsic dimensions: recognition, supervision, technical, social status, supervision-human relation, co-worker,

security and company policies and practice.

The intercorrelations (see Tables 5.2 and 5.3) are factor analyzed using a principle factor solution and the Kaiser normalization criterion for a number of factors to extract. The resulting principal factor matrix is rotated to a varimax solution. The results are reported in Table (5.4). Kaiser's criterion is probably most reliable when the numbers of variables are between 20 and 50 (Child, 1979: 43). This procedure is used to ensure that the items selected as measures for specific constructs load in that factor. The communalities of each job satisfaction variable statements were examined.

The factor analysis yielded two common factors which accounted for about 70 % of the total variance. The communality indicates the high amount of variance an original variable shares with all other variables included in this analysis. Factor one is defined by the highest loading on: recognition (0.83), supervision-technical (0.82), supervision-human (0.81), advancement (0.71), achievement (0.76), security (0.63), co-workers (0.62), social status (0.60), and working image (0.59).

Factor two is defined by loading on: variety (0.72), independence (0.71), social service (0.69), moral value (0.67), authority (0.65), company polices (0.66), activity (0.62) and working conditions (0.66). Responsibility, compensation, autonomy, and creativity have about equal loadings on both factors. These loadings give a clear picture of the correlation between the original variables and the factor, and they are the key to understand the nature of the particular factor. The structure of the two factors suggests that factor one represents satisfaction related to the extrinsic aspects of the work, which explains about 60.2 % of the total variance. Whereas, factor two appears to represent satisfaction related to the intrinsic aspects of work, which explains 9.6 % of the total variance. This would mean that warehousing employees' satisfaction is composed primarily of satisfaction with extrinsic and then with intrinsic aspects of their job.

**Table (5.2)**
Matrix of Intercorrelation Among Intrinsic satisfaction Aspects

| Intrinsic JS* Sub-Scales | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1.Ability Utilisa. | 1.00 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2.Achievement | 0.80 | 1.00 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3.Activity | 0.63 | 0.58 | 1.00 | | | | | | | | | |
| 4.Advancement | 0.74 | 0.76 | 0.58 | 1.00 | | | | | | | | |
| 5.Authority | 0.61 | 0.66 | 0.59 | 0.67 | 1.00 | | | | | | | |
| 6.Creativity | 0.71 | 0.72 | 0.58 | 0.71 | 0.68 | 1.00 | | | | | | |
| 7.Independence | 0.63 | 0.65 | 0.58 | 0.59 | 0.65 | 0.68 | 1.00 | | | | | |
| 8.Moral Values | 0.66 | 0.65 | 0.62 | 0.71 | 0.67 | 0.74 | 0.63 | 1.00 | | | | |
| 9.Responsibility | 0.80 | 0.81 | 0.64 | 0.74 | 0.72 | 0.81 | 0.68 | 0.76 | 1.00 | | | |
| 10.Social Service | 0.58 | 0.60 | 0.63 | 0.62 | 0.64 | 0.61 | 0.65 | 0.69 | 0.65 | 1.00 | | |
| 11.Variety | 0.53 | 0.46 | 0.51 | 0.50 | 0.55 | 0.51 | 0.55 | 0.52 | 0.58 | 0.49 | 1.00 | |
| 12.Autonomy | 0.65 | 0.69 | 0.64 | 0.70 | 0.63 | 0.68 | 0.61 | 0.71 | 0.78 | 0.60 | 0.62 | 1.00 |

* Job Satisfaction
N = 267

**Table (5.3)**
Matrix Intercorrelation Among Extrinsic satisfaction Aspects

| Extrinsic JS* Sub-Scales | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1.Company Policies | 1.00 | | | | | | | | | |
| 2.Compensation | 0.58 | 1.00 | | | | | | | | |
| 3.Co-Workers | 0.59 | 0.56 | 1.00 | | | | | | | |
| 4.Recognition | 0.62 | 0.56 | 0.63 | 1.00 | | | | | | |
| 5.Security | 0.67 | 0.62 | 0.61 | 0.48 | 1.00 | | | | | |
| 6.Social Status | 0.54 | 0.56 | 0.57 | 0.64 | 0.54 | 1.00 | | | | |
| 7.Supervision-Human | 0.55 | 0.53 | 0.55 | 0.70 | 0.62 | 0.49 | 1.00 | | | |
| 8.Supervision-Techn. | 0.47 | 0.46 | 0.54 | 0.68 | 0.58 | 0.47 | 0.80 | 1.00 | | |
| 9.Working Condition | 0.38 | 0.43 | 0.43 | 0.23 | 0.34 | 0.28 | 0.31 | 1.27 | 1.00 | |
| 10.Working Image | 0.59 | 0.55 | 0.55 | 0.61 | 0.61 | 0.62 | 0.60 | 0.50 | 0.38 | 1.00 |

* Job Satisfaction
N = 267

**Table (5.4)**

Varimax Factor Matrix of Satisfaction Sub-Scales

| Variable | Factor I | Factor II | Communality |
|---|---|---|---|
| Ability Utilization | **0.75** | 0.44 | 0.77 |
| Achievement | **0.76** | 0.43 | 0.77 |
| Activity | 0.41 | **0.62** | 0.56 |
| Advancement | **0.71** | 0.47 | 0.74 |
| Authority | 0.48 | **0.65** | 0.65 |
| Company Policies & Practice | 0.48 | **0.66** | 0.67 |
| Compensation | 0.51 | 0.56 | 0.58 |
| Co-Workers | **0.62** | 0.36 | 0.52 |
| Independence | 0.42 | **0.71** | 0.68 |
| Moral value | 0.47 | **0.67** | 0.69 |
| Recognition | **0.83** | 0.31 | 0.79 |
| Responsibility | 0.65 | 0.61 | 0.79 |
| Security | **0.63** | 0.51 | 0.66 |
| Social Service | 0.39 | **0.69** | 0.64 |
| Social Status | **0.60** | 0.41 | 0.53 |
| Supervision-Human | **0.81** | 0.21 | 0.71 |
| Supervision-Technical | **0.82** | 0.11 | 0.68 |
| Variety | 0.21 | **0.72** | 0.56 |
| Working condition | 0.03 | **0.66** | 0.44 |
| Autonomy | 0.53 | 0.63 | 0.68 |
| Working image | **0.59** | 0.44 | 0.55 |
| Creativity | **0.61** | 0.57 | 0.70 |
| Percent of variance | 60.2 | 9.6 | |
| Cumulative percentage | 60.1 | 69.6 | |
| Eigenvalue | 13.2 | 2.1 | |

N = 267

## 5.3. Findings of Work Values

The work values used are characterized as *what is important to the employees in warehousing?* The Means, S.D., $SE_M$, and the Rank of the participants responses for the eighteen different value aspects are displayed in Table (5.5). The findings in this table indicate that independence "i.e., the opportunity for independent thought and action" is considered to be a very important value for employees in their ideal job ($\overline{X}$ = 4.52, S.D = 0.52, and $SE_M$ 0.03). Similarly the case is, with the pay or the financial factor ($\overline{X}$ = 4.36, S.D.= 0.81, $SE_M$ = 0.05). This means that the opportunity for salary increases is important to the employees. The evidence from research on individual behaviour in organisations has shown that pay is one of the most important job factors to most people, pay has the power to influence their membership behaviour and their performance (Lawler, 1981: 5). On the other hand, the less important values, which are also important, to employees are the proper working conditions ($\overline{X}$ = 3.08, S.D.= 1.28, $SE_M$ = .078). This means that even though the employees regard working conditions as important, they rank it as less important than other aspects. If one goes back to Table (5.1), it is clear from the results that the employees are not satisfied with their autonomy in their work, compensation, as well as working conditions.This means that employees are not satisfied with their working conditions, but as a value constitute a little importance.

**Table (5.5)**

Mean, S.D.,S.EM , & the Ranks of Warehousing Employees responses to Work Values Sub-Scales

| Scale Items | X | S.D. | $SE_M$ | Rank |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Use of Ability | 3.53 | 0.63 | 0.039 | 14 |
| Achievement | 3.90 | 0.59 | 0.037 | 9 |
| Promotion | 4.10 | 0.61 | 0.037 | 4 |
| Independence | 4.52 | 0.52 | 0.032 | 1 |
| Growth & Development | 3.35 | 0.71 | 0.044 | 16 |
| Company Policies | 4.15 | 0.83 | 0.051 | 3 |
| Moral Value | 3.92 | 1.13 | 0.069 | 7.5 |
| Co-workers | 4.07 | 0.91 | 0.056 | 5 |
| Authority | 4.03 | 0.66 | 0.041 | 6 |
| Job Security | 3.34 | 1.05 | 0.064 | 17 |
| Social Status | 3.63 | 0.96 | 0.059 | 11.5 |
| Contribution to Society | 3.92 | 0.78 | 0.048 | 7.5 |
| Skill Variety | 3.63 | 1.00 | 0.062 | 11.5 |
| Pay | 4.36 | 0.81 | 0.050 | 2 |
| Supervision Relationship | 3.44 | 1.31 | 0.080 | 15 |
| Responsibility | 3.84 | 0.98 | 0.060 | 10 |
| Recognition for Good Work | 3.59 | 0.89 | 0.055 | 13 |
| Work Conditions | 3.08 | 1.28 | 0.078 | 18 |
| Overall Work Values | 68.52 | 6.78 | 0.415 | |

N = 267

### 5.3.1. Internal Consistency and Factorial Composition of Work Values Sub-Scales

To test the reliability coefficient for all work value sub-scale items, the Alpha model (Cronbach's $\alpha$) was computed. The findings show that the internal consistency reliabilities are satisfactory and assure that the items within each scale measures work value aspects in warehousing ($\alpha = 0.75$).

To find out if these variables have something in common and to simplify the analysis in the following chapters. Work value items are factor analysed by using the Kaiser Normalization criterion for a number of factors to extract a principle component solution and varimax rotation.

The findings of the factor matrix and the communalities are reported in Table (5.6). Six dimensions of the work are differentially valued from this analysis. The revisited content analysis of these dimensions provides results that are in agreement with the result of the factor analysis, except for the working conditions item.

Based on the different points of view, the classification of these six factors is attributed to two major valuations: the extrinsic values which include factor one, three and six, and the intrinsic values which include factor two, four, and five (see Table 5.6).

#### 5.3.1.1. Comments on The Factor Analysis of Work Values

It is worth mentioning that the most widely used approach classifies work values as intrinsic and extrinsic, but the adequacy of the intrinsic-extrinsic dichotomy has been questioned. Some researchers working within different paradigms have used different definitions of intrinsic and extrinsic (Billings & Cornelius, 1980). Others classified work values according to the modality of outcome (e.g., material, social, psychological) and relation to task performance (resources and rewards) (Elizur, 1984).

**Table (5.6)**

Varimax Factor Matrix of Work Values Scales

| Work Values Items | FAC.1* | FAC.2 | FAC.3 | FAC.4 | FAC.5 | FAC.6 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1.Supervision | **0.85** | 0.11 | -0.07 | 0.20 | 0.01 | 0.02 |
| 2.Recognition | **0.76** | 0.20 | 0.02 | 0.13 | -0.12 | 0.13 |
| 3.Company policies | **0.70** | -0.17 | 0.34 | 0.12 | 0.11 | 0.12 |
| 4.Job security | **0.55** | 0.39 | 0.17 | -0.12 | 0.10 | -0.35 |
| 5.Responsibility | 0.14 | **0.82** | -0.08 | 0.15 | -0.01 | -0.05 |
| 6.Moral value | 0.02 | **0.80** | 0.02 | -0.01 | 0.17 | 0.06 |
| 7.Authority | 0.35 | **0.55** | 0.40 | -0.13 | 0.12 | -0.20 |
| 8.Social Status | 0.03 | 0.15 | **-0.79** | 0.02 | 0.07 | 0.14 |
| 9.Work conditions | 0.14 | 0.13 | **0.63** | 0.14 | 0.12 | -0.03 |
| 10.Co-Workers | 0.43 | 0.15 | **0.45** | 0.02 | 0.02 | 0.05 |
| 11.Achievement | 0.16 | -0.07 | -0.14 | **0.71** | -0.24 | 0.00 |
| 12.Growth & Development | 0.18 | 0.03 | 0.31 | **0.69** | 0.33 | -0.04 |
| 13.Contribution to society | -0.04 | 0.31 | 0.37 | **0.60** | 0.28 | 0.07 |
| 14. Ability Utilization | -0.44 | 0.01 | -0.01 | **0.52** | 0.15 | -0.14 |
| 15.Variety | 0.01 | 0.04 | -0.12 | 0.00 | **0.85** | -0.18 |
| 16.Independence | 0.02 | 0.21 | 0.30 | 0.14 | **0.60** | 0.14 |
| 17.Pay | 0.20 | -0.07 | 0.02 | -0.24 | 0.01 | **0.82** |
| 18.Promotion | -0.08 | 0.08 | -0.40 | 0.33 | -0.15 | **0.63** |
| Eigenvalue | 4.21 | 2.98 | 1.73 | 1.67 | 1.16 | 1.00 |
| PC of Variance | 23.4 | 16.50 | 9.60 | 9.30 | 6.50 | 5.60 |
| Cumulative Percentage | 23.4 | 39.9 | 49.6 | 58.9 | 65.4 | 71.0 |

*FAC: Factor

N = 267

Kalleberg (1977) factor analysed 34 work value dimensions, and only six factors accounting for 85.9% of the total factor variance. These factors are classified according to their importance (loading) as intrinsic valuation, convenience valuation, financial valuation, co-workers valuation, career valuation and resource adequacy valuation.

The factors of the work values scope in this study are classified systematically and named according to the nature of the items and the content analysis of the literature on work values in various studies. The findings show that the cumulative percentage of the total variance accounting for the underlying factors of work values is 71%. The factor analysis suggests dimensions that replicate those defined by Kalleberg (1977) and Quinn & Shepard (1974) by means of the cluster analysis of similar items. The authors labeled their dimensions as: challenge, financial, relation with co-workers, comfort, promotion and resource adequacy. Some of these items have been included in the six factors of the findings in the present study. Some of the items same as those included in the corresponding scales utilized by the Kalleberg and Quinn & Shepard.

Factor one is identified by supervision, recognition, company policies, and job security. These dimensions refer to those aspects of work that are "extrinsic" to the work itself. They all represent the extrinsic organisational environment valuation. The eigenvalue of this factor is 4.21 and the percentage of total variance explained by this factor is 23.4.

The second factor is identified by the high loading of the following items: responsibility (0.82), moral value (0.80), and authority (0.55). They are all related to the intrinsic (psychological) values. However, item 7 (authority) also has a relatively high loading on factor one (0.35) and two (0.40). The eigenvalue of this factor is 2.98 and the cumulative percentage of the total variance explains by this factor is 39.9.

Factor three refers to an extrinsic valuation of the social environment. This factor is identified by the following high loading items: social status (-0.79),

working conditions (0.63), and co-workers (0.45). Item 10 (co-workers) also has a high loading (0.43) in factor one. This item goes well with the items in factor one in terms of content. The eigenvalue of this factor is 1.73 and the cumulative percentage of the total variance explained by this factor is (49.6). The negative factor loading in social status (-0.79) simply means that this item is negatively correlated with other items responses in this factor. However, one item in this factor, can not go with the other items (i.e., working conditions), while other items, (i.e., social status, and close friendship with colleagues), went well together in terms of content as a social valuation. However, the working conditions which represent convenience valuation creates pleasant physical surroundings, and this may permit chances to make friends. Therefore, the valuation of this factor reflects a worker's desire for the satisfaction of social needs from work activity. So the nature of this factor indicates that it is an extrinsic-social (relational) factor.

The fourth factor identified by the following high loading items: achievement (0.71), growth and development (0.69), social service (contribution to society) (0.60) and ability utilization (0.52). The eigenvalue for this factor is 1.67 and the percentage of the cumulative variance is 58.9. However, item 13 (social service) and 14 (ability utilization) are also loaded on an other factor. Item 13 is loaded in factor 3 (0.37), and item 14 is loaded in factor 1 (-0.44). The items in this factor are all related to high intrinsic psychological values, so they all go together well in terms of content. Therefore, this factor refers to the intrinsic valuation of the work because it contains characteristics associated with the work itself. Whether the warehousing job allows the employee to develop his abilities, or to be in service to the other people (contribution to society), or achieve something important in his work; so the valuation of this factor reflects the employees' desire to be stimulated and challenged by their jobs and to make them able to use their abilities in the work. Thus, this factor represents challenge valuation.

The high loaded items in factor five are variety (0.85) and independence (0.60). The eigenvalue of this factor is 1.16, and the cumulative percentage of the total variance explained by this factor is 65.4. These two items are intrinsic values and they go together well. They refer to job characteristics that provide a degree of freedom in doing the job, or provide a variety of jobs. It is clear that these dimensions represent intrinsic valuation of the convenience (comfort valuation).

The items which have high loading in the sixth factor are pay (0.82) and promotion (advancement) (0.63). The eigenvalue of these two items is 1.0 and the cumulative percentage of the total variance explained by this factor is 71%. This factor represents the financial values, which include items such as salary, fringe benefits, and promotion, etc. Its values reflect the employees' desire to obtain present and future monetary rewards from a job.

Finally, the loading of the items' scales on factor one and two are strong, as in the amount of variation explained by these factors. The general conclusion suggests that the six factors are discriminably different from one another and these factors present the constructs that they are intended to measure. However, organisational environment values and psychological values account for 39.9 of the common variance, which indicates that these two factors have the highest variance in work values.

### 5.4. Findings of Perceived Rewards

Table (5.7) shows employees' responses toward their perceived rewards. As can be seen from this table $\bar{X}$, S.D., $SE_M$, and the Ranks indicate that: (1) the employees strongly disagrees with the rewards and encouragement they get ($\bar{X}$ = 1.78, S.D.= 0.94, $SE_M$ = 0.05); (2) the recognition they deserved when they do a good job ($\bar{X}$ = 2.18, S.D = 0.93, $SE_M$ = 0.05); and (3) the way of punishment when they make a mistake ($\bar{X}$ = 2.19, S.D.= 0.98, $SE_M$= 0.06). On the other hand, the employees' perceptions are almost in agreement with the promotion system in warehousing ($\bar{X}$ = 3.43, S.D.= 0.91, $SE_M$ = 0.05).

**Table (5.7)**

Mean, S.D., $SE_M$, & the Ranks of Perceived Rewards

| Perceived Rewards | $\bar{X}$ | S.D | $SE_M$ | Rank |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Promotion system | 3.43 | 0.91 | 0.056 | 1 |
| Fringe Benefits | 2.38 | 1.15 | 0.071 | 5 |
| Encouragement | 1.78 | 0.94 | 0.058 | 9 |
| Fair Salary | 2.76 | 0.99 | 0.061 | 4 |
| Rewards Vs Performance | 2.22 | 0.84 | 0.052 | 6 |
| Gain good promotion | 3.06 | 0.95 | 0.058 | 3 |
| Deserved Recognition | 2.18 | 0.93 | 0.057 | 8 |
| Criticism | 3.38 | 0.65 | 0.040 | 2 |
| The way of punishments | 2.19 | 0.98 | 0.060 | 7 |
| Overall Perceived Rewards | | 23.41 | 6.65 | 0.407 |

N = 267

Usually, employees appreciate being praised for doing their jobs according to the standards of the company and for being given the recognition they deserve. By the same token employees disagree with the way of criticism and punishment, for instance, when a job is performed incorrectly. Therefore, employees perceive these aspects in their working life as a sort of reward or outcome for their competence in doing this job. The findings give a general notion that in the warehousing setting, there is an element of luck to such rewards. On the other hand, employees view the promotion system in warehousing as relatively fair, even if some of them are dissatisfied with this system. This is because an individual's perception standards depend upon his personal ambitions and career aspirations (Locke, 1976). This result explains the desire for promotion or the desire for higher earning: all this aims at satisfying of personal ambitions and advancement. Therefore, the employees' perception regarding this aspect is consistent with the promotional system in warehousing departments. This is because the department gives more benefits to its employees

in this job more than their counterparts in other departments ( 25 % of the employees' salaries added to their monthly pay level as allowances). In conclusion, their perception towards the promotion system is satisfactory, while their perception towards encouragement and recognition is dissatisfactory. The reason is mainly due to the fact that working in warehousing is downgraded by employees in other departments. On the basis of these findings, the conclusion is: the greater the rewards, obtained from the specific dimension of the job, are perceived the greater the satisfaction with the job in general will be.

### 5.4.1. Internal Consistency and Factorial Composition of Perceived Rewards Sub-Scales

The internal consistency reliabilities of the cases was found through the computation of Alpha model which is 0.92 (Cronbach's $\alpha$). This high coefficient shows that the proportion of the internal individual scores variance for these sub-scales can be reliably attributed to individual differences among the respondents. The intercorrelation between the sub-scale items, as shown in Table (5.8), are positively associated with each other in the $P<.001$ level of significance, with a range of 0.38 to 0.87 for the total sample. The intercorrelation among the rewards scales in Table (5.8) is factor analysed using a principle factor solution, in an attempt to discover a "higher-order" dimension of rewards that may account more closely for the covariation among them. The resulting principle factor matrix is a single factor solution, and the solution cannot be rotated. The factor analysis findings (see Table 5.9), ensure that the items selected as a measure for perceived rewards load in one factor which accounts for about 62.7 % of the total variance. This suggests that the perception of the rewards dimensions are most usefully considered as consistituting separate dimensions of work that are source of satisfaction.

**Table (5.8)**
Intercorrelation Matrix Among Perceived Rewards sub-scale items

| Perceived Rewards Items | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1.Promotion System | 1.00 | | | | | | | | |
| 2.Firings Benefits | 0.65 | 1.00 | | | | | | | |
| 3.Encouragement | 0.55 | 0.58 | 1.00 | | | | | | |
| 4.Fair Salary | 0.57 | 0.55 | 0.49 | 1.00 | | | | | |
| 5.Rewards according Performance | 0.61 | 0.60 | 0.65 | 0.68 | 1.00 | | | | |
| 6.Gain good position | 0.83 | 0.58 | 0.56 | 0.49 | 0.60 | 1.00 | | | |
| 7.Deserved recognition | 0.50 | 0.40 | 0.59 | 0.42 | 0.58 | 0.56 | 1.00 | | |
| 8.Criticism | 0.64 | 0.51 | 0.38 | 0.45 | 0.47 | 0.62 | 0.44 | 1.00 | |
| 9.The way of punishments | 0.53 | 0.44 | 0.60 | 0.40 | 0.58 | 0.60 | 0.87 | 0.45 | 1.00 |

**Table (5-9)**
Varimax Factor Matrix of Perceived Rewards Scales

| Variable | Factor I | Communality |
|---|---|---|
| Promotion system | 0.81 | 0.66 |
| Fringe Benefits | 0.77 | 0.60 |
| Encouragement | 0.80 | 0.64 |
| Fair Salary | 0.75 | 0.57 |
| Rewards Vs Performance | 0.84 | 0.71 |
| Gain good promotion | 0.81 | 0.65 |
| Deserved recognition | 0.80 | 0.65 |
| Criticism | 0.68 | 0.47 |
| The way of punishments | 0.81 | 0.66 |
| Percent of Variance | 62.7 | |
| Eigenvalue | 5.6 | |

## 5.5. Findings of Supervisory Style

The sub-scale contains 14 items, which are concerned employees' feelings toward supervision in warehousing. The Mean, S.D., and $SE_M$ of the subjects' responses are displayed in Table (5.10). This table gives a clear picture of the subjects feelings towards supervisory style. As can be seen in this table there are slight differences in the employees' responses towards the considerate style (which is composed of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth) style compared with the participative (democratic). To confirm this indication, Wilcoxon none parametric test was computed and reported in Table (5.11). This table shows that the considerate style Mean is 3.23, (S.D = 0.98, $SE_M$ = 0.06),the participative style Mean is 3.05, (S.D. = 0.90, $SE_M$ = 0.05), and the Z value shows that there is no significant differences exist between two means ( Z = 8.26, P<0.15). Accordingly, supervisory style as a one "criterion" instead of the participative and the considerate style will be used in the following chapters.

### 5.5.1. Internal Consistency and Factorial Composition of Supervisory Style Sub-Scales

The intercorrelation among the sub-scale items, (seven of them related to the participative and the other seven related to the supportive supervisory style), as in Table (5.12), are positively and strongly associated with each other. The correlation between considerate style items ranges from 0.46 to 0.95 and from 0.59 to 0.88 between participative style items. The items in both sub-scales reach a high level of significance (P<.001). These results support the internal consistency reliabilities of these sub-scales in testing the employees' attitudes toward their supervision through the computation of Alpha model (Cronbach's $\alpha$ = 0.95).

**Table (5.10)**
Mean, S.D., $SE_M$ and Ranks of Warehousing Employees Responses to Supervisory Style Sub-Scales

| Supervisory Style | $\bar{X}$ | S.D. | $SE_M$ | Rank |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| PARTICIPATIVE SUPERVISORY STYLE | | | | |
| Put suggestions made by employees into practice | 2.85 | 1.05 | 0.065 | 10 |
| Offer new approach to solve problems | 3.44 | 1.02 | 0.063 | 3.5 |
| Ask for advice to develop the work | 2.75 | 1.06 | 0.065 | 11 |
| Take employees opinions toward any problems | 2.62 | 1.18 | 0.073 | 13 |
| Give advance notice of changes | 3.59 | 0.74 | 0.046 | 01 |
| Gives serious consideration to what the employees have to say | 2.54 | 1.22 | 0.075 | 14 |
| Make job more pleasant | 3.55 | 1.01 | 0.062 | 02 |
| Overall participative supervisory style | 21.37 | 6.30 | 0.38 | |
| CONSIDERATE SUPERVISORY STYLE | | | | |
| An employee is important as an individual | 3.44 | 1.06 | 0.065 | 3.5 |
| Friendship and approbation | 3.35 | 1.16 | 0.071 | 07 |
| Openness | 3.37 | 1.19 | 0.073 | 05 |
| Mutual trust | 3.36 | 1.21 | 0.075 | 06 |
| Close supervision | 3.28 | 1.09 | 0.067 | 08 |
| Take care of complaints | 2.71 | 1.16 | 0.071 | 12 |
| Backs the subordinates up with top management | 3.24 | 1.28 | 0.079 | 09 |
| Overall considerate supervisory style | 22.67 | 6.88 | 0.42 | |

N=267

The intercorrelations of Table (5.12) are factor analyzed to ensure that the 14 items selected as a measure for specific constructs load on that factor, the results are reported in Table (5.13). An examination of the communalities of each supervisory style sub-scale statement is made. The rotating factors (varimax

rotation) is also made for simplifying factors, so that each variable loads highly on only one factor. Interpretation of the results is simplified because each factor is more clearly identified by a subset of variables that load high on one factor but low on the other.

The varimax rotation yields two orthogonal factors. The scale loading is higher on factor one, which includes 'supervisory style' variables such as, 'openness', 'mutual trust', 'close supervision', 'friendship and approbation'. Factor two is defined by variables such as, making the job more pleasant, putting employees' suggestions into practice, and giving serious consideration to what the employees have to say. By structuring the two factors it appears that factor one represents a considerate supervisory style, which explains the high percentages of the total variance (Percent of variance 73.9, eigenvalue 10.35). Factor two appears to represent participative supervisory style, which explains a less variance (percent of variance 7.5, eigenvalue 1.04). However, these findings suggest that warehousing employees' perception towards supervision is composed primarily of the considerate and then the participative supervisory style.

**Table (5.11)**
Wilcoxon test for Participative & Considerate Supervisory Style

| Variable | Mean | S.D. | $SE_M$ | Z-Value[1] |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Participative | 3.05[2] | 0.90 | 0.05 | 8.26 |
| Considerate | 3.23[3] | 0.98 | 0.06 | |

N = 267
[1] P<.15
[2] 21.37/7
[3] 22.67/7

**Table (5.12)**

Intercorrelation Matrix Among Supervisory Style Sub-Scales

| Participative items | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1.Make job more pleasant | 1.00 | | | | | | |
| 2.Put suggestion made by the employees into practice | 0.71 | 1.00 | | | | | |
| 3.Offer new approach to solve problems | 0.64 | 0.68 | 1.00 | | | | |
| 4.Ask for advice to develop the work | 0.70 | 0.71 | 0.82 | 1.00 | | | |
| 5.Take employees opinions toward any problems | 0.74 | 0.75 | 0.84 | 0.88 | 1.00 | | |
| 6.Give advance notice of changes | 0.65 | 0.66 | 0.86 | 0.79 | 0.80 | 1.00 | |
| 7.Give serious consideration to what the employees have to say | 0.63 | 0.68 | 0.63 | 0.59 | 0.67 | 0.62 | 1.00 |

| Considerate Items | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1.Employee is important as individual | 1.00 | | | | | | |
| 2.Friendship and approbation | 0.72 | 1.00 | | | | | |
| 3.Openness | 0.73 | 0.95 | 1.00 | | | | |
| 4.Mutual trust | 0.70 | 0.89 | 0.88 | 1.00 | | | |
| 5.Close supervision | 0.72 | 0.87 | 0.85 | 0.84 | 1.00 | | |
| 6.Take care of complaints | 0.70 | 0.86 | 0.85 | 0.84 | 0.82 | 1.00 | |
| 7.Supervisor backs his subordinates up with top management | 0.57 | 0.49 | 0.48 | 0.47 | 0.51 | 0.46 | 1.00 |

N = 267

**Table (5.13)**
Varimax Factor Matrix of Supervisory Style Scales

| Variable | Factor I | Factor II | Communality |
|---|---|---|---|
| Put suggestions made by employees into practice | 0.53 | **0.64** | 0.70 |
| Offer new approach to solve problems | **0.87** | 0.32 | 0.80 |
| Ask for advice to develop the work | **0.80** | 0.42 | 0.82 |
| Take employees opinions toward problems | **0.79** | 0.48 | 0.87 |
| Give advance notice of changes | **0.78** | 0.38 | 0.77 |
| Give serious consideration to what the employees have to say | 0.42 | **0.72** | 0.71 |
| Make job more pleasant | 0.41 | **0.77** | 0.76 |
| An employee is important as an individual | 0.54 | **0.76** | 0.75 |
| Friendship and approbation | **0.89** | 0.33 | 0.91 |
| Openness | **0.88** | 0.35 | 0.90 |
| Mutual trust | **0.86** | 0.34 | 0.86 |
| Close supervision | **0.82** | 0.38 | 0.82 |
| Take care of complaints | **0.83** | 0.37 | 0.84 |
| Backs subordinates up with top management | 0.16 | **0.38** | 0.74 |
| Percent of Variance | 73.9 | 7.5 | |
| cumulative percentage | 73.9 | 81.4 | |
| Eigenvalue | 10.53 | 1.04 | |

## 5.6. Findings of Job Characteristics

The Means, S.D., $SE_M$ and ranks of scores on the 21 job characteristics scales are tabulated in (6.14). As can be seen from this table the lowest mean occurs on the 'opportunity for learning' ($\bar{X}$ = 7.85, $SE_M$ = 0.14), 'degree of autonomy' ($\bar{X}$ = 8.13, $SE_M$ = 0.11), and 'task-significance' ($\bar{X}$ = 8.19, $SE_M$ = 0.13). These characteristics represent the "core dimensions".

**Table (5.14)**
Mean, S.D., $SE_M$ & Ranks of Warehousing Employees Responses to Job Characteristics Sub-Scales

| Items | $\bar{X}$ | S.D. | $SE_M$ | Rank |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Freedom in organising the job | 2.85 | 1.02 | 0.062 | |
| Personal initiatives | 3.37 | 0.73 | 0.045 | |
| Independence in doing the job | 2.91 | 1.00 | 0.062 | |
| Overall Degree of Freedom | 8.13 | 2.38 | 0.117 | 6 |
| Co-operative with others | 3.70 | 0.79 | 0.049 | |
| Extent in dealing with others | 3.83 | 0.72 | 0.044 | |
| Feedback from others | 2.89 | 0.75 | 0.046 | |
| Overall Dealing with others | 10.43 | 1.61 | 0.099 | 2 |
| Quality & quantity of feedback | 3.92 | 0.80 | 0.049 | |
| Experience from the job itself | 2.77 | 0.83 | 0.051 | |
| Feedback from the supervisor | 3.02 | 1.12 | 0.069 | |
| Overall Feedback on Performance | 9.715 | 2.27 | 0.139 | 3 |
| Task-Significance | 2.60 | 0.82 | 0.050 | |
| Effect on other departments | 2.55 | 0.80 | 0.049 | |
| Impact on company service & products | 3.03 | 0.79 | 0.049 | |
| Overall Task-Significance | 8.19 | 2.19 | 0.134 | 5 |
| Developing skills & knowledge | 2.69 | 0.78 | 0.048 | |
| Personal growth & development | 2.69 | 0.85 | 0.052 | |
| Acquiring skills & information | 2.46 | 0.79 | 0.060 | |
| Overall Learning opportunities | 7.85 | 2.40 | 0.147 | 7 |
| Variety in job | 2.94 | 0.80 | 0.050 | |
| Repetitious duties | 2.76 | 0.55 | 0.034 | |
| Variety in skill & Talents | 3.08 | 0.73 | 0.045 | |
| Overall Variety | 8.79 | 1.71 | 0.105 | 4 |
| Building close friendship | 3.66 | 0.78 | 0.048 | |
| Chatting & socialising informally | 3.11 | 1.09 | 0.067 | |
| Getting to know others | 3.80 | 0.83 | 0.051 | |
| Overall Friendship opportunities | 10.57 | 2.13 | 0.131 | 1 |

On the other hand, the highest job characteristics in warehousing appears in 'friendship opportunities' ($\bar{X}$ = 10.57, $SE_M$ = 0.13), and 'dealing with other people' ($\bar{X}$ = 10.43, $SE_M$ = 0.09).These two characteristics represent the "interpersonal dimensions". Further, learning opportunity (S.D. = 2.40) and the degree of freedom (S.D. = 2.38) have the most variability, while dealing with others is the least variable scale (S.D. = 1.61). From these findings it can be concluded that the core dimensions are the lowest available characteristics in warehousing compared with interpersonal dimensions.

### 5.6.1. Internal Consistency and Intercorrelations Between Job Characteristic Sub-Scale Items

The internal consistency reliability coefficient for all sub-scale selected items ranges from 0.93 to 0.95 (Alpha model). This means that the selected characteristics are reliably attributed to the individual differences among the respondents towards these different characteristics. The intercorrelation coefficients between the sub-scale items' score for seven job characteristics are computed. The majority of the sub-scale items are highly correlated with a high level of significance.

#### 5.6.1.1. Degree of Autonomy

The items used to investigate the degree of autonomy are: freedom to organise work, the opportunities for personal initiatives, and the degree of independence in doing the job. The correlation coefficients between these items are represented in Table (5.15). As shown in this table, all the items' scores are positively and strongly associated with a range from 0.52 to 0.91 at the .001 level of significance. The internal consistency reliabilities coefficient for these sub-scales is 0.94 (Cronbach's $\alpha$).

**Table (5.15)**
Matrix of Intercorrelation Among Degree of Autonomy Items

| Items | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1.Freedom in organising job | 1.00 | | |
| 2.Personal initiatives | 0.91 | 1.00 | |
| 3.Independence in doing job | 0.52 | 0.52 | 1.00 |

### 5.6.1.2. Dealing With Others

There are three items used to study this characteristic in the warehousing job. These items are: the co-operative work with other employees in different departments; the extent of dealing with others; and the feedback received from others. The correlation coefficients between these items are represented in Table (5.16). It is clear from this table that co-operation with others is strongly and positively associated with the extent in dealing with others. There is, however, an exception in the correlation between feedback from others with co-operative and extent in dealing with others, where there is no significance relationship. This means that this variable is independent from the others, according to its values according to the responses of the participants in this study. However, the reliability of these sub-scales is high ($\alpha$= 0.93). This means that these sub-scales measure consistently the characteristics of the job they are intended to examine.

**Table (5.16)**
Matrix of Intercorrelation Among Dealing With Other Items

| Items | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1.co-operative with others | 1.00 | | |
| 2.Extent in dealing with others | 0.62 | 1.00 | |
| 3.Feedback from others | 0.08* | 0.06* | 1.00 |

### 5.6.1.3. Feedback on Performance

Three items are used to examine the employees' performance feedback. These items are concerned with quality and quantity of feedback, the experience about the job from the job itself, and feedback from supervisor on job performance. The correlations coefficients between these variables are reported in Table (5.17). As can be seen from this table the feedback on the performance items' scores are positively and strongly associated with each other. The correlation ranges from 0.36 to 0.66 in a P<.001 level of significance. The internal consistency reliability of the participants' responses toward this characteristic is 0.95 (cronbach's $\alpha$ ).

**Table (5.17)**
Matrix of intercorrelations Among Performance Feedback Items

| Items | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1.Quality and Quantity of feedback | 1.00 | | |
| 2.Experience from job itself | 0.36 | 1.00 | |
| 3.Feedback from supervisor | 0.49 | 0.66 | 1.00 |

### 5.6.1.4. Task-Significance

Three items are used to test the significance of warehousing; significance on the well-being of other people's lives, the effect on other departments, and the impact on the company service and products. The correlations coefficients between these items are displayed in Table (5.18). From this table all the items' scores appear to be positively and strongly associated with each other, and statistically significant in .001 level. The internal consistency reliability is 0.94 (Cronbach's $\alpha$).

**Table (5.18)**
Matrix of Intercorrelation Among Task-Significance Variables

| Items | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1.Task-significant of other people | 1.00 | | |
| 2.Effect on other departments | 0.79 | 1.00 | |
| 3.Impact on company service and products | 0.69 | 0.72 | 1.00 |

### 5.6.1.5. Learning Opportunities

Three items are used to examine this characteristic in warehousing; developing new skills and knowledge, personal growth and developments, and acquiring related skills and information. The findings of the intercorrelation between these items is positive and strong in a P<.001 level of significance as shown in Table (5.19). Participants' responses toward these three sub-scales are in the same trend. This is supported by the internal consistency reliabilities between these items which consist of 0.94 (Alpha test).

**Table (5.19)**
Intercorrelation Matrix Among Learning Opportunities Variables

| Item | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1.Developing skill and knowledge | 1.00 | | |
| 2.Personal growth & developments | 0.78 | 1.00 | |
| 3.Acquiring skills & Information | 0.76 | 0.81 | 1.00 |

### 5.6.1.6. Task Variety

Three items are used to examine the variety at the level of individual perceptions. These items are: the amount of variety in job, the variety of doing a number of different things, and the variety in skills and talents. The correlations coefficient between these items are displayed in table (5.20). The three items' score is positively associated with each other ranging from 0.38 to 0.57 and statistically significant at P<.001 level. This is an indicator of the internal consistency reliabilities for the sub-scales of this characteristic, which appears through the Alpha test ($\alpha$ = 0.95).

**Table (5.20)**
Matrix of Intercorrelations Among Variety Items

| Item | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1.Variety in job | 1.00 | | |
| 2.Repetitious duties | 0.57 | 1.00 | |
| 3.Variety in skill and talents | 0.38 | 0.57 | 1.00 |

### 5.6.1.7. Friendship Opportunities

Three items are used to examine this characteristic in warehousing. This is achieved by asking the subjects about the extent to which they have the opportunity to build close friendships and good relationships with other employees. For example chatting and socialising informally, and the opportunity to get to know others through the job. To test the internal consistency, Alpha test is computed and the reliability is 0.94. The correlation coefficient is achieved, and presented in Table (5.21). These items are positively and strongly associated with each other ranging from 0.37 to 0.51 in a P<.001 level of significance.

**Table (5.21)**
Matrix of Intercorrelation Among Friendship Opportunities Items

| Item | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1.Build close friendship | 1.00 | | |
| 2.Chat and socialise informally | 0.51 | 1.00 | |
| 3.Get to know others | 0.37 | 0.42 | 1.00 |

## 5.7. Employees' Performance

Job performance is measured by thirteen sub-scales items. These items evaluate employees' performance through the rating by their supervisors. The $\overline{X}$, S.D., and $SE_M$, of job performance evaluation is displayed in the Table (5.22). As shown in this table, the employees performance is relatively high. This implies that the employees are performing their works better, though they are dissatisfied with some aspects of it. The search for the reasons, and the factors which affect the employees' attitudes and influence their performance directly or indirectly, will be investigated in the following chapters.

It is, however, important to understand the situations of employees' performance. The total distribution of the employees' twelve sub-scales items, and the overall job performance evaluation are reported in Table (5.22). From this table it appears that 54 subjects of the total sample (20.1%) are classified by their supervisors as low producers. In other words, their performance is unsatisfactory. However, over half of the participants (53%) are identified as high producers. In other words, their performance is satisfactory with the company standard. On the other hand, 70 subjects of the total sample (26.2 %) are classified as fairly satisfactory producers. Generally speaking, there is a small number of low productive employees in this sample, whose performance

does not have the established minimum standards, (i.e., performance standard), fixed by the company.

### 5.7.1. Internal Consistency and Intercorrelation of Job Performance Sub-Scales Items

The internal consistency reliability of the thirteen sub-scale items is 0.95 (Cronbach's $\alpha$). This is supported the estimation of the cases's true scores. The correlations coefficients matrix between job performance sub-scales was achieved and presented in Table (5.23). This matrix indicates that all correlations are positive with a range of 0.72 to 0.95, and reached the $P<.001$ level of significance. An examination of the evaluation of the quality and quantity of work performed by the employees suggests that these two variables are highly correlated with other performance measures than any of the rest of the variables. In fact these two variables are used in testing hypotheses and are considered the most objective performance ratings items in most of the studies related to performance appraisal (Prestwich, 1980: 53).

**Table (5.22)**
Mean, S.D., & $SE_M$, of the employees performance

| Job performance items | $\bar{X}$ | S.D. | $SE_M$ |
|---|---|---|---|
| Ability | 3.74 | 0.92 | 0.051 |
| Work quantity | 3.54 | 0.98 | 0.061 |
| Work quality | 3.39 | 0.96 | 0.059 |
| Knowledge | 3.68 | 0.92 | 0.057 |
| Personal quality | 3.51 | 1.50 | 0.092 |
| Initiative | 3.28 | 1.12 | 0.069 |
| Accepting supervision & organisational procedures | 3.37 | 1.35 | 0.083 |
| Sincerity | 3.56 | 1.02 | 0.063 |
| Effort | 3.59 | 1.05 | 0.065 |
| Cooperation | 3.37 | 1.08 | 0.066 |
| Job understanding | 3.46 | 0.81 | 0.050 |
| Leadership potential | 3.25 | 1,05 | 0.064 |
| Overall job performance | 3.59 | 0.99 | 0.061 |

**Table (5.23)**
Intercorrelation Matrix Among Job Performance Sub-Scale Items

| Items | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Ability | 1.00 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Work Quality | .78 | 1.00 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Work Quantity | .77 | .90 | 1.00 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Knowledge | .79 | .81 | .81 | 1.00 | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Personal Quality | .70 | .74 | .74 | .73 | 1.00 | | | | | | | | |
| 6. Initiatives | .73 | .75 | .73 | .76 | .76 | 1.00 | | | | | | | |
| 7. Accepting S/O[1] | .72 | .77 | .76 | .73 | .85 | .80 | 1.00 | | | | | | |
| 8. Sincerity | .77 | .91 | .88 | .80 | .72 | .75 | .77 | 1.00 | | | | | |
| 9. Effort | .67 | .91 | .87 | .80 | .76 | .76 | .77 | .91 | 1.00 | | | | |
| 10. Cooperation | .78 | .83 | .79 | .79 | .79 | .83 | .81 | .82 | .82 | 1.00 | | | |
| 11. Job Understanding | .73 | .81 | .80 | .76 | .72 | .76 | .76 | .78 | .77 | .81 | 1.00 | | |
| 12. Leadership Potential | .73 | .79 | .80 | .76 | .74 | .82 | .77 | .81 | .80 | .82 | .87 | 1.00 | |
| 13. Overall JP[2] | .80 | .95 | .90 | .84 | .77 | .78 | .78 | .92 | .92 | .83 | .81 | .82 | 1.00 |

N=267
[1] Supervision & organisational procedure
[2] Job performance

## 5.8. Summary and Conclusions

The results of the satisfaction questionnaire indicate that warehousing employees are most satisfied with the "way their co-workers get along with each other", and the chance they have to do things for other people (social service). They are less satisfied, however, with advancement, social status, ability utilization, and compensation.

Intercorrelation and the Alpha test of internal consistency are computed for the 22 job satisfaction sub-scales. The internal consistency reliabilities are highly satisfactory. The intercorrelation coefficients are positive ranging from 0.46 to 0.81. Further, these items are factor analysed by using Kaiser normalization criterion. The findings show that two factors are extracted. The

structure of these two factors suggests that factor one represents satisfaction related to the extrinsic aspects of the work, factor two represents satisfaction related to intrinsic aspects of the work. Moreover the scale loadings are higher in factor one than in factor two. This would mean that the Iraqi warehousing employees' satisfaction is composed primarily of satisfaction with extrinsic and then with intrinsic aspects of the job.

The internal consistency reliability for the sub-scale items regarding work values is satisfactory and assures that the items within each scale measure the work values. The participants' responses for the eighteen different work value items indicate that the employees' feelings toward the kind of job they would most like to have would include: (1) a feeling of independent thought and action, (2) the opportunity for salary increases and (3) a good social status with a good public image. The less important values for the warehousing employees would be in this case the proper working conditions.

The eighteen work value items are factor analysed by using the Kaiser normalization criterion. Six of the eighteen items have a high loading in more than one factor. Factor one is identified by supervision, recognition, company policies and job security. Therefore, this factor represents the extrinsic environmental values. Factor two is identified by the high loading of the responsibility, moral values and authority scores. These variables represent the intrinsic psychological values. Factor three is identified by: social status, co-worker and working conditions. These items refer to the social or relational values in a given society. Factor four is identified by achievement, growth and developments, social service, (contribution to the society), and ability utilization scores. These items reflect the value of challenge in work. Factor five is identified by the high loadings of the variety and independence scores. These two items refer to the comfort or convenience value at work. Finally, factor six is identified by the high loadings of pay, and promotions scores. This factor

refers to financial values in work.

As regards of the perceived rewards, the findings indicate that the employees agree with the promotion system in warehousing, but they disagree with encouragement and rewards which they deserve when they are doing a good job. The findings show that the internal consistency reliabilities for the sub-scales perceived rewards items are satisfactory and the intercorrelation ranges from 0.43 to 0.91 of the total sample.

Regarding supervisory style, 14 sub-scale items sought to determine employees feelings toward supervision in warehousing, (participative and considerate). The Mean, S.D., Wilcoxon test and Factor analysis show that there is no differences in warehousing employees responses regarding considerate (which is composed of friendship, mutual trust, respect, openness, close supervision, and caring "i.e., taking care of complaints") and the participative (democratic) supervisory style in warehousing.

With respect to Job characteristics, 21 sub-scale items have examined seven characteristics of the job, (degree of autonomy, dealing with other people, performance feedback, task-significance, learning opportunity, variety and friendship opportunity). These characteristics are composed of core and interpersonal dimensions. The subjects of this study report that the highest characteristics available in their job represents the interpersonal dimensions, while the lowest appear in the core dimensions. The employees report that learning opportunity, degree of autonomy and variety are the lowest available characteristics; while friendship opportunity and dealing with other people represent the highest available characteristics in warehousing. The intercorrelation coefficients among all sub-scale characteristics are positive and significance at the $P<.001$ level.

The employees' performance has been evaluated by their immediate supervisors on the following dimensions: quantity and quality of work, ability, efforts, knowledge, initiative, personality, accepting supervision, sincerity,

cooperation, job understanding and leadership potentiality. The findings indicate generally that warehousing employees in Iraq appear to be high performers, though they show dissatisfaction with many aspects of their jobs. The intercorrelation coefficients indicate that the sub-scale of performance evaluations are highly and positively correlated and the internal consistency reliability for these sub-scales is 0.95 (Alpha).

# CHAPTER SIX

# ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA PERTAINING TO WAREHOUSING EMPLOYEES' CHARACTERISTICS

## 6.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the statistical results of employees' characteristics (e.g., age, educational level, position level, and length of service, etc.) in relation to job satisfaction and job performance (employees' characteristics are described in Appendix IV).

The statistical technique used in this analysis is one-way unadjusted analysis of variance. This technique analyses the possible effects of each employee's characteristics as independent variables and job satisfaction, job performance as dependent variables. Chi-square ($X^2$) is also used to assess the statistical significance of the association. By using this test one can investigate differences in job satisfaction or job performance levels among the employees according to various characteristics such as age, sex, training, etc. In addition, a graphical representation of percentiles is used to study the variability of the subjects' responses toward job satisfaction or job performance.

Employees' responses were processed through the statistical packages for the Social Sciences (SPSSx).

## 6.2. Relation of Employees' Characteristics to Job Satisfaction

Crosstabulation is performed to determine if a significant relationship exists between various employees' characteristics and their intrinsic, extrinsic, and general job satisfaction. Contingency tables are prepared in Appendix III for each of the job satisfaction aspects with each employees' characteristic.

The twenty-two items of job satisfaction yielded a score ranging from 22 to 110. So in order to avoid the empty and small cells in the crosstabulation to calculate Chi-square, the frequency distribution of job satisfaction scores are divided into three levels as follows: first, general job satisfaction (1) the low satisfaction range is 34-65; (2) the medium satisfaction range is 66-87; and (3) the high satisfaction range is 88-110. Second, extrinsic job satisfaction (1)the low is (15-29); (2) the medium is (30-39); (3) the high is (40-50). Finally, intrinsic job satisfaction (1) low is (18-35); (2) medium is (36-47); and high is (48-60).

The Chi-square ($X^2$) values calculation, using three strata of job satisfaction and other strata for employees' characteristics are determined in this study. The findings are presented in Table (6.1).

### 6.2.1. Employees Age and Job Satisfaction

As shown in Table (6.1) the computed Chi-square values of extrinsic, intrinsic and general job satisfaction are 97.67, 84.88, 103.43 respectively with 4 degrees of freedom. These values are statistically significant at the .001 level. This means that there is a significant difference among age groups regarding their job satisfaction.

The younger subjects (less than 35 years old) are more dissatisfied with their job. It is found that 71 (59.7 %) from a total of 119 young subjects are dissatisfied, while only 18 subjects (15.1 %) are very satisfied, and 30 subjects (25.2 %) responded by being moderately satisfied. 38.6 % of the middle age group (35-50) state that they are dissatisfied, while 40.6% are satisfied. All of the old age group (over 50 years) are highly satisfied with their job, except one subject who is undecided.

**Table (6.1)**
Summary of Chi-square Values of Job satisfaction and Employees' Characteristics

| Personal characteristics | JS aspects[1] | Chi-square[2] | df |
|---|---|---|---|
| Sex | Extrinsic JS | 28.61 | 2 |
| | Intrinsic JS | 25.43 | 2 |
| | General JS | 30.73 | 2 |
| Age | Extrinsic JS | 97.23 | 4 |
| | Intrinsic JS | 84.88 | 4 |
| | General JS | 103.43 | 4 |
| Marital status | Extrinsic JS | 18.57[3] | 2 |
| | Intrinsic JS | 28.09 | 2 |
| | General JS | 19.48 | 2 |
| Education level | Extrinsic JS | 48.62 | 6 |
| | Intrinsic JS | 43.95 | 6 |
| | General JS | 37.24 | 6 |
| Length of service | Extrinsic JS | 20.07 | 4 |
| | Intrinsic JS | 34.01 | 4 |
| | General JS | 26.14 | 4 |
| Attending training | Extrinsic JS | 23.16 | 2 |
| | Intrinsic JS | 38.94 | 2 |
| | General JS | 32.92 | 2 |
| Initial employment | Extrinsic JS | 22.50 | 2 |
| | Intrinsic JS | 10.28 | 2 |
| | General JS | 11.23[3] | 2 |
| Plan for continuing employment | Extrinsic JS | 133.41 | 2 |
| | Intrinsic JS | 111.30 | 2 |
| | General JS | 131.26 | 2 |
| Working sector | Extrinsic JS | 10.36[4] | 10 |
| | Intrinsic JS | 19.84[4] | 10 |
| | General JS | 15.43[4] | 10 |
| Job position | Extrinsic JS | 24.36 | 4 |
| | Intrinsic JS | 24.15 | 4 |
| | General JS | 38.36 | 4 |
| No. of dependents | Extrinsic JS | 06.67[4] | 2 |
| | Intrinsic JS | 04.13[4] | 2 |
| | General JS | 02.92[4] | 2 |

(1) JS : Job satisfaction
(2) P<.001 3. P<.01
(4) Statistically N.S.

This shows that there is a significant difference between the age groups for extrinsic job aspects such as pay, promotion, co-workers, supervision, etc., and intrinsic job aspects such as achievements, ability utilization etc.

To graphically compare employees' satisfaction according to their age, percentiles are computed (see Appendix II) and ogives are plotted as in Figure (6-1). The ogive for the older age group lies to the right of that for the young, and the middle aged group. This means that the old subjects' score is consistently higher than the one for middle and young subjects. The extent of the differences in job satisfaction among the three age groups is shown by the distance apart of the three curves. This varies at different levels. The observed differences between very high-scoring and very low-scoring show that the middle and young subjects until the 30th percentiles are relatively equal while over 30th percentiles the differences are more marked. On the other hand, the differences in the old subjects' scores are very clear compared with the score for both middle and young subjects.

In support of these findings, analysis of variance has been computed and the results are reported in Table (6.2). On inspection of the results in this table the univariate Fs for employees' age (extrinsic: 95.35, $p < .001$; intrinsic: 103.39, $p < .001$; general: 109.16, $p < .001$) confirms that there are significant differences between sample means of the age groups. It is obvious from these findings that job satisfaction increases significantly with age. A closer look at these findings shows that younger employees are less satisfied with the intrinsic aspects than with extrinsic ones. This suggests that the job performed by the young age group might not be highly enriched and lacks the necessary characteristics for intrinsic satisfaction.

Briefly, the ANOVA analysis indicates that: (1) the unadjusted job satisfaction scores for the three age groups differ significantly; (2) the younger groups scored significantly lower than those in the middle or old age groups. It is also found that middle and old age subjects differ significantly; and (3) the unadjusted intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction scores for all age groups do not differ significantly.

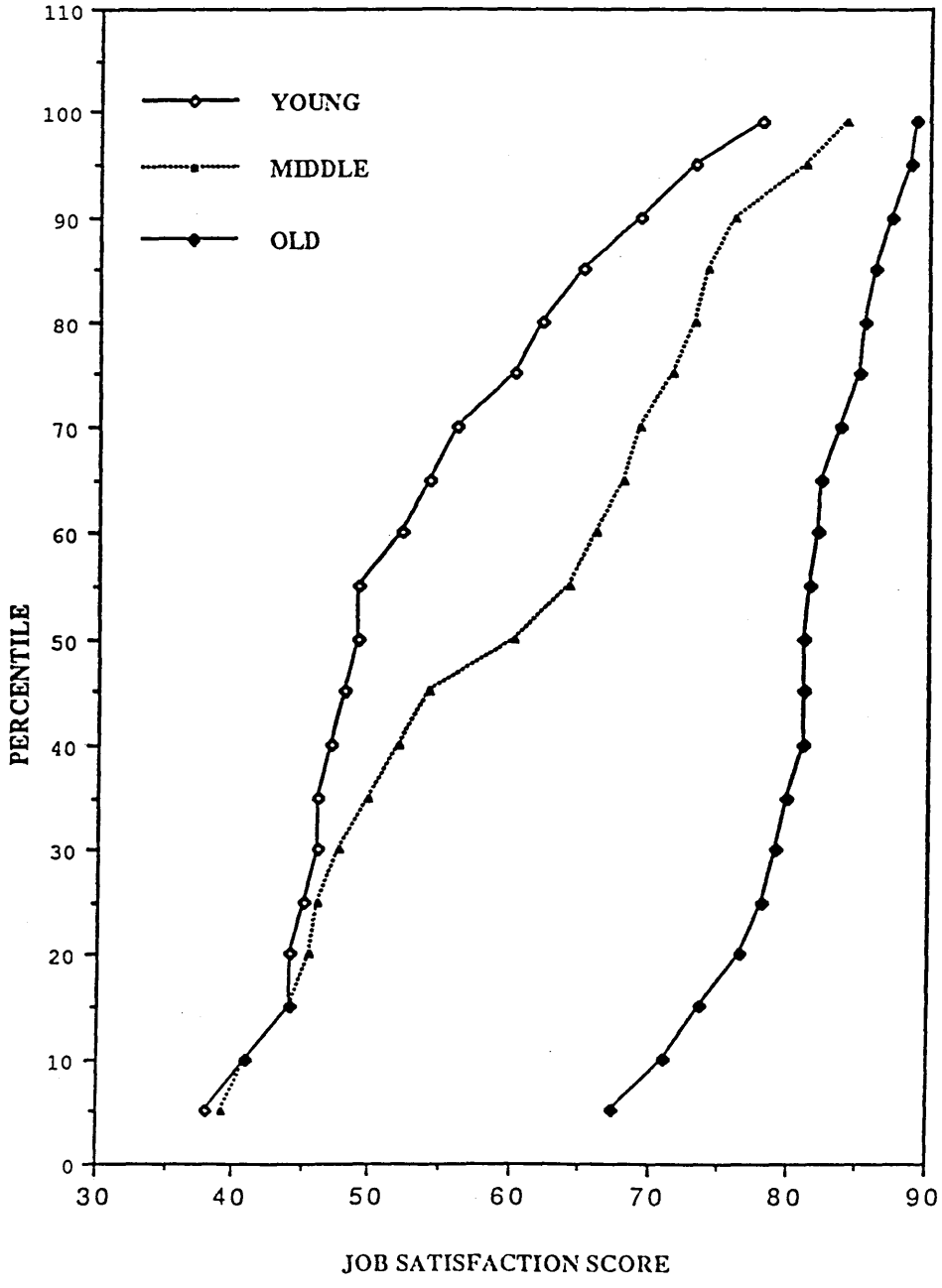



**Figure (6-1)**

Ogive of Percentile Scores for Job Satisfaction According to Employees' Age

**Table (6.2)**
Deviation Scores from the Grand Mean of Job Satisfaction Aspects for Different Age Groups

| JS Factor | Analysis of Variance (Unadjusted) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N=119[a] | N=101[b] | N=47[c] | F[d] |
| Extrinsic JS | -3.77 | -0.46 | 10.54 | 095.35 |
| Intrinsic JS | -4.54 | -0.42 | 12.39 | 103.39 |
| General JS | -8.13 | -0.88 | 22.94 | 109.16 |

[a] Less than 35 years old (Young)
[b] 35-49 years old (Middle)
[c] 50 years old and over (Old)
[d] $p < .001$

A look at the relevant literature on this shows three distinct views concerning this relationship. These views have been advanced about the nature of the relationship between age and job satisfaction. The first view is that satisfaction decreases initially and then increases (Herzberg et al., 1959). This means that this relationship can be represented in a U-shape function. The second view indicates that employees become more satisfied as chronological age increases (Hulin & Smith, 1965). On the other hands, job satisfaction is a positive linear function with age. The third view indicates that a positive linear relationship exists until a terminal period in which there is a significant decline in job satisfaction (Carrell & Elbert, 1974). In comparing the findings of this study with the above mentioned views, which are concerning this relationship in developed countries, it appears that a number of studies have indicated differences between various age groups with respect to job satisfaction. The results of these studies generally show an increase in the level of job satisfaction with increased age (Herzberg et al., 1959; Glenn, Tylor & Weaver, 1977; Organ, 1977; Wright & Hamilton, 1978; Rhodes, 1983; Pond III & Geyer, 1987; et al.). These studies indicate that the younger work force is the less satisfied one.

Workers under 35 are perhaps less satisfied owing to the importance they give on intrinsic job aspects which in many instances are not available for their positions in warehousing. Some theorists have stated that job satisfaction declines in the period immediately before retirement (Weaver, 1977). This is due to the lack of possibilities of growth and achievement; the decline in physical health also means that less effort is made. A job with less effort is more appealing than a job offering high salary. However, the social environment in particular increases in importance as the worker ages. For example, built into the nation's culture is natural respect for its elders.

Up to a point, the findings of this study are collaborated with some of the previous studies and in contradiction with others. This contradiction suggests that other variables may be affecting the relationship between age and job satisfaction. Variables such as educational level, length of service, salary, work values, supervisory style, and job characteristics, all of which may correlate with age. This is to be investigated in the following chapters to find a possible explanation to the inconsistencies .

### 6.2.2. Employees' Sex Group and Job Satisfaction

Traditionally it has been assumed that male and female employees hold different attitudes towards various aspects of their jobs. The literature is somewhat contradictory with respect to such sex differences. The inconsistencies found in many studies suggest that other variables with sex may be operating in a relationship of sex to job satisfaction. However, in this section an investigation of sex with job satisfaction by controlling other variables has been done. Chi-square values, in Table (6.1), show that extrinsic, intrinsic, and general job satisfaction scores are 28.61, 25.43, 30.73 respectively ($df = 2$, $P<.001$). This shows the difference in job satisfaction in relation to employees' sex group.

From the contingency tables in Appendix III, it appears that 44.7% of female subjects are very dissatisfied as opposed to 39% of their male counterparts. On the other hand, 23 % of female as apposed to 53.9% of males are satisfied. This is a clear indication of the significant differences in satisfaction according to the gender. According to the extrinsic satisfiers, 15% of female subjects are dissatisfied as opposed to 15.7% of their male counterparts, while 12.4% of the females are satisfied as opposed to 26.9% of their males counterparts. By the same token the findings of the intrinsic job satisfaction reveal that 16.9 % of females are dissatisfied, 21.7% neutral and 18.6% satisfied versus 16.5% dissatisfied, 10.1 neutral, and 26.2 satisfied from the male subjects.

The graphical presentation of the percentiles for the overall job satisfaction score can confirm these results (see Figure 6-2). This figure shows that the ogive for male subjects lies to the right of that for the female subjects over the entire range of job satisfaction scores from the 40th percentiles. Before the 40th percentiles relatively the ogives for both males and females are close. Thus, male job satisfaction scores are consistently higher than that for females. The extent of the differences in job satisfaction is shown by the distance between the two curves.

Further, computation of the one-way unadjusted analysis of variance with sex as an independent variable for each of job satisfaction aspects is reported in Table (6.3). The F ratios for extrinsic, intrinsic, and general job satisfaction are: 16.01, 23.32, 21.03 respectively ($P<.001$). It is obvious from the observed values that differences exist between male and female satisfaction. The unadjusted job satisfaction scores show that female subjects are less satisfied with their jobs in warehousing than their male counterparts. They are more dissatisfied with intrinsic aspects of work compared with extrinsic ones. This means that female subjects endeavor to satisfy their intrinsic needs from the

work in warehousing, such as achievement, responsibility, creativity, ability utilization, social status, etc., more than the extrinsic needs, such as compensation, promotion, co-workers, etc. These findings are contradicted with the findings of some earlier studies which indicate that women are more satisfied than men (e.g., Stockford & Kunze, 1950). However, there are several possible explanations of the reasons behind this dissatisfaction: firstly, young female subjects consist of 31.8 % and middle age group consist of 15.5 % of the total sample, while, there are no female subjects of 50 years of age and over (see Appendix IV). The preceding findings indicate that old-age subjects are more satisfied with their jobs than middle and young age ones. Secondly, according to job positions, female subjects are predominantly working as assistant store-keepers and clerical workers (see Appendix IV). The evidence in the literature showed that situation gives individuals power, gives them the ability to satisfy their own needs and desires within a given work situation (Feather, 1984). So individuals who are placed in a high position will think of themselves in more instrumental terms, as forceful, strong, self-confident, and independent. Thirdly, some female subjects in warehousing feel that they are less comfortable with the nature of their work than their male counterparts. Fourthly, the findings indicate that female subjects are more dissatisfied with the intrinsic aspects of work than extrinsic ones. Females regard the opportunities to work with a high responsibility, ability utilization, achievement, and independent as being more important to satisfy their needs in a male dominant eastern culture. This derives from the popular idea that women are still considered unsuitable for responsible positions. In addition, the eastern culture holds women responsible for extra duties (e.g., raising children, doing housework, etc.) more so than western women. This may be one of the factors which affect their dissatisfaction at work. The preceding points might be an additional factor affecting women's attitudes toward their jobs.

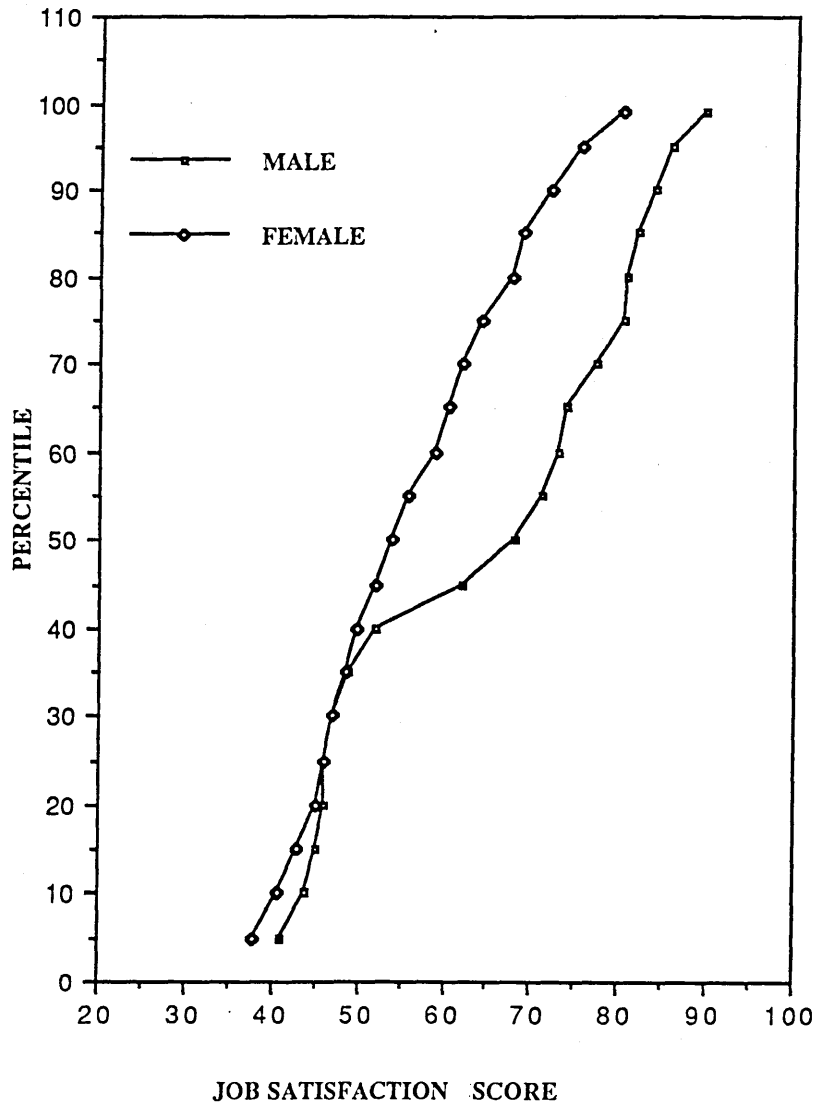



**Figure (6-2)**

Ogive of Percentile Scores for Job Satisfaction According to Employees' Sex

**Table (6.3)**
Deviation Scores of Job Satisfaction Factors for Sex Groups

| JS Factor | Analysis of Variance (Unadjusted) | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | N=141[a] | N=126[b] | F[c] |
| Extrinsic JS | 1.78 | -1.99 | 16.008 |
| Intrinsic JS | 2.44 | -2.73 | 23.322 |
| General JS | 4.42 | -4.94 | 21.038 |

[a] Male
[b] Female
[c] P <.001

The relationship between job satisfaction and employees' sex has been the focus of attention for many researchers throughout the literature. The results of these different studies have been contradictory. For example, some studies have found females to be more satisfied with their jobs than males, while others have indicated that males are more satisfied with their jobs than females. Still others report that both males and females have the same level of satisfaction (Hulin & Simth, 1964). Many studies found that males and females have different attitudes towards their jobs. The intrinsic aspects of jobs have been given considerable attention. Herzberg et al. (1957), Saleh & Hyde (1969) and Williamson & Karras (1970) find differences between the two sexes as to the importance assigned to various aspects of the job. Males consider intrinsic aspects of the job to be more important to them than females. For example, Herzberg et al. studies showed that females are less concerned with career aspects and are more concerned with social aspects. Going back to the time when females were likely to be paid less than males, and to have fewer opportunities for promotion, especially to higher levels, they are less satisfied with their jobs. But this trend has changed. It is argued that females might well be as satisfied as males.

Generally speaking, job satisfaction depends on the extent to which the job is able to provide the employee with what he or she wants. Most researches show that not every one wants the same out-of-work situation and that different groups have different work attitudes (Smith & Hulin, 1965: 213).

### 6.2.3. Marital Status and Job Satisfaction

The chi-square value between marital status and extrinsic, intrinsic, and Overall job satisfaction are 17.01, 27.31, 22.65 (df = 2, P<.001). These findings show that married subjects are more satisfied than unmarried ones. It is found that 34.5 % of single subjects, of the total sample, are dissatisfied with their jobs versus 20.9% of married subject. It is indicated that 15.4% of the single subjects are satisfied with their work, while 29.2% of the married subjects are satisfied (Appendix III).

With regard to the extrinsic job satisfiers, the findings indicate that single subjects are highly dissatisfied (36.4 % from the total sample) with their extrinsic work aspects than their married counterparts (24.3 %). Married subjects are more satisfied (37.1 %) with intrinsic job aspects than their single ones in the sample (29.6 %).

The preceding findings indicate that single subjects are less satisfied with their extrinsic and intrinsic work factors than married subjects.

The graphical representation of the percentile score in Figure (6-3) gives more clarification. The ogive for married subjects lies to the right of that for single subjects over the entire range of job satisfaction scores. The difference is clear after the 20th percentile and the largest differences falling in the 55th percentiles. So it is obvious from the two curves that single and married subjects have different attitudes towards their job in warehousing.

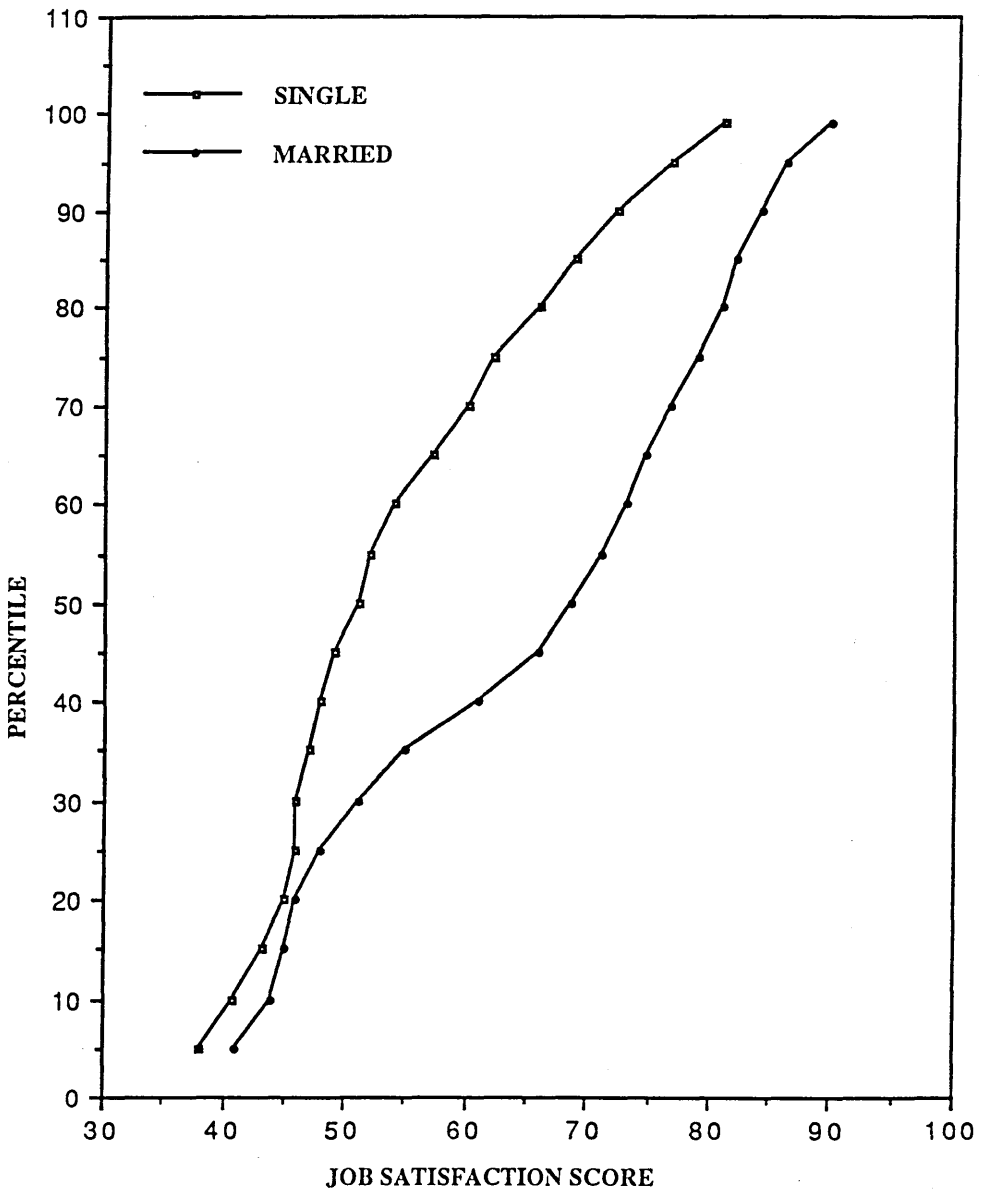



**Figure (6-3)**

Ogive of Percentile Scores for Job Satisfaction According to Marital Status

The differences in satisfaction between single and married subjects can be attributed to several reasons: (1) the majority of single employees are younger than married employees, and the married employees may have served longer, thus obtaining high pay level. This result is consistent with pay scales in the Iraqi companies, which offer better benefits to married employees than single ones (Iraq, Law No.24, 1960),

(2) a high percentage of single employees occupied a low occupational level (job position) with less opportunities for promotion and fringe benefits (Appendix IV). The interpretation of these findings can be related to the career aspects of young and single subjects. It might be that these subjects are not given those elements that satisfiy their ambitions in warehousing such as promotional opportunities, pay level and ability utilization.

### 6.2.4. Educational levels and Job Satisfaction

One of the more salient characteristics which the employee brings to his job is the educational level. This is an important and conceptually complex variable affecting both employees' satisfaction and their performance. To investigate the role of this variable, the computed Chi-square values (see Table 6.1) are: 48.62 extrinsic, 43.95 intrinsic, and 37.24 overall job satisfaction, ($df = 6$, $P<.001$). This means that job satisfaction and educational levels are closely related.

Taking a closer look at the contingency tables in Appendix III, it appears that satisfaction decreases with the increases of education. The responses of the two open-ended questions (Appendix I) indicate that one of the reasons behind the dissatisfaction of employees with higher education levels is the routine tasks assigned to them. The picture would be clearer by using the analysis of variance as reported in Table (6.4). F values indicate that differences in satisfaction exist among employees according to their educational level. The unadjusted job satisfaction scores show that satisfaction decreases as the level of education increases. Furthermore, the graphical presentation (Figure 6-4) of the percentile

scores shows that those who are satisfied with their work tend to have lower educational levels. These findings support many studies findings, which shows that direct effects of the educational level on job satisfaction could be negative (Bruce, Bonjean, & Williams, 1968; Carrel & Elbert, 1974; Vollmer & Kinney, 1955). However, other studies report that a positive or none relationship exists between these two variables. Herzberg et al., (1957) from thirteen studies have been carried out in relation to education and job attitudes found that 5 of them showed no differences in satisfaction among workers differing in education; 3 studies showed that an increase in morale with the increase in educational level; while the other 5 showed that workers with higher educational levels have a lower morale.

In conclusion, the findings suggest that the educational level has an effect on the employees' satisfaction in warehousing. Lower educational level employees are more satisfied with their job than employees with a higher level of education. Probably this job (i.e., warehousing) fails to present a satisfactory challenge to the educated employees. This is because the graduates do not accept now jobs below their expectations in terms of position level, pay level, and the nature of the job they are employed to do, where their skills may not be utilised. This is related to the employment policy in Iraq, which is based on the centralisation distribution of the graduates, So they have to accept the job they are offered.

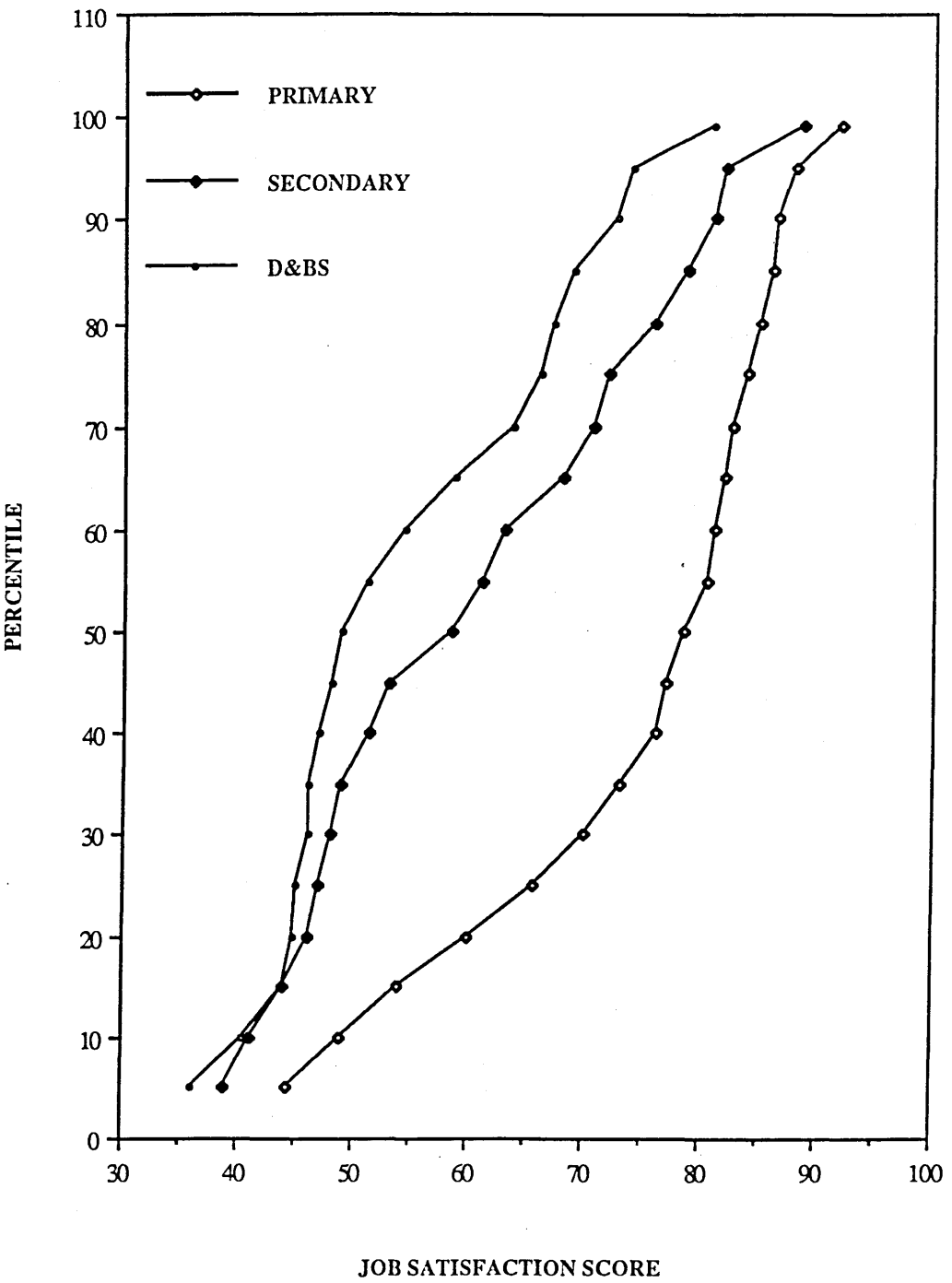



**Figure (6-4)**

Ogive of Percentile Scores for Job Satisfaction According to Employees' Education

**Table (6.4)**
Deviation Scores from the Grand Mean of Job Satisfaction Aspects for Educational Level.

| JS Factors | Analysis of Variance (Unadjusted) | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N=44[a] | N=120[b] | N=87[c] | N=16[d] | F |
| Extrinsic JS | 7.73 | -0.08 | -2.81 | -5.36 | 25.96[e] |
| Intrinsic JS | 7.76 | -0.21 | -2.58 | -5.74 | 18.00[e] |
| General JS | 16.28 | -0.29 | -5.74 | -11.35 | 23.23[e] |

[a] Primary (6 years)
[b] Secondary (12 years)
[c] Institute Diploma (14 years)
[d] Bachelor (16 years)
[e] $P < .001$

### 6.2.5. Length of Service and Job Satisfaction

The computation of Chi-square values as reported in Table (6.1) concerning length of service and job satisfaction are: 20.07 extrinsic, 34.01 intrinsic and 26.14 overall job satisfaction with 4 degrees of freedom. It is obvious from the contingency tables (Appendix III) that the subjects who serve less than four years tend to be less satisfied. For instance, 73.3 % of them are less satisfied with extrinsic aspects, while 13.3 % are satisfied. This trend is the same for the intrinsic job satisfaction aspects (Appendix III).

Further, the computation of the analysis of variance as reported in Table (6.5) shows that F values for the extrinsic, intrinsic, and general job satisfaction scores are: 37.14, 39.92 and 41.25 respectively. These ratios indicate that there are differences existing between length of service categories in relation to job satisfaction. The unadjusted job satisfaction scores show that the employees who

served fewer years are less satisfied with their job than employees who served longer. This relationship may be based on a number of indices. The employees who served longer are older and probably married subjects, occupied higher position levels, and obtained higher pay levels.

**Table (6.5)**
Deviation Scores From the Grand Mean of Job satisfaction Aspects for Different in Length of Service

| JS Factors | Analysis of Variance (unadjusted) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N=56[a] | N=88[b] | N=123[c] | F |
| Extrinsic JS | -2.25 | -4.07 | 3.90 | 37.14[d] |
| Intrinsic JS | -3.63 | -4.34 | 4.70 | 39.92[d] |
| General JS | -6.03 | -8.84 | 8.97 | 41.25[d] |

[a] Less than 5 years
[b] 6 - 9 years
[c] 10 years & more
[e] $P < .001$

### 6.2.6. Pay Level and Job Satisfaction

The crosstabulation of job satisfaction responses according to pay level, as reported in Table (6.6), shows that employees who are paid a low monthly salary are more dissatisfied than those who are paid higher salaries. For example 21 subjects who receive less than 120 ID (Iraqi Dinnar), as a monthly salary, are dissatisfied, while 5 of them are satisfied. On the other hand, 7 subjects from the employees who receive over 180 ID are dissatisfied, and 53 of them are very satisfied. This indicates that salary influences employees' satisfaction. To prove these findings, the computation of the unadjusted one-way analysis of variance is reported in Table (6.7).

**Table(6.6)**
Cross-tabulation of the Employees' Satisfaction According to Their Salary

| JS Score | less 120 | 121-150 | 151-180 | 181-over | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Low Satisfaction | 21 | 64 | 21 | 7 | 113 |
| Medium Satisfaction | 25 | 20 | 7 | 3 | 55 |
| High Satisfaction | 5 | 28 | 13 | 53 | 99 |
| Total | 51 | 112 | 41 | 63 | 267 |

N = 267

The F values for the extrinsic, intrinsic and overall job satisfaction scores are: 61.22, 61.25, 66.81 respectively (P <.001). This means that pay levels are associated positively with job satisfaction. Significant differences appear to lie with three salary groups who have less than 181 ID. The subjects in these groups tend to be dissatisfied with their work, while the subjects who received 181 ID and over seem to be more satisfied.

In fact it is not easy to give a clear explanation for these findings directly. This is because the contradictions found in the literature suggest that other factors may affect this relationship. Variables such as educational level, employees' age, length of service, job position level or other variables correlate highly with job satisfaction. These variables might be possible contributors to these inconsistencies. However, a great deal of research on individual behaviour has shown that pay is one of the most important job aspects to people. This is because it is important to most people and has the power to influence their behaviour and their performance. The evidence in the literature seems to support the conclusion that pay is the major source of dissatisfaction. This is supported by Herzberg and his associates (1959) when they asked workers to describe what makes them satisfied or dissatisfied with their job.

**Table (6.7)**

Deviation Scores From the Grand Mean Of JS Factors For Different in Pay Levels

| JS Factor | Analysis of Variance (Unadjusted ) | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N=51[a] | N=112[b] | N=41[c] | N=63[d] | F |
| Extrinsic JS | -2.45 | -3.02 | -2.66 | 9.08 | 61.22[e] |
| Intrinsic JS | -4.43 | -2.99 | -2.34 | 10.42 | 61.25[e] |
| General JS | -7.07 | -6.36 | -3.14 | 20.37 | 66.81[e] |

[a] Less than 120 ID

[b] 121 - 150 [c] 151 - 180

[d] 181 or More [e] P < .001

Salary is found to be the most frequent source of dissatisfaction but the least frequent source of satisfaction (i.e., salary is a "Hygienic Factor" in the work environment). However, the evidence from numerous studies, clearly, does not support the fact that pay level operates only as a dissatisfier (Dunnette, Campbell, & Hakel, 1967; King, 1970). Many studies agree that salary, as a factor, can cause both dissatisfaction and satisfaction (House & Wigdor, 1967). This would seem to provide a strong support for the view that salary does influence job satisfaction/dissatisfaction (Lawler, 1971: 241).

### 6.2.7. Number of Dependents and Job Satisfaction

The computation of the one-way analysis of variance with a number of dependents (i.e., children and Relatives) as an independent and job satisfaction aspects as dependent variables is reported in Table (6.8). The univariate F values show that significant differences are found for the extrinsic (F=23.65, P<.001), intrinsic (F=29.62, P<.001), and overall job satisfaction (F=28.18 P<.001). The

unadjusted job satisfaction scores indicate that magnify significant differences appear with an increasing number of dependents. The subjects who have a smaller number of dependents (1-3) are relatively less satisfied than those with more than three dependents. This suggests that employees' satisfaction increases with an increasing number of dependents. Perhaps employees with no children or responsibility for relatives (e.g., parents, sisters, brothers, etc.) are more concerned with intrinsic aspects of their job, such as status compared with those who must work for financial reasons to get access to the necessary goods and services for the family needs.

**Table (6.8)**
Deviation Scores of Job Satisfaction Aspects For Number of Dependents

| JS Factors | Analysis of Variance (Unadjusted) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N=146[a] | N=45[b] | N=76[c] | F |
| Extrinsic JS | -2.07 | -1.47 | 4.85 | 23.65[d] |
| Intrinsic JS | -2.68 | -1.62 | 6.14 | 29.62[d] |
| General JS | -4.95 | -3.12 | 11.41 | 28.18[d] |

[a] None
[b] 1 - 3
[c] 4 or More
[d] P < .001

### 6.2.8. Training and Job Satisfaction

The crosstabulation of the frequencies, from Appendix III, shows that the employees who attended training programmes are more satisfied than those who do not. So there is a relationship between the employees' satisfaction and their opportunity to attend training courses in warehousing (see Table 6.1). Further, analysis of variance is computed in order to know the influence of the number of training programmes attended. The F values support that there are differences in

employees satisfaction with regard to the number of training programmes (see Table 6.9).

**Table (6.9)**
Deviation Scores of Job Satisfaction factors For Number of Training Programmes Attended.

| JS Factors | Analysis of Variance (Unadjusted) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N=90[a] | N=36[b] | N=36[c] | F[d] |
| Extrinsic JS | -4.12 | 1.96 | 8.35 | 45.97 |
| Intrinsic JS | -4.71 | 2.99 | 8.80 | 44.14 |
| General JS | -9.15 | 4.97 | 17.91 | 47.05 |

[a] 1 - 3 [b] 4 - 6
[c] 7 or More [d] $P < .001$

### 6.2.9. Initial Employment and Job Satisfaction

The subjects who were initially employed in warehousing comprise 119 (44.6 %) of the total sample, while the other subjects (148) who make up over half the sample were transferred from other organisations or departments. To find whether there are differences in satisfaction between these two groups, Chi-square values are computed (as shown in Table 6.1). These values are: 22.50 (P<.001), 10.28 (P<.001), 11.23 (P<.001) for extrinsic, intrinsic and general job satisfaction respectively with 2 degrees of freedom. This means that a relationship is found between the initial employment and job satisfaction. As shown in Appendix III, employees who have been transferred to warehousing are less satisfied than those who were initially employed in warehousing. These results are confirmed by the responses to the question regarding future employment plans. The findings, in respect to this question, indicate that continuing employment in warehousing is more favorable for employees who

were initially recruited in warehousing; it brings much more satisfaction to these employees than to those who were transferred from other departments or organisations. The Chi-square values (Table 6.1) regarding this question, are: 133.41 (P<.001), 111.30 (P<.001), 131.26 (P<.001) for extrinsic, intrinsic and overall job satisfaction respectively. This means that there is a significant difference exists between the subjects who plan to continue their employment in warehousing, if given the option, than those who would like to transfer to other departments or leave their job. The results in Appendix III show that 78.2 % of the employees who want to transfer or quit are dissatisfied , while 15.1 % are satisfied, and 6.7 % are very satisfied. On the other hand, 65.5 % of the employees who plan to continue their employment in warehousing are very satisfied, 23 % are satisfied, while 11.5 % dissatisfied.

### 6.2.10. Job Position Level and Job Satisfaction

The reported Chi-square values in Table (6.1) show a significant difference among employees according to their job position level. Extrinsic, intrinsic, and overall job satisfaction are: 24.36 (P<.001), 24.15 (P<.001), 38.36 (P<.001) respectively. Furthermore, analysis of variance as reported in Table (6.10), shows that F values support the findings of the Chi-square, and indicates that the employees with high job position levels are more satisfied with work than the employees with low level. In other words, job satisfaction increases with higher job position levels (see Figure 6-5).

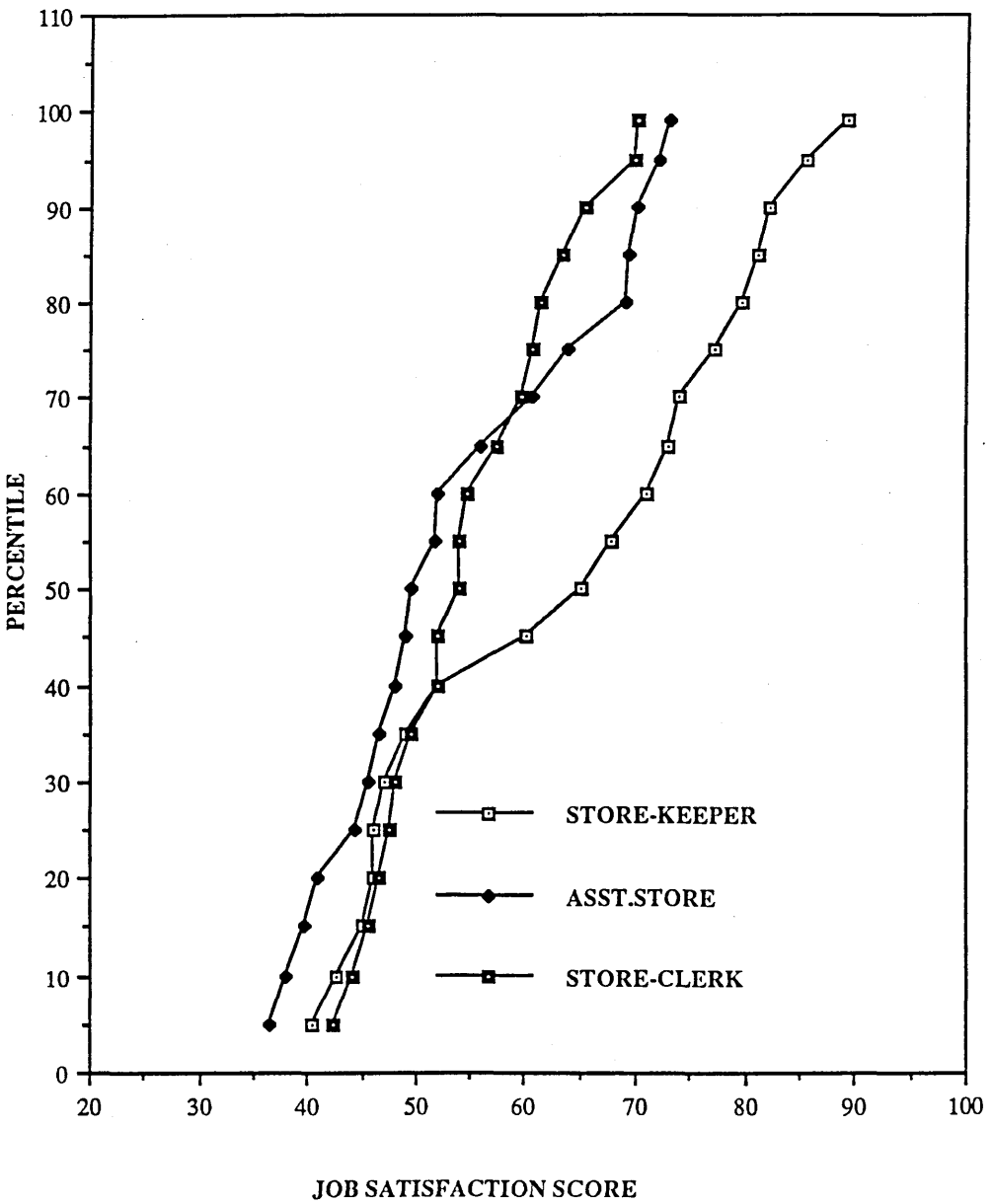



**Figure (6-5)**

Ogive of Percentile Scores for Job Satisfaction According toEmployees' Positional Level

The findings of this study are consistent with earlier studies. For example, Katz (1949) found that when the pay, age, and length of service were held constant, professional and semi-professional workers are more satisfied than unskilled workers. Further, according to Herzberg et al., (1957), one fact that emerges from the studies of occupational level is that ".... the higher the level of occupation, the higher the morale. Of the 18 studies..., only one fails to report higher job satisfaction at higher levels".

**Table (6.10)**

Deviation Scores from the Grand mean of Job Satisfaction Aspects for Differences in Job Position Level

| JS Factor | Analysis of Variance (Unadjusted) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N=186[a] | N=44[b] | N=37[c] | F |
| Intrinsic JS | 1.75 | -3.90 | -4.14 | 12.24[d] |
| Extrinsic JS | 1.21 | -3.54 | -1.85 | 08.01[e] |
| General JS | 3.05 | -7.81 | -6.07 | 10.38[d] |

[a] Store-Keeper
[b] Assistant
[c] Clerk
[d] P<.001 [e] P<.01

Finally, the literature and this study indicate that the employees' attitudes are heavily influenced by their occupation level. Therefore, one can conclude that employees with a higher job position level will report a positive level and pattern of job satisfaction than those at lower job position level, because employees who are located in a high job position feel in more instrumental terms about themselves as strong, self-confident, and independent (Feather, 1984).

## 6.3. Relations of Employees' Characteristics to Job Performance

Performance is a major concern in this study since it is essential in the economic life of any company. So, it is important to know the relationship between job performance and other different variables. For example, workers who were not attending training programmes might perform less because of their lack of knowledge and skills required to accomplish their jobs, and so forth. The following sections investigate the relationship between job performance and employees' characteristics variables in this study. The statistical techniques used, in this stage, depend on the kind of the variable and its scale. Chi-square, Analysis of Variance are used to find an answer to the questions raised in this study.

### 6.3.1. Performance and Employees' Age

Chi-Square values calculation (Table 6.11), shows that the scores for the quality of work, the quantity of work, efforts, and overall job performance are 39.62, 52.17, 37.38, 46.32 respectively ($df = 4$, $P<.001$).

A closer look at the contingency tables (overall job performance) in Appendix III, reveals that older employees (over 50 years) are identified as the most productive age group compared with young (less than 35) and middle (35-50) age group. Moreover, these findings are supported by the analysis of variance computation which are reported in Table (6.11). The F values show that there are significant differences between age groups for all job performance dimensions (quantity: 39.56; quality: 42.31; efforts: 34.30; overall 49.42, al at $P<.001$ level). The older the employees the more productive they are. It is not surprising that younger subjects are relatively less productive, since maturity and experience should bring about some increase in performance.

**Table (6.11)**
Summary of Chi-square Values of Job Performance and Employees' Characteristics

| Personal Char. | JP Aspects (1) | Chi-Square Values (2) | df |
|---|---|---|---|
| Age | Work Quantity | 39.62 | 4 |
| | Work Quality | 52.17 | 4 |
| | Efforts | 37.38 | 4 |
| | Overall | 46.32 | 4 |
| Sex | Work Quantity | 09.81 | 2 |
| | Work Quality | 15.86 | 2 |
| | Efforts | 07.98 (4) | 2 |
| | Overall | 12.62 | 2 |
| marital Status | Work Quantity | 4.71 (4) | 2 |
| | Work Quality | 4.79 (4) | 2 |
| | Efforts | 3.75 (4) | 2 |
| | Overall | 8.45 (3) | 2 |
| Education | Work Quantity | 11.2 (3) | 6 |
| | Work Quality | 12.41 (3) | 6 |
| | Efforts | 10.55 (3) | 6 |
| | Overall | 10.71 (3) | 6 |
| Length of Service | Work Quantity | 11.40 (3) | 4 |
| | Work Quality | 15.27 | 4 |
| | Efforts | 10.89 (3) | 4 |
| | Overall | 13.48 | 4 |
| Salary | Work Quantity | 26.74 | 6 |
| | Work Quality | 49.26 | 6 |
| | Efforts | 28.13 | 6 |
| | Overall | 34.57 | 6 |
| No. Training | Work Quantity | 39.80 | 6 |
| | Work Quality | 52.44 | 6 |
| | Efforts | 41.03 | 6 |
| | Overall | 45.03 | 6 |
| Training | Work Quantity | 21.32 | 2 |
| | Work Quality | 27.32 | 2 |
| | Efforts | 27.13 | 2 |
| | Overall | 23.55 | 2 |
| Initial Employment | Work Quantity | 03.53 (4) | 2 |
| | Work Quality | 01.01 (4) | 2 |
| | Efforts | 04.61 (4) | 2 |
| | Overall | 02.90 (4) | 2 |
| Job Position Level | Work Quantity | 13.29 | 4 |
| | Work Quality | 23.83 | 4 |
| | Efforts | 18.36 | 4 |
| | Overall | 16.67 | 4 |
| Working Sector | Work Quantity | 05.94 (4) | 10 |
| | Work Quality | 05.40 (4) | 10 |
| | Efforts | 05.80 (4) | 10 |
| | Overall | 04.16 (4) | 10 |

(1) JP : Job Performance (2) P<.001 (3) P<.01
(4) N.S.

Furthermore, in the light of the previous findings (section 6.2.1), one can see that young and middle age groups tend to be dissatisfied with their work in warehousing, this may affect employees' performance. Finally, the graphical representation of the percentile scores for employees' performance according to their age groups, gives a clear picture of these differences (see Figure 6-6).

The literature is inconsistent with our findings. Some of the studies report a significant positive relationship (Weaver, 1969), and others such as Kirchner et al., (1960), found that performance increases until the age of 40 and decreases thereafter.

**Table (6.12)**
Deviation scores From the Grand Mean of Job Performance Aspects for Different Employees' Age Groups

| JP Factor | Analysis of Variance (unadjusted) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N=119[a] | N=101[b] | N=47[c] | F[d] |
| Quantity Of Work | -0.37 | -0.01 | 0.96 | 39.56 |
| Quality Of Work | -0.39 | -0.02 | 0.95 | 42.31 |
| Efforts | -0.39 | 0.01 | 0.96 | 34.30 |
| Overall | -0.42 | 0.01 | 1.04 | 49.42 |

[a] less than 35
[b] 35-49
[c] 50 & over
[d] P<0.001

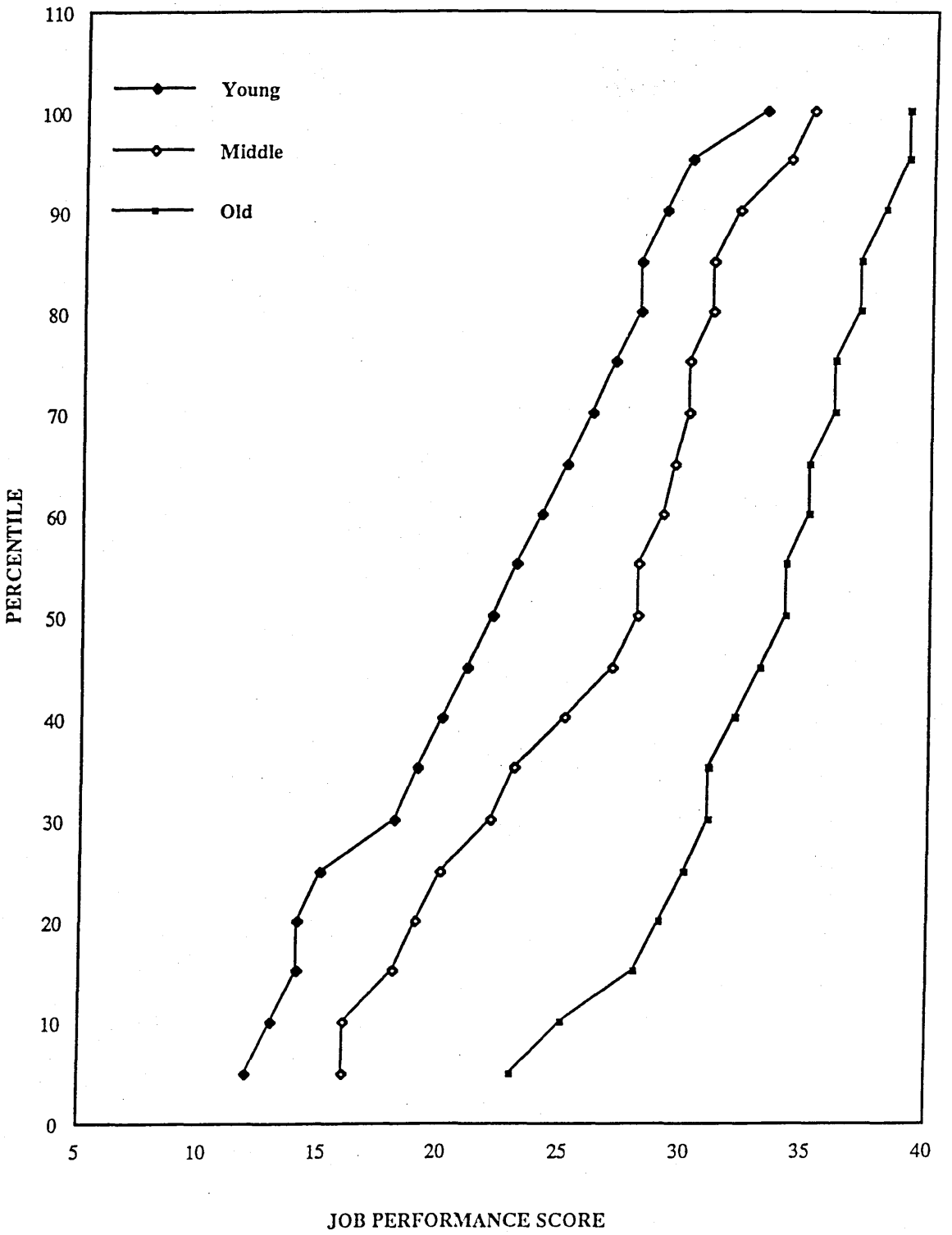



**Figure (6-6)**

Ogive of Percentile Scores for Job Performance According to Employees' Age

### 6.3.2. Employees' Sex Groups and Job Performance

As shown in Table (6.11) the Chi-square values are: 9.81 quantity of work, 15.86 quality of work, 7.98 effort and 12.46 overall performance all statistically significant at P<.001 level except the efforts which are not significant. This means that there are differences between male and female subjects as regards the quality and the quantity of their work. There is, however, no difference between both sexes regarding efforts expended in the job.

Employees' performance rating (the contingency tables in Appendix III) shows that the 14.9 % of male subjects are lower performers as opposed to 23% of females. However, 69.5% of males as apposed to 48.4% of their females are highly productive. The graphical representation in Figure (6-7) explains the obvious differences in employees' performance according to their sex. This suggests that female subjects are relatively less performers than their male counterparts, and leads us to the previous findings (see section 6.2.2), that female subjects are less satisfied than the males subjects. It is therefore more likely to be their dissatisfaction influences their performance.

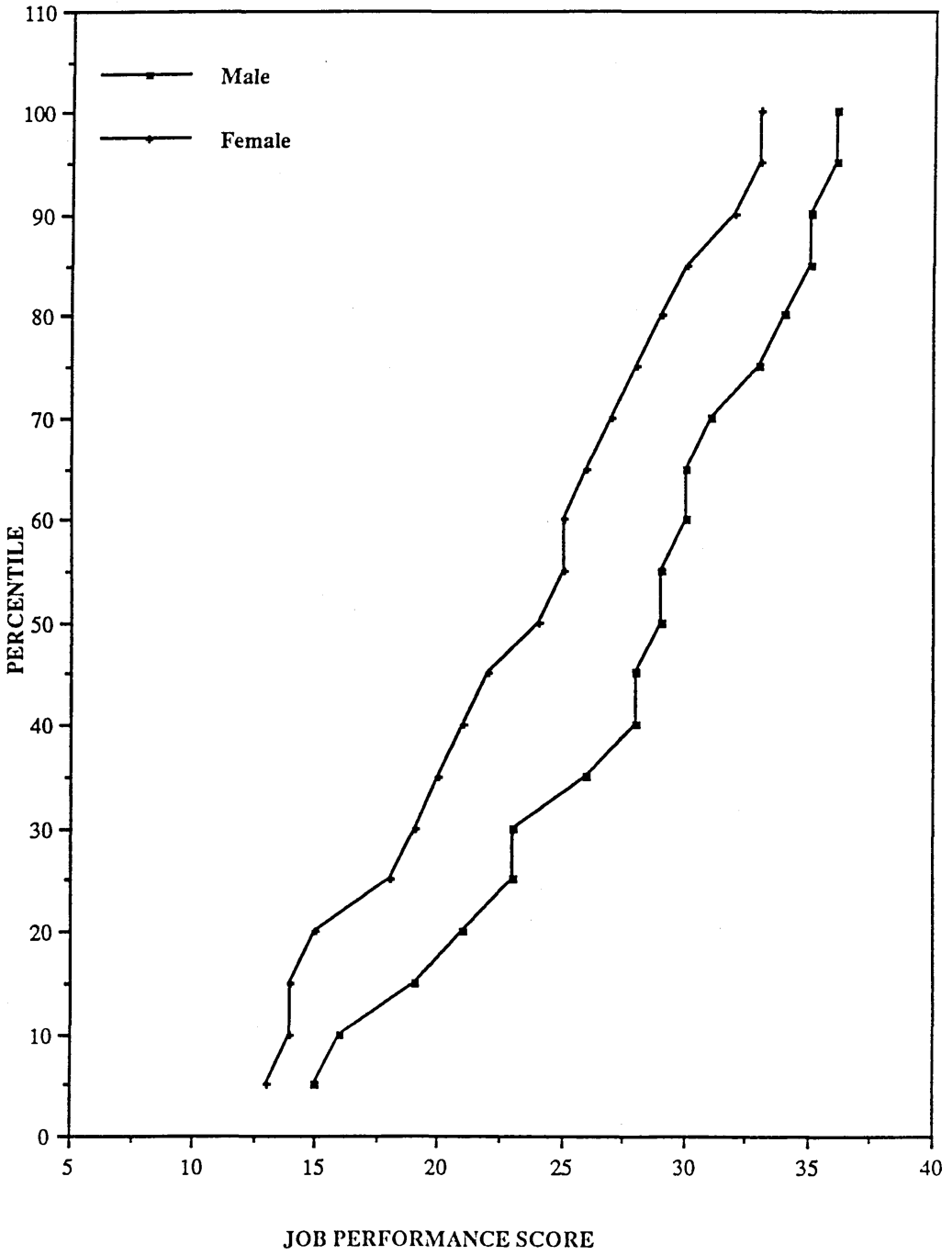



**Figure (6-7)**

Ogive of Percentile Scores for Job Performance According to Employees' Sex

### 6.3.3. Educational Level and Job Performance

The Chi-square values of the employees' educational level and their performance are: 11.2; 12.41; 10.55; 10.71 for the quantity, quality, efforts, and overall job performance, respectively,($df = 6$, $P<.01$). This indicates that there are differences in employees' performance according to their educational level. An examination of the analysis of variance findings (in Table 6.14) appears that: (1) the unadjusted job performance score for the four educational groups differed significantly from each other, (2) highly educated employees achieve lower performance levels, and (3) the unadjusted quality, quantity, efforts, and overall performance for the educational groups do not differ significantly. The graphical representation (Figure 6-8) gives a clear picture of employees' performance according to their educational level.

The findings of this study agreed with studies such as Weaver 1969 and Cotham 1969, which both found that highly educated subjects may achieve lower levels of performance. In our case, these results may be due to the fact that work in warehousing fails to present an adequate challenge for the highly educated subjects, and is thus perhaps not intrinsically satisfying their needs. The great majority of graduates in Iraq have to accept jobs even outside their fields of specialization, where their skills may not be utilized (see Appendix IV).

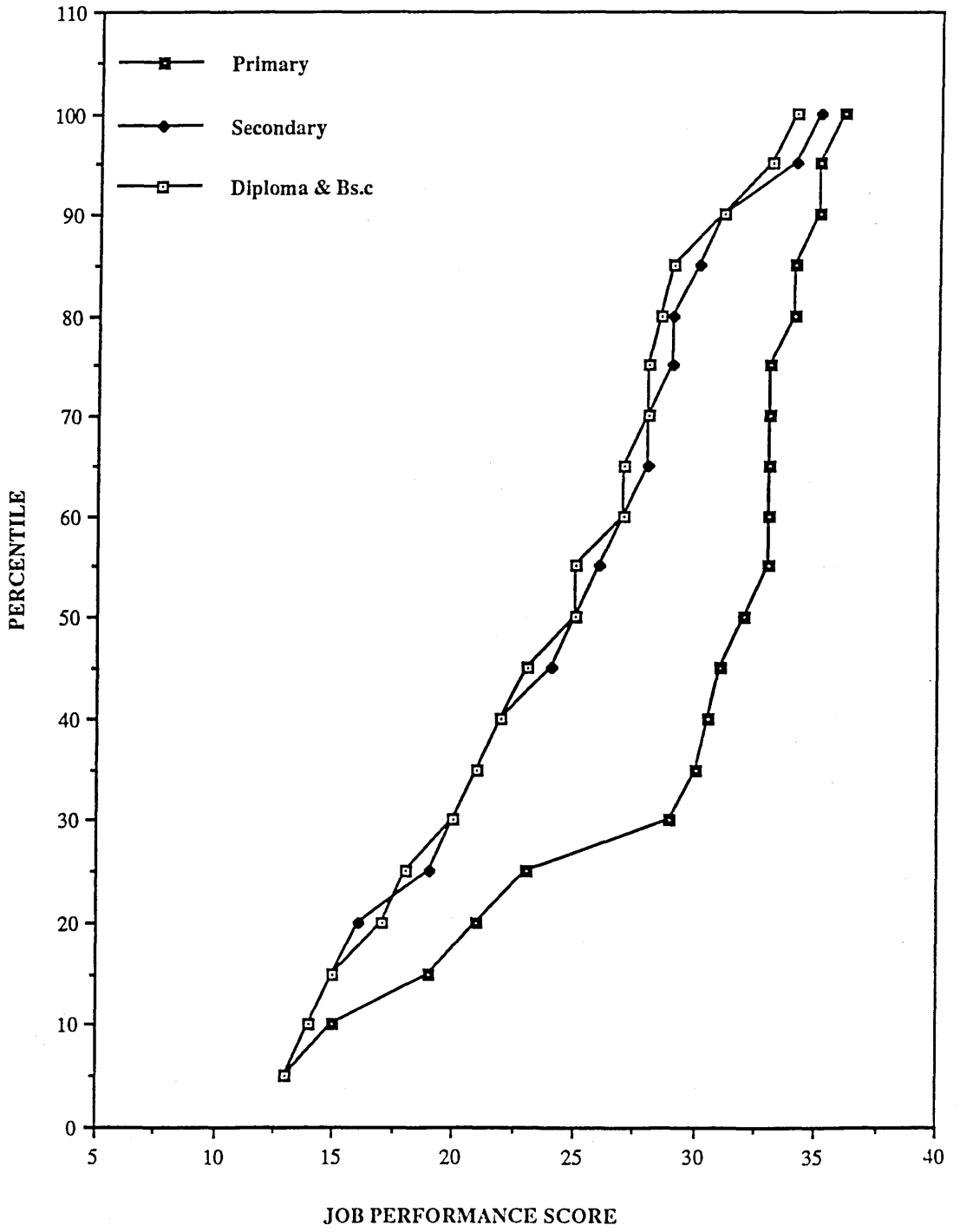



**Figure (6-8)**

Ogive of Percentile Scores for Job Performance According to Employees' Education

### 6.3.4. Job Position Level and Job Performance

The Chi-square values are: 13.29; 23.83; 18.36; 16.67 for quantity, quality, efforts, and overall performance respectively (df = 4, P<.001). This means that there is a difference in job performance according to job position levels. The frequency of performance ratings in the contingency tables (Appendix III) show that 78 % of store-keepers are highly satisfactory in their performance as apposed to 8.2 % of the clerical and 13.8 % of the store-assistant. Employees with high job levels tend to be higher performers than those who are in a lower position level. The findings are clear from the graphical representation in Figure (6-9), which presents the variability of the employees' performance evaluation according to their occupational level.

### 6.3.5. Length of Service and Performance

To find if there is no difference in job performance in relation to the length of service, Chi square values are computed. As shown in Table (6.14) the quantity of work ($X^2$:11.40, P<.01), efforts expands in the job ($X^2$: 10.89, P<.01), quality of the job ($X^2$: 15.27, P<.001), and overall job performance ($X^2$: 13.48, P<.01) confirm that there are differences in job performance according to length of service. The results of analysis of variance (see Table 6.13) support the Chi-square findings. It shows that length of service affects the employees' performance. The F values indicate that significant differences exist for the employees' performance due to their length of service. In other words, the employees who served more would be higher producers than those who lack work experience. Generally speaking, these findings support the notion that keeping quality employees in the organisation for long periods of time, which has often been recognised as a key to the success of company.

**Table (6.13)**
Deviation Score From the Grand Mean of Job Performance Aspects for Different in Length of Service

| JP Factors | Analysis of Variance (unadjusted) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N=56[a] | N=88[b] | N=123[c] | F |
| Quantity Of Work | -0.01 | -0.40 | 0.13 | 6.87[e] |
| Quality of Work | -0.06 | -0.41 | 0.14 | 7.72[d] |
| Efforts | -0.07 | -0.41 | 0.13 | 6.21[e] |
| Overall | -0.06 | -0.43 | 0.14 | 8.11[d] |

[a] 1-5 year
[b] 6-9 year
[c] 10 years & more
[d] P<0.01
[e] P<0.05

### 6.3.6. Job Performance and Number of Dependents

The results of the analysis of variance, as reported in Table (6.14), reveal significant differences in job performance due to the number of dependents employees have (i.e., children and relatives). The employees who have no dependents (146 subjects) are less productive than the employees who have dependents. More precisely, Table (6.14) reveals that: (1) The unadjusted job performance score, the first two categories (none and 1-3) significantly differ from the third categories (4 and more). (2) The subjects who have no dependent score significantly lower in performance than employees who have 4 and more dependents. (3) The unadjusted score for the quantity, quality, efforts, and overall performance do not differ significantly.

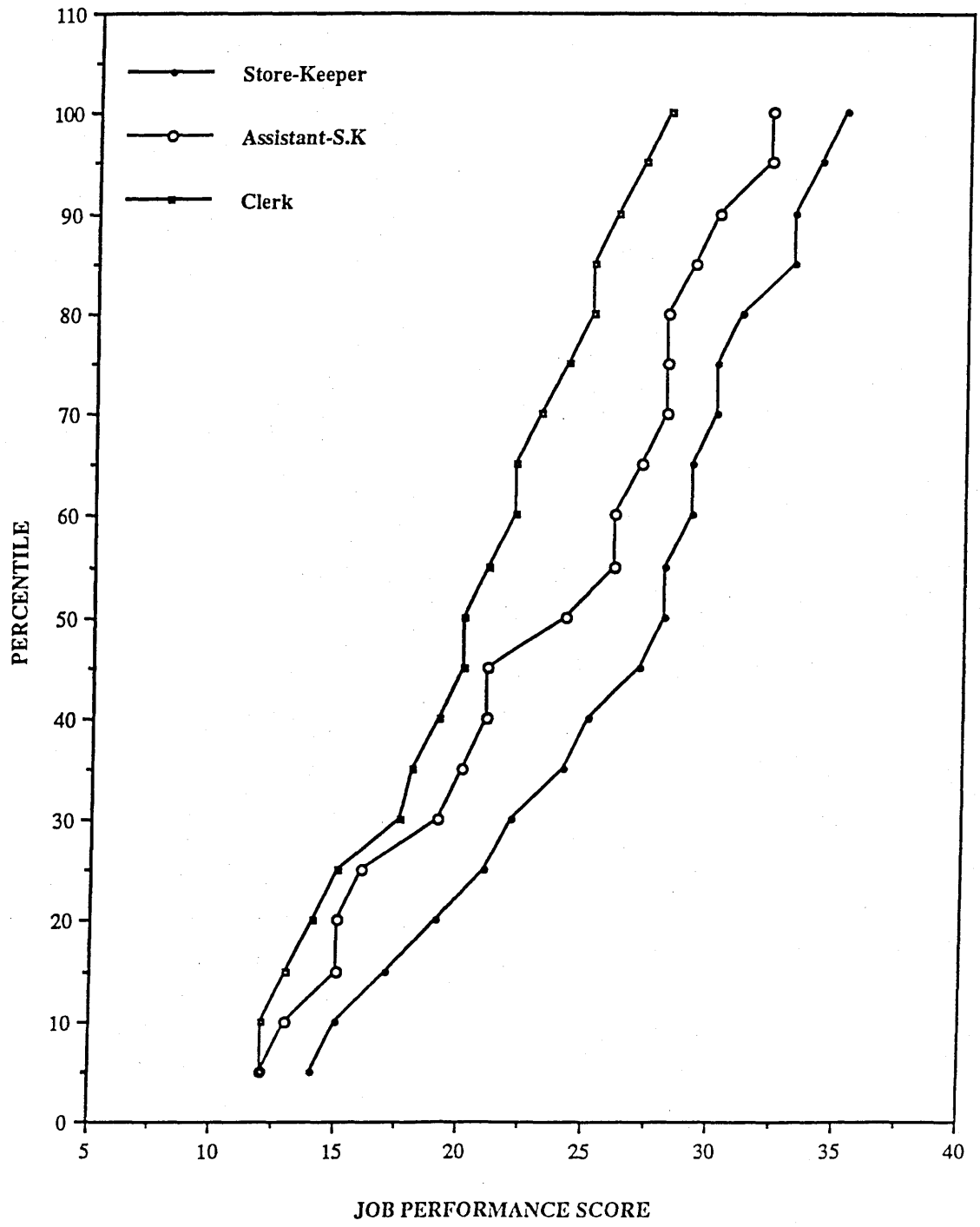



Figure (6-9)

Ogive of Percentile Scores for Job Performance According to Employees' Positional Level

Finally, these findings are consistent with the previous findings regarding age, marital status, and length of service. More precisely, the middle and old age groups have more years of service and the majority are married and have a number of children, so they get higher pay levels, and in turn they are more satisfied and higher performers.

**Table (6.14)**
Deviation Score from the Grand Mean of Job Performance Aspects for Different in Number of Dependents the employees have.

| JP Factors | Analysis of Variance (unadjusted) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N=146[a] | N=45[b] | N=76[c] | F[d] |
| Quantity Of Work | -0.20 | -0.24 | 0.52 | 16.36 |
| Quality of Work | -0.20 | -0.21 | 0.51 | 16.76 |
| Efforts | -0.19 | -0.31 | 0.54 | 15.56 |
| Overall | -0.21 | -0.32 | 0.59 | 21.16 |

[a] None
[b] 1-3
[c] 4 & more
[d] P<.001

### 6.3.7. Pay Level and Job Performance

Chi-square values, as in Table (6.11), are: quantity (26.74), quality (49.26), efforts (28.13), overall (34.57) (df = 6, P<.001 ). This means that there are differences in employees' performance according to the pay level.

To support these findings, analysis of variance (see Table 6.15), resulted in F values (quantity, 9.65; quality, 24.56; efforts, 18.19 and overall, 25.23) indicate that employees' monthly salary associated positively with job performance. The unadjusted job performance scores show that the employees who receive lower salaries are less producers than those who receive higher

salaries.

Based on this and previous (section 6.2.6) findings one can conclude that the pay system does positively influence both employees' satisfaction and their performance.

**Table (6.15)**
Deviation Score From the Grand Mean of JP aspects For Different In Pay Levels

| JP Factors | Analysis Of Variance (unadjusted) | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N=51[a] | N=132[b] | N=43[c] | N=41[d] | F[e] |
| Quantity of Work | -0.37 | -0.18 | 0.08 | 0.94 | 19.65 |
| Quality of Work | -0.43 | -0.17 | 0.10 | 1.00 | 24.56 |
| Efforts | -0.42 | -0.17 | 0.08 | 0.97 | 18.19 |
| Overall | -0.44 | -0.19 | 0.10 | 1.04 | 25.23 |

[a] Less than 121 ID [b] 121-160 ID
[c] 161-200 ID [d] 201 & more ID
[e] P<0.001

### 6.3.8. Training and Job Performance

To identify the influence of training programmes on employees' performance. Chi-square values are computed (see Table 6.11). The value of: 21.32 (quantity), 27.32 (quality), 27.13 (efforts), and 23.55 (overall JP) indicate that there are significant differences in performance between the subjects who attended training programmes and those who did not. From the contingency tables (Appendix III), 71 % of the total subjects in this study who attended training programmes,in warehousing, are high producers, while 41.9 % of the subjects who have not attended any training programmes are low producers. These findings suggest that the training affects the employees' performance.

The computed analysis of variance (see Table 6.16) support these findings. F ratios shows that there are significant differences existing in job performance with regard to the number of training programmes attended (quantity, 22.20; quality, 20.25; efforts, 20.35; overall, 26.74). These findings give the following indications:

(1) The unadjusted job performance scores indicate that performance differs significantly according to the number of training programmes attended for each group (i.e., 1-3, 4 - 6, 7 and more).

(2) For the unadjusted score, the subjects who attended 1-3 training programmes scored significantly lower than those who did either 4 - 6 category or 7 and more. Further, the last two categories are relatively different in their performance score.

(3) The unadjusted scores for quantity, quality, efforts, and overall job performance do not differ significantly.

The preceding findings suggest that employees' performance would increase with the increase in the number of programmes attended. This implies that training provides employees with a feeling of competency. Therefore, to enhance the employees' self-image of his or her ability to do the job is to provide training that teaches him or her how to do it. Further, reinforcement of an employee's positive performance can also have an impact on other intrinsic aspects, such as self-esteem, which can influence how successful he/she is.

**Table (6.16)**

Deviation Score From the Grand Mean of Job Satisfaction Aspects for Different in Number of Training Programme Attended

| JP Factors | Analysis of Variance (unadjusted) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N=90[a] | N=36[b] | N=36[c] | F[d] |
| Quantity of Work | -0.35 | 0.16 | 0.72 | 22.20 |
| Quality of Work | -0.34 | 0.14 | 0.72 | 20.52 |
| Efforts | -.036 | 0.16 | 0.74 | 20.53 |
| Overall | -0.40 | 0.25 | 0.75 | 26.74 |

[a] 1-3
[b] 4-6
[c] 7 & more
[d] P<.001

### 6.3.9. Initial Employment and Job Performance

The identification of the relationship between the initial employment and job performance can be seen from the Chi-square values (quantity,3.53; quality,1.01; efforts 4.61; and overall,2.90) in Table (6.11). These values indicate that there is no difference in performance regarding employees who were initially recruited in warehousing and those who transferred from other departments or organisations. The graphical representation in Figure (6-10) confirms this results. It is obvious from the ogives that employees' performance does not change with regard to initial employments.

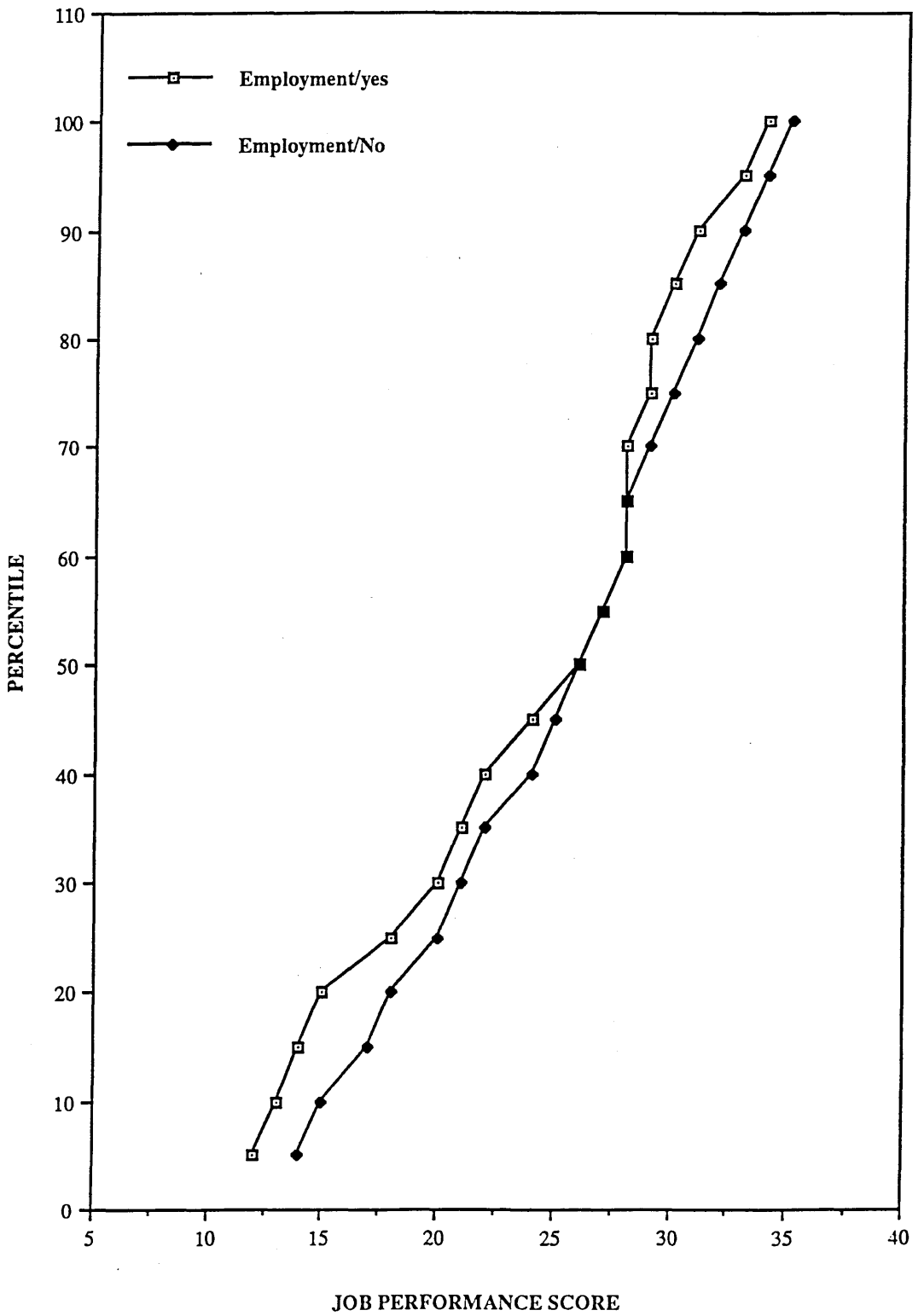



**Figure (6-10)**

Ogive of Percentile Scores for Job Performance According to Employees' Initial Employment

## 6.4. Summary and Conclusions

Data related to employees' characteristics has been analysed in order to identify the relationship between personal and positional characteristics and job satisfaction-job performance. Chi-square values and univariate analysis of variance are computed to effectively study these relationships. The graphical percentile ogives are also plotted to present the variability of satisfaction or performance scores according to each characteristics.

With regard to the relationship of employees' characteristics and job satisfaction, the findings indicate the following:

1. There is a positive relationship between employees' age and job satisfaction. Younger employees are less satisfied with intrinsic and extrinsic job aspects than the middle and old age employees.

2. Female employees less satisfied with their intrinsic/extrinsic job aspects than their male counterparts.

3. Unmarried employees are less satisfied with their job in warehousing than the married employees.

4. There is a positive relationship between monthly salary and employees' satisfaction, employees with a higher salary are more satisfied with their job than those who receive less monthly salary.

5. There is a negative relationship between employees' satisfaction and educational level. Employees with a high education level are less satisfied with their jobs than the employees with a low level of education.

6. There is a positive relationship between length of service and satisfaction. The employees with less than four years of experience tended to be less satisfied than the employees who had four and more years of experience.

7. Significant differences are found according to the number of dependents the employees have and their satisfaction. The subjects who have

no dependents are less satisfied than subjects with dependents.

8. There is a difference in satisfaction between the employees who attended training programmes in warehousing and those who did not. The number of the training programmes attended affects the degree of employees' satisfaction positively.

9. Employees who are initially employed in warehousing are relatively more satisfied compared with the employees who were transferred from other departments or organisations. Further, the subjects who were initially employed in warehousing have planned to continue their employment in this department, while the subjects who transferred preferred rather to quit or transfer to other departments or organisations.

10. There is a high positive significant relationship between job position level and satisfaction regarding intrinsic and overall satisfaction than the extrinsic satisfiers. So, the intrinsic satisfiers affect the employees' attitudes due to their job position levels.

11. There are no differences in satisfaction according to the sectors in which the employees work.

Regarding the relationships between employees' characteristics and job performance, it was found that:

1. Younger employees (less than 35 years old) were lower performers than those in the age group 35-49 years and 50 years and over. The old age groups are identified as the most productive age compared with other age groups.

2. Female subjects are relatively lower performers than their male counterparts.

3. There is no difference between single and married subjects with regard to their job performance.

4. There are differences in the employees performance with regard to their

level of education. Highly educated employees achieve lower performance levels and vice versa.

5. Employees with high job position levels tend to be higher producers than those with low position levels.

6. Job performance is associated positively with length of service. Those who served longer are most likely to be higher performers.

7. Subjects who have no dependents (i.e., children) are less producers than those who are responsible for a number of dependents.

8. Performance is positively associated with salary. The employees with higher pay level tend to be higher in performing their jobs than those with lower pay level.

9. Employees who attended training programmes in warehousing tend to be higher in performing their jobs than those who did not attend any warehousing training programmes.

10. There is no differences in employees' performance with regard to the method of placement in warehousing (i.e. initial employment).

11. There is no difference in job performance regarding the work sector.

The following chapter will turn to a consideration of the employees' reactions to work values, job characteristics, perceived rewards, and supervisory style. Emphasis will be on the relationships between these variables and their influences on job satisfaction and job performance.

# CHAPTER SEVEN
# EMPLOYEES' REACTIONS TO WORK VALUES, JOB CHARACTERISTICS, AND SUPERVISORY STYLE

## 7.1. Introduction

In the last chapter the relationships between employees' characteristics (positional and personal) and job satisfaction or job performance have been investigated. The findings show that employees' characteristics are mostly associated with the probability of warehousing employees reporting that they are satisfied or dissatisfied with their work, or that the evaluation of their performance was either satisfactory or unsatisfactory.

The aim of this chapter is to investigate employees' reactions to major variables such as job characteristics, work values, supervisory style, perceived rewards and its relationship with job satisfaction and job performance.

## 7.2. Employees' Reactions to Work Values

Research indicates that work values have a vital role in affecting employees' attitudes towards their jobs. A theoretical understanding of the nature of this role requires specification of the manner in which particular values influence overall job satisfaction and performance. Participants' attitudes about the desirability of the intrinsic and extrinsic values could be one of the most important influences on job satisfaction and job performance. So it is important to understand the ways in which the wants and expectation that employees attach to their job activity, because this is shape the behaviour patterns of the employees working lives as a whole.

To understand this influence, the interaction among work values and study variables is examined. Work values are factor analysed (as has been done in Chapter 5)

firstly, and then a nonparametric correlation coefficient (Zero-order correlation) between the results of the factor analysis and job satisfaction/job performance aspects is computed. The findings are presented in Table (7.1).

A closer look at these relationships would show that the majority of the correlations are not strong enough, but the direction of these relationships are obvious with few exceptions. It indicates that a high direct correlation appears between job satisfaction/job performance and extrinsic organisational environmental values (factor 1), and intrinsic psychological values (factor 2). The relationship is weak or non-existent with relational (social), challenge, comfort (convenience), and financial values (factor 3, 4, 5, and 6). The following sections discuss these findings in depth.

### 7.2.1. Work Values and Job Satisfaction

Intrinsic satisfaction aspects have a relatively strong relationship with the instrumental values of factor one "organisational environment values" ($r=0.59$; $P<.001$) and a weak relationship with the instrumental values of factor two "intrinsic psychological values" ($r=0.27$; $P<.01$), while there is no significant relationship with instrumental values of factor three "relational", four "challenge", five "comfort" and six "financial". The results take the same trends regarding the extrinsic and overall job satisfaction. This implies that the more the employees agree with the importance of extrinsic (i.e., organisational) values including supervision, recognition, company policies and security, the more they will be satisfied in their work. This explanation can also apply to the intrinsic psychological values. These findings supported the interpretation that, the degree to which the employee assesses the importance of his work values in general (i.e., having environmental, psychological, and relational values) should be related to his attitude toward his particular job.

In the literature, work values are most often viewed by researchers as

having an important role in understanding job satisfaction and the behaviour of individuals at work in terms of theoretical and empirical relationship (Blood, 1969; Kalleberg, 1977; Locke, 1970, 1976; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Rokeach, 1973; Elizur, 1984; Ravlin & Meglino, 1987 ). These studies indicate that the widely accepted notion that the intrinsic aspects of the job are recognised (i.e., job itself) as a sort of reward. Therefore, a job is valued not only because it is instrumental in gaining external rewards but because it represents the best use of the employees' time. Employees who prefer doing a job which is higher in values, such as, recognition, responsibility and status, presumably derive more satisfaction from doing this job than employees who are working in a job which is lower in these aspects of values. These findings show that, the extrinsic aspects decrease in employees' satisfaction compared with the influence of the intrinsic aspects. For example, the desire for recognition is typically attributed to the desire for self-esteem or a positive self-concept (Locke, 1976). The employee values being complimented for his job and being given credit where credit is due. Similarly, the employee dislikes being criticized or not being credited with achievement in his job. So recognition value plays a vital role in employees' satisfaction and dissatisfaction. However, from this work, values seem to precede and influence job satisfaction. In other words, overall job satisfaction variance is controlled by work values rather than other variables. However, one can ask this question: to what extent is this conclusion accurate? One may argue that work values, job characteristics and perceived rewards have a combined effect on job satisfaction. On the other hand, one may dispute that work values have not only independent effects on job satisfaction, but that work values interact with rewards or job characteristics which would more appropriately affect employees' satisfaction. However, next chapter will focus on similar arguments to clarify the main effect and interaction effect of work values on employees satisfaction as well as job performance.

### 7.2.2. Work Values and Job Performance

As regards the relationship with job performance, it is obvious from Table (7.1) that there are, relatively, strong significant relationships with organisational environmental values (0.40, P<.001), and mostly weak relationships with intrinsic psychological and relational (social) values. There is no relationship with challenge, comfort (convenience), and financial values. This means that the employees who perceive the organisational environment values as very important are most likely to be high performers. Generally speaking, the employees who assessed the importance of having a pleasant supervisor in a sense of well being, or who get the deserved recognition for doing their job well and feel a sense of pride in their work, as important aspects of their jobs, are most likely to be high performers. On the other hand, the findings show that overall job performance is weakly associated with relational values(.16, P<.05). This means that this factor has a little influence on employees' performance.

**Table (7.1)**

The Relationship Between Work Values Factors and Employees' Reaction (Including Job Satisfaction & Job Performance)

| Variables | Factor.1 | Factor.2 | Factor.3 | Factor.4 | Factor.5 | Factor.6 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Job Satisfaction | | | | | | |
| Extrinsic JS | 0.59[3] | 0.27[2] | 0.12[4] | 0.08[4] | 0.06[4] | -0.11[4] |
| Intrinsic JS | 0.51[3] | 0.22[2] | 0.21[2] | 0.10[4] | 0.05[4] | -0.15[1] |
| General JS | 0.57[3] | 0.24[2] | 0.16[1] | 0.09[4] | 0.07[4] | -0.13[4] |
| Rated Performance | | | | | | |
| Quantity of Work | 0.40[3] | 0.20[2] | 0.13[4] | 0.01[4] | 0.007[4] | -0.08[4] |
| Quality of Work | 0.47[3] | 0.17[1] | 0.11[4] | 0.01[4] | -0.02[4] | -0.03[4] |
| Efforts | 0.42[3] | 0.17[1] | 0.09[4] | 0.02[4] | 0.04[4] | -0.09[4] |
| Overall JP | 0.42[3] | 0.21[2] | 0.16[1] | 0.04[4] | -0.05[4] | -0.07[4] |

[1] P<0.05 [2] P<.01 [3] P<.001 [4] N.S

In fact these findings are in contradiction with many studies which have found that intrinsic values affect employees' performance more than extrinsic aspects. Employees in this type of work (i.e., warehousing) might be, for example, looking for more than just having good working conditions, or good relations with their peers at work. In other words, these employees might be very satisfied when they value that they have performed their work efficiently, get the praise and recognition they deserve from their supervisor, and work in a company with policies and practices they are proud of. The association between instrumental values of convenience and financial values with employees' performance, which shows that no relationship exists, confirmed this contradiction. This implies that comfort, challenge, relational and financial values have no effect on employees' performance in warehousing. This also means that warehousing employees, for example, do not value money as an important aspect to perform their jobs better. This is corroborated by the Arabic proverb which implies that a letter or a word of praise will be more appreciated by the employee than financial rewards; and a tap on the worker's shoulder is quite enough to keep him contented to work hard without raising his salary. This is consistent with the findings of this study regarding job performance. In conclusion, both the culture and the nature of work influence the importance of the values which, in turn, affect the employees' attitudes and performance.

### 7.2.3. Work Values and Individual Differences

On the subject of individual differences and their relationships to work values, a multiple correlation is computed for each of the instrumental factor values as dependent variables and individual differences used as independent variables. The results are reported in Table (7.2).

The findings show that there is a relatively moderate relationship between age, attending training programmes, length of service, educational level, and

salary, with organisational environment and psychological values. However, it is a weak relationship with marital status,sex and job position level. On the other hand, there is a weak or no relationship between all individual difference variables and the relational, challenge, comfort and financial values.

The relationship between educational level and work value factors has a negative significant relationship except with the financial value (factor 1: -0.30 P<.001; factor 2: -0.24, P,.01; factor 3: -0.16, P<.05; factor 5: -0.15, P<.05). These findings imply that the employees with low levels of education have higher interpretation of the importance of the work values of their jobs and vice versa. This can be explained in terms of return on investment in human capital. The educational level does not increase employees' attainment of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards in this job setting. This stems from the notion that highly educated employees tend to be "over-trained", especially in the beginning of their careers (Kalleberg, 1977). In fact, the educational requirement for a warehousing job, generally, is a Diploma (Technical Institute). So, when an employee with a higher level of education is employed or transferred to warehousing job, this could be understood as some sort of punishment. This is because the requirements of the job do not correspond with their abilities. Therefore, the job neither challenges, fulfills, nor allows them to work to their full potential. Further, education itself is a high social value in Eastern culture. This means that employees accept a job appropriate to their educational level to fulfill their social values (e.g., respect). Furthermore, as discussed in the last chapter, that the high educational level employees, probably find that work in warehousing fails to present an adequate challenge for them. This is due to the fact that the great majority of graduates have to accept jobs outside their fields of specialisation, according to the policy of employment in Iraq. The employment policy depends on centralized distribution of graduates, and they have to accept whatever job they are given. Hence, these employees do not give importance to warehousing work values. This is simply because the educational level itself very often indicates a system of social class values. This, of course, means that

the social status differs according to the level of education. Generally speaking, in eastern society, when a person obtains a higher degree of education, he will look for a good job position to satisfy his aspirations for a good status in the community as well as in his organisation.

Considering the relationship between work values and the wages employees receive, the findings show significant differences associated with the monthly pay level.

**Table (7.2)**

The Relationship Between Work Values Factors and Employees' Reaction (Including Employees' Characteristics).

| Variables | Factor.1 | Factor.2 | Factor.3 | Factor.4 | Factor.5 | Factor.6 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Positional Characteristics | | | | | | |
| Pay (Salary) | 0.36[3] | 0.25[2] | 0.13[4] | 0.15[1] | 0.09[4] | -0.04[4] |
| Education | -0.30[3] | -0.24[2] | -0.16[1] | -0.12[4] | -0.15[1] | -0.07[4] |
| Job Position | -0.18[1] | -0.03[2] | 0.01[2] | -0.07[4] | -0.004[4] | -0.03[4] |
| Length of Service | 0.38[3] | 0.29[2] | 0.14[1] | 0.05[4] | 0.09[4] | -0.03[4] |
| Training | 0.35[3] | 0.28[2] | 0.23[2] | 0.03[4] | 0.005[4] | -0.07[4] |
| Personal Characteristics | | | | | | |
| Age | 0.38[3] | 0.27[2] | -0.12[4] | 0.12[4] | 0.10[4] | -0.04[4] |
| Sex* | -0.18[1] | -0.16[1] | -0.14[1] | -0.11[4] | -0.05[4] | -0.03[4] |
| Martial Status** | 0.18[1] | 0.08[4] | -0.16[1] | 0.07[4] | 0.02[4] | -0.05[4] |
| No. of Dependents | 0.27[2] | 0.23[2] | -0.07[4] | 0.07[4] | 0.03[4] | -0.05[4] |

[1] P<0.05 [2] P<.01 [3] P<.001 [4] N.S

* [1] for Male
[2] for Female

** [1] for Single
[2] for Married

The employees with a high pay level evaluate the values of the extrinsic environmental (0.36 P<.001) and intrinsic psychological values (0.25, P<.01) as the highest in terms of their importance. This means that employees who rank these values highly in importance, they are satisfied with it and expecting more. Hence, with the increase of income, the employee starts searching for more than this aspect in his job, such as recognition, company and job status and responsibility. However, the results are not surprising since wages, fringe benefits constitute the major source of access to almost all goods and services as well as representing measures of the value of one's employee in a developing and high consumption society like Iraq. Pay can satisfy an individual's desire for goods and services, but it can be much more than this. Money also serves as a symbol of achievement, as a source of recognition, and as means of obtaining other values (Locke, 1976: 1322).

Considering the relationship between the employees' sex and work values, the findings (see Table 7.2) reveal a weak negative relationship with organisational environment values (-0.18, P<.05) and intrinsic psychological values (-0.16, P<.05). However, there is no significant relationship between relational (social), challenge, comfort (convenience) and financial values. This implies that there is no difference between male and female employees regarding these values, but there is a tiny difference regarding extrinsic organisational environment and intrinsic psychological values. Although the relationships are weak, it is important to explain its significance, especially when values in an eastern society are concerned. It is worth mentioning that men are hypothesised to perceive themselves as possessing masculine characteristics (e.g., strong, rational, self-confident, competitive, and independent), while women are hypothesised to perceive that they possess feminine characteristics (e.g., kind, emotional, gentle, understanding, a ware of others feeling, and helpful to other) (Feather, 1984). So, one can expect to find many differences in values associated with sex, since a great deal of evidence suggests that society

socializes men and women to play very different roles. Men, for example, are conditioned to place higher values on responsibility, achievements and ability utilization. By contrast, women are conditioned to place higher values on affection and on family (e.g., raising children, providing social support to all family members, doing housework). However, with respect to the matter of work values in this study, men place a more significant valuation on the extrinsic and intrinsic dimensions of work (e.g., quality of supervision, recognition, company policies, responsibility, authority and security) than their female counterparts. These findings are supported by the ogive percentile score presentation of the employees' responses toward all work value dimensions (see Figure 7-1). This ogive gives a clear picture that men give a greater importance on work than women do.

With regard to the relation between work values and employees' age (see Table 7.2) a high significant relationship appears between employees' age and extrinsic environmental values on the one hand, and a moderate relationships with intrinsic psychological values on the other (factor 1: 0.38, $P<.001$; factor 2: 0.27, $P<.01$). This means that there are marked differences among employees according to their age in respect of the perception of the components of extrinsic organisational environment and intrinsic psychological values, but no differences in respect of relational, challenge, comfort and financial values.

By the same token, the association between work values and the length of service, attending training programmes ranges from a relatively moderate to a weak positive relationship with the environmental, psychological and rational values, but no relationships were found with challenge, comfort and financial values. In other words, employees who served longer (experience) and attended more training programmes feel they have higher environmental and psychological values than those employees with less experience and training. So, from these findings one can conclude that training and length of service have an effect on employees' perception of the importance of work values.

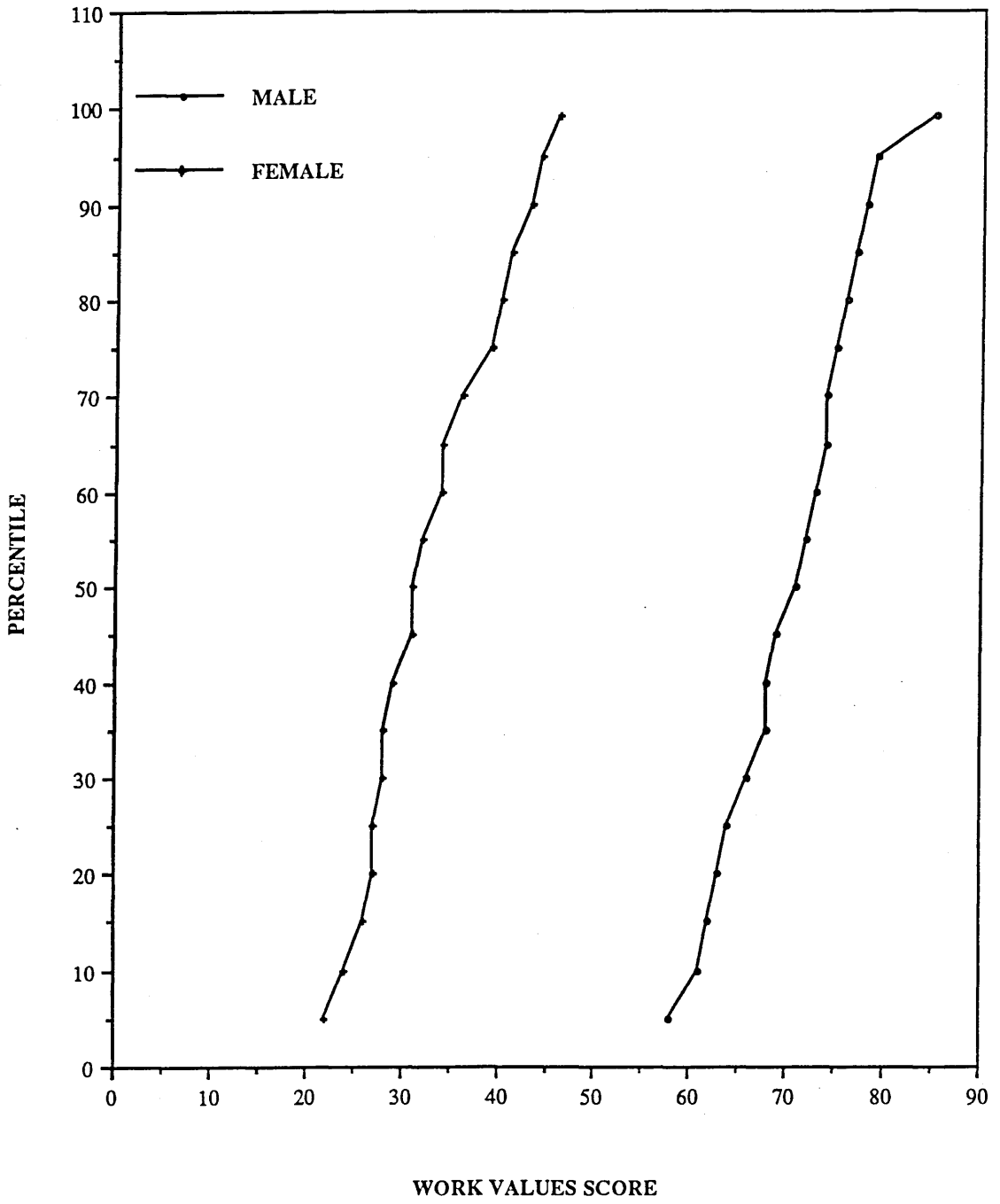



**Figure (7-1)**

Ogive of Percentile Scores for Work Values According to Employees' Sex

## 7.3. Employees Reactions to Job Characteristics

Researchers have shown that job characteristic is one of the major determinants of job satisfaction (Argyris, 1957, 1964; Herzberg et al., 1959; Likert, 1967; Hulin & Blood, 1968; Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Hackman & Oldham, 1976, 1980). If organisations manage to design jobs so that some basic psychological requirements are met, the quality of job performance is also likely to increase (Wexley & Yukl, 1977), and alienation is likely to decrease (Seeman, 1961). Therefore, an important task of this study is to investigate the relationship between fundamental job characteristics and other variables. This section is devoted to shed light on the nature of the relationships between job characteristics, employees satisfaction and performance, supervisory style, perceived rewards, and employees' characteristics.

The results of the analysis as reported in Table (7.3) show the zero-order correlation (Pearson product moment correlation) between the job characteristics dimensions and other study variables (i.e., job satisfaction, job performance and employees' characteristics). Generally, positive strong association is found between job characteristics and job satisfaction-performance, while there are moderate to weak relationships between job characteristics aspects and individual differences with few exceptions. The following sections discuss these relationships.

### 7.3.1. Job Characteristics and Job Satisfaction

The relationship between job satisfaction and job characteristics has been studied extensively since Hackman & OLdham (1974, 1975), following Hackman & Lawler (1971), proposed a model for conceptualising how job characteristics affect employees satisfaction. One proposition of the model suggests that workers who perform high on task characteristics such as variety, task-significance, autonomy, feedback on performance and task-identity are more satisfied than workers who perform jobs that are low on these characteristics.

**Table (7.3)**

The Relationship Between Job Characteristics and and Employees' Reactions.

| Variable* | AUT | VAR | FEB | LER | T.SIG | DWO | FRO |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Job Satisfaction | | | | | | | |
| Intrinsic JS | 0.67 | 0.50 | 0.70 | 0.63 | 0.51 | 0.31 | 0.36 |
| Extrinsic JS | 0.65 | 0.50 | 0.64 | 0.57 | 0.53 | 0.36 | 0.37 |
| General JS | 0.72 | 0.51 | 0.69 | 0.60 | 0.59 | 0.39 | 0.43 |
| Rated Performance | | | | | | | |
| Quantity | 0.53 | 0.39 | 0.47 | 0.44 | 0.41 | 0.34 | 0.40 |
| Quality | 0.55 | 0.46 | 0.51 | 0.46 | 0.47 | 0.32 | 0.39 |
| Efforts | 0.55 | 0.39 | 0.50 | 0.46 | 0.45 | 0.36 | 0.40 |
| Overall | 0.56 | 0.41 | 0.52 | 0.48 | 0.44 | 0.33 | 0.41 |
| Positional Characteristics | | | | | | | |
| Recruitment | 0.073 | 0.003[3] | 0.04[3] | 0.01[3] | -0.01[3] | -0.141 | 0.17[1] |
| Length of Service | 0.41 | 0.25 | 0.39 | 038 | 0.27[2] | 0.191 | 0.39 |
| Training | 0.50 | 0.32 | 0.50 | 0.41 | 0.40 | 0.33 | 0.47 |
| Pay Level | 0.42 | 0.32 | 0.43 | 0.39 | 0.36 | 0.18[1] | 0.46 |
| Job position | -0.292 | -0.09[3] | 0.30 | -0.21[2] | -0.23[2] | -0.01[3] | -0.18[2] |
| Education | -0.32 | -0.24[2] | -0.32 | -0.29[2] | -0.26[2] | -0.18[1] | -0.33 |
| Personal Characteristics | | | | | | | |
| Age | 0.54 | 0.43 | 0.53 | 0.50 | 0.45 | 0.212 | 0.34 |
| Sex | -0.24[2] | -0.12[3] | -0.23[2] | -0.23[2] | -0.22[2] | 0.009[3] | -0.35 |
| Marital Status | 0.24[2] | 0.181 | 0.25[2] | 0.22[2] | 0.27[2] | 0.02[3] | 0.20[2] |
| No.of Dependents | 0.36 | 0.24[2] | 0.36 | 0.36 | 0.31 | 0.16[1] | 0.31 |

AUT: Degree of Autonomy, VAR: Variety, FEB: Performance Feedback, LER: Learning, T.SIG: Task-Significance, DOW: Dealing With Others, FRO: Friendship Opportunity.

* P < .001 [1] P < .05 [2] P < .01 [3] N.S.

However, few efforts have been made to distinguish the relationships between job characteristics and intrinsic/extrinsic job satisfaction. Although the Hackman & Oldham model assumes that variation in job characteristics should contribute more to the variation in intrinsic satisfaction than to variation in extrinsic satisfaction, this assumption has not been adequately tested (Lee et al., 1983). However, the present study attempts to examine the relationship between job characteristics and extrinsic/intrinsic and overall job satisfaction.

The results of the analysis of job characteristics/job satisfaction relationship based on the average of correlations between each of job characteristic dimension and job satisfaction aspects are reported in Table (7.3). The findings regarding the intrinsic job satisfaction confirm that employees are satisfied with intrinsic aspects of their job when their job is described as being higher in autonomy ($r=0.76$, $P<.001$), variety ($r=0.50$, $P<.001$), feedback ($r=0.70$, $P<.001$), opportunities for learning ($r=0.63$, $P<.001$) and task significance ($r=0.56$, $P<.001$) (These characteristics contain the core dimensions), while the other dimensions which include dealing with others ($r=0.36$, $P<.001$), and friendship opportunities ($r=0.41$, $P<.001$) have less of a relationship (These two variables represent interpersonal dimensions).

The findings went in the same trend regarding the relationship between job characteristic items and extrinsic job satisfaction (autonomy: .65; variety: .50; feedback: .64; learning: .57; task-significance: .58; dealing with others: .41; friendship: .42, all correlations are statistically significant at $P<.001$).

The previous findings show that core dimensions are highly correlated with extrinsic, intrinsic and overall job satisfaction compared with interpersonal dimensions (i.e., dealing with others and friendship opportunities). These results support the implicit assumption, which is derived from Hackman and Oldham's model, that job characteristic variables are more important for the feeling of intrinsic job satisfaction than the feeling of extrinsic job satisfaction.

The specific conclusion resulting from this analysis is that the presence of the job characteristic of high degree of autonomy, more job variety, high opportunities for feedback on performance, high learning opportunities, and have accomplished something meaningful in the lives of other people is highly associated with expressed satisfaction with intrinsic work outcomes such as ability utilisation, independence, work challenge, creativity, moral values, responsibility, and social service. Finally, the results of this study demonstrate, generally, that satisfaction influences the way individuals view their jobs, satisfied employees see their jobs as richer in core and interpersonal characteristics than dissatisfied ones.

### 7.3.2. Job Characteristics and Employees Performance

With regard to employees' performance, as shown in Table (7.3), the quality and quantity of work, efforts, and overall job performance are significantly and positively correlated with the descriptions of job characteristics items. From these findings, one can conclude that when employees describe the job as being higher in the degree of autonomy, variety to use their skills, feedback on performance, high task-significance, and more learning opportunities (i.e., core dimensions), they are rated by their supervisors as performing with higher quality and quantity of work, devotion more effort, and as being generally more effective performers. Most noticeable is that a strong relationship appeared with the feedback on performance. Feedback on performance originates from three distinct sources: other individuals such as supervisors or peers, the task environments, and one's self (Ilgen et al., 1979). These findings suggest that the employees who receive positive feedback are more satisfied and are higher performers than the employees who receive negative or do not receive any feedback on their performance. More varied work also leads to greater performance and less varied work leads to boredom,

absenteeism, turnover, and dissatisfaction and consequently to a poorer performance (Ford 1969; Hackman et al., 1975; Wanous, 1974). Further, the learning variable has not been widely tested. In this study, this variable is strongly associated with both satisfaction and performance. This means that employees who found a high opportunity of growth and development and a good chance for learning from the job would , in turn, be more productive employees.

Finally, these findings support Hackman and Lawler's (1971) assumptions, which are suggested that if the job is high on core dimensions, the performance of the job would be rewarding. It would provide feelings of achievement and recognition, as " employees have the opportunity to find out (feedback) that they personally (autonomy) have accomplished something meaningful (task-significance) (variety)".

### 7.3.3. Job Characteristics and Individual Differences

Certain job characteristics tend to be more satisfying to employees than others,there are individual differences in reactions to them (Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Wanous, 1974). An emphasis on job characteristics has concentrated on various types of individual differences, for instance, age sex, education, training, etc., in order to identify the satisfied or dissatisfied employees demographically. So the concern of the present study, in this stage of the analysis, is to identify the relationship between the characteristics of individuals and the characteristics of the job. This is to clarify the picture of those employees who derive satisfaction from highly characteristics jobs in contrast to those who do not.

The results of the analysis with regard to the relationship with the individual differences (as independent variables) show that there are moderate to weak relationships, with the exception of few cases (as shown in Table 7.3). For example, the relationship between the length of service (work experience) and

job characteristics items, is positive and significant (autonomy: 0.41, variety: 0.25, feedback: 0.39, P<.001 learning: 0.38, P<.001 task significance: 0.27, P<.01 dealing with other: 0.19, P<.05 friendship: 0.39, P<.001). This relationship means that employees with different work experiences report differently their job characteristics. In other words, employees who served longer explain their jobs as being higher in the core and interpersonal dimensions and vice versa.

In the same trend, job characteristics associate positively and significantly at P<.001 level with training programmes attended in warehousing and pay level received, while there is no relationship with the initial employment except with interpersonal dimensions, where there are weak relationship (dealing with others: -0.14 P<.05; friendship: 0.17 P<.05).

Regarding educational and position levels, the findings indicate that there are negative and weak relationships except in two cases where there are no relationships at all. These cases are related to job position level with job variety (r =-0.09, N.S), and dealing with others (r =-0.01, N.S).

With respect to the educational level, the findings reveal that employees with a high education level feel they have a lower degree in autonomy, variety and feedback on performance "high-order needs" (and vice versa). This supports the previous findings (section 6.2.4 and 7.2.3) and shows that these subjects find that work in warehousing fails to present an adequate challenge for them. The interpretation of the findings is similar to the interpretation of job position level with autonomy (r=-0.29, P<.01), opportunity of learning (-0.21, P<.01), task significance (-0.23, P<.01) and feedback (r=0.30, P<.001). This means that employees with a higher job level report that their job is higher in feedback on performance. However, this relationship was weak, though it was statistically significant.

As far the relationship between personal characteristics and job characteristics items, the findings indicate that the relationships are either weak,

or do not exist except with the employees' age. This relationship is relatively strong and statistically significant compared with other personal characteristics. This means that younger employees do not value their job characteristics to the same degree as their older counterparts.

Finally, the relationship between job characteristics and sex, marital status and the number of dependents is weak, except the relationship of dealing with other people, where there is no relationship (sex: 0.009, marital status:0.02). This can be attributed to warehousing jobs being perceived by females as less significant in core and interpersonal dimensions, except in dealing with other people, where no differences are found between men and women.

### 7.4. Employees Reaction to Supervisory Style

One of the significant findings of the Hawthorne studies was the possibility to change employees' attitudes by developing a cooperative spirit between employees and supervisors. A close and friendly supervisory/subordinate relationship indicates a favorable work climate. The importance of this aspect is that employees evaluate the quality of supervision by means of that supervisor represents the image of the company. So supervisory style plays an important role in changing employees' attitudes and behaviour. Therefore, the focus, in this study is placed on specific aspects of supervisory style, that is: a participative (democratic) and considerate (supportive) supervisory style.

Considerate supervision reflects the degree to which the supervisor's behaviour towards the employees is characterised by friendship and approbation, openness to the employees suggestions, mutual trust, developing good relations, a better handling of complaints, warmth and subordinates is backed up by top management. By contrast, participative supervisory style reflects the degree to which supervisory's behavior towards the employees is characterised by

participative decision-making, in organizing the employees activities, suggestions, advice, and give serious consideration of what the employees have to say before making a decision.

The results of the analysis in Table (7.4) indicate that there are marginal differences between employees reaction to participative and considerate supervisory style. So, the following discussion will focus on the relationship between overall supervisory style and other study variables.

### 7.4.1. Supervisory Style and Employees Satisfaction/Performance

The findings demonstrate that supervisory style influences employees' attitudes. As shown in Table (7.4) there is a strong positive relationship between supervisory style and intrinsic (0.49, P<.001), extrinsic (0.63, P<.001), and overall job satisfaction (0.57, P<.001). Similar relationships appear with quality of work (0.48), quantity of work (0.46), efforts (0.47) and overall job performance (0.40).

The results support the interpretation that the employees who feel free and open to discuss personal and work problems with their supervisors, are more likely to work with, achieve in their work and are more satisfied with it than employees who do not have such freedom and openness. By the same token when supervisors are sensitive to employees' feelings; do tell them where they stand; and give them the deserved recognition, they will, in fact, greatly encourage the employees to achieve their goals. So supervisors play a vital role in the working life of the employees and the organisation. Hence, the findings of this study supported the issue that employees' satisfaction and performance would be positively influenced by the supervisory style. When supervisors are effective planners, organizers and decision makers they are more likely to be influential in changing employees' attitudes and, in turn, better productivity will be achieved.

Number of studies found that the supervisors are more frequently the

source of satisfaction in successful organisations than any other variable related to job satisfaction such as, security, job content, working conditions and wages. (Herzberg et al., 1957). The majority of these studies indicate that democratic and supportive supervisory style is positively related to job satisfaction and performance (Fleishman & Harris 1962; House, Filley & Kerr 1971; Kerr et al., 1974; Likert 1967; Teas 1981, 1983; Newport 1976; Zeitlin, 1972; Gilmore et al., 1979).

Based on the literature and this study one can understand that good supervisory practices (considerate and participative) will lead to more satisfaction and, in turn, enhance employees' performance. The employee who likes his supervisor, tends to get closer to him, thus seeking his advice and therefore, doing him favours in return. On the other hand, the employee who dislikes his supervisor will want to avoid him and refuse to do favours for him (Locke, 1970).

In conclusion, the most effective supervisors are those who provide a supportive and high considerate style for employees, do influence their attitudes and their productivity. But to what extent will a supervisory style influence employees' attitude? Does this influence come solely from supervisory style or in a combination with other factors? The following attempts answers to these questions.

### 7.4.2. Supervisory Style and Individual Differences

Regarding personal characteristics and its relationship with supervisory style, it is obvious from the findings that employees' age seems to have a relatively strong relationship with supervisory style (0.52, $P<.001$). Whereas sex (-0.17, $P<.05$) and marital status (0.19, $P<.05$) show a weak relationship. This is consistent with the findings regarding the relationship of these variables with job satisfaction and performance as discussed above.

**Table (7.4)**

The Relationship Between Supervisory Style and Employees' Reactions.

| Variable | Supervisory Style (*) Considerate | Participation | Overall |
|---|---|---|---|
| Job Satisfaction | | | |
| Extrinsic JS | 0.70 | 0.74 | 0.72 |
| Intrinsic JS | 0.57 | 0.60 | 0.59 |
| Overall | 0.55 | 0.59 | 0.58 |
| Job Performance | | | |
| Quality | 0.49 | 0.48 | 0.48 |
| Quantity | 0.47 | 0.46 | 0.46 |
| Efforts | 0.48 | 0.47 | 0.47 |
| Overall | 0.41 | 0.40 | 0.40 |
| Personal Characteristics | | | |
| Age | 0.50 | 0.51 | 0.52 |
| Sex | -0.16 [1] | -0.18 [1] | -0.17 [1] |
| marital Status | 0.17 [1] | 0.20 [2] | 0.19 [1] |
| No. of Dependents | 0.28 [2] | 0.32 | 0.30 |
| Positional Characteristics | | | |
| Job Position Level | -0.14 [1] | -0.18 [1] | -0.15 [1] |
| Education Level | -0.30 | -0.35 | -0.33 |
| Length of Service | 0.33 | 0.36 | 0.35 |
| Training | 0.42 | 0.42 | 0.43 |
| Initial Employment | 0.07 [3] | 0.06 [3] | 0.06 [3] |

N = 267

(*) P<.001

1 P<.05

2 P<.01

3 N.S.

The negative relationship between sex and supervisory style, though it is weak, but it supports the interpretation that the female subjects are more sensitive than males in evaluation of supervisory style in their job. However, bad supervision can be a primary reason for both employees (i.e., male and female) dissatisfaction and, in turn, leads to low productivity.

As regards the relationship with marital status and number of dependents, the findings indicate that married employees are more concerned to good supervisory style than single employees without family responsibilities. This, in fact, means that an employee with family responsibilities feels more necessity for supervisory approval. This, of course, is related to the fact that the supervisor plays a role in helping employees to achieve the work and solve their personal problems in terms of human relations.

Regarding positional characteristics, the findings show that supervisory style has a moderate negative relationship with the educational level (-0.33, $P<.001$), length of service (0.35, $P<.001$) and training programmes attended (0.43, $P<.001$). It has a weak negative relationship with job position level (-0.15, $P<.05$) and no relationship with initial employment (0.06).

The negative relationship between the educational and positional level with supervisory style means that supervision is relatively less important to the high level of education and position level. This is related to the fact that the majority of highly educated subjects in the sample occupy a high position level. The findings seem to support the idea that supervision is less important to highly educated employees, in a high position level, who may feel they have the ability to handle work problems with their particular supervisory structure.

Finally, the present research supports the notion that certain supervisors' behaviour is the cause of employees' performance (Glimore et al., 1979). This research could not determine whether employees performance causes certain supervisors' behaviour to emerge (Greene, 1975). Barrow (1976) and Lowin

and Caraig (1973) have addressed this question. Further research might combine these two approaches to determine whether or not supervisors' and employees' behaviours simultaneously influence each other on the same task. Further research is needed to confirm the conditions under which supervisory style affect employees' satisfaction and performance and more attention must be directed to the relationship between actual supervisors' behaviour and how employees describe that behaviour on the questionnaire.

## 7.5. Summary and Conclusions

This chapter investigates employees' reaction to work values, job characteristics and supervisory style. Statistical techniques used in the analysis (i.e., factor analysis and nonparametric correlation coefficients) has arrived at the following:

### Employees' Reaction to Work Values

Factor analysis was used in order to discover a group of variables (factors) having certain common characteristics. The relationships between these factors and other study variables reveal that:

1. There is a relatively strong positive relationship with factor one as compared with other factors (Extrinsic r=0.69, P<.001; Intrinsic r=0.61, P<.001; overall r=0.67, P<.001). This implies that employees who agree more with the importance of values concerning supervision, recognition, company policies, and job security, will be more satisfied with their jobs.

2. There is a positive weak to moderate relationship with intrinsic psychological and relational (social) values (factor 1: extrinsic r=0.27, P<.001; intrinsic r= 0.22, P<.01; overall job satisfaction r=0.24, P<.01, intrinsic r=0.21, P<.01, overall r=0.16, P<.05). This suggests that the employees who perceive responsibility in their job, authority (factor 2), social status, and co-workers (factor 3) to be very important, tend to be more satisfied than others

intrinsically.

Regarding job performance a moderate positive significant relationship was found with extrinsic organisational environment values, and a weak one with intrinsic psychological values. Whereas, there is no significant relationship with other instrumental values (factor 4, 5 and 6), except the relationship between overall job performance and relational (social) values, where there is a weak significant relationship (0.16, $P<.05$), In summary:

1. The employees who perceive extrinsic environmental and intrinsic psychological values as very important, are most likely to be high performers in terms of quantity, quality, efforts and overall job performance.

2. Relational values have little influence on employees' performance. This means that warehousing employees look for more values than just changing working conditions or creating an organisational climate to build a relationship among the employees to perform well.

3. There is no significant relationship between challenge, comfort and financial values and job performance.

With regard to individual differences it was found that:

1. A moderate relationship was found between age, training, length of service, educational level and wages received with the intrinsic psychological values and extrinsic organisational environment values.

2. A significant negative relationship appeared between educational level and work values factors except with the financial values. This leads to the conclusion that the highly educated employees found that a job in warehousing failed to present an adequate challenge for them.

3. A negative relationship showed up between work values and employees sex regarding the first four value factors, while no relationship was found with the fifth and the sixth factors. These results imply that no differences are found between males and females regarding comfort, relational, challenge, and financial values. Significant values are shown by males rather than females

regarding extrinsic organisational environment values

**Employees' Reaction to Job Characteristics**

On the whole, the results confirmed that job satisfaction is a function of higher job characteristics. The relationship with core dimensions is higher than interpersonal dimensions. This implies that with more intrinsic job satisfaction, employees tend to report a feeling of satisfaction when a job is being higher in the degree of autonomy, variety, feedback on performance, opportunity for learning and task-significance. Interpersonal characteristics such as friendship opportunities and dealing with others, have a lower association with job satisfaction compared with core dimensions. This means that employees who have a lesser need for intrinsic satisfaction, such as growth and development, the presence of certain external characteristics (i.e., interpersonal dimensions) may be necessary to increase their satisfaction. However, the findings clearly demonstrate and support the effects of job characteristic on satisfaction.

Concerning job performance, the findings indicate that employees who feel that their jobs being higher in characteristics such as degree of autonomy, variety, feedback on performance etc, tend to be more effective performers.

Concerning the relationship between job characteristics and individual differences the findings indicate that the relationship ranged from weak to moderate as follows:

1. A positive moderate relationship showed up with length of service and employees' age: employees with different work experience are different in describing their job characteristics. Employees with high years of experience explained that the characteristics of their job are higher than those with less experience (younger employees). This trend of relationship is the same with the employees' age, training programmes attended, and the salary received.

2. No relationship between initial employment and job characteristics was found. There is no difference in responding to job characteristics from the

employees who were initially employed in warehousing, or those who were transferred from other departments or organisations.

3. A negative weak relationship was found between educational and positional level, and job characteristics. This means that employees with high education and position levels report that their job is lower in core dimensions (e.g., autonomy, variety and feedback) than the employees with a lower level of education.

4. A weak relationship appeared with sex, marital status and number of dependents and a negative relationship for employees sex, except in dealing with other people where no relationship was found.

**Employees' reaction to Supervisory style**

In this study the focus was placed on a specific aspects of supervision, that is participative and considerate supervisory style.

The findings show that supervisory style highly influences employees' attitudes and behaviour. Eemployees' satisfaction and performance were highly related to supervisory style in warehousing. This suggests that when supervisors are effective in planning, organizing, sharing with employees their work and personal problems and making decisions consistently and decisively, they are more likely to be more effective on employees' attitude and productivity.

Regarding individual differences, the following results are found:

1. A strong relationship was found between age, length of service and training with the supervisory style. This means that the older employees who served longer, and who have attended more warehousing training programmes, the more positive their evaluation for the supervisory style in warehousing.

2. A weak negative relationship appeared with employees sex. This supports the interpretation that the female subjects are more sensitive in evaluation of supervisory style than male subjects. However, bad supervision

can be a primary reason for job dissatisfaction for both subjects.

3. A weak to moderate positive relationship showed up between marital status and number of dependents with supervisory style. This indicates that married employees with a number of dependents are more sensible to good supervision than single ones, without the responsibility of dependents. This means that the employees with family responsibilities feel a greater necessity for supervisory approval.

4. A negative moderate relationship between education level and supervisory style. This supports the interpretation that supervision is relatively less important to employees with a higher level of education. This may be related to the fact that the employees with such levels of education feel they can handle the job better with their particular supervisory structure.

# CHAPTER EIGHT

# THE MAIN AND INTERACTION EFFECTS OF STUDY VARIABLES ON JOB SATISFACTION/JOB PERFORMANCE RELATIONSHIP

## 8.1. Introduction

This chapter describes the main and interaction effects of the study variables on the job satisfaction/job performance relationship and identifies the important variables which affect employees' satisfaction or performance.

In the preceding chapters the univariate analysis method was proposed. Such methods determine associations between two variables. The variables are studied with the probability of employees reporting if they are satisfied or if there is a relationship between any two variables or not. However, when one wants to examine the effect of each study variables (e.g., work values (WV), supervisory style (SUP), perceived rewards (PER), job characteristics (JCH), and employees' characteristics) by controlling the effects of all other variables on the job satisfaction (JS)/job performance (JP) relationship. With crosstabulation or simple correlation it would not be easy to do this. More advanced statistical techniques have to be used, especially for complex relationship like this (i.e., job satisfaction/job performance). There are many suitable techniques such as factor analysis, analysis of variance, multiple regression and others. Multiple regression has been selected because it shows both combined effects of a set of independent variables and the separate effects of each independent variable controlling for the other (Hedderson, 1987: 103-104). It has been widely used and its rationale underlies most other multivariate techniques. Also, it can handle continuous and categorical variables, and it can handle two, three, four and more variables (Kerlinger & Pedhazur, 1973: 3). Further, "Multiple Regression is a very flexible data analysis system that may be

used whenever a quantitative variable (the dependent) is to be studied as a function of, or in relation to, any factors of interest" (Cohen & Cohen,1975: 3). In a multiple regression one can assign relative importance to each independent variable. For example, multiple regression is applicable if one wants to know whether educational level, for instance, is more important in explaining or predicting employees satisfaction or performance than previous work experience (length of service) or the salary employees received. Or to know the role of some independent variable individually or combined in the relationship of employees satisfaction and performance, such work values, supervisory style, job characteristics, etc. Thus, regression analysis technique will help find answers for the present study questions.

The analysis was performed by using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSSx).

**8.2. The influence of Specified Variables on Job Satisfaction/Job Performance Relationship.**

The previous chapters have investigated the relationship between study variables and employees' job satisfaction or job performance. The combination of employees' performance with WV, JCH, SUP and PER to find the interaction of these variables on employees' satisfaction remains untackled. Zedeck (1971) recommends that the examination of potential moderator variables include an assessment of their contribution as independent predictors in the course of regression analysis.

One of the first steps in calculating the regression equation with several independent variables is to calculate the correlation coefficient among all variables. So the zero order correlation (intercorrelation) matrix among the variables, in this stage of analysis, was computed and tabulated in (8.1). Before going any further, a brief discussion for the job satisfaction/job performance relationship will follow.

### 8.2.1. Job Satisfaction/Job Performance Relationship

It is clear from Table (8.1) that a moderate positive relationship exists between job satisfaction/job performance relationship. As reported earlier in chapter three, most researchers found a low correlation between these two variables. However, most these studies done in a western society, we may quote Orpen (1978) who finds a correlation of 0.45 (P<.01) between these variables for western-oriented supervisors, but he finds a correlation of only .02 for tribal supervisors. If these findings are valid and also hold for other cultures, there is a reason to believe that a higher correlation between satisfaction and performance should be found for educated westernised employees as compared to those who are more tribe-oriented. Thus people differ with different needs and attitudes. In the case of the Iraqi employees, in general, they are influenced by cultural factors such as religion, nationalization, and social relation. So the employees work under the influence of these factors. For example, employees are accustomed to working hard not only because of the financial rewards, but for other reasons as well.

**Table (8.1)**
Intercorrelation Among Major Variables

| Variable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1.Job Satisfaction | 1.00 | | | | | |
| 2.Job Performance | 0.43 | 1.00 | | | | |
| 3.Supervisory Style | 0.57 | 0.40 | 1.00 | | | |
| 4.Work Values | 0.35 | 0.28 | 0.38 | 1.00 | | |
| 5.Perceived Reward | 0.67 | 0.39 | 0.49 | 0.33 | 1.00 | |
| 6.Job Characteristics | 0.62 | 0.43 | 0.47 | 0.34 | 0.55 | 1.00 |

N = 267

From a religious point of view, hard work is highly valuable, in the sense that a muslim who does a good job will be rewarded twice. The first rewards will be by his organisation, and the second when God rewards him for the good job and the good intentions "God loves the person who has a job and the person who works hard to support his family. He will be like the fighter for the cause of God". Also it was held that "God loves a worker who not only does a job but does it perfectly" (Khan, 1976). Furthermore, hard work is important for satisfying other vital needs such as respect, dignity, and decency. Recognition, achievement, and status are the basic elements in the employees' satisfaction and motivation. An individual who excels in the performance in his duties and remains sincere and considerate to others is highly respected by his group members. In a country like Iraq, employees' behaviour should be considered within the social realities in which they exist. Generally, in any Iraqi organisation affiliation, status, achievement, and recognition are basic satisfiers and motivators. Employees tend to excel not in the search for better pay and economic gains, but rather in their desire to get better social status. So in the following sections we will analyse and search for the effect of selected variables in this study on job satisfaction/job performance relationship.

### 8.2.2. Job Satisfaction as a Dependent Variable

As shown in Table (8.1) the correlation between the dependent variable (JS) and each independent variable, as well as the correlation among the independent variables, since such correlations can substantially affect the results of the multiple regression analysis. Theoretically, the independent variables should be correlated with the dependent variable, but not with one another. In practice, one often sees intercorrelation as high as 0.60 among independent variables in regression analysis (Hedderson, 1987: 107). The variables in this analysis will be used individually and combined in several equations based on research questions through the moderating regression techniques.

**Table (8.2)**

Results of Moderated Regression Analysis For Job Satisfaction by Using JP as Independent Variable & WV, JCH, SUP, & PER as Moderators.a

| Variable | Mul.R | $R^2$b | $\Delta R^2$ | df | F(step)c | B |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Job Performance (JP) | 0.614 | 0.377 | 0.377 | 1,256 | 160.36 | 0.69 |
| Work values (WV) | 0.692 | 0.478 | 0.101 | 2,264 | 50.57 | 0.39 |
| WV x JP | 0.703 | 0.494 | 0.015 | 3,263 | 07.79 | 1.67 |
| Job Performance (JP) | 0.614 | 0.377 | 0.377 | 1,265 | 160.36 | 0.69 |
| Job Characteristics (JCH) | 0.786 | 0.617 | 0.240 | 2,264 | 165.43 | 0.88 |
| JCH x JP | 0.788 | 0.620 | 0.003 | 3,263 | 02.07* | 0.68 |
| Job Performance (JP) | 0.614 | 0.377 | 0.377 | 1,265 | 160.36 | 0.69 |
| supervisory style(SUP) | 0.761 | 0.579 | 0.202 | 2,264 | 126.67 | 0.70 |
| SUP x JP | 0.773 | 0.598 | 0.019 | 3,263 | 12.46 | 1.08 |
| Job Performance (JP) | 0.614 | 0.377 | 0.377 | 1,265 | 160.36 | 0.69 |
| Perceived Reward (PER) | 0.797 | 0.635 | 0.258 | 2,264 | 186.60 | 0.80 |
| PER x JP | 0.798 | 0.637 | 0.002 | 3,263 | 01.45* | -0.34 |

* None significance

a Regression equations are all significant (P<.001)

b $R^2$ is the proportion of variance in the dependent variable associated with the variance in the independent variable.

c F values for testing of incremental gains in multiple R (The square root of the F value is the value of T statistic. Therefore either T or F value can be computed for this test (Hedderson,1987:106).

$$F=\frac{R^2/k}{(1-R^2)/(N-K-1)} \quad \text{or} \quad F=\frac{\Delta R^2/(k2-K1)}{(1-R^2)/(N-K-1)}$$

Where: K = number of independent variables

N = total number of subjects

d Beta represents the effect that standard deviation differences in the independent variable would have on the dependent variable in standard deviation.

Moderated regression analysis was performed to test the moderating effects of WV, JCH, PER, and SUP on JS/JP relationship.

Regarding WV, in moderated regression equation: Performance is entered into the regression analysis first, followed by WV, and then the interaction term of "JP x WV". These steps were applied for the JCH, SUP, and PER. Table (8.2) summaries the results and shows that JP yielded a multiple correlation of 0.377 (adjusted R of 0.375) and accounts for 38% of the total JS variance. When job satisfaction is predicted by using both WV and JP, the multiple R increases to 0.69 ($P<0.001$, df=2.264). So Work values significantly account for an additional 10% of variance over the attributed to JP. Adding the "WV x JP" interaction term to the prediction equation resulted in a moderated multiple R of 0.70, and the change in $R^2$ is 0.015. The interaction term adds an additional variance in the dependent variable (JS) equals nearly 1%. The additional variance in JS from the interaction terms is not significant in explaining employees' satisfaction. Though the F test for the partial regression coefficient associated with the interaction term indicates the significance of the incremental contribution of this term to explain variance in the dependent variable (JS). This result suggests that work value is an independent predictor of job satisfaction, rather than as a moderator variable of the JS/JP relationship. The findings of this study collaborates with findings of Blood (1969), which indicate that job satisfaction variance controlled by work values is independent of that controlled by other variables. Therefore, it seems more logical that work values precede and influence job satisfaction and not vice versa.

So the way employees evaluate their job in warehousing is related to their attitudes to this particular job influenced by their perception of work values. An employee who thinks that his job in warehousing is an abomination to be undertaken only when all other strategies fail will likely be unhappy even in the most pleasant work situation. On the other hand, the employee who feels, for

example, that personal worth results only from a responsible job or occupational achievement would likely derive some satisfaction.

Regarding job performance and job characteristics (JP & JCH), job satisfaction is predicted by using both JCH and JP. The multiple R increases to 0.78 (P<.001, df=2,264). JCH significantly accounts for about an additional 24% of variance over the attributed to JP. The addition of the "JCH x JP" interaction term to the prediction equation resulted in relatively similar multiple R of 0.78 (p<.001, df=3,264). However, the interaction term "JCH x JP" do not contribute to this multiple correlation in a meaningful way ($R^2$ change = .003). Seeing it this way, the JCH would be an independent predictor of JS, rather than a moderator variable of the JS/JP relationship. So this supports the effect of job characteristic as independent on job satisfaction and indicates that certain job characteristics tend to be a more satisfying factor to the employees in warehousing than others.

With respect to PER and JP, as can be seen in Table (8.2), when using JP, PER separately in predicting JS, multiple R increased to .79. PER significantly accounts for an additional 26% of variance over the attributed to JP. However, the interaction term "PER x JP" does not contribute in a meaningful way to the multiple correlation ($R^2$ change = .002). This suggests that PER also acts as an independent predictor of JS, rather than a moderator variable of the JP/JS relationship.

Regarding SUP and JP, when JS is predicted by JP and SUP, multiple R increases to .76 and $R^2$ 0.58. SUP accounts for an additional 20% of variance over the attributed to JP. when adding the interaction term of combining "SUP x JP", the combination yields a multiple correlation which equals 0.60. Most notably that the "SUP x JP" interaction term significantly increases the amount of the explained variance by 2% over the contributed of JP and SUP (partial F value = 12.46; df=3.263; P<.001). So JP related, relatively, with JS depending

on the SUP. Therefore, the findings suggest that SUP affects employees satisfaction and performance. This is consistent with the results of many studies (e.g., Locke, 1970; Solcum 1971; Stogdill, 1974; Gilmore, Beehr & Richter, 1979; Tjosvold, 1984), which stress the importance of SUP and its effects on the subordinates' satisfaction and performance.

As discussed previously in Chapter 3, above studies find that subordinates feel open, want to work with, feel attracted to, and are satisfied with the leader who communicates with them warmly. The impact of these leaders reflects positive attitudes towards subordinates' JP depending on whether the leader is directive or non-directive (Tjosvold, 1984). Stogdill (1974: 395) concludes that the most effective leader is the one who provides high initiating structure and high consideration for his subordinates. Gilmore, Beehr & Richter (1979) support this issue in their study "a manipulated leaders behaviors caused significant differences in subordinates performance". High initiating structure by the leader appeared to affect subordinates performance.

Based on the findings of this study, it is obvious that WV, JCH, PER, do not moderate the relationship between JP and JS. Almost no meaningful variance is accounted for by adding the interaction terms (JP x WV; JP x JCH; JP x PER) to the multiple regression equation except the interaction of "SUP x JP" which contributes a slight variance to job satisfaction. However, WV, JCH, and PER do function as independent predictors of JS. The univariate R in Table (8.2) indicates that an employee with high perceived rewards, Job characteristics, and work values is more satisfied with his work in warehousing, and this does add significantly to the interaction term to predict employees' satisfaction. This suggests that much attention should be given to the WV, JCH, PER as independent predictors of JS in its own right, rather than intervening or moderator variables of JS/JP relationship. Furthermore, as can be seen in Table (8.2) the potential moderated variables (WV, JCH, SUP, and PER) are correlated, so the analysis is next focused on an attempt to detect a possible

triple and four-way interaction involving performance and two or three from the moderated variables. This is to test the contribution of the interaction among work values, job characteristics, supervisory style, and perceived rewards to the explanation of the job satisfaction reaction (a description of this procedure can be found in Cohen & Cohen, 1975; Kerlinger & Padhazur, 1973).

A hierarchical regression analysis is performed to test and concern the role of WV, JCH, SUP, and PER on the relationship between JS and JP. The hierarchical inclusion method is used for the decomposition of the explained sum squares into components attributable to each independent variable and the interaction terms.

First, the JS measure is regressed onto main effects for JP and then for WV, JCH, PER, and SUP. Then the interaction terms are entered into the equations in the hierarchical level. And finally, the third and four-way interaction terms are included in the regression equations. The findings displayed in Table (8.3) show that the four main effects F values are statistically significant; while the F values for testing the partial regression coefficient associated with interaction terms in the three and four-way interaction are non-significant of the incremental contribution of these terms to the explained variance in the dependent variables (JS). As can be seen from the findings, WV, JCH, SUP, and PER significantly account for an additional 10%; 7%; 4%; 4% respectively of variance are attributed to the preceding variables for each one. The amount of variance accounted for the dependent variable (JS) by the main effects alone is 25%, while, the two, three, four-way interaction do not significantly contribute to the explanation of JS. However, "JP x SUP" and the five-way interaction term involving all variables (i.e., WV, JCH, SUP, and PER) with JP, both contribute in a 1% of the variance on employees' satisfaction over the contribution of all the preceding variables.

**Table (8.3)**

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis

| Variable | Mul.R | $R^2$ | $\Delta R^2$ | df | F(step) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Job Performance (JP) | .614 | .377 | .377 | 1,265 | 160.36 |
| Work values (WV) | .692 | .478 | .101 | 2,264 | 050.57 |
| Job Characteristics (JCH) | .742 | .551 | .073 | 3,263 | 038.47 |
| Supervisory Style (SUP) | .769 | .591 | .040 | 4,262 | 025.62 |
| Perceived Rewards (PER) | .795 | .632 | .041 | 5,261 | 029.07 |
| JP x WV | .795 | .632 | .000 | 6,260 | 001.01 |
| JP x JCH | .795 | .632 | .000 | 7,259 | 000.10 |
| JP x SUP | .801 | .642 | .010 | 8,258 | 007.21* |
| JP x PER | .806 | .650 | .008 | 9,257 | 005.87 |
| JP x WV x SUP | .808 | .653 | .003 | 10,256 | 002.21 |
| JP x WV x JCH | .808 | .653 | .000 | 11,255 | 000.21 |
| JP x WV x PER | .811 | .658 | .005 | 12,254 | 003.71 |
| JP x PER x JCH | .812 | .659 | .001 | 13,253 | 000.74 |
| JP x SUP x JCH | .812 | .659 | .000 | 14,252 | 000.33 |
| JP x SUP x PER | .812 | .659 | .000 | 15,251 | 000.00 |
| JP x WV x JCH x SUP | .815 | .664 | .005 | 16,250 | 003.72 |
| JP x WV x JCH x PER | .815 | .664 | .000 | 17,249 | 000.00 |
| JP x WV x JCH x SUP x PER | .821 | .674 | .010 | 18,248 | 008.71* |

* P<.05

These findings support the interpretation that the WV, JCH, SUP, and PER, can have an impact on the employees' satisfaction and their performance. Specifically, the independent effects of these four variables account for 25% of the variance in employees' satisfaction, which attributed to job performance. Further, the interaction of each two or three-way with job performance does not co-jointly moderate the job satisfaction/job performance relationship and does not explain any meaningful variance in job satisfaction. A closer look at Table (8.3), one can conclude that the result in this stage do support the findings in the previous Table (Table 8.2), which indicates that WV and PER can have an impact on the employees' satisfaction and their performance as independent variables. On the other hand, SUP is relatively acting as a moderator variable in this relationship.

When job performance used as dependent variable, moderated regression analysis is performed and the findings are presented in Table (8.4). F value of the partial regression coefficient for work values and perceived rewards as independent predictors of job performance indicate that these two variables did not significantly predict the employees' performance. Relatively, when JCH and SUP were used as independent variables, the F values indicated the significance of the incremental contribution of these variables of the job performance variance (JCH: $F=12.88$, $df=2,264$, $P<.01$; SUP: $F=10.57$, $df=2,264$, $P<.01$). When adding the interaction terms (JS x WV; JS x JCH; JS x PER; JS x SUP) to the prediction equation, the differences between the multiple Rs are not statistically significant and the interaction terms do not explain any meaningful additional variance in the dependent variable (JP). From this, it appears that none of the variables play a moderator role in the JS/JP relationship when JP is used as an dependent variable.

In conclusion, the findings suggest that job satisfaction and job performance are mutually causal variables and job satisfaction acted as a stronger causal variable on employees' performance.

Table (8.4)
Results of Moderated Regression Analysis by Using Job Performance as dependent

| Variable | Mul.R | $R^2$ | $\Delta R^2$ | df | F(step) | Beta |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Job Satisfaction (JS) | .614 | .377 | .377 | 1,265 | 160.36 | .69 |
| Work Values (WV) | .617 | .380 | .003 | 2,264 | 001.27 | .06 |
| JS x WV | .621 | .385 | .005 | 3,263 | 002.14 | .84 |
| Job Satisfaction (JS) | .614 | .377 | .377 | 1,265 | 160.36 | .69 |
| Job Characteristics (JCH) | .637 | .406 | .029 | 2,264 | 012.88* | .37 |
| JS x JCH | .641 | .411 | .005 | 3,263 | 002.23 | .75 |
| Job Satisfaction (JS) | .614 | .377 | .377 | 1,265 | 160.36 | .69 |
| Perceived Rewards (PER) | .615 | .378 | .001 | 2,264 | 000.42 | -.06 |
| JS x PER | .617 | .380 | .002 | 3,263 | 000.85 | .35 |
| Job Satisfaction (JS) | .614 | .377 | .377 | 1,265 | 160.36 | .69 |
| Supervisory Style (SUP) | .633 | .401 | .024 | 2,264 | 010.57* | .22 |
| JS x SUP | .635 | .403 | .002 | 3,263 | 000.88 | .55 |

* P<.01

## 8.3. The Influence of Employees' Characteristics (Personal/Positional) on Job Satisfaction/Job Performance Relationship

To determine the role of personal and positional characteristics variables on JS/JP relationship, and their impact on this relationship and discover if some of these variables act as an independent predictors of JS in its own right, or as a moderator variable, the following steps were used.

First step; zero order correlation (intercorrelation) among all variables has been computed, and the correlation matrix is reported in Table (8.5).

Variables such sex and marital status are presented by indicator variables, that is variables coded as 0 or 1. Sex is coded 1 for female and 0 for male, and marital status is coded 0 for single, divorced, widows, and 1 for married.

As can be seen in Table (8.5), the potential moderators show a varying degrees of correlation with both the independent (JP) and the dependent variable (JS). It is noticeable from the correlation matrix, with few exceptions, that the magnitudes of these correlations fall within small to moderate range. From this it may be concluded that some of these variables are largely independent of each other. Thus, it can be expected that the influence of variables with small range correlation on the employees' satisfaction or performance are relatively independent of each other. On the other hand, the variables with a moderate range of relationship, its influence on satisfaction or performance can be expected to depend on the joint of these variables.

**Table (8.5)**
Intercorrelation Matrix Among Employees' Characteristics and JS/JP

| Variable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1.Job Satisfaction | 1.00 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2.Job Performance | 0.43 | 1.00 | | | | | | | | | |
| 3.Length of Service | 0.36 | 0.32 | 1.00 | | | | | | | | |
| 4.Education | -0.32 | -0.20 | -0.36 | 1.00 | | | | | | | |
| 5.Pay Level | 0.31 | 0.29 | 0.72 | -0.16 | 1.00 | | | | | | |
| 6.Job Position | -0.18 | -.23 | -0.34 | -0.16 | -0.47 | 1.00 | | | | | |
| 7.Training | 0.39 | 0.37 | 0.49 | -0.23 | 0.45 | -0.35 | 1.00 | | | | |
| 8.Age | 0.46 | 0.39 | 0.59 | -0.30 | 0.60 | -0.33 | 0.46 | 1.00 | | | |
| 9.Sex | -0.20 | -0.22 | -0.29 | 0.11 | -0.45 | 0.40 | -0.29 | -0.48 | 1.00 | | |
| 10.marital Status | 0.22 | 0.18 | 0.34 | -0.21 | 0.35 | -0.28 | 0.34 | 0.44 | -0.27 | 1.00 | |
| 11.No. Dependents | -0.28 | 0.26 | 0.41 | -0.21 | 0.41 | -0.29 | 0.41 | 0.50 | -0.36 | 0.76 | 1.00 |

The relationship between JP and JS has been discussed earlier in this chapter. The correlation between JP and age, sex, marital status, and number of dependents are 0.39 (P<.001); -0.22 (P<.01); 0.18 (P<.05); 0.26 (p<.01) respectively and with length of service, education level, pay level, job position level and training are: 0.32 (P<.001); -0.20 (P<.01); 0.29 (P<.01); -0.23 (P<.01); 0.37 (P<.001) respectively. These relations are discussed in the preceding chapters (Chapter 6). It appears from Table (8.5) that there is a significant, positive and strong relationship between age, length of service, salary, number of dependents, and marital status. This is, in fact, empirical evidence supporting the view that older employees with longer service typically have a higher pay level than younger employees with shorter service. Further, married employees have more dependents (i.e., children) and typically have a higher pay level than unmarried employees. The marital status-pay relationship may be based on a number of indices. Married employees are older than unmarried, and older employees have served longer (see Appendix IV), so they obtain a higher pay level. In addition, this result is consistent with pay scales in the Iraqi companies which offer better benefits to married employees compared with unmarried and better benefits are given according to the number of children they have (Iraq: Low No.24 of 1960). The findings also reveal a strong negative association between employees sex and pay level. Male employees have a higher salary compared with the female counterparts (see Appendix IV). The interpretation of this relationship is the job position level, length of service, and employees' age. Male employees have served longer and occupied a higher position levels in warehousing as compared with female employees.

Finally a relationship is found between pay and education level. Although it is a weak negative relationship, it deserves some interpretation. Employees with higher educational levels get higher pay than employees with low educational levels according to the Iraqi low number 24 (1960). These results are attributed

to the length of service and employees' age. As has been noted in Chapter 6, highly educated employees are mostly younger and have served shorter, so they are paid less compared with older employees who served longer and they get higher pay level.

### 8.3.1. The Influence of personal Characteristics on Job Satisfaction/Job Performance Relationship

Moderated regression analyses are performed to examine the moderated effect of personal characteristics on JS/JP relationship, when job satisfaction used as dependent variable. The results are reported in Table (8.6).

Regarding employees' age, as found previously, JP yielded a multiple correlation of 0.377 (adjusted R 0.375). When JS is predicted using both employees' age and job performance, the multiple R increased to 0.701 (P<.001, df=2.264). So employees' age accounts for about an additional 11% of variance over that which are attributed to JP. Moderated multiple R increases to 0.726 (P<.001, df=263) when adding the employees' age and JP "Age x JP" as interaction term to the prediction equation. The differences between the multiple Rs is statistically significant (incremental F=59.13, df=2,264, P<.001), and the interaction term explains an additional 4% variance in the dependent variable (JS) (increment F=20.01, df=3.263, P<.001).

The pattern of prediction using moderators such as the number of dependents (children and other dependents) and marital status depicts similar trends. The interaction term of "number of dependent x JP" and "marital status x JP", both same, increases the amount of variance by 1% (No. of dependents: F=13.82, df=2.264, P<.001; marital status: F=9.17, df=2,264, P<.01).

**Table (8.6)**

Results of Moderated Regression Analysis for Personal Characteristics

Dependent: Job Satisfaction

| Variable | Mul.R | $R^2$ | $\Delta R^2$ | DF | F(step) | Beta |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Job Performance (JP) | 0.614 | 0.377 | 0.377 | 1,265 | 160.36 | 0.69 |
| Age | 0.701 | 0.491 | 0.114 | 2,264 | 59.13 | 0.38 |
| Age x JP | 0.726 | 0.528 | 0.037 | 3,263 | 20.01 | 1.21 |
| Job Performance (JP) | 0.614 | 0.377 | 0.377 | 1,265 | 160.36 | 0.69 |
| No. of Dependents (DP) | 0.639 | 0.408 | 0.031 | 2,264 | 13.82 | 0.20 |
| DP x JP | 0.648 | 0.419 | 0.011 | 2,263 | 04.79* | 0.59 |
| Job performance (JP) | 0.614 | 0.377 | 0.377 | 1,265 | 160.36 | 0.69 |
| marital Status (MS) | 0.631 | 0.398 | 0.021 | 2,264 | 09.17** | -0.09 |
| MS x JP | 0.639 | 0.408 | 0.010 | 3,263 | 04.44* | -0.83 |
| Job Performance (JP) | 0.614 | 0.377 | 0.377 | 1,265 | 160.36 | 0.69 |
| Sex | 0.621 | 0.385 | 0.008 | 2,264 | 03.43*** | 0.15 |
| Sex x JP | 0.655 | 0.429 | 0.044 | 3,263 | 20.27 | 0.45 |

* P<.05 ** P<.01 *** N.S

Concerning employees' sex, when JS is predicted using both employees' sex and JP, the moderated multiple R did not increase in a meaningful way (from 0.614 to 0.621), and did not change significantly in $R^2$ (0.377 to 0.385). However, when adding employees' sex and JP as interaction term to the prediction equation an increase in a moderated multiple R of 0.655 resulted. The differences between the multiple Rs is statistically significant (incremental F=20.27, df=3,263, P<.001); the interaction term explains an additional 4% variance in the JS (dependent variable). This finding tends to lend support to the point made earlier in Chapter 6, that female subjects are less satisfied with their

job in warehousing and low performers than their male counterparts. So employees' sex has a combined effect with job performance, as well as a separate effect on an employee's satisfaction.

In conclusion, the above-mentioned results suggest that employees' age and sex are acting as strong moderators of JS/JP relationship, while number of dependents, and marital status, relatively, play an independent role in this relationship.

### 8.3.2. The Influence of Positional Characteristics on Job Satisfaction/Job Performance Relationship

In the same trend as in the previous analysis, JS was predicted by using positional characteristics as the potential moderator variables. The results of the analysis are reported in Table (8.7). As shown in this Table, when JS is predicted by using both length of service (LS) and JP, the multiple R increases to 0.699 (P<.001, df=2,246). Adding "LS x JP" as interaction term to the prediction equation resulted in a moderated multiple R of 0.718 (P,.001, df=3,263). The difference between the multiple Rs was statistically significant (incremental F=14.09; df=3,263, p<.001), and the interaction term "LS x JP" explains about 3% additional variance in the dependent variable (JS).

The pattern of prediction using the moderators of pay and job position depicted similar trends. The interaction term of "pay x JP" significantly increases the amount of variance by 4% (F=23.20; df=3,263; P<.001). The "job position x JP" interaction term significantly increases the amount of variance explained by 2% (F=9.22, df=3,263, P<.01), while the interaction term of the moderators educational and training level did not contribute to the multiple correlation in a meaningful way. The change in $R^2$ are .003 and .004.

This result suggests that the length of service, pay, job position do not appear to have independent influences, they are acting relatively as situational

moderators of the JS/JP relationship. On the other hand, educational level and number of training programmes attended appear to have an independent influence in the relationship. The negative signs of the interaction terms indicated the nature of the moderating effects.

It seems, however, that length of service, pay level, and job position are playing the strongest role in the JS/JP relationship.

With respect to length of service, the findings suggest that the less confused the employees are about their responsibilities, the more they are able to use their abilities, and the more satisfied they will be with their job than the employees with no experience.

Regarding the pay level, the findings suggest that the employees who received low salaries are more dissatisfied with their work; this dissatisfaction has influenced their attitude toward their work and, in return, they will be lower performers. Generally speaking, people could respond fairly to the money itself. A good salary permits them to purchase the goods and services, and as a consequence, the greater their income is the more satisfied they will be. However, as has been discussed in the literature review, this is a complicated matter. Employees might also evaluate their pay in terms of a standard regarding these economic benefits. One standard is a sense of equity. Are they getting what they deserve? Another standard involves social comparisons. Are they paid equally with other people doing the same job? In this case apparently, it is not the absolute value of the earnings that is considered as much as the degree to which this income meets relevant standards. Yet another process involves satisfaction with other aspects of their job.

As regards job position level and its effects in the JS/JP relationship, the results suggest that employees in different job position levels have different attitudes. Employees in lower level positions are lower satisfied with their jobs and, in turn, less performers than employees in high job position levels.

Therefore, employees' attitudes are influenced by their job position level. This result is supported by early studies. For example, Herzberg et al., (1957) find one fact that emerges from the studies of occupational level which is that "....the higher the level of occupation, the higher the morale. Of the 18 studies...., only one fails to report higher job satisfaction at the higher level."

As for the education and training levels, the findings indicate that these two variables are acting as independent in JS/JP relationship. Educational level, perhaps, is one of the more salient characteristics which the employees bring to their jobs, and it is an important and conceptually complex variable affecting both employees' satisfaction and performance. The results show (see Tables 8.5; 8.6) that this variable has a negative and a direct effect on employees' satisfaction/performance. The findings in chapter six show that highly educated employees are young. This evidence, also, supports the idea that younger employees with a greater amount of formal education, may be dissatisfied with performing the routine tasks required. This idea was supported by the responses towards the open ended questions (i.e., study questionnaire). The responses indicated that the majority of employees with a higher level of education were unhappy with their work in warehousing. This is because the warehousing job in their perceptions represents the routine job and , in turn, does not fit in with their educational level. Some past studies support the negative effects of education on job satisfaction (Vollmer & Kinney, 1955; Bruce, Bonjean & Williams, 1968; Carrel & Elberts, 1973). However, some others have investigated the indirect positive effects of educational level on JS/JP relationship (e.g., Glenn, Taylor, & Weaver, 1977).

The findings, regarding training, suggest that this variable plays an active role in affecting employees' satisfaction and their performance. The employees who attended more training programmes related to the warehousing job, are high performers and tend to be satisfied with their jobs more than those who have less opportunities to attend training alike.

**Table (8.7)**

Results of Moderated Regression Analysis for Positional Characteristics

Dependent: Job Satisfaction

| Variable | Mul.R | $R^2$ | $\Delta R^2$ | DF | F(step) | Beta |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Job Performance (JP) | 0.614 | 0.377 | 0.377 | 1,265 | 160.36 | 0.69 |
| Length of Service (LS) | 0.699 | 0.489 | 0.112 | 2,264 | 57.86 | 0.40 |
| LS x JP | 0.718 | 0.515 | 0.026 | 3,263 | 14.09 | 0.96 |
| Job Performance (JP) | 0.614 | 0.377 | 0.377 | 1,265 | 160.36 | 0.69 |
| Education Level (EL) | 0.669 | 0.448 | 0.071 | 2,264 | 33.95 | -0.28 |
| EL x JP | 0.672 | 0.451 | 0.003 | 3,263 | 01.44* | -0.27 |
| Job Performance (JP) | 0.614 | 0.377 | 0.377 | 1,265 | 160.36 | 0.69 |
| Pay Level (PL) | 0.694 | 0.482 | 0.105 | 2,264 | 53.51 | 0.36 |
| PL x JP | 0.724 | 0.524 | 0.042 | 3,263 | 23.20 | 1.52 |
| Job Performance (JP) | 0.614 | 0.377 | 0.377 | 1,265 | 160.36 | 0.69 |
| Training | 0.681 | 0.464 | 0.087 | 2,264 | 42.85 | 0.36 |
| Training x JP | 0.684 | 0.468 | 0.004 | 2,263 | 01.97* | 0.41 |
| Job Performance (JP) | 0.614 | 0.377 | 0.377 | 1,265 | 160.36 | 0.69 |
| Job Position | 0.617 | 0.380 | 0.003 | 2,264 | 01.27* | -0.06 |
| Job Position x JP | 0.634 | 0.401 | 0.021 | 3,263 | 9.22** | -0.61 |

* Insignificant

**P<.01

Table (8.8)
Results of Moderated Regression Analysis for Employees' Characteristics
Dependent: Job performance

| Variable | Mul.R | $R^2$ | $\Delta R^2$ | df | F(step) | Beta |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Job Satisfaction (JS) | .614 | .377 | .377 | 1,265 | 160.36 | .69 |
| Length of Service (LS) | .617 | .381 | .004 | 2,264 | 001.70 | .08 |
| JS x LS | .617 | .381 | .000 | 3,263 | 000.04 | .06 |
| Job Satisfaction (JS) | .614 | .377 | .377 | 1,265 | 160.36 | .69 |
| Education level (EL) | .620 | .384 | .007 | 2,264 | 003.00 | .06 |
| JS x EL | .621 | .385 | .001 | 3,263 | 000.79 | -.15 |
| Job Satisfaction (JS) | .614 | .377 | .377 | 1,265 | 160.36 | .69 |
| Pay Level (PL) | .622 | .387 | .010 | 2,264 | 004.30 | .06 |
| JS x PL | .622 | .387 | .000 | 3,263 | 000.02 | .06 |
| Job Satisfaction (JS) | .614 | .377 | .377 | 1,265 | 160.36 | .69 |
| Training (TR) | .625 | .391 | .014 | 2,264 | 006.07* | .13 |
| JS x TR | .627 | .393 | .002 | 3,263 | 000.86 | -.41 |
| Job Satisfaction (JS) | .614 | .377 | .377 | 1,265 | 160.36 | .69 |
| Job Position (JN) | .624 | .389 | .012 | 2,264 | 005.18* | -.11 |
| JS x JN | .624 | .389 | .000 | 3,263 | 000.04 | .04 |
| Job satisfaction (JS) | .614 | .377 | .377 | 1,265 | 160.36 | .69 |
| Age | .623 | .388 | .011 | 2,264 | 004.74* | .09 |
| JS x Age | .623 | .388 | .000 | 3,263 | 000.00 | .02 |
| Job satisfaction (JS) | .614 | .377 | .377 | 1,265 | 160.36 | .69 |
| No.of Dependents (DP) | .618 | .382 | .005 | 2,264 | 002.13 | -.08 |
| JS x DP | .618 | .382 | .000 | 3,263 | 000.29 | .12 |
| Job Satisfaction (JS) | .614 | .377 | .377 | 1,265 | 160.36 | .69 |
| Sex | .618 | .382 | .005 | 2,264 | 002.13 | -.08 |
| JS x Sex | .619 | .383 | .001 | 3,263 | 000.43 | -.10 |
| Job satisfaction (JS) | .614 | .377 | .377 | 1,265 | 160.36 | .69 |
| marital Status (MS) | .614 | ,377 | .000 | 2,264 | 000.00 | .003 |
| JS x MS | .615 | .378 | .001 | 3,263 | 000.42 | .20 |

* P<.05

Finally, moderated regression analysis is performed when JP is used as a dependent variable and JS as an independent variable and positional characteristics are used as potential moderator variables. The findings (see Table 8.8) confirmed that length of service, educational level, and employees' pay level do not contribute in a meaningful way in job performance variance over the contribution of job satisfaction. Training and job position level, on the other hand, contributed in 1% variance over the contribution of job satisfaction.The contribution of the last two variables, though statistically significant, but show a weak contribution (Training $F=5.40$, $df=2,264$, $p<.05$; job position $F=6.04$, $df=2,264$, $P<.05$).

Job satisfaction is then stronger predictor for employees performance than positional characteristics variables, while most variables are acting as independent variables on JP/JS relationship.

### 8.4. The Combined Effects on Job Satisfaction/Performance Relationship

In this stage of analysis the researcher focuses on an attempt to detect a possible triple interaction involving performance and two moderator variables in a separate regression equation (The details of this procedure in Cohen & Cohen, 1975; Kerlinger & Pedhazur, 1973).

As can be seen from Table (8.9), there are triple interaction effects on the job satisfaction/job performance relationship. The following interaction terms of the combined variables show the moderator effects of these variables: "Education level x job position level x JP"; "education level x LS x JP"; "education level x training x JP"; "Sex x SUP x JP"; "marital status x pay level x JP"; and "WV x age x JP". For example, when job satisfaction was predicted by using both education and position levels, the interaction of these two variables accounted for about 5% of the total JS variance. The addition of "education x position level

x JP" as an interaction term to the prediction equation resulted in Multiple R 0.66 and the change in $R^2$ is 0.33. The F ratio for the partial regression coefficient associated with the interaction of this term indicated the significance of the incremental contribution of this term to explain the variance in the dependent variable (Job satisfaction) (F=10.44, df=3,263, P<.001).

In the same pattern of analysis one can understand the combined effects of other variables in the different regression equations as in Table (8.9). Based on the F values for all triple interaction terms in this table one can reach the following conclusions:

1. Employees' salary and number of dependents do not co-jointly moderate the JS/JP relationship. This is because the F value of the triple interaction term is insignificant (F=1.86, df=3,263).

2. Employees' salary and education level do not co-jointly moderate JS/JP relationship (F=0.85, df=3,263).

3. Employees' salary and their job position level do not co-jointly moderate JS/JP relationship (F=2.60, df=3,263).

4. Perceived rewards and employees' age do not co-jointly moderate the JS-JP relationship (F=2.06, df=3,263).

5. Number of training programmes employees attended and their length of service do not co-jointly moderate the JS/JP relationship ( F=0.53, df=3,263).

6. Supervisory style and marital status do not co-jointly affect the JS/JP relationship.

7. Employees' age and the number of dependents did not co-jointly affect the JS-JP relationship (F=1.89, df=3,263).

8. Perceived rewards and employees' sex interaction with JP explain 5% of the JS variance. This suggests that there is a combined interactive effect of the composite of these variables as moderator in the JS/JP relationship (F=25.51, df=3,263, P<.001).

9. In the same trend, SUP and employees sex co-jointly moderate the JS/JP relationship (F=22.98, df=3,263, P<.001).

10. Education level and LS co-jointly moderate the JS/JP relationship (F=10.44, df=3,263, P<.001).

11. Training and educational level co-jointly moderate the JS/JP relationship (F=12.92, df=3,263, P<.001).

12. Job position level and education co-jointly moderate the JS/JP relationship (F=10.44, df=3,263, P<.001).

13. Work values and employees' age moderate the JS/JP relationship. However, this moderating effect is not in a meaningful way ($\Delta R^2$=0.016, F=9.26, df=3,263, P<.01). In the same trends, employees' salary and marital status in their moderating effect on JS/JP relationship ($\Delta R^2$=.016 F=7.58, df=3,263, P<.01).

**Table (8.9)**

Moderated Regression Analysis For The Combined Effects

| Variable | Mul.R. | $R^2$ | $\Delta R^2$ | DF | F(step) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Job performance (JP) | .614 | .337 | .337 | 1,265 | 160.36 |
| Dependents (DP) x Pay Level (PL) | .658 | .433 | .056 | 2,264 | 026.07 |
| JP x DP x PL | .661 | .437 | .004 | 3,263 | 001.86 |
| Job performance (JP) | .614 | .337 | .337 | 1,265 | 160.36 |
| Education (ED) x PL | .618 | .382 | .005 | 2,264 | 002.13 |
| JP x ED x PL | .620 | .384 | .002 | 3,263 | 000.85 |
| Job performance (JP) | .614 | .337 | .337 | 1,265 | 160.36 |
| Job Position Level (JL) x PL | .623 | .388 | .011 | 2,264 | 004.79 |
| JP x JL x PL | .628 | .394 | .006 | 3,263 | 002.60 |
| Job performance | .614 | .337 | .337 | 1,265 | 160.36 |
| Education (ED) x JL | .651 | .424 | .047 | 2,264 | 021.88 |
| JP x ED x JL | .668 | .446 | .022 | 3,263 | 010.44 |

Table (8.9) Continued

| Variable | Mul.R. | $R^2$ | $\Delta R^2$ | DF | F(step) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Job performance | .614 | .337 | .337 | 1,265 | 160.36 |
| Length of Service (LS) x ED | .630 | .397 | .020 | 2,264 | 008.75 |
| JP x LS x ED | .657 | .432 | .035 | 3,263 | 016.27 |
| Job performance | .614 | .337 | .337 | 1,265 | 160.36 |
| Training (TR) x ED | .644 | .415 | .038 | 2,264 | 017.14 |
| JP x TR x ED | .658 | .433 | .028 | 3,263 | 012.92 |
| Job performance | .614 | .337 | .337 | 1,265 | 160.36 |
| Perceived Rewards (PER) x Age | .784 | .615 | .238 | 2,264 | 163.20 |
| JP x PER x Age | .786 | .618 | .003 | 3,263 | 002.06 |
| Job performance | .614 | .337 | .337 | 1,265 | 160.36 |
| Work Values (WV) x Age | .728 | .530 | .153 | 2,264 | 085.94 |
| JP x WV x Age | .739 | .546 | .016 | 3,263 | 009.26 |
| Job performance | .614 | .337 | .337 | 1,265 | 160.36 |
| PER x Sex | .615 | .378 | .001 | 2,264 | 000.42 |
| JP x PER x Sex | .658 | .433 | .055 | 3,263 | 025.51 |
| Job performance | .614 | .337 | .337 | 1,265 | 160.36 |
| Supervisory Style (SUP) x Sex | .615 | .378 | .001 | 2,264 | 000.42 |
| JP x SUP x Sex | .654 | .428 | .050 | 3,263 | 022.98 |
| Job performance | .614 | .337 | .337 | 1,265 | 160.36 |
| TR x LS | .712 | .507 | .130 | 2,264 | 034.32 |
| JP x TR x LS | .713 | .508 | .001 | 3,263 | 000.53 |
| Job performance | .614 | .337 | .337 | 1,265 | 160.36 |
| Marital Status (MS) x SA | .655 | .429 | .052 | 2,264 | 024.04 |
| JP x MS x SA | .667 | .445 | .016 | 3,263 | 007.58 |
| Job performance | .614 | .337 | .337 | 1,265 | 160.36 |
| MS x SUP | .665 | .442 | .065 | 2,264 | 030.75 |
| JP x MS x SP | .671 | .450 | .008 | 3,263 | 003.82 |
| Job performance | .614 | .337 | .337 | 1,265 | 160.36 |
| Age x DP | .663 | .439 | .062 | 2,264 | 029.17 |
| JP x Age x DP | .666 | .443 | .004 | 3,263 | 001.89 |

## 8.5. Identification of The Importance Variables

The separate and combined effects of study variables on JS/JP relationships are found through the moderated regression analysis. Such analysis does not permit the identification of the relative importance of these variables. Thus multivariate analysis has to be used in order to interpret the relative effects of the various variables related to employees' satisfaction or performance. So multiple regression analysis is used to confirm this.

In the first multiple regression equation job satisfaction will regress with study variables as follow: Firstly, from the following three variables: LS, employees' age, and pay level, the LS has been selected and entered to the regression equation instead of the three variables, because these variables are highly correlated with each other (see Table 8.5). This is because, these highly correlation affects the regression equation. In addition, from the marital status and number of dependents variables, the latter has been selected to enter the regression equation. Secondly, including the seven JCH dimensions separately in the regression equation. This is due to the fact that JCH is highly correlated with job satisfaction (see Table 8.1). Therefore the seven dimensions of job characteristics (i.e., variety, friendship opportunity, degree of autonomy, task-significance, performance feedback, dealing with other people, and learning opportunity) entered to the regression equation in order to identify which of these characteristics affects and causes job satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

From the tabulated results in (8.10), one can see that seven variables, in Beta column, are found to have a statistically significant influence on job satisfaction. These variables are: PER, SUP, degree of autonomy, feedback on performance, LS, task-significance, and learning opportunity. The first three of these variables have the strongest influence on employees' satisfaction, while the other four variables have a relative importance in their effects. Though this influence is statistically significant, it does not reveal a meaningful variance in

the prediction of job satisfaction.

The beta column (standardized regression coefficient) in Table (8.9) show the first strongest variable (PER) is .35 (F=96.75, P<.001), which means a difference of one standard deviation in PER (independent variables) is predicted to cause a difference of .35 standard deviation in job satisfaction. The subjects with lower scores on PER are predicted to have a lower score in JS. This is because of the positive coefficient. This result suggests that the employees who are reporting that the rewards in warehousing (i.e., promotion, fringe benefits, encouragement, recognition, etc.) are high, would be more satisfied with their job than those employees who have got a lower perception of these rewards. So PER has the strongest impacts on employees' satisfaction. These findings are consistent with many studies in this field, which have reported that overall JS is influenced by how satisfied employees are with both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards they receive from their job (Vroom, 1964; Lawler, 1971, 1981).

The Beta for SUP is .28 (F=96.18, P<.001). This means a difference of one standard deviation in supervisory style is predicted to cause or influence a difference of .28 standard deviation in JS. Also, the coefficient is positive; this means a high score in SUP is predicted to have a high score in JS and vice versa. This result suggests that high participative and considerate supervisory style in warehousing will lead to high satisfaction.

Based on the Betas' differences, the third strongest variable which causes employees' satisfaction or dissatisfaction was the degree of autonomy at work. The Beta coefficient of degree of autonomy is .20 (F=29.49, P<.001). This means a higher degree of autonomy at work would lead to a lower degree of dissatisfaction. In other words, employees who feel that they have a higher amount of freedom in their jobs (i.e. independent thought and action) are expected to be more satisfied with their jobs.

The feedback on performance, also influences employees' satisfaction.

The Beta of this variable (Beta= .16. F=13.40, P<.001) indicates that employees are like to be satisfied if they receive feedback of their work. In other words, employees who have a positive attitude towards the of feedback provided by their supervisors or from the work itself for the improvement of the work performance are most likely to be more satisfied with the jobs they are performing.

**Table (8-10)**
Results of Multiple Regression (standardized coefficient) For Job Satisfaction

| Independent Variables | Beta | F | P |
|---|---|---|---|
| Work Values | 0.02 | 00.94 | N.S. |
| Supervisory Style | 0.28 | 96.18 | P<.001 |
| Perceived Rewards | 0.35 | 96.75 | P<.001 |
| Job Position | -0.008 | 00.15 | N.S. |
| Length of Service | -0.10 | 08.40 | P<.01 |
| Education Level | -0.03 | 02.20 | N.S. |
| Training | 0.01 | 00.34 | N.S. |
| Dealing With Other | 0.001 | 00.06 | N.S. |
| Variety | 0.03 | 02.17 | N.S. |
| Task-Significance | 0.12 | 06.81 | P<.01 |
| Friendship Opportunity | -0.04 | 02.48 | N.S. |
| Learning Opportunity | 0.11 | 4.01 | P<.05 |
| Feedback on Performance | 0.16 | 13.40 | P<.001 |
| Degree of Autonomy | 0.20 | 29.49 | P<.001 |
| No. of Dependents | 0.004 | 00.03 | N.S. |
| Sex | -0.02 | 00.74 | N.S. |

Multiple R=0.77 $R^2$=0.60 (Adjusted $R^2$=0.58)
N=267 df=16,250

On this basis one can conclude that positive rewards perceptions, high quality of considerate and participative supervisory styles, high degree of autonomy, more positive feedback on performance, will all contribute to greater job satisfaction.

The most effective variables on employees' performance were identified by regressing job performance with the study variables as has been done in the first regression equation. The results are reported in Table (8.11).

Beta column shows that five variables have a significant influence on employees, performance. These variables are: Degree of autonomy, SUP, task-significance, job position level, and training programmes. Both the degree of autonomy and SUP appear to have the strongest influence on employees' performance, while the other three variables have a less effect on JP as compared with these two variables. As shown from the values of the standardized regression coefficient, a Beta for degree of autonomy of .39 ($F=14.63$, $P<.001$) means that one standard deviation difference in this variable is predicted to cause a difference of .39 standard deviation in JP. The subjects who feel that they have a high degree of autonomy in their job are most likely to be high performers. Therefore, a high score of autonomy can cause a high score in performance.

The second strongest variable was the SUP. A Beta coefficient of .25 ($F=10.16$, $P<.001$) means that employees who are working under a high considerate and participative supervisory style, are expected to have a high score in their performance.

The other three variables which represent the relative important variables in causing or influencing employees' performance are: task-significance, job position, and training programmes. The Beta coefficient for these variables are: 0.11 ($F=5.66$, $P<.05$); -0.13 ($F=4.91$, $P<.05$); 0.11 ($F=4.45$, $P<.05$) respectively. The negative sign for the Beta of job position level appears as a

result of the data coding implemented (i.e., high position level gets lower score and vice versa). So, high job position levels have a higher JP score and low job positions have a lower JP score. These results mean that employees who have high job position levels would be higher producers than those with low position levels.

**Table (8.11)**
Results of Multiple Regression Analysis (standardised coefficient) for Job Performance

| Independent Variables | Beta | F | P |
|---|---|---|---|
| Work Values | 0.05 | 00.65 | N.S. |
| Supervisory Style | 0.25 | 10.16 | P<.001 |
| Perceived Rewards | -0.05 | 00.30 | N.S. |
| Job Position | -0.13 | 04.91 | P<.05 |
| Education Level | 0.02 | 00.15 | N.S. |
| Training | 0.11 | 04.45 | P<.05 |
| Dealing with other | -0.01 | 00.57 | N.S. |
| Variety | 0.03 | 00.39 | N.S |
| Task-significance | 0.11 | 05.66 | P<.05 |
| Friendship opportunity | 0.02 | 00.13 | N.S. |
| Learning opportunity | -0.01 | 00.02 | N.S. |
| Feedback on Performance | 0.009 | 00.02 | N.S. |
| Degree of Autonomy | 0.39 | 14.63 | P<.001 |
| No. of Dependents | 0.04 | 00.70 | N.S. |
| Sex | -0.01 | 00.09 | N.S |

Multiple R=0.72 $R^2$=0.53 (Adjusted $R^2$=0.50)
N=267 df=16,250

A results of multiple regression analysis in Table (8.10 and 8.11) show a heavy predominance of degree of autonomy over the other variables. This means that employees who feel personally responsible for the work and independent in

their thought and action, will most likely feel that they are responsible for the successful job. This, obviously, affects their attitudes toward the quality and the quantity of their performance. Therefore, a higher degree of autonomy may produce a better performance in terms of quality and quantity.

Based on the first and second regression equation findings one can conclude that the degree of autonomy is the strongest variable affecting employees' satisfaction and performance. The second strongest effecting variable is the SUP. This tends to support the point made earlier that the greatest performance would be influenced by the supervisor who uses his power to help employees achieve their work, communicate and share the information with them, follows an open door policy system, etc. Therefore, greater performance resulted from the permissiveness, democracy, and flexibility in supervision.

### 8.6. Summary and Conclusion

Moderated regression analysis is computed to test the moderating effects of the work values, job characteristics, perceived rewards, and supervisory style on job satisfaction/job performance relationship. The findings indicate that work values, job characteristics, and perceived rewards do not seem to moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. No meaningful variance is accounted for by adding the interaction term ("JP x WV"; "JP x JCH"; JP x PER") to the multiple regression equation except the interaction of "supervisory style x job performance" which contribute in a slightly variance to job satisfaction ($\Delta R^2$=.019, df=3,263, P<.001).

The F values in a hierarchical regression analysis are statistically significant for the four main effects (WV, JCH, SUP, and PER). The F values for testing the partial regression coefficient associated with three and four-way of terms interaction were non-significant of the incremental contribution of these terms to explain any variance in the dependent variables (JS). These results

indicate that the interaction terms in the hierarchical regression equations do not co-jointly moderate the job satisfaction/job performance relationship and do not explain any significant variance in job satisfaction.

When job performance is used in the analysis as a dependent variable to determine the potential role of these variable in the job satisfaction/job performance relationship, the prediction equations of the differences between the multiple Rs are not statistically significant and the interaction terms do not explain any meaningful additional variance in the dependent variable (JP). These results indicated that none of the previous variables play a moderate role in the job satisfaction/job performance relationship when job performance used as an independent variable.

The findings regarding personal characteristics indicate that employees' age and sex act as strong moderators of job satisfaction/job performance relationship. On the other hand, relatively, number of dependents, and marital status play an independent role in this relationship.

As regards positional characteristics, the findings show that the length of service, pay level, and job position level do not appear to have independent influences, and are acting, relatively, as situational moderators of the job satisfaction/job performance relationship. In contrast, educational level and training programmes attended to have an independent influence on this relationship.

From the previous findings one can conclude the following:

-Employees who received low salaries are more dissatisfied with their work, thus this aspect influences their attitudes toward their work and, in turn, effects their performance.

-Employees in different job position levels have different attitudes toward their work. Employees in lower position level are less satisfied with their jobs and, in return, become less performers than employees of higher job position level.

-Employees who have attended more warehousing training programmes are high performers and are satisfied with their jobs than those with less programmes being attended.

Job performance used as a dependent variable, job satisfaction as an independent variable, and employees' characteristics as a potential moderator variables. The moderated regression analysis indicate that the length of service (year of experience), education, and pay level did not contribute in a meaningful way to job performance variance over the contribution of job satisfaction. Whereas training and job position level contributed 1% variance over the contribution of job satisfaction. However, the contribution of the last two variables, though statistically significant, (Training $F=5.40$, $df=2,264$, $p<.05$; job position $F=6.04$, $df=2,264$, $P<.05$) was not meaningful. Job satisfaction seems to be the stronger predictor for employees' performance than the positional characteristics variables, and most variables are relatively acting as independent variables on job satisfaction/job performance relationship

The combined effects on job satisfaction/performance relationship and based on the F values for all triple interaction terms the findings show:

-Employees' pay level and the number of dependents do not co-jointly moderate the job satisfaction/job performance relationship. This is clear from the F values of this triple interaction term which is insignificant ($F=1.86$, $df=3,263$).

-Employees' pay level and education do not co-jointly moderate job satisfaction/job performance relationship ($F=0.85$, $df=3,263$).

-Employees' pay level and their job position level did not affect the job satisfaction/job performance relationship ($F=2.60$, $df=3,263$).

-Perceived rewards and employees' age do not co-jointly moderate the job satisfaction/job performance relationship ($F=2.06$, $df=3,263$).

-The number of training programmes employees attended co-jointly with

length of service do not moderate the job satisfaction/job performance relationship ( F=0.53, df=3,263).

-Supervisory style and marital status do not co-jointly affect the job satisfaction/job performance relationship.

-Employees' age and the number of dependents employees have do not co-jointly affect the job satisfaction/job performance relationship (F=1.89, df=3,263).

-Perceived rewards and employees' sex interacted with job performance and account for 5% of the job satisfaction variance. This suggests that a combined interactive effect of the composite of these variables as moderator on the job satisfaction/job performance relationship (F=25.51, df=3,263, P<.001).

-In the same trend, supervisory style and employees sex co-jointly moderate the job satisfaction/job performance relationship (F=22.98, df=3,263, P<.001).

-Educational level and length of service co-jointly moderate the job satisfaction/job performance relationship ($\Delta R^2$=0.035, F=10.44, df=3,263, P<.001).

-Training and educational level co-jointly moderate the job satisfaction/job performance relationship ($\Delta R^2$=0.028, F=12.92, df=3,263, P<.001).

-Job position level and education co-jointly moderate the job satisfaction/job performance relationship ($\Delta R^2$=0.022, F=10.44, df=3,263, P<.001).

-Work values and employees' age moderate the job satisfaction/job performance relationship, but not in a meaningful way ($\Delta R^2$=0.016, F=9.26, df=3,263, P<.01). In the same trend, employees' pay level and marital status moderate the job satisfaction/job performance relationship ($\Delta R^2$=.016. F=7.58, df=3,263, P<.01).

With regard to the identification of the importance variables in their impact on employees satisfaction, the findings indicated:

-The first and strongest variable which has influenced employees' satisfaction is the perceived rewards. Employees who perceived rewards in warehousing (i.e., promotion, fringe benefits, encouragement, recognition,...etc.) as of greater importance are more satisfied with their jobs than those who valued their rewards as less important.

-Supervisory style was the second strongest variable which has influenced employees' satisfaction. Higher considerate and participative supervisory styles in warehousing the more satisfaction employees will derive. In other words, employees who report they have a considerate and participative supervision in warehousing are most likely to report that they are satisfied with their jobs.

-The third and last strongest variable which has influenced employees satisfaction or dissatisfaction is the degree of autonomy at the work. The higher degree of autonomy at work would lead to less degree of dissatisfaction.

-Feedback on performance has the least influence on employees' satisfaction. Employees who have a positive attitude toward the amount of feedback provided by their supervisors or from the work itself with regard to the improvement of work performance are most likely to be more satisfied with the job they perform.

In conclusion, high perceived rewards, good considerate and participative supervisory style, high degree of autonomy at work, and more positive feedback on performance, all would contribute to greater job satisfaction.

The identification of the important variables, which have the greatest impact on employees' performance, the findings demonstrate that:

-The first strongest variable is the degree of autonomy at work. The subjects who felt that they have a high degree of autonomy in their jobs are most likely to be high performers. Therefore, a high score of autonomy can cause a high score in performance.

-The second strongest variable is the supervisory style. Employees working under high considerate and participative supervisory styles scored higher in their performance.

-Other variables which represent a relative importance in causing employees' performance are: task-significance, job position level, and training programs attended.

# CHAPTER NINE

# SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

## 9.1. Introduction

The question of how to increase work motivation, job satisfaction, job performance and organizational effectiveness becomes a crucial one in the further struggle for the national goal of self-reliance in Iraq. As in most countries, the optimization of job satisfaction and performance is a positive economic goal.

Warehousing is an integral part of the industrial process, which, in turn influences the services and products in each organization. It is organized to assist in the production and distribution of goods or services, and no industrial unit can be efficiently managed without it. The importance of the warehousing function is being increasingly recognized in Iraq and, generally, greater attention is now given to this function. The government is trying to build an industrial base in the country to use natural resources efficiently. The modern industrial sector, with specialized production and increasingly complex products and processes, requires a very high standard of organisation and performance in warehousing. Warehousing is largely inter-dependent in any industry, and any inefficiency, or lack of co-operation with other departments or organisations, will affect the performance of this department.

The commitment of the worker may to some extent boost job performance. Warehousing employees, in particular, look for jobs in which they are treated as human beings, rather than as mere means of production. They prefer jobs in which they can apply their utmost ability and professional knowledge rather than jobs that can only be done routinely.

This chapter summarises the main themes and purposes of the study. The

objectives and the procedure which have been utilised are briefly discussed. Conclusions based on the analysis of the data are presented. Finally, recommendations based on the review of the literature and findings of this study are suggested for further studies and managerial implications.

## 9.2. Purpose of the Study

The study was undertaken to determine the characteristics of job satisfaction and job performance of warehousing employees in Iraqi industrial sector and to identify their relationship in order to suggest ways to improve warehousing management in this sector. Specific objectives were: first, to determine the contribution of certain variables, (e.g., employees' characteristics, job characteristics, work values, perceived rewards, and supervisory style) to job satisfaction and job performance. Second, to determine if a significant relationship exists between job satisfaction and job performance, and to identify what variables are related to this relationship. Finally, to explain this relationship and to examine the effective variables, and what they mean to the warehousing management.

## 9.3. Methodology

This is a field study which analyses cross-sectional data drawn from 267 warehousing workers were employed by the Iraqi Industrial Sector. The main variables are job satisfaction and job performance. These variables were treated as dependent and independent interchangeably throughout the investigation. Job characteristics, work values, supervisory style, perceived rewards and employees' characteristics were treated as independent variables.

The sample who participated in this study was drawn from 32 of the 103 large-scale manufacturing companies. Subjects were selected from warehousing employees in a non-probability convenience sample design.

The analysis was based on a sample of 267 employees from the various large-scale manufacturing companies (i.e., foodstuffs, textile, chemical, engineering, construction and medical).

The instruments used to gather data consist of six different types of statements (job satisfaction, job characteristics, work values, perceived rewards, job performance, and employees' characteristics (Appendix I). These statements are fully structured and undisguised. The purpose of these particular divisions is to improve the ease of self-administration for the respondent, and to ensure that the questions provide additional incentive to respond.

The validity of data collected by the above instruments is found for each one (as described in Chapter 4). The internal consistency reliability of the previous statements, except the survey of employees' characteristics (i.e., part one) is determined by measuring the Alpha Model (Chornbach $\alpha$). The reliability coefficient covers out as follows: extrinsic job satisfaction $\alpha$= 0.89, intrinsic job satisfaction $\alpha$= 0.94, job performance $\alpha$=0.96, job characteristics $\alpha$= 0.93, work values $\alpha$= 0.75, supervisory style $\alpha$= 0.95, and perceived rewards $\alpha$=0.92.

Numerous statistical techniques were employed in the data analysis. The mean, percentile, crosstabulation, Chi-square values $X^2$, Pearson-Product moment correlation coefficient, and Analysis of Variance were computed. Furthermore, Factor Analysis was used to measure general variables or factors underlying a large set of variables in job satisfaction, work values, supervisory style, and perceived rewards measurements. Multivariate techniques are used to determine the interaction effects and the main effect of study variables on job satisfaction/job performance relationship.

### 9.4. Summary of the Major Findings

Significant relationships have been identified between (I) job satisfaction and job performance, (II) job satisfaction-job performance and personal

characteristics, work values, perceived rewards and supervisory style of warehousing employees whose job satisfaction and performance were investigated in this study.

The results of the data analysis in Chapters 5, 6, 7 and 8 are summarized in the following sections.

### 9.4.1. General Findings

The results of the job satisfaction questionnaire show that the highest means were obtained on scale items co-workers, social service. This suggests that warehousing employees are satisfied with the "way their co-workers get along with each other" (co-workers), and the chance they have to do things for other people (social service). On the other hand, they are less satisfied with advancement, social status, ability utilization, working image, and compensation. Job satisfaction aspects were factor analyzed using Kaiser normalization criterion which confirmed that the items selected as measure for specific constructs do load in that factor. Two factors were extracted. Factor one represents satisfaction related to the extrinsic aspects of the work, whereas factor two appeared to represent satisfaction related to intrinsic aspects of the work. The scale loading is higher in factor one (eigenvalue = 13.2, percent of variance = 60.2), than in factor two (eigenvalue = 2.1, percent of variance = 9.6). This means that the warehousing employees' satisfaction is composed primarily of satisfaction with extrinsic and then with intrinsic aspects of their job.

As far as work values were concerned, the findings indicated values which are most important to the employees. With regard to the kind of job they would most like to have, employees expressed the desire: (1) to act independently in thought and action, (2) to pursue a high income (salary increases) and (3) to gain respect and social status. As for the least important values, the employees

emphasised the proper working conditions and the assurances of being able to maintain their jobs. The statement of eighteen work value items has been factor analysed by using Kaiser normalization criterion. Six of the eighteen items have high loadings in more than one factor. These factors are: (1) extrinsic environmental values, (2) intrinsic psychological values, (3) social or relational values, (4) challenge values, (5) comfort or convenience values and (6) financial values. The eigenvalues of these six factors are: 4.21, 2.98, 1.73, 1.67, 1.16, and 1.00 respectively, and the percentages of variance are: 23.4, 16.5, 9.6, 9.3, 6.5, 5.6. This indicates that factors one and two are the most effective.

As regards perceived rewards, the data appeared to support that employees agree with the promotional system in warehousing, but they disagree with encouragement and recognition they deserve for performing a good job. The intercorrelation among the perceived rewards scales was factor analysed by means of a principle components solution. This is an attempt to discover any "higher-order" dimensions of the rewards that may account more closely for the covariation among them. A single factor solution was obtained of 62.7 % of the total variance. This suggests that these dimensions are most usefully considered as constituting separate dimensions, which could be a source of job satisfaction.

Regarding supervisory style, the results of the means, Wilcoxon test and factor analysis indicate that there is no significant differences in warehousing employees responses regarding considerate (e.g. mutual trust, respect, friendship, handling of complaints and opnness) and participative (i.e. democratic) supervisory style.

Job characteristics (degree of autonomy, dealing with other people, performance feedback, task-significance, learning opportunity, variety, and friendship opportunity) consist of core and interpersonal dimensions. The results of the analysis showed that the largest amount of characteristics appears in the

interpersonal dimensions, while, on the whole, the smallest number appears in the core dimensions.

Employees' performance was evaluated by their immediate supervisors in relation to: quantity, quality, ability, efforts, knowledge, initiative, personality, accepting supervision, sincerity, cooperation, job understanding, and leadership potentiality. Employees appear to be high performers, even though they are dissatisfied with many aspects of their jobs.

The responses to the two open-ended questions revealed some kind of enthusiasm in the employees, but in certain instances, employees expressed their frustrations associated with:

1. Confusion as to their authority (role ambiguity). Staff from other departments interfering in their jobs would undoubtedly lead to less chance of working alone with enough degree of freedom.

2. The pressure of the job and repetitious tasks, which cause boredom and consequently influences their job attitudes. Some of the employees believe that manual work in warehousing is a source of boredom, and the employment of more advanced facilities such as a computer system would assist in the job and increase efficiency.

3. The fewer chances for advancement with opportunities to do things for other people. This is inconsistent with their responses regarding having work where they have to do things for other people (social service). This inconsistency could result from the fact that they do not deal with many people directly even though they do work for other people.

4. They are not fully using their abilities. This is consistent with their responses towards "ability utilisation", and indicates that they are not much satisfied with this intrinsic aspect in their jobs.

5. Lack of working image. A warehousing job does not give them status in the organisation or in the in the community.

6. Extra responsibilities with old and unused material. This affects

employees' attitudes negatively since it implies that they are doing meaningless jobs with more responsibility.

7. Complains about work in warehousing. Some of the responses indicated that female subjects complained about work, which is not conducive to their physical abilities.

### 9.4.2. Relationship of Job satisfaction-job Performance and Employees' Characteristics

The Chi-square values indicate that a statistically significant relationship at the $P<.001$ confidence level exists between job satisfaction and employees' characteristics. Analysis of variance (ANOVA), which was also computed, confirmed these relationships:

1. Employees' age is positively related to job satisfaction and job performance. Younger employees are less satisfied and perform less than the middle and old aged employees; in the same trend, appeared the relationship between job satisfaction and length of service and positional levels.

2. Female employees less satisfied with their intrinsic/extrinsic job aspects and perform less than their male counterparts.

3. Unmarried employees are less satisfied than married employees with their job in warehousing , although no difference appeared in their performance.

4. Pay is positively related to job satisfaction and job performance. The lowest paid employees tend to have low levels of satisfaction and low productivity, and vice versa.

5. The level of education is negatively related to job satisfaction and performance. Employees with high level of education were less satisfied with their jobs and less productive than employees with low levels of education.

6. Employees who have no responsibility for dependents (i.e., Children and Relatives) were less satisfied and performed less than the employees who are

responsible for a number of dependents.

7. Training is positively related to job satisfaction and job performance. Employees who attended training programmes in warehousing are more productive and better satisfied than those who did not. The number of training programmes attended affects the degree of employees' satisfaction and performance positively.

8. Employees who were initially employed in warehousing, were relatively, more satisfied than employees who were transferred from other departments or organisations. Furthermore, the employees who were initially recruited in warehousing plan to continue in their employment, while those who transferred preferred to move to other departments or organisations. On the other hand, there was no difference in employees' performance with regard to the method of placement in warehousing (i.e., initial employment).

9. No differences were found in employees' satisfaction and performance as regards the sectors they work with.

### 9.4.3. Employees' Reaction to Work values, Job Characteristics, and Supervisory Style

**Work values**

In relation to job satisfaction the study showed:

1. A strong positive relationship was found with environmental values (factor one) compared with other factors (Extrinsic $r=0.69$, $P<.001$; Intrinsic $r=0.61$, $P<.001$; overall $r=0.67$, $P<.001$). This implies that more employees agree with the importance of values concerning supervision, recognition, company policies, and job security and, therefore, will be more satisfied with their jobs.

2. A positive weak to moderate relationship appeared with intrinsic psychological and relational (social) values (factor 1: extrinsic $r=0.27$, $P<.01$; intrinsic $r= 0.22$, $P<.01$; overall job satisfaction $r=0.24$, $P<.01$, Factor 3:

intrinsic r=0.21, P<.01, overall r=0.16, P<.05). In other word, employees who perceived the responsibility in their job, moral values and authority (factor 2), as well as the social status, and relationship with co-workers (factor 3) to be very important, were more satisfied than those who placed little importance on these values.

As for Job performance the findings showed:

1. Employees who perceived extrinsic environmental and intrinsic psychological values as very important were higher performers in terms of quantity, quality, efforts and overall job performance.

2. A relational value influences the employees' overall performance. However, in practice terms employees in warehousing look for other values and needs instead of, for example, changing working conditions or creating the opportunity to build a relationship among the employees to perform well.

With reference to employees' characteristics, the findings showed:

1. A moderate to weak relationship appeared between age, training programmes attended, length of service, educational level and salary with the instrument of intrinsic psychological values and extrinsic environmental values.

2. No differences between male and female regarding relational (social), challenge, comfort and financial values, but significant values regarding extrinsic environmental values are placed by males only.

**Job characteristics**

The data appeared to confirm that employees' satisfaction is a function of higher job characteristics. The relationship with core dimension is higher than interpersonal dimensions. This implies that with more intrinsic aspects of satisfaction, employees tend to see their jobs being higher in characteristics such as degree of autonomy, variety, feedback on performance, opportunity for learning and task-significance. By contrast, relatively a weak relationship appeared between job satisfaction and interpersonal characteristics (e.g.,

friendship opportunities and dealing with other people). This means that for employees who have less need for intrinsic satisfaction such as growth and development, the presence of certain external characteristics (i.e., interpersonal dimensions) may be necessary to increase their satisfaction. The study clearly demonstrate and support the effects of job characteristics on satisfaction.

In relation to job performance, the data showed that employees who felt their jobs being higher in terms of the degree of autonomy, variety, feedback on performance and task-significance tended to be more effective performers.

In relation to individual differences, the findings showed:

1. Employees differ in describing their job characteristics in relation of their length of service. Employees who served longer considered that the characteristics of their job to be higher than those who have served less. This trend of relationship is the same with employees' age, as well as the training programmes attended.

2. There was no difference in the perception of job characteristics by employees who were initially employed in warehousing or those who transferred from other departments or organisations.

3. A negative weak relationship showed up between educational level and job characteristics. Employees with high education level report that their jobs are lower in autonomy, learning opportunities, task-significant, and variety.

**Supervisory style**

The focus was placed, in this study, on specific aspects of supervision: participative and considerate supervisory styles. The study appeared to confirm that supervisory style has a positive effect on employees' satisfaction and performance. This implies that when supervisors are effective in planning, organizing, sharing employees' work and personal problems and decision making consistently and decisively, they are more likely to have a more positive effect on employees' attitudes and productivity.

Regarding individual differences the findings showed:

1. A strong positive relationship appeared between age and supervision. This means that the older the employees the more positive they are in their evaluation of supervision.

2. A negative weak relationship showed up with regard to employees' sex. This confirms the interpretation that female subjects are more sensitive in evaluation of supervisory style than male subjects. However, bad supervision can be a primary reason for job dissatisfaction for both male and female subjects.

3. A weak to moderate positive relationship was found between marital status and a number of dependents with supervisory style. This indicates that married employees with a number of dependents are more sensitive to good supervision than those who are single and without dependents. It means also that the employees with family responsibility feel more necessity for supervisory approval.

4. A negative moderate relationship appeared between education level and supervisory style, which suggests that supervision is relatively less important to employees with a higher level of education. This relates to the fact that employees with high levels of education feel they have a tendency to handle wrong things with their particular supervisory structure.

### 9.4.4. Job Satisfaction/Job Performance Relationship

When job satisfaction was used as dependent variable, the data indicated that work values, job characteristics, and perceived rewards do not moderate the relationship between job performance and job satisfaction. Almost no meaningful variance is accounted for by adding the interaction term (job performance x work values; job performance x job characteristics; job performance x perceived rewards) to the multiple regression equation, except the interaction of

supervisory style x job performance which contributes in a slight variance to job satisfaction ($\Delta R^2$=.019, df=3,263, P<.001).

A hierarchical regression analysis appeared to confirm these findings. The F values are statistically significant for the four main effects. Whereas, the F values for testing the partial regression coefficient associated with interaction terms in the three and four-way interaction are not significant of the incremental contribution of these terms in explaining any variance in the dependent variables (job satisfaction). These results indicate that the interaction terms in the hierarchical regression equations do not co-jointly moderate the job satisfaction/job performance relationship and do not explain any meaningful variance in job satisfaction.

When job performance was used, in the analysis, as a dependent variable to determine the potential role of these variables in the job satisfaction /job performance relationship, the prediction equations of the differences between the multiple Rs are not statistically significant. The interaction terms do not explain any meaningful additional variance in the dependent variable (job performance). The results suggested that none of the previous variables (i.e., work values, perceived rewards, and job characteristics) play a moderate role in the job satisfaction/job performance relationship when job performance is used as an independent variable.

As far as personal characteristics were concerned, the results of the analysis showed that employees' age and sex act as strong moderators of job satisfaction/job performance relationship, While, number of dependents, and marital status play an independent role in this relationship.

Regarding the positional characteristics, length of service, pay and job position levels did not appear to have independent influences. These variables are acting as situational moderators of the job satisfaction/job performance relationship, while educational level and number of training programmes appeared to have an independent influence on this relationship.

Using job performance as a dependent variable, job satisfaction as an independent variable, and positional/personal characteristics as a potential moderator variables, the findings of the analysis indicated that the length of service, educational level and employees' salary do not contribute in a meaningful way to job performance variance over the contribution of job satisfaction. On the other hand, training and job position level contribute 1% variance over the contribution of job satisfaction. However, the contribution of the last two variables, though statistically significant, (Training $F=5.40$, $df=2,264$, $p<.05$; job position $F=6.04$, $df=2,264$, $P<.05$) were found to have a weak and meaningless contribution.

In conclusion, the above findings suggest that job satisfaction is a stronger predictor for employees' performance than the positional characteristics variables, and most variables (i.e., positional characteristics) act as independent variables on job performance/job satisfaction relationship.

The analysis of the data, in relation to individual differences, fails to show a significant combined effect on job satisfaction/performance relationship in all the triple interaction terms of, the employees' salary and the number of dependents ($F=1.86$, $df=3,263$); employees' salary and education level ($F=0.85$, $df=3,263$); employees' salary and their job position level ($F=2.60$, $df=3,263$); perceived rewards and employees' age ($F=2.06$, $df=3,263$); training programmes employees attended and their length of service ($F=0.53$, $df=3,263$). All of these combined interaction terms do not co-jointly moderate the job satisfaction/job performance relationship. However, the following show a significant combined effect on the job satisfaction/job performance relationships. Perceived rewards and employees' sex interacting with job performance explains 5% of the job satisfaction variance. This suggests a combined interactive effect of the composite of these variables as moderator on the job satisfaction /job performance relationship ($F=25.51$, $df=3,263$, $P<.001$). In the same taken,

supervisory style and employees' sex (F=22.98, df=3,263, P<.001); education level and length of service ($\Delta R^2$=0.035, F=10.44, df=3,263, P<.001); training and education level ($\Delta R^2$=0.028, F=12.92, df=3,263, P<.001); education and job position level ($\Delta R^2$=0.022, F=10.44, df=3,263, P<.001), and to a degree, work values and employees age ($\Delta R^2$=0.016, F=9.26, df=3,263, P<.01), and employees' salary and martial status ($\Delta R^2$=.016. F=7.58, df=3,263, P<.01) moderate the job satisfaction/job performance relationship, but not in a meaningful way.

Some variables are more important than others in terms of their influence on employees' satisfaction and performance. With regard to the variables and their importance to job satisfaction, the study showed that perceived rewards was appeared first in importance followed by supervisory style, autonomy at work, and then feedback on performance.

With regard to the identification of the important variables which have the greatest influence on employees' performance, the findings showed that degree of autonomy at work and supervisory style had the greatest impact on employees' performance. The other variables, which represent relatively important influence are: task-significance, job position level and training programs attended.

## 9.5. Conclusions

The Iraqi industrial organisations are now emphasising hard work, workers' participation, and participative/considerate leadership style in an effort to develop an attitude of self reliance and self-sufficiency in workers. However, high job satisfaction and high performance must go hand in hand. Of particular importance, in this aspect, is the optimisation of the endogenous variables of job satisfaction and job performance.

Among the extrinsic satisfiers, compensation was found to be valuable for

employees in warehousing. Apart from its importance for the exchange of goods and service, money was also considered as a factor that leads to recognition or prestige, and a mark of achievement and social status as well. Nevertheless, warehousing employees are more influenced in terms of job satisfaction by other aspects of motivation such as ability utilisation, recognition, independency and social status than by purely monetary consideration. Employees with high ability are dissatisfied with a job that does not allow for full application of their talents. Also an employee who is prepared for a certain kind of job would not be happy if he was assigned to a different kind of position.

Data showed that positive leadership style, positive job characteristics (e.g., degree of autonomy, feedback on performance, task-significance), and perceived rewards have a strong effect on job satisfaction. The effect of the exogenous factors latent on job performance were relatively similar.

A greater a mount of positive job characteristics seem, to a certain degree, to cause higher job satisfaction and performance. Even though, effort to increase satisfaction and performance should be made by identifying determinants other than only job characteristics, for example, the data of this study showed that reward system has a potential effect on job satisfaction and job performance relationship. Both extrinsic and intrinsic incentives need to be integrated in a sound and feasible reward system. Then the strength of job satisfaction/performance relationship is likely to increase. The stronger this relationship is, the more effective the organisation is in distributing rewards differentially.

In a broader life and career perspective, employees need to see worthwhile future with continuous opportunities for personal growth, development and career advancements that are beneficial to both the individual employee and to the organisation. In this sense, education and training opportunities become essential part of today's employees. The study showed that there was a positive relationship between training and job satisfaction-performance, and a negative

relationship between education and job satisfaction-performance. Opportunities for personal development and advancement related to work seem to play a greater role in enhancing job satisfaction and performance and, will probably play an even greater role in the future. But training/ advancement aspect is only a part of the whole reward and advancement system of an organisation. Even job characteristics can be considered as a part of the rewards structure, and parts of mostly intrinsic incentives. Therefore, these factors lead to conclusive statement: There are a number of extrinsic and intrinsic kind of work incentives that can be developed and used to enhance job satisfaction, job performance, and their interrelationship.

Much effort should be put into improving job characteristics, reward system, and the style of supervision applied. Since Job characteristics is the most important determinant of employees' satisfaction and performance, focus should be on job design and redesign of warehousing activities, including the technique of job enrichment, as a management strategy, to matching either needs with job characteristics or changing job characteristics to fit employees' needs, needs that influence employees' satisfaction level. In many aspects, such as optimum variety of tasks within a job, scope for setting quantity-quality standard, feedback on performance, and high degree of autonomy emphasising that warehousing jobs should include some degree of care, skill, knowledge, or efforts that are respected in the other departments and in the community. As mentioned in the literature review, theorists and researchers have argued that one way to increase employees' satisfaction and performance is by "enriching" the employees' job. Job enrichment seeks to improve both employees' satisfaction and performance by including greater scope for personal achievement and recognition. Thus job should design to restructure jobs with the intent of making it more challenging, motivating, and satisfying to the individual. The emphasis on job enrichment is caused, in part, by the fact that today's employees tend to

bring more abilities, higher expectations, and greater desire for self-responsibility to the work place than did their predecessors (Walton, 1972). Thus, warehousing tasks should be designed in such a way as to provide some image of an overall task, a task of some obvious significance, and allow the employees to use their abilities in more challenging task with a certain degree of autonomy. For instance, the evidence shows that when people exercise their capacities for decision making and responsibility, and performing a job that is meaningful to them, this positively influences their behaviour and, in turn, influences their performance. On this basis, the change involves job enrichment techniques which may be adopted to improve the opportunities for autonomy, variety, feedback, task-significance and other characteristics (core dimensions). This change must go hand in hand with the change in the style of supervision to get the potential benefits of the organisational goals. This study has provided evidence that supervisory style has a major impact on employees' satisfaction and performance. Managers (or supervisors) should understand the particular styles of supervision they adopt for their subordinates in warehousing and its consequences. If the objective is to create an organisational climate of satisfied employees, then a participative and considerate style of supervision should be adopted to inspire warehousing employees working together as a team. It seems, from the findings, that warehousing employees are more satisfied and perform much better when the supervisors give serious consideration to what they have to say, give advance notice of changes, show competence in making decisions, ask them for suggestions and advice for work development. A positive supervisory style enriches job satisfaction as motivator by overshading its opposite, employees' dissatisfaction. As discussed earlier, Herzberg's theory stipulates that job content factors "motivators" are responsible for job satisfaction, whereas job context "hygiene" factors induce job dissatisfaction - this theory has been supported by earlier cross-cultural studies (Bhagat & McQuaid, 1982).

All in all, the most important aspect is the attempt to involve employees by giving them an increased sense that warehousing jobs give them more responsibility, achievements, ability utilisation, the feeling of doing things for other people and a higher degree of autonomy. It is, in fact, the management's responsibility to acquire the ability to analyse the situation in warehousing and to consider employees' feelings and their needs. On this basis it can choose the best possible course of action.

### 9.6. Managerial Implications

Since the data is cross-sectional and the sample is limited to warehousing departments, generalisations about the findings must be made with caution. The results, nevertheless, have implications for developing managerial strategies. Perhaps the most useful question is *what can one learn from this study*? For responsible management a more pressing question is *what will be the attempt in deciding what can be done*?

The findings showed a relationship between various selected variables and job satisfaction, job performance, which indicates the importance of structuring the warehousing job to provide important and meaningful work for the employees. Efforts at improving this job must be done with consideration for the differences between job enlargement (more tasks) and job enrichment (more meaningful tasks). It is true that warehousing jobs, as with all other jobs, can never have all mundane tasks removed. Thus, the structuring of the job should depend on the ground findings of this study.

From the findings it appeared that number of personal and positional characteristics are found to have an impact on job satisfaction or job performance, for example, age, training, education level, length of service and job position level. Further, employees' age, length of service, pay level and positional level appeared to be positively correlated with each other, and have a

large impact on job satisfaction and job performance as well. So, maintaining the quality of employees in the organisation for a long period of time (length of service) has often been recognized as a key to the success of a company. In this respect, greater understanding of the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover could provide assistance in this area. Identification of this topic as a priority item in many organisations and studies, which were being conducted by many researchers, would provide additional insight in warehousing areas.

The relationship between education and job satisfaction-performance indicated that highly educated employees achieve lower performance levels and are less satisfied in warehousing work. Employees in this study may have found that a warehousing job fails to present an adequate challenge for them and, thus, perhaps not intrinsically satisfying. This may account for the fact that highly educated employees tend to be over-trained especially in the beginning of their careers. So, high qualifications for warehousing jobs are perhaps unnecessary, and recruitment in the future should consider employees in whom there is compatibility of qualification and abilities with the needs of the job. Consideration must be given to the relationship between job requirements and the readiness of the employees who are supposed to do the job. Assigning a job to the wrong person will result in job dissatisfaction and inefficient job performance.

Since job satisfaction influences job performance, and because the importance warehousing employees place on their jobs (work values), management should aim for an organisation of employees who consider the job important. This can be accomplished through better screening and selection practices. This would identify employees who would use the job as a means of self-actualization and/or esteem, as well as a place for important social interaction (Locke 1970).

Finally, warehousing management should become familiar with appropriate research in an effort to know exactly what problems warehousing employees face

in a work place, and what can be done to improve their productivity and secure an optimum relationship between job satisfaction and job performance.

Such guidelines are presented in an attempt to form a bridge between theory and practice in the warehousing management area. The tentative nature of these comments must be stressed. Previous outlined limitations of the research upon which these implications were developed should be kept in mind when considering the relevance of these comments for a particular job situation.

This research has shed light on the warehousing employees' job satisfaction and job performance relationship, even though it has not thoroughly exhausted all the aspects of the topic. Future research would undoubtedly contribute to a more comprehensive understanding.

### 9.7. Directions for Future Research

Although the issues addressed in this study are numerous (given the nature of data and methodology), new questions were raised and certain limitations were encountered. In addition, as with many research projects, a certain degree of measurement error was encountered. Although the measurements were selected carefully and treated with extreme caution, several of the measures could be improved, including those for perceived rewards and work values. Any future study of this type will enhance the results of the present study and improve the validity and reliability of the measures. However, several ideas and questions are encountered as to how this research could be improved or extended in further studies. For example, would the results of this study be the same in a warehouse setting, if it is replicated over time? Would the results be the same if the job redesign was applied and put into practice in warehousing? On this basis, much work remains to be done and many questions must be answered. These answers will lead to questions that have not yet been asked. The following recommendations attempts to provide some guideline for future research endeavors.

1. An investigation should be made to ascertain if improvement in satisfaction would result in a decrease in turnover or absenteeism for this group of warehousing employees.

2. Following up warehousing employees who were transferring to other departments or organisations (i.e., to different work settings) in a further study would reveal some meaningful findings. It would be interesting to find out the change in their level of satisfaction, vocational needs, description of the new job and their level of performance.

3. Other mediating factors, including some cultural aspects like religion, urban-rural background, and political aspects, might exist. These represent important differences in motivational predispositions to the task which is strengthened by consideration of how employees' individual characteristics (e.g., age, education, training, etc.) relate to job characteristics and work values.

4. Further empirical studies on the behaviour of employees in different settings, as well as cross-cultural research would present an meaningful view of job satisfaction and job performance.

5. The statements of satisfaction, work values, and job characteristics questionnaires, could also be administered to the supervisors of warehousing employees, to see further if their responses match those of their employees.

6. Research designs that can argue more strongly a cause-effect relationship could be used. Measurements at different items justify the use of cross-lagged correlation analysis and the linear structure analysis of covariance matrices seem appropriate in investigating causal direction in the total pattern of variables.

7. Research design in satisfaction/performance relationship could use experimental or quasi-experimental methodologies. Although often costly and time consuming, field experiments would help assess both direction and the relative strength of satisfaction/performance causal effects.

# APPENDIX I

## QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Employee,

This questionnaire has been designed mainly to examine your attitude toward your job. Would you kindly take a break out of your busy schedule and fill in the questionnaire attached. As you may notice, this study aims at enhancing our understanding of your job in warehousing, the degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction, job characteristics, work values, supervisory style, and rewards availability.

For the study to be valid, it is extremely important that your responses reflect your actual opinions and judgement. Remember, this is not a test and there are no right or wrong answers. All answers will be combined and only the over-all statistical results will be reported.

Please answer all the questions and do not hesitate to ask anything about any part of the questionnaire. All information provided will be used only for academic purposes.

Your cooperation will highly enhance our understanding of this subject.

Thank you for your time and efforts.

The Researcher
Management Studies Department
University of Glasgow
U. K.

A- PERSONAL INFORMATION

Demographic factors affect the way people see the work situation and how they feel about it.

To help the researcher interpret the research questions and statistical analysis of the data, please give the following information :

1- Name of the organisation :

---

2-Your Job Title:

---

3- Your age (Tick the applicable group):

[ Under - 34] [ ]

[ 35 - 49 ] [ ]

[ 50 or over] [ ]

4- Sex : Male [ ] Female [ ]

5- Marital status:

[ ] Single [ ] Married [ ] Widowed [ ] Divorced

6-If you are married how many children do you have (if applicable) .....

7- Number of dependents (such as your parents or relatives depending on you in meeting their living expenses) .....

8- Approximately what is your monthly salary before deduction .....

9- Education :

If you attended a university or technical institute or school, what was your area of specialization ?

| Level Education | Specialization |
|---|---|
| Primary school | |
| Secondary school (include Intermediate) | ..... |
| Diploma (Technical Institute) | ..... |
| Bachelor's Degree | ..... |
| Postgraduate | ..... |
| other | ..... |

10- Year of experience (Length of service):

..... Years you have been working in warehouses.

..... Years out of warehouses department (please indicate years of work on each one if any).

Please mark (X) in the appropriate box in the following questions:

11- Have you had any training in warehousing? Yes [ ] No [ ]

If yes, please give the number of training programmes attended

.....

12- Are you initially employed in warehouses? Yes [ ] No [ ]

13- would you like to be transferred to another department or firm?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

14- If yes, why would you like to be transferred?

.....

.....

.....

15- If no, why do you prefer warehousing work?

.....

.....

.....

B- In the following statements you will find several characteristics or qualities connected with your own job in your firm, for each characteristic, you are asked, how satisfied you are with this aspect of your job?, to give one of the five alternative answers as follows:

1 means very dissatisfied [VDS]

2 means dissatisfied [DS]

3 means Undecided [N]

4 means satisfied [S]

5 means very satisfied [VS]

Please read each statement carefully and be frank and honest in giving a true picture by placing (X) in the appropriate box corresponding with your answer.

| | VDS | DS | N | S | VS |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. The feeling that your salary is fair for | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| the kind of job you perform: | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 2. The way warehousing job provides | | | | | |
| steady employment: | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 3. The feeling about working conditions in | | | | | |
| warehousing (heating,lighting,ventilation, etc). | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 4. The way your supervisor helps make your job | | | | | |
| in warehousing more pleasant. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 5. The way your supervisor feels each | | | | | |
| employee is important. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 6-The way your management puts the suggestion | | | | | |
| made by employees into practice: | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 7. The way your supervisor always offers new | | | | | |
| approach to solving problems: | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 8. The friendship and approbation you get | | | | | |
| from your supervisor: | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 9. The openness between your supervisor | | | | | |
| and yourself. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |

| | VDS | DS | N | S | VS |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Mutual trust between you and your supervisor. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 11. The opportunity of close supervision in your department. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 12. Supervisor asks the employees for suggestion and advice for work developing. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 13. When faced with a problem, the supervisor asks the employees for their opinion. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 14. The competence of your supervisor in making decisions. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 15. your supervisor gives advance notice of changes. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 16. The way your supervisor deals with complaints brought to his attention. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 17. The fairness of supervision in warehousing. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 18. The chance to do different things from time to time. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 19. The chance to work independently and use own judgment with little supervision. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 20. Before making decisions, your supervisor gives serious consideration to what the employees in warehousing have to say. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 21. The recognition you get for a job well done. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 22. The opportunity for participation in determining the methods, procedures, and goals in your job. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 23. The ability to do things that do not go against your conscience. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 24. The chance to do things for other people. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 25. The chance to tell people what to do. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 26. The work in warehouses keeps you busy all the time. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 27. The chance for advancement in this department. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 28. The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment you get from the work in warehouses. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 29. The opportunity to perform up to your abilities. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 30. The extent to which your job gives you a definite place in the community. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |

| | VDS | DS | N | S | VS |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 31. The way your peers get along with each other. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 32. The feeling that you are working in a department with a good public image. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 33. The way your supervisor backs up his subordinates with top management. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 34. The opportunity to work alone on your job in warehousing. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 35. The way work policies in warehousing are put into practice. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 36. The freedom to use your own judgment at work. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |

NOTE: The items in each sub-scale are as follows:

(1) Intrinsic Job Satisfaction, 18, 19, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 28, 29, 30, 34, 36.

(2) Extrinsic Job Satisfaction, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 21, 27, 31, 32, 35.

(3) Considerate Supervisory Style, 5, 8, 9, 10, 11, 16, 33.

(4) Participative Supervisory Style, 4, 6, 7, 12, 13, 15, 20.

C- Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by marking (X) in the appropriate box for each statement.

1 means strongly disagree [SDS]
2 means disagree [DIS]
3 means undecided [N]
4 means agree [AG]
5 means strongly agree [SAG]

| | SDS | DIS | N | AG | SAG |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 1. The promotion system in warehousing job helps the best person rise to the top. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 2. The fringe benefits programme is good for warehousing employees (such as, accommodation, transport, loans, etc.). | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 3. The employees get their rewards without being criticized or intimidated. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 4. salary in your company is fair compared with other employees' salaries doing the same job. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 5. The employees in warehouses are rewarded according to their performance. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 6. Good opportunities for advancement in warehousing. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 7. You receive the recognition which you deserved when you perform your job well. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 8. There is no great deal of criticism in the warehousing job. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 9. When a warehousing employee makes a mistake he will not be disciplined at once. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |

D-In the following statements you will find several characteristics that are pertinent to your job, please indicate the extent to which each characteristic is present in your job by choosing one out of five alternative answers as follows:

1 means Very little or None [VL]

2 means a Little [L]

3 means Some [S]

4 means Great [G]

5 means Very Great [VG]

Please mark (X) in the appropriate box that closely corresponds with your opinion.

| | VL | L | S | G | VG |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 1. To what extent are you left on your own to do your job. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 2. How much of your job depends on your co-operation with others. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 3. The extent of feedback you receive from individuals other than your supervisor. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 4. To what extent are you able to decide how to go about the job on your own. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 5. The opportunities for acquiring job-related skills and information. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 6. To what extent do you receive a feedback on whether you are performing your job well or poorly. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 7. To what extent are you able to develop new skills and knowledge from your job. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 8. The extent of variety in your job. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 9. The opportunity, at work, to chat and socialize with other employees informally. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 10. To what extent do you receive information from your supervisor on your job performance. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |

| | VL | L | S | G | VG |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. The amount of significance a warehousing job is on the well-being of other people. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 12. To what extent can other departments be effected by how well your job gets done. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 13. To what extent are you able to act independently of others. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 14. The opportunities to learn and acquire experience from the job itself. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 15. The impact that your job has on the company service and productivity. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 16. To what extent does your job contribute to your personal growth and development . | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 17. To what extent is dealing with other employees in different departments. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 18. The opportunities to build close friendship and good relations with other employees. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 19. The opportunity to do a number of things in your job. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 20. To what extent does the warehousing job require you to use a variety of your skills and talents? | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 21. The opportunity to get to know others through your job. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |

NOTE: The items in each sub-scales are as follows:
Degree of Freedom,1, 4, 13;
Dealing With Others, 2, 3, 17;
Task-Significance, 11, 12, 15;
Feedback on Performance, 6, 10, 14;
Variety, 8, 19, 20;
Learning opportunity, 5, 7, 19;
Friendship opportunity, 9, 18, 21.

D-We would like information on your opinions about certain work values. Below you will find a list of eighteen different values. Please examine them all and mark an (X) in the appropriate box that represents your answer with:

1 Means not Important at all [NIA]
2 Means not Importance [NI]
3 Means Moderately Important [M]
4 Means Important [I]
5 Means Very Important [VI]

| | [NIA] 1 | [NI] 2 | [M] 3 | [I] 4 | [VI] 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. The assurance of being able to maintain the job. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 2.The social position in the community that goes with your job. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 3.The amount of responsibility you have in the job. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 4.Achieving something that is of personal value. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 5.The proper working conditions. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 6. The opportunity for personal advancement and promotion in warehousing. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 7.The opportunity for independent thought and action. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 8.The opportunity to find out how you are doing. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 9.The opportunity to be in service to other people (contribution to society). | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 10.The variety in warehousing work. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 11. The opportunities for salary increases. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 12.The opportunities to have other employees follow your directions. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 13.The opportunity for close friendships with your colleagues. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 14.The quality of supervision. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 15.Management policies and practice in warehousing. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 16. Work which requires the use of your best abilities. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 17. A feeling of achievement in the work you are doing. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |
| 18. Receiving a recognition for a job well done. | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] | [ ] |

**JOB PERFORMANCE**

**SUPERVISOR RATING :**

Name of the employee .....

Dear manager,

Please evaluate this subordinate on the basis of the actual work he/she is currently performing. Before attempting to rate this employee, it is necessary to have in mind the exact criteria which he/she is rated on.

Mark an (x) in the appropriate box to indicate this employee's standing in each quality. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to ask.

Would you please use the following guidelines in completing the ratings:

*-Complete the appraisals independently. Do not discuss your ratings with anyone else.

*-Try not to let your ratings on one dimension affect your rating on other dimensions.

*-Do not base your appraisal on general impressions or allow the subordinates personality or likeability to influence your ratings.

*-Try to show as much discrimination as possible between those who are doing a good job and those who are doing a relatively poor job. Do not hesitate to use the extreme points of the ratings scale if you feel they are applicable.

All information and evaluations provided will be treated in a way to preserve complete anonymity.

Thank you for your co-operation

The Researcher
University of Glasgow
U.K.

1. Ability to perform his/her job properly with minimum supervision

[ ] 1. Very Dissatisfactory.

[ ] 2. Dissatisfactory.

[ ] 3. Fairly Satisfactory .

[ ] 4.Satisfactory .

[ ] 5.Very Satisfactory.

2. Quantity of work (Consider the amount of work accomplished and the promptness with which work is completed).

[ ] 1. Very Dissatisfactory.

[ ] 2. Dissatisfactory.

[ ] 3. Fairly Satisfactory .

[ ] 4.Satisfactory .

[ ] 5.Very Satisfactory.

3-Quality of work (Consider the neatness and accuracy of his/her work and his/her ability to produce work that is up to standard).

[ ] 1. Very Dissatisfactory.

[ ] 2. Dissatisfactory.

[ ] 3. Fairly Satisfactory .

[ ] 4.Satisfactory .

[ ] 5.Very Satisfactory.

4. Knowledge of work (Has this employee satisfactory knowledge of his/her work ? Does he/she know what he/she is doing and why he/she is doing it? Does he/she plan his/her work ?).

[ ] 1. Very Dissatisfactory.

[ ] 2. Dissatisfactory.

[ ] 3. Fairly Satisfactory .

[ ] 4.Satisfactory .

[ ] 5.Very Satisfactory.

5. Personal quality (Freedom from being conceited and selfish, readiness and ability to co-operate with his/her fellow employees).

[ ] 1. Very Dissatisfactory.

[ ] 2. Dissatisfactory.

[ ] 3. Fairly Satisfactory .

[ ] 4.Satisfactory .

[ ] 5.Very Satisfactory.

6. Initiative (Consider his/her success in going ahead with his job without being told every detail and his ability to make practical suggestions for doing things in a new and better way).

[ ] 1.Very Dissatisfactory, (needs constant supervision).

[ ] 2.Dissatisfactory, (routine employee).

[ ] 3.Fairly Satisfactory, (occasionally suggests).

[ ] 4.Satisfactory, (resourceful).

[ ] 5.Very Satisfactory, (very original and sincere).

7. Accepting supervision and organizational procedures .

[ ] 1. Very Dissatisfactory.

[ ] 2. Dissatisfactory.

[ ] 3. Fairly Satisfactory .

[ ] 4.Satisfactory .

[ ] 5.Very Satisfactory.

8. Does this employee give an honest day's work? Is he a self starter? Is he/she doing what he/she is supposed to do?

[ ] 1. Very Dissatisfactory.

[ ] 2. Dissatisfactory.

[ ] 3. Fairly Satisfactory .

[ ] 4.Satisfactory .

[ ] 5.Very Satisfactory.

9. Amount of effort he spends on the job, (strives to maintain or improve performance and takes an active interest in performing job duties)

[ ] 1. Very Dissatisfactory.

[ ] 2. Dissatisfactory.

[ ] 3. Fairly Satisfactory .

[ ] 4.Satisfactory .

[ ] 5.Very Satisfactory.

10. Willingness to participate with peers and supervisors in doing his/her job

[ ] 1. Very Dissatisfactory.

[ ] 2. Dissatisfactory.

[ ] 3. Fairly Satisfactory .

[ ] 4.Satisfactory .

[ ] 5.Very Satisfactory.

11. Clear understanding of his/her job duties, understand what task he/she is supposed to perform.

[ ] 1. Very Dissatisfactory.

[ ] 2. Dissatisfactory.

[ ] 3. Fairly Satisfactory .

[ ] 4.Satisfactory .

[ ] 5.Very Satisfactory.

12. Degree to which co-workers look to him/her for advice and leadership.

[ ] 1. Very Dissatisfactory.

[ ] 2. Dissatisfactory.

[ ] 3. Fairly Satisfactory .

[ ] 4.Satisfactory .

[ ] 5.Very Satisfactory.

13. Overall evaluation: overall job performance, enthusiasm, cooperation and effort.

[ ] 1. Very Dissatisfactory.

[ ] 2. Dissatisfactory.

[ ] 3. Fairly Satisfactory .

[ ] 4.Satisfactory .

[ ] 5.Very Satisfactory.

# APPENDIX
# II
# PERCENTILE SCORES

## JOB SATISFACTION PERCENTILES

| Percentile | Job Satisfaction | | | Employees' Age | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Intrinsic | Extrinsic | General | Young | Middle | Old |
| 5 | 23 | 16.4 | 43 | 38 | 39 | 67.5 |
| 10 | 25 | 18 | 46.7 | 41 | 41 | 71 |
| 15 | 27 | 19.2 | 49 | 44 | 44 | 73.6 |
| 20 | 27.6 | 20 | 50 | 44 | 45.4 | 76.6 |
| 25 | 28 | 21 | 51 | 45.2 | 46 | 78 |
| 30 | 29 | 22 | 52.3 | 46 | 47.6 | 79 |
| 35 | 30 | 23 | 54 | 46 | 49.7 | 79.8 |
| 40 | 31 | 24 | 56 | 47 | 51.8 | 81 |
| 45 | 32 | 26 | 58.6 | 48 | 54 | 81 |
| 50 | 34 | 27 | 63 | 49 | 60 | 81 |
| 55 | 36.4 | 29.4 | 68 | 49 | 64 | 81.4 |
| 60 | 40 | 31 | 71 | 52 | 66.7 | 82 |
| 65 | 41.2 | 33 | 74.5 | 54 | 68 | 82.2 |
| 70 | 43 | 34 | 77 | 56.8 | 69 | 83.6 |
| 75 | 44 | 35.4 | 80.3 | 60 | 71.5 | 85 |
| 80 | 45 | 37 | 83 | 62 | 73 | 85.4 |
| 85 | 47.8 | 38.4 | 87.2 | 65.2 | 74 | 86 |
| 90 | 48.2 | 40 | 89 | 69 | 76 | 87.2 |
| 95 | 50.6 | 42 | 92.6 | 73 | 81 | 88.6 |
| 99 | 53 | 45.3 | 96 | 77.8 | 83.9 | 89 |

| Percentile | Job Position Level | | | Employees' Sex | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Store-K[1] | Assist. S-K[2] | S-Clerk | male | Female |
| 5 | 40.4 | 36.5 | 42.5 | 41.3 | 38 |
| 10 | 42.7 | 38 | 44 | 44 | 40.7 |
| 15 | 45 | 39.8 | 45.7 | 45 | 43 |
| 20 | 46 | 41 | 46.6 | 46 | 45 |
| 25 | 46 | 44.3 | 47.5 | 46 | 46 |
| 30 | 47 | 45.5 | 48 | 47 | 47 |
| 35 | 49 | 46.7 | 49.6 | 49 | 48.5 |
| 40 | 52 | 48 | 52 | 52.7 | 49.8 |
| 45 | 60.2 | 49 | 52.1 | 62 | 52 |
| 50 | 65 | 49.5 | 54 | 68.3 | 54 |
| 55 | 67.8 | 51.8 | 54 | 71 | 55.8 |
| 60 | 71 | 52 | 54.8 | 73 | 59 |
| 65 | 73 | 56 | 57.4 | 74 | 60.5 |
| 70 | 74.3 | 60.5 | 59 | 77.4 | 62 |
| 75 | 77 | 63.7 | 60.5 | 80.5 | 64.3 |
| 80 | 79.6 | 69 | 61.4 | 81 | 67.6 |
| 85 | 81 | 69.3 | 63.3 | 82 | 69 |
| 90 | 82 | 70 | 65.2 | 84 | 72 |
| 95 | 85.6 | 72 | 69.8 | 86 | 75.6 |
| 99 | 89 | 73 | 70 | 89.5 | 80.2 |

1 Store Keeper

2 Store Keeper Assistant

| Percentile | Marital Status | | Transfer | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Single | Married | Tran./Yes | Tran./No |
| 5 | 38 | 41 | 36 | 47 |
| 10 | 40.8 | 44 | 38 | 54 |
| 15 | 43.2 | 45 | 40.8 | 57 |
| 20 | 45 | 46 | 41 | 60 |
| 25 | 46 | 48 | 43.7 | 62.5 |
| 30 | 46 | 51.5 | 44 | 65 |
| 35 | 47 | 55 | 45 | 67 |
| 40 | 48. | 61 | 45 | 68 |
| 45 | 49.3 | 66 | 46 | 69.5 |
| 50 | 51 | 68.5 | 46.2 | 72 |
| 55 | 52.4 | 71.3 | 47 | 73 |
| 60 | 54 | 73 | 47 | 74 |
| 65 | 57.2 | 74.6 | 48 | 76 |
| 70 | 60 | 76.7 | 49 | 77 |
| 75 | 62.3 | 79 | 49 | 79.5 |
| 80 | 66 | 81 | 51 | 81 |
| 85 | 68.8 | 82.6 | 52 | 82.4 |
| 90 | 72.2 | 84 | 53 | 84 |
| 95 | 76.6 | 86 | 61 | 86 |
| 99 | 81 | 89.6 | 70 | 89.5 |

| Percentile | Employment | | Training | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Yes | No | Yes | No |
| 5 | 39.7 | 38 | 40.2 | 38.3 |
| 10 | 44 | 41 | 44 | 41 |
| 15 | 46 | 43.3 | 45 | 42.4 |
| 20 | 46 | 45 | 46 | 44 |
| 25 | 48 | 46 | 47 | 46 |
| 30 | 49 | 47 | 49 | 46 |
| 35 | 50.5 | 47.7 | 52 | 47 |
| 40 | 52 | 49 | 60.2 | 48 |
| 45 | 54 | 52.5 | 64 | 48.7 |
| 50 | 58.5 | 57 | 66.5 | 50 |
| 55 | 60 | 63.2 | 68.6 | 51.3 |
| 60 | 62 | 69.4 | 71.8 | 53 |
| 65 | 64 | 73 | 73.3 | 54 |
| 70 | 66.9 | 74.8 | 76 | 58 |
| 75 | 68 | 78.5 | 87.3 | 61 |
| 80 | 69 | 81 | 81 | 65.8 |
| 85 | 71.9 | 82 | 82 | 69 |
| 90 | 73 | 83 | 83.4 | 71.4 |
| 95 | 76 | 86 | 86 | 73.7 |
| 99 | 80.8 | 89.4 | 89.4 | 80.7 |

| Percentile | Industries Sectors | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Food | Textile | Engineering | Chemical | Construction | Medical |
| 5 | 35.7 | 39.8 | 41.9 | 38.5 | 45 | 50 |
| 10 | 37.6 | 42.7 | 44 | 41.3 | 45.2 | 50.2 |
| 15 | 40.7 | 44.5 | 45 | 44.2 | 46 | 50.4 |
| 20 | 41 | 46 | 46 | 46 | 46 | 51 |
| 25 | 44 | 46.3 | 47 | 46.7 | 46 | 51 |
| 30 | 45 | 48 | 47 | 47 | 46.6 | 52 |
| 35 | 47.3 | 50.9 | 48 | 52 | 47 | 55.5 |
| 40 | 49.2 | 52.3 | 49 | 59.4 | 47 | 59.7 |
| 45 | 52 | 54 | 49 | 62 | 49.4 | 61.6 |
| 50 | 53 | 55.7 | 53 | 66 | 50 | 63 |
| 55 | 61 | 61 | 55.8 | 68 | 55 | 65.5 |
| 60 | 63.8 | 64 | 63.4 | 68 | 60 | 69 |
| 65 | 65.7 | 68 | 66.9 | 69 | 60 | 73.6 |
| 70 | 69.6 | 69.9 | 72.2 | 71.5 | 63.8 | 76 |
| 75 | 71 | 74 | 73 | 77.5 | 69 | 76 |
| 80 | 72 | 75.6 | 76.8 | 81 | 74 | 77.5 |
| 85 | 74.3 | 79 | 78.3 | 83 | 81 | 79.8 |
| 90 | 79 | 82.9 | 81 | 85.7 | 81 | 84.2 |
| 95 | 81.2 | 85.2 | 82 | 87.3 | 82.2 | 88.6 |
| 99 | 82 | 87 | 83 | 92 | 84 | 88.8 |

| Percentile | Educational Level | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Primary | Secondary | D & BSc.* |
| 5 | 44.3 | 39 | 36.6 |
| 10 | 49 | 41.7 | 40.4 |
| 15 | 54.4 | 44 | 44.1 |
| 20 | 60 | 46 | 44.8 |
| 25 | 65.7 | 47 | 45 |
| 30 | 70.2 | 48.1 | 46 |
| 35 | 73 | 49 | 46.1 |
| 40 | 76.2 | 51.4 | 47 |
| 45 | 77 | 53 | 48 |
| 50 | 78.5 | 58.8 | 49.2 |
| 55 | 80.5 | 61 | 51 |
| 60 | 81 | 63.3 | 54.4 |
| 65 | 82 | 68 | 58 |
| 70 | 82.5 | 70.7 | 63.6 |
| 75 | 84 | 72 | 66 |
| 80 | 85 | 75.8 | 67 |
| 85 | 86 | 78.8 | 69 |
| 90 | 86.5 | 81 | 72.6 |
| 95 | 88 | 82 | 74 |
| 99 | 92 | 88.6 | 80.8 |

* Diploma and Bachelor Degree

## JOB PERFORMANCE PERCENTILES

| Percentile | Industries Sectors | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Food | Textile | Engineering | Chemical | Construction | Medical |
| 5 | 13 | 13 | 12 | 13 | 12.2 | 14 |
| 10 | 14 | 14 | 13 | 15.5 | 14 | 14 |
| 15 | 15 | 15.3 | 14 | 19 | 14 | 16.5 |
| 20 | 16.4 | 18 | 15.5 | 21 | 17.3 | 19 |
| 25 | 18 | 19 | 19.7 | 21 | 20 | 22 |
| 30 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 21 | 23 |
| 35 | 20.8 | 21 | 21 | 24 | 22 | 23.2 |
| 40 | 22.5 | 22 | 22.3 | 25 | 25.3 | 24 |
| 45 | 24 | 23 | 25 | 26 | 27 | 26 |
| 50 | 25 | 26 | 27 | 27.2 | 28 | 27 |
| 55 | 25.5 | 27 | 28 | 28 | 28.5 | 27.5 |
| 60 | 26.5 | 28 | 28.5 | 29 | 29 | 28 |
| 65 | 27 | 28.5 | 29 | 29.5 | 30 | 29 |
| 70 | 27.5 | 29 | 30 | 30 | 30.5 | 30 |
| 75 | 28 | 30 | 31 | 30.5 | 31 | 31 |
| 80 | 29.4 | 31 | 32 | 31.3 | 31 | 32 |
| 85 | 31 | 33 | 33 | 32 | 32 | 33 |
| 90 | 31.3 | 33 | 33.5 | 33.2 | 34 | 34 |
| 95 | 34 | 34 | 33.5 | 34 | 35 | 35 |
| 99 | 35 | 35 | 34 | 34 | 35 | 35 |

| Percentile | Employees Age | | | Sex | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Young | Middle | Old | Male | Female |
| 5 | 12 | 16 | 23 | 15 | 13 |
| 10 | 13 | 16.4 | 25.5 | 16.3 | 14 |
| 15 | 14 | 18 | 28 | 19 | 14 |
| 20 | 14 | 19 | 29 | 21 | 15.7 |
| 25 | 15.7 | 20.2 | 30 | 23 | 18 |
| 30 | 18 | 22 | 31 | 23.2 | 19 |
| 35 | 19.2 | 23.4 | 31.5 | 26.4 | 20 |
| 40 | 20 | 25 | 32 | 28 | 21.3 |
| 45 | 21 | 26.9 | 33 | 28 | 22 |
| 50 | 22.2 | 28 | 34 | 29 | 24 |
| 55 | 23 | 28.2 | 34 | 29.3 | 25 |
| 60 | 24 | 29 | 35 | 30 | 25 |
| 65 | 25 | 29.5 | 35 | 30.5 | 26 |
| 70 | 26.3 | 30 | 36 | 31 | 27.4 |
| 75 | 27 | 30.2 | 36 | 33 | 28 |
| 80 | 28 | 31.4 | 37 | 34 | 29 |
| 85 | 28.2 | 31.4 | 37.2 | 35 | 30.4 |
| 90 | 29 | 32.4 | 38 | 35.2 | 32 |
| 95 | 30.6 | 34 | 38.9 | 36.3 | 33 |
| 99 | 33 | 35 | 39 | 36 | 33 |

| Percentile | Educational Level | | | Initial Employment | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Primary | Secondary | D & BSc.* | Yes | No |
| 5 | 13 | 13 | 13 | 12.2 | 14 |
| 10 | 15.5 | 14 | 14 | 13 | 15 |
| 15 | 19 | 15.5 | 15.5 | 14 | 17 |
| 20 | 21 | 16.2 | 17 | 15.2 | 18.4 |
| 25 | 23.7 | 19 | 18 | 18.6 | 20 |
| 30 | 29 | 20.3 | 20 | 20 | 21.5 |
| 35 | 30 | 21 | 21.3 | 21 | 22 |
| 40 | 30.5 | 22 | 22 | 22 | 24 |
| 45 | 31 | 24 | 23.4 | 24 | 25.3 |
| 50 | 32.4 | 25 | 25 | 26 | 26 |
| 55 | 32.9 | 26 | 25.5 | 27.3 | 27 |
| 60 | 33 | 27 | 27 | 28 | 28 |
| 65 | 33 | 28 | 27.2 | 28 | 28 |
| 70 | 33 | 28 | 28 | 28 | 29 |
| 75 | 33 | 29 | 28 | 29 | 30 |
| 80 | 34 | 29.2 | 28.5 | 29.5 | 31.4 |
| 85 | 34.2 | 30 | 29 | 30.2 | 32 |
| 90 | 35 | 31.7 | 31.5 | 31.3 | 33 |
| 95 | 35 | 34 | 33 | 33 | 34.2 |
| 99 | 36 | 35 | 34 | 34 | 35 |

* Diploma and Bachelor Degree

| Percentile | Job Position Level | | | Work Values | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Store.K. | Assistant | Clerk | Male | Female |
| 5 | 14 | 12 | 12 | 58.4 | 22 |
| 10 | 15.4 | 13 | 12.5 | 61 | 24.4 |
| 15 | 17 | 15 | 13 | 62 | 26 |
| 20 | 19.2 | 15 | 14 | 63 | 27 |
| 25 | 21 | 16.7 | 15 | 64 | 27 |
| 30 | 22.5 | 19 | 17.5 | 66.5 | 28 |
| 35 | 24 | 20 | 18 | 68 | 28 |
| 40 | 25 | 21 | 19.2 | 68 | 29.4 |
| 45 | 27 | 21.2 | 20 | 69.3 | 31 |
| 50 | 28 | 24 | 20 | 71.3 | 31.3 |
| 55 | 28.3 | 26 | 21.3 | 72 | 32.5 |
| 60 | 29 | 26 | 22 | 73.2 | 34 |
| 65 | 29.5 | 27.3 | 22 | 74.2 | 36.7 |
| 70 | 30 | 28 | 23 | 75 | 39 |
| 75 | 30 | 28 | 24 | 67.5 | 40.3 |
| 80 | 31.5 | 28 | 25 | 77 | 41 |
| 85 | 33 | 29.8 | 25.2 | 78.8 | 43.5 |
| 90 | 34 | 32 | 27 | 85 | 46 |
| 95 | 34 | 32.2 | 27 | 79 | 44.5 |
| 99 | 35 | 32.3 | 28 | 85 | 46 |

# APPENDIX
# III
# CONTINGENCY TABLES

## KEY TO VARIABLES FOR CONTINGENCY TABLES

| Variable Number | | Variable Name | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | SECTOR | (1) Food | (4) Chemical |
| | | (2) Textile | (5) Construction |
| | | (3) Engineering | (6) Medical |
| 2 | JOB TITLE | (1) Store-Keeper | |
| | | (2) Assistant | |
| | | (3) Clerk | |
| 3 | SEX | (1) Male | |
| | | (2) Female | |
| 4 | AGE | (1) Less than 35 | (Young) |
| | | (2) (35 - 50) | (Middle) |
| | | (3) (Over 50) | (Old) |
| 5 | MARITAL STATUS | (1) Single | |
| | | (2) Married | |
| 6 | EDUCATION | (1) Primary | (6 years Schooling) |
| | | (2) Secondary | (12 years Schooling) |
| | | (3) Inst. Deploma | (14 years Schooling) |
| | | (4) Bachelor | (16 years Schooling) |

| Variable Number | Variable Name |
|---|---|
| 7 NO. OF DEPENDENTS | (1) None<br>(2) 1 - 3<br>(3) 4 & more |
| 8 SALARY (WAGE) | (1) Less than 121<br>(2) 121 - 150<br>(3) 151 - 180<br>(4) 181 & more |
| 9 YEAR OF EXPERIENCE | (1) Less than 4<br>(2) 4 - 6<br>(3) 7 & more |
| 10 ATTENDING TRAINING | (1) Yes<br>(2) No |
| 11 NO. OF TRAINING PROGRAMME | (1) None<br>(2) 1 -3<br>(3) 4 -6<br>(4) 7 & more |
| 12 PLAN FOR CONTINUING EMPLOYMENT | (1) Yes<br>(2) No |
| 13 INITIAL EMPLOYMENT | (1) Yes<br>(2) No |

| Variable Number | Variable Name |
|---|---|
| **14** EXTRINSIC JOB SATISFACTION | (a) Dissatisfied |
| | (b) Neither |
| | (c) Satisfied |
| **15** INTRINSIC JOB SATISFACTION | (a) Dissatisfied |
| | (b) Neither |
| | (c) Satisfied |
| **16** GENERAL JOB SATISFACTION | (a) Dissatisfied |
| | (b) Neither |
| | (c) Satisfied |
| **17** JOB PERFORMANCE | (a) Very Dissatisfactory |
| | (b) Fairly Satisfactory |
| | (c) Dissatisfactory |

**14** 1

| — | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 40 | 27 | 23 | 16 | 17 | 06 | 129 |
| (b) | 09 | 12 | 05 | 11 | 07 | 02 | 046 |
| (c) | 28 | 17 | 17 | 15 | 07 | 08 | 092 |
| Total | 77 | 56 | 45 | 42 | 31 | 16 | 267 |

**14** 2

| — | (1) | (2) | (3) | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 78 | 29 | 22 | 129 |
| (b) | 27 | 08 | 11 | 046 |
| (c) | 81 | 07 | 04 | 092 |
| Total | 186 | 44 | 37 | 267 |

**14** 3

| — | (1) | (2) | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 61 | 68 | 129 |
| (b) | 11 | 35 | 046 |
| (c) | 69 | 23 | 092 |
| Total | 141 | 126 | 267 |

**14** 4

| — | (1) | (2) | (3) | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 81 | 47 | 01 | 129 |
| (b) | 24 | 22 | 00 | 046 |
| (c) | 14 | 32 | 46 | 092 |
| Total | 119 | 101 | 47 | 167 |

**14** 5

| — | (1) | (2) | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 80 | 49 | 129 |
| (b) | 23 | 23 | 046 |
| (c) | 30 | 62 | 092 |
| Total | 133 | 134 | 167 |

**14** 6

| — | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | T |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 04 | 60 | 53 | 12 | 129 |
| (b) | 07 | 21 | 17 | 01 | 046 |
| (c) | 33 | 39 | 17 | 03 | 092 |
| T | 44 | 120 | 87 | 16 | 267 |

**14** 7

| — | (1) | (2) | (3) | T |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 88 | 25 | 16 | 129 |
| (b) | 27 | 07 | 12 | 046 |
| (c) | 33 | 11 | 48 | 092 |
| T | 148 | 43 | 76 | 167 |

**14 9**

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | T |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 11 | 37 | 81 | 129 |
| (b) | 02 | 15 | 29 | 046 |
| (c) | 02 | 09 | 81 | 092 |
| T | 15 | 61 | 191 | 267 |

**14 10**

| | (1) | (2) | T |
|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 60 | 69 | 129 |
| (b) | 30 | 16 | 046 |
| (c) | 72 | 20 | 092 |
| T | 162 | 105 | 267 |

**14 11**

| (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | T |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 69 | 51 | 08 | 01 | 129 |
| (b) | 16 | 20 | 07 | 03 | 046 |
| (c) | 20 | 19 | 21 | 32 | 092 |
| T | 105 | 90 | 36 | 36 | 267 |

**14 12**

| (1) | (2) | T |
|---|---|---|
| (a) | 104 | 25 | 129 |
| (b) | 09 | 37 | 046 |
| (c) | 06 | 86 | 092 |
| T | 119 | 148 | 267 |

**14 13**

| | (1) | (2) | T |
|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 48 | 81 | 129 |
| (b) | 32 | 14 | 046 |
| (c) | 26 | 66 | 092 |
| T | 106 | 161 | 267 |

**15** **1**

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | T |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 41 | 28 | 23 | 16 | 18 | 01 | 127 |
| (b) | 11 | 06 | 07 | 07 | 04 | 07 | 042 |
| (c) | 25 | 22 | 15 | 19 | 09 | 08 | 098 |
| T | 77 | 56 | 45 | 42 | 31 | 16 | 267 |

**15** **2**

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | T |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 76 | 27 | 24 | 127 |
| (b) | 25 | 07 | 10 | 042 |
| (c) | 85 | 10 | 03 | 098 |
| T | 186 | 44 | 37 | 267 |

**15** **3**

| | (1) | (2) | T |
|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 56 | 71 | 127 |
| (b) | 14 | 28 | 042 |
| (c) | 71 | 27 | 098 |
| T | 141 | 126 | 267 |

**15** **4**

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | T |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 85 | 42 | 00 | 127 |
| (b) | 20 | 21 | 01 | 042 |
| (c) | 14 | 38 | 46 | 098 |
| T | 119 | 101 | 47 | 267 |

**15** **5**

| | (1) | (2) | T |
|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 80 | 47 | 127 |
| (b) | 25 | 17 | 042 |
| (c) | 28 | 70 | 098 |
| T | 133 | 134 | 267 |

**15** **6**

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | T |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 08 | 60 | 48 | 11 | 127 |
| (b) | 03 | 15 | 21 | 03 | 042 |
| (c) | 33 | 45 | 18 | 02 | 098 |
| T | 44 | 120 | 87 | 16 | 267 |

**15** **7**

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | T |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 88 | 25 | 14 | 127 |
| (b) | 28 | 05 | 09 | 042 |
| (c) | 32 | 13 | 53 | 098 |
| T | 148 | 43 | 76 | 167 |

**15** **9**

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | T |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 09 | 38 | 80 | 127 |
| (b) | 04 | 17 | 21 | 042 |
| (c) | 02 | 06 | 90 | 098 |
| T | 15 | 61 | 191 | 267 |

**15** **10**

| | (1) | (2) | T |
|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 56 | 71 | 127 |
| (b) | 23 | 19 | 042 |
| (c) | 83 | 15 | 098 |
| T | 162 | 105 | 267 |

**15** **11**

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | T |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 71 | 47 | 08 | 01 | 127 |
| (b) | 19 | 18 | 04 | 01 | 042 |
| (c) | 15 | 25 | 24 | 34 | 098 |
| T | 105 | 90 | 36 | 36 | 267 |

**15** **12**

| | (1) | (2) | T |
|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 96 | 31 | 127 |
| (b) | 18 | 24 | 042 |
| (c) | 05 | 93 | 098 |
| T | 119 | 148 | 267 |

**15** **13**

| | (1) | (2) | T |
|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 51 | 76 | 127 |
| (b) | 25 | 17 | 042 |
| (c) | 30 | 68 | 098 |
| T | 106 | 161 | 267 |

**16** **1**

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | T |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 33 | 22 | 22 | 15 | 17 | 01 | 110 |
| (b) | 16 | 13 | 06 | 06 | 05 | 06 | 052 |
| (c) | 28 | 21 | 17 | 21 | 09 | 09 | 105 |
| T | 77 | 56 | 45 | 42 | 31 | 16 | 267 |

**16 2**

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | T |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 69 | 26 | 15 | 110 |
| (b) | 26 | 08 | 18 | 052 |
| (c) | 91 | 10 | 04 | 105 |
| T | 186 | 44 | 37 | 267 |

**16 3**

| | (1) | (2) | T |
|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 55 | 55 | 110 |
| (b) | 10 | 42 | 052 |
| (c) | 76 | 29 | 105 |
| T | 141 | 126 | 267 |

**16 4**

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | T |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 71 | 39 | 00 | 110 |
| (b) | 30 | 21 | 01 | 052 |
| (c) | 18 | 41 | 46 | 105 |
| T | 119 | 101 | 47 | 267 |

**16 5**

| | (1) | (2) | T |
|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 69 | 41 | 110 |
| (b) | 29 | 23 | 052 |
| (c) | 35 | 70 | 105 |
| T | 133 | 134 | 267 |

**16 6**

| (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | T |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 04 | 48 | 48 | 10 | 110 |
| (b) | 07 | 26 | 16 | 03 | 052 |
| (c) | 33 | 46 | 23 | 03 | 105 |
| T | 44 | 120 | 87 | 16 | 267 |

**16 7**

| (1) | (2) | (3) | T |
|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 76 | 21 | 13 | 110 |
| (b) | 33 | 10 | 09 | 052 |
| (c) | 39 | 12 | 54 | 105 |
| T | 148 | 43 | 76 | 267 |

**16** **8**

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | T |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 21 | 64 | 21 | 04 | 110 |
| (b) | 25 | 20 | 07 | 00 | 052 |
| (c) | 05 | 28 | 13 | 59 | 105 |
| T | 51 | 112 | 41 | 63 | 267 |

**16** **9**

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | T |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 09 | 30 | 71 | 110 |
| (b) | 04 | 21 | 27 | 052 |
| (c) | 02 | 10 | 93 | 105 |
| T | 15 | 61 | 191 | 267 |

**16** **11**

| | (1) | (2) | T |
|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 53 | 57 | 110 |
| (b) | 23 | 29 | 052 |
| (c) | 86 | 19 | 105 |
| T | 162 | 105 | 267 |

**16** **11**

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | T |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 57 | 44 | 08 | 01 | 110 |
| (b) | 29 | 17 | 05 | 01 | 052 |
| (c) | 19 | 29 | 23 | 34 | 105 |
| T | 105 | 90 | 36 | 36 | 267 |

**16** **12**

| | (1) | (2) | T |
|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 93 | 17 | 110 |
| (b) | 18 | 34 | 052 |
| (c) | 08 | 97 | 105 |
| T | 119 | 148 | 267 |

**16** **13**

| | (1) | (2) | T |
|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 41 | 69 | 110 |
| (b) | 31 | 21 | 052 |
| (c) | 34 | 71 | 105 |
| T | 106 | 161 | 267 |

**17** **1**

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | T |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 18 | 10 | 09 | 05 | 06 | 02 | 50 |
| (b) | 17 | 14 | 09 | 10 | 05 | 03 | 58 |
| (c) | 42 | 32 | 27 | 27 | 20 | 11 | 159 |
| T | 77 | 56 | 45 | 42 | 31 | 10 | 267 |

**17** **2**

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | T |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 29 | 12 | 09 | 50 |
| (b) | 33 | 10 | 15 | 58 |
| (b) | 124 | 22 | 13 | 159 |
| T | 186 | 44 | 37 | 267 |

**17** **3**

| | (1) | (2) | T |
|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 21 | 29 | 50 |
| (b) | 22 | 36 | 58 |
| (c) | 98 | 61 | 159 |
| T | 141 | 126 | 267 |

**17** **4**

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | T |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 34 | 16 | 00 | 50 |
| (b) | 36 | 21 | 01 | 58 |
| (c) | 49 | 64 | 46 | 159 |
| T | 119 | 101 | 47 | 267 |

**17** **5**

| | (1) | (2) | T |
|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 28 | 22 | 50 |
| (a) | 37 | 21 | 58 |
| (c) | 68 | 91 | 159 |
| T | 133 | 134 | 267 |

**17** **6**

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | T |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 04 | 26 | 20 | 50 |
| (b) | 06 | 24 | 28 | 58 |
| (c) | 34 | 70 | 55 | 159 |
| T | 44 | 120 | 103 | 267 |

**17** **7**

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | T |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 33 | 13 | 04 | 50 |
| (b) | 42 | 09 | 07 | 58 |
| (c) | 73 | 21 | 65 | 159 |
| T | 148 | 43 | 76 | 267 |

**17 8**

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | T |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 16 | 26 | 08 | 00 | 50 |
| (b) | 13 | 37 | 08 | 00 | 58 |
| (c) | 22 | 69 | 27 | 41 | 159 |
| T | 51 | 132 | 43 | 41 | 267 |

**17 9**

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | T |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 02 | 17 | 31 | 50 |
| (b) | 03 | 20 | 35 | 58 |
| (c) | 10 | 24 | 125 | 159 |
| T | 15 | 61 | 191 | 267 |

**17 10**

| | (1) | (2) | T |
|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 19 | 31 | 50 |
| (b) | 28 | 30 | 58 |
| (c) | 115 | 44 | 159 |
| T | 162 | 105 | 267 |

**17 11**

| | (0) | (1) | (2) | (3) | T |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 31 | 17 | 02 | 00 | 50 |
| (b) | 30 | 23 | 04 | 01 | 58 |
| (c) | 44 | 50 | 30 | 35 | 159 |
| T | 105 | 90 | 36 | 36 | 267 |

**17 12**

| | (1) | (2) | T |
|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 40 | 10 | 50 |
| (b) | 35 | 23 | 58 |
| (c) | 44 | 115 | 159 |
| T | 119 | 148 | 267 |

**17 13**

| | (1) | (2) | T |
|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | 25 | 25 | 50 |
| (b) | 23 | 35 | 58 |
| (c) | 58 | 101 | 159 |
| T | 106 | 161 | 267 |

# APPENDIX
# IV
## IDENTIFICATION
## OF SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

This Appendix represents an interpretation of sample independent variables regarding sectors and personal characteristics which appear in the data of this study. This will help highlight these characteristics to the reader.

**1. Sectors of the Study**

The sample of the study has been selected from companies administered by the Ministry of Industry and Minerals in the Iraqi industrial public sector. These companies are classified into six sectors according to the main types of products. As mentioned in Chapter four , the final sample is composed of 267 subjects. Figure 1 illustrates the sectors of the study: Food 28.8 %, textile 21.0 %, engineering 16.9 %, chemical 15.7 %, construction 11.6 %, and medical 6.0 %, with respectively 77, 56, 45, 42, 31, and 16 subjects.

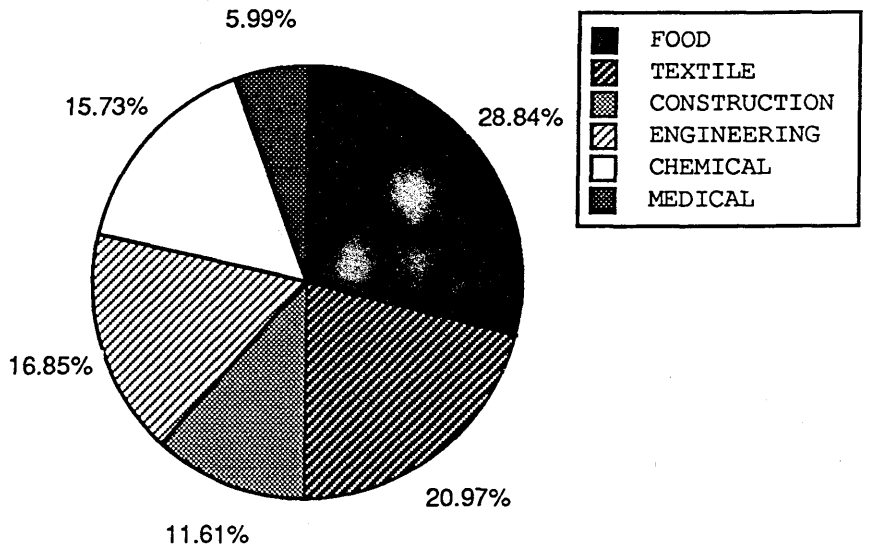



**Figure (1) Distribution of Sample**

As far as the sex of the subjects in each sector is concerned, Figure (2) gives a clear picture of this distribution. Looking at this figure, one can notice the following:

(1) Approximate equality between males and females in the engineering sector.

(2) More females than males in the textile and medical sector.

(3) In general, there are more males than females in the sample, this is due to the nature of work performed.

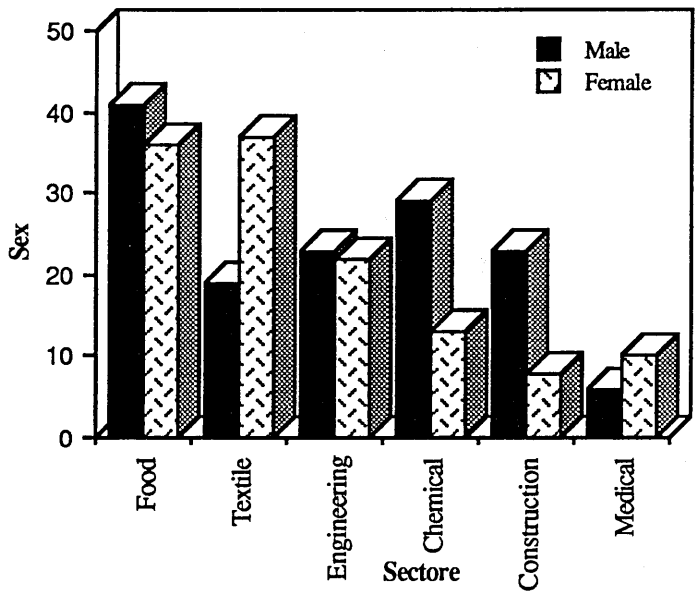



**Figure (2) Subjects' Sex Related to Each Sector**

Regarding the distribution of subjects according to their job position (occupation), Figure (3) shows that 186 (69.7 %) of the subjects are storekeepers, 44 (16.5 %) are storekeepers' assistants, and 37 (13.9 %) are warehousing clerks.

It is worth mentioning that the high percent of store-keepers are male, who make up 124, as apposed to 62 females. Therefore, female subjects predominate the store-keeper assistant category (34 subjects from 44) and clerical (30 subjects from 37) job positions.

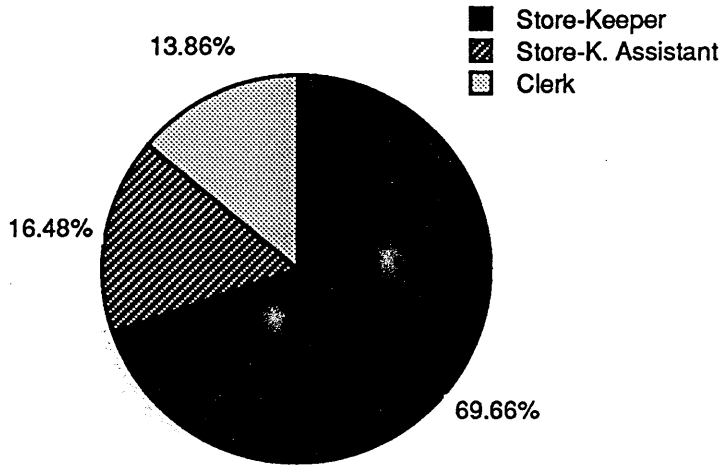



**Figure (3) Job Position Level of Subjects**

## 2. Age and Sex of subjects

The age of the participants is categorised as follows: aged less than 35 is young, between 35 and 49 years is middle-age, and 50 and over is old. This classification is based upon the expectation of life and the ability to work among the Iraqi people. It has been mentioned in Appendix VI that the distribution of Iraqis according to the ability of work is as follows: under working age less than 15 years old, working age ranging from 15 to 59 years old, and over working age 60 years old and over. However, in practice the retirement age of employees in the public sector is not before 65 years old except a few cases owing to sound reasons.

The sample of this study is generally predominated by young subjects: 119 subjects (44.6 %) are under 35 years old; 101 subjects (37.8 %) fall into the range of 35 through 45 years old; and 47 subjects (17.6 %) are 50 years old and over.

Of the total sample, young males constitute 12.7 % , middle age 47 %, and old

13 %. Regarding females, out of 47.2 % of the total sample 31 % fall into the young age group, and 15.4 % in the middle age group (see Figure 4).

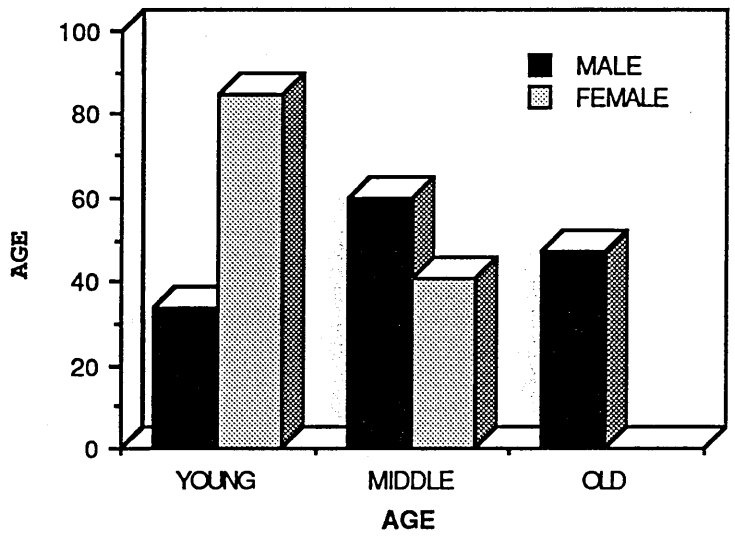



**Figure (4) Subjects' Age Group**

This is in fact due mainly to the emancipation of women and the role they are playing in Iraq. From a political point of view, the emancipation of women is regarded as one of the main national aims in the economic and social development in the country. Since the 1920s women have struggled to take their role in society, and this has became a fact in more recent years. This achievement of emancipation is, in fact, necessary for enriching the drive for progressiveness with double energy, as it is essential for encountering the challenges which will face the country, especially in a developing country like Iraq. The emancipation of women therefore played a vital role during the "Gulf War", where they played a major role in filling the gap in various needs of the country.

### 3. Marital Status

Figure 5 shows that over half the sample, 140 are married subjects (52.4 %) (105 males '39.3 %' and 35 female '13.1 %'). Single subjects constitute 123 of the total sample, with 34 of them being males and 89 females. In addition, the sample includes three widowed cases and one divorced (as shown in the Figure 5) all of them females.

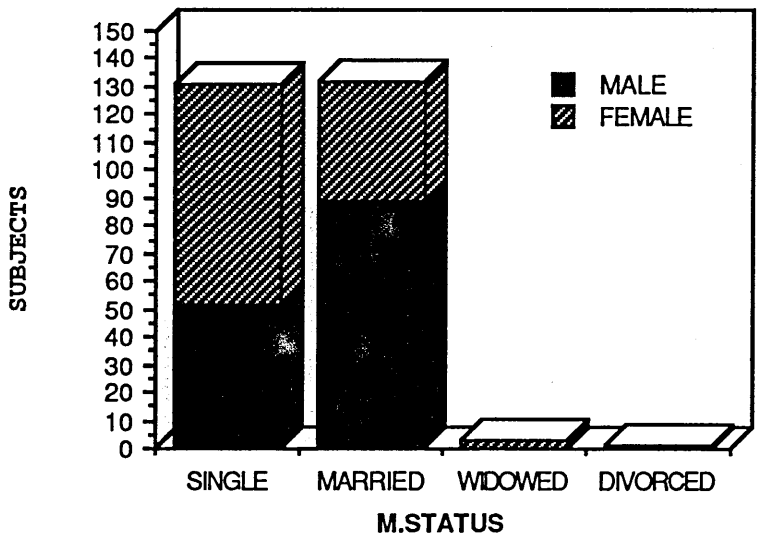



**Figure (5) Subjects' Marital Status**

The widowed and divorced cases are few in the sample and all of them are females. These cases are not applicable for the statistical techniques used in the analysis. So they are avoided as separate cases and are added to the unmarried subjects group.

### 4. Number of Dependents

Table 1 represents the number of the subjects' dependents. Over half (146 employees of 267) the subjects in this study have no children, while the other half (121 employees) have a number of children ranging from one to eleven. As regards other dependents such as parents or relatives who depend on the subjects

for their needs, 228 subjects (84.4 %) have no responsibility for any dependents what-so-ever, while 39 (14.6 %) have a number of dependents ranging from one to four (see Figure 6). Six of subjects who have dependents are non-married.

Finally, when adding the number of children to other dependents the number of employees' dependents looks as portrayed in Table 2.

**Table (1)** Number of Children

| Number of Children | Frequency | % |
|---|---|---|
| 0 | 146 | 54.7 |
| 1 | 9 | 3.4 |
| 2 | 12 | 4.5 |
| 3 | 24 | 8.9 |
| 4 | 17 | 6.4 |
| 5 | 25 | 9.4 |
| 6 | 18 | 6.7 |
| 7 | 7 | 2.6 |
| 8 | 5 | 1.9 |
| 9 | 2 | 1.7 |
| 11 | 2 | 1.7 |
| Total | 267 | 100 |

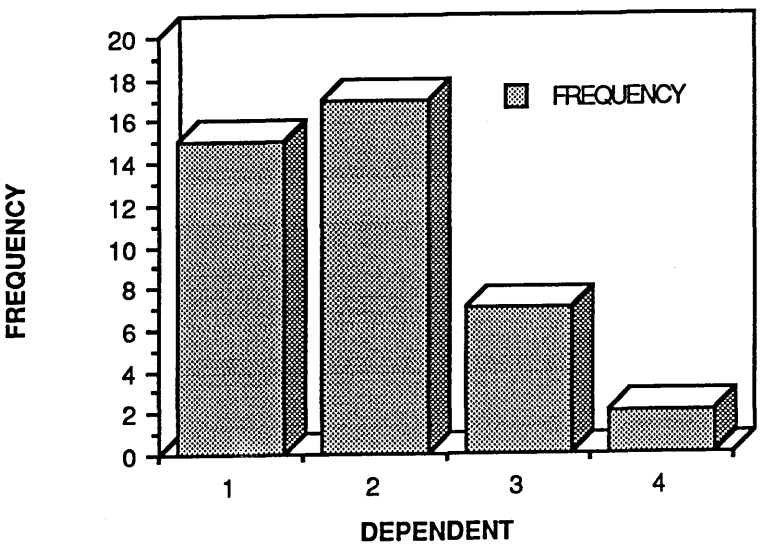



**Figure (6) Number of Dependents (Without children)**

**Table (2)** No.of Dependents (including children)

| Number of Dependent | Male | Female | Total | % |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 53 | 87 | 140 | 52.4 |
| 1 | 4 | 4 | 8 | 3.0 |
| 2 | 1 | 11 | 12 | 4.5 |
| 3 | 11 | 13 | 24 | 9.0 |
| 4 | 10 | 4 | 14 | 5.2 |
| 5 | 21 | 5 | 26 | 9.7 |
| 6 | 16 | 2 | 18 | 6.7 |
| 7 | 9 | - | 9 | 3.4 |
| 8 | 10 | - | 10 | 3.7 |
| 9 | 2 | - | 2 | 0.7 |
| 10 | 3 | - | 3 | 1.1 |
| 11 | 1 | - | 1 | 0.4 |
| Total | 141 | 126 | 267 | 100 |

## 5. Education Level

As mentioned in Appendix VI, the educational system in Iraq is fundamentally in three stages: primary, secondary, and higher education. Primary and secondary stages are of six years education each. Higher education includes undergraduate and postgraduate levels. The undergraduate level requires two years of study for diploma, four years for bachelor, except medicine which requires six years. Postgraduate level, a Master's degree requires two to three years and the Ph.D degree necessitates a minimum of three years. Regarding the subjects' educational level, none of them have a postgraduate education. However, the majority (83.6 %) had no less than 12 years of schooling. Figure 7 shows the distribution of the sampled subjects according to their education.

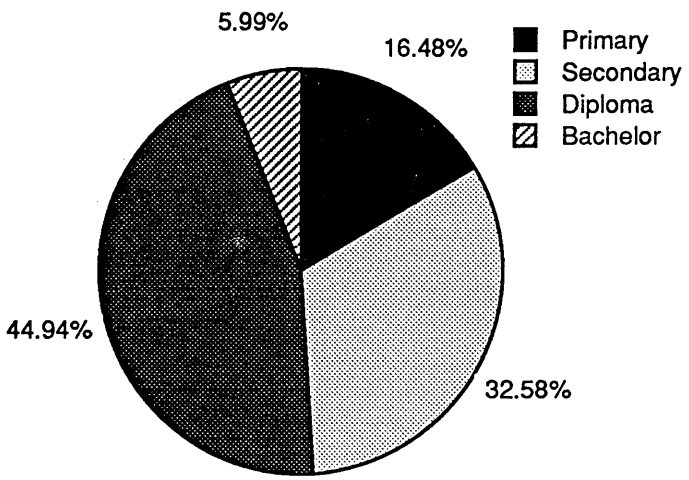



**Figure (7) Subjects' Education level**

The sample subjects specialize according to their level of education as follows: (1) The subjects who had completed a secondary school, (120 employees), specialized as follows: 17 (14.2%) science, 47 (39.1%) literary, 32 (26.6%)

commerce, 10 (8.3%) industry, and 14 (11.7%) agriculture. (2) The subjects who have been awarded a diploma degree, distributed among seven specialization. The majority of them (65.5%) specialized in management (32 subjects) and warehousing (27 subjects) while among the others (28 subjects): 8 specialized in accountancy, 7 in agriculture, 8 in petroleum, 4 in chemical manufacturing, and only one specialised in electrical skills. Of the 16 subjects with a Bachelor's degree, 9 specialized in management, 5 in economics, and 2 in accountancy.

In the Iraqi context this implies that people in higher education (over 14 years of schooling) have little chance of employment in warehousing work. The specialization of the subjects indicates that the majority of the employees are appropriate to their job in warehousing, while some subjects as those with a diploma in petroleum, do not work in their own field of specialisation. In fact all of these subjects are females and they have less chance to work in the petroleum operation for sound reasons.

**6. Years of Experience (Length of Service)**

There are two types of prior experience. First, working in warehousing and second, out of warehousing. In other words, the subjects who are initially employed in warehousing only have experience in warehousing, while the subjects who transfer from other departments or organisations to warehousing have had prior experience in other managerial jobs.

Regarding our sample, 71 subjects (26.6 %) are initially employed in warehousing. This means that previous experience of these subjects is only in warehousing, while other 197 subjects (73.4 %) are transferred from other departments to warehousing. This means that they have more experience than the warehousing ones.

**Table (3)** Length of Service

| year | Male | Female | Total | % |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Less than 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0.4 |
| 2-5 | 15 | 38 | 53 | 19.8 |
| 6-9 | 38 | 51 | 89 | 33.3 |
| 10-13 | 20 | 32 | 52 | 19.5 |
| 14-17 | 12 | 4 | 16 | 6.0 |
| Over 18 | 56 | - | 56 | 21.0 |
| Total | 141 | 126 | 267 | 100 |

## 7. Pay Level (Monthly Salary)

The subjects' wages range from 87 to 273 ID (Iraqi Dinar). Table 4 shows that the minority (12 subjects), earn a wage of less than 90 ID, while the majority, (202 subjects) earn a wage ranging from over 90 to less than 191 ID. Except for those who gain a relatively high wage (19.8 %) of the total sample, their monthly salary ranges from approximately 200 to less than 270 ID.

**Table (4)** the Subjects' Pay Level

| Salary | Male | Female | Total | % |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Less than 90 | 1 | 11 | 12 | 4.5 |
| 91-110 | 5 | 21 | 26 | 9.6 |
| 111-130 | 15 | 30 | 45 | 17.2 |
| 131-150 | 31 | 48 | 79 | 29.6 |
| 151-170 | 20 | 12 | 32 | 12.0 |
| 171-190 | 15 | 4 | 19 | 7.1 |
| 191-210 | 16 | - | 16 | 6.0 |
| 211-230 | 23 | - | 23 | 8.6 |
| 231-250 | 10 | - | 10 | 3.7 |
| 251 and over | 4 | - | 4 | 1.5 |
| Total | 141 | 126 | 267 | 100 |

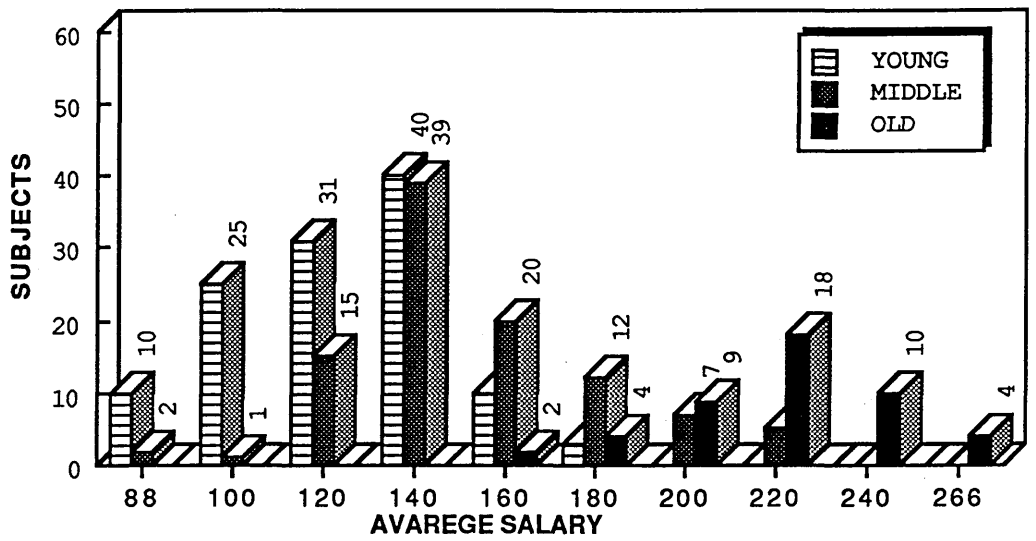



**Figure (7) The Subjects' Pay Level According to Their Age**

## 8. Training

Over half of the sample (60.7 %) 162 subjects attended training programmes in warehousing, while less than half (105 subjects: 36 of whom were males and 69 females), did not. The number of programmes attended ranged from one to twelve. Figure 8 represents training programmes attended according to the employees' sex. It is clear that males have more chances to attend training programmes than female subjects. According to sector, subjects who have completed training programmes are: 49 in food, 32 in textile, 25 in engineering, 25 in chemical, 23 in construction, and 8 in medical (see Table 5).

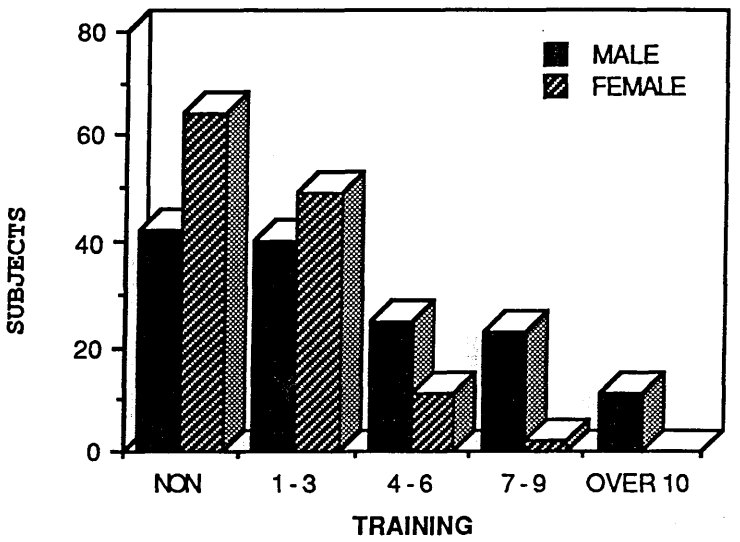



**Figure (8) Training Programmes According to Subjects' Sex**

**Table (5)** Training Programmes Attended According Sector

| Sector | None | 1-3 | 4-6 | 7-9 | Over 10 | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Food | 28 | 31 | 13 | 3 | 2 | 77 |
| Textile | 24 | 16 | 8 | 7 | 1 | 56 |
| Engineering | 20 | 13 | 4 | 6 | 2 | 45 |
| Chemical | 17 | 9 | 5 | 7 | 4 | 42 |
| Construction | 31 | 8 | 15 | 5 | 2 | 1 |
| Medical | 8 | 6 | 1 | - | 1 | 16 |
| Total | 105 | 90 | 36 | 25 | 11 | 167 |

## 9. Plan for Continuing Employment in Warehousing

The responses to question 13 in part one of the questionnaire, which gives the participants the option for continuing employment in warehouses or transferring to other departments or organisations reveal that 133 subjects (42.3 %) wish to leave warehousing for several reasons, while over half (149 subjects) plan to continue their employment in warehousing.

According to their gender, only 66 of the 126 females and 83 of the 141 males accept the work in warehousing. This means that females are relatively more settled than their males counterparts. Figure 9 and Table 6 show a clear picture of both sexes regarding their plan for continuing employment in warehousing.

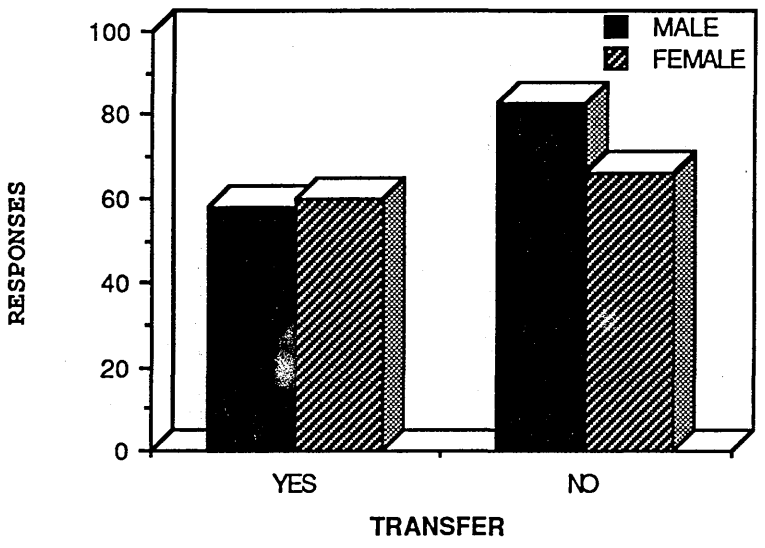



**Figure (9) Subjects' Intention to Stay In Warehousing**

**Table (6)** Subjects' Intention to Stay according to the Sector

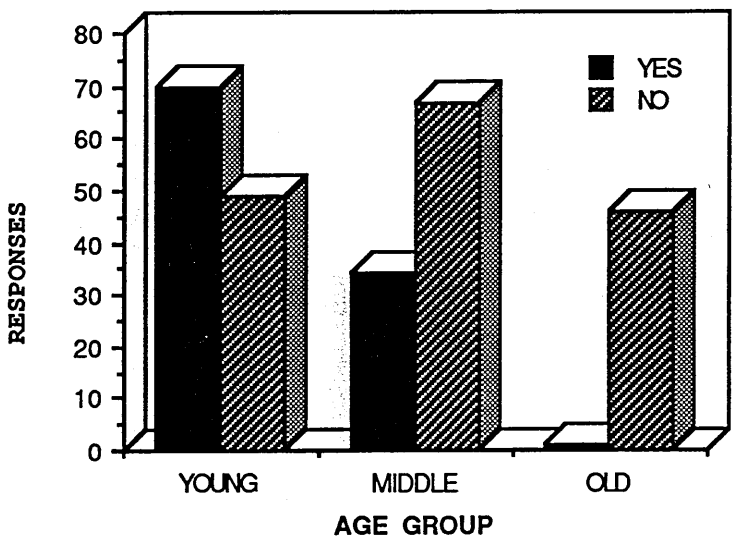
| Sector | Yes | % | No | % | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Food | 38 | 49.31 | 39 | 50.6 | 77 |
| Textile | 20 | 35.7 | 36 | 64.3 | 56 |
| Engineering | 23 | 51.1 | 22 | 48.9 | 45 |
| Chemical | 13 | 30.9 | 29 | 69.1 | 42 |
| Construction | 16 | 51.6 | 15 | 48.4 | 31 |
| Medical | 2 | 12.5 | 14 | 87.5 | 16 |
| Total | 112 | 41.9 | 155 | 58.1 | 267 |

Concerning age and the option for continuing employment in warehousing, Figure 10 shows that: all the old age group, except in one case, would like to continue their employment in warehousing, over half the young age group (66.3 %) want to stay in warehousing, while 58.8 % of the middle age group would like to continue their employment in warehousing.

Concerning sex and the intention to leave, Table 7 indicates that female subjects are relatively less willing to transfer to other departments or organisations than males if they are given the option.

**Table (7)** Intention to leave according to the subjects' sex.

| The Option | Male | % | Female | % |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| YES | 66 | 46.8 | 53 | 42.1 |
| NO | 75 | 53.2 | 73 | 57.9 |
| Total | 141 | 100 | 126 | 100 |




**Figure(10) Subjects' Plan for Continuing Employment**

# APPENDIX V

## DEFINITION OF TERMS

**Job Satisfaction:** The concept of job satisfaction is quite complex due to its multifaceted nature. However, job satisfaction can be defined as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience" (Locke, 1976). This definition seems to be the most widely accepted by industrial psychologists. The diversity of operational definitions is great (Wanous & Lawler 1972). Nine different operational definitions are identified by the latter authors: (1) those concerned with overall job satisfaction, (2) those focusing on a particular facet of one's job called job facet satisfaction, and (3) some combination of the 1 and 2. The different job facet satisfaction includes satisfaction with pay, promotion, supervision, company policies, work itself, and fellow workers. Although the operational definitions differ, the majority of researchers agree that the concept of job satisfaction is a many-faceted one (Wanous & Lawler, 1972).

Based on the previous definitions and for the purpose of this study, job satisfaction in warehousing has been defined as the employees' positive or negative attitude or feeling toward his job or some part of it, such as the work performed, supervision provided, management policies, interpersonal relations, perceived promotional opportunities, pay received, and opportunities for growth and advancement.

**Job Performance:** There is no clear or concise definition of job performance provided in the professional literature. Viewed from a broad sense, the term means the overall level of achievement, while narrow definition would simply be work output (goods and services) per unit input (labour or capital or both).

This study has not investigated the capital investment in equipment or material used by warehousing employees. Accordingly, job performance has been defined as the level of an employee's actual achievement as measured by a supervisor rating for his subordinates against a set of fixed standards determined

by the management (e.g. potential ability, quality and quantity of work, knowledge, initiative, efforts, participation, accepting supervision, and honesty, etc.).

**work values**: Work value has been defined as "that which are one regards as conducive to one's welfare" (Branden, 1966). More specifically this term has been defined by Locke (1970) as the perceived importance an individual attaches to a task or job and its components. It is worth mentioning that work values should be distinguished from related concepts, such as expectations or needs, that have been used in the literature for similar purposes (Kalleberg, 1977). For example values should be distinguished from expectations, which refer to one's beliefs about what will occur in the future, because, what is valued may or may not correspond to what is expected. In addition, values should be distinguished from needs, which refer to the "objective requirements of an organisms well-being. A value presupposes an awareness, at some level of the object or condition sought while a need does not" (Kalleberg, 1977). According to this author, the two concepts are closely related since individuals may value those factors associated with a job which satisfies their needs; but values also may be irrational and whether or not one's value correspond to these needs; it is his values which regulate his action and determine his emotional responses.

**Extrinsic Rewards**: These rewards refer to the rewards which are external to the job, but in the context of the job. These rewards are bestowed on the employee from sources such as supervisors, other people or organisations, and generally relate to the satisfaction of lower levels of needs (i.e., pay, promotion, fringe benefits, working conditions, and supervision, etc.)

**Intrinsic Rewards:** These rewards refer to desirable outcomes which a employee provides to himself as a result of having done something worthwhile (lawler & Porter, 1967). These are associated with the job itself, such as opportunity to perform meaningful work, achievement and growth, etc.

**Supervisor:** The supervisor in a warehouse has been defined as the individual (Warehouse or Technical Manager) who coordinates and directs the policies and procedures of the storage activities in warehouses.

**Warehouse Management:** It is a specific department in the hierarchy of the organisation as a part of any industry in the Industrial and Mineral Ministry in Iraqi Public Sector. The function of this department is to plan, organize, direct, and control the storage activities such as receiving and inspecting of goods delivered by suppliers, recording, maintaining, issuing and dispatching the material outside the industry or inside to other departments, reviewing of obsolete and surplus stock, certifying invoices for quantity and quality, accounting and material specification and standardizing. Following this management different types of warehouses such as: raw material warehouses, warehouses of chemical material, spare parts warehouses, Work in progress (sub-manufactured products) warehouses, finished products warehouses...etc.

**Public Sector:** Is used in this study to mean the organisations that are subject to direct government control, regulations and conditions of work in Iraqi industries. On the other hand, the private sector include non-governmental organisations, and has different policies of work.

**Employees in Warehousing Management:** Refer to the people who work together in the warehouse to deal with storage activities. The employees selected for this study are; storekeeper or warehouse keeper, assistant storekeeper, and warehouse clerk (i.e.those who have administrative roles).

**Warehouse keeper** (Storekeeper): Refers to a person who is responsible for warehousing work. The warehouse keeper is responsible for the following functions:

1. Inspection and receive all material and parts which are used in the organisation, such as, supplies for manufacturing or operating processes, capital installations, finished products...etc.

2. Supervise and direct the handling and storing equipment, the safe keeping and protection of stock, as well as prepare appropriate space to store material and equipment.

3. Maintain the Cards, Records, and documents on the material supplied.

4. Check and isolate damaged material and inform the warehouse manager about it.

5. Supervise safety measures in the warehouse considering specific material characteristics and the appropriate conditions for storing it.

6. Systematically describing all items of storage.

7. Study alternative materials and suggest this material when the original is exhausted.

8.Stay in touch with periodicals on the management of material and equipment during the receipt, store, and dispatch.

9. Supervise and control the transportation equipment inside the warehouse and the factory.

10. Receive and store the scrap and other discarded materials (surplus stock) from production processes, and suggest how best to use these materials or equipment through remanufacturing sale or disposal.

11. Provide periodic reports to the warehouse manager about the unused and slow moving materials.

12. supervise and control the flow of raw materials, components, tools, equipment and any other commodities necessary to meet operational

requirements.

13. Receive and issue work in progress and finished products.

14. supervise the importing procedures and the custom requirements.

15. supervise and control the annual and periodical stock checking.

16. Supervise the documents which are recorded from day to day.

**Assistant Warehouse keeper**: Refers to a person who works with the warehouse keeper and has authority to assist the warehouse keeper in his duties. This person shares the responsibility for the storage activities.

**Clerk**: This term refers to a person who is responsible for the clerical work in warehousing activities, as well as the maintenance for all the records and documents, such as stock record cards, order record, stock review card,...etc.

# APPENDIX VI

## A BRIEF BACKGROUND OF THE IRAQI CULTURAL AND ECONOMIC ASPECTS

## 1. Introduction

Iraq's strategic position at the crossroads of three continents and its particular geographic features have played a vital role in its history. A rich land area surrounded by mountain people to the north and northeast and by desert bedouin to the south and southwest. Iraq has been subject to continuous invasions. Historically speaking, Iraq was one of the earliest cradles of human civilization; it was perhaps in Iraq that the first word was written in history; probably the first legislation, in this land, was laid by king Hamurabi to regulate the life of the people and organise their social, economic and political activities.

Geographically, the birth of these civilizations was mainly due to the rivers of the Tigris and the Euphrates which flow from north to south and meet at Shat Al-Arab to move toward the Arabian Gulf. However, Iraq is now a developing country, struggling to shake off the burdens of the past and achieve social and economic development. Since the 17-30 July 1968 revolution, Iraq has witnessed rapid changes in various economic and social aspects. This Appendix discusses the socio-cultural and economic aspects in the light of the great impact of these aspects on management efficiency, and the need to understand, in general, the values and believes of the people in which the sampling subjects operate. Organisational theorists have been much concerned with the impact of the environmental variables on management principles and organisational practice (Oberg, 1963; Farmer & Richman, 1964; Negandhi, 1975; Bhagat & McQuaid, 1982). Thus, the study of an organisational phenomenon must be conducted in relation to the social and economic context in which it is found, especially in such organisational phenomena like job satisfaction. Job satisfaction or low productivity does not always occur because organisations are suffering from internal discomfort. The employees' satisfaction and performance are most likely highly predictable on the basis of the socio-cultural factors. So the major issue of this Appendix presents the Iraqi environment in its: (1) historical and geographical aspects, (2) demographical aspect, (3) socio-cultural aspect, and (4) economic aspect.

## 2. Historical Aspects

Iraq is considered as a developing country. This situation is the consequence of historical processes which affected all of its economic, social, and political life.

The past hundred years of archaeological investigation have revealed that Iraq was the centre of the earliest human civilized endeavors, where from cultural influences they spread out to other parts of the world. The prehistoric period is the Paleolithic or the old stone age. During this age the southern part of Iraq was beneath the sea; consequently, traces of Paleolithic Man are only to be found in the north where there are several caves and open sites. The next step in human development was the Neolithic period, when agriculture and domestication of animals began - events which have been considered the greatest revolution in man's cultural evolution: the Food Gathering Age became the Food Producing Age. Shortly before 3000 B.C., new and important sources for the history of Iraq came into being with the first written words. The vast stretch of time from the beginning of history to the Arab era can be divided into several main periods (Iraq, Ministry of Interior, 1953: 29):

1. The early Dynastic Period .....3000 - 2400 B.C.
2. Sumer and Akkad, or Imperial Period:
   a-The Akkadian Dynasty .....2400 - 2200 B.C.
   b-The Gutian and III Dynasty of Ur .....2200 - 1998 B.C.
3. The Old Babylonian Period .....1998 - 1600 B.C.
   (Isin-Larsa and I Dynasty of Babylon)
4. The Kassite and Middle Babylonian period.....1600 - 700 B.C.
5. The Assyrian Period .....1900 - 612 B.C.
6. The Neo-Babylonian Period .....626 - 538 B.C.
7. Period of foreign Rule :
   a. Achaemenian Period .....538 - 331 B.C.
   b. Alexander and the Seleucid Period .....331 - 140 B.C.
   c. Parthian Period .....140 B.C.- 226 A.D.
   d. Sassanian Period .....226 - 636 A.D.

With the arrival of the Arabs, in medieval history, came Islam, which inaugurated a new era in the Near East.

During the Umayyad period, Iraq was the base for Muslim expansion eastward. It played a leading part in cultural activities: Arabic studies were initiated and developed; it was the home of traditions and people both nomadic and settled. After the Umayyeds, Iraq became the headquarters of the Abbaside movement and the centre whence it spread eastward. Baghdad was soon to become the capital of the Abbaside Empire Khilafat for six hundred years (658-1258). But this role started to decline since the fall of Baghdad (1258) under the hand of the barbarian mongol. In this era (Mongol Era), Iraq entered one of the darkest periods of its history. Civilization declined, canals were destroyed, and the population rapidly decreased. This period ended with the Ottoman Empire occupation, which ended in 1914. After this, in Iraqi modern history, according to the Sykes Picot Agreements Iraq came under the British Mandate from the first world War until the fall of the monarchial regime on 14th of july 1958, when Iraq became a fully independent republic.

The modern historical record of Iraq shows two major factors. The first one is political, that is the overthrow of the monarchy in 1958 with Iraq becoming an independent republic; relationships are established with the Soviet Union, the Eastern Europe countries, and the Western world. The second factor is economic, that is when oil was discovered, and Iraq became the second largest supplier of crude oil in the world.

### 3. Location and geographical Aspects

Iraq is situated in the south-west of Asia, to the north-east of Arab Homeland, bounded on the north by Turkey, on the east by Iran, on the south by Kuwait and the Arabian Gulf, on the south-west by Saudi Arabia and Jordan, and on the north-west by Syria. The total area of Iraqi lands covers 438317 square kilometers excluding territorial waters. The country can be divided into three main physical regions: mountainous region, alluvial plain, and desert

plateau. The mountainous region is situated in the north and north east of Iraq and extends to its joint boundaries with Syria, Turkey and Iran in the west north and east. The region constitutes about one fifth of the total area of Iraq. This district enjoys a much greater proportion of rain annually. The alluvial plain is situated between the two great rivers, Tigris and Euphrates. It forms a rectangle (650Km. long and 250 Km. wide). The desert plateau is situated in the south-west of the country, known as the western desert; it forms about two-fifths of the total Iraqi area. This region is broken in the south by march land.

Iraq has a rather mild climate especially in the north. Summers are overwhelmingly hot, with shade temperatures of over 43'C., but winters may be surprisingly cold; frost, though very rare at Basrah in the south, can be severe in the north. Sudden hot spells during the winter are another feature in central and southern Iraq. Rainfall is scanty overall in the country, except for the north-east, where annual falls of 400 mm. occur enough to grow crops without irrigation. Thus the country enjoys thick vegetation where plants cover more than 70% of the land while other regions in the western parts of the country (i.e., desert plateau) are poorer in vegetation due to the small amount of rainfall.

The geographical aspects have an impact on business organisations as well as on Iraqis in general. Such impact includes the concentration in relatively large cities. This in turn has affected the distribution of Iraqi companies throughout the country, particularly manufacturing companies. In addition, the geographical aspects have contributed to creating relatively similar social values and traditions, which in turn have a great importance to understanding people's behaviour.

## 4. Demographical Aspects

This aspect seems to be important for the management of any organisation, as well as for any organisational study in this country, since it presents statistical information about the country's population, human resources, education, and other demographical variables. The researcher shall be discussing, briefly, these aspects in what follows, given their influence on the organisational effectiveness.

## 4.1. Population

People in the country can be divided according to their regions: in the north, some two million people live in or close to the hill Kurds majority, as well as a small minority of Turkish. The bedouin form a few thousand and they live in the north-west and the western desert. In the Marches of the extreme south there are communities of Arabs who spend most of their lives in rafts and boats. The Arabs dominate the western strip of the Tigris and Euphrates valley from Basrah in the south to Nineveh plain in the north. However, in the country as a whole some 62% of the population live in "urban" areas, the three main cities being Baghdad, Mosul, and Basrah. This constitutes a high level of urbanization for a large country with a sizable agricultural sector (Birks & Sinclair, 1982:245).

The population of Iraq according to the 1977 census (Table 1) is over 12 million (12,000,497). The average growth rate of the population is 3.27% in comparison with 1957 census results (6,299,000). The population of the country in 1980 was over 13 million (13,238,000) and in 1984 over 15 million (15,077,000) while this figure increased in the last census (1987) to 16,659,000 million. The annual compound growth rate was 3.32% during 1980-1987.

The distribution of the population is based on the ability to work according to the expectation of life. In 1977 the expectation of life for males was about 60 years and for females about 62 years. This expectation increased to 63 years for males and 65 years for females in 1982 (Ministry of Planning, 1986: 43).

The distribution regarding the ability of work can be seen as: under working age (0-14), working age (15-59) and over working age (over 60). In 1980 it was 45.3%, 47.5%, 5.6% respectively, and 43.4%, 51.4%, 5.1% in 1986. It is clear from these percentages that the population in the working age slightly increased (about 2%) between 1980 and 1986. It increased to 4% in 1987. This is in fact a healthy phenomenon from the economic viewpoint, because the increase of people in the working age gives more employment chances in productive operations (Ministry of Planning, 1987:80-86).

**Table (1)**
Population of Iraq by Sex and Residence (Urban/Rural) 1957-1987
(000)

| YEAR | URBAN | | RURAL | | SEX | | TOTAL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Males | Females | Males | Females | Males | Females | |
| 1957 | NA | NA | NA | NA | 3155 | 3144 | 6299 |
| 1977 | 3979 | 3667 | 2203 | 2151 | 6183 | 5817 | 12000 |
| 1980 | 4568 | 4216 | 2248 | 2207 | 6816 | 6423 | 13239 |
| 1981 | 4775 | 4411 | 2259 | 2224 | 7035 | 6634 | 1366 |
| 1982 | 4990 | 4612 | 2270 | 2238 | 7260 | 6850 | 14110 |
| 1983 | 5223 | 4828 | 2281 | 2253 | 7504 | 7082 | 14585 |
| 1984 | 5464 | 5054 | 2292 | 2267 | 7756 | 7321 | 15077 |
| 1985 | 5712 | 5287 | 2303 | 2282 | 8015 | 7569 | 15584 |
| 1986 | 5970 | 5530 | 2313 | 2297 | 8283 | 7827 | 16110 |
| 1987 | NA | NA | NA | NA | 8563 | 8096 | 16659 |

Note: Results of population do not include Iraqis abroad.
Sources:
1-Iraq, Ministry of Planning, Iraq Economy 1980-86, Baghdad, 1987. PP 30-31.
2-Iraq, Ministry of Planning, Statistical Pocket Book 1987, Baghdad: Central Statistical Organisation, 1988. p.13.
3-Iraq, Ministry of Planning, Annual Abstract of Statistics 1986, Baghdad: Central Statistical Organisation, 1987. P.47.

As regards sex, the rate of population remained stable throughout the period 1980-87, the male rate was 51.5% and the female 48.8%.

In the subject of urban and rural residential areas, the population in the urban area was 8,783 in 1980 and increased to 11,500 in 1986. It is clear (see Table 1) that the urban population increased from 66.3% in 1980 to 71.4% in 1986. This phenomenon mainly resulted from the migration of the people from the countryside to cities, because they found more opportunities in the cities to

achieve their aims after the development revolution in the country during the 1970s.

**5. Education and Health Sectors in Iraq**

No doubt education plays a vital role in the economic and social development of every society. Nowadays, a society must be an "educated society" in order to progress, to grow, even to survive (Durker, 1959:114). So it is worth giving a brief background of the Iraqi education system to understand its influence on the socio-economic development in the country.

The educational system consists of three different school-systems under which Iraqis are currently educated. Primary, Secondary, and Higher Education (some children may go to the Kindergarten). The primary stage is of six years education. The secondary six years: three intermediate and three preparatory. The preparatory is either General (Scientific and Literary) or Vocational (Industry, Commercial, Agriculture, Nursing). Thus, the public school system operates on a 6-3-3' plan. Higher Education involves four years except medicine which involves six years. The postgraduate requires 2-3 years of Master degree and 3 years of Ph.D degree. The education in all stages is free for all Iraqi people and primary education has been made compulsory in an effort to eliminate illiteracy. Primary, intermediate, and preparatory stages each culminate in a public examination held by the Ministry of Education. These examinations determine the transfer from one stage to another.

Between 1958 and 1988, education experienced a virtual explosion enrollment in primary schools rose from 416,000 to 2,996,953; in secondary schools, from a little over 5,000 to 1,129,426; higher education from 5,679 to 153,245 (see Table 2). The increase in the number of students in all educational stages was impressive. Between 1958-1973, the number of primary school graduates was over threefold and at the secondary school levels over sevenfold, while in the colleges higher education level, between 1958-80 the figure increased more than seventeen and a half times. The figures for graduates at all levels had increased impressively.

**Table (2)**

Education levels at Government & Private Schools in Iraq.

| year | Kindergarten | Primary | Secondary (1) | Higher Education (2) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1921/22 | NA | 8001 | 110 | 65 |
| 1930/31 | NA | 34513 | 2082 | 99 |
| 1940/41 | NA | 90794 | 13969 | 709 |
| 1950/51 | NA | 180799 | 22707 | 4860 |
| 1957/58 | NA | 416600 | 51500 | 5679 |
| 1972/73 | 15583 | 1297756 | 364540 | 7019(3) |
| 1979/80 | 70418 | 2658933 | 901628 | 100979 |
| 1987/88 | 76558 | 2996953 | 1129426 | 153245(4) |

(1)The figures include the General & Vocational secondary school.

(2)The figures include the Postgraduate students.

(3)This figure only the students who graduated.

(4)This figure does not include the postgraduate students.

Sources : Ministry of Interior, Iraq Today, Baghdad, 1953,pp:71-73.

Iraq,Ministry of Planning, Statistical Abstract on Education in 1958, Baghdad: Republic Government Press, 1959, pp. 6, 9, 14, 15, 16, 20, 21, 26.

Iraq, Ministry of Planning, Annual Abstract of Statistics, Baghdad: Central Statistical Organisation, 1986, p.226. Statistical Pocket Book 1988, pp. 61-64, 66-68.

Much attention has also been given to medical services. These services are free and open to every category of out-patient. Between 1958-87 the number of hospitals increased from 123 to 234, the number of doctors from 1,302 to 9,6991 (Ministry of Planning, 1988:71). Better health care, as well as sanitation and social services, has marked improvement in health standards. The indication is the decline in death rate from 14.6 per thousand in 1970-75 to 13 per thousand during 1975-80 (UN estimates).

[1]This figure includes 112 dentists in 1958 and 1403 dentists in 1987.

## 6. Socio-Cultural Aspects

Culture is a complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, arts, morals, law, customs and any other capabilities or habits acquired by man as a member of society (EL-Faki, 1983:198). Therefore, culture is the integrative part of the overall environment. It is composed of the overall environment spectrum of social variables such as values, attitudes, norms, network of community, relationship and mediating structure (exemplified in social organisations and social relationships such as those of family, neighborhood, tribe), education, language, belief, and overall social variables which constitute shared patterns of learned behaviour which formulate the distinct way of life within a specific society (Hall, as cited by EL-Faki, 1983:200-201).

The above definition is useful, especially in a study like this, to understand how behaviour and performance of human beings to a great extent are guided by the influence of culture. A society's progress does not depend on its technology and material wealth as much as it depends on the internal motivation of its people. People can be more productive if management policies and plans are compatible with employees' values and attitudes. Attitudes are the most critical states of mind in an organisations' performance. The attitudes of social members towards work to a great extent determine the society's productivity and economic performance.

In the Iraqi socio-cultural context there seems to be two factors which bear most on the behaviour of the Iraqi people, mainly religion and family.

### 6.1. Religion

Religion influences human behaviour. Social interaction and social relations, for example, the role of women, political organisations, and education systems are all significantly affected by the religion of the society (Vern, 1978:29).

In Iraq about 90% of the population are Muslims, and Islam is the state religion (Mansfield, 1980:3230). To start with, Islam is both belief and

legislation, which organises all relationships of man. A Muslim is someone who accepts and submits himself to the will of God (Vern, 1978:49). The 'Sharia' or law of Islam embraces every detail of human life, and includes personal actions as well as relations and community life, including the government (Kergan, 1975:283). So Islam is considered to be the major socio-cultural variable that affects the behaviour and values of the people in Iraq. Daerwish and Takla (1983:118) stated some of these values:

-people are equal in the face of God and law.

-the state is legislated by God as a political, economic, and ethical system, and man can organise this system through his knowledge and experience.

-personal exploitation and special privilege are prohibited.

-the principle of leadership implies the highest sanction, but the leader is responsible to God and thus human welfare.

-leadership is not hereditary, but rests on selection and is justified by ethical standards and by services.

-community "mutual consultation" (Shura), at local and national levels is required in decision making, action and election.

-labour in itself is honorable and is entitled to equitable remuneration.

In sum, the impact of Islam on the behaviour of Iraqis has two angles, while Islamic values offer the best way for effective management, misinterpretation of these values deters effective progress.

### 6.2. Family

The other cultural aspect which influences the behaviour of Iraqis is the family. In Iraq as in all Arabic and most Islamic countries the family plays a major role in the culture of people. The extended family is the essence of social structure of contemporary Iraq. The Iraqi family has a different and wider connotation than that which is customary in more developed countries. The term includes many more distant relatives and kinsmen such as grand-fathers, cousins, aunts, nephews and nieces. Iraqi family consists of the father and mother, their unmarried children and their married sons and daughters with their

families. In 1940, the ration of the extended families among all population was 82%. Surely this ration has decreased during the following decades, particularly among townsmen. But more than 50% of the population are still living in extended families (Sulieman, 1985: 76).

Iraqi family control and shapes its members' behaviour in such way a that they must think twice before deciding on such matters as the choice of wife or husband, or even the type of business. Relationships exist within a family. The father, or the senior male member, exercises almost undisputed authority, making the major decision affecting the family welfare, representing it in dealing with outsiders, punishing its members for transgression. Members view him with a mixture of awe and fear. They have to gain his approval, prior to taking any important decisions and this can only be achieved by their obedience to his different order (Sulieman, 1985: 77).

In sum, within the extended family system, where a strong social hierarchical structure prevails, an individual's position is determined by a host of considerations. These include his responsibilities and achievement, and cooperative and considerate attitude toward other members of his social group, his sincerity and dedication, and in general, the degree to which he contributes to the unity and welfare of the group. In this kind of cultural setting, the employees' behaviour should be considered within the social realities in which they exist.

## 7. Some Aspects of Iraqi Economy

One of the most important environmental factors in shaping people's attitudes is the external economy. It constrains, promotes, and regulates people's behaviour. So it seems quite important to look through the development of Iraqi economy to determine the influence of this factor on people's attitudes.

Before the discovery of petroleum in Iraq, agriculture was the dominant sector of the economy. It was estimated that nearly 80% of the total population has engaged in this sector, further, nearly 70% of Iraqi production is agricultural and dates were the main export commodity (Ministry of Interior, 1953:73).

However, dates remains Iraq's second most valuable export, but petroleum today is the most important sector of the economy, providing more than 95% of the country's earnings of foreign exchange (Fisher, 1988: 1414, in The Europe Year Book).

**Table (3)**
Distribution of GDP by Economic Sector, 1955-1979
(in current ID millions)

| Sector | 1955 | % | 1960 | % | 1965 | % | 1970 | % | 1975 | % | 1979 | % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Agri. | 65.3 | 16.8 | 97.8 | 17.3 | 153.2 | 17.2 | 206.9 | 17.3 | 397.3 | 7.5 | 695.0 | 7.7 |
| Minig. | 162.7 | 42.0 | 209.7 | 37.1 | 285.9 | 33.0 | 370.5 | 30.9 | 2287.7 | 57.6 | 5686.5 | 62.7 |
| Maunf. | 26.9 | 6.9 | 54.4 | 9.6 | 69.4 | 08.0 | 116.0 | 09.7 | 238.5 | 6.0 | 504.3 | 5.6 |
| Const. | 21.3 | 5.5 | 23.1 | 4.1 | 30.5 | 03.5 | 40.6 | 03.4 | 91.3 | 2.3 | 344.8 | 3.8 |
| Elec.,Gas, & Water. | 2.2 | 0.5 | 3.6 | 0.6 | 12.0 | 01.4 | 12.7 | 01.1 | 17.7 | 0.4 | 049.5 | 0.5 |
| Tran.&Comm. | 24.6 | 6.3 | 39.7 | 7.0 | 58.2 | 06.7 | 71.2 | 05.9 | 157.6 | 3.9 | 368.7 | 4.1 |
| Trad.&Financ. | 26.0 | 6.7 | 41.2 | 7.3 | 79.3 | 09.1 | 117.2 | 09.8 | 255.1 | 6.4 | 485.6 | 5.4 |
| Public Admin. &Def., | 24.3 | 6.2 | 45.7 | 8.1 | 89.0 | 10.3 | 124.3 | 10.4 | 372.6 | 9.4 | NA | NA |
| Others(A) | 33.4 | 8.6 | 50.0 | 8.8 | 90.1 | 10.4 | 137.9 | 11.5 | 252.7 | 6.4 | 934.6 | 10.3 |
| Total GDP | 386.7 | | 565.2 | | 867.6 | | 1197.3 | | 3970.5 | | 9069.0(B) | |

A great development has been achieved in the Iraqi economy during the 1960s to the beginning of the 1980s. The impact of oil revenues and more development had become conclusive (see Table 3). One effect is a marked decline in agriculture, both in terms of employment and in the percentage of Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The oil sector expanded greatly, particularly after the Nationalization of oil in 1972, when the country became independent from the foreign oil companies. By 1975, oil undersized other sectors and counted for 57.6% of the GDP. Agriculture (7.5%), manufacturing (6%), and

construction (2.3%) were down as well as trade and finance with 6.4%. while the total services including public administration, defense and real estate accounted for over 15% of GDP. By 1979 these trends had advanced. The oil sector dominated by 62.7% of the GDP, and all other sectors except defense, for which figures are unavailable, constituted 10%. However, nonoil GDP, except in the mining sector indicates how other sectors of the Iraqi economy are doing (Table 4).

**Table (4)**
Distribution of Nonoil GDP by Economic sector
1955-1979 (In percentages)(A)

| Sector | 1955 | 1960 | 1965 | 1970 | 1975 | 1979 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Agriculture | 29.1 | 27.5 | 26.3 | 25.0 | 17.7 | 20.5 |
| Manufacturing | 12.0 | 15.3 | 11.9 | 14.0 | 14.1 | 14.9 |
| Construction | 9.5 | 06.5 | 05.2 | 04.9 | 05.4 | 10.2 |
| Electric/Water | 0.9 | 01.0 | 02.0 | 01.5 | 01.2 | 01.5 |
| Transpo. & Comm. | 10.9 | 11.2 | 10.0 | 08.6 | 09.3 | 10.9 |
| Trade & Finance | 11.6 | 11.6 | 13.6 | 14.2 | 15.2 | 14.4 |
| Public Admin & Defe | 10.8 | 12.8 | 15.2 | 15.0 | 22.1 | NA |
| Other(B) | 14.9 | 14.6 | 15.4 | 16.7 | 15.0 | 27.6(C) |
| Total Nonoil GDP(D) | 224 | 355.5 | 581.7 | 826.8 | 1.682.8 | 3.382.5 |

(A) GDP less the Mining sector, which is almost wholly oil.
(B) Mainly services and real estate.
(C)Public Administration, services, and real estate.
(D) Figured at factor cost ( ID Million).
Source`s:The World Bank, World Tables, 3d. ed.Vol.1, Economic Data, Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1983, PP.90-91.

In 1955, the agricultural sector was in the first place, producing 29.1% of nonoil GDP; Services were second with 25.7%, manufacturing was third with 12%, while in 1979 services, excluding defence, were first (27.6%) and agriculture second (20.5%), and manufacturing and trade were third, both over 14%. This is due to the development plans, especially the development plans

which covered the period 1970-80. These plans have provided a total allocation of ID 13697.8 for the economic sector. However, the problem related to the development plans is a limit to the capacity to absorb capital which requires complementary inputs. One of the most important complementary inputs in human skills is a serious obstacle to carrying out successive stages of economic development (Salih, 1985).

From the above discussion, it can be said that Iraq has witnessed great economic development during the 1970s, but unfortunately, the war with Iran has delayed the growth of the productive elements of this economy.

### 7.1. Employment by Economic Sector

The progress of any nation depends upon the availability and efficiency of its manpower. So this section will discuss the human resources in the Iraqi economy.

The distribution of the employment in Iraqi economy during 1960s varied from one sector to another. As Table 5 shows: agriculture was the dominant sector of employment; at least half the population was engaged in agriculture, the least productive sector. The service sector was second in employment, with at least 12 to 15% of the total population. Trade, transportation and communication, and industry fluctuated between six and 7 %. By 1970 and 1973, the trend was the same; agriculture dominated the first place of employment, the services declined slightly but remained second in importance, while the industry was the third, and trade, transportation and communication had the same percentage in the forth place. The construction sector was the last in importance of Iraqi employment.

By 1977 employment in the agricultural sector dropped to 30.1% while the services increased to 31.6% and became first in importance. Industry, construction, and trade increased to 11%, 10.3%, 7.1%, respectively. From

Table (5), it is clear that Iraq enjoys a large service sector for two reasons: firstly, Iraq is a country that follows the socialist lines with a planned economy. The government exerts a direct control over the economy and therefore has an unusually large requirement for civil servants. Secondly, the informal sector in urban areas has increased rapidly in recent years. An insufficient number of employment opportunities has been created by the Iraqi modern development to absorb all the new arrivals in towns and cities (Birks & Sincliar, 1982:248). In fact, many of the new arrivals are untrained and illiterate, so are not suitable for employment in Iraq's modern industrial development.

**Table (5)**
Employment of Population by Economic Sector
1964-1977 (in hundreds)

| Sector | 1964 | % | 1967 | % | 1970 | % | 1973 | % | 1977 | % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Agriculture | 9201 | 49.6 | 11774 | 53.5 | 13857 | 55.3 | 15404 | 55.8 | 9439 | 30.1 |
| Industry | 1550 | 08.3 | 1671 | 07.7 | 1790 | 07.1 | 2028 | 07.3 | 3444 | 11.0 |
| Construction | 470 | 02.5 | 591 | 02.7 | 670 | 02.7 | 370 | 02.6 | 2217 | 10.3 |
| Trade | 1200 | 06.5 | 1350 | 06.1 | 1500 | 06.0 | 1640 | 05.9 | 2241(A) | 07.1 |
| Trans.&Comm. | 1250 | 06.8 | 1370 | 06.2 | 1500 | 06.0 | 1620 | 05.9 | 1778 | 05.8 |
| Services | 2650 | 14.6 | 2580 | 12.9 | 3000 | 12.0 | 3300 | 11.9 | 9981(B) | 31.6 |
| Others(C) | 2200 | 11.9 | 2400 | 10.9 | 2750 | 11.0 | 2900 | 10.5 | 1329(D) | 04.2 |
| Total | 18521 | | 22006 | | 26067 | | 27622 | | 32157 | |

(A) Includes some services, such as restaurants and hotels.

(B) Includes Finance, Banking, and Insurance.

(C) Component not explained in source.

(D) Includes unemployed and unknown.

Source: Marr, 1985: 268

As far as women's employment is concerned, it has become of much necessity for Iraq development in view of the urgent need for manpower in a country with over 16 million people and a gigantic development plan. Women

have participated quite widely in the modern economy: a large number employed in the agricultural sector; by 1977, it was 64.9% from the total employment in all sectors, the second in importance is in the services and the third is in industry with 9.5% from all the employment (Table 6). The rate of unemployment, in 1977 was 74,725. This figure comprises 2.4% from the whole employment. Iraq has experienced quite acute shortages of skilled labour and in recent years considerable investment has been made in vocational and technical educational facilities. The creation of a sufficient number of jobs for the labour market entrants in the next decades will not be easy, the emergence open unemployment and underemployment as a key problem (Brike & Sincliar, 1982: 254)

**Table (6)**
Employment in Iraqi Economic Sector by Sex in 1977
(000) Employment

| Sector | Men | % | Women | % | Total | % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Agriculture | 591066 | 22.8 | 352824 | 64.9 | 943890 | 30.0 |
| Industry (A) | 292734 | 11.3 | 51684 | 9.4 | 344418 | 11.0 |
| Construction | 316560 | 12.2 | 5136 | 0.9 | 321696 | 10.3 |
| Trade | 207946 | 8.0 | 16155 | 3.0 | 224104 | 07.1 |
| Tran. & Comm. | 172814 | 6.7 | 4985 | 0.9 | 117799 | 05.7 |
| Finan., Insuran., real Estat& B.S. | 26023 | 1.0 | 5066 | 0.9 | 31089 | 01.0 |
| Community, social, personal services. | 871879 | 33.7 | 86100 | 15.8 | 957979 | 30.6 |
| Not adequately define | 46258 | 1.8 | 11979 | 2.1 | 58237 | 01.9 |
| unemployment | 64278 | 2.5 | 10447 | 1.9 | 74725 | 02.4 |
| Total (B) | 2589561 | 100 | 544378 | 100 | 3133939 | 100 |

(A) Industry include Mining, Manufacturing, and Electricity, Gas and Water.

(B) Percentages may not add up to 100 due to the rounding.

Source: Iraq. Ministry of Planning, Annual Abstract of Statistics 1978, Baghdad: Central Statistical Organisation, 1979. p. 36.

## 7.2. Agricultural Sector in Iraqi Economy

Apart from oil, water and land were considered to be the principal natural resources of Iraq. As regards natural conditions, Iraq's climate is suitable for the growing of diverse products.

Before the overthrow of the Monarchy in 1958, 99% of the total arable lands were owned by just 2% of the total population of Iraq (AL-Horani, 1984: 62). This small number of owners had had the control of employment and production in the agriculture sector, which plays a fundamental role in the contribution to the national output or in its supply of raw materials to the domestic industry. After 1958, the new regime legislated the Agrarian Reform Law and expropriated the land from the small minority of landlords. However, this sector did not develop much from the period 1958-68 under the republican governments until 20th of May 1969, when the new government introduced new regulations through the new Agrarian Reform Law 2 This law was intended to introduce a comprehensive programme to correct the weakness of previous agrarian law and apply new legislation to improve the badly lacking agrarian reform programme. Furthermore, this law was designed to improve the living conditions of the peasantry, increase the agricultural output and correlate development in the countryside with urban development. The new law was based on both economic rationality to increase the contribution of the agricultural sector to national development and on the sentiment of equality.

Three types of farms have been organized under the new law: co-operative, collective and state farms. In all three types the government takes the charge of supervising all farming activities in order to help the peasants make efficient use of the facilities provided and derive the utmost from their work.

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2 Agrarian Reform Law_ , Law No. 117 of 1970, Iraqi Gazett No. 14, 7th April 1971, pp.3-21.

Recently, the government has taken more serious efforts to develop this specific sector. In the first Five-Year Development Plan, (1961-1964), the invested amount in this sector was 19,9 millions (ID), this figure increased to 54,8 millions (ID) in the next Five-Year Development Plan, (1965-1969), and rose sharply to 708,5 millions (ID) in the 1970-1975 Development Plan. This sector become as such third in importance during 1976-1980. The invested amount was 1411,2 millions, with 14.5% from the expenditure for all sectors (7476,0 million). During 1980-1985 National Development Plan the investment in this sector increased about threefold the last plan (3632,0 million), (see Table 7).

**Table (7)**
Actual investment In Agriculture Sector
During 1960-1985 Development Plans (ID Million)

| Plan | Investment |
|---|---|
| 1961-1964 | 19,9 |
| 1965-1969 | 54,8 |
| 1970-1975 | 708,5 |
| 1975-1980 | 1411,2 |
| 1980-1985 | 3632,0 |

Source: Iraq, Ministry of Planning,Development of the Iraqi Economy 1976-1980, Baghdad: Iraqi Central Bank, 1985. P.28.
Iraq, Ministry of Planning, National Development Plan 1981-1985, Baghdad, 1987. P.94.

Despite of the high attention which was given by the government, however, the agricultural sector has continued to suffer from low production levels and poor income for the farmers. And since the 1970s, there has been a labour shortage due to rural-to-urban migration. There are many indications of stagnation. The share of agriculture sector in GDP dropped from 17.3% in 1960 to 7.5% in 1975 and to 7.7% in 1979 (see Table 3), while agricultural output fell 11% between 1971- and 1981 (Marr, 1985: 258). Many reasons such as rural-to-urban migration, drought, weather condition.,.etc. explain these

fluctuations. The reasons for low productivity in agriculture sector are more complex than in industry, and the problem is more difficult, which is beyond human control.

Agriculture suffered from the mismanagement of the reform programme in its early years. The expropriation of wide areas of land before developing necessary management personnel certainly slowed down production. Increasing land distribution led to fragmentation of holding, and this made extensive mechanization and economies of scale difficult (Marr, 1985: 261).

Nevertheless, the deteriorating conditions and problems of this sector more than could be solved in the short run. Large efforts have constantly been made to control soil salinity, improve drainage, and solve other problems such as education problems in the rural areas and create efficient management to this sector.

### 7.3. Co-operative Societies

The co-operative system has begun in Iraq since 1944 when the cooperative law No. 27 of 1944 was issued (Ministry of Planning, 1969: 328). What made it necessary for the government to take steps to encourage the co-operative system in Iraq was the great need of organising the efforts of the working classes, fixed income earners, and small landowners and farmers in order to improve their economic and social conditions. This co-operation has now become the key issue because the government is carrying out many agricultural and economic projects which aim at improving the economic and social conditions of the various social classes of Iraqi people. This helps to build a modern community and raise the economic and social standards of the people to enjoy the country's welfare to their best. The most important type of these cooperatives are the following:

1. Consumers Co-operatives Societies: These cooperatives are formed to provide members with foodstuffs and clothing at reasonable prices.

2. Agricultural and credits co-operative Societies: These societies aim at providing members with a loan at a low rate of interest which they can use for agricultural and livestock productive purposes. In this way the co-operatives can rid them of money-lenders and assist them to improve and increase their production.

3. Housing Co-operative Societies: This type of co-operative provides members with better houses at cost price or supply them with prices of lands to build up healthy houses.

The co-operative movement which has been in progress since 1944 and up to the present timer is reported in Table (8).

**Table (8)**
Co-operatives Societies in Iraq during 1957-1967

| Societies | 1957 | 1964 | 1965 | 1967 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Housing | 11 | 26 | 40 | 34 |
| Consumer | 02 | 05 | 10 | 06 |
| Agriculture | 12 | 136 | 99 | 22 |
| Productive | 00 | 01 | 00 | 02 |

Source: Iraq. Ministry of Planning, Annual Abstract of Statistics 1969, Baghdad, 1969. PP 329-331.

### 7.4. Iraq Industrial Sector

Most of the Iraqi major industries were put into the public sector on 14th of July 1964, when the government nationalized about 30 industrial companies, all private and foreign banks and insurance companies were also nationalized. There were in that time four cement companies, seven textile, three cigarette, two shoe-manufacturing, and a number of companies making vegetable oil, jute, asbestos, paper, matches, and soaps. The government vested the control of these industries in the general industrial organisation.

In recent years, priority has been given to the industrial development, based on the belief that the industrial sector can play a vital role in the development of the national economy. The investment policy reveals that attention given by the recent government's to this sector. The amount of 2687.1 million ID was

invested in this sector at the National Development Plan (1976-1980). This amount is more than 12 times the amount which was invested in the 1970-1975 plan. But the investment amount decline during the 1980-1985 development plan, because the government concentrated on defence during the Gulf war (Table 9).

Iraq now has some major industrial plants, with others under construction, such as Iron and steel industry, petrochemical complex, fertilizer complex, textile factories, food industries,engineering industries, electrical industries, rubber industries, automotive industries, etc.

**Table (9)**
The Investment in Industrial Sector During
The National Development Plans (1961-1985) (Million ID)

| Plan | Actual Investment |
|---|---|
| 1961-1964 | 38,3 |
| 1965-1969 | 103,9 |
| 1970-1975 | 219,8 |
| 1976-1980 | 2687,1 |
| 1981-1985 | 1028,5 |

Source: Iraq, Ministry of Planning,Development of Iraq Economy 1976-1980, Baghdad: Iraqi Central Bank, 1985, P.50. and Ministry of Planning, National Development Plan 1981-1985, Baghdad, 1987,P.94.

### 7.4.1. Organisational Structure of Iraqi Industry

The Iraqi Industrial Public Sector is administered by the Ministry of Oil and the Ministry of Industry and Minerals.

Oil Ministry manages four major organisations: the Iraqi National Oil Company, the State Organisation for Oil Refining and Gas Processing, the State Establishment for the Distribution of Oil Product and Gas, and the State Establishment for Oil Projects. The latter organisation is concerned with the design, supervision, and construction of new projects in the oil sector.

The Ministry of Industry and Minerals had been divided in 1985 into two ministries, the Ministry of Light Industry and the Ministry of Heavy Industry. In

May 1988 these two ministries had been jointed as they were before in 1985 (i.e., Ministry of Industry and Minerals). The ministry is responsible for 28 state establishments ( according to the last change) and a number of special departments.The State Establishments are:

1. State organisation for Industrial Development. This organisation looks after private sector industry, which is small in size and scope.

2. Minerals Industries consist of State organisation for Extraction Industry, Mishraq Sulfur State organisation, Phosphate State organisation, and State organisation of Geological Survey and Mineral Investigation.

3. Engineering Industry is composed of Ure organisation for Engineering Manufacturing, Al-Qadisiya State organisation for Electrical Manufacturing, State organisation for Battery Manufacturing, General Engineering Company for Design and Industrial Construction,and Specialized Institute for Engineering Industry.

4. Chemical Industries are comprised of State organisation for Petrochemical Industry, State organisation for Fertilizers Industry, State organisation for Rubber Industry, State organisation for Tobacco and Cigarettes,State organisation for Leather Manufacturing, and State organisation for Paper and Pulp Industry.

5. Food Industries consists of State organisation for Vegetable Oils, State organisation for Drinks and Food Canning, State organisation for Diary Products, and Maisan Sugar State organisation.

6. Construction Industries consist of State organisation for Construction Industry, Iraq Cement State organisation, North Cement State organisation, State organisation for Glass and Ceramic Industry.

7. Textiles Industry consists of State organisation for Woollen Textiles Manufacturing, State organisation foe Cotton Textile Manufacturing, State organisation for Rayon Manufacturing, and Tailoring of Clothes State

organisation.

8. Medical Industries are composed of State Company for Medical Accessories Manufacturing.

9. Electricity Industries consist of State organisation for Generate and Transfer Electricity, State organisation for Baghdad Electricity and State organisation for Town Electricity Distribution.

The Previous State organisations can be grouped into seven sectors: Food, Textile, Chemical, Engineering, Construction, Medical, and Mining sector.

Additional departments include the Directorate-General for Industrial Consultancy, the Directorate-General for Mixed Sector, the Directorate-General of Industrial Co-operatives, and the Vocational Training Centres.

The desire to produce import substitutes is evidently a key factor in Iraq's industrial strategy and organisation. The Iraq state organisation and state companies producing import substitutes. The state organisations for food industry (i.e. food, vegetable oil, diary products, etc.) supplementing imports of foods, drinks, vegetable oil, and sugar.

The textile industries controls twenty five companies producing a range of cotton, woolen and rayon textiles supplementing textile imports. Similarly chemical industries has factories which produce leather goods, pulp and paper, fertilizers, rubber products, and petrochemical.

The engineering industries make a range of mechanical and electrical products, batteries, trucks, iron and steel products, assembling motor vehicles (Automotive), cables and wires and electrical measuring equipment.

The minerals industries, besides petroleum, control four factories extracting sulphur, phosphate.In 1978 sulphur exports totalled 60000 tons up from 522000 tons in 1977.

Construction industries consist of establishments which produce a wide range for construction materials, cement, building materials, asbestos and

plastic, brick, glass and ceramic, and concrete.

Finally,the medical industries control three factories producing a range of medical accessories.

The previous industries have satisfied a large part from the local needs.

### 7.4.2. The Logic Of The Iraqi Industrial Planning

The potential for the future of the Iraqi Industrial development and diversification derives from existing raw materials. The logic of Iraqi industry can be described through the raw material extraction, basic industries, intermediate industries and consumer industries.

Beside the crude oil and natural gas, the hydrocarbons, sulphur, phosphates, and limestone were discovered and exploited. The inventory of these raw materials is greater than that of many developing countries (Townsend, 1982: 261). The mineral resources which are not yet exploited include iron ore, chromite, copper, lead and zinc, all these resources are situated in the north of Iraq.

Besides providing crude oil and natural gas for export, there is an abundance of Iraq's energy resources for industrial requirements, concentrated on these cheap natural sources of energy in the country.

As a feedstock for petrochemical industries, it is the natural gas element in the hydrocarbon resources which is most significant. The natural gas liquids are used domestically as fuels and are also exported. Methane from the natural gas is used as a feedstock for nitrogenous fertilizers (Ammonia and Urea), while Ethan is the basic feedstock for the production of ethylene, the building brick of the petrochemical industry. The phosphate and sulphur are used as a feedstock and a complement to the chemical industry based on petrochemical, while the limestone is used as a raw material in construction industries.

A range of basic and intermediate industry, industries are designed initially to provide for the needs of the Iraqi consumer, to manufacture substitutes for

goods, which would otherwise have to be imported, and to produce a surplus for export.

Figure (1) summaries the logic of Iraq's industrial planning.

At the back of this basic logic there is a fundamental principle common to all oil producing countries: "to ensure that the revenues accruing from the nations depleting hydrocarbon reserves are invested in such a way that the continued prosperity and well being of the community will be guaranteed in the post-oil age" (Townsned, 1982: 262). Iraq in this aspect fortunate in that the country's reserves are substantial, thus giving the time to develop alternative income-generating projects

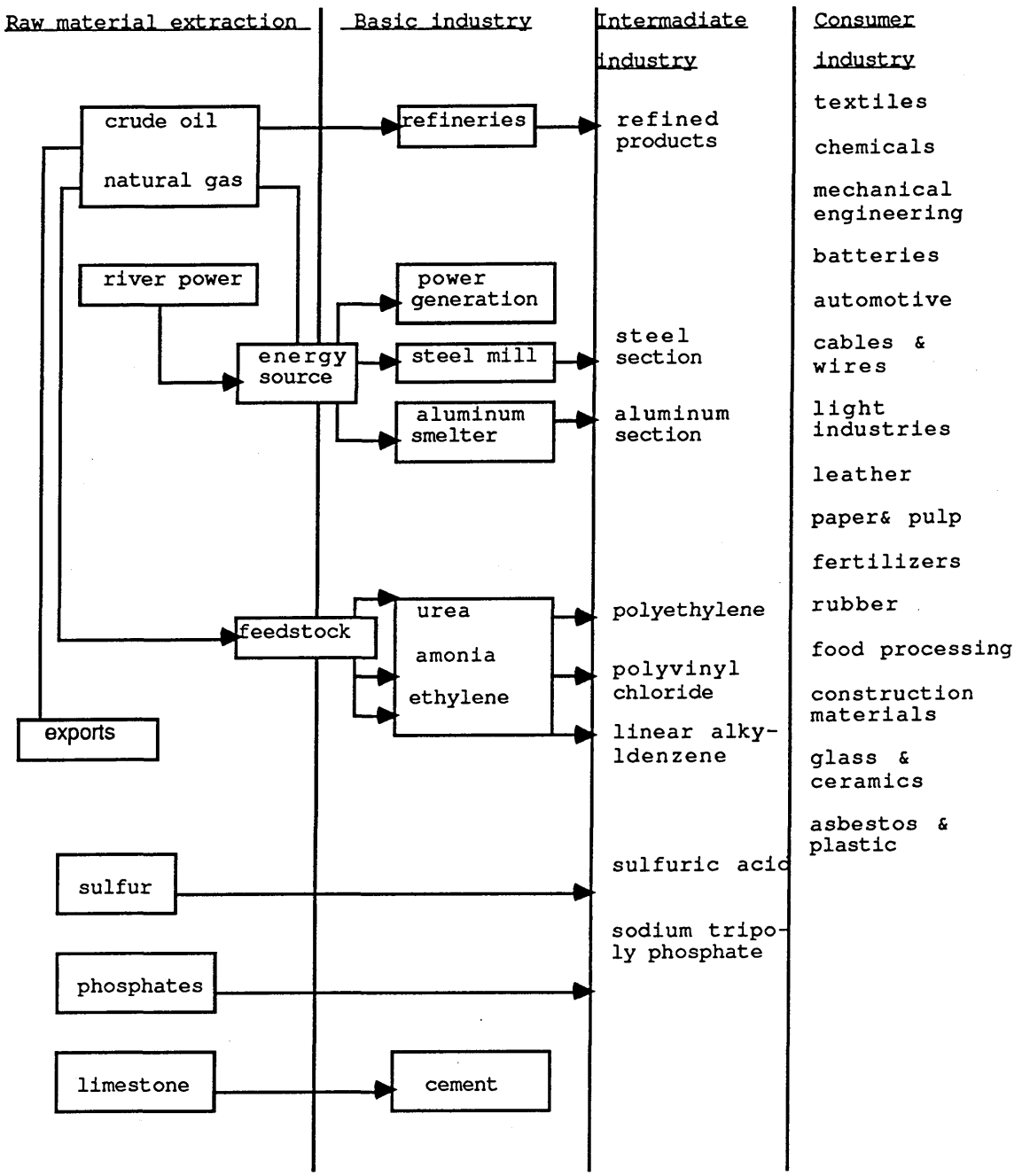


Figure (4-1) Iraq's Industrial logic

Source: Townsend, (1982, P.263).

### 7.4.3. Manpower and the Range of the Iraqi Industry

The ambitious industrial programmes have started in the 1970s and led to the expansion in the industrial sector in terms of the labor force and the number of the manufacturing companies. By 1979, there were 1692 large-scale manufacturing companies employing 181300 workers, 49419 small-scale manufacturing companies employing 93361 workers. In comparison with 1965, the large scale-companies rose by 26.5% and small-scale companies by 47.2%. The workers in large companies increased by 51.3% and in small companies by 48.2% (see Table 10). By 1980 and on, the large and small scale companies have began to decline in terms of the numbers and the employees. The large companies were 1494, employing 180900 workers, and the small companies were 34351, employing 76247 workers.The numbers of the companies continue declining, they were 1099 in 1984 employing 176197. While the number of small companies declined to 20976 employing 45605 workers. But by 1986 the number of employees in small companies increased again to 40463 with 77717 employees. The majority of these companies were owned by the private and mixed sector. The fluctuation was due to the government's policy during the Gulf war by sealing some of the large scale companies to the private sector or share the private sector in some projects. This was policy to encourage this sector to manage these companies instead of the government which was involved in a war with Iran. Before the Gulf war years (1980-88) most of the growth took place in large scale companies. This trend was intensified after 1975, such as iron and steel mills, and petrochemical plants came into production. Most of the new industry was increasingly capital intensive. Capital stock increased about threefold during (1961-1964) and (1965-1969) Five National Development Plans. This trend continued in the 1970s (see Table 4). This investment was not translated immediately into an increase in productivity. But this means that Iraq

will develop more potential for large industrial production in the future. Despite the construction of heavy industry-petrochemical, iron and steel, aluminum-most of the industrial development was in transformation and import substitution plants, primarily in contraction materials, textiles, and food processing.

**Table (10)**
Iraqi Manufacturing Companies and Employees
During (1965-1986)

| Year | Large Companies | | | | Small Companies | | | | Total | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | % | Employee | % | Number | % | Employee | % | Number | Employee |
| 1965 | 1243 | 5.5 | 88343 | 63.3 | 21333 | 94.5 | 48334 | 36.7 | 22576 | 131677 |
| 1971 | 1330 | 4.2 | 103909 | 60.6 | 29940 | 95.8 | 67481 | 39.4 | 31270 | 171390 |
| 1975 | 1349 | 3.3 | 143600 | 56.9 | 39275 | 69.7 | 101993 | 43.1 | 40624 | 236593 |
| 1979 | 1692 | 4.0 | 181300 | 66.0 | 40419 | 96.0 | 93361 | 34.0 | 42111 | 274661 |
| 1980 | 1494 | 4.2 | 180900 | 70.4 | 34351 | 95.8 | 76247 | 29.7 | 36025 | 257147 |
| 1982 | 1314 | 3.6 | 173100 | 68.7 | 34782 | 96.3 | 79019 | 31.3 | 36096 | 252119 |
| 1984 | 1099 | 4.9 | 176197 | 79.4 | 20976 | 95.1 | 54605 | 20.6 | 22075 | 221802 |
| 1986 | 1073 | 2.6 | 186175 | 70.5 | 40463 | 97.4 | 77717 | 29.5 | 41536 | 263892 |

Source: Ministry of Planning, Statistical PocketBook 1981, PP. 29,30,32.
Ministry of Planning, Statistical PocketBook 1987, PP31-33
Ministry of Planning, Annual Abstract of Statistic 1986, PP.88,106.

Despite the Gulf War, the output value increased rapidly. In 1976 the output value was 8578 million ID, this value rose to 17629 million ID in 1980, with 19.7% average annual compound growth. Further, it rose to 91898 million ID in 1986.

In the large-scale companies the output value during 1976-1980, increased from 5899 to 13309 million ID, while the output value in the small-scale companies fluctuated during 1982-1986 (see Table 11).

In the subject of production development, the value of output in the food manufacturing, since this sector received the best attention of all other sectors, during 1976-1980 rose from 204,8 to 385,1 million ID, with average annual

compound growth 17.1%. In the second place was the chemical and oil products manufacturing, the value of output increased from 122,4 to 311,3 million ID in the same period, with an average annual compound growth of 26.3%.The metallic products, apparatus and appliances were in the third place in the value of output, it rose from 83,9 to 219.0 million ID, with an average annual compound growth of 27.1%.

**Table (11)**
The Output Value In Small and Large-Scale Companies During (1976-1986) (Million ID)

| Year | Large | Small | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1976 | 589,9 | 276,9 | 857,8 |
| 1978 | 873,9 | 354,5 | 1228,4 |
| 1980 | 1330,9 | 432,0 | 1762,9 |
| 1982 | 1520,7 | 737,7 | 2258,4 |
| 1984(1) | 3006,2 | 461,5 | 3467,7 |
| 1986 | 8497,6 | 692,2 | 9189,8 |

Note:(1) The figure for Large-scale Establishments include Medium-scale Establishments. Starting of 1983 the industrial establishments which employs (11-29) persons and invests less than (100000 ID) is considered as medium-scale.
Sources: Ministry Of Planning, Annual Abstract of Statistics 1986, PP.81, 106.
Statistical PocketBook 1981, PP.27, 29.
Statistical PocketBook 1987, PP.31-33.

As regards the textile manufacturing and tailoring of clothes, the value of output increased from 89,9 to 165,3 million ID with an average compound annual growth of 16.4%. From the previous figures one can conclude that despite of the Gulf War, the value of output for all manufacturing sectors increased (see Table 12).

Finally, the growth of industry has not yet cut into imports. In the 1960s, imports of such goods as paper, plastic,and rubber doubled; chemical imports had more than tripled (Marr, 1985: 258). The expansion of middle income groups, from the population of Iraq, has helped widen the market for consumer goods such as textile, but domestic production has not kept up with demand or

reduced imports. However, Iraq has increasingly made an effort to avoid showcase projects, and to bring its investments in the line with its absorptive capacity as a result of the contribution of all industries sectors (i.e., Socialist, Mixed, and Private).

**Table (12)**
The Output Value for a Selected Manufacturing Sectors
During (1976-1985) (Million ID)

| year | foodstuffs(1) | Textiles(2) | engineering(3) | Chemical & Oil products |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1976 | 204,8 | 89,9 | 83,9 | 122,4 |
| 1977 | 249,9 | 110,5 | 112,3 | 136,1 |
| 1978 | 301,6 | 117,9 | 133,3 | 176,4 |
| 1979 | 368,6 | 140,5 | 174,0 | 242,4 |
| 1980 | 385,1 | 165,3 | 219,0 | 311,3 |
| 1985 | 550,9 | 197,6 | 266,2 | 725,5 |
| A.C.A.G. 1976-80 | 17.1% | 16.4% | 27.1% | 26.3% |

Note:(1) Foodstuffs, Beverages, & Tobacco manufacturing.
(2) Textiles, Tailoring of Clothes & Leather Products.
(3) Machinery,apparatus & Appliances, and Metallic Products.
Source: Iraq, Ministry of Planning, Development of Iraq Economy 1976-1980, P.48. Annual Abstract of Statistics 1986, PP.99-101.

### 7.4.4. The Role of Private and Mixed Sector in Iraqi Industry

Before turning to the discussion of the role of the private and mixed sector, it is necessary to explain briefly the type of the ownership. These are:

1-Public sector, "socialist sector" as it is called in Iraq, started to emerge after the 1958 revolution especially in industry. This sector includes all the companies which are acting as a key propulsive sector in the Iraqi economy.

2-Mixed sector includes mostly medium size companies (100-750 employees). More than 50% of the shares in this sector are owned by the public.

3-Private sector consists of the companies which are totally owned by individuals, most of these companies are of small size (less than 50 employees).

These types of ownership indicates that the public and mixed sectors are the main and dominating sectors in the Iraqi economy, followed by the private sector which is important in the Iraqi economy, even though it has a small role in the development. During 1970-1974, due to the government economic policy, 50 million ID have been distributed to establish various types of industrial projects. The government encouraged the private sector to contribute in this development plan by providing the skill, and the specialized economic and technical studies for many projects. These projects counts were 215 in foodstuffs, 185 in weaving and pining, 132 in metals, 60 in hides, shoes, plastic, and rubber, and 54 projects in construction, glass, and insulation industries. In the national development plan (1970-1974) the participation of the private sector covered about 820 projects (Al-Horani, 1984: 87). The government has also encouraged and helped in the creation of the Mixed Industrial Sector by issuing law No. (134) of (1974). This law was intended to widen the prerogatives and expand the responsibilities of the general corporation for industrial development. Among these responsibilities was the participation in the capital of these companies, granting them loans and bank facilities from the Industrial Bank. The government also exempted them from income taxes and taxes on the imports of raw materials and machinery, and provided them with plots of land and services.

The private sector attained advancement by employing the workforce from 1970 to 1975; the average annual compound growth was 7.2%, the employees were about 101000 to 143000.The employment in this sector declined between 1976 and 1980, and between 1981 and 1984 by an average annual compound growth of -2%, -10%, respectively (Ministry of Planning, 1985: 21).This shrink might be attributed to a number of reasons: first, the trend of the private sector

uses the import modern technology (i.e. machines, apparatus,and appliances) to decrease the labor force, specially during 1976-1980, because this kind of technology are tax free according to the government policy to encourage this sector Secondly, the majority of the units in the private sector are small-scale establishments, employing less than ten workers and producing small professional and traditional products. Thirdly, all college graduates were employed in the public sector. The government policy guarantees all college graduates a job whether they are needed or not. Thus this type of employees is not available to the private sector. Finally, in the 1980s, because of the Gulf War; all Iraqi efforts were geared toward the warfare.

**Table (13)**
The Output Value of Public, Mixed, and Private Manufacturing in The Iraqi Industry During 1977-1986.
(Million ID)

| year | public | % | Mixed | % | private | % | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1977 | 521,35 | 72.2 | - | - | 200,25 | 27.8 | 721,87 |
| 1978 | 642.02 | 73.5 | - | - | 231,92 | 26.5 | 873,94 |
| 1979 | 831,03 | 73.8 | - | - | 295,27 | 26.2 | 1126,30 |
| 1980 | 1004,28 | 75.5 | - | - | 326,66 | 24.5 | 1330,94 |
| 1982 | 1110,17 | 73.0 | - | - | 410,53 | 27.0 | 1520,70 |
| 1983 | 1283,25 | 77.7 | 164,90 | 9.9 | 204,20 | 12.4 | 1652,35 |
| 1984 | 1534,50 | 78.4 | 179,50 | 9.2 | 242,60 | 12.4 | 1956,60 |
| 1985 | 1801,04 | 80.0 | 197,22 | 8.8 | 252,33 | 11.2 | 2250.59 |
| 1986 | 1844,10 | 82.5 | 162,30 | 7.3 | 229,10 | 10.2 | 2235,50 |

Note:
(1) From 1983, the large-scale establishments are those employing 30 persons or more and investing (100000 ID) in machines.
(2) Figures do not include the oil extraction activities.
(3) In 1983 the data of Mixed sector has been separated from the Public sector.
Source:Ministry of Planning, PocketBook 1981, PP.26-27.
Ministry of Planning, PocketBook 1987, P.31. Ministry of Planning, Annual Abstract Of Statistic 1986,P.88.

As regards the value of output, during 1977-1982 the value of the production fluctuated. By 1977 this sector attended 20025 million ID it forms 27.8% from the total output value. The contribution declined to 10.2% from the total output value in 1986. In 1983, the mixed sector data has been separated from the public sector. The available data indicated that the contribution rate in this sector declined during the period 1983-1986. By 1983 the rate of contribution was 9.9% from the total output value, this value declined to 7.3% in 1986.In spite of the separation of the mixed sector data, the output value of the public sector increased yearly through the period 1977-1986 (see Table 13). Generally speaking, the private and the mixed sector, though greatly limited, still play an important role in the Iraqi industrial sector to lay the foundation for more development in the coming decade.

**8. Summary**

This Appendix discussed the socio-cultural and economic aspects in Iraq according to the great impact of these aspects on management efficiency and people's attitudes. A study of an organisational phenomenon must be conducted in relation to the social and economic context in which it is found, especially organisational phenomena such as job satisfaction or job performance. Four important environmental aspects were discussed: Historical and geographical; demographical; socio-cultural; and economic aspects.

The geographical location of the country and its history give it a special importance in the Arab World in particular and in the Middle East in general. Historically, Iraqi covers a long period. It has experienced over 3500 years of Sumerian, Assyrians, and Babylonians civilizations before the birth of Islam in the first quarter of the seventh century. Since arrival of Islam Iraq has passed through a number of eras in its history, such as Mongol invasions, Ottoman Empire, and the Western influence. The essential factors in the modern Iraqi history are the independence in 1958 and the beginning of Iraqi development

programmes when oil was discovered and later exploited at a large scale.

Regardless of the oil resources, Iraq has considerable resources and potentialities for development. The potentialities development prospects, unlike some Arab neighboring states, it has the advantage of a large population which gives it the potential labour force necessary for industrial and agricultural developments.

In the case of manufacturing, the available data indicates that manufacturing was almost non-existent at the beginning of this century except some traditional industries. Until the 1970s, Iraq had few large industries apart from petroleum. In recent years greater priority has been given to the industrial development; most of the growth took place in large firms such iron, steel, and petrochemical plants. This rapid development in Iraqi economy requires the skill and proficient force of labour. Thus the educational sector has proved its important in terms of educational programmes and the enrollment policy to create a specialized labour force to meet the economic requirements.

Finally, this Appendix has also reviewed some aspects of the socio-cultural characteristics of the Iraqi environment in order to understand the values and beliefs of the Iraqi people, which play a vital role in determining the society productivity and economic performance.

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