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MANIFEST NEEDS AND JOB SATISFACTION AT THE INDONESIAN
OPEN UNIVERSITY (UNIVERSITAS TERBUKA)

by


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ABSTRACT

The purposes of this study were to investigate four manifest needs (nAch, nAff, nAut, and nDom) in the UT (Universitas Terbuka) setting, to determine how satisfied the academic staff members are with regard to various aspects of their jobs, and to describe how the needs are related to levels of job satisfaction.

The translated instruments of the MNQ (Manifest Needs Questionnaire), developed by Steers and Braunstein (1976), and the JDI (Job Descriptive Index), developed by Smith et al. (1969), plus the GI (General Index) were used.


The junior academic staff members of UT ranked nAch higher than nDom, nAff, and nAut. They tended to show the most positive responses in the JDI area of SUPERVISION, and the least positive ones in the area of PAY. As well, they showed the most positive responses in the GI areas of SUPERVISION, CO-WORKERS, and WORK and the least positive ones in the area of PAY. In addition, based on the mean responses of OVERALL job satisfaction, they tended to feel somewhat satisfied with their present job.

A significant sex difference was revealed for the expressions of nDom (males expressed a higher nDom than did females). The results on the JDI indicated that males' responses proved to be more positive with WORK than those of their female counterparts. A sex difference was significantly revealed on the GI scale of PROMOTION (females scored more positively on PROMOTION than did males).

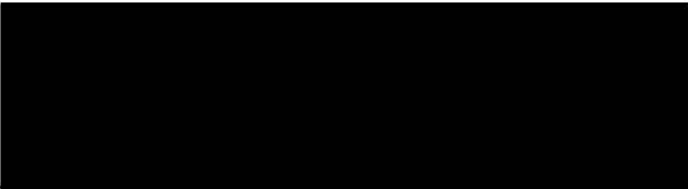
The results showed that there is a relatively weak but significant relationship between the JDI and the MNQ. A moderate significant relationship exists between the JDI and the GI. Furthermore, there is no relationship between the MNQ and the GI.

In summary, the junior academic staff members tended to exhibit nAch higher than nDom, nAff, and nAut. They seemed to feel most satisfied with the area of SUPERVISION and least satisfied with the area of PAY. A weak but significant correlation between the manifest needs measured by the MNQ and job satisfaction measured by the JDI was supported. Evidence was found for a moderate but significant correlation between the JDI and the GI. Interestingly, there was no evidence for a significant correlation between the MNQ and the GI.

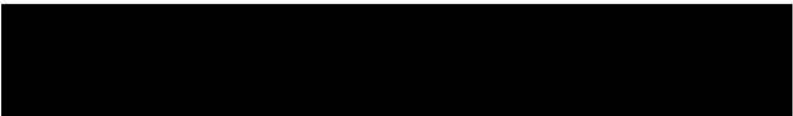
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CHAPTER I
Introduction

Background

Identifying employee needs in a particular work setting should both enhance the understanding of how employees' personalities relate to their jobs and provide a view into the types of activities that are matched to employees' needs. As well, it may maximize opportunities for career development, psychological health, and job satisfaction. It is important to assess employee's work-relevant needs in relation to the varying potentials of alternative jobs in order to ensure employee job satisfaction. Selection of jobs for employees should include an evaluation of proposed work environments in terms of potentialities for fulfilling the job-related needs of the employees. To the degree that employees identify their needs and the needs satisfaction potential of the occupation they enter, they will commit to, and be content with, their occupational decisions.

Furthermore, assessing employees' job satisfaction is considered to be important in the view of organizational ideas. As suggested by Gruneberg (1979), most people spend a large part of their lives

in work situations; an understanding of areas involved in employee job satisfaction is necessary to enhance employee well-being. This improvement could, indirectly, improve job-related aspects of their jobs. In addition, job satisfaction could influence the productivity and profitability of an organization, organizational effectiveness, and behavioral withdrawal of employees, such as tardiness, absenteeism, and employee turnover. Employees' job satisfaction could influence their decisions about whether they will go to work on any given day or whether they will quit or withdraw from their jobs. By keeping satisfaction high and by seeing that the best employees are the most satisfied, an organization can retain those employees the organization needs the most.

Statement of the problem

Many people have conducted research based on individual needs: for example, studies have focused on the examination of relationships between needs and behavior patterns (Chusmir & Hood, 1986), needs and creativity (Chusmir & Kolberg, 1986), and needs and job satisfaction (Betz, 1969; Dreher, 1980; Graen et al., 1968; Kuhlen, 1963; Schaffer, 1953; and Stone & Mowday, 1977). Other studies have focused on measuring

manifest needs of registered nurses (Brief et al., 1980); manifest needs of student nurses and nurses, and manifest needs of male and female counsellors (Harvey & France, 1982, 1987, 1988). There have also been many studies which have focused on job satisfaction: for example, measuring job satisfaction in a school (Brunet et al., 1991); in the public sector (Hopkins, 1983); in an industrial job setting (Graen, 1968); in a university setting (Manger & Eikeland, 1990); and in a university which provides both a conventional and a distance education system (Siaciwena, 1989). Other research has examined the relationships between job satisfaction and behaviors (Lawler, 1977; Gottfredson & Holland, 1990; Hanish & Hulin, 1990); job satisfaction and gender (Hulin & Smith, 1964); job satisfaction and communication satisfaction (Gregson, 1990); and job satisfaction and motivation (Wolf, 1970). The studies have been applied in various job settings, by using various occupational types. However, most of these studies were conducted in North American situations. In this study, of particular interest is the applicability of the concepts of manifest needs and job satisfaction to another culture and, specifically, to a job setting at an open university or a "distance education" institution in Indonesia.

The term "distance education" could be defined as "various forms of study at all levels that are not under the continuous, immediate supervision of tutors present with their students in lecture rooms, but which, nevertheless, benefit from the planning, guidance, and teaching of a supporting organization" (Holmberg, 1989). Furthermore, according to Holmberg, there are three prototypes of organizations for distance education. First, universities and schools may be set up for the special purpose of providing distance education. These institutions employ academic and administrative staff to develop their own printed and non-printed courses, to organize and provide two-way communication with their students, and to run research projects of concern to these organizations. Second, universities and schools may offer distance education as a side-line activity. Usually, these institutions do not attempt to cover whole countries, operating instead as extension departments of universities. Third, specialized distance-education organizations may co-operate with conventional universities/schools. These organizations provide service and expertise on methodology, media, and communication, arrange course development, organize and run counselling activities, take responsibility for

distribution, warehousing, and general administration, and maintain constant contact with co-operating universities/schools.

The Indonesian Open University, called Universitas Terbuka (UT), was founded by the government for the special purpose of providing distance education in order to expand the opportunities for high school graduates of all ages to study at the university level, to improve the competence of teachers, and to support national development by producing skilled manpower. As in conventional universities, UT is managed by a rector who is assisted by four vice-rectors. There are four faculties directed by deans, The Faculty of Economics, The Faculty of Social Science and Politics, The Faculty of Science and Mathematics, and The Faculty of Education. The deans are assisted by three vice-deans. Other centers and bureaus at UT include : The Research and Community Service Center, The Educational Media, Information, and Data Processing Center, The Exam-processing Center, The Bureau of Academic Administration and Students Affairs, and The Bureau of General Administration. UT also has thirty-two regional offices which are spread among all provinces in Indonesia.

According to Holmberg's prototype organizations, UT is an organization set up for the special purpose of providing distance education. The institution, however, still co-operates with conventional universities in providing course authors, test-item writers, and tutors. UT employs academic and administrative staff to provide editorial service and expertise on methodology, media, and communication; to arrange course development; to organize and run two-way communication with the students throughout Indonesia; and to take responsibility for exam processing, distribution of course materials, warehousing, and general administration. The academic staff are not only placed at the faculty level, but also at the outside of the faculty, such as at The Media, Communication, and Data Processing Center, The Research and Community Service Center, The Exam-processing Center, and even at The Bureau of Academic Administration and Students Affairs. Consequently, the place of work influences the main duties of these academic staff members. Theoretically, there is a separate job description for the academic staff and the administrative staff. However, this job description has not been successful in practice. The situation and special nature of a distance education institution

influence the types and characteristics of the staff members' jobs. Thus, many of the academic staff must also perform administrative tasks, such as answering student letters.

UT is a relatively new education institution in Indonesia. It was established in 1984. Consequently, most members of UT's staff, both academic and administrative, are still young and relatively inexperienced. Most are junior staff. The government of Indonesia recruited people in 1984 who had the varied academic backgrounds that would fulfill the staff needs of UT, for both academic and administrative staff. The required academic staff were those who had academic backgrounds related to Mathematics, Statistics, Social and Politics Science, Economics, and Education, to match the needs for the four UT faculties. But other factors such as job type, organizational structure, and characteristics of the students, influenced UT's arrangement and placement of its academic staff as well. As a result, most academic staff have jobs unsuited to their academic backgrounds. Only a few academic staff members are senior staff who moved from other educational institutions. These senior staff were recruited by the

government to manage UT, as it is the only educational institution in Indonesia using the distance education system.

According to the regulations, the promotion and career development of the academic staff depend upon the fulfillment of three areas of tasks : teaching-learning, research, and community service. These promotion criteria are identical to those of a conventional university. Although these promotion criteria have been modified to match distance education characteristics, fulfillment of the requirements across the three areas is still difficult at UT, since the opportunity for academic staff to be involved in the three areas of tasks varies according to particular placement. The place of work thus influences the main duties of the staff. For example, the staff who work in the faculties have more opportunities to fulfill tasks in the teaching-learning area than those who work at The Bureau of Academic Administration and Students Affairs, while those who work at The Research and Community Service Center have more opportunities to fulfill tasks in the area of research.

To evaluate the working conditions and the situation at UT, it is necessary to explore needs expression, to clarify the manifest needs of the

academic staff, and to determine how satisfied the academic staff are with regard to various aspects of their jobs.

The Purposes of the Study

The general purposes of the study are to investigate manifest needs for ACHIEVEMENT (nAch), AFFILIATION (nAff), AUTONOMY (nAut), and DOMINANCE (nDom) in the UT setting, to determine the degree of job satisfaction held by the academic staff for various aspects of their jobs, and to describe how needs are related to the job satisfaction of the academic staff. The study focussed on the junior academic staff members whose academic rankings are Junior Skilled Assistant (Tenaga Pengajar), Intermediate Skilled Assistant (Asisten Ahli Madya), Skilled Assistant (Asisten Ahli), Junior Associate Professor (Lektor Muda), and Intermediate Associate Professor (Lektor Madya) in the Indonesian Open University (UT), Jakarta, Indonesia. Other rankings, such as Associate Professor (Lektor), Intermediate Senior Associate Professor (Lektor Kepala Madya), Senior Associate Professor (Lektor Kepala), Intermediate Professor (Guru Besar Madya), and Professor (Guru Besar), as well, any rankings of staff

members who work at Learning Centers of UT's Regional Offices (UPBJJ) throughout Indonesia were excluded in this study.

CHAPTER II

Literature Review

Motivation and Needs in a Work Setting

The topic of motivation at work has received considerable and sustained attention in recent years among both practicing managers and organizational researchers. According to Steers and Porter (1979), at least three factors appear to account for the prominence of this topic as a central point of interest. First, for an organization to be effective, it must be supported by the motivations of stimulating an individual's decision in both participating and producing at work. Differences in people's background and work setting might affect their motivations. Second, an understanding of motivation is important to comprehend more fully the effects of variations in factors such as leadership style, job redesign, and salary system, and the way in which they relate to such things as performance and satisfaction. Third, organizational effectiveness becomes, to some degree, a question of management's ability to motivate its employees to direct at least a reasonable effort toward

the goals of the organization. Many researchers have investigated the relationship between motivation and needs or desires in a work setting.

In an early work, Murray (1938) asserted that motivation is a function of the dynamic influence of various needs, such as needs of ACHIEVEMENT, AFFILIATION, AUTONOMY, and DOMINANCE. In addition, Murray viewed an individual's personality as being composed of many divergent, and often conflicting, needs which had the potential of motivating behavior. Individuals could be classified according to the strengths of various personality-need variables. Murray did not suggest a hierarchical relationship between the various needs, so individuals may be described as having various needs at the same time. For example, an individual might have a high need for ACHIEVEMENT, a high need for POWER, and a low need for AFFILIATION at the same time. This view is different from Maslow's idea (1954) that needs are ranked in a hierarchical model and they are potential motivators until they are fulfilled. Based on Murray's ideas, Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) hypothesized that needs are determinants, along with work itself, of both attitudes and job satisfaction.

People believe that individuals gravitate towards an environment that will satisfy personal needs. People also believe that one of the most pervasive notions in the area of work motivation is the concept of human needs or human desires. In addition, it is considered that these needs or desires represent the primary driving force behind employees' behavior in an organizational setting. If need awareness and relief learning do not occur, the needs still stir the person, but instead of providing pleasure through their fulfillment, they create anxiety (Healy, 1982). Furthermore, Landy (1985) proposed that the individual will investigate, direct, and sustain activity to satisfy certain needs. Landy also argued that it is essential to know what needs the individuals are trying to satisfy. Basically, individuals differ in the outcomes they prefer (need) to obtain from their jobs (Graen, 1968). Theoretically, as individuals begin to recognize a particular need, they will learn actions to satisfy that need without creating anxiety. In other words, individuals will be motivated by needs; then, they will move toward situations which can provide the conditions for fulfilling these needs. As needs arise, they draw energy; that is, needs propel individuals to act, with or without awareness. The

failure of fulfilling needs can cause anxiety and can sap an individual's energy. As an application in an occupational field, individuals will seek to know the needs that can be gratified in a particular occupation (Healy, 1982). These beliefs are concomitant with Murray's proposition (1938) that needs were believed to represent a central motivating force, both in terms of the intensity and the direction of goal-directed behavior.

According to Brunet et al. (1991), motivation corresponds to factors that encourage the individual to take action. Motivation occurs when a perceived need (or deficiency) within an individual initiates a drive toward a specific goal (White & Bednar, 1991). Wolf (1970) stated that job motivation occurs when individuals perceive an opportunity to gratify an active need through job-related behavior.

Guion and Landy (1972) hypothesized that the motivation to work is a function of the meaning or significance work has for individuals, their general level of activity, their principal initial orientation within the work situation, and the prevailing attitudes toward work encountered in the work group to which they are assigned. Furthermore, Guion and Landy conducted a study which measured work motivation by peer ratings,

using a series of rating scales, and using a sample of newly graduated engineers. The first conclusion of this study is that such people will be motivated to work, and to do so with some observable diligence, to the degree that they find the work meaningful. The second conclusion is that apparently useful concept of the meaning of work overlaps to some extent with the more familiar concept of job satisfaction, or attitude toward work. Specifically, the major predictor of motivation seems to come from the type of question which asks, first, what the individuals see as their needs or desires and, second, to what degree they have found in their work the characteristics that satisfy those needs or desires.

The concept of human needs has been very useful in helping to understand human motivation. People consider that the concept of motivation itself has been a troublesome one because motivation is not directly observable. It is a hypothetical process that can only be inferred by observing people's behavior, measuring changes in people's performance, or asking people to describe their needs and goals. Most human needs, except for a few physiological needs such as hunger, thirst, and temperature control, are influenced by early experience. As a result, the strength of various

needs differ from one individual to another. It is reasonable, then, that knowledge of various needs in the work setting would be meaningful and useful for understanding motivation in the work organization.

Osipow (1968) argued that psychological needs, in combination with environmental press, permit the construction of hypotheses to explain individual behavior. These needs have been presumed to relate to individuals' need to enter certain careers in which they expect their particular needs structures to be well-satisfied. Usually, individuals know what behavior will reduce the tension and satisfy the motivating needs. Tension reduction comes under individual control through the identification of needs and relevant behavior.

Holland (1973) developed a theory of vocational choice which relates human needs to human behavior by linking personality types, needs, and work interests to explain behavior in the work setting. According to Holland, preferred activity, interests, values and needs all combine to create a personality type that exhibits certain behavioral qualities on the job.

According to Wexley and Yukl (1984), there are six needs (need for ACHIEVEMENT, need for AFFILIATION, need for ESTEEM, need for INDEPENDENCE, need for POWER, and

need for SECURITY) that are potentially relevant influences on behavior in an organizational setting. Needs are important because employees will desire more of any job factor that is instrumental in fulfilling the needs. Further, Wexley and Yukl stated that a person with a strong need for ACHIEVEMENT will enjoy challenging activities. A person with a strong need for AFFILIATION is concerned about being liked and accepted and is very sensitive to cues indicating rejection from others. Those with a strong need for ESTEEM are sensitive to cues indicating possible disrespect and will seek out praise. People with a high need for AUTONOMY want to have a great deal of freedom and autonomy. Those with a high need for DOMINANCE tend to influence other people and arouse strong emotions in others. People with strong needs for SECURITY tend to worry about losing their jobs and will take great care to maintain them.

Studies on Various Needs

According to Atkinson (1958) and Litwin and Stringer (1968), subjects with high need for ACHIEVEMENT are most influenced to remain with an organization because of the nature of their job duties, promotional opportunities, organizational goals and

values, and feedback on performance, while those with high need for AFFILIATION would be most influenced to remain because of the nature of work-group relations. Kuhlen (1963) is one of those who has studied the relationship between needs and work satisfaction. He conducted his research using a special rating scale called "The Edwards Personal Preference Schedule", which he administered to male and female teachers. The results of this research suggested that need for ACHIEVEMENT is a significant variable in work satisfaction, in the instance of attitude toward career (that means that in this case people who are most satisfied tended to perceive the occupation as potentially satisfying to the high achievement-need people). Further, career may be a major source of satisfaction for the ACHIEVEMENT need.

Hall (1976) conducted a study not only on the need for ACHIEVEMENT but also the needs for DOMINANCE and AFFILIATION. Hall suggested that the needs for ACHIEVEMENT and DOMINANCE relate to managerial success and assessment-center ratings of management potential, while the need for AFFILIATION seemed to have little to do with success in management. Hall concluded that the high-performing companies were led by people with high levels of need for ACHIEVEMENT and moderate levels of

need for DOMINANCE. Other researchers have investigated another need in addition to the need for ACHIEVEMENT. For example, Morris and Snyder (1979) focused their study on the needs for ACHIEVEMENT and AUTONOMY as moderators of role perception-outcome relationships by using the Manifest Needs Questionnaire (MNQ) on a heterogeneous sample of permanent, non-academic employees at a western university. They found that there was little support that both needs for ACHIEVEMENT and AUTONOMY were important moderators of relationship between role perceptions and work-related outcomes. In contrast, the data suggested that needs for ACHIEVEMENT and AUTONOMY (along with role perceptions) may have value as independent predictors, especially, for prediction of organizational commitment and job involvement (when the addition of either need for ACHIEVEMENT or AUTONOMY are involved as a second predictor variable). Stone, Mowday, and Porter (1977) focussed a study on the examination of needs for ACHIEVEMENT and AUTONOMY as moderators of job scope-job satisfaction relationship. Based on data from the questionnaires of job characteristics, personality traits and job satisfaction from the employees of a manufacturing organization, Stone, Mowday, and Porter found that only need for ACHIEVEMENT could moderate

inconsistent with findings of previous studies (in this study, the job scope-job satisfaction correlation for the high need for ACHIEVEMENT subsample was substantially lower than correlations for low and middle subsamples). Lawler (1973) argued that needs for ACHIEVEMENT and AUTONOMY may influence individuals' affective reactions to characteristics of their jobs.

The Manifest Need Questionnaire

Steers and Braunstein (1976) have developed and validated an instrument called the Manifest Needs Questionnaire (MNQ) based on Murray's personality theory (1938), which suggests that the existence of a need can be inferred on the basis of manifest behavior. This behaviorally-based scale instrument is capable of measuring the needs for ACHIEVEMENT, AFFILIATION, DOMINANCE, and AUTONOMY; and it consists of a five-item index for each category of needs. Respondents are asked to indicate the degree to which they agree or disagree with each statement on a seven-point scale. The seven response categories are: always, almost always, usually, sometimes, seldom, almost never, and never. Each five-item index is an unweighted sum of the responses to the five items with

no missing values allowed. Each index has at least one negative item which is reverse-scored. Steers and Braunstein (1976) were interested in measuring needs for ACHIEVEMENT, AFFILIATION, AUTONOMY, and DOMINANCE using the Manifest Needs Questionnaire (MNQ) for various samples, such as a sample of management students who were simultaneously employed either full time or part time in a wide variety of jobs. The majority of the students came from the business sector (for study 1), a sample of white-collar employees of a major automotive firm (for study 2), and a sample of employees in various levels of a major metropolitan hospital (for study 3). Steers and Braunstein found that need for ACHIEVEMENT was positively related to job involvement, organizational commitment, career satisfaction, and personal importance to organization. Subjects with high need for ACHIEVEMENT strive to succeed in the organization. This result was consonant with the ideas of Litwin and Stringer (1968) and Steers (1975) who argued that people who have high commitment to an organization are generally satisfied with their chosen career, and conscious of their role in the organization. Need for DOMINANCE was related to supervisory rank and positively related to career satisfaction and leadership abilities (ability to stay

in control of oneself, persuasiveness, self-confidence, overall leadership ability). Need for AFFILIATION was inversely related to the desire to leave the organization. Subjects with high need for AFFILIATION and DOMINANCE tend to have better attendance records than those subjects with lower need levels. Need for AUTONOMY was inversely related to commitment, career satisfaction, and personal importance, and positively related to desire to leave. Subjects with high need for AUTONOMY place their emphasis on independence at the expense of promotional opportunities and efforts.

Moreover, Steers and Braunstein reported that they attempted, in the initial selection of items, to control for acquiescence and social desirability, and that data on the reliability and validity of the MNQ are adequate. The MNQ was developed using employee samples. The twenty items appear work-relevant and interesting with consequent high face validity. The response scale is easily understood, and the measure is quick and easy to complete (William & Woodward, 1980). According to the study which was conducted by Steers and Braunstein, correlation between MNQ scores and PRF (Personality Research Form) scores for needs of ACHIEVEMENT, AFFILIATION, AUTONOMY, DOMINANCE are .61, .40, .42, and .62, respectively. Thus, acceptable

levels of convergent validity were achieved. The test-retest reliabilities for the four needs are .72, .75, .77, .86, respectively. Moreover, internal consistency for the four needs are .66, .56, .61, and .88, respectively. Supporting these ideas, Chusmir (1988) found that the MNQ maintained acceptable levels of internal consistency for needs for ACHIEVEMENT and DOMINANCE. The same conclusion also was reached for needs for AUTONOMY and AFFILIATION, but with some reservation, since the latter internal consistency scores were less tightly distributed than those for needs for ACHIEVEMENT and DOMINANCE.

The MNQ has been used in various studies. For example, by using the MNQ, the Brayfield-Rothe Job Satisfaction Index, and the Lodahl and Kejner instrument on 78 production workers, Dreher (1980) examined the strengths of individual needs as they relate to job satisfaction and job involvement for a company using a modified Scanton Plan. The results of Dreher's study revealed that satisfaction and involvement were positively related to the needs for ACHIEVEMENT and DOMINANCE, but negatively related to the need for AUTONOMY. Harvey and France have examined manifest needs in male and female counsellors (1982) and in working nurses and student nurses (1987). In

addition, by using a sample of 799 working men and women in a wide variety of occupations and hierarchical positions, Chusmir and Hood (1986) examined type A/B behavior pattern, motivational needs, and several job-related attitudes and characteristics. The results of the multiple regression analysis indicated that individuals who have behaviors that are characterized by a combination of a highly competitive achievement orientation, a sense of time urgency, and excessive hostility in response to frustration tend to be higher in needs for ACHIEVEMENT and DOMINANCE, job commitment and managerial responsibilities, but lower in job satisfaction than individuals who have behaviors in the opposite direction. In the same year, Chusmir and Koberg (1986) examined gender differences in manager creativity using the MNQ, Hoppock's instrument, and the Lodahl and Kejner instrument on the male and female subjects. The results of the study revealed that for male managers, need for ACHIEVEMENT was a significant predictor of creativity, while, for women, it was need for AFFILIATION that predicted creativity. In addition, for women managers, age, education level, and hierarchical level were all positive predictors, but organizational tenure and propensity for risk taking were negative predictors of creativity scores. In a

later study, Chusmir and Koberg (1988) focused on the relationship of specific religions and degree of religious beliefs to various job-related attitudes and values such as motivation needs, job satisfaction, and work, job, and organizational commitment. To measure motivational needs for ACHIEVEMENT, DOMINANCE, and AFFILIATION based on the manner in which subjects attempt to satisfy these needs, Chusmir and Koberg administered the MNQ to a sample of working adults (males and females from a petroleum organization, a federal government agency, a university hospital, a stock brokerage, a defence contractor, and a publishing firm). They found that there were no significant correlations between work-related attitudes and specific religious affiliation or degree of religious conviction. However, religious conviction was significantly linked to organizational rank, with non-managerial employees reporting a higher degree of religious conviction than managerial employees. In the same year, Koberg and Chusmir (1988) examined the relationships among the degrees of sex role conflict, various work-related attitudes and outcomes. Results showed that sex role conflict was related to low job involvement for managerial women but not for non-managerial women or for men at any rank. Sex role

conflict was negatively correlated with professional commitment for both female and male managers but not for non-managerial subjects of either sex. Women scored higher than men in sex role conflict but were not significantly different in levels of job involvement, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, professional commitment, or propensity to leave the organization. Managerial women scored higher in sex role conflict than non-managerial women.

Needs and Job Satisfaction

Many researchers have focused their studies on job satisfaction as it relates to needs in a work setting. For example, Graen et al. (1968) administered questionnaires to industrial research scientists working in research and development. Graen et al. found that the pattern of needs for the individual is an important moderator variable in the prediction of job satisfaction. In addition, job satisfaction is a function of the degree to which needs are fulfilled by the work environment. Furthermore Weiss et al. (1966) have argued that satisfaction is a function of the correspondence between an individual's need and the reinforcer system in the job. In a given environment, where the reinforcer system is presumably invariant,

needs are predictors of satisfaction. With a similar focus of interest, Dawis et al. (1968) proposed that satisfaction indicates the correspondence between individuals and their work environment; where satisfaction may fluctuate over time, in both the individual and the work environment. Work personality (need)-work environment (reinforcer system) correspondence can be used to predict satisfaction. Needs are preferences for responding under certain stimulus conditions which have been experienced to be reinforcing. Betz (1969) also investigated needs, job reinforcers, and job satisfaction by administering the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire, the Minnesota Job Description Questionnaire, and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire to a sample that consisted of checkout cashiers, checker markers, and sales clerks employed by a chain of discount department stores. Findings of Betz's study revealed some support for the hypothesized relationship between job satisfaction and need-reinforcer correspondence.

Locke (1976) argued that job satisfaction is a positive emotional response to the job resulting from an appraisal of the job as fulfilling or allowing the fulfillment of the individual's job values, whereas job dissatisfaction is a negative emotional response

resulting from the appraisal of the job as ignoring, frustrating, or negating one's job values. With a somewhat similar view about satisfaction, Gruneberg (1979) argued that job satisfaction refers to the individual's emotional reactions to a particular job. Individuals differ in what they value in a job and this is likely to affect the degree to which they are satisfied. In addition, Wexley and Yukl (1984) stated that job satisfaction is the way employees feel about their jobs. Employee satisfaction is affected by several aspects of the job, including pay, working conditions, supervision, co-workers, job content, job security, and opportunity for advancement. Furthermore, Smith et al. (1969) defined job satisfaction as the feelings that workers have about their jobs. Smith et al. hypothesized that these feelings are associated with a perceived difference between what is expected and what is experienced, in relation to the alternatives available in a given situation. Their relation to behavior depends upon the way in which the individual expects that form of behavior to help him achieve the goals he has accepted. According to Lawler (1977), satisfaction is determined by the outcomes people actually obtain. Dissatisfied workers are more likely than satisfied

workers to terminate employment, thus satisfaction scores can predict turnover. Satisfaction influences absenteeism and turnover and therefore it affects employee manageability. Employees' decisions about whether or not they will quit are affected by their feelings of job satisfaction. Satisfaction is very much influenced by the rewards a person receives, and of course, the organization has a considerable amount of control over these rewards.

Regarding the sources of job satisfaction, Herzberg (1966) stated the view that sources of job satisfaction are related to intrinsic motivation, which comes about when workers are able to gain achievement, advancement, recognition, responsibility, dominance, and work itself. In addition, for staff in an educational work setting, White and Belt (1980) argued that professionalization and higher educational levels have produced a new kind of employee who is motivated less by extrinsic rewards, and more by challenge, independence, further learning, and a professional career.

Studies on Job Satisfaction

Gottfredson and Holland (1990) conducted their study by mailing a set of questionnaires to workers in branches of a single large Eastern metropolitan bank. Tellers were assessed during a 2-week initial training period for vocational interests, job expectations, perceived occupational alternatives, and other personal characteristics. Data on turnover, job satisfaction, and other vocational outcomes were collected about 4 months later. The results of Gottfredson and Holland's study implied that the simple expedient of asking people if they will be satisfied with a job generates efficient predictions of subsequent job satisfaction. The study also revealed that congruent person-work environments allow the expression of a person's interests and competencies. This may be a mechanism through which worker-job congruence leads to satisfaction.

Measuring job satisfaction also has been investigated in a university work setting. Manger and Eikeland (1990) conducted a research using a sample of university staff (lecturers and professors) at the University of Bergen (Norway). The results indicated that collegial relations made the largest contribution to decisions to leave the university. The nature of

work activities and opportunities for professional development had second and third greatest influence on the intention to leave. In contrast, the salary factor or economical resource situation did not have a direct influence on the decision to leave or stay. Thus, since intellectual fulfillment in a good collegial climate keeps staff at the university more than do economic motives, administrators should be more sensitive to dissatisfaction and the resulting effect on quality and productivity. Siaciwena (1989) studied staff attitudes toward distance education at the University of Zambia. Siaciwena concluded that a majority of relatively junior lecturers felt that academic staff for distance teaching was not given due consideration for promotion. Half of the respondents did not find distance teaching was enjoyable, and only one third found that distance teaching was enjoyable.

Locke (1984) presented the view that one common category of responses to job dissatisfaction is behavioral withdrawal from the job situation. Behavioral withdrawal can be achieved in three basic ways: lateness, absenteeism, and labor turnover. In a previous study, using a sample of employees who worked on 13 different jobs in the plant and traffic department of an Eastern telephone company, Hackman and

Lawler (1971) found that simple, routine, non-challenging jobs often lead to high employee dissatisfaction, to increased absenteeism and turnover, and to substantial difficulties in effectively managing employees who work on simplified jobs. Individuals are more likely to feel satisfaction when they perform on a task which they perceive to be high in variety of equipment and work procedures, autonomy, task identity, and feedback. The substantial motivational potential of jobs can be realized only when the psychological demands and opportunities of jobs mesh well with the personal needs and goals of employees who work on them. By administering the JDI (Job Descriptive Index) to employees of two hospitals located in the Midwest, Sawyer (1988) found that work satisfaction had a greater effect on turnover intentions in the high job level group than in the low job level group. This may be due to the greater ease of high job level people in changing jobs when experiencing dissatisfaction. Furthermore, according to Schaffer (1953), dissatisfaction is aroused when individuals are unable to satisfy certain of their needs. The amount of dissatisfaction generated is determined by: (1) the strength of their needs, and (2) the extent to which they can perceive and utilize opportunities in the

situation for the satisfaction of these needs.

According to Wolf (1970), dissatisfaction results from the frustration of the gratification of active needs and from an interruption or threatened interruption to the continued gratification of previously gratified (lower level) needs. Satisfaction results from the gratification of any need and it is greater when a previously ungratified need is gratified than when a previously gratified need is gratified on an on-going basis.

Hanish and Hulin (1990) examined retirement intentions, work-role attitudes, toward retirement, and withdrawal behavior by interviewing academic and non-academic employees at a large Midwestern state university. Hanish and Hulin argued that dissatisfied individuals were more likely than satisfied individuals to engage in several organizational withdrawal behaviors, such as: turnover, absenteeism, tardiness, psychological withdrawal from work, avoidance of commitments to the job, and retirement.

To study differences, Hulin and Smith (1964) measured five separate aspects of job satisfaction for male and female workers drawn from 4 different plants of companies which were analyzed with respect to the mean of job satisfaction for male and female workers.

According to Hulin and Smith, there was an indication that female workers tended to be somewhat less satisfied with their jobs than their male counterparts, but there was no support for the conclusion that sex per se was a crucial factor leading to either high or low satisfaction. The Hulin and Smith study also stated that situational factors, such as level of job, opportunities for promotion, and societal norms, play a very important role, not only in the level of satisfaction of the workers, but also in the relative satisfaction of the male and female workers.

Differences in age may also affect job satisfaction. Strong (1958) reported that the youngest and oldest employees were more satisfied than those about 30 years of age.

In investigating job satisfaction, Evans (1969) noted various operations for the measurement of job satisfaction: 1) the measurement of overall satisfaction, 2) the measurement of satisfaction with various aspects of the job, 3) the measurement of the attainment of either needs or goals, 4) the measurement of levels of aspiration for both needs and goals, 5) the measurement of importance of either job facets or needs and goals.

The Job Descriptive Index

Smith et al. (1969) designed their analyses and their measurement around five areas of job satisfaction: WORK, PAY, PROMOTIONS, SUPERVISION, and CO-WORKERS. For each area, the respondents are instructed to indicate whether each adjective or phrase from a list applies to some particular facet of their job. Smith et al. used the Yes/?/No type of format to record questionnaire responses. This measurement is called the Job Descriptive Index (the JDI). According to Smith et al., there are several advantages to using the JDI: 1) the JDI is directed toward specific areas of satisfaction rather than global or general satisfaction, 2) the verbal level required to answer the JDI is quite low, 3) the JDI does not ask the respondents directly how satisfied they are with their work, but rather it asks them to describe their work. Smith et al. also reported the estimated split-half internal consistencies for the JDI Scales, based on the examination using a sample of 80 male employees from two electric plants. Correlations computed for WORK, PAY, PROMOTIONS, SUPERVISION, and CO-WORKERS using the Spearman-Brown formula were .84, .80, .86, .87, and .88, respectively.

Locke et al. (1964) argued that validity of measures of job satisfaction should be established by answering the questions: 1) what particular areas of satisfaction can be reliably discriminated by respondents, and 2) what particular methods of measuring job satisfaction are most adequate and meaningful. For the JDI, a strong case has been built for construct validity, both in the original source (Smith et al., 1969) as well as in numerous other publications that report correlation between the JDI scales and other measures of job satisfaction (such as Blood, 1969; Dunham et al., 1977; and Taber, 1991). In the original source, Smith et al. conducted a study using as subjects 81 male employees from two plants of a large electronics manufacturer. The data from this study showed discriminant validity for the JDI and the Faces rating (a non-verbal rating-scale which asked for rating of satisfaction based on face-figures). In addition, the JDI scales supported all requirements for convergent and discriminant validity. Thus, JDI validity should allow discriminable scores to be obtained from measures directed toward several aspects of jobs (discriminant validity for measures and areas). Further, several methods of measurement applied to the same aspect should reveal substantial agreement

(convergent validity for measures). Consequently, it is quite possible that workers will be able to produce distinguishable evaluations of several aspects of their jobs if their attention is directly focused on these different aspects by the presentation of separate scales for completion. However, this does not imply that workers ordinarily do or do not evaluate their jobs in a piecemeal fashion or hold compartmentalized attitudes toward different aspects of their jobs. Nevertheless, it is possible to obtain distinguishable responses, and these results permit subsequent exploration of the conditions which may influence separate affective responses. In order to compare the JDI scales and other measures of job satisfaction, Evan (1969) evaluated convergent and discriminant validities between the JDI and the goal-attainment component of Porter's need-satisfaction measure. Evans' study used as subjects 311 workers in a public utility and 88 nurses in a medium-sized general hospital. This evaluation was based on the Campbell and Fiske criteria. The results of the study demonstrated that the two instruments do not have complete overlap in the aspects of job satisfaction or goal attainment that they intend to measure. Based on the results of coefficient of concordance, Evans concluded that the

scales demonstrated convergent and discriminant validity. Dunham et al. (1977) focused their study on validation of the index of organizational reactions with the JDI, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (the MSQ), and General Motor Faces Scale. Taber (1991) administered the JDI, General Motor Faces Scale, Direct rating, and Open-ended satisfaction questionnaire to 249 long-distance or directory-assistance telephone operators from three offices of an eastern telephone company. One of Taber's evaluations in this study was the construct validity of the instruments. The results suggested that the overall satisfaction rating significantly correlated with the summing of the five areas of job satisfaction and direct ratings (on both satisfaction and dissatisfaction) were consistent with the JDI. He concluded that languages employees used to describe their job experiences converged significantly with the structure satisfaction and work behaviors.

Gregson (1987) showed that researchers can use another type of the JDI format, such as a Likert-type format of the JDI, without interfering with the dimensionality. Cronbach alphas for dimensions of job satisfaction were WORK= .84, PAY= .85, PROMOTION= .90, SUPERVISION= .86, CO-WORKERS= .84. This study was based on a subject pool of 311 certified public

accountants who responded to a national mail survey. Actually, this study was a small part of a larger study designed, among other things, to measure the job satisfaction of public accountants. The study employed a multiple-choice format consisting of 30 modified questions of the JDI. On the other hand, Johnson et al.'s study (1982) supported continued use of the JDI in its original format (with Yes/?/No) because a 5-point Likert-type scale did not significantly improve the stability and the capacity to distinguish among the five subscales of the JDI. In this study, Johnson et al. administered the JDI to a subject pool of 200 introductory psychology students. Approximately 3 weeks after the first administration of this instrument, the subjects again completed the JDI using one of the two response formats. Subjects in Condition 1 completed the original format (Yes/?/No) both times; in Condition 2, subjects responded on the Likert-type format both times. In Condition 3, subjects responded on the original the first time and on the Likert-type format the second time; while in Condition 4, subjects responded in the reverse order. The test-retest reliabilities for the Yes/?/No format were WORK= .88, PAY= .68, PROMOTION= .82, SUPERVISION= .71, CO-WORKERS= .78; while the test-retest reliabilities for the

Likert-type format were WORK= .88, PAY= .86, PROMOTION= .70, SUPERVISION= .83, CO-WORKERS= .71. The convergent validity coefficients were WORK= .67, PAY= .63, PROMOTION= .57, SUPERVISION= .77, CO-WORKERS= .66.

The JDI is the most widely-used instrument for measuring job satisfaction today. More than fifty percent of the articles published between 1970-1978 in seven leading management or management related journals that used non-ad hoc measures of job satisfaction employed the JDI (Yeager, 1981). In addition, the JDI has been widely used in business and government as both a research tool and a diagnostic indicator. For example, Hulin and Smith (1964) examined the influence of gender on job satisfaction by administering the JDI to workers drawn from four different plants representing a large electronics firm (2 plants), a manufacturer of cardboard products (a medium-sized family-owned plant), and a brass foundry (a medium-sized company). Hulin and Smith found that females were more dissatisfaction with their promotional opportunities than with other factors and they tended less satisfied with their work. The JDI was also used to investigate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover (Hulin, 1966). In this study, the JDI questionnaire was administered to female

clerical workers employed by the corporate offices of a large Canadian manufacturing firm. The results suggested that satisfaction factor was correlated to turnover. In 1968, Hulin used the JDI again, this time to analyze the changes which had occurred in the corporate offices of a large Canadian manufacturing firm after changes in the company's pay and promotion policies were instituted. Hulin (1968) found that the changes in the company's pay and promotion led to decrease in turnover. Waters and Waters (1969) used the JDI in order to analyze the relationships of selected job-related variables to separate measures of overall satisfaction/dissatisfaction obtained from the respondents of 160 non-supervisor female employees in one regional office of a national insurance company. Using the results of this study, Waters and Waters speculated that the JDI did not differentiate motivators and hygiene factors of the Herzberg's two factors theory. Blood (1969) attempted to measure individual differences in work values. In Blood's study, 448 airmen and non-commissioned officers from the United States Air force were asked to complete the JDI and Faces Scales to measure their job satisfaction. Based on his findings, Blood assumed that work values precede and influence job

satisfaction. O'Reilly and Roberts (1973) examined job satisfaction of white and non-white females across three occupational levels (supervisors, technicians, and clerical employed at two west coast hospitals) by using the JDI, General Motor Faces Scales, and Brayfield-Rothe job satisfaction index. O'Reilly and Roberts found that the frame of reference people bring from their culture/subculture influences the way they perceive their jobs. Szilagy et al. (1976) conducted a study on role dynamics, locus of control, and employee attitudes and behavior, using a role conflict and ambiguity questionnaire (developed by Rizzo et al., 1970), the JDI, and a performance evaluation questionnaire. They found that (1) role conflict and ambiguity explained more variance in satisfaction and performance than locus of control, and (2) role ambiguity increasingly explained more variance in job satisfaction as occupational level rose.

Smith and Rollo (1975) conducted a study on factor structure of the JDI and its discrimination of job satisfaction for black and white employees. The results of this study revealed that the JDI dimensional structure seems stable across some occupational groupings, although the JDI developers relied basically on white, industrial workers. In this

study, Smith et al. tested the applicability of the JDI to several populations having different demographic characteristics: government versus bank employees, and black versus white employees. The survey was based on 112 white and 107 black employees in a governmental unit, and 110 bank employees. Based on Smith and Rollo's ideas, Golembiewski and Yeager (1978) examined the applicability of the JDI to various demographic groupings. The research was based on the large population of respondents (about 2,671 people) from chief executive to porter at several American sites. The analysis was based on five distinct demographic groupings (self-identification as part of management versus non-management, hourly workers versus salaried employees, white versus black, female versus male, and white female versus white male). Golembiewski and Yeager found that the JDI seemed to be applicable to employees with different demographic characteristics, which provides important support for the instrument's usefulness. Moreover, Hulin, Drasgow, and Komocar (1982) held the view that different meanings of the scales across two cultures and languages would not be a fault of the translation, but might instead be attributed to a lack of cultural relevance. Hulin et al.'s study drew their data from a Spanish translation

of the JDI administered to Spanish-speaking employees of a large merchandising firm. These employees performed sales, sales support, and supervisory functions. Respondents completed English and Spanish versions of an attitude questionnaire on two different occasions 30 days apart in a counterbalanced order. Based on the results, Hulin et al. argued that equivalent item characteristic curves across the original and translated items of a scale produce equivalent measurements in both languages, and non-equivalent item characteristic curves pinpoint differences between the two versions of the scale.

In order to assess affective and cognitive reaction of respondents to job satisfaction instruments, Brief and Roberson (1989) administered three job satisfaction measures (the JDI, the MSQ, and the Faces scale) to a sample of workers, all enrolled in evening graduate level organizational behavior or personnel psychology classes at a large eastern university. The results of the regression analysis in Brief and Roberson's study suggested that the JDI is a balanced scale capable of capturing negative affect and cognition components.

CHAPTER III

Research Overview

Rationale for the Study

As proposed by Holland (1976), identifying employees' needs may help to gain an understanding of employees' personalities as a basis for providing the types of tasks in a given job which match the employees' needs; in turn, this may enhance the employees' motivation towards work. Further, assessing the employees' work-relevant needs, in relation to the varying potentials of alternative jobs, may pave the way for career development, psychological health, and job satisfaction. If employees can successfully identify their needs and the needs-satisfaction potential of the occupation they enter, they will likely commit to, and be content with, their occupational decision. According to Wexley and Yukl (1984), needs for ACHIEVEMENT (nAch), AFFILIATION (nAff), AUTONOMY (nAut), and DOMINANCE (nDom) are potentially relevant influences on behavior in an organizational setting.

Moreover, identifying employees' job satisfaction in the areas of WORK, PAY, PROMOTIONS, SUPERVISION, and CO-WORKERS is important for organizational management.

Because, as suggested by Gruneberg, (1979), most employees spend a large part of their lives in a work situation, an understanding both of the areas involved in employee-job satisfaction and of the areas in which an employee feels satisfied is necessary to enhance the employees' well-being. In addition, this enhancement might, in turn, influence productivity and profitability of an organization, organizational effectiveness, and behavioral problems of employees (such as tardiness, absenteeism, and labor turnover). Thus, by identifying people's needs (especially work-related needs), by keeping satisfaction high, and, if possible, by seeing that the best employees are the most satisfied, an organization can retain the employees the organization needs the most.

Research Questions

- 1) How do the junior academic staff of UT respond to the Manifest Needs Questionnaire (MNQ)?
- 2) How do the junior academic staff of UT respond to the Job Descriptive Index (JDI)?
- 3) How do the junior academic staff of UT respond to the General Index of Job Satisfaction (GI)?

- 4) Based on their responses to the JDI, are the junior academic staff of UT satisfied or dissatisfied with their present jobs?
- 5) Are manifest needs, as measured by the MNQ, related to indices of job satisfaction, as measured by the JDI?
- 6) Are manifest needs, as measured by the MNQ, related to indices of job satisfaction, as measured by the GI?
- 7) Is job satisfaction, as measured by the JDI, related to job satisfaction, as measured by the GI?

Definition of Terms

Need. A need is an internal state of disequilibrium which causes individuals to pursue certain courses of action in an effort to regain internal equilibrium (Steers & Porter, 1979).

Manifest Needs. As suggested by Murray (1938), manifest needs include all actions that are real, as well, seriously and responsibly directed toward actual objects.

Terms Used in the MNQ. This study used the MNQ for measuring the needs for ACHIEVEMENT, AFFILIATION, AUTONOMY, and DOMINANCE. Using Murray's definitions

(1938), needs for ACHIEVEMENT (nAch) may accompany any other needs. It is the desire or tendency to do things as rapidly and/or as well as possible. There is a great variety of acts which may gratify the achievement drive. Needs for AFFILIATION (nAff) describes a positive tropism for people. Needs for AUTONOMY (nAut) control both those who wish neither to lead nor be led and those who want to go their own ways, uninfluenced and uncoerced by others. Needs for DOMINANCE (nDom) are manifested by a desire to control the sentiments and behaviors of others.

Job Satisfaction. As defined by Smith et al. (1969), job satisfactions are feelings workers have about their jobs that are associated with a perceived difference between what is expected and what is experienced in relation to the alternatives available. In addition, according to Hopkins (1983), job satisfaction is associated with the fulfillment or gratification of needs of the individuals that are related to individuals' job. Thus, job satisfaction results from the fit between individuals' needs and their job and job environment. In the other words, job satisfaction results from the interaction of variable individual needs and variable individual perceptions of the job and its environment.

Terms Used in the JDI and GI. This study used the JDI and GI for measuring job satisfaction. Although most terms used in the JDI are familiar, several bear further definition. For example, the term of WORK refers to situations and conditions of work which are faced by the employees. PAY refers to the employees' salary, and PROMOTION refers to the employees' chances of career advancement. SUPERVISION refers to the descriptions of supervisor's characters and policies, and CO-WORKERS refers to the descriptions of work associate's characters which could lead to an explanation of relationships among employees. The terms used in the GI are those which are similar to the JDI, plus the term of OVERALL job satisfaction. The latter term refers to the employees' feeling toward their present job in a general (global) sense.

Junior Academic Staff. The subjects of this study were the junior academic staff of The Indonesian Open University (UT). In this study, the operational definition of junior academic staff is academic staff whose academic rankings are Junior Skilled Assistant (Tenaga Pengajar), Intermediate Skilled Assistant (Asisten Ahli Madya), Skilled Assistant (Asisten Ahli), Junior Associate Professor (Lektor Muda), and Intermediate Associate Professor (Lektor Madya) in the

Indonesian Open University (UT), Jakarta, Indonesia. Other rankings, such as Associate Professor (Lektor), Intermediate Senior Associate Professor (Lektor Kepala Madya), Senior Associate Professor (Lektor Kepala), Intermediate Professor (Guru Besar Madya), and Professor (Guru Besar), and any rankings of staff members who work at Learning Centers of UT's Regional Offices (UPBJJ) throughout Indonesia were excluded in this study. In addition, the academic staff must have no position in the organizational structure in UT. For example, they may not be a rector, vice-rector, dean, or vice dean.

CHAPTER IV

Method

Sample

The sample focussed on the 252 junior academic staff members of The Indonesian Open University (UT), Jakarta. However, questionnaires were distributed to 206 junior academic staff members. The remaining staff members were not available to receive the questionnaires due to their off-campus duties, such as study in and out of Indonesia, attending work-shops, and training. Each subject received a set of questionnaires, one measuring Manifest Needs (the MNQ) and two others measuring Job Satisfaction (the JDI and GI). A total of 151 (73.3%) completed sets of questionnaires were returned.

Instruments

- 1) The Manifest Needs Questionnaire (MNQ), based on Murray's Personality theories(1938) and developed by Steers and Braunstein (1976), was employed to measure needs for ACHIEVEMENT (nAch), AFFILIATION (nAff), AUTONOMY (nAut), DOMINANCE (nDom). According to Steers and Braunstein, acceptable levels of convergent validity were achieved. This conclusion was

based on correlations between MNQ scores and PRF (Personality Research Form) scores for needs of ACHIEVEMENT, AFFILIATION, AUTONOMY, DOMINANCE which are .61, .40, .42, and .62, respectively. The test-retest reliabilities for the four needs are .72, .75, .77, .86, respectively. Moreover, internal consistency for the four needs are .66, .56, .61, and .88, respectively.

- 2) The Job Descriptive Index (JDI), developed by Smith et al. (1969), was used to measure satisfaction in five areas of a job: the type of WORK, the PAY, the opportunities for PROMOTION, the SUPERVISION, and the CO-WORKERS on the job. Smith et al. also reported that the reliabilities for the JDI Scales of WORK, PAY, PROMOTIONS, SUPERVISION, and CO-WORKERS were .84, .80, .86, .87, and .88, respectively. According to Johnson et al.'s study (1982), the reliabilities were WORK=.88, PAY=.68, PROMOTION=.82, SUPERVISION=.71, CO-WORKERS=.78 and the convergent validity coefficients between Yes/?/No and

five-scale types of JDI were WORK= .67, PAY= .63, PROMOTION= .57, SUPERVISION= .77, CO-WORKERS= .66.

- 3) The General Index of job satisfaction (GI). The questionnaire consists of six items, each measuring one aspect of job satisfaction (WORK, PAY, PROMOTION, SUPERVISION, CO-WORKERS, and OVERALL satisfaction on the job.)

The MNQ, JDI, and GI questionnaires were translated into the national language, Bahasa Indonesia.

Variables

- 1) The MNQ (see Appendix B) consists of 20 written statements about four areas of needs, that is, those for ACHIEVEMENT (nAch), AFFILIATION (nAff), AUTONOMY (nAut), DOMINANCE (nDom).
- 2) The JDI (see Appendix B) measures five areas of job satisfaction: WORK, PAY, PROMOTION, SUPERVISION, and CO-WORKERS.
- 3) The GI (see Appendix B) consists of six items, each measuring job satisfaction with WORK, PAY, PROMOTION, SUPERVISION, CO-WORKERS, plus OVERALL job satisfaction.

Procedure

The study involved :

- 1) Translating the questionnaires into the national language, Bahasa Indonesia. Validation of the translation involved distributing the initial translation to Indonesian students who study at the Faculty of Education of the University of Victoria. Based on the input from these students, the initial translation was revised, and then with the assistance of a bilingual Indonesian-English person, this revised one was reviewed. Finally, the last translation was retranslated into English, and then with the assistance of a native English speaker, this retranslated one was also reviewed.
- 2) Distributing the questionnaires to the junior academic staff in the second week of March 1992. The responses were collected 4 weeks later (in the second week of April 1992).
- 3) Missing data. A few of items in the 151 sets of questionnaires were not responded to. There were 35 missing cases consisting of 75 missing items. For these missing data, the mean for each variable was inserted.

CHAPTER V

Results and Discussion

The demographic information for the 151 respondents is shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Demographic Information of Respondents

		Frequency	Percent
Location of Work	The Faculties	82	54.3
	Other Units	69	45.7
	Total	151	100.0
Faculty	Education	56	37.1
	Mathematics & Science	56	37.1
	Social & Political Sc.	27	17.9
	Economics	12	7.9
	Total	151	100.0
Work Experience	Less than 2 years	39	25.8
	2 - less than 4 years	26	17.2
	4 - less than 6 years	33	21.9
	More than 6 years	53	35.1
	Total	151	100.0

(Table continues)

		Frequency	Percent
Sex	Male	85	56.3
	Female	66	43.7
	Total	151	100.0

Academic Rank	Jr. Skilled Assist.	32	21.2
	Intermed. Skilled Assist.	71	47.0
	Skilled Assistant	39	25.8
	Jr. Associate Professor	3	2.0
	Intermed. Assoc. Prof.	5	3.3
	Total	151	100.0

Age	Up to 25 years	3	2.0
	26 - 30 years	44	29.1
	31 - 35 years	72	47.7
	36 - 40 years	21	13.9
	More than 40 years	11	7.3
	Total	151	100.0

The Responses to the MNQ

The MNQ was used to measure subjects' perceived needs. Table 2 shows the results. Based on the data, the respondents rated nAch (mean = 5.4) higher than they rated nDom (mean = 4.1), nAff (mean = 3.9), and nAut (mean = 3.9).

Table 2

Mean Responses on the MNQ (N = 151)

Variable	Mean	SD
Need for ACHIEVEMENT (nAch)	5.4	.8
Need for AFFILIATION (nAff)	3.9	.6
Need for AUTONOMY (nAut)	3.9	.7
Need for DOMINANCE (nDom)	4.1	.8

A series of paired t-tests showed significant differences (Table 3) between responses to nAch and nAff, nAch and nAut, and nAch and nDom. As well, the rating of nDom was significant different from the ratings of nAff and nAut. However, the mean responses to nAff and nAut were not significantly different.

Table 3

t-Tests among Variables of the MNO (N = 151)

Variables	<u>t</u>	df	<u>p</u> (2tailed)
nAch - nAff	17.12	150	.001
nAch - nAut	17.76	150	.001
nAch - nDom	17.21	150	.001
nAff - nAut	.90	150	.37
nAff - nDom	1.97	150	.05
nAut - nDom	2.59	150	.01

The results of Dreher's (1980), Dreher and Mai-Dalton's (1982), and Chusmir and Koberg's (1986) studies also ranked nAch higher than the three other needs (Table 4).

No significant difference was found between male and female expressions of nAch, nAff, and nAut. The results are shown in Table 5. However, there was a significant difference in nDom ($t = 2.02$, $df = 149$, $p < .05$) between male (mean = 4.2) and female respondents (mean = 4.0). The males expressed nDom that was higher than that of the females.

Table 4

Mean Responses on the MNQ in Other Studies

Study	N	Variable	Mean	SD
Dreher (1980)	78	nAch	5.0	.8
		nAff	4.1	.6
		nAut	4.7	.8
		nDom	4.2	1.0
Dreher & Mai-Dalton (1982)	74	nAch	5.1	.6
		nAff	4.1	.6
		nAut	3.7	.7
		nDom	3.8	.8
Chusmir & Koberg (1986)	165	nAch	5.2	.9
		nAff	3.9	.7
		nAut	4.0	.9
		nDom	4.4	1.0

According to Harvey and France (1982), a difference between the male and female counsellor responses occurred for nAff ($p < .10$). In Chusmir and Koberg's study (1986), the differences between the male and female working responses occurred for nAch and nDom ($p < .05$). Koberg and Chusmir (1988) found that men exhibited significantly higher mean of nDom scores than

Table 5

Comparisons between Responses of Males and Females to
the MNQ

Variable	Sex	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p(2-tailed)																																
nAch	M	85	5.5	.8	1.00	149	.32																																
	F	66	5.3	.8				Aff	M	85	4.0	.6	.81	149	.42	F	66	3.9	.6	nAut	M	85	3.9	.7	.89	149	.37	F	66	3.8	.5	nDom	M	85	4.2	.9	2.02	149	.05
Aff	M	85	4.0	.6	.81	149	.42																																
	F	66	3.9	.6				nAut	M	85	3.9	.7	.89	149	.37	F	66	3.8	.5	nDom	M	85	4.2	.9	2.02	149	.05	F	66	4.0	.8								
nAut	M	85	3.9	.7	.89	149	.37																																
	F	66	3.8	.5				nDom	M	85	4.2	.9	2.02	149	.05	F	66	4.0	.8																				
nDom	M	85	4.2	.9	2.02	149	.05																																
	F	66	4.0	.8																																			

did the women ($p < .001$). Thus, the results of this study are similar to the study of Koberg and Chusmir (1988), but they are different from the study of Harvey and France and that of Chusmir and Koberg (1986).

Responses to the JDI

The JDI was used to measure subjects' perceived satisfaction toward various aspects of their jobs. Table 6 shows the responses to the JDI. The respondents tended to rate the scale of SUPERVISION higher than the scales of CO-WORKERS, PROMOTION, WORK, and PAY. The scale of PAY was rated in the lowest rank.

Table 6

Responses on the JDI (N = 151)

Variable	Max.Score	Mean	SD
WORK	54	35.4	10.3
PAY	54	22.1	10.9
PROMOTION	54	35.9	14.3
SUPERVISION	54	38.8	11.9
COWORKERS	54	36.3	11.2

A series of paired t-tests among variables of the JDI (Table 7) showed significant differences between responses to the scale of SUPERVISION and the scales of CO-WORKERS, PROMOTION, WORK, and PAY, as well, between those to the scale of PAY and the scales of CO-WORKERS, PROMOTION, and WORK. However, there was no significant difference between those to the scales of CO-WORKERS, PROMOTION, and WORK.

Table 7

t-Tests among Variables of the JDI (N = 151)

Variables	<u>t</u>	df	p(2tailed)
WORK - PAY	13.00	150	.001
WORK - PROMOTION	.48	150	.63
WORK - SUPERVISION	3.56	150	.001
WORK - CO-WORKERS	.86	150	.39
PAY - PROMOTION	11.09	150	.001
PAY - SUPERVISION	14.36	150	.001
PAY - CO-WORKERS	12.13	150	.001
PROMOT - SUPERVIS	2.47	150	.02
PROMOT - CO-WORKERS	.20	150	.84
SUPERVIS - CO-WORK	2.43	150	.02

The results of the studies of Smith et al. (1969) and Taber (1991) tended to ranked the scale of CO-WORKERS higher than the others. The scale of PROMOTION was rated in the lowest rank. Table 8 shows the mean responses of the studies.

Table 8

Mean Responses on the JDI in Other Studies

Study	N	Variable	Mean	SD
Smith et al.	1971	WORK	36.6	10.5
(1969)	1966	PAY	29.9	14.5
(Subjects =	1945	PROMOTION	22.1	15.8
Male)	1951	SUPERVIS.	41.1	10.6
	1928	CO-WORK.	43.5	10.0
Smith et al.	638	WORK	35.7	9.9
(1969)	635	PAY	27.9	13.7
(Subjects =	634	PROMOTION	17.8	13.4
Female)	636	SUPERVIS.	41.1	10.1
	636	CO-WORK.	42.1	10.5

(Table continues)

Study	N	Variable	Mean	SD
Taber (1991)	249	WORK	25.3	11.1
(Subjects =	249	PAY	31.4	13.4
95% Female)	249	PROMOTION	19.6	15.8
	249	SUPERVIS.	38.0	10.2
	249	CO-WORK.	39.3	11.8

The t-tests comparing the mean values of male and female responses to the JDI indicated no significant difference between male and female responses on the scales of PAY, PROMOTION, SUPERVISION, and CO-WORKERS. The results are shown in Table 9. On the other hand, a significant difference between the male responses (mean = 37.7) and female responses (mean = 32.5) occurred for the WORK scale ($t = 3.14$, $df = 149$, $p < .01$). Male respondents appear to be somewhat more positive about their WORKS than do their female counterparts. According to Hulin and Smith (1964), situational factors, such as level of job and societal norms, could lead female workers tend to be somewhat less satisfied with their jobs than do their male counterparts.

Table 9

Comparison between Responses of Males and
Females to the JDI

Variable	Sex	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p(2-tailed)																																												
WORK	M	85	37.7	10.0	3.14	149	.002																																												
	F	66	32.5	10.1				PAY	M	85	21.1	11.4	1.34	149	.18	F	66	23.5	10.2	PROMOTION	M	85	34.5	15.0	1.44	149	.15	F	66	37.9	13.2	SUPER- VISION	M	85	38.8	12.2	.05	149	.96	F	66	38.8	11.5	CO- WORKERS	M	85	36.1	12.0	.20	149	.84
PAY	M	85	21.1	11.4	1.34	149	.18																																												
	F	66	23.5	10.2				PROMOTION	M	85	34.5	15.0	1.44	149	.15	F	66	37.9	13.2	SUPER- VISION	M	85	38.8	12.2	.05	149	.96	F	66	38.8	11.5	CO- WORKERS	M	85	36.1	12.0	.20	149	.84	F	66	36.5	10.3								
PROMOTION	M	85	34.5	15.0	1.44	149	.15																																												
	F	66	37.9	13.2				SUPER- VISION	M	85	38.8	12.2	.05	149	.96	F	66	38.8	11.5	CO- WORKERS	M	85	36.1	12.0	.20	149	.84	F	66	36.5	10.3																				
SUPER- VISION	M	85	38.8	12.2	.05	149	.96																																												
	F	66	38.8	11.5				CO- WORKERS	M	85	36.1	12.0	.20	149	.84	F	66	36.5	10.3																																
CO- WORKERS	M	85	36.1	12.0	.20	149	.84																																												
	F	66	36.5	10.3																																															

The Responses to the GI

The GI was used to measure subjects' perceived satisfaction toward various aspects of their jobs based on the five-point scales of items (Appendix B). Table 10 shows the mean responses on the GI.

Table 10

Mean Responses on the GI (N = 151)

Variable	Mean	SD
WORK	3.4	1.0
PAY	2.8	1.0
PROMOTION	3.0	1.0
SUPERVISION	3.6	1.1
CO-WORKERS	3.5	0.9
OVERALL	3.3	0.9

The respondents appeared to feel between neutral and satisfied for the areas of WORK, SUPERVISION, CO-WORKERS, and OVERALL job satisfaction, between neutral and dissatisfied for the area of PAY, and neutral for the area of PROMOTION.

A series of t-pair-tests among variables of the GI (Table 11) showed significant differences between responses on the scales of GI, except the responses on

Table 11

t-Tests among Variables of the GI (N = 151)

Variables	<u>t</u>	df	p(2tailed)
WORK - PAY	7.39	150	.001
WORK - PROMOTION	4.39	150	.001
WORK - SUPERVISION	1.91	150	.06
WORK - CO-WORKERS	1.14	150	.25
WORK - OVERALL	1.87	150	.06
PAY - PROMOTION	2.05	150	.04
PAY - SUPERVISION	9.39	150	.001
PAY - CO-WORKERS	8.28	150	.001
PAY - OVERALL	6.87	150	.001
PROMOT - SUPERVIS	6.07	150	.001
PROMOT - CO-WORKERS	5.25	150	.001
PROMOT - OVERALL	3.58	150	.001
SUPERVIS - CO-WORK	.72	150	.47
SUPERVIS - OVERALL	3.45	150	.001
CO-WORKERS-OVERALL	2.75	150	.007

(1) the scale of WORK and the scales of SUPERVISION, CO-WORKERS, and OVERALL job satisfaction; and (2) the scale of SUPERVISION and the scale of CO-WORKERS. Thus, the respondents tended to rank the scales of SUPERVISION, CO-WORKERS and WORK higher than two other scales. In contrast, they ranked the scale of PAY lower than the others.

The results of t-tests comparing the mean values between male and female responses (see Table 12) suggested that the responses based on sex could not lead to a significant difference for the scales of WORK, PAY, SUPERVISION, CO-WORKERS, and OVERALL job satisfaction. A significant difference was found between the male responses (mean = 2.7) and the female ones (mean = 3.3) for the scale of PROMOTION ($t = -3.18, df = 149, p < .01$). It seemed that females more positively responded to the area of PROMOTION than did their male counterparts. The results differ from the JDI results which suggested that there was no significant difference between male and female responses in the area of PROMOTION. However, the JDI results indicated that male respondents appear to be more positive about their WORK than did their female

Table 12

Comparison between Responses of Males and
Females to the GI

Variable	Sex	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p(2-tailed)
WORK	M	85	3.5	.9	1.56	149	.12
	F	66	3.3	1.0			
PAY	M	85	2.7	1.1	1.12	149	.26
	F	66	2.9	.8			
PROMOTION	M	85	2.7	1.1	3.18	149	.002
	F	66	3.3	.9			
SUPER- VISION	M	85	3.6	1.1	.64	149	.52
	F	66	3.5	1.1			

(Table continues)

Variable	Sex	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p(2-tailed)
CO- WORKERS	M	85	3.5	1.0	.19	149	.85
	F	66	3.5	.8			
OVERALL	M	85	3.2	1.0	1.42	149	.16
	F	66	3.4	.8			

counterparts. This difference might be influenced by the characteristics of the GI questionnaire itself. The six-items of GI asked the respondents directly whether or not they feel satisfaction with the job (WORK, PAY, PROMOTION, SUPERVISION, CO-WORKERS, and OVERALL job satisfaction). In contrast, the JDI is a measurement that does not ask the respondents directly how satisfied they are with their work, instead of it asks them to describe their work (Smith et al., 1969).

Relationship between Manifest Needs Measured
by the MNQ and Job Satisfaction Measured by the JDI

The results of the bivariate analysis (Table 13) suggested that there are significant correlations ($p < .01$, 2-tailed) between nAch and satisfaction with both the scales of WORK and PROMOTION. As well, nAff and satisfaction are significantly correlated with the scales of PROMOTION and CO-WORKERS ($p < .01$ and $p < .05$, 2-tailed); nDom and satisfaction are significantly correlated with the scale of PAY ($p < .05$, 2-tailed).

Table 13

Correlations between Manifest Needs Measured by the MNQ
and Job Satisfaction Measured by the JDI

The MNQ	The Indices of the JDI				
	WORK	PAY	PROMO- TION	SUPER- VISION	CO- WORKERS
nAch	.22**	-.05	.22**	.13	-.11
nAff.	-.02	-.07	-.21**	-.06	.18*
nAut.	-.04	-.01	-.07	-.04	-.13
nDom.	.04	-.17*	.03	-.01	.03

(n = 151, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, 2-tailed)

Canonical Correlation Analysis between the JDI and the MNQ

A canonical correlation analysis resulted in only one significant canonical correlation ($r_c = .45$, $F = 2.43$, $df = 20/472$, $p = .001$) linking the JDI variables with those of the MNQ. This correlation represented 20% overlapping variance. The standardized canonical coefficients indicated that WORK (-.50), PROMOTION (-.60), and CO-WORKERS (.84) from the JDI were the highest weighted, while nAch (-.83) and nAff (.54) from the MNQ were the main contributors to the overall correlation between two sets of measures. These results suggested that there is a relatively weak but significant relationship between the JDI and the MNQ.

Multiple Regression Analyses

Multiple regression analyses were performed to examine the relationship between the needs measured by the MNQ, as predictors, and the indices of job satisfaction measured by the JDI, as criteria. Table 14 shows the results of these analyses.

Table 14

The Results of Multiple Regression Analyses of
Manifest Needs Measured by the MNQ and Job Satisfaction
Measured by the JDI (N=151)

Criteria(JDI)	Predictors(MNQ)	Beta	t	p
WORK R = .23 F = 1.96 p = .10	nAch	.24	2.73	.01
	nAff	.01	.17	.87
	nAut	-.03	.33	.75
	nDom	-.05	.60	.55
PAY R = .21 F = 1.62 p = .17	nAch	-.00	.03	.98
	nAff	-.11	1.30	.20
	nAut	-.04	.53	.60
	nDom	-.20	2.21	.03
PROMOTION R = .29 F = 3.47 p = .01	nAch	.21	2.43	.02
	nAff	-.19	2.31	.02
	nAut	-.08	.99	.32
	nDom	-.08	.96	.34

(Table continues)

Criteria (JDI)	Predictors (MNQ)	Beta	t	p
SUPERVISION R = .15 F = .89 p = .47	nAch	.14	1.60	.11
	nAff	-.05	.59	.55
	nAut	-.05	.56	.58
	nDom	-.08	.88	.38
CO-WORKERS R = .25 F = 2.41 p = .05	nAch	-.13	1.44	.15
	nAff	.16	1.99	.05
	nAut	-.11	1.45	.15
	nDom	.09	.99	.32

It can be seen in Table 14 that, when each of the MNQ scales is considered, the set of MNQ scales predicted PROMOTION, and CO-WORKERS significantly, although at a low level of correlation (nAch was a significant predictor of the job satisfaction with the PROMOTION scale, nAff indicated significant contributions to job satisfaction for the scales of PROMOTION and CO-WORKERS).

Discussion

The results of this study suggest that job satisfaction on the scale of PROMOTION is significantly predicted by nAch. This suggests that the level of nAch is related to satisfaction with PROMOTION. Consequently, if the situation and conditions of work of people with high nAch support their efforts, job satisfaction may result, especially, in concrete career advances, such as PROMOTION.

Previous studies have addressed the relationship between nAch and job satisfaction. For example, the results of Kuhlen's research (1963) suggested that nAch seemed to be a significant variable in WORK satisfaction, in the instance of attitude toward career. Lawler (1973) argued that nAch and nAut might influence individuals' reactions to characteristics of their jobs. The results of Dreher's study (1980) revealed that satisfaction and involvement were positively related to nAch. Steers and Braunstein (1976) found that nAch was related to career satisfaction, since people with high nAch strive to succeed in the organization. As suggested, the current study indicates that nAch is positively related to job satisfaction on the PROMOTION scale.

A second interesting result is that the job satisfaction scale of PROMOTION tends to be negatively predicted by nAff. According to Wexley and Yukl (1984), people with a strong nAff are usually unwilling to let work interfere with harmonious relationships. Thus, such people are more concerned with "getting along" than with "getting ahead". They consider that "getting ahead", or having more career success, could inhibit their relationships with the others. Consequently, these people may have less motivation to attain their job satisfaction by PROMOTION.

The responses on for the scale of CO-WORKERS are positively related to nAff as well. According to Wexley and Yukl (1984), people with a strong nAff are especially concerned both about being liked and accepted as a part of a team and working with other people who are friendly and cooperative. They may attempt to fulfill these needs in supportive work environment, and their efforts may lead to fulfillment of job satisfaction in the CO-WORKERS area.

Relationship between Job Satisfaction Measured by
the JDI and Job Satisfaction Measured the GI

The results of bivariate correlation between job satisfaction measured by the JDI to the indices of job satisfaction measured by the GI are shown in Table 15. Significant correlations obtained on the scales of WORK, SUPERVISION, and CO-WORKERS from the JDI to the scales of WORK, PAY, PROMOTION, SUPERVISION, CO-WORKERS and OVERALL job satisfaction (all scales) from the GI. The scale of PAY from the JDI only indicated significant correlations to the scales of PAY, SUPERVISION, CO-WORKERS, and OVERALL job satisfaction from the GI. In addition, the scale of PROMOTION from the JDI significantly correlated with the scales of PAY, PROMOTION, SUPERVISION, and OVERALL job satisfaction from the GI.

Table 15

Correlations between Job Satisfaction Measured by the JDI and Job Satisfaction Measured by the GI

The Scales of the GI	The Scales of the JDI				
	WORK	PAY	PROMO- TION	SUPER- VISION	CO- WORKERS
WORK	.50**	.11	.08	.37**	.25*
PAY	.28**	.55**	.24*	.29**	.22*
PROMOTION	.20*	.13	.60**	.29**	.22*
SUPERVISION	.38**	.24*	.31**	.74**	.34**
CO-WORKERS	.28**	.23*	.06	.23*	.53**
OVERALL	.44**	.36**	.34**	.41**	.33**

(N = 151, 2-tailed, *p < .01, **p < .001)

Canonical Correlation Analysis between the JDI and the GI

The results of a canonical correlation analysis between the JDI and the GI resulted in five significant canonical correlations ($rc_1 = .76$, $F = 13.66$, $df = 30/562$, $p < .001$; $rc_2 = .63$, $F = 11.43$, $df = 20/469$, $p < .001$; $rc_3 = .59$, $F = 11.41$, $df = 12/376$, $p < .001$);

rc4 = .49, $F = 10.26$, $df = 6/286$, $p < .001$); and rc5 = .33, $F = 8.99$, $df = 2/144$, $p < .001$). These canonical correlations described overlapping variances of 58%, 39%, 35%, 24%, and 11%, respectively. The highest standardized canonical weights for the scales of the GI were :

- (1) SUPERVISION (-.82) for the first canonical correlation;
- (2) WORK (-.71), PROMOTION (.60), SUPERVISION (-.55), and OVERALL (.51) for the second canonical correlation;
- (3) PAY (.77), PROMOTION (-.62), and CO-WORKERS (.52) for the third canonical correlation;
- (4) WORK (.61), PAY (-.58), and CO-WORKERS (.81) for the fourth canonical correlation; and
- (5) WORK (-.74), SUPERVISION (.52), CO-WORKERS (.56) for the fifth canonical correlation.

The highest standardized canonical weights for the scales of the JDI were :

- (1) SUPERVISION (-.79) for the first canonical correlation,
- (2) PROMOTION (.86) and SUPERVISION (-.64) for the second canonical correlation,
- (3) PAY (.78) and PROMOTION (-.71) for the third canonical correlation,

- (4) PAY (-.59), SUPERVISION (-.55), and CO-WORKERS (.75) for the fourth canonical correlation, and
(5) WORK (-1.04) and CO-WORKERS (.68) for the fifth canonical correlation.

These data indicate a moderate and significant relationships between the JDI and the GI.

Multiple Regression Analyses

Multiple regression analyses were performed to examine the relationship between the indices of job satisfaction measured by the JDI, as predictors, and the indices of job satisfaction measured by the GI, as criteria. Table 16 shows the results of multiple regression analyses between the JDI and the GI.

Multiple regression analyses significantly resulted in WORK and OVERALL of the GI from WORK of the JDI; PAY, CO-WORKERS, and OVERALL of the GI from PAY of the JDI; WORK and PROMOTION of the GI from PROMOTION of the JDI; WORK, SUPERVISION and OVERALL of the GI from SUPERVISION of the JDI; and CO-WORKERS of the GI from CO-WORKERS of the JDI.

Table 16

Results of Multiple Regression Analyses of Job Satisfaction Measured by the JDI and GI (N=151)

Criteria (GI)	Predictors (JDI)	Beta	t	p
WORK R = .54 F = 12.18 p = .01	WORK	.44	5.25	.00
	PAY	-.04	.49	.62
	PROMOTION	-.16	2.01	.05
	SUPERVISION	.24	2.85	.01
	CO-WORKERS	.02	.29	.77
PAY R = .58 F = 15.09 p = .01	WORK	.04	.51	.61
	PAY	.50	6.87	.00
	PROMOTION	.01	.15	.88
	SUPERVISION	.13	1.60	.11
	CO-WORKERS	.07	.96	.34
PROMOTION R = .61 F = 16.77 p = .01	WORK	-.01	.14	.89
	PAY	-.05	.74	.46
	PROMOTION	.60	7.78	.00
	SUPERVISION	.00	.06	.96
	CO-WORKERS	.11	1.44	.15

(Table continues)

Criteria (GI)	Predictors (JDI)	Beta	.t	.p
SUPERVISION R = .75 F = 36.22 p = .01	WORK	.04	.53	.60
	PAY	.08	1.39	.17
	PROMOTION	-.04	.63	.53
	SUPERVISION	.70	10.33	.00
	CO-WORKERS	.06	.93	.36
CO-WORKERS R = .56 F = 13.05 p = .01	WORK	.07	.82	.42
	PAY	.15	2.07	.04
	PROMOTION	-.12	1.55	.12
	SUPERVISION	.04	.43	.67
	CO-WORKERS	.49	6.30	.00
OVERALL R = .56 F = 13.49 p = .01	WORK	.22	2.71	.01
	PAY	.20	2.72	.01
	PROMOTION	.12	1.48	.14
	SUPERVISION	.17	2.05	.04
	CO-WORKERS	.12	1.51	.13

Discussion

When comparing the JDI scales to the GI scales, no significant relationships were obtained between the JDI scale of PAY and both the GI scales of WORK and PROMOTION. As well, no significant relationships occurred between the JDI scale of PROMOTION and both the GI scales of WORK and CO-WORKERS. The standardized canonical coefficients revealed that the GI scales were the highest weighted, and the JDI scales were the main contributors to the overall correlation between these two sets of measures. The results of the multiple regression ratings indicated that the JDI scales that positively predict the GI scales are (1) WORK to WORK and OVERALL job satisfaction; (2) PAY to PAY, CO-WORKERS and OVERALL job satisfaction; (3) PROMOTION to PROMOTION; (4) SUPERVISION to WORK, SUPERVISION, and OVERALL job satisfaction; and (5) CO-WORKERS to CO-WORKERS. Interestingly, there was a negative relationship between the WORK scale of the GI and the PROMOTION scale of the JDI. In conclusion, based on the analyses, it seems that the scales from the JDI can predict the scales from the GI.

Relationship between Manifest Needs Measured by the
MNQ and Job Satisfaction Measured by the GI

As Table 17 shows, no significant bivariate correlation was obtained between the scales of the MNQ and the items of the GI. As a consequence, there were no significant canonical correlations or multiple correlations linking the two sets of measures.

Table 17

Correlations between Manifest Needs Measured by
the MNQ and Job Satisfaction Measured by the GI
(N = 151)

	nAch	nAff	nAut	nDom
WORK	.13	.07	.03	.01
PAY	-.02	.05	-.08	-.07
PROMOTION	.14	.04	-.05	-.04
SUPERVISION	.04	-.00	-.04	-.07
CO-WORKERS	-.12	.17	.01	-.08
OVERALL	.07	-.07	.02	-.04

Summary of Results and Discussion

Based on the data, the MNQ responses show that the junior academic staff members at UT ranked nAch higher than nAff, nAut, and nDom. These are identical with the results in Dreher's (1980), Dreher and Mai-Dalton's (1982), and Chusmir and Koberg's (1986) studies which also ranked nAch higher than the other needs.

The mean responses on the JDI scale of SUPERVISION seemed higher than those of the scales of WORK, PAY, PROMOTION, and CO-WORKERS. Those of the PAY scale tended to be lower than the others. These results are different from the results in the studies of Smith et al. (1969) and Taber (1991) which ranked the scale of CO-WORKERS higher than the other scales, in contrast, they ranked that of PROMOTION lower than the others.

Furthermore, the mean responses on the GI scales SUPERVISION, CO-WORKERS, and WORK tended to be higher than those of PROMOTION, and PAY. The mean responses of PAY were the lowest ones. Based on the mean responses of OVERALL job satisfaction, it seemed that the respondents feel somewhat satisfied with their present job.

No significant sex differences were revealed in the expressions of nAch, nAff, and nAut. However, males expressed significantly higher nDom than did females. In other studies, Koberg and Chusmir (1988) found the similar result, however, the only evidence for sex differences for counsellors was in nAff (Harvey and France, 1982), while in another one, differences were found on nAch and nDom (Chusmir & Koberg, 1986). Both Chusmir and Koberg's work (1986, 1988) and the current study indicate males rated nDom higher than did the females.

There were no significant differences between male and female responses on the JDI scales of PAY, PROMOTION, SUPERVISION, and CO-WORKERS; however, on the JDI scale of WORK, males appear to be more satisfied with WORK than their female counterparts. These results are in agreement with those of Hulin and Smith (1964), who found that female workers tend to be somewhat less satisfied with their jobs than do males.

In contrast, the results indicated that there were significant differences between the sexes only for the GI scale of PROMOTION. The results suggested that the females were more satisfied than were the male counterparts. In this case, it seems that the sort and

number of questions or items of the JDI and the GI affect the results of individuals' responses based on sex.

There were significant correlations between the MNQ nAch and satisfaction for both the JDI scales of WORK and PROMOTION. As well, significant correlation obtained among the MNQ nAff and satisfaction in the JDI scales of PROMOTION and CO-WORKERS and between the MNQ nDom and satisfaction in the JDI scale of PAY. Based on multiple regression analyses, the results indicated that nAch has a relatively weak but significant relationship to the scale of PROMOTION. As well, similar evidence was found for relationships among nAff and job satisfaction in the scales of PROMOTION and CO-WORKERS. The results suggested that there is a relatively weak but significant relationship between the JDI and the MNQ. The need for ACHIEVEMENT might be a significant variable in career satisfaction, since it might stimulate individuals' efforts to attain their success in the organization (Dreher, 1980; Kuhlen, 1963; Steers and Braunstein, 1976). As suggested, the current study indicated that nAch is positively related to job satisfaction in the PROMOTION scale. Furthermore, as suggested by Wexley and Yukl (1984), nAff may be more related to the feelings of "getting

along" rather than those of "getting ahead". Individuals with a strong nAff are concerned about both being liked and accepted as a part of a team and working with other people who are friendly and cooperative. However, they might consider that the actions of "getting ahead" or having more career success might inhibit their relationship with their co-workers. Consequently, they might attempt to fulfill these needs, and their efforts might lead to fulfillment of job satisfaction in the area of CO-WORKERS. On the other hand, they might have less motivation to fulfill their job satisfaction in the area of PROMOTION.

Furthermore, significant correlations obtained between the JDI and the GI scales, except among the JDI scale of PAY and the GI scales of WORK and PROMOTION and among the JDI scale of PROMOTION and the GI scales of WORK and CO-WORKERS. The results of multiple regression analyses indicated that the JDI scales which positively predicted the GI scales were (1) WORK to WORK and OVERALL job satisfaction; (2) PAY to PAY, CO-WORKERS, and OVERALL job satisfaction; (3) PROMOTION to PROMOTION; (4) SUPERVISION to WORK, SUPERVISION, and OVERALL job satisfaction; and (5) CO-WORKERS to CO-WORKERS. Interestingly, the WORK scale of the GI

was negatively predicted from the PROMOTION scale of the JDI. Based on the analyses, it seems that the JDI scales can predict the same scales of the GI. The data results indicate a moderate significant relationship between the JDI and the GI.

Moreover, no significant correlation was obtained from the analysis of the MNQ and the GI. As a consequence, there is no relationship between the manifest needs measured by the MNQ and job satisfaction measured by the GI.

In summary, the junior academic staff members at UT rated nAch higher than that of the other needs. Theoretically, individuals' needs might lead over action, include all actions that are directed toward actual objects, in an effort to regain internal equilibrium (Murray, 1938; Steers and Porter, 1979). Furthermore, nAch might be a significant variable in job satisfaction, especially in the career (PROMOTION) satisfaction. The junior academic staff members' responses to the JDI and the GI indicated that they were most satisfied with the area of SUPERVISION and least satisfied with the area of PAY. The analyses indicated that there was a relatively weak but significant relationship between the MNQ and the JDI and a moderate significant one between the JDI and the

GI, there was, however, no significant relationship between the MNQ and the GI.

CHAPTER VI

Summary and Conclusions

Summary

The purposes of this study were to investigate the manifest needs for ACHIEVEMENT (nAch), AFFILIATION (nAff), AUTONOMY (nAut), and DOMINANCE (nDom) in the UT setting, to determine how satisfied the academic staff members are with regard to various aspects of their jobs, and to describe how the needs are related to levels of job satisfaction. The translated instruments of the Manifest Needs Questionnaire (MNQ), developed by Steers and Braunstein (1976), and the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), developed by Smith et al. (1969), as well, the General Index of Job Satisfaction (GI) were used.

The junior academic staff members of UT ranked nAch higher than nDom, nAff, and nAut. They tended to show the most positive responses in the JDI area of SUPERVISION, and the least positive ones with the JDI area of PAY. As well, they showed the most positive responses in the GI areas of SUPERVISION, CO-WORKERS, and WORK and the least positive ones in the GI area of PAY. In addition, based on the mean responses of OVERALL job satisfaction, they tended to feel somewhat satisfied with their present job.

No significant sex differences were revealed for the expressions of the needs, except for those of nDom. The results indicated that males expressed a higher nDom than did females. The results indicated that there were no significant sex differences in the responses on the JDI scales of PAY, PROMOTION, SUPERVISION, or CO-WORKERS. However, the males' responses proved to be more positive with WORK than those of their female counterparts, the males ratings for the WORK scale being significantly higher than those of the females. No sex differences were revealed on the GI scales of WORK, PAY, SUPERVISION, CO-WORKERS, or OVERALL job satisfaction, but a significant difference was found on the scale of PROMOTION. This difference indicated that females were more positive with PROMOTION than were males.

Significant correlations were revealed between the MNQ nAch and both the JDI scales of WORK and PROMOTION. As well, the MNQ nAff was correlated with satisfaction on both the JDI scales of PROMOTION and CO-WORKERS. Multiple regression analyses indicated that nAch was a significant predictor of job satisfaction on PROMOTION, while nAff contributed significantly to job

satisfaction for PROMOTION and CO-WORKERS. The results showed that there is a relatively weak but significant relationship between the JDI and the MNQ.

Further, significant correlations were found between the JDI scales and the GI scales, except between the JDI scale of PAY and the GI scales of WORK and PROMOTION and between the JDI scale of PROMOTION and the GI scales of WORK and CO-WORKERS. The regression analysis indicated that the JDI and GI were significantly related in the scales of (1) WORK to WORK and OVERALL job satisfaction; (2) PAY to PAY, CO-WORKERS, and OVERALL job satisfaction; (3) PROMOTION to PROMOTION; (4) SUPERVISION to WORK, SUPERVISION, and OVERALL job satisfaction; (5) CO-WORKERS to CO-WORKERS. Interestingly, the GI WORK scale was negatively predicted from the JDI PROMOTION scale. Accordingly, the JDI scales may predict the same scales from the GI, such as the JDI scale of WORK predicting the GI scale of WORK. A moderate significant relationship exists between the JDI and the GI.

Furthermore, the study did not find evidence for correlations between the MNQ and the GI scales. In conclusion, there is no relationship between the manifest needs measured by the MNQ and job satisfaction measured by the GI.

In summary, the junior academic staff members tended to exhibit nAch higher nDom, nAff, and nAut. They seemed to feel most satisfied with the area of SUPERVISION and least satisfied with the area of PAY. A weak but significant correlation between the manifest needs measured by the MNQ and job satisfaction measured by the JDI was supported. Evidence was found for a moderate but significant correlation between the JDI and the GI. Interestingly, there was no evidence for a significant correlation between the MNQ and the GI.

Conclusions

In this study, the junior academic staff members of UT ranked nAch higher than three other needs. These results might be useful for the organization. Theoretically, the concept of human needs in the work setting may be very meaningful and useful in helping to understand human motivation in the work organization (Osipow, 1968). Furthermore, identifying employee needs in work settings is necessary in order both to gain an understanding of employees' characteristics and to provide the types of tasks in their jobs (which could match with their needs for enhancing the motivation towards their work). As well, it may provide insight into career development, psychological

health, and job satisfaction. Thus, it is important to assess the employees' work-relevant needs in relation to the varying potentials of alternative jobs for the employee job satisfaction (Holland, 1976).

In this study, both the JDI and GI analyses revealed that the junior academic staff members of UT expressed the most satisfaction with the area of SUPERVISION and the least satisfaction with PAY. These results were different from the studies of Smith et al. (1969) and Taber (1991) which indicated that the respondents tended to feel most satisfied with the area of CO-WORKERS and least satisfied with the area of SUPERVISION. As suggested by Gruneberg (1979), employees differ in the aspects of a job they value, and this is likely to affect the degree to which they are satisfied with a job. It could be that situational factors, such as job levels, opportunities of promotion, and societal norms, influence the level of satisfaction of the employees (Smith et al., 1964).

Multiple regression analyses indicated that the MNQ nAch was a significant predictor of job satisfaction in the JDI area of PROMOTION. The need for ACHIEVEMENT (nAch) might influence individuals' reactions to characteristics of their jobs and be related to career satisfaction and job satisfaction

(Dreher, 1980; Kuhlen, 1963; Lawler, 1973; Steers & Braunstein, 1976). The MNQ nAff contributed significantly to job satisfaction for the JDI areas of PROMOTION and CO-WORKERS. As suggested earlier, employees with a strong nAff are more concerned about the feelings of "getting along" rather than those of "getting ahead". They might consider that the actions of "getting ahead" or having more career success might inhibit the relationship with the others (Wexley and Yukl, 1984). Consequently, the efforts of fulfilling this need might lead to the fulfillment of job satisfaction in the area of CO-WORKERS. On the other hand, they might have less motivation to fulfill their job satisfaction on the area of PROMOTION. In this case, it seems that being able to express nAch leads to satisfaction in the area of PROMOTION as measured by the JDI. In addition, nAff leads to satisfaction in the areas of PROMOTION and CO-WORKERS.

In conclusion, the results suggested a weak but significant relationship between the JDI and the MNQ. Furthermore, the data indicated a moderate but significant relationship between the JDI and the GI. Based on the analyses, it seems that the JDI scales may positively predict the same scales from the GI, such as the JDI scale of WORK predicting the GI scale of WORK,

the JDI scale of PAY predicting the GI scales of PAY, the JDI scale of PROMOTION predicting the GI scales of PROMOTION, the JDI scale of SUPERVISION predicting the GI scales of SUPERVISION, and the JDI scale of CO-WORKERS predicting the GI scale of CO-WORKERS. Interestingly, although there were significant relationships between the MNQ and the JDI and between the JDI and the GI, no significant relationship was found between the MNQ and the GI job satisfaction scales. The JDI is a measurement that does not ask the respondents directly how satisfied they are with their work. Rather, it asks them to describe their work (Smith et al., 1969). In contrast, the GI is a set of items directed toward specific areas of job satisfaction (one item for each area of job satisfaction) in the general sense; it asks the respondents directly whether or not they feel satisfaction with their work.

Both males and females provide similar rankings for nAch, nAff, nAut. However, males expressed higher nDom than did females. In other studies, for example, the only evidence for sex differences for counsellors was in nAff (Harvey & France, 1982). In another study, differences were found on nAch and nDom (Chusmir & Koberg, 1986), the males rating them higher than did

the females. Many factors may influence whether or not males are more or less satisfied than are females. According to Hulin and Smith (1964), sex per se might not be a crucial factor which leads to either high or low satisfaction, since situational factors, such as job levels, opportunities of promotion, and societal norms, play a very important role. Based on the JDI responses, males appeared to be more satisfied with WORK than were their female counterparts. On the other hand, an analysis of the GI indicated that females were more satisfied with PROMOTION than were the males. It may be that, when the junior academic staff members of UT were asked to describe their jobs based on the JDI scales, sex might affected the description of the WORK area. However, when the junior academic staff members at UT were asked to state the degree of job satisfaction based of a single item for each area of job satisfaction, the area of PROMOTION showed a sex difference.

Suggestions for Practice

In practice, it is essential to assess and identify employees' needs. This assumption is based on the idea that employees will desire more of any job factor that is instrumental in fulfilling their needs.

Identifying employee needs in work settings may be necessary in order both to gain an understanding of employees' characteristics and to provide the types of tasks in their jobs which could match with their needs and thus enhance the motivation towards their work. Assessing employee's work-relevant needs in relation to the varying potentials of alternative jobs may be essential for providing environments which may lead to employee job satisfaction.

There are specific suggestions which could be proposed for Universitas Terbuka (UT) itself. It appears that it would be useful to search for and to use information about staff's needs, especially the need for achievement, both to place the staff in appropriate units and match employees' needs with tasks. In addition, based on information about job satisfaction, it seems to be necessary to maintain job satisfaction in the areas of SUPERVISION, WORK, and CO-WORKERS. For job satisfaction on PROMOTION, although the junior academic staff tended to rate the item PROMOTION between neutral and satisfied, it seems necessary either to create or to provide situations and conditions which can promote satisfaction in this area.

Implication for Future Research

For future research, it might be necessary :

- (1) that translated standardized-instruments should be examined for validity and reliability in a new culture before they are used in that culture;
- (2) that the ecological validity of the specific items be examined;
- (3) to consider another instrument that can measure six kinds of needs (those for ACHIEVEMENT, AFFILIATION, ESTEEM, INDEPENDENCE, POWER, and SECURITY) that are potentially relevant influences on behavior in an organizational setting;
- (4) to measure the need satisfaction for these needs, as well measuring job satisfaction in various areas, might be considered (thus, we may obtain information about both job and need satisfaction);
- (5) to consider further research for examining the relationship between needs and job satisfaction in various type settings and cultures;
- (6) to construct the general index of job satisfaction. that is both reliable and valid.

Limitations of the Study

There is a psychological constraint in rating both manifest needs and job satisfaction, because, when people are asked, first, to rate how much of a desirable characteristic is associated with their jobs, and, second, to rate what their feelings or affective responses are about their jobs, they find it somewhat hard to formulate what their real desires or feelings are.

Another study limitation relates to the sample. The subjects may be representative for the junior academic staff members placed in the central office of UT in Jakarta, but, the subjects may be less representative of junior academic staff members placed throughout Indonesia. For example, in addition to the academic staff placed in Jakarta, there are also academic staff placed at Regional Centers throughout Indonesia (44 in regional centers versus 252 in Jakarta).

Finally, the questionnaires are translated into the language of Bahasa Indonesia. Maintaining reliability and validity may be problematic in that certain factors may be compromised by the translation process, and, some of the Western ideas in needs and

satisfaction may not transfer to the culture of
Indonesia.

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APPENDIX A

FIGURE 1. THE ORGANIZATION CHART OF THE INDONESIAN OPEN UNIVERSITY

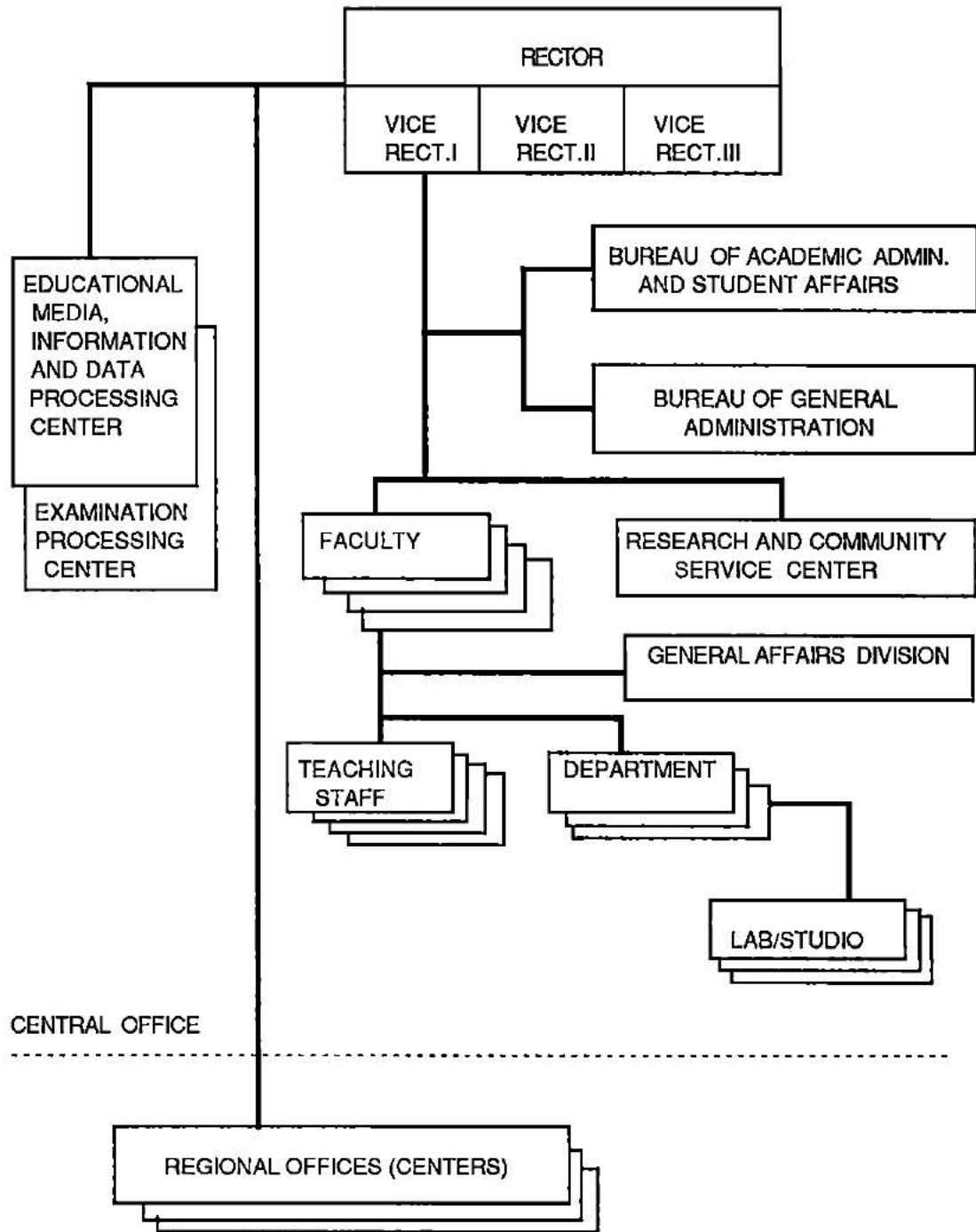
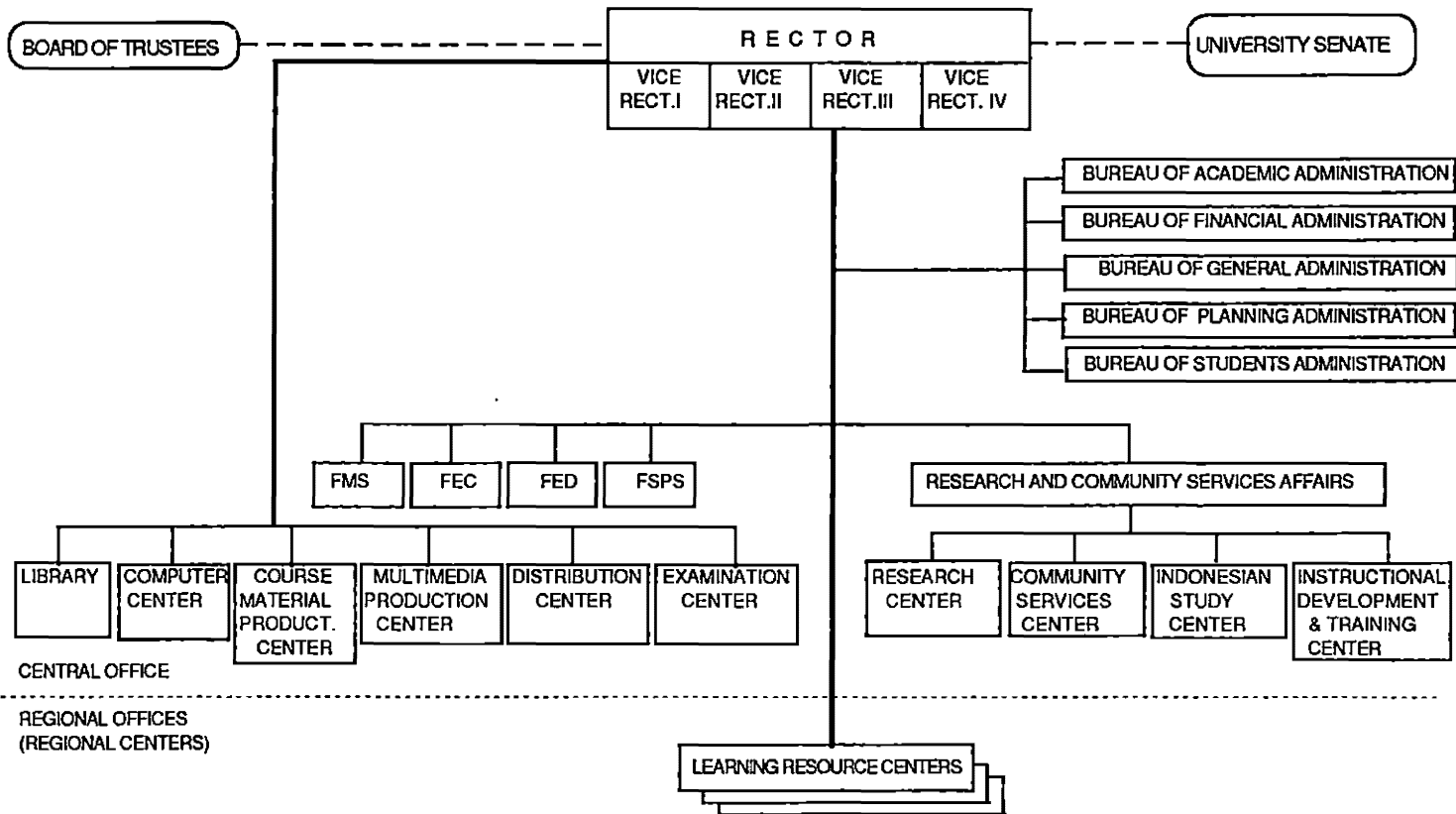


FIGURE 2: THE NEW ORGANIZATION CHART OF THE INDONESIAN OPEN UNIVERSITY



NOTES:

FMS : FACULTY OF MATHEMATICS & SCIENCE

FEC : FACULTY OF ECONOMICS

FED : FACULTY OF EDUCATION

FSPS : FACULTY OF SOCIAL & POLITICAL SCIENCES

When this study was conducted, this new organizational structure has not been implemented yet.

APPENDIX BMANIFEST NEEDS QUESTIONNAIRE (MNO)

INSTRUCTION:

Below are listed 20 statements that describe various things you do or try to do on your present job. Please respond by placing a number on the prepared space. Following numbers explain how these various things happen:

- (1) = never
- (2) = almost never
- (3) = seldom
- (4) = sometimes
- (5) = usually
- (6) = almost always
- (7) = always

Please respond to all statements frankly. Your responses will be held in strict confidence.

- ___ 1. I do my best work when my job assignments are fairly difficult
- ___ 2. When I have a choice, I try to work in a group instead of by myself.
- ___ 3. In my work assignment, I try to be my own boss.
- ___ 4. I seek an active role in the leadership of a group.
- ___ 5. I try very hard to improve on my past performance at

work.

- 6. I pay a good deal of attention to the feelings of others at work.
- ___ 7. I go my own way at work, regardless of the opinions of others.
- ___ 8. I avoid trying to influence those around me to see things my way.
- 9. I take moderate risks and stick my neck out to get ahead at work.
- ___ 10. I prefer to do my own work and let others do theirs.
- ___ 11. I disregard rules and regulations that hamper my own personal freedom.
- ___ 12. I find myself organizing and directing the activities of others.
- ___ 13. I try to avoid any added responsibilities on my job.
- ___ 14. I express my disagreements with others openly.
- ___ 15. I consider myself a "team player" at work.
- ___ 16. I strive to gain more control over the events around me at work.
- ___ 17. I try to perform better than my co-workers.
- ___ 18. I find myself talking to those around me about non-business related things.
- ___ 19. I try my best to work alone on a job.
- ___ 20. I strive to be "in command" when I am working in a group.

For this questionnaire, items were scored on scale from 7 (Always) to 1 (Never), except items numbered 8, 10, 13, 14, and 15 were scored in reverse. The items were categorized into nAch (items numbered 1, 5, 9, 13, and 17), nAff (items numbered 2, 6, 10, 14, and 18), nAut (items numbered 3, 7, 11, 15, and 19), and nDom (items numbered 4, 8, 12, 16, and 20).

JOB DESCRIPTION INDEX (JDI) AND THE SATISFIED DIRECTION FOR
EACH SCALE

INSTRUCTION:

Below are presented 5 particular aspects of your job. There are several items which describe how these aspects are. Please put following marks beside each item:

Y if the item describes that aspect.

N if the item does not describe that aspect.

? if you can not decide whether or not that item describes that aspect.

Please respond all items frankly.

1. Work :

Fascinating

Routine

Satisfying

Boring

Good

Creative

Respected

Hot

Pleasant

Useful

Tiresome

Healthful

- _Y_ Challenging
- _N_ On your feet
- _N_ Frustrating
- _N_ Simple
- _N_ Endless
- _Y_ Gives sense of accomplishment

2. Pay :

- Y- Adequate for normal expenses
- _Y_ Satisfactory profit sharing
- _N_ Barely live on income
- _N_ Bad
- _Y_ Income provides luxuries
- _N_ Insecure
- _N_ Less than I deserve
- _Y_ Highly paid
- _N_ Underpaid

3. Promotions :

- _Y_ Good opportunity for advancement
- _N_ Opportunity somewhat limited
- _Y_ Promotion on ability
- _N_ Dead-end job
- _Y_ Good chance for promotion
- _N_ Unfair promotion policy
- _N_ Infrequent promotions
- _Y_ Regular promotions

Fairly good chance for promotion

4. Supervision :

Asks my advice

Hard to please

Impolite

Praises good work

Tactful

Influential

Up-to-date

Does not supervise enough

Quick tempered

Tells me where I stand

Annoying

Stubborn

Knows job well

Bad

Intelligent

Leaves me on my own

Lazy

Around when needed

5. Co-workers :

Stimulating

Boring

Slow

Ambitious

N Stupid
Y Responsible
Y Fast
Y Intelligent
N Easy to make enemies
N Talk too much
Y Smart
N Lazy
N Unpleasant
N No privacy
Y Active
N Narrow interests
Y Loyal
N Hard to meet

For this questionnaire, items were scored using the system of weights (Smith et al., 1969): response Yes to positive items = 3, response No to negative items = 3, response ? to any items = 1, response Yes to negative items = 0, response No to positive items = 0. Furthermore, the scores of PAY and PROMOTION were doubled, thus the maximum scores of this scales were same as the others (54).

GENERAL INDEX OF JOB SATISFACTION (GI)

Please respond these six items by placing a number on the prepared space. Following numbers explain how do you feel toward the five aspects of your job and overall of job satisfaction ::

- (1) = IF YOU FEEL VERY DISSATISFIED WITH AN AREA OF JOB
 (2) = IF YOU FEEL RATHER DISSATISFIED WITH AN AREA OF JOB
 (3) = IF YOU FEEL NEUTRAL WITH AN AREA OF JOB
 (4) = IF YOU FEEL RATHER SATISFIED WITH AN AREA OF JOB
 (5) = IF YOU FEEL VERY SATISFIED WITH AN AREA OF JOB

What degree of satisfaction do you feel toward:

- | | |
|------------------------------------|-----|
| 1. Characteristics of your WORK | () |
| 2. Your PAY | () |
| 3. Opportunities of your PROMOTION | () |
| 4. Your SUPERVISORS | () |
| 5. Your CO-WORKERS | () |
| 6. OVERALL job satisfaction | () |

APPENDIX C

KUESIONER TINGKAT KEPUASAN KERJA

Berikut ini adalah subbagian-subbagian yang termasuk ke dalam Kuesioner Tingkat Kepuasan Kerja. Mohon kesediaan Anda untuk mengisi semua data dan pernyataan yang ada. Data dan tanggapan Anda akan dirahasiakan dan hanya akan dipakai untuk keperluan penelitian. Atas bantuan dan kerjasama Anda, peneliti mengucapkan banyak terima kasih.

I. DATA RESPONDEN

Untuk bagian ini Anda dimohon untuk melingkari keterangan mana yang dapat menjelaskan latar belakang Anda:

A. Unit kerja :

1. Fakultas
2. Pengujian
3. Penelitian
4. Komputer
5. Perpustakaan
6. Audio-Video
7. BAAK
8. IUC
9. BAU
10. PSI
11. KBM
12. Rektorat

13. UPBJJ
14. BINMAWA
15. Bangstaf
16. Purek I
17. Suara Terbuka
18. Purek III
19. Bangpus

B. Terdaftar sebagai staf akademik pada :

1. FKIP
2. FMIPA
3. FISIP
4. FEKON

C. Masa kerja di UT :

1. Kurang dari 1 tahun
2. 1- kurang dari 2 tahun
3. 2- kurang dari 4 tahun
4. 4- kurang dari 6 tahun
5. Lebih dari 6 tahun

D. Jenis kelamin :

1. Pria
2. Wanita

E. Pangkat/golongan :

1. Capeg

2. Penata Muda, III/a
3. Penata Muda Tk. I, III/b
4. Penata, III/c
5. Penata Tk. I, III/d
6.

F. Jabatan :

1. Tenaga Pengajar
2. Assisten Ahli Madya
3. Assisten Ahli
4. Lektor Muda
5. Lektor Madya
6.

G. Umur :

1. Sampai dengan umur 25 tahun
2. 26 - 30 tahun
3. 31 - 35 tahun
4. 36 - 40 tahun
5. Lebih dari 40 tahun

II. CARA ANDA BEKERJA

Di bawah ini terdapat 20 pernyataan yang menjelaskan cara Anda bekerja. Anda dimohon untuk mengisi kolom di depan setiap pernyataan dengan angka yang menjelaskan frekuensi dalam melakukan cara Anda tersebut :

- 1. = **Selalu**
- 2. = **Hampir Selalu**
- 3. = **Biasanya**
- 4. = **Kadang-kadang**
- 5. = **Jarang**
- 6. = **Hampir Tidak Pernah**
- 7. = **Tidak Pernah**

Contoh:

Anda akan bekerja sebaik-baiknya apabila pekerjaan tersebut sesuai dengan ide Anda, akan tetapi Anda akan bekerja kurang baik apabila pekerjaan tersebut bertentangan dengan ide Anda. Frekuensi kebiasaan Anda ini Anda rasakan **selalu** Anda lakukan, artinya usaha maksimal Anda akan tergantung pada sesuai tidaknya pekerjaan tersebut dengan ide Anda. Maka Anda mengisi pernyataan di bawah ini sebagai berikut:

- 1 1. Saya hanya bekerja sebaik-baiknya jika ide saya dipakai sebagai dasar dari pekerjaan saya.

- ___ 1. Saya senang pekerjaan yang penuh tantangan, dan saya tidak bekerja dengan baik apabila pekerjaan yang saya hadapi membosankan.
- ___ 2. Apabila dapat memilih, saya lebih senang bekerja dalam kelompok daripada bekerja sendiri.
- ___ 3. Dalam melakukan tugas, saya berusaha untuk menjadi atasan bagi diri saya sendiri.
- ___ 4. Saya mencari peran aktif kepemimpinan dari suatu kelompok.
- ___ 5. Saya berusaha keras untuk selalu memperbaiki prestasi kerja.
- ___ 6. Saya bertenggang rasa terhadap perasaan orang lain.
- ___ 7. Saya bekerja berdasarkan cara saya sendiri tanpa memperhatikan pendapat orang lain.
- ___ 8. Saya berusaha tidak mempengaruhi orang lain untuk melihat atau meniru cara pandang saya dalam menghadapi suatu hal.
- ___ 9. Saya mengambil resiko dan mempertaruhkan diri untuk terus bergerak maju dalam melakukan pekerjaan saya.
- ___ 10. Saya lebih suka untuk tidak mencampuri pekerjaan orang lain.
- ___ 11. Saya mengabaikan semua aturan yang menghambat kebebasan pribadi saya.
- ___ 12. Tanpa ada instruksi atasan, ternyata saya mengatur dan mengarahkan kegiatan orang lain.
- ___ 13. Saya berusaha untuk menghindari segala beban tambahan tanggungjawab.
- ___ 14. Saya mengungkapkan ketidaksetujuan saya terhadap orang

lain secara terbuka.

- ___15. Saya menganggap pentingnya diri saya sebagai bagian dari suatu tim kerja.
- ___16. Saya berusaha meningkatkan pengendalian terhadap kejadian-kejadian yang timbul di tempat kerja saya.
- ___17. Saya berusaha bekerja lebih baik dari teman-teman saya.
- ___18. Tanpa saya sadari ternyata saya senang membicarakan hal-hal yang tidak berhubungan dengan pekerjaan.
- ___19. Saya berusaha keras untuk bekerja sendiri.
- ___20. Saya berusaha untuk menjadi "orang yang memimpin" ketika saya bekerja dalam suatu kelompok.

III. INDEKS JOB DESKRIPSI

Berikut ini terdapat 5 macam hal yang berhubungan dengan pekerjaan Anda. Setiap hal diikuti oleh beberapa butir keterangan yang menjelaskan keadaan hal tersebut. Anda dimohon untuk mengisi setiap kolom yang telah disediakan di depan kata-kata keterangan yang mengikuti kelima macam hal tersebut dengan cara:

Y = Ya, jika keterangan tersebut sesuai dengan keadaan hal yang dijelasnya.

T = Tidak, jika keterangan tersebut tidak sesuai dengan keadaan hal yang dijelaskannya.

? = Jika Anda tidak dapat menentukan apakah keterangan tersebut dapat menjelaskan hal tersebut atau tidak.

Contoh:

Apabila Anda dihadapkan dengan sejumlah penjelasan tentang keadaan ruangan tempat Anda bekerja. Anda tahu bahwa ruangan Anda mempunyai sirkulasi udara yang baik dan cukup terang. Meskipun Anda merasakan bahwa jumlah orang yang bekerja di dalam ruangan itu terlalu banyak. Akan tetapi Anda tidak tahu apakah tata ruangnya cocok untuk bekerja yang efektif atau tidak. Untuk itu maka Anda akan mengisi pernyataan di bawah ini seperti berikut:

1. Ruang tempat kerja saya :

 Y Sirkulasi udaranya baik

 Y Cukup terang

- _T_ Jumlah orang dalam ruangan tidak terlalu banyak
? Tata ruang cocok untuk efektivitas kerja

1. Pekerjaan saya :

- Menarik
- Rutin
- Memuaskan
- Membosankan
- Baik
- Merangsang kreativitas
- Terhormat
- Panas
- Menyenangkan
- Berguna
- Meletihkan
- Sehat
- Menantang
- Menuntut saya untuk terus berdiri
- Membuat saya kecewa
- Mudah
- Tidak berujung
- Memberikan rasa puas dengan adanya keberhasilan pencapaian target

2. Penghasilan yang saya terima :

- Cukup untuk biaya hidup biasa
- Merupakan pembagian keuntungan yang memuaskan

- Hampir tidak cukup untuk hidup
- Buruk
- Memenuhi kebutuhan mewah
- Tidak tetap
- Apabila dibandingkan dengan usaha dan kerja saya,
kurang daripada yang seharusnya saya terima
- Jumlahnya tinggi
- Jumlahnya terlalu rendah

3. Kenaikan pangkat/golongan di tempat saya bekerja:

- Memberi kesempatan baik untuk kemajuan karir
- Kesempatan kenaikan pangkat/golongan agak terbatas
- Kenaikan pangkat/golongan berdasarkan kemampuan
- Sama sekali tidak ada kesempatan maju dan naik pangkat/
golongan
- Ada kesempatan baik untuk naik pangkat/golongan
- Kebijakan kenaikan pangkat/golongan tidak adil
- Kenaikan pangkat/golongan jarang
- Kenaikan pangkat/golongan teratur
- Cukup peluang untuk naik pangkat/golongan

4. Atasan di tempat saya bekerja :

- Meminta pendapat saya
- Sukar untuk disenangkan hatinya
- Tidak sopan
- Memuji pekerjaan yang baik
- Mempunyai keahlian dalam bertindak dan berbicara
sehingga tidak menyinggung perasaan orang lain
- Berpengaruh

- Mengikuti hal-hal yang mutakhir
- Tidak memberikan bimbingan dan pengawasan yang cukup
- Cepat marah
- Memberitahu sejauh mana keberhasilan dan kegagalan saya dalam melaksanakan tugas
- Menjengkelkan
- Keras kepala
- Betul-betul menguasai pekerjaan
- Buruk
- Cerdas
- Membiarkan saya bekerja sesuai dengan cara saya sendiri
- Pemalas
- Ada pada saat yang dibutuhkan

5. Keadaan teman-teman sekerja:

- Memberi semangat kerja
- Membosankan
- Lamban
- Berambisi
- Bodoh
- Bertanggungjawab
- Cepat
- Cerdas
- Mudah menimbulkan permusuhan
- Banyak bicara
- Cerdik
- Pemalas
- Tidak menyenangkan

- ___ Mencampuri urusan orang lain
- ___ Giat
- ___ Mempunyai minat atau interes yang sempit
- ___ Setia
- ___ Sukar ditemui

IV. KEPUASAN TERHADAP ASPEK-ASPEK PEKERJAAN

Untuk bagian ini Anda dimohon untuk menjawab setiap pertanyaan di bawah ini dengan cara membubuhkan angka- pada kolom yang telah disediakan, dimana angka tersebut dapat menjelaskan tingkat kualitas kepuasan Anda.

Angka 1 untuk keterangan bahwa Anda sangat tidak puas

Angka 2 untuk keterangan bahwa Anda agak tidak puas

Angka 3 untuk keterangan bahwa Anda tidak merasa puas dan juga tidak merasa tidak puas

Angka 4 untuk keterangan bahwa Anda agak puas

Angka 5 untuk keterangan bahwa Anda sangat puas

1. Bagaimana tingkat kepuasan Anda terhadap keadaan atau sifat-sifat pekerjaan Anda? _____
2. Bagaimana tingkat kepuasan Anda terhadap penghasilan yang Anda terima? _____
3. Bagaimana tingkat kepuasan Anda terhadap kenaikan pangkat atau golongan di tempat Anda bekerja? _____
4. Bagaimana tingkat kepuasan Anda terhadap atasan Anda? _____
5. Bagaimana tingkat kepuasan Anda terhadap keadaan teman sekerja Anda? _____
6. Secara umum, bagaimana tingkat kepuasan Anda terhadap pekerjaan Anda sekarang ini? _____

VITA

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Date of Birth: August 21, 1960

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Author:



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Date : November 9, 1992.