

Impact of Demographic Diversities on the Job Satisfaction and Its Consequences: Case of Academicians in Higher Learning Institutions of Pakistan (Application of Stepwise Multiple Regression)

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Abstract

Research on job satisfaction is replete with the studies exploring the impacts of personal and demographic attributes of the employees on their organizational attitudes. Demographics are tested as the predictor of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction and its consequences like involvement, commitment, absenteeism and turnover. Mixed results have been reported by the researchers showing that different demographic factors play different roles in diverse settings, for example, in advanced and developing countries. Thus, researchers have proved that demographic analysis is indispensable to understand the employee attitudes. This paper is a part of PhD research project on ?job satisfaction of academicians in the HEIs of KPK, Pakistan.?

Index terms— Job Satisfaction, , , Demographics, Best Fit Models

satisfaction of their workforce (Lise and Judge, 2004). Organizations want their employees to be satisfied to become productive, efficient committed (Shamil and Jalees, 2004). Job satisfaction is the degree of an employee's affective orientation towards their job (Tsigilis, Zachopoulou, and Grammatikopoulos, 2006). Thus, job satisfaction is a very important attribute that is frequently measured by all types of organizations (Beyth-Marom, Harpaz-Gorodeisky, Bar-Haim, and Godder 2006; Wikipedia, 2009; Sattar, Khan, and Nawaz, 2010).

Job satisfaction is mostly predicted either with the factors of job satisfaction or demographic and personal attributes of the employees. The factors include pay, work, supervision, promotion, work environment, and coworkers (Williams and Sandler 1995; Stacey, 1998; Ellickson and Logsdon, 2001; DeVane and Sandy, 2003; Lise and Judge, 2004). Other investigators have used the concepts like personal and organizational factors (Saiyadain, 1998), personal & job characteristics (Sokoya, 2000), challenging work, equitable rewards, encouraging working conditions, supportive co-workers, personality (Naval and Srivastava, 2004), and the "demographic relationships" between satisfaction and the faculty (Shamil and Jalees, 2004; Tsigilis et al., 2006; Saifuddin, Khair-uz-Zaman, and Nawaz, 2010).

Employees are diverse in their demographic attributes, which have implications for the degrees of satisfaction from job dimensions like pay, work, promotion etc (Sokoya, 2000). For example, gender, age, education, designation, numbers of years in organization and marital status of the employees have widely been found critical in determining job satisfaction (Stacey, 1998; Marion, 2001; Bas and Ardic, 2002; Shah and Jalees, 2004; Chughtai and Zafar, 2006; Eker, Anbar, and Dirbiyik, 2007; Asadi, Fadak, Khoshnodifar, Hashemi, and Hosseininia, 2008; Malik et al., 2010; Sattar, et. al., 2010). This study explores the issue of job satisfaction among the academicians in public and private sector universities of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan by empirically recording their attitudes and demographic attributes. Stepwise regression has been used to compute the significance of employee demographics on their attitudes.

1 II.

2 Literature Review

Experience tells that satisfied worker is involved and committed to his/her duties while dissatisfied workers practice negative attitudes of absenteeism and turnover ??Locke and Latham, 2000:249-250;Bas and Ardic, 2002). Job satisfaction relates to an individual's perceptions and evaluations of the job, which are affected by the needs, circumstances, and expectations (DeVane and Sandy, 2003). It is an emotional response to a job situation that is determined by how well outcomes meet or exceed expectations, for example, if employees are treated unfairly, work hard but rewarded less, they are likely to develop negative attitudes toward their job, officers and colleagues. However, if they are treated fairly and paid well, they are expected to have positive attitudes for the organization ??Luthans, 2005:212). Thus, job satisfaction is the expression of contentment by an employee with regard to different dimensions of job (Wikipedia, 2009;Malik et al., 2010;Sattar et al., 2010).

Job satisfaction of academicians is well reported and certain factors of job satisfaction have been researched over and over showing that work, pay, promotion, supervision, co-workers and environment collectively defines the job satisfaction of the employees (Bas and Ardic, 2002;Santhapparaj and Alam, 2005;Beyth-Marom, et. al., 2006;Eker, et. al., 2007;Malik et al., 2010). Literature also provides evidence that employees express diverse attitudes about these factors of satisfaction due to their demographic diversities (Sattar et al., 2010). Different surveys are coming up with a variety of results where some demographics are emerging as having significant implications while other attributes have no or little impacts on the responses.

3 a) Job Satisfaction (js)

Job satisfaction is a general attitude which is determined by the factors of job satisfaction (such as, pay, work, superior's attitude, environment etc.); personal characteristics of the worker (demographics); and social or group factors ??Shajahan and Shajahan, 2004:116). People working in the private or government organization have certain needs to satisfy, which must be understood by the human resource management of the respective organization like university (Malik, Nawab, Naeem, and Danish, 2010).

Job satisfaction is defined as the contentment felt of the workers after a need is fulfilled (Williams and Sandler 1995; ??obins, 1998: 170). It is a general attitude which is determined by the job predictors (i.e. pay, job, superior behavior and environment etc.) and the personal attitude (demographics) and other social and group factors ??Shajahan and Shajahan, 2004:116). People working in the private or government organization bring with them certain needs that affect their performance therefore, understanding how these needs are related with performance and how rewards can lead to job-satisfaction are the urgent issues for every organization working at any level (Sattar et al., 2010;Malik et al., 2010).

Research on the role of demographic factors in determining organizational attitudes is going on across the world by using a variety of statistical tools (Bas & Ardic, 2002;Shah and Jalees, 2004; ??mith, Candall, and Hulin, 1969;Oshagbemi, 1999). Similarly, 'regression tools' have been used to predict worker behavior wherein both demographics and factors of job satisfaction has been used as predictors (Santhapparaj and Alam, 2005;Chughtai and Zafar, 2006;Beyth-Marom et al., 2006; ??arimi, 2007;Eker et al., 2007). It is therefore critical for every HEI to perform demographic analysis and then use the findings in decision making thereby increasing the chances of job satisfaction (Saifuddin et al., 2010).

4 b) Demographic Impacts on Job Satisfaction

Several studies have explored the demographic attributes by using them as predictors of organizational attitudes, for example, gender, sector, designation, marital status, age, qualification, and experience (Saiyadain, 1998;Naval and Srivastava, 2004). The catalyst role of employee's personal attributes and demographic characteristics is recorded by almost every researcher on job satisfaction. Almost all the researchers have identified 'demographics' as the change agents, which modify employee's attitude towards different aspects of his/her job (Bas and Ardic, 2002;DeVane and Sandy, 2003).

Demographics also affect workers attitudes in terms of productivity, involvement and commitment on one hand and on the other hand the degrees of absenteeism and turnover or intention to leave (Shamil and Jalees, 2004). Another group of researchers have recorded that age, gender, experience, department, foreign qualification or exposure to different culture, and technological challenges always influence the overall satisfaction of the employees (Tella, Ayeni, and Popoola, 2007;Asadi, et al., 2008;Sattar et al., 2010;Malik et al., 2010).

So there are several demographic variations among the workforce which influence the degrees of satisfaction from pay, supervision, work, and environment etc. for example sector (public and private), age, gender, education, qualifications, length of service and marital status etc. of the workers have widely been found critical in determining the satisfaction level (Rocca, and Kostanski, 2001 Given that, researchers have also identified the impact of demographic variables on overall job satisfaction and its different elements and workers related attitude such as, pay, coworkers, supervision, promotions, physical conditions, teaching and research, governance, productivity, involvement, and commitment in different work settings including academic environments (Oshagbemi, and Hickson, 2003;Oshagbemi, 2003 ii.

5 Analysis III

The third variable tested for demographic implications was absenteeism and turnover. Again gender is most important rather only factor, which divides the respondents ($r=.325$, $p<0.05$). There is difference of opinion between the males and females about the nature and process of absenteeism and turnover. They have different experiences about this variable therefore hold diverse attitudes. The best fit therefore is: $A\&T = a + ?1GDR + e$
 $A\&T = 4.369 + .325 + 1.13397 V. VI.$

6 Summary of Analysis

7 Discussion

Table 12 gives interesting findings with regard to the roles played by the demographic attributes of the academicians in HEIs of KPK. The leading points to revisit gender the single most important predictor of all the research variables having significant influence on overall job satisfaction and its outcomes. Male and females are significantly different in their opinion with respect to overall job satisfaction, involvement and commitment as well absenteeism and turnover. These findings are also in the line of Okpara, Squillace, and Erundu, (2005), in United States where they have identified gender discrimination in higher education and provide evidence that male teachers were more satisfied than their female counter parts. Gender differences are also found by previous researchers in their different cultural perspective like Base and Ardic (2002), in Turkey and Shah, and Jalees, (2004) in Pakistan.

Therefore, the issue should be carefully managed and review the policy of the carefully because 'women in higher education have contributed significant progress' (Okpara, Squillace, and Erundu, 2005). Writers have not only sought to describe where women are within the academic but also to put forward explanations for that position and the differing perspectives offered by economists, sociologists, feminists, and management theorists- provide numerous and potentially conflicting explanations of the gender differences in academia (Shaw and Cassell, 2007).

Second critical factor is the classification of public and private institutions. The respondents have difference of opinion about both job satisfaction and involvement and commitment. This also supports previous studies like public sector Greek educators were found more satisfied from their compensation and supervisor in comparison to their colleagues from the private sector (Tsigilis, et.al. 2006). In Turkey public and private university teachers have also reported significant differences about their satisfaction and suggested to review the personnel policies of the public universities because private universities academicians appear to be significantly different from the public university teachers (Bas, and Ardic. 2002). Since the conditions of private and state owned universities are different in so many aspects, it is meaningful to conduct the research with respect to the satisfaction of their employees separately (Kusku, 2003).

Marital status of the respondents is significant in determining the job satisfaction and has no role in other hypothesized regression models. It has been found in a previous literature that marital status significantly affect job satisfaction and explore that, when marriage time increases, the job and life satisfaction also increased (Dikmen, 1995;Azalea, Omar, and Mastor, 2009). Their results show that "married employees are less satisfied as compare to unmarried". However, the results of Greek academics were found no statistical significant influence of marital status on the job satisfaction (Platsidou, and Diamantopoulou, 2009).

In addition, it was identify by Altınok, (2011), in the public universities in "Ankara province" that marital status significantly affect the life and job satisfaction. Their result reveals that academicians concerning job and life satisfaction feel negativity of being married and the unmarried academic personnel have a higher life and job satisfaction than the married ones. Nevertheless, the results are contradictory in Pakistan where researchers found that marital status has emerged as a consistent predictor of organizational commitment. They reports that married people have more family responsibilities and need more stability and security in their jobs. Therefore research shows in Pakistan that marital status would be positively related to university teachers' commitment (Chughtai and Zafar, 2006). Furthermore department, Designation, Qualification and Age has been found having no effect whatsoever in any of the regression models applied on all three test-variables.

8 VII.

9 Conclusions

Although the impacts of demographics are widely reported as the significant predictors of the employee attitudes, the current study however, gives surprising results, which are quite contrary to the hypothesized models. Out of seven demographic attributes tested; only three have emerged as critical. Rest of the four factors is playing no role in predicting the values of dependent variables. It is however, alarming that gender differences surface as the most obvious factor showing diversities between males and females. Perhaps it is because of the current political situation in the country.

The difference of opinion between the respondents from public and private sector institutions is also important and denoting several implications. This classification is predictive of variance in job satisfaction and involvement and commitment. However, it has no role in explaining the absenteeism and turnover. The factor has positive impacts as compared to the mixed role of gender. Finally, the marital status of the respondents has implications

9 CONCLUSIONS

for the job satisfaction and relations with the involvement & commitment as well as absenteeism & turnover. It is therefore concluded that demographic impacts on the attitudes of academicians in the HEIs of KPK are not significant in terms of their number. However, those few, which have implications, are sensitive; demanding careful handling to keep the related-decisions up and right.¹



Figure 1:

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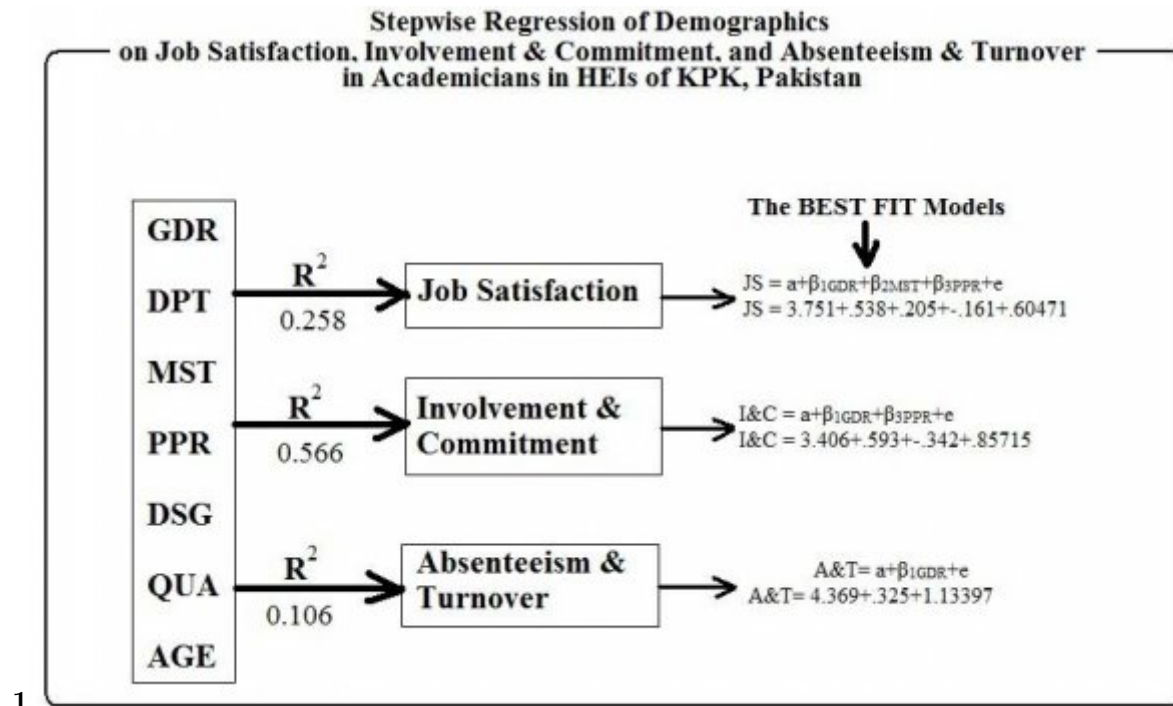


Figure 2: Figure 1

1

Factors	Groups	Frequency	Percent
1 Gender -GDR	Female Male	74 144	33.9 66.1
2 Department -DPT	Sciences Non- Sciences	122 96	56.0 44.0
3 Public vs. Private -PPR	Public Private	169 49	77.5 22.5
4 Marital Status -MST	Married Unmarried	121 97	55.5 44.5
5 Designation -DSG	AP&ASP Lecturer	84 134	38.5 61.5
6 Qualification -QUA	MPhil/PhD Masters	71 147	32.6 67.4
7 AGE	31-Above 20-30	96 122	44.0 56.0

b) Regression of Demographics on Job Satisfaction (JS)

i. Models, Coefficients & Excluded Variables (JS)

Figure 3: Table 1 :

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2

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	F	Sig.
1	.464(a)	.215	.211	.61924	59.200	.000(a)
2	.485(b)	.235	.228	.61275	33.029	.000(b)
3	.508(c)	.258	.248	.60471	24.862	.000(c)
Detail of the Models	a Predictors: (Constant), GDR b Predictors: (Constant), GDR, MST c Predictors: (Constant), GDR, MST, PPR d Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction (JS)					

Figure 4: Table 2 :

3

Model	Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	3.890	.072		54.036	.000
	GDR	.681	.089	.464	7.694	.000
2	(Constant)	3.695	.109		33.962	.000
	GDR	.817	.105	.556	7.803	.000
	MST	.236	.100	.169	2.366	.019
3	(Constant)	3.751	.109		34.262	.000
	GDR	.790	.104	.538	7.603	.000
	MST	.288	.100	.205	2.863	.005
	PPR	-.268	.103	-.161	-2.600	.010

Figure 5: Table 3 :

4

Model	Beta In	T	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics Tolerance	
3	DPT	-.064(c)	-1.076	.283	-.074	.995
	DSG	-.024(c)	-.391	.696	-.027	.932
	QUA	-.046(c)	-.761	.448	-.052	.944
	AGE	.067(c)	.893	.373	.061	.618

Figure 6: Table 4 :

5

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	F	Sig.
1	.675(a)	.456	.453	.95729	180.753	.000(a)
2	.752(b)	.566	.561	.85715	139.933	.000(b)

Detail of the Models

a Predictors: (Constant), GDR

b Predictors: (Constant), GDR, PPR

c Dependent Variable: Involvement and Commitment (I&C)

Figure 7: Table 5 :

6

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	3.020	.111		27.141	.000
	GDR	1.841	.137	.675	13.444	.000
2	(Constant)	3.406	.113		30.268	.000
	GDR	1.617	.126	.593	12.799	.000
	PPR	-1.057	.143	-.342	-7.377	.000

Figure 8: Table 6 :

7

	Model	Beta	In	T
	2	DPT	-.065(b)	-1.453
		MST	.070(b)	1.278
		DSG	-.013(b)	-.280
		QUA	-.069(b)	-1.505
		AGE	-.047(b)	-.952
ii.	Analysis II			
	Involvement and commitment was the second criterion variable tested for demographic impacts. The results (table 7) shows that only gender (?=.593, p<0.05) and sector (?=-.342, p<0.05) are the significant			
	d) Regression of Demographics on Absenteeism & Turnover (A&T)			
	i. Models, Coefficients & Excluded Variables (A&T)			

Figure 9: Table 7 :

9 CONCLUSIONS

8

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	F	Sig.
1	.325(a)	.106	.102	1.13397	25.516	.000(a)
Detail of the Model	a. Predictors: (Constant), GDR (Gender)					
	b. Dependent Variable: Absenteeism and Turnover (A&T)					

Figure 10: Table 8 :

9

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
1	B		Beta		
	(Constant)	4.369		33.146	.000
	GDR	.819	.325	5.051	.000

Figure 11: Table 9 :

10

Model	Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
1					Tolerance
	DPT	-.047(a)	-.726	.469	.997
	MST	.122(a)	1.587	.114	.701
	PPR	-.110(a)	-1.671	.096	.942
	DSG	.055(a)	.845	.399	.978
	QUA	.043(a)	.661	.510	.978
	AGE	.083(a)	1.164	.246	.823

Figure 12: Table 10 :

11

		Job Satisfaction
	Hypothesized Model	$JS = a + ? 1GDR + ? 2DPT + ? 3MST + ? 4PPR + ? 5DSG + ? 6QUA + ? 7AGE + e$
1	The best fit	$JS = a + ? 1GDR + ? 2MST + ? 3PPR + e$ $JS = 3.751 + .538 + .205 + -.161 + .60471$
	Excluded variables	DPT, DSG, QUA, & AGE
		Involvement & Commitment
	Hypothesized Model	$I\&C = a + ? 1GDR + ? 2DPT + ? 3MST + ? 4PPR + ? 5DSG + ? 6QUA + ? 7AGE + e$
2	The best fit	$I\&C = a + ? 1GDR + ? 3PPR + e$ $I\&C = 3.406 + .593 + -.342 + .85715$
	Excluded variables	DPT, MST, DSG, QUA, & AGE
		Absenteeism & Turnover
	Hypothesized Model	$A\&T = a + ? 1GDR + ? 2DPT + ? 3MST + ? 4PPR + ? 5DSG + ? 6QUA + ? 7AGE + e$
3	The best fit	$A\&T = a + ? 1GDR + e$ $A\&T = 4.369 + .325 + 1.13397$
	Excluded variables	DPT, MST, PPR, DSG, QUA, & AGE

Figure 13: Table 11 :

12

	Demographics	Job Satisfaction	Involvement & Commitment	Absenteeism & Turnover	Roles of the Factors
1	GDR	?	?	?	3
2	DPT	-	-	-	0
3	MST	?	-	-	1
4	PPR	?	?	-	2
5	DSG	-	-	-	0
6	QUA	-	-	-	0
7	AGE	-	-	-	0

Figure 14: Table 12 :

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