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Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction in Nigerian International Oil Companies

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Walden University

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Kingsley Onyebuenyi

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Walden University 2016

Abstract

Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction in Nigerian International Oil Companies

by

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MS, University of London, 2007

BS, Rivers State University of Science and Technology, 1995

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

August 2016

Abstract

Leaders of Nigerian international oil companies (IOC) were facing challenges developing efficient strategies for motivating demographically diverse employees. Some IOC leaders possessed limited knowledge of the extent to which demographic variables influenced job satisfaction and affected employee productivity. The purpose of this correlational study was to examine the relationship between employee category (being a permanent or nonpermanent employee) and facets of job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality factors. Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory was the theoretical framework for this study. A random sample of 104 senior employees (76 permanent and 28 nonpermanent employees) from 5 IOC located in Port Harcourt and Lagos, Nigeria, completed an online survey. The results of 3 hierarchical multiple regression analyses indicated gender, nationality, and employee category factors were nonsignificant predictors of general job satisfaction ($R^2 = .060$, F(1, 100) = 5.912, p = .029), intrinsic job satisfaction $(R^2 = .043, F(1, 100) = 3.755, p = .076)$, and extrinsic job satisfaction $(R^2 = .043, F(1, 100) = 3.755, p = .076)$.051, F(1, 100) = 5.129, p = .041). The results also indicated employee category factors would be a determinant for any improvement in general job satisfaction (t(100) = -2.431), p = .029), intrinsic job satisfaction (t(100) = -1.938, p = .076), and extrinsic job satisfaction (t(100) = -2.265, p = .041). The findings may contribute to social change by providing information for IOC leaders to enhance aspects of employees' job satisfaction, leading to improved productivity.

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Dedication

I dedicate this work to the God Almighty for guiding me throughout the doctoral study program, to my wife and son for supporting me, and to my parents for laying the foundation of hard work in my life.

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I am grateful to my wife Monica Onyebuenyi and son Chukwugoziri Onyebuenyi for their support, understanding, and love. Without your sacrifices throughout these arduous years, I would not have had the courage to accomplish this doctoral study; thank you. Many thanks to my parents, Mr. Emmanuel Ugorji and Mrs. Violet Ugorji; I acknowledge your advice and prayers. I recognize the support of my friends and other family members, especially the efforts of Mr. Charles Ebereonwu, Mr. Nduka Onyema, Dr. George Nweke, Mr. Ifeanyi Ani, and my professional colleagues.

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Section 1: Foundation of the Study

Leaders of multinational corporations (MNC) have responded to growing global competition by investing in emerging and developing economies (Ascani, Crescenzi, & Iammarino, 2016). Increasing foreign direct investment (FDI) in Nigeria has brought positive economic investment and local employment growth (Olayiwola & Okodua, 2013). Reforms in the Nigerian energy sector broadened competition for skilled labor and altered business leaders' recruitment and retention strategies to develop motivated and productive employees (Etieyibo, 2013). Determining factors for motivating, retaining, and enhancing job satisfaction of demographically diverse productive employees is a practical business problem facing business leaders in Nigeria (Oluwafemi, 2013). Examining the relationships between demographic variables and facets of job satisfaction of senior Nigerian oil workers may contribute to job satisfaction issues of demographically diverse employees.

Background of the Problem

The growth in FDI has increased competition and MNC access to emerging markets (Claudia & Mihaela, 2012). International oil companies (IOC) have dominated investment in the Nigerian oil industry, affecting skilled labor supply in the local market and altering employee demography (Babalola, Dogon-daji, & Saka, 2012; Nkechi & Okezie, 2013). Because employees have embedded national biases toward human resource (HR) policies (Jacob & Jolly, 2012), developing coherent and efficient strategies for motivating diverse employees has become challenging to Nigerian IOC leaders (Ogunyemi et al., 2015). Increased diversity of the Nigerian oil workers has not

improved productivity because of frequent labor strikes linked to discriminatory reward strategies and low job satisfaction (Mordi, 2015; Salawu, Hassan, & Adefeso, 2013; Uma, Obidike, Eboh, & Ogbonna, 2013). Implementing motivation-enhancing strategies is critical for increased job satisfaction and productivity.

Employee motivation and job satisfaction are subjects of continuing academic discourse (Jordan, Lindsay, & Schraeder, 2012). However, there is a paucity of research addressing job satisfaction in the Nigerian IOC. Research on job satisfaction in Nigeria has focused on the public, banking, manufacturing, and education sectors (Fanimehin & Popoola, 2013; Ogunyomi & Bruning, 2015; Osakwe, 2014; Oyeniyi, Afolabi, & Olayanju, 2014). Besides, studies regarding the instruments for motivating employees have remained inconclusive (Westover, 2013; Wynter-Palmer, 2012). Researchers have also examined the effect of demographic factors on job satisfaction without conclusive results (Jimoh & Quadri, 2013; Yucel & Bektas, 2012). In this study, I examined strategies that might enhance job satisfaction of demographically diverse employees for improved productivity in Nigerian IOC. Having provided the background to the problem, I will shift the focus to the problem statement.

Problem Statement

Job satisfaction of a demographically diverse workforce has remained largely inconsistent (Berg, 2012; Bockerman & Ilmakunnas, 2012). Findings from studies in Nigeria indicated approximately 78% to 82% of respondents recognized that a lack of job satisfaction was a critical challenge facing employee productivity in the Nigerian oil industry (Agwu, 2013; Ajayi & Abimbola, 2013). The general business problem was the

low productivity in the Nigerian oil industry. The specific business problem was that some IOC leaders have limited knowledge of the relationship between employee category and facets of job satisfaction (general, intrinsic, and extrinsic job satisfaction) after controlling for the gender and the nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational design study was to examine the relationship between employee category and facets of job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers. Employee category, gender, and nationality were the predictor variables. Measured with the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) short form, the criterion variables were general, intrinsic, and extrinsic job satisfaction. The population studied was 6,600 senior employees of five IOC residents in Port Harcourt and Lagos, Nigeria. I contacted the participants through e-mails (Appendix F), requesting them to complete an online survey (Appendix A). Oil company leaders could use the information obtained from this study to improve business practice in manners that enhance aspects of job satisfaction and productivity amid growing workforce diversity. If leaders increase job satisfaction, employees might improve personal performances and earn higher rewards. With better rewards, employees would increase their support for their families and contribute toward building healthier communities.

Nature of the Study

I used a quantitative method for this study. Researchers use a quantitative method to collect numerical data and objectively examine the variability of a phenomenon

(Rozin, Hormes, Faith, & Wansink, 2012). A qualitative or mixed method was unsuitable for this study. In qualitative or mixed method studies researchers seek to understand the rich meaning of phenomena or to combine qualitative and quantitative data (Venkatesh, Brown, & Bala, 2013; Zachariadis, Scott, & Barrett, 2013).

Using a correlational design, I evaluated the degree of relationships between the predictor and the criterion variables. Researchers use a correlational design to examine relationships among multiple variables (Hargreaves-Heap, Verschoor, & Zizzo, 2012). In contrast, researchers who employ an experimental or a quasiexperimental design intend to determine causal relationships (May, Joshi, & Nair, 2012). Data collection for this study was through an online survey. An online survey has become increasingly popular because electronic data collection is easier to administer than a paper-based survey (Anthony, 2012; Hunter, 2012).

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The purpose of this study was to examine how employee category related to facets of job satisfaction after controlling for the gender and the nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers. Employee category, gender, and nationality were the predictor variables; general, intrinsic, and extrinsic job satisfactions were the criterion variables. I addressed three research questions (RQs).

RQ1: Is there a relationship between employee category and general job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers?

 H_01 : There is no relationship between employee category and general job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers.

 H_a 1: There is a relationship between employee category and general job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers.

RQ2: Is there a relationship between employee category and intrinsic job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers?

 H_02 : There is no relationship between employee category and intrinsic job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers.

 H_a2 : There is a relationship between employee category and intrinsic job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers.

RQ3: Is there a relationship between employee category and extrinsic job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers?

 H_03 : There is no relationship between employee category and extrinsic job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers.

 H_a 3: There is a relationship between employee category and extrinsic job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers.

Survey Questions

For this study, the MSQ short form was the survey instrument to collect data. I obtained permission to use the MSQ instrument (Appendix C) to collect intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction data. Participants rated how satisfied they were with the items contained in the MSQ short form survey included in Appendix A.

Theoretical Framework

In quantitative studies, the theoretical framework is an organizing structure, linking constructs to findings and guiding an understanding of phenomena (Evans, Coon, & Ume, 2011). I utilized the motivation-hygiene theory (MHT) developed by Herzberg in 1968 as the theoretical framework for this study. Herzberg (2003) advanced the MHT as an extension of Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman's two-factor theory developed in 1959 to explain factors affecting job satisfaction. Herzberg asserted individuals who respond to intrinsic rewards are more likely to experience higher job satisfaction than individuals who respond to extrinsic rewards (Herzberg, 2003). The MHT applied to this study because the purpose was to examine the relationships between employee category, gender, nationality, and facets of job satisfaction. The MHT was relevant to link the constructs (intrinsic, extrinsic, and general job satisfaction) to the findings of this study.

Operational Definitions

Employee category: A term used to describe different types of employment contracts that workers could have with their employers. Employment contracts can be permanent or temporary (Jahn, 2015).

Extrinsic reward factors: Incentives used by leaders to reduce pain-inducing factors often found in work environments (Herzberg, 2003).

Hygiene factors: Reward factors that are external (extrinsic) to the job including company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relationships, working conditions, salary, status, and security (Herzberg, 2003).

Intrinsic reward factors: Job-related incentives used by leaders to stimulate employees' psychological growth (Herzberg, 2003).

Job enlargement: A process of making the dimension of a job larger without giving the jobholder a commensurate level of authority, discretion, and responsibility (Wood, Van Veldhoven, Croon, & de Menezes, 2012).

Senior Nigerian oil workers: Nonmanagerial midlevel employees of Nigerian oil companies. Senior Nigerian oil workers are hierarchically above junior employees and below managers (Onwe, 2014).

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

Assumptions

Assumptions enable researchers to identify factors considered true, but not verified (Snir, 2014). First, I assumed the participants provided representative data of the feelings of senior Nigerian oil workers. Second, I assumed the sample was diverse and

large enough to test the hypothesized relationships and to provide a reliable basis for generalizing the findings to senior Nigerian oil workers. The third assumption was that the participants answered the survey questions honestly and without bias. Finally, I assumed the MSQ survey instrument would capture the data needed to address the research questions.

Limitations

Limitations of the study are potential weaknesses of the study (Locke, Spirduso, & Silverman, 2014). First, the quality of data used in this study may not have reflected the true population of senior Nigerian oil workers. Nearly three-quarters of the respondents in this study were employees from 1 of 5 companies surveyed. The low response rate from the other four companies may have potentially increased nonresponse bias. Nonresponse bias could profoundly affect the quality of a research finding (Fauth, Hattrup, Mueller, & Roberts, 2013).

Second, the reliance on cross-sectional data did not provide requisite data to examine possible changes in participants' job satisfaction over time. The changing nature of work and people's attitudes over time concerning their reward preferences makes cross-sectional data inadequate for assessing employee job satisfaction in a dynamic setting (Supeli & Creed, 2015). As a result, I could not establish the causal direction of the relation between facets of job satisfaction and related correlates. However, cross-sectional data is a well-established methodology in social and management research (Pendleton & Robinson, 2015).

Finally, the data collection was limited to online and Likert-based surveys. Using forced answer technique for reducing item nonresponse and improving data quality may lead to random or untruthful responses (Albaum, Wiley, Roster, & Smith, 2011). I limited participants' neutrality in the survey by providing a neutral option in the MSQ instrument. However, choosing a neutral option in a survey instrument may not necessarily reflect participants' genuine opinions (Alwin, 2014).

Delimitations

Delimitations are the characteristics of the research under the researcher's control that define the boundaries and limit the scope of the study (Anthonisz & Perry, 2015). The first delimitation was that participants only included senior employees working in five IOC in Nigeria. Therefore, results presented in this study may not apply to other categories of workers in the oil industry, or to employees in oil industries outside Nigeria.

Significance of the Study

Knowing the demographic correlates of facets of job satisfaction in an everincreasing diverse workforce is of value to businesses (Zhang & Huai, 2016). Only
business leaders who provide motivation-enhancing rewards can attract and retain highly
skilled employees (Aryee, Walumbwa, Seidu, & Otaye, 2016). By identifying how
employee category, gender, and nationality factors affect job satisfaction, business
leaders have an opportunity to develop a comprehensive and proactive approach to
managing the reward preferences of their most valuable and difficult to imitate assets
(Nieves & Quintana, 2016). The information provided in this study regarding the facets

of job satisfaction of demographically diverse teams within the context of employee category, gender, and nationality may be of value to similar businesses.

Contribution to Business Practice

The 21st-century workforce has become diverse and difficult to motivate and retain (Bonache, Trullen, & Sanchez, 2012; Nederveen Pieterse, Knippenberg, & Dierendonck, 2013). A study of factors affecting job satisfaction can have a significant business impact in the Nigerian oil industry (Fajana, Owoyemi, Elegbede, & Gbajumo-Sheriff, 2011). Findings from previous studies indicated leaders who localize and implement HR best practices are more likely to mitigate environmental pressure, employee-related litigation, and employee dissatisfaction, as well as manage competing needs of diverse employees (Datta, 2012; Lim, 2012). Business may benefit when leaders of oil companies align reward systems with business strategies.

Encompassing representative demographic factors of employee category, gender, and nationality, I examined if differences exist in aspects of senior Nigerian oil workers' job satisfaction. Findings from this study could improve business practice by providing leaders with knowledge regarding variations in facets of job satisfaction and the potential link to employees' cultural and cognitive stereotypes. Cultural and cognitive stereotypes significantly influence employees' job outcomes (Rees-Caldwell & Pinnington, 2012). International business leaders could benefit from having evidence-based knowledge for managing and motivating a diverse group of employees (Lopez-Fernandez & Sanchez-Gardey, 2010). Moreover, an improved business practice linked to job satisfaction of

demographically diverse workforce can improve employee retention and productivity (Morris & Snell, 2011).

Implications for Social Change

Given the growing demand for inclusiveness in a globalized workplace, the role of job satisfaction has become vital in improving the quality of employees' work-life experience (Bourne & Forman, 2014). In Nigeria, 10% of expatriate workers fail to achieve their missions as employees (Okpara & Kabongo, 2011). Identifying correlates of job satisfaction in a diverse workforce has profound implications for social change (Lin, Lu, & Lin, 2012). Employees could benefit from business decisions that strengthen diversity management and resolve specific gender and cultural concerns regarding job satisfaction (Bhatti, Sundram, & Hoe, 2012). Furthermore, employees might accrue additional financial and emotional benefits through improved personal performance, commitment, remuneration, and promotion (Thaliath & Thomas, 2012). Employees' families and their communities would be happier when employees improve work-family balance, decrease interpersonal conflict, and increase social cohesion (King, Dawson, Kravitz, & Gulick, 2012; McNamara, Pitt-Catsouphes, Matz-Costa, Brown, & Valcour, 2013).

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

The purpose of this quantitative correlational design study was to examine how employee category, gender, and nationality relate to facets of job satisfaction of senior Nigerian oil workers. I developed the literature review based on peer-reviewed articles on the central research question: Is there a relationship between employee category and

facets of job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality factors? The objective was to address three problems: the extent to which employee category predicted (a) general job satisfaction, (b) intrinsic job satisfaction, and (c) extrinsic job satisfaction, after controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers.

This literature review is extensive and includes studies relevant to the purpose of this study. The review focused on five broad themes: (a) Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, (b) job satisfaction, (c) intrinsic satisfaction factors, (d) extrinsic satisfaction factors, and (e) demographic factors and job satisfaction. ProQuest, EBSCOhost, ScienceDirect, ABI/INFORM Complete, SAGE Premier, Emerald Management Journals, PsycINFO, and SocINDEX, hosted in the Walden University online library, as well as Google Scholar, were the search engines. Search terms such as *job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, employee motivation, intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, motivation-hygiene theory, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, turnover intention, employee stress and burnout, national and organizational culture, cross-cultural job satisfaction, and Nigerian oil industry and employee satisfaction guided the search for relevant materials. I gathered reference information from 185 resources for the literature review, of which 179 (96.76%) were peer-reviewed articles and 166 (92.74%) were published between 2012 and 2016. In addition, the literature review included five seminal books (2.7%) and one non-peer reviewed article (0.54%).*

Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory

Employee motivation has received the attention of theorists because motivation is a catalyst to organizational productivity (Van den Broeck, Lens, De Witte, & Van Coillie, 2013). Content-based and process-based theories of motivation have dominated research about job satisfaction (Saif, Nawaz, Jan, & Khan, 2012). Herzberg's MHT is one of the content-based theories of motivation (Wynter-Palmer, 2013).

Following the Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) two-factor theory,
Herzberg (2003) propounded MHT to explain factors that influence job satisfaction.
Herzberg drew a composite of the factors that lead to job satisfaction and job
dissatisfaction from samples of 1,685 employees. From the lens of MHT, factors leading
to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are distinct (Koegh, 2013). As separate
constructs, instruments potentially leading to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction
correspond to two different needs individuals strive to meet.

The premise of MHT is individuals' desire to meet two sets of needs: one set is the drive to meet basic biological needs and the other is the need to experience psychological growth (Herzberg, 2003). Motivation-hygiene theory drew from Maslow's theory on the hierarchy of needs (1943), except that in MHT, individuals' needs are not hierarchical (Noltemeyer, Bush, Patton, & Bergen, 2012). Instead, Herzberg identified two needs that affect employees' attitude toward their jobs: motivation and hygiene (Herzberg, 2003). Therefore, the basis of MHT is the idea that employees develop positive feelings if jobs enable them to fulfill their needs. When the workplace contains motivating factors, employees may experience psychological growth, whereas employees may require hygiene factors to satisfy basic biological needs. From the lens of MHT, motivating factors are intrinsic, and hygiene factors are extrinsic to the job.

In MHT, intrinsic and extrinsic factors may not lead to similar job outcomes.

Intrinsic factors lead to job satisfaction (Ireri, 2015). Extrinsic factors may not lead to job satisfaction; however, the presence of extrinsic factors may prevent job dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 2003). Achievement, recognition for achievement, work demand, responsibility, and advancement are motivator factors that are intrinsic to the job (Ko & Jun, 2015). Company policy, supervision, interpersonal relationships, working conditions, salary, status, and job security are hygiene factors that are extrinsic to the job (Holmberg, Solis, & Carlstrom, 2015). When leaders idealize employee needs by applying MHT, job satisfaction may increase. Leaders may idealize employee needs in the context of MHT by providing challenging opportunities on the job.

Leaders who challenge employees with exciting work and increased responsibility often find employees respond positively, contributing to organizational growth (Park, Song, Kim, & Lim, 2015). Only growth-inducing tasks in *job content*, and not pain-avoiding behaviors in the *job environment*, can stimulate growth in the workplace (Limbu, Jayachandran, Babin, 2014). Leaders must enrich job content to provide opportunities for employees' psychological growth while avoiding elements of *job enlargement* (Herzberg, 2003). When employees' current jobs satisfy their needs for psychological growth, employees may become highly satisfied with their jobs.

Therefore, the lens of MHT is critical to understanding job satisfaction.

Herzberg's MHT deconstructed the notion that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are opposite constructs of the same scale (Lacey, Kennett-Hensel, & Manolis, 2015). Furthermore, MHT as a predictive instrument for validity and reliability

has empirical support (Bell, Sutanto, Baldwin, & Holloway, 2014). Through the MHT, Herzberg inspired advancements in job redesign for promoting effective utilization of employees (Sorensen & Minahan, 2011). However, Herzberg's MHT also encouraged theory development in other fields (Lee, Lin, & Wang, 2011).

Comparative job satisfaction theories and models. Hackman and Oldham (1975) designed the job characteristic model (JCM) to identify conditions that motivate employees and to remedy potential deficiencies in MHT. The JCM has three factors: job characteristics, employees' psychological states, and the personal and works outcomes (Behson, 2012). Employees have a positive effect on organizations when they (a) experience meaningfulness of the work; (b) are responsible for work outcomes; and (c) have knowledge of the results of the work activities (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). For employees to achieve these states, leaders must include five core dimensions in job designs: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback (Chaudhry, Maurice, & Haneefuddin, 2015). Such enriched job designs have a positive effect on job satisfaction (Wood et al., 2012). Behson (2012) stressed that JCM works well in mediated models, which was not the case in this study.

Similar to MHT, the theory of work adjustment (TWA) by Dawis, England, and Lofquist (1964) explained how the abilities and needs of an individual could align to the needs of an employer to achieve a mutually benefiting relationship. When leaders encourage employees to use their unique skills and knowledge of the work environment, employees adjust their work to fulfill their innate needs (Velez & Moradi, 2012). Individuals experience job satisfaction if the work environment meets their requirements,

which could be intrinsic or extrinsic (Bayl-Smith & Griffin, 2015). The TWA became the basis for MSQ instrument developed to measure facets of job satisfaction (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967).

Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs theory (HON) is another dimension of content-based theories of motivation. Maslow developed the HON to explain human needs in a pyramid with five hierarchies: physiology, safety, love, esteem, and self-actualization. As individuals climb the pyramid, they shape their behaviors by logically satisfying the lower needs before attending to the higher needs (Noltemeyer, Bush, Patton, & Bergen, 2012). For example, to meet their physiological needs, individuals might only need a paying job; then, afterward, individuals may aim to satisfy higher needs (e.g., self-actualization). Only unsatisfied needs influence behavior because satisfied needs would no longer motivate but trigger the next higher-order needs (Alafi, Al-Qeed, & Alkayed, 2013). Maslow emphasized universal motivation but neglected individual variations, making the theory inapt for framing this study.

Vroom (1964) focused the expectancy-value theory (EVT) on psychological forces rather than factors determining individual motivation. Individuals' work behaviors may reflect the valences and expectancies associated with the relevant events.

Motivation is an artifact of three factors: expectancy, instrumentality, and valence (Savolainen, 2012). Critical to job motivation is the interdependency of effort and reward and the resultant effect on individuals' decision to work. Individuals work for economic (extrinsic) and motivational (intrinsic) reasons (HemaMalini & Washington, 2014). A criticism of EVT is Vroom focused on explaining why rather than how

individuals make certain choices (van Tilburg & Igou, 2013). Vroom's attribution of instrumentality as subjective beliefs and decision-making process as overly rational is another criticism, making EVT unsuitable for this study (Savolainen, 2012). In contrast, Herzberg's MHT has inspired contemporary research on job satisfaction (Staus & Becker, 2012).

Job Satisfaction

Organizational researchers have long studied job satisfaction and motivation at work. Because job satisfaction is multifaceted, researchers have continued inquiring about the antecedents and effects of job satisfaction on work outcomes including organizational commitment, turnover intention, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and firm performance (Thompson & Phua, 2012). Identifying correlates of job satisfaction is vital to corporate leaders who are seeking to improve organizational productivity. When business leaders understand the meaning of job satisfaction, job satisfaction and productivity may increase.

Early writers defined job satisfaction as a pleasurable emotional state resulting from individual's evaluation of job rewards (Locke, 1976). From a need's perspective, job satisfaction connotes needs employees aim to satisfy through their jobs (Kumar, 2012). In contrast, Ngo, Foley, Ji, and Loi (2014) described job satisfaction as employees' positive attitude toward their jobs resulting from their personal obligations toward rewards provided by their organizations in a social exchange. A positive assessment of job rewards may lead to an employee feeling satisfied and confident of meeting individual and organizational needs. The level of job satisfaction can potentially

explain many layers of organizational work outcomes including turnover intention (Kanwar, Singh, & Kodwani, 2012).

Job satisfaction and turnover intention. Job satisfaction relates inversely to turnover intention. Employees are more likely to quit when dissatisfied than when satisfied, although factors affecting turnover intention are multidimensional (Aladwan, Bhanugopan, & Fish, 2013; Dardar, Jusoh, & Rasli, 2012; Ghosh, Satyawadi, Joshi, & Shadman, 2013). Having the knowledge about the shades of turnover intentions that demographically diverse employees may have is fundamental to enhancing employee satisfaction and retention.

Findings from different studies in Africa, Asia, and Europe indicated job satisfaction and turnover intention correlated significantly (Kabungaidze, Mahlatshana, & Ngirande, 2013; Nwokocha & Iheriohanma, 2012; Yucel, 2012). In Nigeria, a low level of job satisfaction increases employees' intention to quit (Mbah & Ikemefuna, 2012; Olusegun, 2012). In response, Nigerian business leaders have shown a willingness to adopt proper motivational incentives for improving employee retention (Nwokocha & Iheriohanma, 2012). Globally, when leaders enhance employee satisfaction, leaders may increase employee retention. Job satisfaction may also mediate how other workplace phenomena relate to turnover intentions.

In addition to having a direct effect, job satisfaction can mediate how leadership styles influence employees' turnover intention. The level of satisfaction with the leader can predict the level that the leadership behavior affects turnover intentions (Newman, Thanacoody, & Hui, 2012; Tuzun & Kalemci, 2012). This indicates that identifying and

implementing satisfaction-enhancing policies are overarching aspects of leader effectiveness and employee retention. For leaders of a demographically diverse team, promoting a high level of satisfaction could be vital to employees' level of organizational commitment.

Job satisfaction and organizational commitment (OC). Satisfied employees are more likely to commit to organizations than dissatisfied employees. Organizational commitment is an expression of employees' affection for, recognition of, and participation in the organization (Shah, Jatoi, & Memon, 2012). Employees' commitment can be affective, continuance, or normative (Srivastava, 2013). These levels of commitments determine the degree of freedom employees have in retaining their organizational membership (Shah et al., 2012). However, OC emerges from employees' positive attitudinal responses (Imran, Arif, Cheema, & Azeem, 2014). When employees feel satisfied with the rewards they receive from their jobs, employees may increase their level of commitment to the organization. The level of OC of a happy employee has empirical support.

Researchers have shown that job satisfaction is an antecedent of OC (Benjamin & David, 2012; Oyewobi, Suleiman, & Mohammad-Jamil, 2012). Job satisfaction correlated with OC of sampled employees in both the public and the private sector of Nigeria (Akomolafe & Olatomide, 2013; Ogunleye, Odebiyi, & Olaoye, 2013). Increasing pay satisfaction is a useful strategy for enhancing affective and continuance commitment (Imam, Raza, Shah, & Raza, 2013; Panaccio, Vandenberghe, & Ayed, 2014). A positive climate for human resources development also increases employees'

affective commitment (Benjamin & David, 2012). Commitment in the workplace is indicative of a positive feeling about the job rewards and the work climate. Human resources development climate as a multidimensional construct encompasses measures of job satisfaction.

Whether by encouraging personal growth or by creating a supportive supervisory environment, corporate leaders could improve employee commitment to a company by implementing and strengthening satisfaction-enhancing strategies. A positive leader-member exchange (LMX) can improve aspects of job satisfaction and OC (Ariani, 2012). Employees' level of job involvement significantly moderates the interactions between job satisfaction and OC (Tiwari & Singh, 2014). Therefore, strategic HR practices that improve employee well-being may likely increase employee commitment to the organization. However, enhanced job satisfaction and OC must arouse organizational citizenship behavior in the Nigerian oil industry.

Job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). As a voluntary and nonrewarding behavior, OCB is necessary for achieving organizational effectiveness (Nasra & Heilbrunn, 2015). Among employees, OCB can promote a sense of membership, belongingness, and personal relatedness (Boyd & Nowell, 2014). Understanding the ramifications of OCB and the context under which OCB encourages an extra-role behavior is imperative to contemporary leaders (Huang, You, & Tsai, 2012; Ritz, Giauque, Varone, & Anderfuhren-Biget, 2014).

Leaders can encourage extra-role behavior by implementing motivationenhancing strategies. Munyon, Hochwarter, Perrewe, and Ferris (2010) described the conditions under which job satisfaction relates positively with OCB. Using hierarchical moderated polynomial regression analysis on three independent samples (N = 1026), Munyon et al. found employee's level of optimism moderated the relationship between OCB and job satisfaction. Such relationship is crucial for increased organizational performance in the Nigerian oil industry.

Job satisfaction and firm performance. Organizational leaders must retain highly motivated personnel to improve performance. Highly satisfied employees catalyze customer satisfaction and organizational performance (Jyoti & Sharma, 2012). Business leaders can improve service climate, stakeholder satisfaction, and business performance by enhancing job satisfaction (Bowen & Schneider, 2014). When leaders develop job satisfaction, employees may increase their personal and group-level performances across business operations. The effect of job satisfaction on employees' service delivery is one area that researchers have examined.

Employee satisfaction is essential to efficient service delivery and firm performance. In Italy, job attitudes of supply chain managers were significant contributors to firms' performance (Roselli & De Giovanni, 2012). Compensation strategy, a facet of job satisfaction, is a statistically significant indicator of corporate performance in Nigeria (Obasan, 2012). This evidence presupposes that employee orientation contributes higher to firms' financial performance than the course of other stakeholders (de Bussy & Suprawan, 2012). Leaders in Nigerian IOCs must understand employees' feelings regarding aspects of job satisfaction for improved performance amid growing workforce diversity.

Intrinsic Satisfaction Factors

Researchers have examined the predictive power of intrinsic rewards on job satisfaction. Ozutku (2012) surveyed 217 HR managers in Turkish manufacturing industry to determine whether intrinsic rewards lead to job satisfaction. The multivariate analysis revealed a significant association between intrinsic rewards and job satisfaction. Cho and Perry (2012) reached similar conclusions and underscored the essentials of intrinsic motivation to employee satisfaction, turnover intention, and firm performance. These findings imply that current employees are desirous of internal satisfaction.

In contrast, employees seem to respond to both the intrinsic and extrinsic reward factors, in developing countries such as Nigeria. Ogunnaike, Akinbola, and Ojo (2014) examined whether intrinsic and extrinsic motivation relate to job satisfaction of sales representatives in four service companies in Lagos, Nigeria. Using a sample of 138 respondents and regression analysis, Ogunaike et al. found both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation enhance sales representatives' job satisfaction. Olubusayo, Stephen, and Maxwell (2014) made similar conclusion about what satisfies public sector workers in South-west Nigeria. Although the industry analyzed in these studies differs from the area examined in this current study, the findings of these studies point to the efficacy of intrinsic rewards on employees' wellbeing. Considering the specific intrinsic reward factors within the context of Nigerian oil workers is apt for broadening knowledge about phenomena.

Responsibility for own work. Responsibility connotes employees' desire to be accountable for own work and to participate in the associated decision-making process.

Employees' level of accountability evolves from employees' level of involvement in decision-making and proactive disposition (Appelbaum et al., 2013). Slatten, Carson, Baker, and Carson (2013) examined outcomes associated with dynamic individuals by analyzing responses from health and social workers in the southeastern United States (*N* = 242). The result indicated proactive personality relates to workgroup cohesion, compassion satisfaction, burnout, and job withdrawal intention. Being proactive could reflect employees' level of motivation on the job. When leaders encourage employees to participate in decision-making, employees may become more active, motivated, and satisfied.

Jolodar (2012) examined the influence of participation in organization decision-making among other variables on job satisfaction of remedial service insurance workers in Sari. Multiple regression results indicated involvement in a decision is as important as a personal belief, pay, and interactions with colleagues in explaining variations in job satisfaction. Participating in decision-making increases employees involvement, enriches workplace experiences, and increases employees' ability to take responsibility for own work. Information sharing can also increase employees' workplace experience with a profound effect on job satisfaction.

Schreurs, Guenter, Schumacher, Van Emmerik, and Notelaers (2013) examined how employee-involvement climate (information sharing and decision-making) moderates the relationship between pay level satisfaction and employee outcomes including job satisfaction, affective commitment, and turnover intention. About 22,662 Belgian employees from 134 organizations participated in the study. Multilevel analysis

indicated decision-making and information sharing climate increased the adverse effects of low pay level satisfaction on employee outcomes. However, the consequences of responsibility for own work from the prism of participatory decision-making is not utterly straightforward.

Findings from other studies linking responsibility for own work to job satisfaction in some developed countries were inconsistent. Wood and de Menezes (2011) used large data (N = 24,746) to extend the theoretical understanding of the link between high-performance work systems and well-being, in Britain. Involvement in decision-making was among other independent variables predicting job satisfaction although; high involvement was not a predictor of job satisfaction. Conversely, lack of employee participation in decision-making potentially decreases job satisfaction in Canada (Zatzick & Iverson, 2011). The implication for further study is the unresolved effects of participative decision-making and the work content on job satisfaction.

The work content. Work content, a measure of the level of autonomy, creativity, and tasks, can significantly predict job satisfaction. Greater freedom at work can mitigate adverse effects of work pressure on job satisfaction (Lopes, Lagoa, & Calapez, 2014). A longitudinal study of young school leavers' cohort (N = 6000), in Switzerland, indicated job control is a reliable predictor of job satisfaction (Keller & Semmer, 2013). As employees take greater control of their jobs, they embed themselves on the work and accomplish more tasks than they would have with less autonomy on the job.

Using a panel sample data of 294 employees in a Danish financial company, Bysted (2013) examined how the moderating effect of job satisfaction and mental involvement increased the effectiveness of innovative work behavior. Bysted showed job autonomy enhances innovative work behavior and internal environment for innovation. The practical implication is leaders must enrich work to create an ambiance for novelty and fulfillment on the work.

Job design is an integral part of motivation because intrinsic rewards emerge from doing the job rather than for contingent rewards (Reiss, 2012). When leaders enrich jobs, they increase employees' sense of responsibility, offer an opportunity for achievement, and increase workers' satisfaction. Findings from studies in some developed countries support the link between job design and employees' positive disposition toward jobs.

Using a survey of 14,127 employees in 1,177 workplaces in the United Kingdom, Wood et al. (2012) found enriched job design related positively and significantly to job satisfaction and organizational performance. Enriched job design increases creative self-efficacy as employees develop new skills and master new tasks (Zhou, Hirst, & Shipton, 2012). The implication for business practice is remarkable, given the paradoxical results from some studies examining how job enrichment relates to employee motivation.

A good example is the work of Yan, Peng, and Francesco (2011). Yan et al. used 2 X 2 X 2 repeated-measure ANOVA to analyze the effect of job enrichment on satisfaction and performance of knowledge and manual workers in China. Although the result was positive, knowledge workers differed significantly from manual workers in their level of satisfaction and performance. Thus, the effect of job enrichment on job satisfaction is at best contextual, paradoxical, and imprecise. However, employee demography could be vital to explaining how job characterization relates to job

satisfaction (Truxillo, Cadiz, Rineer, Zaniboni, & Fraccaroli, 2012). These findings have implication for managers wishing to motivate employees through job enrichment. Job designs may have to arouse long-term career experiences to influence job satisfaction.

Growth, advancement or promotion. In MHT, promotion on the job is motivational, but empirical results are inconclusive. Linz and Semykina (2012) examined how job satisfaction relates to anticipated rewards in Armenia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Russia, and Serbia. Regression results indicated desired and expected promotion opportunities tend to relate negatively to job satisfaction. The chances are that workers from socialist cultures view promotion as a job stressor and not as growth.

In contrast, growth opportunities could increase satisfaction, at least in the short-term, of workers in capitalist societies (Johnston & Lee, 2013). Using a small sample of information and technology professionals of a large consulting firm in the United States (N = 220), Jawahar (2012) examined whether satisfaction with growth opportunities mediates the effect of employee development opportunities on OCB and burnout. The result was positive and significant. Despite inherent limitations associated with small sample size, Jawahar demonstrated the need for embedding personal development opportunities in job redesign for enhancing work outcomes. To Jawahar, future research should focus on moderators of these relationships.

Similarly, in South Korea, promotion opportunities are more likely to lead to a higher level of job satisfaction than lack of it. Yang, Brown, and Moon (2011) examined the influence of promotion opportunity among other variables on job satisfaction of sampled South Korean correction officers (N = 400). Ordered logit regression analysis

yielded a positive and significant result, indicating that promotion opportunity can predict correction officers' job satisfaction. These findings suggest that growth or advancement can increase or decrease job satisfaction depending on employees' cultural stereotype.

Recognition for achievement. Theoretically, employees who receive recognition for achievements are likely to have higher job satisfaction than those who do not. In contrast, empirical evidence indicated mixed results. Dhammika, Ahmad, and Sam (2012) used MSQ instrument in gathering data from 136 public sector employees, in Sri Lanka to validate dimensions of job satisfaction, OC, and job performance. Exploratory factor analysis indicated the feeling of accomplishment employees get from their jobs showed a high level of reliability with Cronbach alpha values of .727. Although recognition for achievement can arouse feelings of accomplishment, empirical results remain uncertain.

Empirical studies in India and Pakistan indicated a different relationship between recognition for achievement and job satisfaction. Islam and Ali (2013) tested the applicability of Herzberg's MHT on private sector university teachers in Peshawar district, Pakistan. Using percentages and frequencies to analyze data, Isam and Ali found evidence, suggesting recognition leads to satisfaction. Aydin (2012) made a similar conclusion and found Turkish university teachers perceive recognition as a positive motivation on their research performance. Conversely, Saxena and Vyas (2011) examined the ranked importance of different factors affecting job satisfaction of employees in leading Indian power backup company (N = 50). Although important, employees' rating of recognition for work done was less important than variables such as

work location, working hours, working environment, and opportunity for promotion in determining job satisfaction. These findings highlight the growing importance of extrinsic rewards as a measure of employees' job satisfaction in developing countries such as Nigeria (Boachie-Mensah & Zungbey, 2012).

Extrinsic Satisfaction Factors

The MHT and MSQ are specific on extrinsic satisfaction factors. Under MHT, extrinsic rewards may not necessarily lead to job satisfaction because such rewards are distinct from the job content. However, the absence of extrinsic rewards can lead to job dissatisfaction (Frye, 2012). Such a rigid erection of individual motivation, which undermines within- and between-person variations, has been the subject of an ongoing academic debate (Dalal, Bhave, & Fiset, 2014). Reiss (2012) rejected such an inert construction of individual motivation contending that any view of extrinsic reward factors as devoid of motivational content is theoretically indefensible. Reiss' conclusion has empirical support.

Frye (2012) examined the extent to which extrinsic, intrinsic, and general motivational factors related to job satisfaction of hotel managers (N = 553). The result indicated strong support for extrinsic reward factors. Hygiene factors were significant predictors of job satisfaction, in the Nigerian banking sector (Uduji, 2013). In contrast, job satisfaction of Turkish blue-collar workers defied the intrinsic-extrinsic taxonomy (Demirkaya, 2012). The managerial implications are twofold: employee motives have become complex and satisfying them requires a multidimensional approach. However, Frye's use of exploratory factor analysis only established patterns in the observed

relationships but failed to develop an appropriate predictor model often permitted in regression techniques.

Spagnoli, Caetano, and Santos (2012) examined the effect, over time, of management practices, rewards, work climate, and the work content on job satisfaction, in the Portuguese service sector. Repeated cross-sectional survey, multi-group confirmatory factor analysis, and ANOVA served as bases for data analyses over a three-year period ($N_{2001} = 297$; $N_{2003} = 222$; $N_{2007} = 243$). Spagnoli et al. found an increasing significance of extrinsic satisfaction against a decreasing importance of intrinsic satisfaction. Reviewing facets of extrinsic satisfaction factors including supervision, colleagues or coworkers, working condition, pay, and job security will illuminate the significance of extrinsic rewards on job satisfaction (Perez Vilar & Azzollini, 2013).

Working conditions. Researchers have examined the effect of working condition on employees' job satisfaction from different viewpoints. One of the perspectives discussed in the literature is work schedule. Some researchers have argued for the adoption of flexible work schedule for improving work-life balance and promoting employees' rights (Putnam, Myers, & Gailliard, 2014). The level of stress in a work schedule determines the quality of work life and the degree of happiness or displeasure an employee experiences in a workplace (Gupta & Hyde, 2013). Flexible work schedules can potentially mitigate stress and enhance job satisfaction (Ogunlana & Okunlaya, 2013). Stress has potential to affect employees' physical and mental wellbeing.

Substantial changes in the labor market occasioned by increasing competition for placement and rising demand for worker performance are affecting employees' mental

health condition. Cottini and Lucifora (2013) studied recent patterns in mental health at workplace across 15 European countries to determine the link between working conditions and mental health. Analysis of the longitudinal data indicated that adverse working conditions strongly relate to workers' mental health problems. Improving working conditions through flexible work schedule can potentially address the problems associated with heavy workloads and enhance employee satisfaction (Jenull & Wiedermann, 2015). Working hours are another aspect of working conditions that researchers have examined.

Empirical studies indicated that working hours inversely relate to job satisfaction. Using longitudinal survey data, McNamara et al., (2013) investigated the association between hours worked per week and satisfaction with work-life balance, in the United States. The study indicated that the number of working hours per week negatively associated with satisfaction with work-family life. This finding suggests employees report higher dissatisfaction when they work longer hours than when they work shorter hours. Similarly, undesirable long hours could worsen quality of work life and intensify the negative link between work intensity, work schedule control, and work-life conflict (Ajala, 2013). These findings underscore the profound influence work environment has on employee satisfaction in both the developed and the developing economies.

The growing influence of work environment on employee satisfaction has become a global phenomenon cutting across different sectors and businesses. Poor working environment negatively affects the motivation and productivity of workers in the Nigerian service, health, and oil industries (Ayamolowo, Irinoye, & Oladoyin, 2013;

Noah & Steve, 2012). The work environment can significantly predict the degree of abuse registered nurses suffer in the U.S. health sector (Brewer, Kovner, Obeidat, & Budin, 2013). These findings indicate the growing importance of work environment on job satisfaction transcends national boundaries.

Relationship with a supervisor. Closely related to the work environment is the effect of employee-supervisor relationship on job satisfaction. Landry and Vandenberghe (2012) drew on social exchange theory and hierarchical linear modeling to examine the influence of supervisor-employee relational commitments on employee job performance. Three hundred employee-supervisor dyads completed two sets of survey questionnaires in nine Canadian public health organizations. The result indicated supervisor and employee positive commitment correlated positively. Supervisor emotional intelligence can have a similar effect on employee motivation.

Singh (2013) asked a sample of 474 employees from 200 organizations, in South Africa, to rate their supervisors' levels of *emotional intelligence behavior* (EIB), and how each EIB influenced their sense of job satisfaction. The result indicated a high and significant correlation between employees' sense of job satisfaction and supervisors' EIBs. Ruiz-Palomino, Saez-Martinez, and Martinez-Canas (2013) and Sakiru et al. (2014) found supervisor leadership styles positively influence employees' satisfaction. Leaders who encourage positive leadership style may enhance job satisfaction than leaders who do not.

Okediji, Etuk, and Nnedum (2011) examined the influence of perceived coworker involvement and supervisory support on job satisfaction based on MSQ instrument. The study involved 150 employees of a brewery company in Uyo, Nigeria. The result of a 2-way ANOVA for unequal sample size indicated higher job satisfaction for employees who perceived their supervisors as supportive compared employees who saw their superiors as unsupportive. At the organizational level, Muse and Wadsworth (2012) showed that employee's perception of organizational support has a robust and a positive relationship with task performance and job dedication. These results are consistent with the findings reported by Abd-El-Salam, Shawky, El-Nahas, and Nawar (2013). Business leaders can motivate and empower employees by improving supervisory and organizational support. Supervisors may motivate their staff through constructive feedbacks.

Sommer and Kulkarni (2012) were apt in discussing the importance of delivering performance feedback on several aspects of work outcome such as job satisfaction and OCB intentions. Using data from 209 participants in Malaysia, United Arab Emirates, Singapore, and the United States, Sommer and Kulkarni examined the effects of constructive feedback on OCB intentions and job satisfaction. Hierarchical regression analysis revealed that feedback significantly improved job satisfaction and OCB. The implication is leaders need to inculcate respectful relationship among team members to enhance job satisfaction.

Relationship with coworkers. Employees who maintain good relationships with their coworkers are more likely to have higher levels of work satisfaction than employees who do not (Ajayi & Abimbola, 2013). Liu, Mitchell, Lee, Holtom, and Hinkin (2012) analyzed a large sample of multilevel longitudinal data (N = 5,270) from a leading United

States hospitality company to examine the individual- unit- and the cross-level relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Multivariate statistical analysis revealed that individual job satisfaction and unit-level job satisfaction were significant predictors of turnover intention. The implication is over time the mood of business units could affect the level of employee's job satisfaction and intentions to leave. As such, coworker relationships are fundamental to accomplishing group-level tasks.

Findings of other studies have supported the link between task-oriented relation with coworkers and job satisfaction. Marzuki, Permadi, and Sunaryo (2012) examined the influence of job facets such as job characteristics, rewards, relationship with superiors, relation with coworkers, and fulfillment of higher order needs on job satisfaction of Indonesian construction workers (N = 56). This correlational study indicated that the task-related relation with coworkers influenced construction workers' job satisfaction. Whereas permanent workers favored assistance as a form of coworker relationship, temporary employees valued cooperative behaviors. These findings indicate that employees value supportive coworkers in task performance.

Good working relationships with colleagues can engender a healthy working environment that enhances personal satisfaction. Moor, Leahy, Sublett, and Lanig (2013) studied the effect of nurse-to-nurse relationship on work environment of registered nurses in southwestern Ohio (N = 82). The study was a mixed method design. The result indicated that a considerable number of sampled nurses contemplated leaving the profession because of poor nurse-to-nurse relationship. The participants cited the critical

importance of supportive interpersonal behaviors among staff on personal satisfaction of nurses. The study is a useful foundation to examine a larger sample of workers in other professions, locations, industries, and countries.

Compensation. Some researchers have examined the effect of pay on job satisfaction and found conflicting results. Morgan, Dill, and Kalleberg (2013) conducted a mixed method study to compare the influence of extrinsic and intrinsic job characteristics on job satisfaction of front-line health workers, in the United States. Both intrinsic and extrinsic job characteristics correlated with job satisfaction, with pay particularly significant. These findings underscore the growing influence of financial rewards on job satisfaction across different countries.

In Britain, Bryson, Barth, and Dale-Olsen (2012) used linked employer-employee data to examine how wages relate to three dimensions of employee wellbeing (pay satisfaction, nonpecuniary job satisfaction, and job anxiety). The result indicated that higher wages associated with higher job satisfaction and higher job anxiety than lower wages. These findings are rather puzzling because one would expect less anxiety if higher wages lead to job satisfaction. Employees could experience low job satisfaction after a certain level of salary increases, considering that job satisfaction can have a curvilinear and bell-shaped relationship with salary (Al-Zoubi, 2012). Possible explanation is employees may want to reciprocate employers' decision to pay higher wages, and by so doing create internal pressure and worries.

Internal pressure can lead to employee dissatisfaction. Bareket-Bojmel,

Hochman, and Ariely (2014) examined how monetary and nonmonetary bonuses affect

employees' productivity; they concluded that although both types of bonuses increased productivity, nonmonetary bonuses had a slight advantage over financial bonuses. These findings affirm Herzberg's MHT that materialistic values can potentially be dissatisfying.

Despite this evidence, Giancola (2012b) lamented the tendency at which HR professionals underestimate the importance of aligning benefits programs to employees' preferences. Accordingly, Giancola (2012a) advocated the need for further studies about the effect of pay on employee's motivation to work. Giancola's call has become compelling because of the uncertain effect of salary on job satisfaction.

Job security. Reviewing literature on job insecurity is good starting point for evaluating how job security influences employees' satisfaction. In this study, the focus is on perceived job insecurity, which is an individual's evaluation of the likelihood of losing one's job shortly as opposed to the actual level of layoffs and dismissals (Ellonen & Natti, 2015). Job insecurity is an inescapable stressor that has far-reaching consequences for the employees' wellbeing (Cheng, Mauno, & Lee, 2014). A cross-sectional study in Lebanon indicated a negative and significant relationship between job insecurity and job satisfaction (Karkoulian, Mukaddam, McCarthy, & Messarra, 2013). A feeling of a potential involuntary discontinuation of one's job in the immediate or near future can be damaging to employees' confidence and commitment over time.

Longitudinal data revealed that stress process associated with job insecurity differs according to time and nature of wellbeing. Stiglbauer, Selenko, Batinic, and Jodlbauer (2012) examined whether work involvement moderates the effect of job insecurity on wellbeing and whether the level of wellbeing explains the relationship

between job insecurity and turnover intentions. The study involved 178 participants (93 female and 60 male) who participated in an online longitudinal survey. Hierarchical regression analysis indicated that job insecurity relates to measures of wellbeing negatively but positively to turnover intentions. Work involvement accentuates the negative effect of job insecurity on wellbeing. These findings imply that no matter how involving a job is employees will feel dissatisfied if they feel their job is vulnerable and insecure. The feeling of dissatisfaction may transcend gender, contract type, and nationality differences.

For example, Rigotti, Mohr, and Isaksson (2015) examined whether the relationship between job insecurity and work-related attitudes and health impairment is valid across gender for employees working on temporary contracts using data from seven countries in Europe (N = 1981). Results of t-test indicated no significant gender differences regarding the primary variables. Male and female temporary employees perceived and experienced the effects of job insecurity the same way. However, the extent to which individuals' perceived potential for job loss affects their job satisfaction may depend on the assessment of their chances of getting another job.

Berglund, Furaker, and Vulkan (2014) studied whether perceptions of employment security and income security can compensate for affective insecurity among Swedish employees (N = 2,023). Multivariate analysis indicated the cognitive job insecurity increases affective job insecurity, whereas employment and income security decrease affective job insecurity. These findings imply that if employees perceive a risk of a job loss, they worry increasingly about losing their jobs leading to job dissatisfaction.

However, the possibility of finding an equal or better job, and the availability of income security such as unemployment insurance could reduce the negative effect of job insecurity on job satisfaction.

One would expect that the feeling of job insecurity would trigger more dissatisfaction among permanent employees than among nonpermanent employees. In addition, employees from developed countries where unemployment insurance exists may worry less about job insecurity, unlike their counterparts from developing countries. In practice, business leaders should consider the level of social security, and the influence social security has on employees' perception of job insecurity in host countries when formulating reward policies.

Demographic Factors and Job Satisfaction

Employee category (permanent and nonpermanent workers). Global leaders are responding to changing economic and labor market conditions by diversifying their workforce (Zhang & Huai, 2016). The labor market has two classes of workers—permanent and nonpermanent—and the number of nonpermanent workers has become increasingly significant in many organizations (Booth & van Ours, 2013). In Nigeria, temporary employment is common in many organizations (Jawando & Adenugba, 2014). More than 60% of oil workers in Nigeria are nonpermanent (Fapohunda, 2012). Examining job satisfaction of these categories of employees is necessary for extending practical knowledge, directing future research, and improving productivity (Wittmer & Martin, 2013).

Examining job satisfaction of nonpermanent workers might be critical to business leaders in two ways: regarding their vulnerability and as regards to their contribution to firm's financial performance. Doerflinger and Pulignano (2015) argued that nonpermanent workers not only differ in pay and working condition, but they also differ in level of representation right when compared to permanent workers. Nonpermanent workers' job satisfaction has an inverted U-shaped relationship with a company's financial performance (Chadwick & Flinchbaugh, 2013). Chadwick and Flinchbaugh (2013) identified the inflection point as the point where 3% of a company's workforces are nonpermanent. Given the number of temporary workers in the Nigerian oil industry, the managerial implications of these findings for HR practices could be profound.

Temporary and permanent workers may differ in their levels of job satisfaction (Dawson, Veliziotis, & Hopkins, 2014; Marzuki et al., 2012). Dawson et al. (2014) examined whether employees on temporary contracts in Britain reported lower wellbeing than those on permanent contracts and whether differences in dimensions of job satisfaction mediated this relationship (N = 60,058). Multivariate regression results indicated temporary workers reported lower wellbeing than their counterparts in permanent employment did. These differences were larger when comparing open-ended temporary contract and permanent employees than when comparing fixed-term temporary contract and permanent employees (Dawson et al., 2014). The effects of job insecurity are more adverse to permanent workers regarding the intrinsic satisfaction and more negative to temporary workers regarding extrinsic satisfaction (Cellea, Urbini, Ingusci, & Chirumbolo, 2015). These findings indicate that reward factors may affect

permanent and temporary workers differently. However, when leaders align rewards and organization goals, leaders may improve job satisfaction across all categories of employees (Collings, 2014).

Business leaders could proactively improve the wellbeing of temporary workers and bridge the gap between temporary and permanent workers (Borgogni, Consiglio, & Tecco, 2014). Borgogni et al. (2014) studied whether self-efficacy and internal work locus of control relate to job satisfaction of temporary workers in an Italian temporary employment agency (N = 471). Borgogni et al. found that temporary workers benefit from retaining internal work locus of control and self-efficacy. Cheng et al. (2014) emphasized the potency of job control in diluting the effects of job insecurity and in improving employees' vigor at work. If temporary workers perceive specific careerenhancing opportunities within their contracts, temporary workers may become equally motivated as permanent employees (Burke, Dolan, & Fiksenbaum, 2014). When business leaders encourage self-development, autonomy, and self-confidence across all categories of employees, business leaders may enhance job satisfaction.

Employees can develop self-confidence when they receive the right level of organizational support at the workplace and a fair balance between work and family (Baran, Shanock, & Miller, 2012). The trends in employee demography have increased business leaders' awareness of the need to be supportive of all categories of employees (Butts, Casper, & Yang, 2013). Mauno and Ruokolainen (2015) examined whether work-family support helps permanent and temporary Finnish nurses equally to overcome the adverse effects of work-family conflicts on job satisfaction and emotional energy at

work and home (N = 1,719). Analysis of covariance and moderated hierarchical regression indicated nonsignificant differences between permanent and temporary workers in work-family support, family-work conflict, and coworker support (Mauno & Ruokolainen, 2015). These findings indicate that permanent and temporary employees may perceive supportive rewards equally. Having examined job satisfaction of permanent and temporary employees, the next discussion focuses on gender factors.

Gender. One question that many researchers have asked is whether gender has any bearing on workplace wellbeing. Scholars have examined gender effect on job satisfaction as either control or the main variable (Wilks & Neto, 2013). However, results from these studies indicated contrasting gender effect on job satisfaction (Jackson, Alberti, & Snipes, 2014). Ghafoor (2012) examined the relationship between demographic characteristics and job satisfaction among academic staff of public and private universities in Pakistan (N = 310). Ghafoor relied on Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) to analyze data. The result revealed no significant difference in job satisfaction of academic staff based on demographic characteristics. However, Ghafoor found men experienced slightly higher satisfaction than women did and canvassed for further studies in other developing countries.

In contrast, Singhapakdi et al. (2014) studied cross-cultural gender disparity regarding job satisfaction, organizational socialization, and quality-of-work life of managers in Thailand and the United States. The authors argued that in addition to the direct effects, gender could affect job satisfaction indirectly through organizational socialization and quality of work life. The result indicated gender disparity with female

managers having lower levels of job satisfaction than male managers did in both countries. This result is consistent with findings from other recent studies (Voung & Doung, 2013; Yukawa & Arita, 2014). Females respond more to extrinsic factors such as pay, benefits, coworkers, and communication than their male counterparts do (Maamari, 2014). These findings suggest that leaders must be cautious when implementing job satisfaction enhancing policies, knowing that men and women express different emotional experiences (Yang & Guy, 2015).

Other studies indicated men and women could have the same level of job satisfaction. Burke, Koyuncu, Singh, Alayoglu, and Koyuncu (2012) studied job satisfaction of professionals in Turkey and found no gender differences in factors affecting job satisfaction. Contrary to the findings of Maamari (2014), women do not necessarily feel entitled to higher pay, and consequently, not dissatisfied with pay (Davison, 2014). The implication is evident to leaders who portray men as more committed and motivated than women.

Results of studies concerning cross-national gender differences in job satisfaction were inconsistent. Westover (2012) used nonpanel longitudinal data from the International Social Survey Program (1989-2005) to examine cross-national gender differences in job satisfaction and its determinants across select countries in Europe, the United States, Canada, Asia, and Africa. Westover found no consistent statistically significant gender difference in job satisfaction levels across these countries. Whereas gender significantly predicted job satisfaction in the United States, Austria, and Ireland in 1989, only Finland, Mexico, and Ireland showed statistically significant gender

difference in job satisfaction by 2005. Westover also found gender did not significantly moderate how reward factors relate to job satisfaction across the participating countries. Westover discussed the implication of these findings from a need perspective, urging leaders to identify gender differences in employee workplace experiences and factors affecting job satisfaction across nationalities.

Nationality. Few researchers have examined the direct effect of nationality on job satisfaction. AbdelRahman, Elamin, and Aboelmaged (2012) investigated the influence of nationality on job satisfaction of banking managers in the United Arab Emirates. The result indicated domestic managers scoring higher on both the intrinsic and the extrinsic rewards than their expatriate counterparts did. Local managers were more satisfied with pay, job characteristics, promotion opportunities, co-workers, and supervisors than expatriate managers did. These findings illustrate the challenges facing leaders of multicultural teams. Considering the effect of national culture is an implication for future research on job satisfaction of multicultural teams.

Magee and Umamaheswar (2011) examined differences in job satisfaction of white Canadian-born workers and immigrants from the Caribbean, the Philippines, South Asia, China, Portugal, the United States, and the United Kingdom. After controlling for other demographic factors, the result was statistically significant, indicating a substantial difference in job satisfaction of Canadians, the Philippines, and Chinese workers.

Drawing from *social comparison theory* in explaining these differences is inadequate, considering that these groups have different cultural dimensions. An in-depth review of

cross-cultural studies on job satisfaction could provide a more nuanced explanation of the relationship between nationality and job satisfaction.

From *Cultural Dimension theory* perspective, employees' behaviors and preferences reflect latent national cultures (Hofstede, 1984). As an embedded concept, culture amplifies national differences, although the level of analysis (country- or individual-level) continues to be a matter of intellectual contestation in cross-cultural studies (Grenness, 2012). However, business leaders must balance a complex set of issues about managing multicultural employees (Chen & Chuang, 2013).

Some researchers recommended localizing HR best practices as a panacea for the managerial challenges facing leaders of multicultural teams (Chambers, 2013). In many countries, contemporary HR practices are beginning to reflect ethical beliefs embedded in national cultures (Bi, 2012). Individuals can internalize national cultures through a social learning process that shapes their behaviors and preferences as they interact with their innate environment (Hanna, Crittenden, & Crittenden, 2013). The implication is any meaningful analysis of work-related outcomes including employee satisfaction must consider the effect of national culture and employees' social mapping.

A high degree of individuals' attitudes and behaviors reflect the entrenched social interactions with their national culture. Within *Social Identity theory*, individuals organize themselves into In-groups and Out-groups based on certain perceived characteristics (Dheer, Lenartowicz, Peterson, & Petrescu, 2014). Employees acquire 70% - 90% of their learning from informal activities and interactions that occur within these in-groups (Kim & McLean, 2014). Employees could then develop a social-

cognitive schema that guides their in-group attitudes and behaviors with a profound effect on productivity. Mitigating the unintended consequences of an informal assimilation on group members' performances require leaders implementing policies that promote effective communication and between-group integration (Okoro, 2012). Such measures are necessary because an entrenched national culture may potentially aggravate false-held in-group cultural assumptions, leading to ethnocentric behaviors among employees.

Social formation and intergroup relationship held along national ties are good examples of ethnocentric workgroups. These workgroups may depend on the involvement and initiation of employees, and may retain a strong nationalistic social communication model. Based on social identity theory, Nigerian and foreign nationals may respond differently to reward factors with profound consequences on employees' work values. Multicultural teams often hold different work values biased toward national cultures (Hjort, 2015). The enacted organizational and personal work values have implications for motivation and other task outcomes (Natarajan, 2012; Ueda & Ohzono, 2012). Parboteeah, Cullen, and Paik (2013) distinguished between intrinsic and extrinsic work values, referring intrinsic work values to the actual content of work and extrinsic to the external factors of work. National culture may become influential on employees' value preferences when entrenched.

Findings from studies in the United States and China indicated national culture significantly influence workgroup values (Lan, Okechuku, Zhang, & Cao, 2013). In a comparative study, Andreassi, Lawter, Brockerhoff, and Rutigliano (2014) examined the effect of HR practices on job satisfaction across four cultural regions (Asia, Europe,

North America, and Latin America). Hofstede's cultural dimensions served as the theoretical framework for analyzing data from 70,000 employees. Andreassi et al. conducted regression analysis and found significant differences in the relative importance of job characteristics on job satisfaction across the regions. This finding implies that beyond organizational culture, national culture contributes significantly to individuals' satisfaction with their jobs. The implication for practice is leaders in MNCs need to adapt HRM practices across their operational locations.

Employees may respond to rewards differently depending on the dimensions of their national cultures (Andreassi et al., 2014). Individualistic employees tend to respond more to intrinsic than extrinsic satisfaction, whereas collectivist employees tend to respond more to extrinsic than intrinsic satisfaction factors (Hammou, Galib, Steiger, & Mellou, 2014; Raina & Roebuck, 2014). By implication, individualistic employees could have higher levels of job satisfaction than collectivistic employees do. How individuals from large or small power distance respond to reward factors is also the subject of continuing scholarship.

Employees respond to job rewards according to the level of power distance within their national culture. Power distance expresses a cultural attitude toward inequality (Borker, 2013). Within organizations, power distance can denote the extent to which leaders are accessible to their subordinates (Yeganeh, 2013). In a high power distance culture, employees are more likely to depend on their leaders' directives than would be in a low power distance culture (Adeyemi-Bello & Lawrence, 2013). Because power is fundamental in relationships, high power distance employees are more likely to value a

good relationship with leaders than low power distance employees would do (Daniels & Greguras, 2014).

Tam and Zeng (2014) studied the relationship between job satisfaction and cultural dimension of power distance among employees working in three engineering firms in the United Arab Emirates and Saudi Arabia. Tam and Zeng analyzed data obtained from 10,948 responses using SPSS descriptive statistics, Pearson's correlation analysis, and one-way ANOVA. The result indicated that power distance index negatively correlated with facets of job satisfaction. This finding has implication for oil company leaders seeking to calibrate demographically diverse senior oil workers' satisfaction. The case is not different in countries with strong or weak uncertainty avoidance

The measure of uncertainty avoidance inherent in a national culture can influence individuals' responses toward reward factors. Uncertainty avoidance signifies the extent to which individuals within a culture accept uncertain and unknown events (Yeganeh, 2013). People who are weak in uncertainty avoidance are more tolerant of risk and uncertainty than individuals who are strong in uncertainty avoidance (Brice, 2012). Regarding job satisfaction, theory indicates that employees whose national culture is high on uncertainty avoidance are more likely to respond to intrinsic rewards than those from weak uncertainty avoidance culture (Skerlavaj, Su, & Huang, 2013).

Transition and Summary

Section 1 covered the introduction to this study. In this section, I presented the background of the study, the research problem, and the purpose statement. Presentations

on the nature of the study, the research questions, hypotheses, theoretical framework, and implications for social change also featured. Also acknowledged were the underlying assumptions, limitations, and delimitations of this study. Within the context of the theoretical framework, the in-depth review of the literature substantiated the problem statement and the significance of the study. Section 2 included the detail and the steps used to design, develop, analyze, and conduct the study. Section 3 contained the findings and recommendations for action and future research.

Section 2: The Project

Section 1 covered the background of the study. In this section, I present the steps taken to conduct this study. These steps include identifying and sampling participants, the role of the researcher, data collection procedures, and the methods used to analyze data. This section also covers discussions on ethical compliance, reliability and validity of the instrument, and data security.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational design study was to determine the relationship between employee category and facets of job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality. Employee category, gender, and nationality were the predictor variables. The MSQ short form was the instrument used for measuring the criterion variables: general, intrinsic, and extrinsic job satisfaction. The population studied was 6,600 senior employees of five IOC residents in Port Harcourt and Lagos, Nigeria. I contacted the participants through e-mails (Appendix F), requesting them to complete an online survey (Appendix A). Oil company leaders could use the information obtained from this study to improve business practice in manners that enhance aspects of job satisfaction and productivity amidst growing workforce diversity. If leaders increase job satisfaction, employees might improve personal performances and earn higher rewards. With improved rewards, employees would be increasing their support for their families and contributing toward building better communities.

Role of the Researcher

Quantitative researchers obtain numeric data to examine relationships among variables (Marais, 2012). When conducting a quantitative study, a researcher must use a reliable and valid instrument to collect data, remain objective, and remain detached from human subjects (Siemiatycki, 2012; Stich, Cipollone, Nikischer, & Weis, 2012). My role as a researcher was to compile, organize, analyze, and interpret data to test the hypotheses, answer the research questions, and present the findings in an unbiased and ethical manner. As an employee of one of the leading Nigerian IOCs, I understood my affiliation might affect a study involving job satisfaction of senior Nigerian oil workers. Maintaining the highest ethical standards at each stage of the study was critical.

Data collection was through an existing, reliable, and empirically validated instrument. I avoided personal contacts with the participants and obtained necessary permissions from Walden University Institutional Review Board (IRB), the representatives of the five IOCs, and the Psychology Vocational Research, University of Minnesota, to use the MSQ short form. Participants' education for the study was through the informed consent form and the e-mail invitation to participate. Informed consent enables research participants to understand their rights and the purpose of the study (Myers & Venable, 2014).

Participants

Only participants who met the eligibility criteria participated in this study.

Confirmation of eligibility was through a series of screening questions that excluded participants who did not assent to the informed consent. Furthermore, participants who

were less than 18 years old, or were not senior employees of the five IOCs, or were retired or retiring in the next two years, or were not working in Port Harcourt or Lagos were excluded. Identifying the eligibility criteria for study participants allows researchers to recruit the right set of participants (Donovan, McGinty, & Jacobsen, 2013; Kapp, Peters, & Oliver, 2013; Maki, Floyd, & Roberson, 2015).

Ethical recruitment of human subjects for a study is a prerequisite of valid data and logical conclusions (Greiner, 2015). Participants' recruitment process began with the permission of the leaders of the IOCs to recruit participants. The letter requesting for permission to survey employees (Appendix D) contained explanations regarding the benefit of the study and the procedure for recruiting participants in an ethical manner. Contact with potential participants was through the internal personnel and database resources of the IOCs. I had no direct access to the participants; participants' invitation to participate was through the official e-mail of the IOC representatives. By clarifying the purpose of the study (Appendix F), the expectation was participants would see the benefits of the study and respond honestly.

Participants' selection was by *proportional stratified random sampling*. Using proportional stratified random sampling allows each qualifying participant within the population to have an equal chance for selection (Leahy, 2013). Stratifying participants by employee category, gender, and nationality allowed for aligning participants to the overarching research questions. I protected participants' rights by obtaining the certificate of human participation protection from the National Institute of Health (Appendix E), Walden University's IRB permission, and ensuring the confidentiality and

anonymity of participants. Participants' data security is a critical aspect of ethical research (Ball & Medeiros, 2012). Electronic data storage was in a Symantec Endpoint Encrypted medium and hard copies in a safe; I will destroy the data after 5 years.

Estimating an accurate number of participants required conducting a power analysis. Researchers perform power analysis to determine an a priori minimum sample size of participants needed to address Type 1 and Type 2 errors (Bradley & Brand, 2013). The G*Power 3.1.9.2 version is a useful tool to conduct a power analysis for random effects multiple regression models (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2009). The result of the power analysis indicated a minimum of 54 participants was adequate to obtain 95% statistical power (Appendix G). However, I invited 360 participants, 72 from each company, to participate in the study.

Research Method and Design

Method

Researchers consider their worldviews, the nature of data required, and the overall objective of the study before making a decision to use a specific research method (Caldwell, 2013; Cascio, 2012; Houghton, Hunter, & Meskell, 2012). The quantitative research method was appropriate for the study. With quantitative methods, researchers can use numerical data for statistical analysis to reach an objective truth (Goertz & Mahoney, 2013; Marais, 2012; Walls, 2012). Quantitative researchers test hypotheses and make statistical generalizations (Dogan, 2013; Lunde, Heggen, & Strand, 2013; Teking & Kotaman, 2013). I collected survey data from senior Nigerian oil workers, statistically analyzed the data, and tested hypotheses to determine whether employee

category related to facets of job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality factors

The qualitative research method was inappropriate. Qualitative researchers explore the existence of multiple realities and seek to understand the rich meanings of phenomena (Allwood, 2012; Erlingsson & Brysiewicz, 2013; Houssemand & Meyers, 2013; Ponterotto, 2013; Sallee & Flood, 2012). However, apart from the ethical and epistemological challenges, qualitative data are unsuitable for testing hypotheses (Haegeman, Marinelli, Scapolo, Ricci, & Sokolov, 2013; Irwin, 2013; Trotter, 2012). I did not use the qualitative method because the intention was not to explore multiple realities; instead, the purpose was to test hypotheses and make statistically valid inferences.

Mixed method was also unsuitable for this study. Mixed method researchers combine quantitative and qualitative data and pursue multiple viewpoints to measure layers of phenomena (Harrison, 2013; Mayoh & Onwuegbuzie, 2013; Yoshikawa, Weisner, Kalil, & Way, 2013). However, the purpose of this study was not to combine quantitative and qualitative data to examine hypothesized relationships. Consequently, the mixed method approach was inappropriate for this study.

Research Design

A quantitative research design can be experimental, quasiexperimental, or correlational (Venkatesh et al., 2013). A correlational model was the most appropriate quantitative design for this study. The goal of a correlational design study is to examine the relationship between variables (Pichler, Varma, Yu, Beenen, & Davoudpour, 2014;

Rowe, Raudenbush, & Goldin-Meadow, 2012). When studying multifaceted job satisfaction, Chung, Rutherford, and Park (2012) used correlational design to examine relationships between variables. Similarly, I used correlational design to examine the relationship between predictor and criterion variables.

Both the experimental and the quasiexperimental designs were inappropriate. Experimental designs focus on evaluating causal relationships between variables and on randomly assigning specific treatments to observe outcomes (Gentile, Twenge, Freeman, & Campbell, 2012; Jackson & Cox, 2013; May et al., 2012). Although similar to experimental designs, quasiexperimental models compare preselected groups without randomizing treatments (Furtak, Seidel, Iverson, & Briggs, 2012; Hargreaves-Heap et al., 2012; Jaffee, Strait, & Odgers, 2012). The intent of this study was not to randomize treatments nor compare preselected groups; instead, I examined relationships among variables, which did not require experimental or quasiexperimental design.

Population and Sampling

A population refers to a targeted group of individuals or other survey elements relating to a particular phenomenon of interest to a researcher (Umar & Madugu, 2015). The targeted group of people for this study was approximately 6,600 senior oil workers from five IOCs. The combined employees of the five IOCs selected for this study totaled approximately 12,000 including 6,600 senior employees (Fapohunda, 2012; Onwe, 2014). This population of senior oil workers occupied nonmanagerial positions. Senior oil workers holding managerial positions did not participate in this study.

The characteristics of participants from this population of senior Nigerian oil workers aligned with the overarching research questions addressed in this study. Senior Nigerian oil workers represent two different categories of employment relationships prevalent in the Nigerian oil industry: permanent and temporary employees (Onwe, 2014). Nearly 60% of Nigerian oil workers are temporary employees (Fapohunda, 2012). As is often the case in the petroleum-producing developing countries, a significant number of senior Nigerian oil workers are foreigners (Ngoasong, 2014). Onwe (2014) noted that about 75% to 80% of Nigerian oil workers occupy senior-level positions. Thus, the targeted population contained the demographic variables required for this study.

The aim of randomly selecting participants is to provide statistically reliable information regarding a sample population (Dobbie & Negus, 2013; Ducey, 2012; Ferguson, 2013). Proportional stratified random sampling was the method used to select participants from the targeted population. A proportional stratified random sampling is a probabilistic sampling method suitable for selecting individuals from unequally distributed groups (Botma, Botha, & Nel, 2011). In addition to supporting the assumptions of multiple regression analysis, proportional stratification can potentially reduce sampling error (Whelan & Savva, 2013; Wilcox & Keselman, 2012). However, calculating an a priori minimum sample size was necessary for justifying the chosen sample size.

A power analysis, using G*Power 3.1.9.2 software, is useful for determining an a priori minimum sample size based on two-tailed linear multiple regression random-effect

model (Faul et al., 2009). The sample size for correlational studies depends on the alpha level, the effect size, and the power criterion that the researcher wants to achieve (Schonbrodt & Perugini, 2013). Although an effect size estimate provides an indication of the strength of a relationship between variables, the interpretation of what is a small, a medium, or a large effect size has remained inconsistent (Bosco, Aguinis, Singh, & Field, 2015). However, a metaanalytic study indicated the effect size for correlations involving job-related attitudes is closer to .38 (Bosco et al., 2015). A similar study examining differences in job satisfaction across demographic variables indicated effect size ranged between .20 and .34 (Wilkin, 2013). Further, alpha of .05 is often the borderline between statistical significance and nonsignificance in most quantitative studies (Bradley & Brand, 2013). I conducted an a priori power analysis, assuming a large effect size ($f^2 =$.35) and a Bonferroni-adjusted alpha level (.05/3 = .0167); the result indicated a minimum sample size of N = 54 participants would achieve a power of .95 for three dummy variables.

Eligible participants were (a) 18 years or older, (b) permanent or nonpermanent employees of the five IOCs, (c) located in Port Harcourt or Lagos, and (d) not retired or retiring within the next two years. Poor response to online surveys is a major concern to researchers (Rao & Pennington, 2013). With a minimum sample size of 54 and expected response rate of 37% (Agwu, 2013), 360 potential participants were invited to provide a large enough pool of participants for this study. Azeem and Akhtar (2014) is a similar correlational study that recruited 210 participants. After a short training on the use of proportional stratified random sampling and *Randbetween* function in Excel, the IOC

representative selected 72 eligible participants ($72 \times 5 = 360$) from their respective companies' electronic databases. Permanent and nonpermanent workers (employee category), male and female (gender), and Nigerians and foreigners (nationality) were the primary strata. The actual sample size for the study was 104. The real sample size compared to the estimated sample size affects the posthoc statistical power and reduces the probability of a Type II error (Lazzeroni & Ray, 2012).

Ethical Research

Participants' protection was adequate throughout the data collection process.

Ethical research requires that researchers obtain necessary approvals before collecting data in studies involving human subjects (Tamariz, Palacio, Robert, & Marcus, 2013).

The NIH certificate on ethical research and the copyright permission to use the MSQ survey instrument are presented in Appendix E, and C respectively. Walden University's approval number was 08-11-15-0287108. I also obtained the consent of the IOC leaders, although the companies' identities remained confidential.

An informed consent form provides prospective participants the opportunity to understand their rights and benefits before participating in research (Montalvo & Larson, 2014). The informed consent form was the first open page of the online survey. Only participants who read and agreed to the informed consent completed the questionnaire voluntarily and confidentially. Participants could withdraw their participation at any point by closing the browser or exiting from the survey. No participant received incentives for participating in the study.

Participants could not proceed with the survey until they answered the eligibility criteria questions. Eligibility requirements are useful for delimiting participation to only the targeted sample population (Menne-Lothmann et al., 2014). Maintaining the anonymity of participants and that of their companies by hosting the online survey on SurveyMonkey® improved ethical compliance. SurveyMonkey® is a secured web-based solution with the capability to keep participants' identity anonymous (Lalla & Ferrari, 2011). Researchers ensure retention and safekeeping of electronic data to protect participants' rights (Hudson, Guttmacher, & Collins, 2013; Raj, Cherian, & Abraham, 2013). The security of electronic data was in a Symantec Endpoint Encrypted medium.

Data Collection Instruments

I used the unmodified 1977 version of the MSQ short form instrument and a demographic questionnaire to collect data. The MSQ is a copyrighted instrument bought through Vocational Psychology Research at the University of Minnesota. Weiss et al. (1967) originally designed MSQ as a 100-item instrument measuring actual satisfaction with facets of a job. The MSQ short form resulted from choosing 20 representative items, one from each scale of the long form. A 5-point Likert scale, MSQ measures intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction, and general satisfaction. The MSQ instrument, the scoring key, and the permission to use and reprint the survey are in Appendices A, B, and C respectively, and in the TOC. Participants indicated their degree of agreement or disagreement with each of the 20 statements using the following scales: *1* = very dissatisfied; 2 = dissatisfied; 3 = neither dissatisfied nor dissatisfied; 4 =

satisfied; 5 = very satisfied. Each participant had three scores representing a score for (a) intrinsic satisfaction, (b) extrinsic satisfaction, and (c) general satisfaction.

As shown in Table 1, the intrinsic satisfaction scale consisted of 12 items that indicated ability utilization, achievement, and the opportunities to be somebody in the community while on the job. The summated score for individuals' responses to the 12 items generated an interval data, measuring intrinsic satisfaction variable (Warmbrod, 2014). Intrinsic satisfaction score ranged between 12 (low level) and 60 (high level). The extrinsic satisfaction scale was the six items showing employees' feelings about company policies and practices, quality of working conditions, and opportunities to get praise for doing a good job (Table 1). The sum of participants' responses to the six items generated an interval data, measuring extrinsic satisfaction variable. Extrinsic satisfaction scores ranged from six (low level) to 30 (high level). The sum of the responses to the instrument's 20 items gave an interval data that measured general satisfaction variable; the total scores ranged from 20 (low level) to 100 (high level).

The MSQ instrument is a valid and reliable tool to discriminate among various occupational groups (Weiss et al., 1967). Weiss et al. computed Hoyt reliability coefficient for the long form of the MSQ at two intervals: one week (N = 75) and one year (N = 115). Canonical correlation analysis of the test-retest data yielded identical significant results, indicating no test-retest effect. The norm internal consistency reliability of MSQ ranged from .84 - .91, .77 - .82, and .87 - .92 for intrinsic, extrinsic, and general job satisfaction, respectively (Echchakoui & Naji, 2013). A Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .70 is an acceptable criterion for internal consistency reliability

(Ibrahim & Perez, 2014). Recomputed Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Table 1) yielded sufficient internal consistency reliability for all job satisfaction scales.

For this study, the MSQ internal consistency was high and valid for the sampled participants. By measuring the criterion variables adequately, the MSQ instrument aligned with Herzberg's MHT (Khalilzadeh, Chiappa, Jafari, & Borujeni, 2013; Peng et al., 2014). I administered the MSQ survey instrument on an online platform hosted by SurveyMonkey® and conducted *three* hierarchical multiple regression analyses to test the relationship between the predictor and criterion variables. Raw data of the online survey is available on request. The MSQ was useful in measuring job satisfaction of Taiwanese rural healthcare workers (Chao, Jou, Liao, & Kuo, 2013), faculty members in Karachi (Saddiqui, Syed, & Hassan, 2012), and police personnel in Ekiti State, Nigeria (Adebayo & Ogunsina, 2011).

Table 1
Summary of Cronbach's Alphas of Reliability for the MSQ Short Form

Total/Subscales	N	Items	Alpha	Norm Alpha
Intrinsic satisfaction	104	12 (1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 15, 16, 20)	.80	.86
Extrinsic satisfaction	104	6 (5, 6, 12, 13, 14, 19)	.76	.80
General satisfaction	104	20	.87	.90

Note. Norm data obtained from 1,723 individuals in a variety of occupational areas were reported in the Manual for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire by Weiss et al. (1967).

Data Collection Technique

I used an online survey, hosted in SurveyMonkey[®], to collect data. Designs not considered for this study were paper-and-pencil, e-mails, postal, and social media (Bennink, Moors, & Gelissen, 2013; Fang, Wen, & Prybutock, 2014; Sanchez-Fernandez, Munoz-Leiva, & Montoro-Rios, 2012; Wang, Liu, Cheng, & Cheng, 2013). An online survey is a nonconfrontational medium for gathering objective representative data (Alwin, 2014; Schears, 2012). An online survey is easier for collecting data from a highly educated Internet-dependent sample population than other data collection techniques (Gill, Leslie, Grech, & Latour, 2013). The level of education and internet dependency of senior Nigerian oil workers were high. Moreover, an online survey is quicker to administer and more convenient for respondents than other methods of data collection (Hercberg, 2012).

Researchers have noted the concerns about attenuating response rates, multiple surveys, and data quality in online surveys (Hardigan, Succar, & Fleisher, 2012).

Besides, high start-up cost and forced answers are notable weaknesses of online surveys (Albaum et al., 2011). However, use of reminder e-mails, default settings, and reputable sender names could enhance online survey's effectiveness (Fang, Wen, & Pavur, 2012; Villar, Callegaro, & Yang, 2013). The online survey remains popular among management researchers (Chung et al., 2012; Weigold, Weigold, & Russell, 2013).

As a secured Web-based solution, SurveyMonkey® offers multiple layers of security for data privacy unlike unsecured solutions (Wells, Maschi, & Slater, 2012).

SurveyMonkey® Gold level product supports data integration in SPSS (Skinder Savic &

Skela-Savic, 2014). I created the MSQ survey instrument in SurveyMonkey® after receiving the IRB approval and posted the link to the IOCs' representatives for delivery to the participants. Participants received e-mails and reminder e-mails from their company server containing a virtual invitation to participate (Appendix F). Only eligible participants that consented completed the survey. Initially, the MSQ instrument survey hyperlink was open for 20 days. After the initial reminder e-mails on the 10th, 15th, and 19th day of the planned survey period, participants received additional reminder e-mails extending the survey for another 10 days. Conducting a pilot study was unnecessary as the study involved respondents from reputable companies and the use of an existing instrument. Firm reputation influences participants' willingness to participate in a survey (Fang et al., 2012).

The survey instrument (Appendix A) consisted two parts. The first part focused on participants' demographic data including gender, employee category, and nationality. These demographic data were dummy-coded. Table 2 contains a listing of the possible values for each of the dummy predictor variables. The second part consisted of 20 questions from the MSQ instrument measuring intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction, and general satisfaction of senior oil workers in Nigeria. I collected cross-sectional data to examine relationships among variables. Cross-sectional surveys provide data at a point in time (Khalifeh, Hargreaves, Howard, & Birdthistle, 2013).

Table 2

Independent Dummy Variables and Possible Values

	Permanent employee category	Nonpermanent employee category	Male gender	Female gender	Nigerian national	Foreign national
Employee category: Permanent	0	0	0	0	0	0
Employee category: Nonpermanent	0	1	0	0	0	0
Gender: Male	0	0	0	0	0	0
Gender: Female	0	0	0	1	0	0
Nationality: Nigerian	0	0	0	0	0	0
Nationality: Foreigner	0	0	0	0	0	1

Data Analysis

For this study, the SPSS Grad Pack 21 software was a useful tool for analyzing and explaining data regarding the relationship between the predictor and the criterion variables. The SPSS is a popular, integrated, effective, and efficient tool for analyzing large data sets that predict linear relationships between multiple predictor variables and criterion variables (Atkins, Baldwin, Zheng, Gallop, & Neighbors, 2013). However, SPSS is relatively weak for analyzing *nonlinear* relationships (Wilcox & Keselman, 2012). I computed means and standard deviations to describe data, constructed scatterplots to identify possible outliers, and tested the significance of the hypothesized relationships. These descriptive statistics provided a visual linkage between participants' responses and the variables in this study.

I conducted three hierarchical multiple regression (HMR) models to test the hypotheses and answer the research questions. Model 1 was for testing the level of relationship between employee category and general job satisfaction after controlling for

gender and nationality factors. Model 2 was for investigating the relationship between employee category and intrinsic job satisfaction after controlling for senior Nigerian oil workers' gender and nationality. Model 3 was for examining whether employee category predicted extrinsic job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality factors.

I conducted the significance test for the three multiple correlation coefficients based on the assumptions for the random-effect model. The random-effect model leads to an unbiased conclusion when the variables are multivariately normally distributed, linear, and homoscedastic (Drummond & Vowler, 2012; Wilcox & Keselman, 2012). The normal probability plot of the regression-standardized residuals indicated the variables were multivariately normally distributed. Linearity, homoscedasticity, or otherwise of data is noticeable on a scatter plot, and potential violation are correctable using bootstrapping procedures (Ng & Wilcox, 2012; Zhang, 2012). Potential violation of one or more assumptions required conducting 1,000 bootstrapping procedures to approximate the distribution of sample data. Variance inflation factors (VIF) provided basis for assessing multicollinearity of the predictor variables. All the VIF values were less than 10. A VIF value of less than 10 indicates no multicollinearity (Field, 2013).

Data coding involved dummy coding of employee category, gender, and nationality. Dummy coding is a process of assigning numerical values to qualitative variables (Sharma, Mittal, & Khurana, 2014; Singh, 2014). The value of each of these categorical dummy variables was 1 or 0, representing the two possible categories of each dummy variable. The dummy coding operation resulted into three predictor dummy variables; where permanent employee category, male gender, and Nigerian national were

the baseline variables (with values 0). Nonpermanent employee category, female gender, and foreign national were the three dummy variables (with value 1). Wilrycx, Croon, Van den Broek, & van Nieuwenhuizen (2014) suggested adopting listwise deletion procedure and using useable responses as a good approach for addressing missing data. I conducted a listwise data deletion and used only useable responses that had complete information in all fields for this study.

Table 3 shows the (a) research questions, (b) null hypotheses, and (c) statistical tests for the study. I performed three HMR analyses to regress each of the three criterion variables on separate blocks of the predictor variables. The HMR analysis is appropriate for modeling relationships between two or more variables that have layers of variability (Diaz-Fernandez, Gonzalez-Rodriguez, & Pawlak, 2014; Koyuncu, Burke, & Wolpin, 2012). Apart from serving as proxies for qualitative variables in a regression model, HMR analyses with dummy variables are useful for examining mean differences between two or more nested categorical predictor variables across criterion variables (Constantine, 2012; Ren & Xiao, 2012; Singh, 2014).

Researchers enter predictor variables sequentially into hierarchical regression models based on theory or purpose of the study (Chung et al., 2012; Frimpong & Wilson, 2013). I entered the predictor variables cumulatively into a regression model in layers dictated by the purpose of this study. Entering gender in Step 1 and nationality in Step 2 allowed for isolating the potential influence of these control variables on the overall model. Adding the control variables sequentially in a regression model increases the reliability of findings regarding relationships among variables (Ganesh & Ganesh, 2014).

Employee category, which is the main predictor variable was entered in Step 3 of the regression model.

The regression coefficient (R^2) is useful for assessing the overall model fit in explaining variations in the criterion variables (Cheng, Shalabh, & Garg, 2014). Posthoc output parameters for the power analysis based on 104 actual sample size indicated a lower critical R^2 value of .001 and an upper critical R^2 value of .11. The null hypothesis is acceptable when the sample R^2 is between .001 and .11 (Faul et al., 2009). For the three models, the R^2 between predictor and criterion variables were .06, .04 and .05 for Model 1, Model 2, and Model 3 respectively. I examined the effect size of the differences made by adding new predictors to each of the hierarchical models using the change statistics, comprising R^2 change and the F change test. As the overall models were nonsignificant, examining the contribution of each predictor variable to the overall model based on t test statistic was plausible. To control Type 1 error in multiple models, researchers often use the Bonferroni-adjusted significance levels (Zhang, Chen, & Pfeiffer, 2013). The two-tailed tests and the Bonferroni-adjusted significance level of $\alpha = .0167$ ($p = \alpha/n = .05/3$) were used to test each of the three hypotheses.

The MHT pertains to the comparative reward preferences that individuals make and their associated levels of satisfaction (Herzberg, 2003). The data used in this study represented participants' feelings about their present jobs. The score for each item in the MSQ survey data reflected senior Nigerian oil workers' level of satisfaction as a function of employee category, gender, and nationality. If MHT were valid for a sample population, employees' general satisfaction would tend to improve when employees

experience higher level of intrinsic satisfaction than when employees experience extrinsic satisfaction (Tuwei, Matelong, Boit, & Tallman, 2013). As shown in this study, demographic groups that related significantly higher with intrinsic satisfaction indicated higher general satisfaction than the groups that related higher with extrinsic satisfaction. Consequently, the result of the descriptive statistics conducted in this study confirmed the postulations of MHT about reward factors and employees' job satisfaction.

Table 3

Research Questions, Null Hypotheses, and Data Analysis Plan

Research question	Related null hypothesis	Data element: Predictor variables: Nominal data	Data elements: Criterion variables: Interval data	Statistical approach
RQ1: Is there a relationship between employee category and general job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers?	H ₀ 1: There is no relationship between employee category and general job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers.	(a) Employees' job category (predictor) (b) Gender (control) (c) Nationality (control)	MSQ instrument intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction scores (criterion)	Hierarchical multiple regression analyses with dummy variables
RQ2: Is there a relationship between employee category and <i>intrinsic</i> job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers?	<i>H</i> ₀ 2: There is no relationship between employee category and <i>intrinsic</i> job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers.	(a) Employees' job category (predictor) (b) Gender (control) (c) Nationality (control)	MSQ instrument intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction scores	Hierarchical multiple regression analyses with dummy variables
RQ3: Is there a relationship between employee category and extrinsic job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers?	<i>H</i> ₀ 3: There is no relationship between employee category and <i>extrinsic</i> job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers.	(a) Employees' job category (predictor)(b) Gender (control)(c) Nationality (control)	MSQ instrument intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction scores	Hierarchical multiple regression analyses with dummy variables

Study Validity

Instrument Reliability

A quantitative study is replicable if the data collection instrument is reliable (Wahyuni, 2012). Instrument reliability refers to the internal consistency of the measures across constructs and over time in repeated trials (Maharani, Troena, & Noermijati, 2013). For the MSQ subscales, a 1-week and a 1-year retest showed a high internal consistency; Hoyt reliability coefficient ranged from .84 - .91, .77 - .82, and .87 - .92 for intrinsic, extrinsic, and general job satisfaction, respectively (Weiss et al., 1967). I reexamined the interitem reliability of the instrument based on responses from sampled participants. Researchers could revalidate previously validated instruments (Flannery, Resnick, Galik, Lipscomb, & McPhaul, 2012). The result indicated Cronbach's alpha reliability for intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction were .80, .76, and .87 respectively. A reliable instrument is free from transient error and item-specific factor error (Le, Schmidt, & Putka, 2009).

To test the predictive power of the factors and assess the associated reliability of the study, I computed the multiple coefficients of determination (R^2) and the adjusted R^2 of the regression model. The R^2 provides a useful statistic for measuring a model's goodness of fit (Cheng et al., 2014). The Bonferroni-adjusted alpha level of .0167 was the criterion for rejecting or accepting the ability of the predictor variables to explain the behavior of the criterion variables for each hypothesis tested.

Validity

Internal validity. Researchers must deal with threats to internal validity. Internal validity is the degree to which scores on an instrument leads to a meaningful conclusion (Alumran, Hou, & Hurst, 2012). Often used in experimental studies, internal validity addresses the validity of causal relationships (Rahman & Post, 2012). In contrast, the purpose of this study was not to examine causality but to determine relationships among variables.

External validity. External validity pertains to the degree to which results of a study are generalizable to other populations and settings (Jimenez-Buedo & Miller, 2010). Using a representative random sample from the population of interest is critical to avoiding a threat to external validity (Linley & Hughes, 2013). Drawing a sample from a diverse group of participants enhances representation, narrows confidence interval, and increases the generalizability of findings to the larger population (Fritz, Scherndl, & Kuhberger, 2012). As applied to the larger population of senior Nigerian oil workers, I mitigated threats to external validity by employing proportional stratified sampling method. Proportional stratified sampling method supports *self-weighting* of samples in each stratum, reduces the variance of the multivariate estimates, and improves the generalizability of the findings to a larger population (Tipton, 2013).

Traditionally, instrument validity can be in three forms: content validity, criterion-related validity (also known as predictive or concurrent validity), and construct validity.

Content validity measures the degree to which items of the instrument are good representatives of the theoretical content domain (Newman, Lim, Pineda, 2013; Yusoff

&Ramayah, 2012). I assessed content validity by examining the fit between the theoretical definition of the underlying constructs and the empirical measures. The MSQ contains variables (intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction) that statistically explain the underlying theoretical constructs of job satisfaction (Brigham, Lumpkin, Payne, & Zachary, 2014; Khalilzadeh et al., 2013). Criterion-related validity describes how closely the instrument or measurement relates to other constructs (Dellinger & Leech, 2007). The MSQ short form achieved criterion-related validity. The general satisfaction scale correlated with Job Description Index scale and measures of job satisfaction (Omolayo & Oluwafemi, 2012).

The MSQ instrument has also demonstrably achieved construct validity by measuring employees' job satisfaction (Khalilzadeh et al., 2013). As the unifying concept of validity, construct validity pertains to the degree to which an instrument measures the desired theoretical construct (Colliver, Conlee, & Verhulst, 2012; Newton, 2012). As with criterion-related validity, Weiss et al. (1967) posited discriminant validity of MSQ was a test of its construct validity. Discriminant validity is the extent to which measures of different constructs are unrelated (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015). Weiss et al. showed that the correlation between MSQ scales and other types of *satisfactoriness* scales were negative and ranged between -.11 and -.13, indicating that less than 2% of the variance was common between any scale of MSQ and other types of satisfactoriness.

Statistical conclusion validity. The G*Power 3.1.9.2 was used to address the statistical validity of the findings based on the statistical power of .95 and expected effect size of .35. Statistical power, which is the probability of rejecting a null hypothesis when

the alternative hypothesis is true, depends on the sample and actual effect sizes (Hong & Park, 2012). Examination of the residuals is a statistical approach for assessing the validity of a study's findings and conclusions (Perez, Amaro, & Arriola, 2014). I plotted the residuals and conducted the 1,000-bootstrapped procedure to correct the potential violation of some of the assumptions required for the regression analysis. Conducting a bootstrapping process is useful for preventing Type 1 errors (Jonsson & Jeppesen, 2013). A 95% confidence is that the bootstrapped confidence interval for the unstandardized betas constructed for this sample will contain the actual value of the population parameters.

Transition and Summary

Section 2 included elements of the research method and design. Discussions in this section focused on the purpose statement, the role of the researcher, and the research participants. Furthermore, this section contained the description of the research method and design, the population and sampling procedures, and the ethical considerations. Also described were the instrument and technique for collecting and organizing data as well as the techniques for analyzing. The reliability and validity of the study received attention from the context of MSQ instrument, power analysis, and the examination of the residuals of the variables. In Section 3, I relayed an overview of the research study, the study findings, the application to professional practice, the potential implications for social change, the recommendations for actions and research, and my personal reflections regarding the research study.

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

Introduction

Overview of Study

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational design study was to examine whether employee category has any bearing on facets of job satisfaction of senior Nigerian oil workers after controlling for gender and nationality factors.

Demographically diverse employees tend to have an inconsistent work outcome (Bockerman & Ilmakunnas, 2012). Low productivity is a general business problem facing the Nigerian oil industry (Ajayi & Abimbola, 2013). Having knowledge about the relationship between employee category, gender, and nationality and facets of job satisfaction could potentially assist IOC leaders to solve specific business problems regarding job satisfaction of demographically diverse senior Nigerian employees.

I collected, analyzed, and interpreted data relevant to addressing three research questions. Is there a relationship between employee category and general job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers? Is there a relationship between employee category and intrinsic job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers? Is there a relationship between employee category and extrinsic job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers?

I tested the following hypotheses that reflected the research questions:

 H_01 : There is no relationship between employee category and general job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers.

 H_a 1: There is a relationship between employee category and general job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers.

 $H_02_{\rm O}$: There is no relationship between employee category and intrinsic job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers.

 H_a2 : There is a relationship between employee category and intrinsic job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers.

 H_03 : There is no relationship between employee category and extrinsic job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers.

 H_a 3: There is a relationship between employee category and extrinsic job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers.

Summary of Findings

The functional form of the HMR models used in this study was $Y = a + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + b_3X_3...b_nX_n$. The Y variable represents the three dependent variables: general job satisfaction (GJS), intrinsic job satisfaction (IJS), and extrinsic job satisfaction (EJS).

The X independent variables were gender (G), Nationality (N), and employee category (EC). Consequently, the functional form of Model 1 was GJS = $a + b_1G + b_2N + b_3EC$. The form of Model 2 was IJS = $a + b_1G + b_2N + b_3EC$ and Model 3 was in the form of EJS = $a + b_1G + b_2N + b_3EC$.

The three regression models were inadequate in significantly predicting facets of job satisfaction. Model 1 did not significantly predict general job satisfaction, $R^2 = .060$, F(1, 100) = 5.912, p = .029. The low R^2 (.060) value indicated the linear combination of gender, nationality, and employee category factors explained 6% of the variation in general job satisfaction. The results showed senior Nigerian oil workers' general job satisfaction tends to increase as gender and nationality differ, and tends to decrease as employee category differs. I accepted the null hypothesis (H_01) based on these findings.

Model 2 also did not significantly predict intrinsic job satisfaction, $R^2 = .043$, F(1, 100) = 3.755, p = .076. The R^2 (.043) value showed that approximately 4% of the variation in intrinsic job satisfaction is explainable by the linear combination of gender, nationality, and employee category factors. From the results, senior Nigerian oil workers' intrinsic job satisfaction tends to increase as employee gender and nationality differ, and tends to decrease as employee category changes. Based on these findings, I accepted the null hypothesis (H_02) of no significant link between the predictor and criterion variables.

Finally, Model 3 did not significantly predict extrinsic job satisfaction, $R^2 = .051$, F(1, 100) = 5.129, p = .041. The R^2 (.051) value indicated approximately 5% of the variation in extrinsic job satisfaction is explainable by the linear combination of gender, nationality, and employee category factors. The result suggests senior Nigerian oil

workers' extrinsic job satisfaction tends to increase as employee gender and nationality differ, and tends to decrease as employee category changes. Based on these results, I did not reject the null hypothesis (H_03).

Presentation of the Findings

This study focused on examining the relationship between employee category and facets of job satisfaction after controlling for the gender and the nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers. I examined if being a permanent, nonpermanent, male, female, Nigerian, or foreign worker had any bearing on senior oil workers' intrinsic, extrinsic, and general job satisfaction. Data collected from respondents to the online survey hosted in SurveyMonkey® provided the basis for the research findings. Only 104 (29%) of the 360 participants selected through a proportional stratified random sampling completed the online survey. Handling missing data involved a listwise deletion of incomplete responses to the questionnaire.

The SPSS Version 21.0 was the software for analyzing the survey data.

Descriptive statistics (frequency distributions, means, and standard deviations)

constituted the foundation for summarizing the demographic and MSQ survey scores.

Three hierarchical multiple regression analyses were suitable to examine the correlation between the predictor variables (employee category, gender, and nationality) and the criterion variables (general, intrinsic, and extrinsic job satisfaction). I examined the assumptions of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and noncollinearity.

Descriptive Statistics

Respondents' demography. Frequencies and percentages for categorical predictor dummy variables are as shown in Table 4 and Table 5. Table 4 reports the frequencies and percentages associated with gender, nationality, and employee category. The sample consisted of 104 respondents, more than two-thirds of them were men (n = 73), and the rest were women (n = 31). The majority of respondents (73.08%) were permanent employees, and 26.92% were nonpermanent. Approximately 87% of the participants were Nigerians, and the remaining participants (13%) were foreigners.

Table 5 reports the frequencies and percentages associated with age, location, job tenure, educational level, and the profession of participants. Most respondents were 30 to 40 years old (63.46%) and 41 to 50 years (28.85%). The distribution of participants' location was relatively even across Lagos (52.88%) and Port Harcourt (46.15%). Most participants (91%) had worked with their companies for 15 years or less. Ninety-seven percent of participants had bachelor or higher degrees. The sampled respondents represented different professionals: finance (32.69%), engineering (25.96%), geosciences (13.46%), human resources (13.46%), and others (11.54%).

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for Demographic Variables

Variable	N	%
Gender		
Female	31	29.81
Male	73	70.19
Nationality		
Nigerian	90	86.54
Asians	2	1.92
Europeans	8	7.69
Others	3	2.88
Employee category		
Permanent	76	73.08
Nonpermanent	28	26.92

Note: N = 104. N < 104 and percentage < 100% indicate missing data

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for Background Characteristics

Variable	N	%
Age		
Under 30 years	2	1.92
30 - 40 years	66	63.46
41 - 50 years	30	28.85
51 - 58 years Location	6	5.77
	55	<i>5</i> 2.00
Lagos Port Harcourt Job tenure	48	52.88 46.15
0 to 5 years	30	28.85
5 to 10 years	41	39.42
11 to 15 years	24	23.08
16 to 25 years	7	6.73
26 and above years Educational level	2	1.92
Secondary/high school certificate	2	1.92
Bachelor's degree	29	27.88
Master or higher degree/professional Profession	72	69.23
Finance	34	32.69
Construction engineering	12	11.54
Petroleum engineering	15	14.42
Logistics/security/HSE	7	6.73
Geosciences/geophysics	14	13.46
Information systems	5	4.81
Human resources	14	13.46

Note: N = 104. N < 104 and percentage <100% indicate missing data

Preliminary analysis of employees' satisfaction. Table 6 shows the descriptive statistics calculated for the three criterion variables: intrinsic, extrinsic, and general job satisfaction scores. Intrinsic job satisfaction score was the sum of 12 items on the MSQ scale. These scores ranged from 33 to 60 (M = 48.23, SD = 4.862, Cronbach's $\alpha = .797$). Extrinsic job satisfaction score was the sum of six items on the scale; these scores ranged from 10 to 30 (M = 21.89, SD = 3.736, Cronbach's $\alpha = .756$). General job satisfaction score was the sum of the 20 items on the scale, ranging from 54 to 100 (M = 77.88, SD = 8.629, Cronbach's $\alpha = .874$). On average, the sample reported a relatively high level of general, intrinsic, and extrinsic job satisfaction with mean scores above the midpoint of each scale (M = 77.88 versus 60; M = 48.23 versus 36; M = 21.89 versus 18 respectively). Table 6

Descriptive Statistics for Dependent Variables

Variables	Items	Min	Max	M	SD	α
Intrinsic job satisfaction	12	33	60	48.23	4.862	.797
Extrinsic job satisfaction	6	10	30	21.89	3.736	.756
General job satisfaction	20	54	100	77.88	8.629	.874

Tables 7 to 9 present the mean, standard deviation, and the 95% confidence interval (CI) of the criterion variables across the predictor variables. Female oil workers' average score for intrinsic and general satisfaction were higher relative to male workers, although men scored higher than women did in extrinsic satisfaction (Table 7). Female oil workers' standard deviations also tended to be less than were their male counterparts. These results indicated women were relatively more satisfied with their present jobs than

men were (M = 78.03, SD = 8.46). The CI showed a 95% chance is the population means of female oil workers lie within the range of 46.83 to 50.27 for intrinsic, 20.47 to 23.08 for extrinsic, and 74.93 to 81.14 for general job satisfaction. For male oil workers, a 95% chance is the population means lie between 46.94 and 49.25, 21.05 and 22.84, and 75.77 and 79.85 for intrinsic, extrinsic, and general job satisfaction respectively.

Unexpectedly, the mean scores of foreign nationals were higher across all facets of job satisfaction than were their Nigerian colleagues (Table 8). Overall, foreign nationals were relatively generally more satisfied with their jobs than were Nigerian nationals (M = 79.23, SD = 6.821). Also indicated in Table 8 is a 95% chance the population means of foreign nationals for intrinsic, extrinsic, and general job satisfaction likely lie within intervals of 46.46 to 51.54, 20.48 to 24.29, and 75.11 to 83.35 respectively. However, for Nigerian nationals, a 95% chance is the population means lie between 47.09 and 49.15, 21.03 and 22.62, and 75.83 and 79.53 for intrinsic, extrinsic, and general job satisfaction respectively.

In relation to employee category (Table 9), the mean scores of permanent employees were higher across all facets of job satisfaction measures than were the scores of nonpermanent employees. Permanent employees were generally more satisfied with their present jobs than were nonpermanent employees (M = 78.89, SD = 7.754). Given the mean scores are lower than the upper bound of the CI, a 95% chance is the population means for intrinsic, extrinsic, and general job satisfaction of permanent oil workers lie within 47.65 to 49.67, 21.52 to 23.1, and 77.12 to 80.67 respectively. Conversely, nonpermanent oil workers' population mean scores for intrinsic, extrinsic, and general

job satisfaction have 95% chances of being between 44.81 and 49.33, 19.13 and 22.30, and 71.11 and 79.10 respectively.

Table 7

Means, Standard Deviation, and Confidence Interval for Intrinsic, Extrinsic, and General Job Satisfaction by Gender

	-	M	lale	Female			
	M	SD	95% CI	M	SD	95% CI	
Intrinsic satisfaction	48.10	4.961	[46.94, 49.25]	48.55	4.682	[46.83, 50.27]	
Extrinsic satisfaction	21.95	3.837	[21.05, 22.84]	21.77	3.547	[20.47, 23.08]	
General satisfaction	77.81	8.757	[75.77, 79.85]	78.03	8.46	[74.93, 81.14]	

Table 8

Means, Standard Deviation, and Confidence Interval for Intrinsic, Extrinsic, and General Job Satisfaction by Nationality

		Nig	erians		Foreigners			
_	<i>M SD</i> 95% CI		M	SD	95% CI			
Intrinsic satisfaction	48.12	4.959	[47.09, 49.15]	49.00	4.203	[46.46, 51.54]		
Extrinsic satisfaction	21.82	3.823	[21.03, 22.62]	22.38	3.150	[20.48, 24.29]		
General satisfaction	77.68	8.872	[75.83, 79.53]	79.23	6.821	[75.11, 83.35]		

Table 9

Means, Standard Deviation, and Confidence Interval for Intrinsic, Extrinsic, and General Job Satisfaction by Employee Category

		Permanent				Nonpermanent			
	M	<i>M SD</i> 95% CI			M	SD	95% CI		
Intrinsic satisfaction	48.66	4.423	[47.65, 49.67]		47.07	5.824	[44.81, 49.33]		
Extrinsic satisfaction	22.33	3.527	[21.52, 23.13]		20.71	4.090	[19.13, 22.30]		
General satisfaction	78.89	7.754	[77.12, 80.67]		75.11	10.30	[71.11, 79.10]		

Testing the Assumptions of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis

I conducted three HMR to answer three research questions and test three hypotheses. The purpose of the study was to assess whether employee category significantly predicted facets of job satisfaction, after controlling gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers. Using HMR required data meeting certain assumptions: multivariate normally distributed linear, homoscedastic, and the independence of residuals. To ascertain the degree to which the data met the assumptions of HMR required developing a normality probability (P-P) plot and a scatterplot of the standardized residuals for each of the criterion variables. Also examined was multicollinearity of the predictor variables.

Figures 1 to 3 are the P-P plots of the regression standardized residuals for general, intrinsic, and extrinsic job satisfaction scores. The data points lay in a straight diagonal line from bottom left to top right, indicating no violation of normality assumption. Figure 4 to 6 are the scatterplot of the standardized residuals for each of the criterion variables. The scatterplot showed a systematic pattern of the distribution of the

standardized residuals, indicating a potential violation of one or more assumptions. I computed 1,000 bootstrapping samples procedure at 95% bias-corrected and accelerated CIs to improve the CIs and the significance test of the parameter estimates.

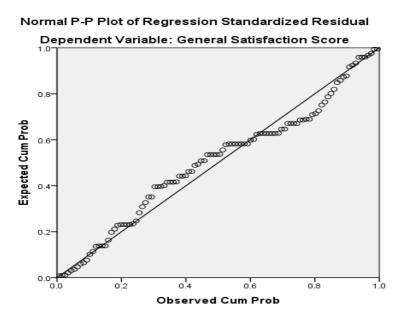


Figure 1. Normal P-P Plot of the regression standardized residual

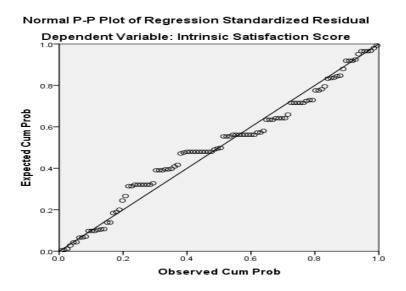


Figure 2. Normal P-P Plot of the regression standardized residual

Figure 3. Normal P-P Plot of the regression standardized residual

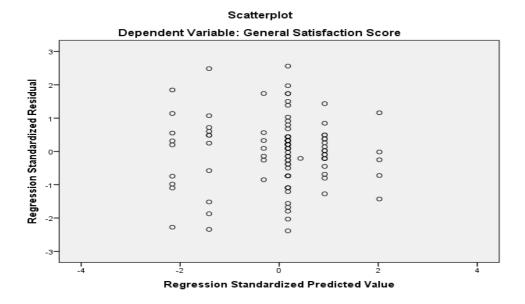


Figure 4. Scatterplot between the residuals and predicted values

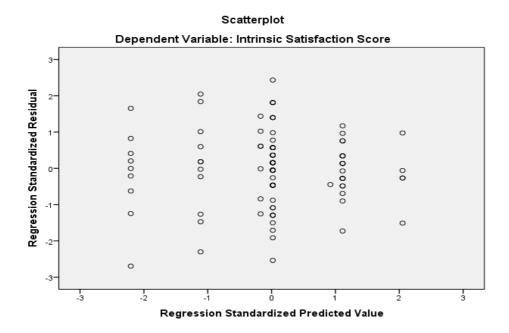


Figure 5. Scatterplot between the residuals and predicted values

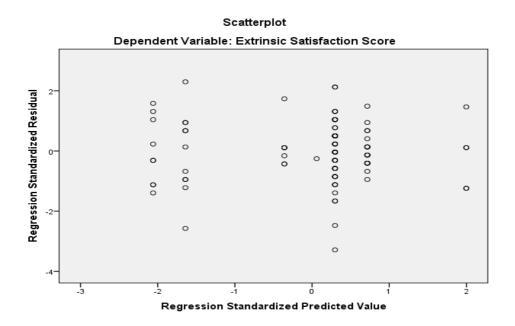


Figure 6. Scatterplot between the residuals and predicted values

Table 10 and Table 11 present the collinearity statistics and the correlation coefficient of the predictor variables. The results indicated the collinearity statistics and the bivariate correlations were within the allowable values. The observed variance inflation factor (VIF) values from all predictor variables were less than 10, and the tolerance values were below 1.0, indicating an absence of multicollinearity (Field, 2013).

Table 10

Collinearity Coefficients for the Independent Variables

Variable	Collinearity statistics						
	Tolerance	VIF					
Gender	.910	1.099					
Nationality	.857	1.167					
Employee category	.860	1.163					

Note: N = 104.

Table 11

Correlation Coefficients for the Independent Variables

Variable	Gender	Nationality	Employee category
Gender	1.00	183	.173
Nationality	183	1.00	.295
Employee category	.173	.295	1.00

Note: N = 104.

Inferential Statistics

Research question 1 (model 1). I conducted HMR analysis to examine whether employee category predicted general job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality factors. Employee category, gender, and nationality were the predictor variables, whereas general job satisfaction was the criterion variable. Procedure for running the regression model involved entering gender in Step 1, nationality in Step 2, and employee category in Step 3. Using the Bonferroni approach for controlling Type 1 error, a p-value of less than .0167 (.05/3 = .0167) was required for significance.

Table 12 contains the results of the HMR analysis. In step 1, gender did not significantly explain the variance in general job satisfaction, $R^2 = .000$, F(1, 102) = .015, p = .905. Adding nationality in step 2 did not improve the model as nationality only explained an additional 0.4% of the variance in general job satisfaction, R^2 change = .004, F(1, 101) = .401, p = .435. Including employee category in step 3 improved the model marginally by explaining additional 5.6% of the variance in general job satisfaction, R^2 change = .056, F(1, 100) = 5.912, p = .029. The result indicates that senior Nigerian oil workers' general satisfaction would depend largely on changes in employee category. However, the overall model was a poor fit, given the low R^2 (.060) value that indicates 6% of variations in general job satisfaction are explainable by the linear combination of gender, nationality, and employee category factors.

As shown in Table 12, gender, B = 1.57 [-2.17, 5.25], p = .363, nationality, B = 3.89 [-.85, 9.20], p = .132, and employee category, B = -4.92 [-9.25, -1.00], p = .029, did not significantly predict senior oil workers' general job satisfaction. For every unit

change in gender, female senior oil workers would be 1.57 units higher than the male would in general satisfaction, if other variables remain constant. Foreign nationals' general satisfaction would be 3.89 units higher compared to Nigerian nationals for every unit variation in employee nationality, keeping gender and employee category constant. For every unit change in employee category, nonpermanent senior oil workers' general satisfaction would be -4.92 units lower than would permanent workers, holding gender and nationality constant. The resulting regression equation is: General satisfaction = 78.25 + 1.57(Gender) + 3.89(Nationality) - 4.92(Employee category).

The *t*-test associated with the *B*-values of the predictor variables provided additional insight regarding the contribution of each predictor variable to the overall model. Employee gender, t(100) = 0.820, p = .363, employee nationality, t(100) = 1.431, p = .132, and employee category, t(100) = -2.431, p = .029 contributed insignificantly in predicting general job satisfaction. Both the *B*-values and the *t*-test statistics indicated being a female and a foreign national positively contributed to general satisfaction, and being a nonpermanent employee contributed negatively to general satisfaction. I accepted the null hypothesis (H1₀) of no significant relationship, p > .0167 based on these results.

Table 12

Hierarchical Linear Regression of Predictors of General Job Satisfaction, with 95% Bias Corrected and Accelerated Confidence Intervals

	R	R^2	R^2_{change}	В	SE_{B}	β	t	p	BCa 9	95% CI
									Lower	Upper
Step 1	.01	.00	.00							
Constant				77.81	1.00		76.67	.001	75.95	79.69
Gender				0.22	1.82	.01	0.12	.905	-3.72	3.97
Step 2	.06	.00	.00							
Constant				77.54	1.13		70.15	.001	75.39	79.57
Gender				0.44	1.87	.02	0.23	.813	-3.82	4.31
Nationality				1.66	2.15	.06	0.63	.435	-2.62	6.44
Step 3	.24	.06	.06							
Constant				78.25	1.12		69.96	.001	76.16	80.41
Gender				1.57	1.72	.08	0.82	.363	-2.17	5.25
Nationality				3.89	2.52	.15	1.43	.132	-0.85	9.20
Employee category				-4.92	2.23	25	-2.43	.029	-9.25	-1.00

Note. N = 104. p > .0167 (2-tailed). B = unstandardized regression coefficients; $SE_B = \text{standardized error of the coefficient}$; $\beta = \text{standardized coefficient}$. Confidence intervals (CI) and standard errors based on 1,000 bootstrap samples.

Research question 2 (model 2). I conducted HMR analysis to predict intrinsic job satisfaction (criterion variable) of senior Nigerian oil workers from employee category while controlling for gender and nationality factors (predictor variables). As was the case in Model 1, the procedure involved entering gender in block one, nationality

in block two, and employee category in block three. The model was not a good fit for predicting intrinsic job satisfaction of senior Nigerian oil workers, p > .0167.

In step 1, gender explained 0.2% of the variance in intrinsic job satisfaction, $R^2 = .002$, F(1, 102) = 0.187, p = .666. Adding nationality increased the proportion of the variance in intrinsic job satisfaction explained to 0.7%, indicating nationality accounted for additional 0.5%, R^2 change = .005, F(1, 101) = 0.485, p = .488. The final model still showed a weak ability (4.3%) to explain the variance in intrinsic job satisfaction with employee category accounting for additional 3.6%, $R^2 = .036$, F(1, 100) = 3.755, p = .055. These results suggest the intrinsic satisfaction of senior Nigerian oil workers would largely depend on employee category factor. The overall model was a poor fit because of the low R^2 (.043) value, indicating 4.3% of variation in intrinsic job satisfaction was explainable by gender, nationality, and employee category factors.

Individually (see Table 13), gender (B = 1.096[-1.14, 3.36], p = .288), nationality (B = 2.039[-0.881, 5.151], p = .172), and employee category (B = -2.231[-4.953, 0.383], p = .076), were nonsignificant predictors of senior oil workers' intrinsic job satisfaction. Holding other factors constant, for a unit change in gender, female workers would be 1.10 units higher in intrinsic satisfaction compared to male workers. Similarly, foreign nationals would have 2.039 units higher in intrinsic satisfaction relative to Nigerian nationals, other factors remaining constant. In contrast, a unit change in employee category would decrease nonpermanent employees' intrinsic satisfaction by -2.231 compared to permanent employees, holding other factors constant. The resulting

regression equation is as follows: Intrinsic job satisfaction = 48.25 + 1.10(Gender) + 2.04(Nationality) – 2.23(Employee category).

Analyzing the t-test associated to these B-values provided more insight into the relative contribution of each predictor variable to the overall model fit. In Model 2, the contributions of employee gender, t(100) = 1.011, p = .288, employee nationality, t(100) = 1.318, p = .172, and employee category, t(100) = -1.938, p = .076 were nonsignificant. The B-values and the t-test statistics indicated being a female or a foreign national had a positive contribution to intrinsic satisfaction, whereas being a nonpermanent employee had a negative effect on intrinsic satisfaction. With these results, I accepted the null hypothesis (H20) of no significant relationship, p > .0167. These findings imply that demographic variables including gender, nationality, and employee category have no statistically significant influence on the intrinsic satisfaction of senior Nigerian oil workers.

Research question 3 (model 3). I conducted an HMR analysis to assess whether employee category predicted extrinsic job satisfaction, controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers. Employee category, gender, and nationality were the predictor variables; extrinsic job satisfaction was the criterion variable. The procedure entailed loading gender in Step 1, nationality in Step 2, and employee category in Step 3 of the regression model. However, Model 3 was not a good fit for predicting extrinsic job satisfaction, p > .0167.

In step one, gender did not significantly explain extrinsic job satisfaction, $R^2 = .000$, F(102) = 0.045, p = .832. Including nationality in step 2 did not improve the model

meaningfully, explaining only an additional 0.2% of the variance in extrinsic job satisfaction, R^2 change = .002, F(1, 101) = 0.222, p = .639. Adding employee category in step 3 marginally improved the proportion (5.1%) of variance explained by the model. In particular, employee category explained additional 4.9% of the variance, R^2 change = .049, F(1, 100) = 5.129, p = .026. These results indicate that senior Nigerian oil workers' level of extrinsic satisfaction would depend largely on changes in employee category. However, the low R^2 (.051) value of the overall model, indicating approximately 5.1% of variations in extrinsic satisfaction was explainable by the linear combination of gender, nationality, and employee category showed the model was a poor fit.

As shown in Table 14, gender, B = 0.354[-0.954, 1.645], p = .675, nationality, B = 1.439[-0.681, 3.863], p = .206, and employee category, B = -1.994[-3.742, -0.355], p = .041, were individually nonsignificant in predicting extrinsic job satisfaction. These results are indicative. Compared to men, women would be 0.35 units higher in extrinsic job satisfaction for a unit difference in gender, holding other factors constant. Relative to Nigerian nationals, foreign nationals would be 1.44 units higher in extrinsic job satisfaction, other factors remaining constant. The extrinsic satisfaction of nonpermanent employees would be -1.994 units lower compared to permanent employees for every unit change in employee category, holding gender and nationality constant. The resulting regression equation was as follows: Extrinsic satisfaction = 22.15 + 0.35(Gender) + 1.44(Nationality) – 1.99(Employee category).

The *t*-tests associated with the parameters of the model also revealed the weak contribution of the individual predictor variables in significantly predicting extrinsic job

satisfaction. In Model 3, employee gender, t(100) = 0.427, p = .675, employee nationality, t(100) = 1.216, p = .206, and employee category, t(100) = -2.265, p = .041 were nonsignificant contributors to predicting intrinsic job satisfaction. Both the b-values and the t-test statistics indicated being a female and a foreign national had a positive contribution to extrinsic satisfaction, whereas being a nonpermanent employee contributed negatively to extrinsic satisfaction. Based on these results, I failed to reject the null hypothesis (H3 $_0$) of no significant relationship between employee category and extrinsic job satisfaction, controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers.

Table 13

Hierarchical Linear Regression of Predictors of Intrinsic Job Satisfaction, with 95% Bias Corrected and Accelerated Confidence Intervals

	R	R^2	R^2_{change}	В	SE_B	β	t	p	BCa 9	5% CI
									Lower	Upper
Step 1	.04	.00	.00							
Constant				48.10	0.58		84.19	.001	47.04	49.18
Gender				0.45	1.02	.04	0.43	.663	-1.73	2.52
Step 2	.08	.01	.01							
Constant				47.93	0.64		77.06	.001	46.73	49.12
Gender				0.59	1.05	.06	0.55	.579	-1.66	2.75
Nationality				1.03	1.36	.07	0.70	.444	-1.69	3.81
Step 3	.21	.04	.04							
Constant				48.25	0.63		75.88	.001	47.09	49.43
Gender				1.10	1.02	.10	1.01	.288	-1.14	3.36
Nationality				2.04	1.53	.14	1.32	.172	-0.88	5.15
Employee category				-2.23	1.26	.20	-1.94	.076	-4.95	0.38

Note. N = 104. p > .0167 (2-tailed). B = unstandardized regression coefficients; $SE_B =$ standardized error of the coefficient; $\beta =$ standardized coefficient. Confidence intervals (CI) and standard errors based on 1,000 bootstrap samples.

Table 14

Hierarchical Linear Regression of Predictors of Extrinsic Job Satisfaction, with 95% Bias Corrected and Accelerated Confidence Intervals

	R	R^2	R^2_{change}	В	SE_{B}	β	t	p	BCa 95% CI	
									Lower	Upper
Step 1	.02	.00	.00							
Constant				21.95	0.45		49.95	.001	21.00	22.84
Gender				-0.17	0.77	02	-0.21	.881	-1.65	1.17
Step 2	.05	.00	.00							
Constant				21.86	0.50		45.64	.001	20.82	22.83
Gender				-0.10	0.79	01	-0.12	.887	-1.63	1.26
Nationality				0.54	0.99	.05	0.47	.588	-1.33	2.47
Step 3	.23	.05	.05							
Constant				22.15	0.51		45.53	.001	21.06	23.16
Gender				0.35	0.73	.04	0.43	.675	-0.95	1.65
Nationality				1.44	1.15	.13	1.22	.206	-0.68	3.86
Employee category				-1.99	0.94	24	-2.27	.041	-3.74	-0.36

Note. N = 104. p > .0167 (2-tailed). B = unstandardized regression coefficients; $SE_B =$ standardized error of the coefficient; $\beta =$ standardized coefficient. Confidence interval (CI) and standard errors based on 1,000 bootstrap samples

Relating Findings to the Larger Body of Literature

The result of this study indicated that gender, nationality, and employee category factors have no bearing on facets of job satisfaction of senior Nigerian oil workers.

These findings have mixed support from other existing literature on demographic factors

affecting job satisfaction. Despite contrasting views, this study adds to the existing literature on job satisfaction by providing information about job satisfaction of demographically diverse employees in the Nigerian oil industry.

On the effect of gender, a rich body of knowledge indicated nonsignificant gender differences on facets of job satisfaction (Burke et al., 2012; El Badawy & Magdy, 2015; Ismail & El Nakkache, 2014). As was the case with the findings of this study, Burke et al. (2012), and El Badawy and Magdy (2015) found that male and female workers did not show significantly different levels of job satisfaction. Ismail and El Nakkache (2014) also concluded that demographic variables including age, gender, marital status and company size were nonsignificant predictors of job satisfaction. These findings aligned with the results of this study. However, the result of this study challenges the contradiction of the 'paradox of the contented female worker' that suggests women do have significantly higher job satisfaction than men (Fiorillo & Nappo, 2014; Roche, 2015). This study also differed from the findings of other studies indicating men are significantly higher in job satisfaction than women are (Voung & Doung, 2013; Yukawa & Arita, 2014). Unlike Maamari (2014), Linz and Semykina (2013) showed that women are significantly higher in intrinsic satisfaction than men are, whereas men are higher in extrinsic satisfaction than women are. These conclusions are inconsistent with the results of this study of nonsignificant gender difference across the three facets of job satisfaction.

Studies examining nationality influence on aspects of job satisfaction are scanty.

Contrary to the results of this study, AbdelRahman et al. (2012) found local nationals were significantly higher in extrinsic job satisfaction factors than foreign nationals were

in a study conducted in the UAE. In this current study, nationality was a nonsignificant determinant of facets of job satisfaction of senior Nigerian oil workers. This result was contrary to expectations based on the findings of previous studies linking culture to job satisfaction. The expectation was that Nigerian nationals would differ from their foreign counterparts across all facets of job satisfaction based on the differential influence of social identity and cultural dimensions of work values (Dheer et al., 2014; Natarajan, 2012). Differences in the cultural dimension of Nigerians and foreigners presuppose that Nigerian nationals would be significantly higher in extrinsic satisfaction and lower in intrinsic satisfaction than foreign nationals (Hammou et al., 2014). In contrast, the result of this study indicated foreign nationals mean scores in intrinsic, extrinsic, and general job satisfaction were higher than were the mean scores of their Nigerian counterparts. This result aligns with the conclusion of Guzi and de Pedraza García (2015) that foreign-born workers experiences higher life satisfaction compared to natives.

The results of this study showed employee category has no significant bearing on facets of job satisfaction of senior Nigerian oil workers. Permanent and Nonpermanent senior oil workers were not significantly different in intrinsic, extrinsic, and general job satisfaction. This result is inconsistent with the findings of other recent studies (Dawson et al., 2014; Jahn, 2015). Both Dawson et al. (2014) and Jahn (2015) suggested that temporary workers would be significantly less satisfied than would permanent employees. Jahn showed that this difference in job satisfaction of temporary and permanent workers would be more in men than in women. From the literature, job insecurity is a plausible explanation for differences in job satisfaction of permanent and

temporary workers (Cellea et al., 2015; van den Tooren & de Jong, 2014). Despite the contrasting views, results of this current study aligned with the body of literature on the robustness of regression analysis in analyzing and interpreting the linear combination of predictor and criterion variables (Frimpong & Wilson, 2013; Ismail & Nakkache, 2014).

Ties Findings to the Theoretical Framework

The underlying argument in MHT categorized reward factors into two: intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (Herzberg, 2003). When these rewards are present, employees may experience job satisfaction (through intrinsic rewards) and avoid job dissatisfaction (through extrinsic rewards). To address the research questions posed in this study, I examined how gender, nationality, and employee category influenced the way senior Nigerian oil workers responded to these rewards. Results of descriptive statistics indicated alignment of findings to the theoretical framework.

Theoretically, the expectation was the demographic groups who scored higher in intrinsic job satisfaction would likely have higher general job satisfaction. The results of the descriptive and inferential statistics and the conclusions from this study are consistent with the propositions of the underlying theoretical framework of the study. Although the hypothesized relationships in this study were nonsignificant, results of the descriptive statistics indicated that groups with a higher mean score in intrinsic satisfaction were more satisfied than groups with a higher mean score in extrinsic satisfaction. This conclusion aligns with findings by other researchers on job satisfaction who relied on MHT theoretical framework. Edrak, Yin-Fah, Gharleghi, and Seng (2013) showed that intrinsic motivation compared to extrinsic motivation tends to contribute more to job

satisfaction, although both reward factors are significant predictors of job satisfaction. Seiler, Lent, Pinkowska, and Pinazza (2012) also concluded that compensation, an item on extrinsic satisfaction scale, is not a factor that motivates employees in their job but rather a factor that causes dissatisfaction when absent.

The results of this study contrasted with the findings of Frimpong and Wilson (2013). In their study, Frimpong and Wilson showed that extrinsic satisfaction has become more important than intrinsic satisfaction among workers in developing countries. Frimpong and Wilson raised questions regarding the theoretical validity of the MHT in explaining factors affecting job satisfaction. Although the findings of this study point to the increasing importance of extrinsic rewards on job satisfaction, this study differed from Frimpong and Wilson regarding the population studied, the predictor and criterion variables, and the hypotheses tested. Cultural dimension theorists posit that national culture influences individuals' attitudes toward their jobs (Raina & Roebuck, 2014). Compared to employees from individualistic national culture, employees from collectivist cultures may respond more to extrinsic than to intrinsic rewards. However, results from this present study indicate that cultural dimensions may be converging much in the same way that motivational factors are converging across nationalities.

Ties to Existing Literature on Effective Business Practice

The result of this study is consistent with existing literature on effective business practice and reaffirms the significance of job satisfaction in firms' productivity.

Increased globalization has created a need for effective leaders who possess skills to lead demographically diverse teams within a multicultural setting (DeGrassi, Morgan, Walker,

Wang, & Sabat, 2012; Sakuda, 2012). Organizational effectiveness results when leaders understand behaviors and feelings of the workforce and implement policies that enhance job satisfaction (Haines & Sumner, 2013). Enhanced job satisfaction is a positive influence on employees' level of commitment and responsiveness toward productivity-enhancing innovative processes (Lin & Hwang, 2014).

Bergbom and Kinnunen (2014) reported that policies that foster positive relationships among multicultural employees tend to enhance job satisfaction. The findings from this study support effective business practice through improved management of demographically diverse teams. Mitigating employee dissatisfaction through the management of competing needs of diverse employees can bring about effective business practice. Leaders of IOCs in Nigeria can improve business practice, employee retention, and employee productivity by enhancing all facets of job satisfaction of their demographically divers workforce. Senior oil workers' responses to feelings about their current jobs provide another perspective to identifying factors affecting aspects of job satisfaction. As a result, the findings from this study aligned with existing literature on effective business practice.

Applications to Professional Practice

Despite several decades of research on motivation, scholars in management and behavioral studies have attributed poor performances in many business organizations to lack of employee satisfaction (Aryee et al., 2016). Motivating senior Nigerian oil workers is a challenge facing industry leaders who are seeking to improve productivity (Ajayi & Abimbola, 2013). When management implements commitment-eliciting

policies, which in this case refers to the facets of job satisfaction, employees tend to increase their organizational commitment for improved performance (Su, Wright, & Ulrich, 2015). Thus, employees' expression of their feelings about their present jobs may provide insight into facets of job satisfaction of diverse workforce if industry leaders implement appropriate reward-enriching strategies.

Job satisfaction of demographically diverse employees has been challenging and inconsistent (Bockerman & Ilmakunnas, 2012). Socially diverse groups tend to generate negative affect toward out-group members with a profound consequence on employee productivity (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015). The result is group members develop less commitment and poor cohesion toward achieving organizational goals (Zhang & Huai, 2016). Employees' perception of job satisfaction has become increasingly critical for organizational effectiveness and competitiveness (Tuwei et al., 2013). As work demands become increasingly complex in an ever-changing global environment, accomplishing multifaceted tasks often seen in the oil industry, require assembling teams with diverse compositional attributes who are highly satisfied (Shuffler, Jimenez-Rodriguez, & Kramer, 2015). The conclusion from these studies demonstrates the enormity of the inherent challenges managing demographically diverse teams for improved productivity. The findings of this present study have practical application to professional practice toward enhancing facets of job satisfaction across all demography of senior Nigerian oil workers.

The results indicated a beneficial role for IOC leaders in enhancing job satisfaction by implementing all-inclusive strategies for rewarding demographically

diverse employees. Notwithstanding the high level of satisfaction expressed by senior Nigerian oil workers, the findings of this study point to the specific employee demography requiring leaders' attention toward enhancing satisfaction. Finally, the result may also assist IOC leaders in future recruitment and retention programs by focusing on improving facets of job satisfaction and productivity.

Implications for Social Change

Empirical evidence suggests low job satisfaction increases the rate of abnormal attrition in many organizations (Agarwal & Mehta, 2014). Employees may be more productive, creative, and adaptive when satisfied with their jobs. When enhanced, job satisfaction can accelerate employees' social integration and community connectedness, which are essential protective factors against psychological distress, conflict, and social intolerance (Sivadon, Matthews, & David, 2014). Creating a positive diversity climate where employees experience satisfaction can improve group performances (Lauring & Selmer, 2011). The results of this study indicated that gender, nationality, and employee category factors do not significantly influence senior Nigerian oil workers' assessments of facets of job satisfaction.

One of the implications of the potential social change from this study is IOC leaders can obtain improved commitment and cohesion among demographically diverse workforce by enhancing facets of job satisfaction. Effective diversity management resulting from inclusive reward systems may improve in-group and out-group behaviors, mitigate manipulative industrial relations, increase coworker relations, and elevate employees' psychological wellbeing (Bergbom & Kinnunen, 2014). A satisfied

employee would produce personal and socially desirable outcomes (McNamara et al., 2013). Consequently, satisfied senior Nigerian oil workers could improve in performance, earn more rewards, and contribute to building a strong family and community where peace and justice reign.

Another implication of social change from this study is IOC leaders can focus on improving the job satisfaction of the vulnerable category of employees. Reward systems that incorporate the feelings of vulnerable workers would engender belongingness among all groups of employees (Doerflinger & Pulignano, 2015). When IOC leaders enhance the job satisfaction of nonpermanent senior Nigerian oil workers, the average job satisfaction of employees in the Nigerian oil industry may improve. An improvement in the level of nonpermanent employees' belongingness could make them become better citizens, thereby benefiting their families, community, and the economy.

Recommendations for Action

The findings of this study indicated a nonsignificant relationship between employee category and the three facets of job satisfaction after controlling for gender and nationality of senior Nigerian oil workers. However, descriptive statistics showed marginal differences in the mean scores on the criterion variables were more attributable to employee category factor than were to gender and nationality. Across the three models, the results suggested the level of general, intrinsic, and extrinsic satisfactions of senior Nigerian oil workers would depend more on changes in employee category than differences in gender and nationality. Where practicable, IOC leaders could review employment contract strategies to enhance the general experiences of nonpermanent

employees. Though not significant, reversing the negative influence of nonpermanent employees on facets of job satisfaction may indicate different perspective in strategic human resource management of temporary workers in the Nigerian oil industry.

The IOC leaders should conduct periodic surveys involving nonpermanent workers. Leaders can then use the outcome of these studies to identify potential areas for improvement, especially in the areas of job security, authority, ability utilization, compensation, creativity, responsibility, and working conditions. When the HR policies of oil companies improve, nonpermanent oil workers can enhance their performances (McDermott, Conway, Rousseau, & Flood, 2013). Should opportunities arise, I intend to present the results of this study at professional and trade conferences. Publishing this study in the ProQuest/UMI dissertation database and other scholarly journals is critical to disseminating the findings of this study to the larger audience.

Recommendations for Further Study

Using a sample of 104 senior Nigerian oil workers from five IOCs in Lagos and Port Harcourt, I examined the relationship between employee category and facets of job satisfaction, controlling for gender and nationality factors. Recommendations for further study include using a longitudinal data rather than a cross-sectional data, as was the case in this study. A longitudinal data could allow for examining job satisfaction of senior oil workers over time and reduce participants' bias from recent experiences that may have occurred during the survey period. Because job satisfaction is a dynamic construct that changes relative to personal and environmental conditions, studying job satisfaction over

time could lead to a better understanding of the salient factors affecting job satisfaction (Huff, 2013; Westover, 2012).

Subsequent studies could also include additional demographic predictor variables and expand the purpose of including a larger sample size and other local and international oil companies, in Nigeria. Exploring other aspects of job outcomes such as organizational commitment and organizational citizen behavior as a function of job satisfaction can improve business practice in the oil industry. Further studies could also examine the influence of leadership styles in the oil companies on job satisfaction. I had aggregated different types of temporary employment contracts, as a group. However, in reality, different typology of nonpermanent employment exist (Wittmer & Martin, 2013). Future studies could undertake a deeper examination of factors affecting job satisfaction among the various layers of nonpermanent employees in the oil industry.

Reflections

I had wanted to conduct a study on job satisfaction as a way of aligning business strategies with employees' personal aspirations. By aligning organizational and staff goals, business leaders could improve firm performance. My long years of managing people within and outside the oil industry and the reflections on how different management policies affected the performances of my diverse team members inspired this study. Reflecting on the study, my knowledge about the significance of a satisfied employee has grown profoundly. I encountered some challenges while conducting this research. Getting the permission of the IOCs to survey their employees was challenging. The difficulties convincing the IOC leaders of the benefits of this study were evident for

time spent negotiating these companies' participation. After securing the permission of the IOC leaders, I had thought that the employees were readily available giving the design of the survey and the approach to data gathering.

Through this study, I realized the inherent challenges in data gathering: skepticism, apathy, and sometimes participants' outright unwillingness to participate. I did not anticipate the slow and low responses from respondents, given participants' level of education. Once I was able to collect data, analyzing and interpreting data posed another challenge. However, I have deepened my knowledge of statistics by choosing to analyze and interpret the data without engaging the assistance of a statistician.

On the findings from this study, my reflection is on the reported level of job satisfaction across all demography of sampled senior Nigerian oil workers. Results from this study have changed my personal perception of pecuniary rewards, particularly in respect to the job satisfaction of foreign nationals as compared to their Nigerian counterparts. Indeed, globalization and group diversity are converging national cultures, influencing work values, and affecting employees' responses to reward factors. These revelations will shape my future approach to managing demographically diverse teams.

Summary and Study Conclusions

Business organizations are increasingly relying on the demographically diverse workforce as the effect of globalization on firm competitiveness continue to exact pressure on availability of locally skilled labor. Developing a coherent HR policy for motivating diverse employees is a challenge facing business leaders including IOC leaders, in Nigeria. The findings from this study indicated that being a male or a female,

a Nigerian or a foreigner, a permanent or a nonpermanent employee has no significant bearing on senior oil workers' facets of job satisfaction. Adopting a broad-based reward strategy for motivating oil workers may enhance the current level of job satisfaction and productivity in the Nigerian oil industry.

I examined the relationship between employee category and the three facets of job satisfaction, after controlling for gender and nationality factors using responses from 104 employees regarding their feelings about their current jobs. The results revealed a nonsignificant relationship between employee category and the three facets of job satisfaction, after controlling for gender and nationality factors. However, being a nonpermanent employee contributed adversely to aspects of job satisfaction, albeit insignificantly. These findings might assist IOC leaders to improve job satisfaction across demographically diverse employees for increased productivity. This study might have a direct benefit to employees, their families, and their communities through improved rewards and social harmony.

I have linked these findings to existing literature on job satisfaction and the adoption of motivation and hygiene factors in theory and practice. The study has practical implications for IOC leaders seeking to align reward systems with the wider corporate objectives. Regarding theory and research development, this study offered a basis for a continuing debate on motivation, job satisfaction, employee productivity, diversity management, and strategic human resources management.

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Appendix A: The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) Instrument

Part A: Demographic Information

Instructions: The collection of your demographic information is vital for the purpose of this research study. Please answer the following questions carefully by clicking on response that best describes you.

- 1. What is your age?
 - a. Under 30 years
 - b. 30 to 40 years
 - c. 41 to 50 years
 - d. 51 to 58 years
- 2. What is your gender?
 - a. Male
 - b. Female
- 3. What is your nationality?
 - a. Nigerian
 - b. European
 - c. Asian
 - d. North American
 - e. Others
- 4. What is your employee category?
 - a. Permanent staff
 - b. Contract staff

5. What is your employment status?					
a.	Local staff				
b.	Expatriate staff				
c.	Local contract staff				

- d. Expatriate contract staff
- 6. Where is your work site location?
 - a. Port Harcourt
 - b. Lagos
- 7. How long have you worked in this organization?
 - a. 0 to 5 years
 - b. 5 to 10 years
 - c. 11 to 15 years
 - d. 16 to 25 years
 - e. 26 and above years
- 8. What is the level of education you have completed?
 - a. Secondary/High school certificate
 - b. Diploma certificate
 - c. Bachelor's degree
 - d. Master or higher degree/professional
- 9. What aspect best describes your professional area?
 - a. Finance
 - b. Construction Engineering

- c. Petroleum Engineering
- d. Logistics/Security/HSE
- e. Geosciences/Geophysics
- f. Information Systems
- g. Human Resources
- 10. The following alphabets best describes the initial of the name of the company I work for
 - a. T
 - b. S
 - c. M
 - d. A
 - e. C

Part B: The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) Instrument

Instructions: The MSQ instrument has been designed to assess how you feel about your present job, what aspects of your job satisfy you, and what aspects do not satisfy you. Please rate how strongly you are satisfied or dissatisfied with different aspects of your job by clicking on the mark that best describes your level of satisfaction. You will rate your level of satisfaction on a 5-point scale, ranging from very dissatisfied to very satisfied, with a neutral selection of neither dissatisfied nor satisfied. For each of the statements, ask yourself how satisfied am I with this aspect of my job?

- If you feel that your job gives you **more than you expected**, tick the box under "**Very Sat.**" (Very Satisfied)

- If you feel that your job gives you **what you expected**, tick the box under "Sat." (Satisfied)
- If you **cannot make up your mind** whether or not the job gives you what you expected, tick the box under "N" (Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied)
- If you feel that your job gives you **less than you expected**, tick the box under "Dissat." (Dissatisfied)
- If you feel that your job gives you **much less than you expected**, tick the box under "**Very Dissat.**" (Very dissatisfied)

On my present job, this is how I feel about		Very Dissat	Dissat	N	Sat	Very Sat
1.	Being able to keep busy all the time					
2.	The chance to work alone on the job					
3.	The chance to do different things from time to time					
4.	The chance to be "somebody" in the community					
5.	The way my boss handles his/her workers					
6.	The competency of my supervisor in making decisions					
7.	Being able to do things that do not go against my conscience					
8.	The way my job provides for steady employment					
9.	The chance to do things for other people					
10.	The chance to tell people what to do					
11.	The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities					
12.	The way company policies are put into practice					
13.	My pay and the amount of work I do					
14.	The chances for advancement on this job					
15.	The freedom to use my own judgment					

16.	The chance to try my own methods of doing the job	
17.	The working conditions	
18.	The way my co-workers get along with each other	
19.	The praise I get for doing a good job	
20.	The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job	

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Appendix B: The MSQ Scoring Key

Response choices for the MSQ short form are weighted in the following manner:

Response Choice	Scoring Weight
Very Dissatisfied	1
Dissatisfied	2
Neither	3
Satisfied	4
Very Satisfied	5

The responses are scored 1 through 5 from left to right in the answer spaces. Scale scores are determined by summing the weights for the responses chosen for the items in each scale. Scoring of the MSQ yields three scales: intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction. For an individual respondent, the 12 items on the intrinsic satisfaction scale will yield a score ranging from 12 to 60; 6 to 30 for the 6 items on the extrinsic satisfaction scale; and 20 to 100 for the 20 items on the general satisfaction scale.

	Scoring Weights					
Scales	Items	1	2	3	4	5
Intrinsic Satisfaction	12	12	24	36	48	60
Extrinsic Satisfaction	6	6	12	18	24	30
General Satisfaction	20	20	40	60	80	100

Appendix C: Permission to Use and Reprint the MSQ Instrument

University of Minnesota

Twin Cities Campus

Department of Psychology College of Liberal Arts

N218 Ellhott Hall 75 East River Road Minneapolis, MN 55455 Office: 612-625-2818 Fax: 612-626-2079

April 30, 2015

Dear Kingsley Onyebuenyi,

We are pleased to grant you permission to use the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire 1977 short form on a secure web site as you requested for your research. We acknowledge receipt of payment for Royalty fees for 360 MSQ short form surveys.

Please note that each copy that you make must include the following copyright statement:

Copyright 1977, Vocational Psychology Research, University of Minnesota. Reproduced by permission.

We would appreciate receiving a copy of any publications that result from your use of the MSQ short form surveys. We attempt to maintain an archive and bibliography of research related to Vocational Psychology Research instruments, and we would value your contribution to our collection.

If you have any questions, or if we can be of any additional assistance, please do not hesitate to contact us.

Sincerely,

Vocational Psychology Research

Appendix D: Letter to the International Oil Companies

The Managing Director,
----- Company
Dear Sir/Madam,

Request for Permission to Recruit Research Participants

My name is Kingsley Onyebuenyi, a Doctor of Business Administration (DBA) student at Walden University. I am requesting your permission to recruit research participants in your organization. Currently, I am conducting a study on factors affecting job satisfaction in Nigerian international oil companies. I am focusing on examining whether demographic factors including employee category (permanent or contract), gender, or nationality has any bearing on aspects of senior employees' job satisfaction.

I have chosen your company to conduct this study because you are one of the leading international oil companies in Nigeria with a large number of demographically diverse employees. In conducting this study, I will request your designated HR representatives to recruit 72 senior employees from your employee database (I will provide all technical assistance required for the random sampling of participants) to participate in this study. I intend to send a virtual invitation (copy attached) containing the URL link to the online survey instrument to your HR representatives. I will request your HR representatives to send the virtual invitation to the selected 72 senior employees on my behalf using your company's bulk email address.

I intend to collect this data within 20 days. If I do not obtain sufficient sample in the first 10 days, I will be asking your HR representative to forward reminder

notifications (copies attached) to the employees on my behalf. Your HR representative will send another reminder email on the 15th and 19th day if I do not obtain sufficient data before the last day of the survey period. The survey, which requires employees asking how satisfied they are with certain aspects of their jobs, will take approximately 15 minutes to complete.

For ethical considerations, the participation of your company and that of your employees will be confidential and anonymous. I am hosting the online survey instrument on SurveyMonkey, a reputable secured web-based solution provider. The link between participants and the online survey instrument is de-identified such that the identities of your employees will remain anonymous. Because I will request your HR representatives to send the email invitation to participate on my behalf using your bulk email address, the email invitation will remain in your server, and you can delete the email completely at the end of the survey.

Upon request, I will provide a copy of the research results to you. The research has the potential to shade light on certain factors that influence job satisfaction of demographically diverse senior oil workers. Perhaps, the findings can help leaders in the oil industry in managing and motivating demographically diverse teams in a manner sensitive to the identified factors, and potentially help in enhancing employees' job satisfaction and productivity.

Kindly communicate your support by signing on the acknowledgement copy and indicate the contact person with whom I will be working with throughout the recruitment and survey period.

Thank you for your support.

Kingsley Onyebuenyi

Doctor of Business Administration (DBA) Student

Walden University

Appendix E: Certificate of NIH Training Completion



Appendix F: Virtual Invitation to Participate in Research

Dear -----,

My name is Kingsley Onyebuenyi and I am a Doctor of Business Administration (DBA) student at the Walden University. I am conducting a research study on "factors affecting job satisfaction in Nigerian international oil companies". I will examine whether being a permanent or contract, male or female, Nigerian, or foreigner (expatriate) employee has any bearing on aspects of senior Nigerian oil workers' job satisfaction. Dr. Brenda Jack will be supervising this research.

I am inviting you to participate in this study by completing the survey I have hosted on SurveyMonkey.com. Participation is optional and your identity and that of the company will be anonymous. Your participating in this research study could provide managers with the knowledge for enhancing job satisfaction of demographically diverse employees and improve business practice in the Nigerian oil industry. This study has potential to benefit you, your family, and your community.

The survey takes about 15 to 20 minutes to complete. I will send three follow-up e-mails within the next 10, 15, and 19 days as reminders that you have 10, 5, or 1 day respectively remaining to complete the survey. To access the survey, click on the link https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/OnyebuenyiWaldenUniversity.

Thank you
Kingsley C. Onyebuenyi
Doctor of Business Administration Student
Walden University

First reminder e-mail

Dear -----,

You received an e-mail about 10 days ago, requesting you to complete a survey hosted on SurveyMonkey. I wish to thank those of you that have participated already.

This is a reminder that you still have 10 days left to participate, if you wish. Your participation is pivotal to my completing the study that focuses on determining whether demographic factors have any bearing on aspects of job satisfaction of senior Nigerian oil workers. As a senior staff, this study has potential to benefit you and your community. Kindly access and complete the survey by clicking on the link https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/OnyebuenyiWaldenUniversity.

Thank you
Kingsley C. Onyebuenyi
Doctor of Business Administration Student
Walden University

Second reminder e-mail

Dear -----.

You have received an e-mail about 15 days ago, requesting you to complete a survey hosted on SurveyMonkey. I wish to thank those of you that have participated already.

This is a reminder that you have 5 days left to participate, if you wish. Your participation is pivotal to my completing this study focusing on examining whether demographic factors have any bearing on aspects of job satisfaction of senior Nigerian oil workers. As a senior staff, this study has potential to benefit you and your community. Kindly access and complete the survey by clicking on the link https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/OnyebuenyiWaldenUniversity.

Thank you
Kingsley C. Onyebuenyi
Doctor of Business Administration Student
Walden University

Third reminder e-mail

Dear -----,

You have received an e-mail about 19 days ago, requesting you to complete a survey hosted on SurveyMonkey. I wish to thank those of you that have participated already.

This is a reminder that you have 1 day left to participate, if you wish. Your participation is pivotal to my completing this study focusing on examining whether demographic factors have any bearing on aspects of job satisfaction of senior Nigerian oil workers. As a senior staff, this study has potential to benefit you and your community. Kindly access and complete the survey by clicking on the link https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/OnyebuenyiWaldenUniversity.

Thank you
Kingsley C. Onyebuenyi
Doctor of Business Administration Student
Walden University

Appendix G: G*Power Analysis

