

UNIVERSITY OF LJUBLJANA
FACULTY OF ECONOMICS

UNIVERSITY OF SARAJEVO
SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS AND BUSINESS

MASTER'S THESIS

**EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION AND SATISFACTION: THE CASE OF
CLINICAL CENTRE UNIVERSITY OF SARAJEVO**

AUTHORSHIP STATEMENT

The undersigned Faruk Maksić, a student at the University of Ljubljana, Faculty of Economics, (hereafter: FELU), declare that I am the author of the master's thesis entitled Employee Motivation and Satisfaction: The Case of Clinical Centre University of Sarajevo, written under supervision of Professor Katarina Katja Mihelič, Phd.

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INTRODUCTION

Work motivation can be explained as a set of internal and external forces that initiate work-related behavior and determine its form, direction, intensity and duration (Pinder, 1998, p. 11). Job satisfaction, on the other hand, can be defined as “the extent to which people are satisfied with their work” (Spector, 1997, p. 2). These two concepts can be discussed separate from each other, as it is arguable that the extent to which an individual is satisfied at work is dictated by the presence of factors and circumstances that motivates an employee (Furham, Eracleous, & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2009, p. 765). On the other hand, some authors represent an opposite point of view emphasizing that motivation and job satisfaction complement each other and respond to different organizational and job related variables (Ayub & Rafif, 2011).

Motivation and satisfaction of employees is becoming a key issue of modern organizations, because well motivated employees are essential for any business success. Motivation is a complex phenomenon which is made of many factors that affect employees to behave in certain way and make effort to reach goals. It is important for companies to recognize the significance of human factors, because organizational survival and business excellence depends on employees which at the same time needs to be motivated and satisfied with their job (Finck, Timmers, & Mennes, 1998). Given today’s economy, a motivated workforce represents both a competitive advantage and a critical strategic asset in any work environment (Tremblay, Blanchard, Taylor, & Pelletier, 2009, p. 213).

A company’s success is ensured by people who are the most valuable, most expensive and also most problematic resource that a company has. In order to achieve business goals, people serve companies with their skills, experience, judgment, knowledge, abilities etc. (Vujić, 2001). Van Niekerk (1987) supported this view emphasizing the role of motivation as crucial factor which contributes to company’s productivity.

Theoretically, satisfaction is correlated with motivation in many cases in literature and empirical research studies. These two terms are connected in many ways and mutually conditioned, but they differ one from another unconditionally. Job satisfaction is considered to be relatively persistent phenomenon that involves affective orientation towards job factors and work environment. Kinicki and Kreitner (2003) describe job satisfaction as an emotional response to work related situations and also consider job satisfaction as positive emotional reaction arising from appraisal of an employee’s job.

Spector (1997) defines job satisfaction as what a person feels toward his job and various aspects of the job. In addition to this, Locke (1976) described job satisfaction as satisfactory feeling which arises from good work experience. At the same time, it is considered that job satisfaction, in addition to emotional satisfaction, includes both cognitive and behavioral components.

Job satisfaction is also related to general satisfaction in life and satisfaction that derives from family life (Mihelič, 2014). Judge and Watanabe (1994) determined three types of relationships between job satisfaction and satisfaction in everyday life. The first type presents

converting job satisfaction to other aspects of life and other way around. The second type is segmentation where job satisfaction and satisfaction with everyday life are two separate things and they don't affect each other. The third type of relationship is compensation where lack of satisfaction in everyday life can be compensated with satisfaction at work or the vice versa.

A key question is how to motivate people? Specifically for the health sector, Franco, Bennett, and Kanfer (2002, p. 1255) define motivation as the willingness to exert and maintain an effort towards organizational goals. Healthcare delivery is highly labor-intensive occupation, and employees need to direct all of their skills and knowledge towards their tasks. Success of those tasks depends of work conditions and resources as well as the employees' motivation and willingness to apply themselves into those tasks (Franco et al., 2002, p. 1256).

Successful healthcare organizations see their employees as primary resource and emphasis is placed on actively managing of their potential. All healthcare organizations deal with what needs to be done to achieve the goals by people. Accordingly, great attention is placed on how to motivate individuals with different factors such as initiatives, awards, leadership etc. In healthcare organizations, managers have to be familiar with all motivators available and how to use them appropriately or combine them because every individual has different ways to satisfy their needs. Managers need to be cautious in tie application of motivators because the same motivators affect employees differently. The common goal of mechanisms for measuring and managing the satisfaction of employees is to develop the sense by which all employees share a common professional destiny, destiny of the company and to liberate the creative and productive sense of the employees through different stimulative activities.

Specific requirements and features that characterize employees involved in healthcare sector best describe tough conditions and complexity of the challenges that employees are faced to in everyday work. Considering these facts, the role of motivation can be of crucial importance in helping employees to deal with these tasks on a daily basis (Lambrou, Kontodimopoulos, & Niakas, 2010). On the other hand, maintaining the high level of motivation is not an easy job. Accordingly, Goldsmith (2005) states that task of motivation is exacerbated by the nature of the economic relationship between the system itself and those who use the system, and the heterogeneity of the workforce to be managed. Regardless of the fact that in the healthcare service is difficult to determine which behavior is normal and which behavior is worth regarding, it is crucial to maintain high level of motivated workforce because of the nature of their job.

This research focuses on employee work motivation and job satisfaction, and different factors that influence both. The purpose of this research is to explore, theoretically and empirically the links between job satisfaction and motivation to help organizations understand what drives employee behavior. Considering current socio-economic situation in the country, basic assumption of the research is that monetary rewards are main source of employee motivation and job satisfaction. Therefore, the aim of the research is to prove that monetary rewards, among all other job satisfaction and motivation factors, are main source of employee's motivation and job satisfaction.

The main goal of this research is to identify the current level of work motivation and job satisfaction among employees at the Clinical Center University of Sarajevo. Furthermore, other objectives of the research are directed towards determining the level of motivation and job satisfaction of different socio-demographic groups among employees, and identifying factors which influence both motivation and job satisfaction. Specifically, these are:

- identification of the current level of motivation and job satisfaction among employees at the Clinical Centre University of Sarajevo;
- identification of the current level of different job satisfaction and motivation factors between certain socio-demographic groups among employees at the Clinical Centre University of Sarajevo;
- identification of job satisfaction and motivation factors that are best accepted among employees at the Clinical Center University of Sarajevo;

In general, this thesis is divided in two parts, theory and research. First two chapters provide theoretical background (books, e-books, scientific journals, publications and articles) of motivation and job satisfaction, with emphasis on theories and determinants related to these concepts. Literature review covers important theoretical aspects of motivation and job satisfaction that are necessary for the research.

The third chapter is hypotheses development which consists of literature review necessary for the construction of the hypotheses. In line with the research objectives, two main and eight partial hypotheses are placed. The fourth chapter refers to research methodology which provides insight into sample structure which is divided by different job related and socio-demographic parameters; measurements and instruments used for collecting data; and analytical procedures used for data processing.

The last two chapters are research results and discussion. Results refer to the presentation of the research results and hypotheses testing, while discussion deals with interpretation of the results and comparison with previous studies. At the end of the last chapter, research limitations are presented, practical implications and future research directions.

1 MOTIVATION

The current business environment is characterized by a rapid change in all industries (Ayub & Rafif, 2011). To be successful and competitive on a global level, companies must invest in people as their most important resource. Finck et al. (1998) supported this view suggesting that companies must recognize human resources as a major factor for organizational survival, and that business excellence will only be achieved with motivated employees. Aggravating circumstances, such as economic crisis, inflation, corruption, high unemployment rate and job insecurity can create severe stress among employees and result in reduced workplace performance (Markovits, Boer, & Van Dick, 2014). Those difficult circumstances are present in the Bosnian business environment (Mujanović, 2013), but only good management and the ability to motivate and inspire employees can lead to corporate achievements.

This chapter explains employee motivation and motivation theories. To mention all motivation theories available would be beyond the scope of this research, thus the following chapter discusses motivation theories that are related to this research.

1.1 Definitions of Employee Motivation

The concept of motivation is very complex and the best way to explain it would be to start with the early definitions. The term motivation is derived from the Latin word *movere* which means to move (Baron, Henley, McGibbon, & McCarthy, 2002). Over the years, many definitions and perspectives on the topic of motivation has been postulated. Number of these definitions is mentioned in following paragraphs, some of them for the historical significance and some for its relevance to this research.

Motivation and its causes has been in the focus of organizational behavior researches for the past several decades. Baron (1991, p. 1) describes motivation as one of the most pivotal concerns of modern organizational research. Based on Van Niekerk's (1987) formulation of productivity as function of employees' capabilities and motivation, Moorhead and Griffin (1998) state that management actions should be primarily directed towards increment of employee motivation in order for employees to identify with organizational goals and contribute to overall productivity.

Beck (1983) stated that four basic philosophies underlie the various perspectives of work motivation. Schein (2006, p. 188) identified these four perspectives as rational-economic man, social man, self-actualizing man and complex man. Authors suggests that approach of rational-economic man assume that employees are motivated by economic considerations, thus their decisions-making process is based on the rational economic. It is considered that pay and external rewards originate from this perspective of motivation. Social man assumption is that employees are primarily motivated by social needs. In the focus of this point of view is establishing an environment conducive to satisfying social relationships at workplace. In the case of self-actualizing man, it is assumed that employees are intrinsically motivated and derive satisfaction from their accomplishments. The main characteristic of this approach is that reward systems are highly performance-oriented. The complex man approach recognizes that employees are motivated by a variety of factors and that these motives change over the time. Supporters of this perspective suggest that work environment should be characterized by great level of decision-making autonomy and highly individualized reward structures.

The above mentioned perspectives inspired a number of scientists for construction of new definitions. In line with this, Schultz and Schultz (1998) defined motivation as combination of personal and workplace characteristics that explain employee's behavior in work environment. Beck (1983) expressed similar opinion suggesting that motivation is concerned with explaining the variation in employee's behavior.

Intrinsically orientated authors define motivation as an internal state that induces a person to engage in particular behaviors (Spector, 2003, p. 200). In line with this, Roos & van Eeden

(2008) state that motivation can be presented as phenomenon which derives from an individual's wants and needs to achieve certain goal.

According to Beach (1980) motivation can be defined as the willingness to achieve goals or rewards. From the behaviorist point of view, employee behavior that is rewarded will repeat, whereas behavior that goes unrewarded or punished tends to be extinguished. In line with this, Beach (1980) described intrinsic motivation to be related with job content which occurs when employee perform activity from which they derive satisfaction. On the other side, extrinsic motivation is more likely related to job environment which provides reward to an employee after job well done.

Work motivation can be defined as the set of internal and external forces that initiate work-related behavior and determine its form, direction, intensity and duration (Pinder, 1998, p. 11). This definition refers to work context only, and is influenced by intrinsic and extrinsic factors which determine work behavior.

1.2 Motivation Theories

The starting point of all motivation theories is that all human behavior is motivated. Roughly, motivation theories are trying to explain the emergence of motivation, its direction, strength and duration of certain behavior and its relationship with motivators related to that behavior (Šehić & Rahimić, 2009). While human behavior is directly observable, motivation that is cause of that behavior is invisible. Thus, all motivation theories are faced with the problem that the real cause of human behavior is not directly observable. Accordingly, motivation theories are trying to explain human "black-box" by allowing the human behavior to lead them to the motives of certain behavior (Šehić & Rahimić, 2009).

Motivational theories are based on acceptance that human behavior is determined by latent, relatively unchanging needs which can be activated by internal or external motivators. As Deci and Ryan (2000, p. 258) stated, intrinsic motivation energizes and sustains activities through the spontaneous satisfactions inherent in effective volitional action, while extrinsic motivation is motivation governed by reinforcement contingencies. Extrinsic factors are determined by third party, either from company representative or other superior colleague with objective to motivate people (Tremblay et al., 2009).

Over time, the number of motivation definitions and theoretical perspectives has been developed. In general, major differences between motivational theories are in their approaches to the origins or sources of motivation (Petri, 1996). As described in literature, some of the sources of motivation are energy, heredity, learning, social interaction, cognitive processes, activation of motivation, hedonism or growth motivation etc. Origins of motivation or approaches to motivation have been used for classification of motivation theories. Based on the approaches, literature shows (Baron et al., 2002) that motivation theories are often grouped into need-based, cognitive and reinforcement theories.

Need-based theories, also known as content theories, explain the content of motivation and propose that internal states within the individuals energize and direct their behavior (Hadebe,

2001). Well known examples of need-based theories are Maslow, McClelland and Herzberg's theory.

Cognitive theories do not focus on work itself as a source of motivation, but rather on cognitive processes such as thoughts, beliefs and values, which employee use to make choices regarding their behavior at work (Schultz & Schultz, 1998). According to the focus of these theories, cognitive theories are also known as process theories. Equity, expectancy and goal-setting theory are examples of cognitive theories.

Also, another motivation theory related to this research is the self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985). This theory focuses on motivation, personality and optimal functioning. Basic assumption of this theory is that people have three innate psychological needs which are considered as universal necessities. Those are competence, relatedness and autonomy.

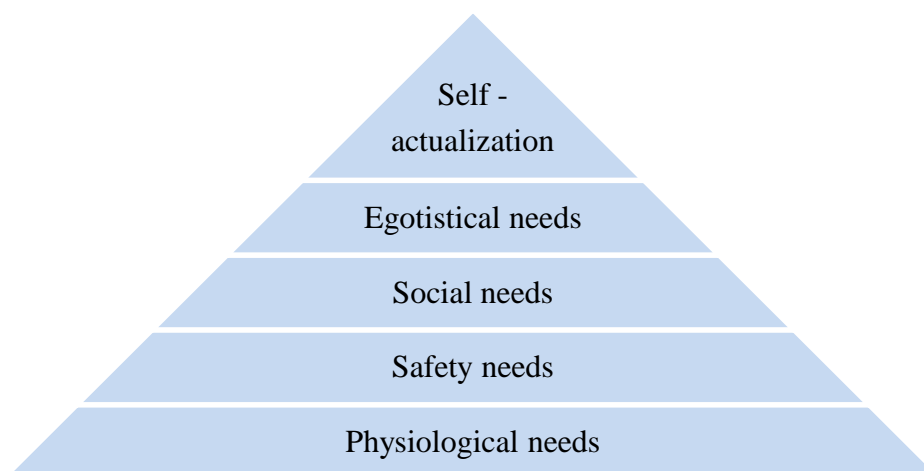
1.2.1 Needs-Based Theories

Needs-based theories have a long tradition of motivational research and its practical implications. Primarily needs-based theories were focused on deficiencies that people tried to avoid, and to identify what people needed to have a fulfilled life. In order for needs to be satisfied certain actions are required. In general, needs-based theories are investigating the role of labor in the process of satisfying needs (Šehić & Rahimić, 2009).

1.2.1.1 Maslow's Needs Hierarchy

One of the most popular motivation theories is the hierarchy of needs which was introduced by Maslow in 1943 (Maslow, 1943). According to this theory, human needs can be grouped in five categories which occur in a specific hierarchy. Theory suggests that lower order needs have to be satisfied in order for people to start satisfying those higher rated needs. Those five categories are presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs



Source: Dž. Šehić & Z. Rahimić, *Menadžment*, 2009, p. 208.

Physiological needs are related to satisfaction of basic survival needs such as hunger and thirst. Safety needs are not referring strictly to physical safety, but on a person's striving for

personal security i.e. steady job. Social needs refer to friendship, social acceptance, love and support. Egotistical needs represent the person's desire for respect and high social status (Šehić & Rahimić, 2009). Self-actualization occurs on the top of the pyramid and as Gouws (1995) suggests represents person's striving towards the full development of his potential, which is essentially never completely attained. Physiological and safety needs are needs of lower order, whereas the rest of the needs in the hierarchy are needs of the higher order.

Maslow's theory is based on two principles: deficit and progression principle (Šehić & Rahimić, 2009). According to the deficit principle, people are trying to satisfy needs that have not been satisfied earlier. Unsatisfied need has great impact on the people, and on the other hand, need that is satisfied is not motivator any more.

The progression principle describes human behavior as being motivated by the hierarchically lowest unsatisfied needs. Primarily, a person is trying to satisfy their physiological needs. After satisfying one group of needs people proceed to satisfying the next group of needs, because satisfied needs cease to be a motivator. This process continues all the way to the self-actualization. Needs for self-actualization are exception because it could never be completely attained.

Maslow's theory is widely accepted, especially among active managers (Hitka, Sedmak, Alač, & Grladinović, 2005) mostly because of the logic of hierarchy. On the other side, most of the empirical evidence does not support this theory (Baron et al., 2002). Lawler & Suttle (1972) conducted a research on a sample of 187 managers and found little evidence to support Maslow's theory. Neither the Hall & Nougain (1968) in their five-year observation of the group of managers found enough evidence to support the theory. Also, Maslow has been criticized for the fact that he did not take into account selfless acts like bravery or a starving artist who seeks self-actualization even when basic physiological needs are not satisfied (Ifedili & Ifedili, 2012, p. 80).

Despite the fact that the theory has limited empirical support, Spector (2003) suggests that Maslow's hierarchy of needs has positive impact on organizations as it has focused attention on the importance of addressing employees' needs at work.

1.2.1.2 Herzberg's Two Factor Theory

Herzberg's two factor theory was introduced in the 1950's (Herzberg, Mausner, & Sniderman, 1959), and developed from his work to determine the attitude of employees towards their job. Starting point for Herzberg's research were extensive interviews with 4000 employees about the attitudes toward their jobs. Based on the results of the research he formed certain categories of factors that were related to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction.

Herzberg's (1966) basic assumption was that motivation originates from the job itself, and not from external characteristics, and that factors which lead to job satisfaction are distinct from those leading to job dissatisfaction. Herzberg formed two categories of motivation factors:

- Hygiene factors as lower order needs, and

- Motivators as higher order needs.

Factors of lower order are hygiene factors. Examples for this group of factors are salary, work conditions, job status, level of supervision, interpersonal relationships, steady job, social status and private life. According to Herzberg (1966), absence of these factors causes dissatisfaction, but their presence does not contribute to work motivation and job satisfaction.

On the other side, motivators have a direct positive effect on work situation and lead to an improved productivity (Roos & van Eeden, 2008). Those positive factors are achievement, challenging job, responsibility, recognition and promotion. Presence of these factors contributes to work motivation and job satisfaction, but absence of these factors does not cause dissatisfaction at all.

Various researches have been conducted with the purpose of validation Herzberg's theory, but in general, literature can provide little supportive evidence for the theory (Šehić & Rahimić, 2009). Herzberg's theory was criticized very often because of the assumption that was found to be unstable (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005; Brenner, Carmack, & Weinstein, 1971; Farr, 1977; Leach & Westbrook, 2000; Locke, 1976; Maidani, 1991; Shipley & Kiely, 1988; Timmreck, 2001). Nevertheless, the theory has had a major impact on organizational psychology, because it has re-designed and re-shaped many jobs allowing employees greater involvement in planning, performing and evaluating their own work (Baron et al., 2002; Schultz & Schultz, 1998).

1.2.1.3 McClelland's Needs Theory

McClelland's (1961) Three - Needs theory, or as found in literature Achievements motivation theory (Schultz & Schultz, 1998), was introduced in the 1960's. Unlike the other theories, McClelland considered that needs are not innate but acquired through time and interactions with the environment. The author points out need for achievement, power and affiliation as crucial needs for humans (Šehić & Rahimić, 2009, p. 200).

Figure 2. McClelland's Three Needs Theory



Source: M. Adeel, *The Role of Leadership and Team-building in Project Management*, 2015.

McClelland explained each of three needs (Roos, 2005, p. 27):

- the need for power, which denotes the need to control others, influence their behavior and be responsible for them;
- the need for affiliation, which refers to the desire to establish and maintain satisfying relationship with other people;
- the need for achievement, viewed as behavior directed towards competitions with standards of excellence.

Although not widely accepted, Beach (1980) suggests that McClelland presented his theory with a focus on employees with a strong need to achieve.

1.2.2 Cognitive Theories

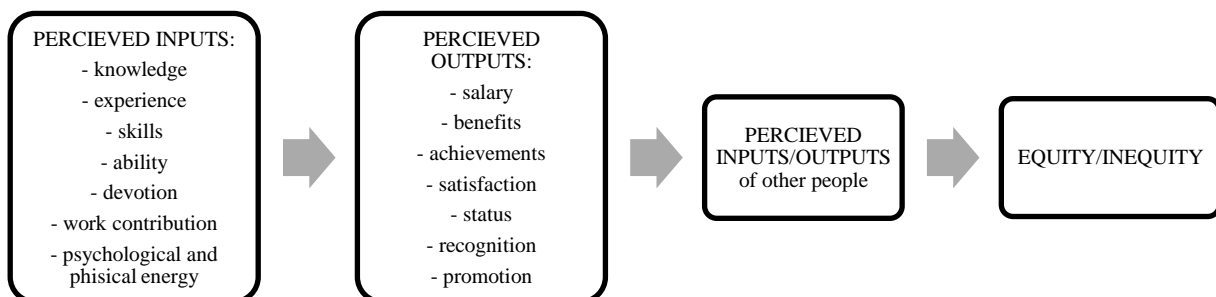
Cognitive or process theories represent the second major group of motivation theories. According to cognitive theories, the concept of needs is not enough for explaining work motivation, thus it is necessary to consider other factors such as perception, expectations, values and their interactions. Focus of these theories is on the processes and factors which affect people and cause certain behavior.

1.2.2.1 Equity Theory

Equity theory was introduced by Stacey Adams in 1960's and it was based on the assumption that people are motivated to achieve a condition of equity in their dealing with other people and their organization (Adams, 1965).

Equity theory focuses on individual's point of view between output gained (rewards from company) and inputs invested (effort, experience and education) comparing to input/output ratio of other people (Šehić & Rahimić, 2009). Equity theory presents balance between input/output ratios of one person compared to the other person ratio, which is shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3. Major Components of Equity Theory



Source: F. Bahtijarević-Šiber, *Menadžment ljudskih potencijala*, 1999, p. 586.

Equity theory deals with the motivational implications of perceived unfairness and injustice in the workplace (Roos, 2005). Also, this theory significantly contributed for more recent

theories on distributive and procedural justice (Folger, Cropanzano, Timmerman, Howes, & Mitchell, 1996).

Over the years, equity theory has stimulated number of researches, but today's lack of interest for this theory is mostly caused by its inability to predict people's perception of the equitability of their specific situation. Despite the shortcomings, this theory emphasized the importance of fair treatment, and the consequences of failing to do so (Spector, 2003).

1.2.2.2 Goal-setting Theory

Edwin Locke introduced his goal-setting theory in 1960's (Locke, 1968). This perspective of motivation has assumption that people's behavior is motivated by their internal intensions, objectives and goals, or put differently, by what people consciously want to achieve (Roos, 2005).

As explained in this theory, goals affect behavior in four ways (Locke and Henne, 1986, in Roos, 2005, p. 31):

- they direct attention and action to those behaviors which a person believes will achieve a particular goal;
- they mobilize effort towards reaching the goal;
- they increase the person's persistence, which results in more time spent on the behaviors necessary to attain the desired goal;
- they motivate the person's search for effective strategies for goal attainment.

Also, this theory explains how goal-directed behavior can increase job performance. In this context, Locke and Henne (1986, in Roos, 2005, p. 31) set several prerequisites:

- a through commitment to the specific goal;
- regular feedback on the person's performance towards attaining the goal;
- the more challenging the goal is perceived to be, the better the person's performance is likely to be;
- specific goals are more effective than vague goals, i.e. "do your best";
- self-set goals are preferred over organizationally set goals.

This theory suggests that goals should be difficult and specific. These kinds of goals act as internal boost which motivate an employee to gain more effort to achieve best possible outcome. Also, difficult tasks help employees in better allocation of their inputs (Šehić & Rahimić, 2009).

Literature can provide opposite views regarding goal-setting theory. On one side, comprehensive researches and analyses found that goal-setting theory contribute to employees output (Wood, Mento, & Locke, 1987), while recent studies show that under certain circumstances, goal setting can decrease success of a task (Šehić & Rahimić, 2009).

1.2.2.3 Vroom's Expectancy Theory

One of the most famous process theories is considered to be the expectancy theory which was introduced in 1964 by Canadian professor Victor Vroom (1964). The basic assumption of this theory is that people's behavior is based on their beliefs and expectations regarding future events, especially ones that provide them maximal advantage (Baron et al., 2002). Also, the theory explains how rewards lead to behavior through focusing on internal cognitive states that leads to motivation (Spector, 2003). Put differently, people are motivated to certain activities if they believe that such behavior will lead to the wanted outcomes.

As the equation (1) below shows, Vroom's formulated motivation (or force) as a mathematical function of three types of cognitions:

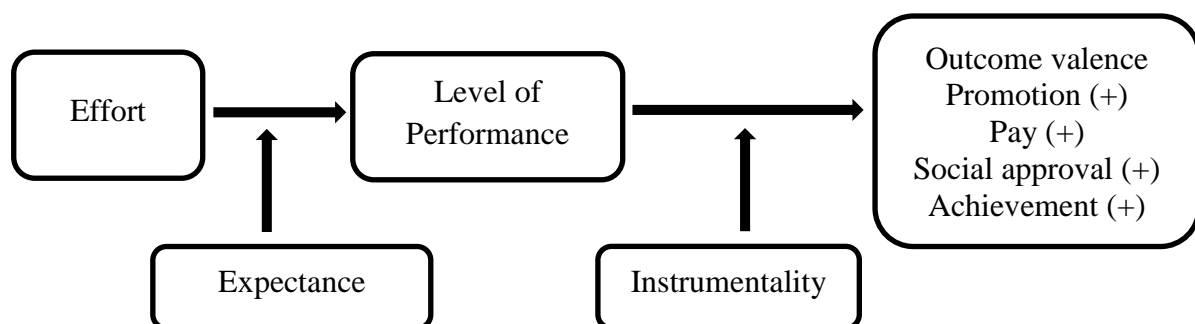
$$Force = Expectancy \times \sum (Valences \times Instrumentalities) \quad (1)$$

Cognition components from the formula can be explained as (Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996, p. 576):

- force is the person's motivation to perform;
- expectancy is subjective probability of an action or effort leading to an outcome or performance;
- valence is defined as all possible affective orientations towards outcomes, and it is interpreted as the importance, attractiveness, desirability, or anticipated satisfaction with outcomes;
- instrumentality is defined as an outcome-outcome association, and it is interpreted as a probability to obtain outcome.

Vroom's models state that the instrumentality of a number of outcomes, weighted by valence, is to be summed and then multiplied by person's expectancy in order to produce motivation (Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996, p. 576). Interpretation of Vroom's formula which states that if any of the components equals zero, the overall level of motivation will be zero, has led to a lot of controversy among researchers. Since the introduction of the theory, researchers argue that some outcomes irrelevant to the subject may be included in the process, while relevant outcomes may not. Therefore, if irrelevant outcome, which instrumentality equals zero, is included in the process, overall motivation equals zero (Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996).

Figure 4. Vroom's Valence-Instrumentality-Expectancy Model



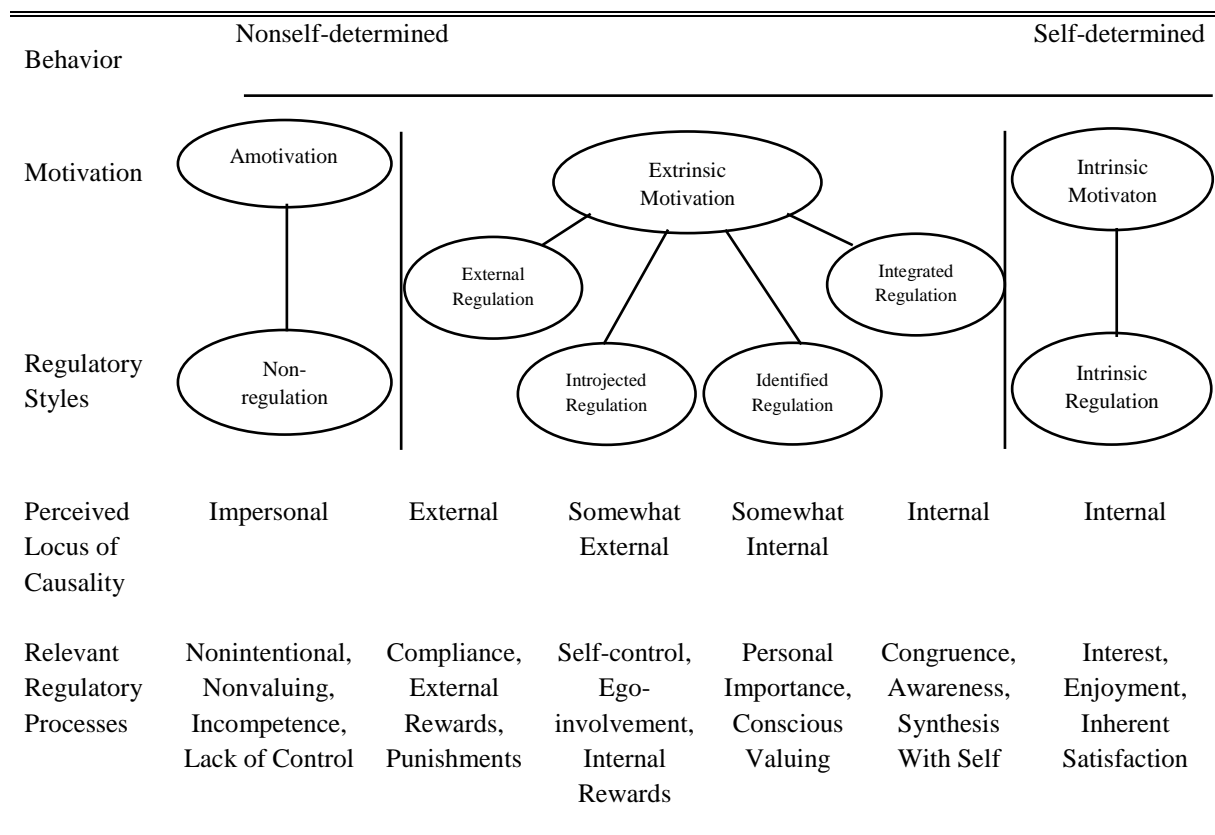
Source: R.C. Beck, *Motivation: Theories and principles*, 1983, p. 382.

Vroom's theory has been influential since its introduction mostly for the more realistic approach than other theories (Maslow's and Herzberg's) and by presenting motivation as much more complex phenomenon as it has been previously presented (Šehić & Rahimić, 2009). On the other side, it has been criticized for the assumption that people are rational in their decision-making process (Hadebe, 2011). Considering basic assumptions of the theory that perceived values in different times and places vary among the individuals, practice has shown that theory has limited use (Hadebe, 2011).

1.2.3 Self-determination Theory

Although self-determination theory was initially introduced in 1970s by Deci and Ryan, first comprehensively elaboration of the theory appeared in 1980s by same authors (Deci & Ryan, 1985). According to authors, SDT is an approach to human motivation and personality that uses traditional empirical methods that highlights the importance of humans' evolved inner resources for personality development and behavioral self-regulation (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p.68). As authors suggests, SDT is theory that examines human motivation and focuses on personality development, self-regulation, universal psychological needs, life goals and aspirations, energy and vitality, non-conscious processes, the relations of culture to motivation, and impact of social environments on motivation, affect, behavior, and wellbeing (Deci & Ryan, 2008, p. 182).

Figure 5. The Self-Determination Continuum Showing Types of Motivation with Their Regulatory Styles, Locus of Causality and Corresponding Processes



Source: R.M. Ryan & E.L. Deci, *Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being*, 2000, p. 72.

This theory focuses on types, rather than just amount of motivation, especially emphasizing autonomous motivation, controlled motivation and amotivation as predictors of performance, relational and well-being outcomes (Deci & Ryan, 2008, p. 182). Autonomous motivation consists of both, intrinsic and extrinsic types of motivation, in which people have identified their selves with an activity's value and in final instance, will integrate it into their sense of self (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Autonomous motivation influences people in a way that they experience volition or a self-endorsement as consequence of their actions. On the other side, controlled motivation consists of external regulation, in which one's behavior is a function of external contingencies of reward or punishment, and introjected regulation, in which the regulation of action has been partially internalized and is energized by factors such as approval motive, avoidance of shame, contingent self-esteem and ego involvements (Deci & Ryan, 2008, p. 182). When people are controlled, they experience different kinds of pressure such as pressure to think, feel or behave in particular way. Autonomous and controlled motivation direct people's behavior and both of them stand in contrast to amotivation, which refers to lack of intention and motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2008).

Figure 5 represent the self-determination continuum showing amotivation, which is wholly lacking in self-determination; types of extrinsic motivation, which vary in their degree of self-determination; and intrinsic motivation which is invariantly self-determined. Also shown are the nature of the regulation for each and its placement along the continuum indexing the degree to which each represents autonomous motivation (Gagne & Deci, 2005, p. 336).

At the far left of the self-determination continuum (Figure 5, p. 12) is amotivation, the state of lacking the intention to act. When people are amotivated, they either do not act at all or act without intent – they just go through the motions. Amotivation often results from not valuing an activity, not feeling competent to do it, or not expecting it to yield a desired outcome (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 72).

At the far right end of the self-determination continuum (Figure 5, p. 12) is state of intrinsic motivation, the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfaction. It is highly autonomous and represents the prototypic instance of self-determination (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 72).

Extrinsically motivated behaviors cover the continuum between amotivation and intrinsic motivation, varying in the extent to which their regulation is autonomous. The self-determination continuum show (Figure 5, p. 12) four types of extrinsically motivated behaviors which are classified as external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation and integrated regulation.

The extrinsically motivated behaviors that are least autonomous are referred to as externally regulated. Such behaviors are performed to satisfy an external demand or reward contingency. Individuals typically experience externally regulated behavior as controlled or alienated, and their actions have an external perceived locus of causality (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 72). Next type of extrinsic motivation is introjected regulation. Introjection involves taking in a regulation but not fully accepting it as one's own. It is defined as relatively controlled form of regulation in which behaviors are performed to avoid guilt of anxiety or to attain ego enhancements such as pride. Another form of extrinsic motivation that is more self-

determined is identified regulation. Identification reflects a conscious valuing of a behavioral goal or regulation, such that the action is accepted or owned as personally important. The last type of extrinsic motivation, which is also the most autonomous form, is integrated regulation. Integration occurs when identified regulations are fully assimilated to the self, which means they have been evaluated and brought into congruence with one's other values and needs. Actions characterized by integrated motivation share many qualities with intrinsic motivation, although they are still considered extrinsic because they are done to attain separable outcomes rather than for their inherent enjoyment.

In general, SDT consists of causality orientations and aspirations as two general concepts. Causality orientations are general motivational orientations that refer to the way people orient to the environment concerning information related to the initiation and regulation of behavior, and the extent to which they are self-determined in general, across situations and domains (Deci & Ryan, 2008, p. 183). SDT recognizes three orientations: autonomous, controlled and impersonal. According to the theory, needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness are three basic needs. Satisfaction with all of the three needs can result in autonomous orientation. In situation where people are satisfied with competence and relatedness needs but thwarting of the need for autonomy can cause development of a strong controlled orientation. And, lack of satisfaction with all of the three needs leads to development of the impersonal orientation (Deci & Ryan, 2008).

Based on empirical evidence, SDT focuses on long-term goals that people use to guide their activities. Kasser and Ryan (1996) classified those goals in two categories, intrinsic and extrinsic aspirations. Intrinsic aspirations include such life goals as affiliation, generativity and personal development, and on the other side extrinsic aspirations include goals as wealth, fame and attractiveness (Deci & Ryan, 2008, p. 183). Based on the empirical evidence (Vansteenkiste, Simons, Lens, Sheldon, & Deci, 2004), number of studies has shown that preferring intrinsic rather than extrinsic goals is associated with greater health, well-being and performance.

Over the years, SDT show itself as reliable in a wide range of many of life's domain, especially in topics such as close relationships (La Guardia & Patrick, 2008), education (Guay, Ratelle, & Chanal, 2008), work (Gagne & Forest, 2008), well-being and health (Miquelon & Vallerand, 2008), sport and exercise (Wilson, Mack, & Grattan, 2008).

2 JOB SATISFACTION

Nowadays, the concept of job satisfaction enjoys increasing attention in the organizational sense, and accordingly, managers try to maintain the high level of job satisfaction among their employees, primarily for its impact on productivity, absenteeism, employee turnover and union activity in general (Arnold & Feldman, 1986). As Spector (2003) suggested, job satisfaction has an important role in employee and organizational outcomes, ranging from job performance to health and longevity. Locke (1976) emphasized the significance of job satisfaction with the fact that between 1935 and 1976 was more than 3000 researches published related to job satisfaction.

The following chapter will deal with several aspects of job satisfaction. First, the concept of job satisfaction will be explained, and in second part of the chapter determinants of job satisfaction will be elaborated.

2.1 Definitions of Job Satisfaction

Theoretically, satisfaction is in direct correlation with motivation in many cases in empirical research studies. These two terms are connected in many ways and mutually conditioned, but they differ one from another unconditionally. Job satisfaction is considered to be a relatively persistent phenomenon that involves affective orientation towards job factors and work environment. Paul Spector (1997) defines job satisfaction as what a person feels toward his job and various aspect of the job. In line with this Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as a satisfactory or positive emotional state resulting from good work judging or work experience. At the same time, it is considered that job satisfaction, in addition to emotional satisfaction, includes also cognitive and behavioral component.

As already mentioned job satisfaction can be described as an emotional response to work related situations (Kinicki & Kreitner, 2003). In line with this, Megginson, Mosley, and Pietri (1982) stated that people experience job satisfaction when they feel good about their job and that feeling often arises from achievements and recognition after job well done. Since job satisfaction is influenced by employees' emotions and feelings, it has a major influence on various aspects of life (Sempane, Rieger, & Roodt, 2002).

As mentioned above, job satisfaction is related with general satisfaction in life. Judge and Watanabe (1994) determined three types of relationships between job satisfaction and satisfaction in everyday life. The first type presents converting job satisfaction to other aspects of life and other way around. The second type is segmentation where job satisfaction and satisfaction with everyday life are two separate things and they don't affect each other. The third type of relationship is compensation where lack of satisfaction in everyday life can be compensated with satisfaction at work or other way around.

Schultz and Schultz (1998) stated that job satisfaction encompasses the positive as well as the negative aspects of the job and that depends of various work-related and personal characteristics. Accordingly, job satisfaction presents complex function with various determinants such as people's motivation and aspiration, work conditions, and number of determinants that are not work related.

2.2 Job Satisfaction Determinants

The topic of job satisfaction has been actualized in last few decades, because of its growing importance for individuals as well as for organizations. Beside the fact that employee job satisfaction has a great contribution on an organizational level, it also influences individuals in their personal and social life (Sempane et al., 2002). Maintaining a high level of job satisfaction is crucial for both, employees and the companies, thus a great number of researchers have focused on investigating causes and determinants of job satisfaction. The

following paragraphs will provide a literature review on categorization regarding causes and determinants of job satisfaction.

Kinicki and Kreitner (2003) made the categorization of job satisfaction determinants with five principal models that identify its causes. The first category of models is discrepancy models and they suggest that job satisfaction is result of met expectations. Widely accepted definition of met expectations is that met expectations depict that people compare their pre-entry expectations with post-entry perceptions (Porter & Steers, 1973). This implies that a person will experience job satisfaction when his expectations are exceeded by what he receives from the company. On the other hand, dissatisfaction will occur when a person's expectations are greater than what he has received from the company. Regarding evidence for validity of met expectation models, literature can provide studies which have proved that met expectations are significantly correlated to job satisfaction (Wanous, Poland, Premack, & Davis, 1992).

According to Kinicki and Kreitner (2003), the next category of models that influence job satisfaction is related to need fulfillment. They explained that job satisfaction is determined to the degree that the characteristics of certain job allow an employee to fulfill needs. This model emphasizes that on one side employees have relatively stable and unchanging needs, while on the other side, job may have certain characteristics which employees consider as interesting and appealing (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977). Accordingly, when these job characteristics start to coincide with employees' needs, employees are satisfied. At the same time, that is the basic assumption of the model.

The third category of models refers to ones that are situated in the value attainment category. Models in the value attainment category describe job satisfaction as satisfaction which arises from the perception that a job itself is sufficient to fulfill person's needs (Kinicki & Kreitner, 2003). George and Jones (1996) in their research on value attainment suggested that the attainment of general values at work have great influence on job satisfaction and job performance. In addition, they emphasized importance of value attainment which is directly related to work and work related variables that can help an employee to attain certain life values. Basic assumption of this model is that dissatisfaction will occur if those values are not attained.

According to authors (Kinicki & Kreitner, 2003), the fourth category consists of models that falls under the heading of equity which define satisfaction as function of how an employee perceives to be treated at work. This model is related to equity theory and focuses on comparison between input/output ratio of one employee to same ratio of his colleagues. When an employee thinks that his input/output ratio equals to the others, he has impression of fair treatment which in final instance lead to job satisfaction. In absence of fair treatment, dissatisfaction will occur (Witt & Nye, 1992).

The fifth category consists of dispositional or generic components (Kinicki & Kreitner, 2003). In these models, satisfaction is presented as a function of genetic factors and personal traits. Researches on this subject were mostly conducted on examples of monozygotic twins and found that genetic components influence job satisfaction and subjective well-being (Arvey, Bouchard, Segal, & Abraham, 1989; Diener & Diener, 1996). This model can explain why

people express their happiness and satisfaction even when situated in disadvantaged and marginalized groups.

2.3 Job Satisfaction and Consequences

Job satisfaction is in correlation with a number of variables, and together, they influence and shape organizational behavior. Literature can provide insight into relationship between job satisfaction and other variables such as job involvement, organizational citizenship behavior, organizational commitment, turnover, absenteeism, job performance etc. Following paragraphs will provide literature review on correlation of job satisfaction with other variables.

Job involvement can be defined as a degree to which employees psychologically identify themselves with their job (Chiu & Tsai, 2006). In addition, job involvement is considered as cognitive state of psychological identification with the job, because job is supposed to fulfill individual's expectations and needs (Kanungo, 1979). The great number of researchers (Brown, 1996; Kinicki, McKee-Ryan, Schriesheim, & Carson, 2002; Knoop, 1995; Rose & Wright, 2005; Weissenberg & Gruenfeld, 1968; Workman & Bommer, 2004; Workman, 2003) has investigated the correlation between job satisfaction and job involvement. The majority of these researchers, based on their studies, has proven strong or moderately strong correlation between job satisfaction and job involvement. On the other hand, Knoop (1995) investigated this relationship on sample of nurses and found weak correlation between job satisfaction and job involvement. According to Knoop (1995), these results are influenced by the nature of work which caused employees to feel more obligated than satisfied with their job. From an organizational point of view the relationship between job involvement and job satisfaction has great importance on overall productivity, because satisfied employees can more easily identify their selves with their job and in final instance be more productive and more engaged in their everyday work.

Next in line among variables that are correlated to job satisfaction is organizational citizenship behavior. According to Kinicki and Kreitner (2003), term organizational citizenship behavior refers to certain actions that go beyond the call of duty and standardized work. As Organ (1990) emphasizes, organizational citizenship behavior involves higher level of employee engagement and participation in actions like training and educating new employees, active involvement in work improvement, care for organizational property and belongings of colleagues, maintaining good relationships with colleagues no matter of their position etc. Organizational citizenship behavior can be defined as behavior which is discretionary and not directly awarded by the company's reward system, but this behavior has positive impact on company, affecting work atmosphere and effective functioning of the company (Organ, 1990). Furthermore, this behavior is not obligated nor is in the job description, but this behavior occurs as a personal choice of an employee. After conducted meta-analysis investigating predictors of organizational citizenship behavior, Organ and Ryan (1995) found that there is strong correlation between organizational citizenship behavior and job satisfaction. Other researchers (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000; Van Dyne & Ang, 1998) have confirmed this correlation in their studies, but have also emphasized

the role of managers in process of identifying with company's goals and accepting this kind of behavior by employees.

Another variable that is related to organizational citizenship behavior and job involvement, and is correlated to job satisfaction is organizational commitment. Considering that organizational citizenship behavior and organizational commitment are similar variables, majority of above mentioned traits which characterize behavior that is in line with organizational citizenship behavior should be adopted and incorporated into employees' behavior in order for them to be committed to organization. The term organizational commitment can be explained as a degree to which an employee identifies themselves with the company and commit to company's goals (Kinicki & Kreitner, 2003). According to Fang (2001), committed employees are loyal to company, defensive, and stay within the company even when they have opportunity for job with better conditions. Numerous authors (Lincoln & Kalleberg, 1996; Mueller & Price, 1990; Staw, Sutton, & Pelled, 1994; Yoon & Thye, 2002) found strong link between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. This opinion was supported in various studies conducted over the years (Kinicki et al., 2002; McNeese-Smith, 2001; Tett & Meyer, 1993).

The next variable that is going to be elaborated is turnover. As Griffeth, Hom, and Gaertner (2000) presented, employee turnover is number of employees that are leaving the company compared to the number of total employees working in the company. Turnover is important issue to any company for two reasons. First, it has a negative influence on a company's finance, but more importantly it disrupts continuity, which is of great importance for organizational success (Kinicki & Kreitner, 2003). Turnover has more disadvantages than just financial costs, and that negative effects best manifest on employee continuity, organizational stability, and organizational productivity (Zhong, Siong, Mellor, Moore, & Firth, 2006). A number of studies proved that there is strong or moderately strong negative correlation between job satisfaction and turnover (Alexander, Lichtenstein, Oh, & Ullman, 1998; Griffeth et al., 2000; Zhong et al., 2006).

The next variable that is correlated with job satisfaction, and just as turnover, have negative influence on business is absenteeism. Term absenteeism refers to unscheduled employee absence from the job. Absence has negative influence on organizations and is accompanied by several disadvantages. Those disadvantages are inability to provide service, low moral which causes low productivity, overtime work hours, reduction in the range or standard of services, and an increase in demands on the organization's sick pay system.

There are many reasons for legitimate absence like illness, pregnancy, death in the family, but also, reasons for which absence can be unjustified (Haswell, 2003). Such reasons often arise from a bad work atmosphere, weak interpersonal relationship or simply not being committed to work. Good example for absenteeism is the Super Bowl, the final game of American football. Study conducted on that topic found that day after the Super Bowl, 1% of total American workforce plan to call in sick, and in the two cities, which have their teams in finals, astonishing 8% planned to call in sick (Study: Super Bowl affects worker absenteeism in the day after the game, 2005). Another example of absenteeism, but this time legitimate, investigated Hackett and Bycio (1996). They found that nurses compared to other profession

have significantly higher absence rate due to stress and job related injuries. As supposed, studies and meta-analysis conducted on this subject found that there is weak negative correlation between absenteeism and job satisfaction (Hackett, Bycio, & Guion, 1989; Lewig & Dollard, 2003).

Variable that is present in every environment and is correlated to job satisfaction is perceived stress. Stress is dynamic condition in which person is confronted with a demand, a constraint, or an opportunity associated with what person wants and for which the result is perceived to be both important as well as uncertain (Robbins, 2003, in Oudejans, 2007, p. 39). Although, stress is often discussed in negative context, stress could sometimes have positive outcomes. Robbins (2003) stated that stress can lead to better performance, especially in sport events. When talking about employee stress, there are several symptoms that can occur as a result of stress like loss of appetite, headaches, high blood pressure, changes in weight, depression, sleeping problems etc. Robbins (2003) classified these symptoms in three categories: psychological, physiological, and behavioral. Psychological category is most important for companies, because it causes dissatisfaction, and is in strong positive correlation with turnover and absenteeism (Griffeth et al., 2000). As expected, there is strong negative correlation between job satisfaction and stress which has been proved in number of studies and meta-analysis (Babin & Boles, 1998; Hollon & Chessser, 1976; Miles, 1975; Tetrick & LaRocco, 1987). Tetrick and LaRocco (1987) conducted research referring to the impact of stress on job satisfaction among medical staff. They found strong negative correlation between stress and job satisfaction, but also came to a conclusion that stress weaken among employees who have control over their job.

The next variable that is correlated with job satisfaction is job performance. Job performance is one of the variables that has great importance on company's success, thus it was one of the most researched topics in the field of organizational behavior. Petty, McGee, and Cavander (1984) have conducted meta-analysis on 17 studies and found moderately strong correlation between job performance and job satisfaction. More recent meta-analysis (Judge, Thoresen, Bonno, & Patton, 2001) on this subject supported Petty et al. (1984) results, adding to the conclusion even stronger correlation between job performance and job satisfaction. In addition, Crow, Hartman, and Henson (2006) conducted study on this subject in health care sector and confirmed previously published results.

Brayfield and Crockett (1955) were one of the first that linked motivation and job satisfaction stating that existence of job satisfaction does not imply strong motivation. Also, motivation was related to satisfaction with development of motivation theories.

Drake and Mitchell (1977) conducted a series of studies investigating influence of horizontal and vertical power on motivation and satisfaction. Horizontal linkages deals with supervisor-subordinate relationship, while horizontal examine relation between sub groups (Oudejans, 2007). These findings should direct managers to balance power within the sub groups in order to ensure the highest level of motivation and satisfaction among employees.

Over time, series of researches and meta-analysis were conducted investigating link between motivation and job satisfaction, examining antecedents, correlation and consequences of job

satisfaction (Kinicki et al., 2002). They found a moderately positive correlation between job satisfaction and motivation. These findings backed up the idea that managers should enhance employee's motivation in order to increase job satisfaction.

According to Timmreck (2001), motivation and satisfaction are crucial concepts in health care sector and fair treatment of employees leads to job satisfaction, turnover reduction, high quality services, and good work environment and interpersonal relationships among the employees. Low level of satisfaction among healthcare employees causes increment of turnover and absenteeism rate, and decrease in motivation which in final instance has negative consequences for the patients.

Over the years, there were number of studies and analyses (Drake & Mitchell, 1977; Kinicki et al., 2002; Lambert, 1991; Lewig & Dollard, 2003; Phillips & Freedman, 1984; Sargiacomo, 2002; Timmreck, 2001; Wegge, Van Dick, Fisher, Wecking, & Moltzen, 2006) that investigated relationship between job satisfaction and motivation in different fields of industry. Common to these researches is that great number of them found moderately or strong positive correlation between job satisfaction and motivation.

3 HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

The previous chapters have focused on literature review and theoretical background of motivation and job satisfaction. This study is focused on determining current level of employee work motivation and job satisfaction and identifying factors which influence both, motivation and job satisfaction. As mentioned before the objectives of the study are, to determine whether monetary rewards are main source of employee work motivation and job satisfaction, and to determine the differences in level of job satisfaction and motivation between different socio-demographic groups among CCUS (Clinical Center University of Sarajevo) employees. In this chapter, hypotheses that are relevant for this study will be defined.

3.1 Importance of Monetary Rewards to CCUS Employees

Changes in health care are continuous and at an accelerated pace, thus with these changes the need for more inspiring employees is emerging (Lambrou et al., 2010, p. 6). Frequently asked question is how to motivate employees in the face of increased demands, particularly when they are being asked to meet these demands with fewer resources, and thus contribute to greater productivity of the company and better functioning in general. Motivation is the key for achieving high business standards, innovation and development, creativity, employee professional development and their retention in the company.

Based on meta-analysis and empirical evidence regarding motivation in developing and developed countries, Dolea and Adams (2005, p. 135) identified seven job characteristics which have prove to be important motivation determinants. These characteristics are arranged in order as follows: work itself, relationships at work, workplace conditions, personal development opportunities, pay/reward, management practices and organizational policies.

Above mentioned job characteristics will be evaluated in this study with special emphasis on financial incentives.

The philosophical issue of why money motivates has long been debated. Critical reasons for the motivational potential of money include its instrumental and symbolic meanings. The instrumental meaning of money concerns with what we get for it, whereas symbolic meaning of money concerns how it is viewed by ourselves and people in general (Gupta & Shaw, 1988). Money motivates because it can get us things, and signals our status in and worth to society.

No other incentive or motivational technique comes close to money (Locke, Feren, McCaleb, Shaw, & Denny, 1980, p. 379). This quotation reflects the dominant view in the management accounting literature that financial incentives systems have a strong motivational effect. As it was often suggested in literature, primary aim of financial incentives is to enhance extrinsic motivation by satisfying an individual employee's needs indirectly through means of pay and bonuses (Stringer, Didham, & Theivananthampillai, 201, p. 162)

One of the main reasons for assuming that financial incentives are main source of employee motivation and job satisfaction is economic crisis (Markovits et al., 2014; Mujanović, 2013) and its impact on the business environment. Economic crises affect the health sector in different ways. First, budget cuts cause a reduction in the number and scope of services that hospitals provide for the patients (Mladovsky, Srivastava, & Cylus 2012). Therefore, patients are exposed to additional costs. Second, governments in many countries decreased public expenditure on health (Mladovsky et al., 2012). Such political strategies affect healthcare companies which produce medical equipment. The most important effects of economic crises, for this research, are ones that affect health sector employees. Studies have shown that crisis affects employees in a way that they have to change priorities, pushing job security and financial incentives in the first place (Bell & Blanchflower, 2011). In line with this, Mladovsky et al. (2012) conducted study investigating effects of economic crises on health sector in European countries. They found that budget cuts in several countries resulted in decreased income among medical staff and cessation of employment. Therefore, financial incentives are considered to be important factor in process of work motivation.

On the other hand, job satisfaction is also determined by many work related factors, including various financial incentives. Job satisfaction is enhanced by a good salary, stress free environment and professional gratification (Mrduljaš-Đujić, Kuzmanović, Kardum, & Rumboldt, 2010). In line with this, one of the most common research topics in this field are ones relating examination of relationship between job satisfaction and financial incentives. Based on empirical evidence, it has been proven that the relationship between job satisfaction and income is causal (Beutell & Wittig-Berman, 1999; Igalens & Roussel, 1999). Therefore, increment in employee's income will result in increased job satisfaction. In addition, this topic has been in the focus of numerous researches (Al-Zoubi, 2012; Bender & Heywood, 2006; Jones & Sloane, 2007; Oshagbemi, 2000), because in today's environment it is easier to link income and other financial incentives to overall satisfaction because of its impact on everyday life.

Factors that influence work motivation and job satisfaction can be intrinsic and extrinsic. Monetary rewards falls under extrinsic factors, and are one of the major factors that organizational practice of work motivation is based on. Besides that, it is under direct influence of organizational management and its established policies. The cause of specific behavior can be an internal psychological trigger that force people for certain activity, thus someone's performance is not depending only of his abilities, but motivation as well. Accordingly, number of economists (Anthony & Govindarajan, 2007; Corley, 2011; Van Herpen et al., 2005) supported and agreed with the statement that monetary rewards are major driving force for employees. This gives rise to two main hypotheses of this research:

H1a: Employees at the Clinical Centre University of Sarajevo are mostly motivated with monetary rewards.

H1b: Employees at the Clinical Centre University of Sarajevo are mostly satisfied with monetary rewards.

3.2 Differences in Level of Motivation and Job Satisfaction among Employees within different Socio-demographic Groups

Partial hypotheses refer to differences in level of job satisfaction/motivation among different socio-demographic groups.

It is not uncommon to assume that an individual's wants and needs are determined by their level of education. Literature can provide evidence for different preferences among individuals with different level of education. Higher educated employees tend to be more motivated with meaningful and stimulating job content and opportunities for personal development (Bellenger, Wilcox & Ingram, 1984; Peters, Chakraborty, Mahapatra, & Steinhardt, 2010; Tolbert & Moen, 1988), while employees with lower education prefer job security and stable income (Newman, 1999).

In literature it is known as "paradox of the educated worker" which predicts an inverse relationship between education and job satisfaction (Gao & Smith, 2010, p. 15). Education raises expectations to an extent that is not matched by intrinsic (job enrichment, trainings, career development, etc.) nor extrinsic rewards (financial incentives), which in a final instance leads to job dissatisfaction (Nielsen & Smith, 2008). These statements were supported by researchers who provided evidence for education to be inversely related to job satisfaction (Gao & Smith, 2010; Kavanaugh, Duffy, & Lilly, 2006). Too high professional expectations often results in a negative feelings that produce poor work outcomes, dissatisfaction, and affect private life as well (Mrduljaš-Đujić et al., 2010).

In line with this, Clark, Oswald and Warr (1996) surveyed over five thousand employees in order to examine relationship between education and job satisfaction. They concluded that job satisfaction declines with high level of education, thus with higher level of education comes higher expectations which are often not met. Similar results were provided by Al-Zoubi (2012) who confirmed inverse relationship between education and job satisfaction.

Based on presented theoretical and practical evidence, hypotheses that refer to investigating level of motivation/job satisfaction among employees with different level of education are:

H2a: There is a difference in level of motivation between employees with different level of education.

H3a: There is a difference in level of job satisfaction between employees with different level of education.

Considering that the aging process can be defined as changes that occur in biological, psychological and social functioning through time and affects each individual at the personal, organizational and societal level, individuals with different chronological age may differ in terms of health, career stage and family status (Kooij, De Lange, Jansen, & Kanfer, 2011, p. 199). As Karaskakovska (2011, p. 30) stated, employees of different ages should be treated differently referring to needs and goals they are trying to satisfy because there is no single way to motivate a 23-year-old who views work as a hobby and a 45-year-old who wants everyone in the company to know about his every accomplishment. These two age groups live in separate worlds. As the numerous researchers confirmed (Higgs, Mein, Ferrie, Hyde, & Narzoo, 2003; Hurd, 1996; Kauffman, 1987; Kooij et al., 2011; Kovach, 1995; Locke, 1999; Lord, 2002; Lunsford, 2009; Stead, 2009; Warr, 1992; Wong, Gardiner, Lang, & Coulon, 2008; Worthley, MacNab, Brislin, Ito, & Rose, 2009), it is hard to expect that employees from different age groups are motivated by same factors.

Kovach (1995) conducted study on 1000 employees investigating the impact of motivational factors on differently aged employees and concluded that younger employees are more concerned with pay, job security and challenging work, while older employees prefer benefits and good retirement conditions. Lord (2002) also provided empirical evidence for existence of significant difference in the level of importance of motivational factors between younger and older employees. Unlike the Kovach (1995), Lord's results indicated that employees younger than 50 years preferred job security, salary and good relations with superiors, while employees older than 50 years stated that workplace independence is more important than other factors. In case of Australian employees, Stead (2009) found that most significant factors that vary with age are autonomy, personal growth and progression.

As various studies (Clark et al., 1996; Gazioglu & Tensel, 2006; Mesh'al, 2001; Mrduljaš-Đujić et al., 2010) found, income is another factor that influence job satisfaction, but also its importance vary with employee's age. Clark et al. (1996) surveyed 5192 British full-time employees with an aim to prove that job satisfaction is "U-shaped" with age, meaning that the youngest and the oldest employees would be most satisfied with their salary. The study showed that there is linear relationship between years of age and satisfaction.

Hypotheses that refer to employees' age are:

H2b: There is a difference in level of motivation between employees with different years of age.

H3b: There is a difference in level of job satisfaction between employees with different years of age.

Some psychological processes and attributes undergo changes at different stages of the life cycle which are likely to affect the extent to which individuals are motivated by different job features and work outcomes (Inceoglu, Segers, & Bartram 2012, p. 63). Number of researchers (Baltes, Staudinger, & Lindenberger, 1999; Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004; Warr, 2001) has found that some psychological processes affect work motivation and job satisfaction. Those are employee perceptions which change over time, resource availability and work outcomes, financial incentives in means of pay and bonuses, personal development etc.

It is unusual that the same motivational factors are appreciated by employees of different age and experience. Research conducted on employees from 19 Northern European countries found that more experienced employees prefer intrinsically motivating job features, while less experienced employees value extrinsic motivators more (Inceoglu, Segers, Bartram, & Vloeberghs, 2009). These findings are in line with the Kanfer and Ackerman's (2004) study who found that importance of extrinsic rewards decreases, while intrinsically motivating job features become more attractive over the years. Another research conducted in Cyprus (Lambrou et al., 2010) has similar results. Authors concluded that job satisfaction effect of remuneration is mostly influenced by gender and sector, but in general, as workers became more experienced their satisfaction with remuneration factor appears to decline.

Jathanna, Melisha, Mary, and Latha (2011) conducted study in India and surveyed over 1100 healthcare employees. The results indicated that least experienced employees were most satisfied with their job, and as employees' experience increases so their job satisfaction declines.

Number of studies have found (Hurd, 1996; Inceoglu et al., 2012; Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004; Kooij et al., 2011) that years of age and years of experience are proportional variables, because, in most countries, people often find employment within few years after completing their education (Mourshed, Farrell, & Barton 2012). Exceptions are rare, but they exist. Most often, developing countries, third world countries and areas with high unemployment rate are those exceptions where years of age and years of experience are not proportional values (Escobar, 2011; Hanushek, 2013). Unfortunately, Bosnia and Herzegovina is that exception, considering its status of developing country which is followed by high unemployment rate, especially among young people (Mujanović, 2013). This gives rise to next hypotheses:

H2c: There is a difference in level of motivation between employees with different years of experience.

H3c: There is a difference in level of job satisfaction between employees with different years of experience.

One of the important factors that influence work motivation is organizational structure. Hierarchy in which employees are situated influence their wants and needs. As explained in motivation theories and organizational behavior, human needs are changing through the time and different situations people are in. Therefore, both, the theory and the empirical evidence suggests that employees in different positions have different wants and needs, which also implies that different factors influence their motivation and job satisfaction.

The important thing for management of the healthcare organizations is to implement organizational policies which will consist of factors necessary to fulfill an employee's needs, and in the same time direct employees to adopt specific organizational goals and work effectively to achieve those goals (Franco et al., 2002, p. 1256).

The number of studies showed (Agyepong, Anafi, Asiamah, Ansah, Ashon, & Narh-Dometey, 2004; Awases, Gbary, Nyoni, & Chatora, 2003; Bennett, Gzirishvili, & Kanfer, 2000; Jaiswal, Singhal, Gadpayle, Sachdeva, & Padaria, 2014; Sararaks & Jamaluddin, 1999) that doctors prefer challenging tasks and opportunities for professional development, while technicians and nurses are more motivated with factors such as remuneration and job security.

High education, achievements and responsibilities are often followed by high expectations (Mrduljaš-Đujić et al., 2010), but those expectations are not always met. A study found in previous literature shows doctors as least satisfied with their job, if compared to technicians and nurses (De Allegri, Kouyate, Becher, Gbangou, Pokhrel, Sanon, & Sauerborn, 2006). That dissatisfaction is attributed to poor working conditions, a tough environment and dissatisfaction with other job conditions.

No matter of their position healthcare employees are highly engaged to their work, because of the nature of the work. Yet, employees at different positions have different expectations and needs. As Franco et al. (2002) state, organizational structure is important factor as a job satisfaction determinant. Following hypotheses refer to the level of motivation/job satisfaction among employees with different job position:

H2d: There is a difference in level of motivation between employees with different job positions.

H3d: There is a difference in level of job satisfaction between employees with different job positions.

4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides insight into sample structure, instruments which were used for collecting data, and tools that was used for statistical procedure.

4.1 Data Collection and Analytical Procedure

This research is a cross-sectional (transversal) study which is directed towards determining current level of employee motivation and job satisfaction. A cross-sectional study is type of observational study that involves the analysis of data collected from a population at one specific point in time.

The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and The Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale (WEIMS) questionnaires were used for collecting quantitative data. Questionnaires were distributed to CCUS employees (doctors, nurses and technicians) with a short explanation of procedure. Questionnaires were voluntary and anonymous, and employees with managerial role were excluded from the survey. One hundred and fifty questionnaires were distributed,

and 138 of them were collected. Therefore, overall response was 92%. All of the above mentioned questionnaires were translated and adapted to the Bosnian language.

After respondents filled questionnaires, quantitative data collected from questionnaires were used to create a database in Microsoft Excel. Quantitative data collected from the WEIMS and JSS questionnaire were processed as instructed in the manual (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Spector, 1997). All statistical procedures were performed in SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Statistic) version 20.0. Descriptive parameters such as mean, standard deviation and Kolmogorov-Smirnov test were presented in the research. Main hypotheses, H1a and H1b, were tested by ANOVA (analysis of variance) and Bonfferoni post hoc test for multiple comparisons. Other, partial hypotheses were tested with MANOVA (multivariate analysis of variance), and partial differences were tested with T-test and ANOVA. Statistical significance has been set at the level of $p < 0.05$.

ANOVA is statistical method that is used to determine whether there are any significant differences between the means of three or more independent (unrelated) groups, while MANOVA is used to determine whether there are any differences between independent groups on more than one continuous dependent variable.

4.2 Instruments

Instruments that were used for collecting data for this research were questionnaires. First, all of the participants filled in socio-demographic part. For assessing work motivation The Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale was used, and The Job Satisfaction Survey was used for assessing employee attitudes about the job and aspects of the job.

Socio-demographic form included questions about years of age, years of experience, gender, level of education, job position, marital status and type of contract which employee signed with the company.

The Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale (WEIMS) is an 18-item measure of work motivation which is theoretically grounded in self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000). WEIMS, in general, respond to six types of motivation postulated by Self Determination Theory (Tremblay et al., 2009). Those six subscales are intrinsic motivation, integrated, identified, introjected and external regulations, and amotivation. The WEIMS asks respondents why they do their work and arrays motives on a continuum from most externally regulated to most internally regulated. At the internal end of the continuum is intrinsic motivation and integrated regulation, and on the opposite, external end of the continuum external and introjected regulation. Likert scale ranging from 1 (does not correspond at all) to 5 (corresponds exactly) was used on which respondents indicated the extent to which the item represent the reason they are presently involved in their work.

The Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1997; Job Satisfaction Survey, JSS Page) is a 36-item, nine facet scale, developed to assess employee attitudes about the job and aspects of the job. Each facet is assessed with four items, and a total score is computed from all items. A summated rating scale format was used, with six choices per item ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). Scores on each of nine facet subscales, based on 4 items each,

can range from 4 to 24, while scores for total job satisfaction, based on the sum of all 36 items, can range from 36 to 216. Also, JSS has some of its items written in both directions, positive and negative, thus negatively worded items were reversely scored. The JSS assesses job satisfaction on a continuum from low (dissatisfied) to high (satisfied). The nine facets are Pay, Promotion, Supervision, Fringe Benefits, Contingent Rewards (performance based rewards), Operating Procedures (required rules and procedures), Coworkers, Nature of Work, and Communication. JSS was originally developed for use in humane service organizations, but the practice has proven that it is applicable to all private and public organizations.

4.3 Sample Characteristics

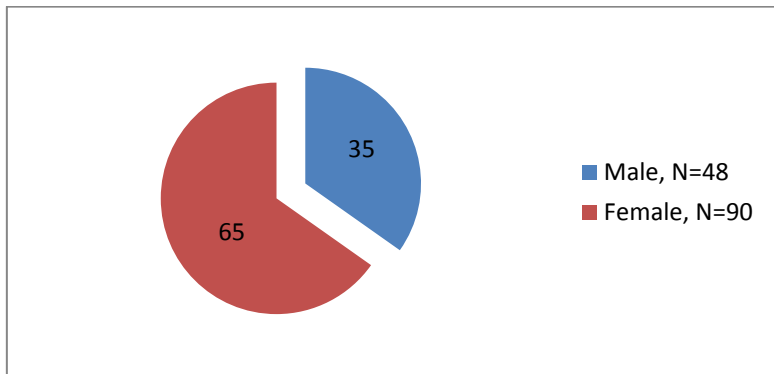
The sample consists of 138 participants and all of the participants in the survey were medical staff. Employees with managerial role were excluded from the survey. The sample structure is presented in Table 1 and explained in following paragraphs.

Table 1. Overall and Sub-Sample Frequency Distribution by Demographic and Job Related Variables

Demographic groups	Total N=138(100%)	Doctors N=57 (41.3%)	Nurses N=57 (41.3%)	Technicians N=24 (17.4%)
Gender				
Male	48 (34.8%)	29 (50.9%)	4 (7%)	15 (62.5%)
Female	90 (65.2%)	28 (49.1%)	53 (93%)	9 (37.5%)
Education				
High School	81 (58.7%)	0	57 (100%)	24 (100%)
University	57 (41.3%)	57 (100%)	0	0
Years of age				
18-33	47 (34.1%)	14 (24.6%)	18 (31.6%)	15 (62.5%)
34-43	49 (35.5%)	23 (40.3%)	23 (40.3%)	3 (12.5%)
44-65	42 (30.4%)	20 (35.1%)	16 (28.1%)	6 (25.0%)
Years of experience				
<9	52 (37.7%)	23 (40.3%)	14 (24.6%)	15 (62.5%)
9-17	40 (29.0%)	15 (26.3%)	21 (36.8%)	4 (16.7%)
>17	46 (33.3%)	19 (33.4%)	22 (38.6%)	5 (20.8%)
Type of contract				
Fixed term	32 (23.2%)	14 (24.6%)	9 (15.8%)	9 (37.5%)
Indefinite term	106 (76.8%)	43 (75.4%)	48 (84.2%)	15 (62.5%)
Marital status				
Single	38 (27.5%)	17 (29.8%)	12 (21.0%)	9 (37.5%)
Married	92 (66.7%)	36 (63.2%)	42 (71.7%)	14 (58.3%)
Divorced	7 (5.1%)	3 (5.3%)	3 (5.3%)	1 (4.2%)
Widowed	1 (0.7%)	1 (1.7%)	0	0

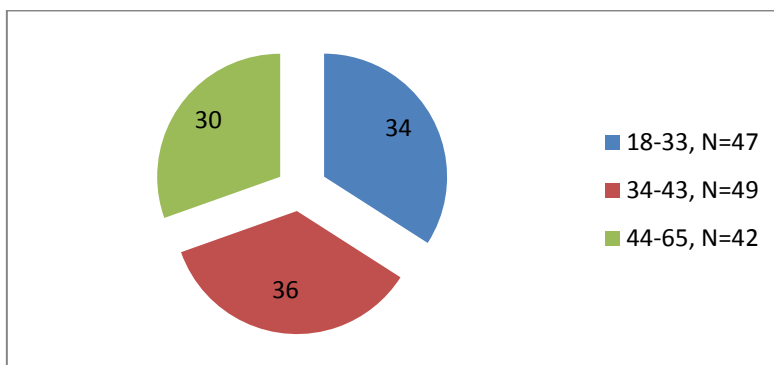
As presented in the Table 1, forty-eight of surveyed employees were male (35%), while rest of the sample was female employees and 90 of them represents 65% of the sample. Possible reason for significantly higher number of female employees in the sample is that female employees has percentage share of 93% in group of surveyed nurses. The gender distribution is presented in Figure 6.

Figure 6. Distribution of Sample (in %) by Gender



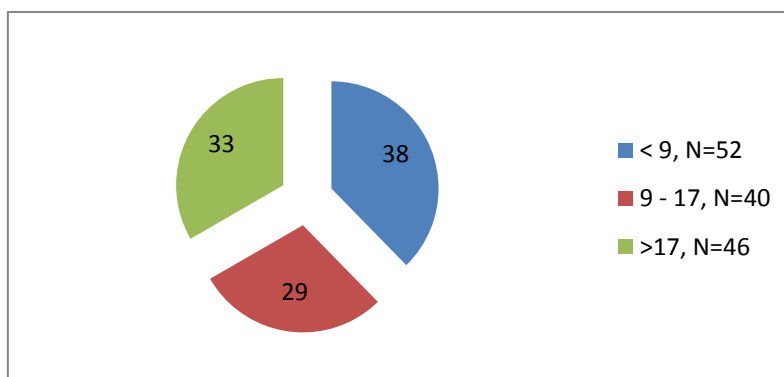
For the purpose of the research, employees were optimally divided into three age groups. From Figure 7 below, it is noticeable that employees under 43 years of age represent almost 70% of the sample. Therefore, it could be said that employees from the sample are relatively young.

Figure 7. Distribution of Sample (in %) by Years of Age



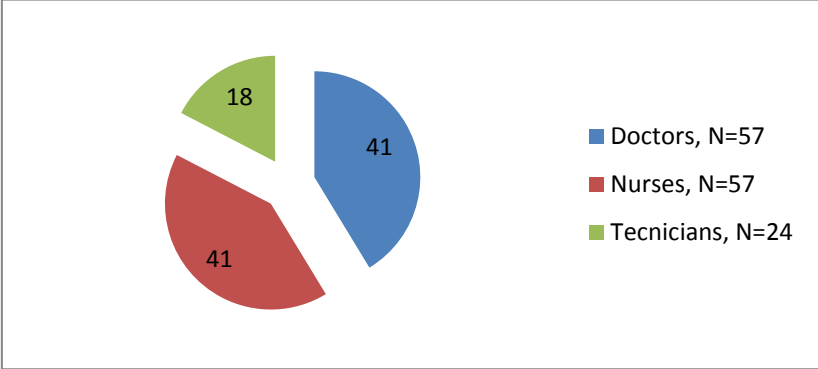
Also, three groups were formed according to years of experience. The first group consists of employees with less than nine years in service and those employees represent 37.7% of the sample. In second group were 29% employees whose years in service are in range from 8 to 17, and in third group were employees with more than 17 years of experience whose percentage share in sample is 33.3%. The years of experience distribution is presented in Figure 8 below.

Figure 8. Distribution of Sample (in %) by Years of Experience



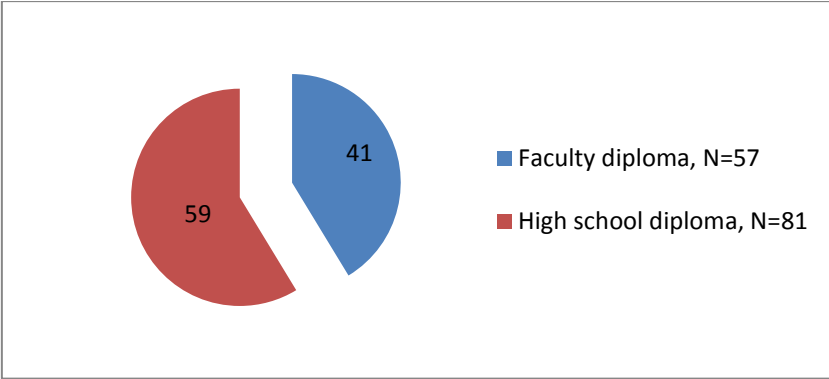
The following figure refers to the job position of employees that participated in this research. As already mentioned, employees with a managerial role were excluded from the research. This sample contains the same number of doctors and nurses, 47 of each. Technicians were least represented in the sample.

Figure 9. Distribution of Sample (in %) by Job Position



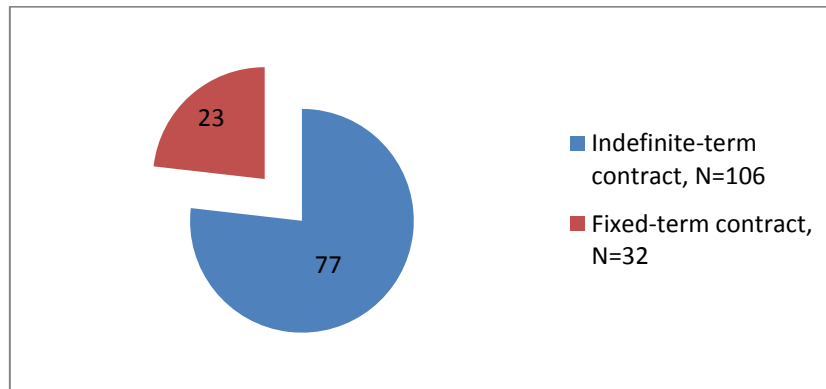
The next factor that divided the sample in two groups was the level of education. First group consists of employees with a university education which refers to doctors, and in second group are employees with high school education. Sample consists of 57 (41.3%) employees with university education and 81 (58.7%) employees with high school education. It is important to mention that the position of nurses or technicians does not require a higher education. Distribution of education level is presented in Figure 10.

Figure 10. Distribution of Sample (in %) by Level of Education



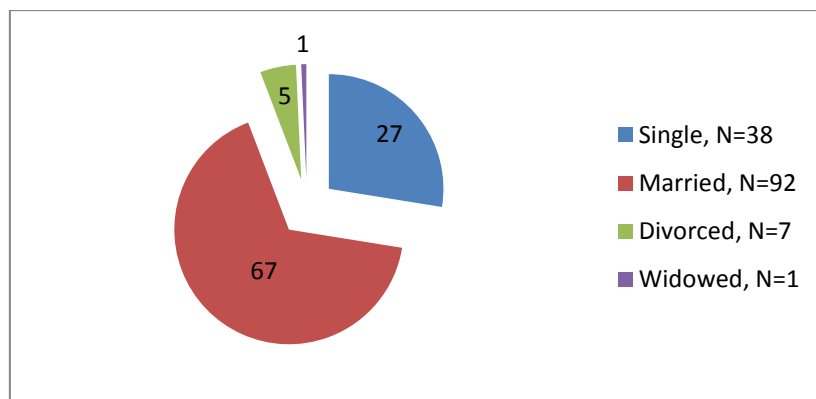
The next variable that is job related is type of contract. This variable does not take into account the statistical data processing, but is important to employees because it provides a sense of security. As shown in Figure 11 below 106 (77%) employees have indefinite-term contract, while 32 (23%) of them have fixed-term contract.

Figure 11. Distribution of Sample (in %) by Type of Contract



Marital status is another variable that is not statistically processed, but is worth mentioning because of its influence on employees' personal life. Figure 12 shows distribution on sample by marital status.

Figure 12. Distribution of Sample (in %) by Marital Status



5 RESULTS

This chapter provides insight into research results and hypotheses testing. In general, results of the research are divided in two parts. First part is reserved for presentation of the results regarding employee motivation, while the second part presents the results of job satisfaction. Second part of the chapter is reserved for the hypotheses testing.

5.1 Employee Motivation

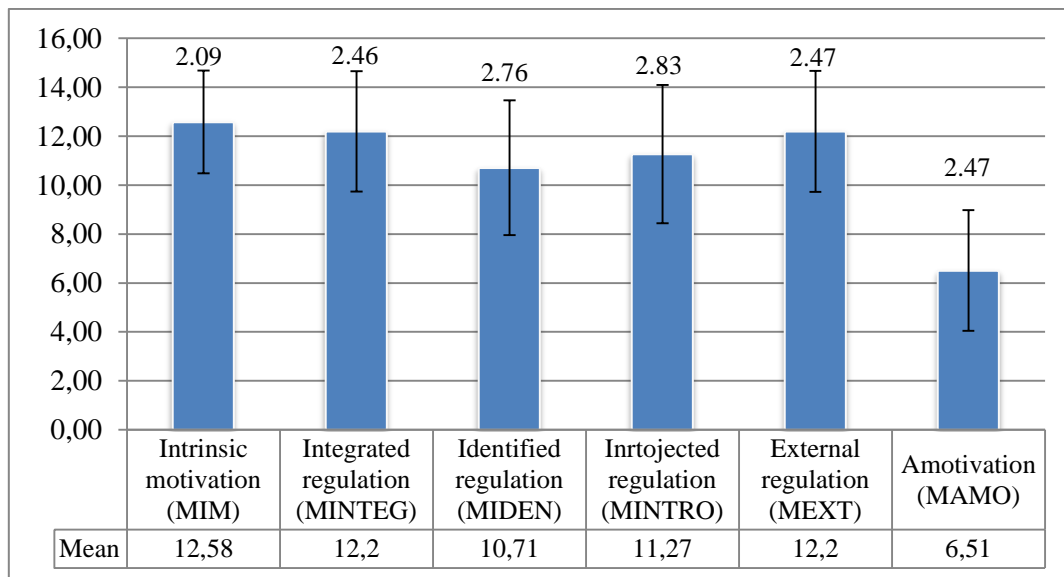
The following paragraphs will provide results of employee motivation, importance of monetary rewards to employee motivation as well as the differences in motivation among different socio-demographic groups among CCUS employees.

5.1.1 Importance of Monetary Rewards to Employee Motivation

Presentation of results starts with results of main hypothesis regarding employee motivation.

H1a: Employees at the Clinical Centre University of Sarajevo are mostly motivated with monetary rewards.

Figure 13. Mean of the Motivational Factors



Considering that each of motivational factors is assessed with three questions ranging from 1 to 5, means of motivational factors (Figure 13) are given as the sum of means of questions which are assessing certain motivational factor.

Descriptive statistics, as shown in Figure 13, show that intrinsic motivation (MIM) has the biggest score (12.58) and not extrinsic motivation (12.20) as was expected. The amotivation factor (MAMO) had the lowest score (6.51).

ANOVA results showed that there is a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.05$) between motivational factors (Table 2). Additional multiple comparisons are presented in Table 3.

Table 2. ANOVA between Motivational Factors

ANOVA - MOTIVATION			
	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	714.01	111.90	0.000
Within Groups	6.38		

Based on Bonfferoni post hoc test for multiple comparisons (Table 3), it can be noticed that there are differences between motivational factors.

Results show that amotivation factor (MAMO) is significantly different from other motivational factors. Intrinsic motivation (MIM) is the prototype of self-determined motivation whereas amotivation (MAMO) is categorized as non-self-determined motivation. These two factors are on the opposite ends of a continuum and display the most negative correlations (Ryan & Connell, 1989).

Table 3. Bonfferoni Post Hoc Test – Mean Differences between Motivational Factors among CCUS Employees

	MIM	MINTEG	MIDEN	MINTRO	MEXT	MAMO
MIM	X	0.38	*1.87	*1.31	0.28	*6.07
MINTEG	-0.38	X	*1.49	*0.93	-0.94	*5.69
MIDEN	*-1.87	*-1.49	X	-0.56	*-1.59	*4.19
MINTRO	*-1.31	*-0.93	0.56	X	*-1.03	*4.75
MEXT	-0.28	0.94	*1.59	*1.03	X	*5.78
MAMO	*-6.07	*-5.69	*-4.19	*-4.75	*-5.79	X

Note. *statistically significant difference

Abbreviations: MIM – Intrinsic motivation; MINTEG – Integrated regulations; MIDEN – Identified regulations; MINTRO – Introjected regulations; MEXT – External regulations; MAMO – Amotivation.

5.1.2 Differences in Motivation between Different Socio-demographic Groups

The following text provides results of motivation among employees within different socio-demographic groups. Presentation of the results continues with the results of **Hypothesis H2a**.

H2a: There is a difference in level of motivation between employees with different level of education.

For testing hypothesis H2a, employees were divided in two groups. Groups were formed by the employees’ education. The first group consists of employees with high school education, nurses and technicians, and second group consists of doctors who have university education (Table 1, p. 27).

Table 4. MANOVA between Motivational Factors among Employees with Different Level of Education

Multivariate Tests			
Effect	Value	F	Sig.
Wilks' Lambda	0.90	2.37	0.033

As presented in Table 4, MANOVA results show that there is a statistically significant difference ($\lambda=0.90$; $F=2.37$; $p<0.05$) in satisfaction with various motivational factors between employees with different level of education.

The results show (Table 5) that a statistically significant difference ($p<0.05$) between these two groups, and occurs in two motivational factors, intrinsic motivation (MIM) and amotivation (MAMO).

Employees with university education (13.0) are more motivated with intrinsic factors (MIM) than ones with high school education (12.28). Results showed (Table 5) that amotivation factor (MAMO) had bigger score (6.88) among employees with high school education than employees with university diploma (6.0).

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics and Comparison (F-value) between Employees with Different Level of Education

Motivation Factors	Tests of Between - Subjects Effects				F	Sig.
	High school		University degree			
	Mean	St. Dev.	Mean	St. Dev.		
Intrinsic motivation (MIM)	12.28	2.26	13.00	1.78	3.98	0.048
Integrated reg. (MINTEG)	12.47	2.46	11.82	2.44	2.32	0.130
Identified reg. (MIDEN)	10.74	2.94	10.67	2.51	0.02	0.877
Introjected reg. (MINTRO)	11.28	2.86	11.25	2.79	0.01	0.938
External reg. (MEXT)	12.60	2.67	11.86	2.11	3.08	0.081
Amotivation (MAMO)	6.88	2.70	6.00	2.00	4.32	0.039
Total motivation (MTOT)	66.26	9.94	64.60	7.47	1.14	0.287

For testing **Hypothesis H2b** employees were optimally divided in three age-groups (Table 1, p. 27). First group consists of employees whose age is 33 years or less, the second group consists of employees aged between 33 and 43 years, and employees over 43 years of age are in the third group.

H2b: There is a difference in level of motivation between employees with different years of age.

Table 6. MANOVA between Motivational Factors among Employees with Different Years of Age

Multivariate Tests			
Effect	Value	F	Sig.
Pillai's Trace	0.04	0.48	0.925
Wilks' Lambda	0.96	0.48	0.927
Hotelling's Trace	0.04	0.47	0.928
Roy's Largest Root	0.03	0.67	0.672

According to the results (Table 6), there is no statistically significant difference ($\lambda=0.97$; $F=0.47$; $p>0.05$) in satisfaction with various motivational factors between employees with different years of age.

As well as in Hypothesis H2b, **Hypothesis H2c** required employees to be divided into groups, but this time by years of experience. First group consists of employees with eight or less years of experience, employees that have between 9 and 17 years of experience are in the second group, and the third group consists of employees with more than 17 years of experience (Table 1, p. 27).

H2c: There is a difference in level of motivation between employees with different years of experience.

MANOVA results (Table 7) show that there is no statistically significant difference ($\lambda=0.92$; $F=0.91$; $p>0.05$) in satisfaction with various motivational factors between employees with different years of experience.

Table 7. MANOVA between Motivational Factors among Employees with Different Years of Experience

Multivariate Tests			
Effect	Value	F	Sig.
Pillai's Trace	0.08	0.90	0.548
Wilks' Lambda	0.92	0.91	0.537
Hotelling's Trace	0.09	0.92	0.527
Roy's Largest Root	0.08	1.82	0.100

In order to test **Hypothesis H2d**, employees were divided in three groups, nurses, technicians and doctors. Total number of surveyed employees was 138 and 24 of them were medical technicians, 57 nurses and 57 doctors (Table 1, p. 27).

H2d: There is a difference in level of motivation between employees with different job positions.

Table 8. MANOVA between Motivational Factors among Employees with Different Job Positions

Multivariate Tests			
Effect	Value	F	Sig.
Wilks' Lambda	0.83	2.06	0.020

Table 9. Descriptive Statistics and Comparison (F-value) between Employees with Different Job Positions

Tests of Between - Subjects Effects									
Dependent Variable	Nurse		Technician		Doctor		F	Sig.	
	Mean	St. Dev.	Mean	St. Dev.	Mean	St. Dev.			
MIM	12.25	2.39	12.38	1.95	13.00	1.78	2.00	0.138	
MINTEG	12.26	2.69	12.96	1.73	11.82	2.44	1.84	0.162	
MIDEN	10.19	3.13	12.04	1.89	10.67	2.51	3.97	0.021	
MINTRO	10.91	3.14	12.17	1.74	11.25	2.79	1.68	0.190	
MEXT	12.61	2.82	12.58	2.34	11.86	2.11	1.53	0.220	
MAMO	6.74	2.61	7.21	2.95	6.00	2.00	2.47	0.088	
MTOT	64.96	10.85	69.33	6.55	64.60	7.47	2.62	0.077	

Note. *statistically significant difference

Abbreviations: MIM – Intrinsic motivation; MINTEG – Integrated regulations; MIDEN – Identified regulations; MINTRO – Introjected regulations; MEXT – External regulations; MAMO – Amotivation; MTOT – Total motivation.

As presented in Table 8, MANOVA results show that there is statistically significant difference ($\lambda=0.83$; $F=2.06$; $p<0.05$) in satisfaction with various motivational factors between employees with different job positions.

The results show a statistically significant difference ($p<0.05$) between these groups occur in one motivational factor, identified regulation (MIDEN), which fall under external motivation. Bonferroni post hoc test (Table 9) provided results which indicate that statistically significant difference occurred between nurses and technicians in identified regulation factor (MIDEN).

In identified regulation factor (MIDEN), technicians had a bigger score (12.04) than nurses (10.19) and doctors (10.67) meaning that they were more motivated with job characteristics that undergo identified regulation factor.

5.2 Job Satisfaction

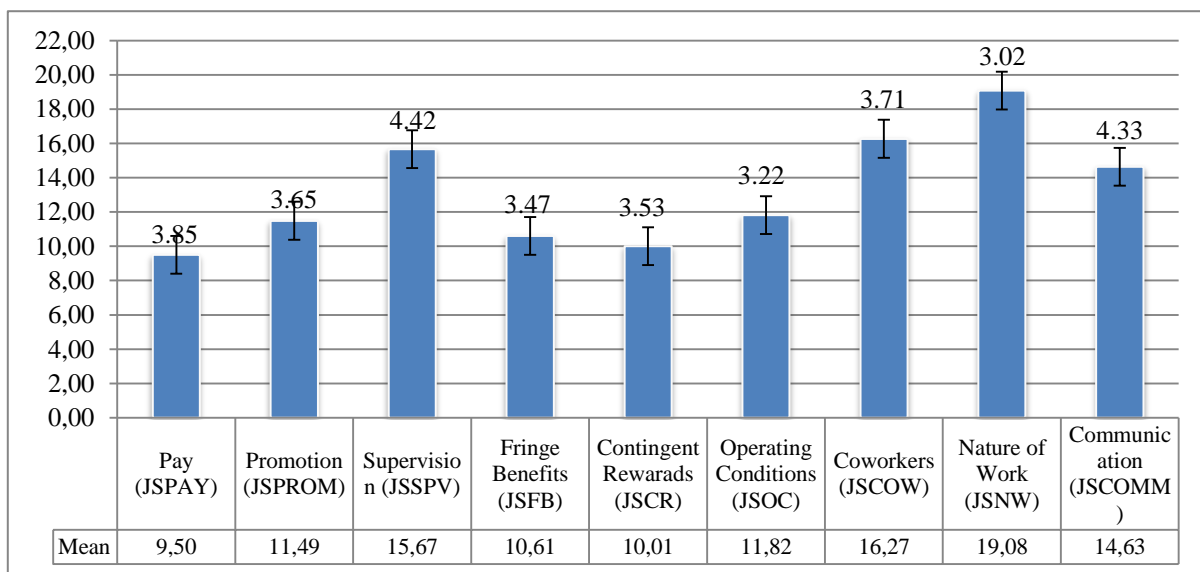
The following section provides the results of job satisfaction. Presentation of the results regarding job satisfaction will start with the results of main hypothesis followed by the results of the partial hypotheses.

5.2.1 Importance of Monetary Rewards to Employee Job Satisfaction

The presentation of the results continues with the result of main hypothesis regarding job satisfaction.

H1b: Employees at the Clinical Centre University of Sarajevo are mostly satisfied with monetary rewards.

Figure 14. Mean of the Job Satisfaction Factors



Considering that each of job satisfaction factors is assessed with four questions ranging from 1 to 6, means of job satisfaction factors (Figure 14) are given as the sum of means of questions which are assessing certain job satisfaction factor.

Descriptive statistics presented in Figure 14 and Table 10 shows that nature of work factor (JSNW) had the highest score (19.08) among all of the job satisfaction factors. Next in line are factors coworkers (JSCOW) and supervision (JSSPV).

Table 10. Descriptive Statistics - Employee Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction Factors	Mean	St. Dev.	Std. Error	95% confidence interval		Min	Max
				Lo. bound	Up. Bound		
Pay (JSPAY)	9.50	3.85	0.33	8.85	10.15	4	19
Promotion (JSPROM)	11.49	3.65	0.31	10.87	12.10	4	20
Supervision (JSSPV)	15.67	4.42	0.38	14.93	16.42	4	24
Fringe Benefits (JSFB)	10.61	3.47	0.29	10.02	11.19	5	20
Contingent Rewards (JSCR)	10.01	3.53	0.30	9.41	10.60	4	20
Operating Conditions (JSOC)	11.82	3.22	0.27	11.28	12.36	4	20
Coworkers (JSCOW)	16.27	3.71	0.32	15.64	16.89	9	24
Nature of Work (JSNW)	19.08	3.02	0.26	18.57	19.59	8	24
Communication (JSCOMM)	14.63	4.33	0.37	13.90	15.36	5	23

Table 11. ANOVA between Job Satisfaction Factors

ANOVA - MOTIVATION			
	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1510.89	109.50	0.000
Within Groups	13.79		

ANOVA results showed that there is a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.05$) between job satisfaction factors (Table 11). Additional multiple comparisons are presented in Table 12.

Table 12. Bonfferoni Post Hoc Test - Mean Differences between Job Satisfaction Factors among CCUS Employees

	JSPAY	JSPROM	JSSPV	JSFB	JSCR	JSOC	JSCOW	JSNW	JSCOMM
JSPAY	X	*-1.98	*-6.17	-1.11	-0.51	*-2.32	*-6.77	*-9.58	*-5.13
JSPROM	*1.98	X	*-4.19	0.88	*1.48	-0.33	*-4.78	*-7.59	*-3.14
JSSPV	*6.17	*4.19	X	*5.06	*5.67	*3.85	-0.59	*-3.41	1.04
JSFB	1.11	-0.88	*-5.06	X	0.60	-1.21	*-5.66	*-8.47	*-4.02
JSCR	0.51	*-1.48	*-5.67	-0.60	X	*-1.81	*-6.26	*-9.07	*-4.62
JSOC	*2.32	0.33	*-3.85	1.21	*1.81	X	*-4.45	*-7.26	*-2.81
JSCOW	*6.77	*4.78	0.59	*5.66	*6.26	*4.45	X	*-2.81	*1.64
JSNW	*9.58	*7.59	*3.41	*8.47	*9.07	*7.26	*2.81	X	*4.45
JSCOMM	*5.13	*3.14	-1.04	*4.02	*4.62	*2.81	*-1.64	*-4.45	X

Note. *statistically significant difference

Abbreviations: JSPAY – Pay; JSPROM – Promotion; JSSPV – Supervision; JSFB – Fringe benefits; JSCR – Contingent rewards; JSOC – Operating conditions; JSCOW – Coworkers; JSNW – Nature of work; JSCOMM – Communication.

Based on Bonfferoni post hoc test for multiple comparisons (Table 12), it can be noticed that there are differences between job satisfaction factors. Results indicate that nature of work factor (JSNW) is significantly different from every other job satisfaction factor.

5.2.2 Differences in Job Satisfaction between Different Socio-demographic Groups

The following section presents the results of job satisfaction among different socio-demographic groups at CCUS. First in line are the results of job satisfaction among employees with different level of education.

H3a: There is a difference in level of job satisfaction between employees with different level of education.

For testing **Hypothesis H3a**, employees were divided in two groups by level of education. The first group consists of employees with high school education, nurses and technicians, and second group consists of doctors who have university diploma (Table 1, p. 27).

As presented in Table 13, results showed that there is a statistically significant difference ($\lambda=0.64$; $F=8.01$; $p<0.05$) in job satisfaction between employees with different level of education.

Table 13. MANOVA between Job Satisfaction Determinants among Employees with Different Level of Education

Multivariate Tests			
Effect	Value	F	Sig.
Wilks' Lambda	0.64	8.01	0.000

The results presented in Table 14 showed a statistically significant difference ($p<0.05$) between these two groups occurred in three factors, and those factors are supervision (JSSPV), co-workers (JSCOW), communication (JSCOMM). Also, a statistically significant difference ($p<0.05$) occurred in total job satisfaction (JSTOT) as well.

Table 14. Descriptive Statistics and Comparison (F-value) between Employees with Different Level of Education

Tests of Between - Subjects Effects						
Dependent variable	High school		University degree		F	Sig.
	Mean	St. Dev.	Mean	St. Dev.		
Pay (JSPAY)	9.88	3.93	8.96	3.69	1.89	0.171
Promotion (JSPROM)	11.60	3.34	11.32	4.07	0.21	0.648
Supervision (JSSVP)	17.22	3.32	13.47	4.87	28.90	0.000
Fringe Benefits (JSFB)	10.62	3.25	10.60	3.79	0.00	0.972
Contingent Rewards (JSCR)	9.56	3.39	10.65	3.66	3.26	0.073
Operating Conditions (JSOC)	12.09	3.13	11.44	3.34	1.36	0.246
Coworkers (JSCOW)	17.21	3.57	14.93	3.52	13.84	0.000
Nature of Work (JSNW)	19.46	3.02	18.54	2.96	3.11	0.080
Communication (JSCOMM)	15.42	4.32	13.51	4.12	6.79	0.010
Total Job Satisfaction (JSTOT)	123.05	19.19	113.42	25.04	6.53	0.012

Results indicate that in all four job satisfaction factors employees with high school education had bigger score than employees with university degree, which is noticeable from Table 14.

For testing **Hypothesis H3b** employees were optimally divided into three age-groups (Table 1, p. 27). First group consisted of employees whose age was 33 years or less. In the second group were employees that were between 34 and 43 years of age, and the third group consisted of employees that were over 44 years of age.

H3b: There is a difference in level of job satisfaction between employees with different years of age.

Table 15. MANOVA between Job Satisfaction Determinants among Employees with Different Years of Age

Multivariate Tests			
Effect	Value	F	Sig.
Wilks' Lambda	0.79	1.71	0.038

MANOVA results indicate that there is statistically significant difference ($\lambda=0.79$; $F=1.71$; $p<0.05$) in job satisfaction between employees with different years of age (Table 15).

Table 16. Descriptive Statistics and Comparison (F-value) between Employees with Different Years of Age

Tests of Between - Subjects Effects								
Dependent variable	18-33		34-43		44-65		F	Sig.
	Mean	St. Dev.	Mean	St. Dev.	Mean	St. Dev.		
JSPAY	10.66	4.09	9.41	3.89	8.31	3.17	4.36	0.015
JSPROM	11.96	3.61	11.37	4.22	11.10	2.94	0.66	0.521
JSSVP	17.32	3.88	15.71	4.72	13.79	3.95	7.77	0.001
JSFB	11.23	3.79	10.71	3.74	9.79	2.57	1.99	0.140
JSCR	10.02	4.05	10.02	3.35	9.98	3.19	0.00	0.998
JSOC	11.72	3.73	11.82	3.02	11.93	2.89	0.04	0.957
JSCOW	16.83	3.38	15.80	3.95	16.19	3.77	0.95	0.391
JSNW	19.64	2.35	18.57	3.61	19.05	2.88	1.52	0.223
JSCOMM	15.19	4.06	14.67	4.61	13.95	4.29	0.91	0.405
JSTOT	124.57	22.49	118.08	23.09	114.07	19.92	2.61	0.077

Abbreviations: JSPAY – Pay; JSPROM – Promotion; JSSPV – Supervision; JSFB – Fringe benefits; JSCR – Contingent rewards; JSOC – Operating conditions; JSCOW – Coworkers; JSNW – Nature of work; JSCOMM – Communication; JSTOT – Total satisfaction.

The results presented in Table 16 show that statistically significant difference ($p<0.05$) between these groups occurred in two factors, pay (JSPAY) and supervision (JSSPV). Results of Bonferroni multiple comparison post hoc test showed that statistically significant difference in pay and supervision factor occurred between third and first two age groups.

Results indicate that in pay factor (JSPAY), employees in the first age group had a bigger score (10.66) than their colleagues in third age group (8.31). Same situation is with the supervision factor (JSSPV). Employees in in first age group had bigger score (17.32) than employees in third age group (13.79).

To test **Hypothesis H3c** employees were divided in three groups by years of experience. The first group consists of employees with eight or less years of experience, employees that have between 9 and 17 years of experience are in second group, and the third group consists of employees with more than 17 years of experience (Table 1, p. 27).

H3c: There is a difference in level of job satisfaction between employees with different years of experience.

Table 17. MANOVA between Job Satisfaction Determinants among Employees with Different Years of Experience

Multivariate Tests			
Effect	Value	F	Sig.
Wilks' Lambda	0.75	2.17	0.005

MANOVA results indicate that there is statistically significant difference ($\lambda=0.75$; $F=2.17$; $p<0.05$) in job satisfaction between employees with different years of experience (Table 17).

Table 18. Descriptive Statistics and Comparison (F-value) between Employees with Different Years of Experience

Tests of Between - Subjects Effects								
Dependent variable	<9 (Group I)		9-17 (Group II)		>17 (Group III)		F	Sig.
	Mean	St. Dev.	Mean	St. Dev.	Mean	St. Dev.		
JSPAY	11.17	4.09	8.63	3.58	8.37	3.14	8.84	0.000
JSPROM	12.46	3.72	10.90	4.19	10.89	2.81	3.07	0.051
JSSPV	17.44	4.31	15.08	4.46	14.20	3.89	7.79	0.001
JSFB	11.62	3.74	10.05	3.71	9.96	2.64	3.66	0.028
JSCR	10.46	3.99	9.68	3.37	9.78	3.11	0.69	0.500
JSOC	12.15	3.56	11.45	3.38	11.76	2.67	0.55	0.580
JSCOW	16.06	3.58	16.80	3.95	16.04	3.66	0.58	0.563
JSNW	19.73	2.89	18.45	3.35	18.89	2.76	2.21	0.113
JSCOMM	14.85	4.01	15.25	4.77	13.85	4.26	1.23	0.296
JSTOT	125.94	22.28	116.28	24.43	113.74	18.25	4.32	0.015

Abbreviations: JSPAY – Pay; JSPROM – Promotion; JSSPV – Supervision; JSFB – Fringe benefits; JSCR – Contingent rewards; JSOC – Operating conditions; JSCOW – Coworkers; JSNW – Nature of work; JSCOMM – Communication; JSTOT – Total satisfaction.

Results show (Table 18) a statistically significant difference ($p<0.05$) between the groups occurred in three factors: pay (JSPAY), supervision (JSSPV) and fringe benefits (JSFB). Also, groups differ in overall job satisfaction (JSTOT).

A statistically significant difference in factors pay (JSPAY) and supervision (JSSPV) occurred between first and two other age groups, while in factor fringe benefits (JSFB) and total satisfaction (JSTOT), statistically significant difference occurred between first and third age group.

Table 19. Multiple Comparisons among Employees with Different Years of Experience

Job satisfaction determinants	Job satisfaction by job position (Mean difference)		
JSPAY	Group I* (11.17)	>	Group II (8.63) > Group III (8.37)
JSSVP	Group I* (17.44)	>	Group II (15.08) > Group III (14.20)
JSFB	Group I** (11.62)	>	Group II (10.05) > Group III** (9.96)
JSTOT	Group I** (125.94)	>	Group II (116.28) > Group III** (113.74)

Note. *statistically significant difference one and two other groups

**statistically significant difference between first and last group

Abbreviations: JSPAY – Pay; JSSPV – Supervision; JSFB – Fringe benefits; JSTOT – Total satisfaction.

Detailed differences in the above mentioned factors are presented in Table 19. It is noticeable that in the pay factor (JSSPV) age group I had a bigger score (11.17) than age group II (8.63) and age group III (8.37). Supervision factor (JSSPV) has same order in which least experienced group had bigger score (17.44) than age group II (15.08) and age group III (14.20).

As it is noticeable from Table 19, a statistically significant difference in factors fringe benefits (JSFB) and total satisfaction (JSTOT) occurred between first and third age group. In fringe benefits factor (JSFB) age group I had bigger score (11.62) than age group III (9.96). Also, in total satisfaction (JSTOT) the least experienced group had biggest score (125.94) compared to two other age groups (116.28; 113.74). In all of the above mentioned factors, least experienced group (group I) are more satisfied than other two age groups.

For testing **H3d hypothesis**, employees were divided in three groups, nurses, technicians and doctors. Total number of surveyed employees was 138 and 24 of them were medical technicians, 57 nurses and 57 doctors (Table 1, p. 27).

H3d: There is a difference in level of job satisfaction between employees with different job positions.

Table 20. MANOVA between Job Satisfaction Determinants among Employees with Different Job Position

Multivariate Tests			
Effect	Value	F	Sig.
Wilks' Lambda	0.544	5.020	0.000

As presented in Table 20, results show that there is statistically significant difference ($\lambda=0.54$; $F=5.02$; $p<0.05$) in job satisfaction between employees with different job level.

Results in Table 21 show that a statistically significant difference ($p<0.05$) between these three groups occurred in every factor that affects job satisfaction.

Table 21. Descriptive Statistics and Comparison (F-value) between Employees with Different Job Position

Tests of Between - Subjects Effects								
Dependent variable	Nurse		Technician		Doctor		F	Sig.
	Mean	St. Dev.	Mean	St. Dev.	Mean	St. Dev.		
JSPAY	9.11	3.63	11.71	4.08	8.96	3.69	5.09	0.007
JSPROM	10.79	3.36	13.54	2.41	11.32	4.07	5.21	0.007
JSSVP	16.61	3.20	18.67	3.21	13.47	4.87	17.06	0.000
JSFB	9.96	3.09	12.17	3.14	10.60	3.79	3.53	0.032
JSCR	8.86	3.11	11.21	3.53	10.65	3.66	5.71	0.004
JSOC	11.37	2.88	13.79	3.09	11.44	3.34	5.84	0.004
JSCOW	17.07	3.72	17.54	3.23	14.93	3.51	7.03	0.001
JSNW	18.79	3.08	21.04	2.19	18.54	2.96	6.77	0.002
JSCOMM	14.98	4.34	16.46	4.20	13.51	4.12	4.45	0.013
JSTOT	117.54	16.52	136.13	19.05	113.42	25.04	10.27	0.000

Abbreviations: JSPAY – Pay; JSPROM – Promotion; JSSPV – Supervision; JSFB – Fringe benefits; JSCR – Contingent rewards; JSOC – Operating conditions; JSCOW – Coworkers; JSNW – Nature of work; JSCOMM – Communication; JSTOT – Total satisfaction.

Table 21 gives insight into satisfaction level with certain job factors and overall job satisfaction among employees with different job positions. In factors pay (JSPAY), promotion (JSPROM), operating conditions (JSOC), nature of work (JSNW) and total satisfaction (JSTOT), results showed that there is statistically significant difference between technicians and other two groups. Scores of these factors are presented in the Table 22.

Table 22. Multiple Comparisons among Employees with Different Job Position

Job satisfaction determinants	Job satisfaction by job position (Mean difference)		
JSPAY	Technicians* (11.71)	>	Nurses (9.11) > Doctors (8.96)
JSPROM	Technicians* (13.54)	>	Doctors (11.32) > Nurses (10.79)
JSSVP	Technicians (18.67)	>	Nurses (16.61) > Doctors* (13.47)
JSFB	Technicians** (12.17)	>	Doctors (10.60) > Nurses** (9.96)
JSCR	Technicians (11.21)	>	Doctors (10.65) > Nurses* (8.86)
JSOC	Technicians* (13.79)	>	Doctors (11.44) > Nurses (11.37)
JSCOW	Technicians (17.54)	>	Nurses (17.07) > Doctors* (14.93)
JSNW	Technicians* (21.04)	>	Doctors (18.54) > Nurses (18.79)
JSCOMM	Technicians** (16.46)	>	Nurses (14.98) > Doctors** (13.51)
JSTOT	Technicians* (136.13)	>	Nurses (117.54) > Doctors (113.42)

Abbreviations: JSPAY – Pay; JSPROM – Promotion; JSSPV – Supervision; JSFB – Fringe benefits; JSCR – Contingent rewards; JSOC – Operating conditions; JSCOW – Coworkers; JSNW – Nature of work; JSCOMM – Communication; JSTOT – Total satisfaction.

Results showed that in factors supervision (JSSPV) and coworkers (JSCOW) a statistically significant difference occurred between doctors and other two groups indicating that doctors are least satisfied with these factors. In supervision factor (JSSPV) doctors score (13.47) was lower than nurses (16.61) and technicians score (18.67). Similar results were with coworkers

factor (JSCOW). Doctors score (14.93) was again lower than nurses (17.07) and technicians (17.54) score.

In contingent rewards factor (JSCR) nurses had lower score (8.86) than doctors (10.65) and technicians (11.21) indicating that they are least satisfied with this factor.

The results of fringe benefits factor (JSFB) suggest that a statistically significant difference occurred between technicians (12.17) and nurses (9.96), highlighting the fact that nurses are less satisfied with fringe benefits than doctors (10.60) and technicians.

Communication (JSCOMM) is another factor in which statistically significant difference occurred between first and last group. In this case, difference occurred between doctors (13.51) and technicians (16.46) indicating that doctors are least satisfied with communication factor (JSCOMM) compared to nurses (14.98) and technicians.

Data from Table 20 shows that technicians were group which had the biggest scores in every factor that affects job satisfaction.

5.3 Testing Hypotheses

Following paragraphs are reserved for hypotheses testing. The section starts with testing main hypotheses, and continues with testing partial hypotheses regarding motivation and job satisfaction.

5.3.1 Importance of Monetary Rewards to Employee Motivation and Job Satisfaction

In Hypothesis H1a it was investigated whether monetary rewards are main source of employee's motivation. In this research, monetary rewards fall under extrinsic motivation (MEXT). According to the means value presented in Figure 13 (p. 31) it is clear that extrinsic motivation (MEXT) do not have the biggest mean score. Research results show that intrinsic motivation (MIM) has the biggest mean value and not extrinsic motivation (MEXT) as it was hypothesized, therefore Hypothesis H1a is rejected.

On the other hand, Hypothesis H1b investigated whether monetary rewards are the biggest source of employee job satisfaction. According to the results presented in Table 10 (p. 36) and Figure 14 (p. 35) factor nature of work (JSNW) had the biggest score (19.08). Next in line are factors coworkers (JSCOW) and supervision (JSSPV). Considering the fact that pay factor (JSPAY), which refer to monetary rewards, did not have the biggest score hypothesis H1b is rejected.

5.3.2 Hypotheses Referring Differences in Motivation between Different Socio-demographic Groups

The first partial hypothesis referring employee motivation investigated satisfaction with various motivational factors among employees with different level of education. Based on the results of MANOVA (Table 4, p. 32) and descriptive statistics (Table 5, p. 33), difference in satisfaction with various motivational factors among employees with different level of education occurred in two motivational factors, intrinsic motivation (MIMO) and amotivation

(MAMO). MANOVA results show that there is a statistically significant difference ($\lambda=0.90$; $F=2.37$; $p<0.05$) in satisfaction with various motivational factors between employees with different level of education, and therefore Hypothesis H2a is accepted.

Hypothesis H2b aim to investigate difference in satisfaction with various motivational factors among employees with different years of age. According to results of MANOVA (Table 6, p. 33), there is no statistically significant difference ($\lambda=0.97$; $F=0.47$; $p>0.05$) in satisfaction with various motivational factors between employees with different years of age. Based on the results, Hypothesis H2b is rejected.

Hypothesis H2c was also related to employees' age, but this time the aim was to investigate difference in satisfaction with various motivational factors among employees with different years of experience. Based on the results of MANOVA (Table 7, p. 34) there is no statistically significant difference ($\lambda=0.92$; $F=0.91$; $p>0.05$) in satisfaction with various motivational factors between employees with different years of experience. Accordingly, Hypothesis H2c is rejected.

Hypothesis H2d investigated whether employees with different job positions differ in satisfaction with various motivational factors. MANOVA results (Table 8, p. 34) showed that there is statistically significant difference ($\lambda=0.83$; $F=2.06$; $p<0.05$) in satisfaction with various motivational factors between employees with different job position. Difference ($p<0.05$) between groups (Table 9, p. 34) occurred in one motivational factor, identified regulation (MIDEN). Based on the results of the research Hypothesis H2d is accepted.

5.3.3 Hypotheses Referring Differences in Job Satisfaction between Different Socio-demographic Groups

Hypothesis H3a was constructed in order to identify differences in job satisfaction among employees with different level of education. MANOVA results (Table 13, p. 37) suggest that there is statistically significant difference ($\lambda=0.64$; $F=8.01$; $p<0.05$) in job satisfaction between employees with different level of education. Differences between groups (Table 14, p. 37) occurred in factors supervision (JSSPV), co-workers (JSCOW), communication (JSCOMM) and total job satisfaction (JSTOT). Based on empirical evidence Hypothesis H3a is accepted.

Hypothesis H3b investigated differences in job satisfaction among employees with different years of age. According to MANOVA results (Table 15, p. 38), there is a statistically significant difference ($\lambda=0.79$; $F=1.71$; $p<0.05$) in job satisfaction between employees with different years of age. Differences between groups (Table 16, p. 38) occurred in two factors, pay (JSPAY) and supervision (JSSPV). Accordingly, Hypothesis H3b is accepted.

The aim of Hypothesis H3c was to investigate differences in job satisfaction among employees with different years of experience. MANOVA results (Table 17, p. 39) indicated that there is statistically significant difference ($\lambda=0.75$; $F=2.17$; $p<0.05$) in job satisfaction between employees with different years of experience. Those differences between groups (Table 18, p. 39) occurred in four factors: pay (JSPAY), supervision (JSSPV), fringe benefits

(JSFB) and total job satisfaction (JSTOT). Research results provide empirical support for the initial assumption, and therefore Hypothesis H3c is accepted.

Hypothesis H3d focuses on investigating differences in job satisfaction among employees with different job positions. MANOVA results presented in Table 20 (p. 40) showed that there is statistically significant difference ($\lambda=0.54$; $F=5.02$; $p<0.05$) in job satisfaction between employees with different job position. According to the results (Table 21, p. 41) statistically significant difference ($p<0.05$) between groups occurred in every factor that affects job satisfaction. Based on research results, Hypothesis H3d is accepted.

6 DISCUSSION

This chapter deals with discussion of the research findings. The discussion includes literature review and comparison between findings of this research and ones found in previous literature. First part of the discussion refers to employee motivation, while second part deals with job satisfaction. In the end of the chapter, limitations of the research are presented as well as the practical implications and future research directions.

6.1 Importance of Monetary Rewards to Employee Motivation

Employees can be motivated in many ways, with material and non-material rewards. One of the reasons for setting hypothesis H1a is existence of the economic crisis which is present in every sector in industry (Markovits et al., 2014). Crisis affects employees in a way that they have to change priorities, pushing job security and monetary rewards in first place (Bell & Blanchflower, 2011).

Despite the fact that recent period is followed by the economic crisis, inflation and other negative economic indicators (Mujanović, 2013), research results (Figure 13, p. 31) show that employees at CCUS are encouraged by intrinsic rather than extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motives include a sense of accomplishment, intellectual fulfillment, the satisfaction of curiosity, and the share of love for the activity (Wade & Tavis, 2011). Intrinsically motivated people tend to work harder and respond to challenges with more effort, they enjoy their work and often perform more creatively and effectively than people who are extrinsically motivated (Tauer & Harackiewicz, 2004).

Literature can provide similar results from researches on this subject that were conducted in different countries. Research conducted in Jordan and Georgia reported that pride values and self-efficiency are important factors which fall under intrinsic motivation (Franco, Bennett, Kanfer, & Stubblebine, 2004). Study conducted in Benin and Kenya provided results that non-financial incentives are major factor in increasing motivation of medical staff (Mathauer & Imhoff, 2006). Another study conducted in Germany that was related to physician's motivation, shows that non-financial incentives such as work and profession related variables are better accepted by employees (Laubach & Fischbeck, 2007). Peters et al. (2010) in their research in two Indian states found that the majority of health care employees prefer motivation factors such as good relationships with colleagues, training opportunities and good

physical condition over income and other material rewards. Two more studies (Tumulty, Jernigan, & Kohut, 1994; Rantz, Mehr, Conn, Hicks, Porter, Madsen, Petrowski, & Maas, 1996) related to nursing profession found intrinsic motivating factors to be more important than extrinsic ones.

The research results do not support hypothesis H1a, which was not expected, especially if the current socio-economic situation, high unemployment rate (Agency for Statistics of Bosnia and Herzegovina, 2014) and economic crises (Mujanović, 2013) is taken into account. On the other hand, it is good for a company to have intrinsically motivated employees, especially in healthcare industry. Stringer et al. (2011) emphasized number of positive aspects of intrinsically motivated employees such as doing work for its own sake, increasing responsibility self-actualization, and is self-sustaining.

Previous literature can provide number of studies (Amabile, 1998; Frey & Osterloh, 2002; Herzberg, 2003; Kerr, 1975; Kohn, 1993; Stringer et al., 2011) which found that financial incentives are a poor motivator and have a negative impact on intrinsic motivation which often results in reducing creativity and innovation. Lepper and Greene (1978) in their study “hidden cost of rewards” explained that focus on extrinsic motivation may distract attention from the task, and therefore is better to have an intrinsically motivated workforce.

Despite the fact that hypothesis H1 is rejected and CCUS employees are intrinsically motivated, research results show that external regulations (MEXT) had big score as well. External regulations fall under extrinsic motivation which includes job security, salaries and other financial incentives. It is noteworthy that literature can provide studies whose results were similar to results of this study. For example, in studies conducted in Vietnam (Dieleman, Coung, Anh, & Martineau, 2003), Tanzania (Manongi, Marchant, & Bygbjerg, 2006) and public general hospital in Cyprus (Lambrou et al., 2010) results showed that both, financial and non-financial incentives, had biggest scores and contribution to employee motivation.

6.2 Differences in Motivation between Different Socio-demographic Groups

Other objectives of the thesis, regarding motivational part, were to test the partial hypotheses in order to investigate impact of motivational factors on different socio-demographic groups among CCUS employees. Employees are motivated by different things, because each employee has different needs which try to satisfy. While some employees prefer extrinsic motivational factors as financial incentives, others enjoy intrinsic such as challenging tasks, career development, etc. Accordingly, managers have to recognize employees’ expectations and use different motivational factors to satisfy different needs (Karaskakovska, 2011).

As mentioned in the research results (Table 5, p. 33), Employees with university education (13.0) are more motivated with intrinsic factors than ones with high school diploma (12.28). Literature can provide similar results implying that higher educated employees tend to be more motivated with meaningful and stimulating job content (Bellenger et al., 1984; Tolbert & Moen, 1988) and opportunities for personal development (Peters et al., 2010), while employees with lower education prefer job security and stable income (Newman, 1999).

Results showed (Table 5, p. 33) that the amotivation factor (MAMO) had bigger score (6.88) among employees with high school education than employees with university diploma (6.0). As Hingly (1984) states, nursing is by its nature profession that carries a lot of stress, exhaustion and suffering, and without inner peace, support and understanding of the family and friends nursing staff is at risk of developing depression and breakdown which is known as professional burnout. Reason for such a high level of amotivation among nurses and technicians can be excessive work, constant work with seriously ill patients and bad interpersonal relationships (Pavlović, Joksimović, Hadživuković, & Vidojević, 2013; Milutinović et al., 2009; Keel, 1993).

It is noticeable that in intrinsic motivation factor employees with a university diploma had a bigger score than ones with high school diploma. In amotivation factor, scoring is just the opposite. The reason for such a result could be the fact that intrinsic motivation (MIM) is the prototype of self-determined motivation whereas amotivation (MAMO) is categorized as non-self-determined motivation. These two factors are on the opposite ends of a continuum and display the most negative correlations (Ryan & Connell, 1989).

After having examined motivational factors and their effect on employees with different level of education, next objective is to determine impact of motivational factors on differently aged employees. Earlier in the research was mentioned that biological changes affect people's behavior in many different ways. As Karaskakovska (2011) stated, employees of different ages should be treated differently referring to needs and goals they are trying to satisfy. As the numerous researchers confirmed (Higgs et al., 2003; Hurd, 1996; Kauffman, 1987; Kooij et al., 2011; Locke, 1999; Warr, 1992), it is hard to expect that employees from different age groups are motivated by same factors.

The research results (Table 6, p. 33) which suggest that there is no statistically significant difference in satisfaction with various motivational factors between employees with different years of age are surprising. A lot of recent studies (Kovach, 1995; Lord, 2002; Lunsford, 2009; Stead, 2009; Wong et al., 2008; Worthley et al., 2009) showed that motivational factors vary depending on the employees' age. In a study conducted by Lord (2002), author found that there was significant difference in the level of importance of motivational factors between younger and older employees. This author concluded that employees aged less than 50 years preferred job security, salary and good relations with superiors, while employees older than 50 years stated that workplace independence is more important than other factors.

As workers age, however, the strength of achievement motives appear to decline, and the strength of motives related to promoting positive work atmosphere and autonomy increases (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004). Stead (2009) also found that in the case of Australian employees, motivational factors vary with age. The most significant factors that vary with age are autonomy, personal growth and progression. In line with these studies is a study (Kovach, 1995) conducted on 1000 employees which results indicated that various motivation factors have significantly different impact on different aged employees. Conclusion was that younger employees are more concerned with pay, job security and challenging work, while older employees prefer benefits and good retirement conditions.

Although, majority of researches conducted on this subject (Kovach, 1995; Lord, 2002; Lunsford, 2009; Stead, 2009; Wong et al., 2008; Worthley et al., 2009) showed that there is a significant difference in importance and impact of various motivational factors on different aged employees, results of this research also found some support in previous literature (Roos & van Eeden, 2008; Stead, 2009).

For example, Roos and van Eeden (2008) conducted research in South Africa evaluating relationship between employee motivation and various demographic variables. They found that only two out of 18 factors have different impact on employees with different years of age. Those factors were competition and status. Stead (2009) also found that extrinsic factors such as good working conditions, job security and salary do not vary with age.

There could be several reasons why the results do not support hypothesis H2b. First possibility is that sample size is not big enough, as it was in other studies regarding this subject (Inceoglu et al., 2012; Kovach, 1995). A small sample size cannot give insight into detailed differences in employees' preferences. Second possibility for which differences did not occur may be the number and range of age-groups in which were employees divided (Table 1, p. 26). Several studies regarding this subject that have identified differences among employees (Kovach 1995; Lord, 2002; Stead, 2009) had differently divided respondents in age-groups. Yet another reason for such results could be low average age of respondents, if compared to other studies (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004; Lord, 2002; Nikić, Arandelović, Nikolić, & Stanković, 2008; Stead, 2009).

The next hypothesis is also related to age, but this time is investigated impact of motivational factors on employees with different years of experience. Number of studies have found (Hurd, 1996; Inceoglu et al., 2012; Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004; Kooij et al., 2011) that years of age and years of experience are proportional variables, because, in most countries, people often find employment within few years after completing their education (Mourshed et al., 2012). According to above mentioned, impact of various motivational factors on these two socio-demographic groups should not differ significantly. An exception could be made with employees in developing and third world countries because underdeveloped economies in those countries results with high unemployment rate (Escobar, 2011; Hanushek, 2013) and therefore employees in those countries do not have guaranteed jobs. Accordingly, years of experience and years of age may not be proportional variables, depending on socio-economic environment.

Research provided results (Table 7, p. 34) that were not expected and not consistent with studies that could be found in previous literature (Inceoglu et al., 2009; Inceoglu et al., 2012; Warr, 2001). Possible reason for such results could be small sample size which does not guarantee insight into all differences among employee's preferences.

It is unusual that different motivational factors are appreciated by employees of different age and experience. Inceoglu et al. (2009) found that in Northern European countries (19 countries included in survey) more experienced employees prefer intrinsically motivating job features, while less experienced employees value extrinsic motivators more. These findings are in line with the Kanfer and Ackerman's (2004) study who found that importance of

extrinsic rewards decreases, while intrinsically motivating job features become more attractive with age.

On the other hand, these results are in line with the results of Hypothesis H2b. As mentioned above, years of age and years of experience are proportional variables in most cases, and considering results of H2b hypothesis, results of hypothesis H2c are not so surprising. As stated in previous section, numerous studies conducted on this subject provide different results. Possible reason for results that were obtained from the research is the same as in the previous hypothesis, relatively small sample size compared to other studies.

After discussed impact of motivation on employees with different years of age and experience, next in line is impact of motivation on employees with different job position.

The research findings (Table 9, p. 34) indicate that statistically significant difference ($p < 0.05$) between the groups occurred in one motivational factor, identified regulation (MIDEN), which fall under external motivation. Questions summarized under factor defined as identified regulation refer to doing an activity because one identifies with its value or meaning, and accepts it as one's own (Tremblay et al., 2009).

The difference occurred between nurses and technicians in identified regulation factor (Table 9, p. 34). Technicians had bigger score (12.04) than nurses (10.19) meaning that they were more motivated with job characteristics that undergo identified regulation factor. Those characteristics are job security and stable income. Studies show (Agyepong et al., 2004; Awases et al., 2003; Bennett et al., 2000; Sararaks & Jamaluddin, 1999) that doctors prefer challenging tasks and opportunities for professional development, while technicians and nurses are more motivated with factors such as remuneration and job security.

Research results indicate that CCUS healthcare employees in all positions have very similar preferences regarding motivational factors. The only significant difference occurred between technicians and nurses in identified regulation factor (MIDEN) suggesting that technicians are more determined to achieve a good life style and career goals than nurses (Jaiswal et al., 2014). In other words, results showed that technicians appreciate external motivation more than nurses. Jaiswal et al. (2014) in their research in India obtained similar results. Their findings indicated that technicians were group that most appreciated all motivational factors that fall under external motivation.

6.3 Importance of Monetary Rewards to Employee Job Satisfaction

Often, the mistake is made when the terms motivation and job satisfaction are used as synonyms, in verbal and written communication, while there is a clear distinction between them. While motivation is driving force to pursue and satisfy needs, job satisfaction is defined as pleasurable or positive emotional state, resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences (Locke, 1976, p. 1300). Regardless, motivation and job satisfaction are used together in order to increase job performance (Griffeth et al., 2000).

Job satisfaction is a complex function of many different variables. In the same time, person can be satisfied with several aspects of the job and dissatisfied with other job related

determinants. For example, healthcare employees may be satisfied with designation and work conditions, but may not be satisfied with salary, interpersonal relationships etc. Different studies have found that satisfied employees tend to be more creative, productive and more committed to their job (Jathanna et al., 2011).

To this day scientists are trying to link and explain relationships between job satisfaction and various work related variables. In line with this, one of the most common research topics in this field are ones related to the examination of relationships between job satisfaction and financial incentives. Various researchers (Al-Zoubi, 2012; Bender & Heywood, 2006; Jones & Sloane, 2007; Oshagbemi, 2000) were evaluating relationships between job satisfaction and income level, because in today's society it is easy to link income and other financial incentives to overall satisfaction because of its importance to everyday life. This research was conducted with an aim to prove that monetary rewards are the biggest source of job satisfaction among CCUS employees.

Job satisfaction is enhanced by a good salary, stress free environment and professional gratification (Mrduljaš-Đujić et al., 2010). As mentioned in previous chapter reasons for assuming that monetary rewards have the biggest contribution to job satisfaction is the current socio-economic situation in country, economic crises (Mujanović, 2013) and high unemployment rate which was 27.5% in 2014 (Agency for Statistics of Bosnia and Herzegovina, 2014). Monetary rewards fulfill employees' existential needs, but also provide a sense of security, satisfaction and have stimulative effect on employees.

According to the results presented in Figure 14 (p. 35) and Table 10 (p. 36), nature of work factor (JSNW) had the biggest score among all of the job satisfaction factors. Next in line were factors coworkers (JSCOW) and supervision (JSSPV).

The results indicate that employees value and appreciate their job which, in the same time, makes them proud and fulfilled. Also, they prefer good communication and relationships with colleagues and supervisors over financial rewards.

Numerous scientists (Bender & Heywood, 2006; Brown, Gardner, Oswald, & Qian, 2007; Garrido, Rez, & Ant, 2005; Jones & Sloane, 2007; Oshagbemi, 2000; Clark & Oswald, 1996; Shields & Ward, 2001) have started their research with an aim to investigate the relationship between monetary incentives and job satisfaction. For example, Brown et al. (2007) in their study surveyed 16266 employees from 800 different institutions and found that monetary incentives have limited influence on job satisfaction when other factors such as work environment, good communication and career development did not meet employees' expectations. Shields and Ward (2001) conducted similar research on nurses and found that lack of professional development and promotion opportunities affects job satisfaction more than income level.

Another study conducted on employees in pharmaceutical sector found that relation with co-workers had the biggest contribution to job satisfaction (Kabir & Parvin, 2011). Yet another study related to job satisfaction among healthcare employees, found that good relations with co-workers, rich job content and work environment are characteristics that have biggest

contribution to job satisfaction (Peters et al., 2010). Also, previous literature provides results which indicate that healthcare employees prefer autonomy and job status over high income (Cashman, Parks, Ash, Hemingway, & Bicknell, 1990). In evaluating job satisfaction of nurses in America, Gray (1991) concluded that good communication and relations with supervisors have bigger contribution to job satisfaction than financial benefits, which is in line with the results of this research. In line with this, another study conducted in a Cyprus public general hospital found that main factors that contribute to job satisfaction are achievements, remuneration and co-workers (Lambrou et al., 2010).

Studies which proved that financial incentives alone have the biggest contribution to job satisfaction are rarely found in literature, especially studies related to healthcare sector. But, literature can provide studies which provided evidence that financial incentives influence employees' job satisfaction on high levels. For example Kathawala, Kevin and Dean (1990) tried to assess various job characteristics and its impact to job satisfaction among employees of the automobile industry. They found that salary and other financial benefits are the biggest contributors to employee's job satisfaction.

A number of studies (Al-Zoubi, 2012; Bender & Heywood, 2006; Brown et al., 2007; Shield & Ward, 2001) that were conducted to examine employee's job satisfaction concluded that monetary rewards do not have a major role in the whole relationship of the job satisfaction. In other words, employees with big salaries do not necessarily have to be satisfied and happy. Several studies on this subject (Al-Zoubi, 2012; Bender & Heywood, 2006; Brown et al., 2007) found that financial incentives have minimal influence on employee's satisfaction.

Healthcare delivery is a specific occupation and when conducting research on healthcare employees it is necessary to take into account that specific nature of work. Worldwide, researches have showed that various factors affect healthcare employee job satisfaction, but most important factors are work environment, union activity, good interpersonal relationships, trainings and other types of professional development (Brown et al., 2007; Cashman et al., 1990; Gray, 1991; Judge et al., 2001; Kabir & Parvin, 2011; Kivimaki, Kalimo, & Lindstrom, 1994; Shields & Ward, 2001).

Job satisfaction of healthcare employees has big impact on efficiency and work quality. Besides its importance for patients and whole healthcare system, job satisfaction of healthcare employees is directly connected with work absenteeism, interpersonal relationship and work organization (McManus, Keeling, & Paice 2004). Al-Aameri (2000) in his study found that employees' satisfaction directly correlate with patient satisfaction in healthcare organizations.

Despite the fact that research results does not support hypothesis H1b, result of this research are in line with number of researches conducted on this subject (Brown et al., 2007; Cashman et al., 1990; Gray, 1991; Judge et al., 2001; Kabir & Parvin, 2011; Kivimaki et al., 1994; Lambrou et al., 2010; Shields & Ward, 2001). Results indicate that employees enjoy their work and prefer good communication and interpersonal relations with colleagues and supervisors over financial rewards. Those results are good indicator for CCUS, because putting these factors in front of financial incentives leads to efficiency and better work organization.

6.4 Differences in Job Satisfaction between Different Socio-demographic Groups

After analyzing the importance of financial incentives on employee job satisfaction, the discussion continues with an explanation of differences in job satisfaction factors among different socio-demographic groups.

Job satisfaction not only depends on the nature of the job, but also on what the job supply does to an employee (Kabir & Parvin, 2011). Beside the fact that job satisfaction is affected by numerous extrinsic and intrinsic factors, job satisfaction is often determined by certain socio-demographic factors. First demographic group that will be tested is level of education and its impact on job satisfaction.

In this research less educated workers were more satisfied with nine out of ten job satisfaction factors (Table 14, p. 37). The “paradox of the educated worker” (Gao & Smith, 2010, p. 15) predicts an inverse relationship between education and job satisfaction. Education raises expectations to an extent that is not matched by intrinsic (job enrichment, trainings, career development, etc.) nor extrinsic rewards (financial incentives), which in a final instance leads to job dissatisfaction (Nielsen & Smith, 2008). Gao & Smith (2010) in their study in China proved that higher education has a negative effect on satisfaction with pay, fringe benefits and operating procedures. High professional expectations often result in negative feelings that can produce poor work outcomes, dissatisfaction, and affect private life as well (Mrduljaš-Đujić et al., 2010).

In line with this, Clark et al. (1996) surveyed over five thousand employees in order to examine the relationship between education and job satisfaction. They came to the conclusion that job satisfaction declines with high level of education, thus with higher level of education comes higher expectations which are often not met. Beside the above mentioned studies, Al-Zoubi (2012) examined 858 employees from different public institutions in Jordan. He divided respondents in four groups according to their level of education. His results indicated that employees with Master’s and Doctoral degree have lowest job satisfaction, unlike less educated employees who had much bigger score for job satisfaction.

Result from this research has its background in previous literature, namely because a large number of researchers (Al-Zoubi, 2012; Clark et al., 1996; Gao & Smith, 2010; Nielsen & Smith, 2008) showed that level of education does not have a positive link with job satisfaction. Those results are consistent with the results from this research, where less educated employees were generally more satisfied than their higher educated colleagues. The obvious reason for such results, as literature explains, is because job conditions and other job related characteristics did not meet expectations of high educated employees (Gao & Smith, 2010).

Other important variable that affects employees’ preferences is their age. Aging process affects people’s wants and needs, and changes job characteristics that influence their job satisfaction. These changes are depending on individual preferences which occur during private and professional orientation (Sterns & Miklos, 1995). Those facts were proved by a number of researchers (Clark et al., 1996; Inceoglu et al., 2012; Jathanna et al., 2011) who

stated that the same job characteristics are resulting in different level of individual job satisfaction over the years. Following text explain job satisfaction of employees with different years of age.

Based on the research results, statistically significant difference ($p < 0.05$) between the groups occurred in two factors, pay (PAY) and supervision (JSSPV) indicating that third age group is least satisfied compared to their younger colleagues (Table 16, p. 38). These results were expected and are in line with various studies (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004; Jathanna et al., 2011; Lord, 2002; Stead, 2009) which proved that need for financial incentives and autonomy grows with age.

In line with this, Lord (2002) concluded that employees over 50 years of age prefer independence over other job characteristics. In another study conducted on more than thousand healthcare employees, Jathanna et al. (2011) evaluated the impact of age on job satisfaction level. Results from the above mentioned research indicated that employees over 45 years of age were significantly less satisfied than their younger colleagues. Their results are consistent with results of this research emphasizing that level of job satisfaction is declining over the years.

Another study that evaluated impact of employees' age on job satisfaction (Stead, 2009) has found that autonomy, personal growth and progression were factors that most vary with age and that they become much more important for older employees. Autonomy could be identified with supervision factor in the current research. Supervisors in the CCUS are doctors with managerial role and they were excluded from this research. Often, reasons for disagreement with the supervisors are subjective and can include bad interpersonal relationships, competitiveness, lack of appreciation, etc. It is not uncommon that a disagreement with superiors occurs with older, more experienced workers (Jathanna et al., 2011). Thus, bad interpersonal relationships, both, with superiors and among employees cannot positively contribute to the collective or better efficiency, and in final instance it is counterproductive.

Yet another study showed different results. For example, Clark et al. (1996) conducted research investigating the relationship between pay satisfaction and age. They surveyed 5192 British full-time employees with an aim to prove that job satisfaction is "U-shaped" with age, meaning that the youngest and the oldest employees would be most satisfied with their salary. The results indicated linear relationship between years and satisfaction. They explained that one of possibilities for such results is that older workers have other benefits and good working conditions that could influence their high level of pay satisfaction.

As found in literature, it is not rare that older employees are less satisfied with their income than their younger colleagues (Gazioglu & Tensel, 2006; Mesh'al, 2001; Mrduljaš-Đujić et al., 2010). According to the results of the research, the workforce in healthcare sector has specific features that cannot be ignored. For example, in everyday work healthcare employees face with heavy patients and that carries lot of stress and requires great engagement. Another factor that could affect their expectation is 24-hour shifts, which every health worker in CCUS does four to five times per month. Because of such work conditions and environment it

is not surprising that younger and older workers differ in their pay satisfaction (Ilmarinen, 2001). All of these things make their job much more difficult than the average and that could be the reason why they have higher expectations regarding their income which is obviously not fulfilled. Employees older than 43 years had previously experienced these conditions over the years and it may affect their opinion that their work is not valued enough.

As mentioned in previous paragraphs, years of age and experience are related variables in most cases, because people with age gain experience. Exceptions are rare, but they exist. Most often, developing countries, third world countries and areas with high unemployment rate are those exceptions where years of age and years of experience are not proportional values (Hanushek, 2013). Next hypothesis refers to relationship between years of experience and job satisfaction.

Over the years, an individual's job satisfaction is affected by changes in their personal preferences, professional orientation, work environment and other time-changing work conditions (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004). It was found that psychological processes and attributes are changing in different life cycle stages which affect job characteristics that influence overall job satisfaction (Inceoglu et al., 2012).

Results show (Table 18, p. 39) that a statistically significant difference between groups occurred in four factors: pay (JSPAY), supervision (JSSPV), fringe benefits (JSFB) and total satisfaction (JSTOT). Less experienced employees are more satisfied with all of the above mentioned factors. These results are not surprising considering that previous literature can provide a number of studies (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004; Jathanna et al., 2011; Lord, 2002; Stead, 2009) which proved that need for financial incentives and autonomy grows with age. As results show, these needs for more experienced workers in CCUS were not fulfilled. Research conducted in Cyprus (Lambrou et al., 2010) had similar results. They tested the impact of a remuneration factor, which could be identified with pay and fringe benefits on overall job satisfaction. They concluded that job satisfaction effect of remuneration is mostly influenced by gender and sector, but in general, as workers became more experienced their satisfaction with remuneration factor appears to decline.

According to research results, a statistically significant difference in overall job satisfaction occurred between first and third age group (Table 18, p. 39), which indicates that level of overall job satisfaction declines with years. In line with this, study conducted in India, which surveyed over 1100 healthcare workers, showed that least experienced workers were most satisfied and as worker's experience increases so their job satisfaction declines (Jathanna et al., 2011).

Not all researches are in accordance with results of this research. For example, a study conducted in Greek Mental hospitals by Labiris, Gitona, Drosou, and Niaks (2008) found that employees with more than 20 years of experience were more satisfied with their job than their younger colleagues. Similar results can be found in studies of job satisfaction among physicians (Pathman, Konrad, Williams, Scheckler, Linzer, & Douglas, 2002) and Norwegian doctors (Nylenna, Gulbrandsen, Fore, & Aasland, 2005). Reason for such deviation between

results can be caused by other job determinants that fulfilled employee's expectations, benefits or relatively small sample size used in studies.

Regardless of the positions, healthcare employees are highly engaged to their work, because of the nature of the job. Yet, employees at different position have different expectations and needs. As Franco et al. (2002) stated organizational structure is important factor as a job satisfaction determinant. Following paragraphs discusses employee job satisfaction depending on job position.

It is noticeable (Table 21, p. 41) that technicians are most satisfied with each job determinant and total satisfaction as well. The possible reason for these results could be the fact that medical technicians, when compared with nurses and doctors, spend less time in direct contact with patients. Also, the level of stress arising from worker-patient relationship is lower. Other reason may be their education. For the position of medical technician, high school education is required, but on the other hand they cannot be promoted to higher position. The fact that technicians are employed in the biggest and best equipped hospital in the country could fulfill their expectations and contribute to high level of job satisfaction.

Results indicate (Table 22, p. 41) that in several job satisfaction factors both, nurses and doctors were significantly less satisfied than technicians. Those factors were pay (JSPAY), promotion (JSPROM), operating conditions (JSOC), nature of work (JSNW) and total satisfaction (JSTOT). Unlike the technicians, doctors and nurses are much more involved in work with patients and much more involved in stress intense situations which often result with burnout syndrome (McManus et al., 2004). In addition to these hard working conditions, low income, bad interpersonal relationships, lack of trust and respect (De Allegri et al., 2006) among other factors can contribute to low level of satisfaction, which this research confirmed.

Regarding promotion factors, doctors and nurses have the possibility for promotion, especially doctors, who beside the managerial roles in CCUS hierarchy (head of department, head of clinic, member of the board of directors and general director) have possibility to become University assistants and professors. Clinical Centre University of Sarajevo has over 40 clinics and every clinic consist of several departments. Regarding managerial positions in CCUS, nurses can be promoted to head nurse of department, head nurse of clinic and head nurse of Clinical Centre.

Results show that nurses were least satisfied with promotion factor (JSPROM). Possible explanation may be in ratio between number of the employed nurses and few managerial positions they could apply for. According to the number and gender distribution of employed medical stuff in CCUS, more than half of them are nurses (Klinički Centar Univerziteta u Sarajevu, 2014). Also, results indicated that nurses are least satisfied with factors contingent (JSCR) rewards and fringe benefits (JSFB). Results implies that nurses consider that their work is not enough appreciated by the colleagues and supervisors, and that organizational benefits did not meet their expectations, neither financial ones nor other types of benefit.

Level of income in CCUS is defined by collective bargaining agreement (CBA) which is in line with state labor law (Labor Act of FBiH, 2003) and accepted by Institute of Health

Insurance of Canton Sarajevo. Nurses and doctors had low scores on pay factor (JSPAY). This low satisfaction with income is understandable if taken into account amount of work, nature of work and effort for gaining education. But, compared to other countries in region, Bosnia does not differ significantly in income level of healthcare workers (Mrduljaš-Đujić et al., 2010; Nikić et al., 2008).

Also, very important factors among professional medical staff are good interpersonal relationship and communication (De Allegri et al., 2006). This research showed that these factors had lowest scores among doctors. These results might be influenced by excessive work, tough work conditions and environment and dissatisfaction with other job conditions.

Results showed that in total satisfaction doctors had lowest score. Also, doctors had lowest score on the factors: pay (JSPAY), supervision (JSSPV), coworkers (JSCOW) and communication (JSCOMM), thus low score on total satisfaction (JSTOT) is not surprising. High education, achievements and responsibilities are often followed by high expectations (Mrduljaš-Đujić et al., 2010). In case of the CCUS, those high expectations are not met. In addition to these unfulfilled expectations, low satisfaction with other job determinants contribute to low total satisfaction.

These results which indicate that employees on a different job positions differ in their preferences are expected and have great support in previous literature (Franco et al., 2002). Also, results should direct management and policy makers to incorporate different stimulative factors and motivators into their organizational policy in order to satisfy expectations of employees which are differently situated in CCUS hierarchy.

6.5 Limitations

This research, like many others found in literature, has limitations to reflect on. First limitation of the research refers to relatively small sample size. Larger sample size could provide more reliable results and give better insight into employee's work motivation and job satisfaction.

Second limitation is related to gender distribution, because 65.2% of the sample consists of female employees. Unequal gender distribution could affect results of the research due to different preferences and expectations among the genders.

6.6 Practical Implications and Future Research Direction

In general, managers are aware that the nature of healthcare delivery is a very sensitive and important occupation which needs to be followed by a high level of motivation and job satisfaction. Maintaining a high level of motivated workforce is of great importance to any company because it helps employees to identify their selves with the organizational goals and perform in a desired way to meet those goals.

Wide analysis of employees work motivation and job satisfaction provided results which identified factors that are important to the employees and that have influence on their motivation and job satisfaction. The results of this research should help the management in

creating new policies which need to be directed towards increasing and maintaining high level of employee motivation and job satisfaction, and maintaining desired performance in order for organizational goals to be met.

The topic of employee motivation and job satisfaction was and will be in the focus of organizational research. Because of the importance of the topic, future researches should expand the scope of the research by determining factors which causes dissatisfaction among employees. Such findings would have a practical importance as it would help managers to locate and eliminate the source of dissatisfaction.

Also, because of its complexity, research should be focused on one department instead of whole hospital. All of the hospital departments differ one from another in their requirements and needs, thus separate analysis would contribute to better insight into employees' work motivation and job satisfaction.

Future research can improve the results by extending the research with life satisfaction as a variable that is related to job satisfaction. Previous literature provide studies which found that satisfaction in one aspect of life is easy transferable to other aspects of life (Kinicki et al., 2002; Rice, Near & Hunt, 1980; Tait, Padgett, & Baldwin 1989). Including this variable in the research might help in better understanding and determining causes of human behavior (Mihelič, 2014).

CONCLUSION

This research emphasizes the importance of motivation and job satisfaction in an everyday business environment. The main goal of this research was to identify the current level of work motivation and job satisfaction among employees at Clinical Center University of Sarajevo. In addition, other objectives of the research were directed towards determining current level of motivation and job satisfaction among employees within different socio-demographic groups.

The starting point of the research was the assumption that monetary rewards are the biggest source employees' work motivation and job satisfaction. That assumption is made because of the current socio-economic situation in the country and ongoing economic crises. Despite those assumptions, results showed that neither motivation nor job satisfaction is mostly stimulated by financial incentives. Important aspect of these results is that employees' motivation and job satisfaction is intrinsically orientated. Motivation and job satisfaction that is driven by internal factors causes employees to do a good job because they feel good about themselves when accomplish something. Beside the fact that the two main hypotheses are not supported, findings indicate that healthcare employees at Clinical Centre University of Sarajevo are intrinsically motivated which is of crucial importance for employees, the organization, and in final instance for the patients.

As intended, this research provided insight into preferences of certain socio-demographic groups. In analysis of employee motivation, results showed difference in preferences and expectations between employees with different level of education. Accordingly, more

educated employees tend to be motivated by intrinsic factors, while employees with high school education prefer extrinsic factors. These findings have significant support in literature, considering that a number of authors obtained similar results. Literature provided explanation for such a result. Specifically, paradox of educated worker explains that highly educated workers often do not meet their expectations, thus intrinsic factors are becoming their driving force for future accomplishments.

The results obtained from the analysis of motivation among employees with different years of age and experience was unexpected. It was found that there was no difference in impact of different motivational factors on employees with different years of age and experience. Regardless of opposite results in previous literature, reasons for such results could be found in small sample size and unequal gender distribution.

On the other hand, results obtained from the analysis of employee job satisfaction provided empirical evidence as a support for all partial hypotheses. Findings indicated that job satisfaction declines with age. It is possible that job satisfaction factors did not meet employees' expectations and with lack of appreciation, over the years, caused dissatisfaction.

Interesting results were obtained by investigating job satisfaction between employees with different job positions. It was found that technicians were the most satisfied group at CCUS. There are several facts that contribute to those results. First, position of medical technician requires only a high school education. Then, they are least in direct contact with patients compared to doctors and nurses, and the fact that they are working in the biggest and best equipped hospital in the country fulfill their needs and has positive influence on overall job satisfaction. On the other hand, results indicated that doctors and nurses are much less satisfied. Doctors are least satisfied with monetary rewards, communication, relationship with coworkers and supervisors. This is not encouraging information if taken into account that they are driving force of the hospital.

In analyzing work motivation and job satisfaction, findings indicate that employees appreciate internally orientated factors. Those findings have its support in previous literature. Majority of studies which analyzed behavior of healthcare employees found that because of the nature of work, tough environment, uncertain work outcome and other characteristics of the job, healthcare employees are intrinsically motivated.

Besides its limitations, this research provided a wide range of results which can be useful for different purposes, but especially for creating organizational policies. The findings of this research should be a guide for the current and future managers, leading them to create organizational policies which will be a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic factors and drive employees to identify with the organizational goals and provide maximal effort to reach those goals.

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APENDIXES

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Appendix A: List of Abbreviations

ANOVA – analysis of variance
CBA – collective bargaining agreement
CCUS – Clinical Centre University of Sarajevo
JASCOMM – communication
JSCOW – coworkers
JSCR – contingent rewards
JSFB – fringe benefits
JSNW – nature of work
JSOC – operating conditions
JSPAY – pay
JSPROM – promotion
JSS – Job Satisfaction Survey
JSSPV – supervision
JSTOT – job satisfaction total
MAMO – amotivation
MANOVA – multivariate analysis of variance
MEXT – external regulations
MIDEN – identified regulations
MIM – intrinsic motivation
MINTEG – integrated regulations
MINTRO – introjected regulations
MTOT – total motivation
SDT – Self-determination theory
WEIMS – Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale

Appendix B: Socio-demographic form

THIS QUESTIONNAIRE IS ANONYMOUS

YEARS OF AGE: _____

YEARS OF WORKING EXPERIENCE: _____

GENDER: Male
 Female

EDUCATION: High school
 University

MARITAL STATUS: Single
 Married
 Divorced
 Widowed

JOB POSITION: Nurse
 Technician
 Doctor

TYPE OF CONTRACT: Fixed term contract
 Indefinite term contract

Appendix C: Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY Paul E. Spector Department of Psychology University of South Florida Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.							
PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.		Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	I like the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Communications seem good within this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Raises are too few and far between.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	My supervisor is unfair to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	I like doing the things I do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6

<p style="text-align: center;">PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994. All rights reserved.</p>		Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
19	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	The benefit package we have is equitable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	There are few rewards for those who work here.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I have too much to do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	I enjoy my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	I like my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	I have too much paperwork.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	My job is enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	Work assignments are not fully explained.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix D: The Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale (WEIMS)

Why Do You Do Your Work?					
Using scale below, please indicate to what extent each of the following items corresponds to the reasons why you are presently involved in your work.					
Do not correspond at all	Corresponds moderately			Corresponds exactly	
1	2	3	4	5	
1. Because this is the type of work I chose to do to attain a certain lifestyle.	1	2	3	4	5
2. For the income it provides me.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I ask myself this question, I don't seem to be able to manage the important tasks related to this work.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Because I derive much pleasure from learning new things.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Because it has become a fundamental part of who I am.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Because I want to succeed at this job, if not I would be very ashamed of myself.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Because I chose this type of work to attain my career goals.	1	2	3	4	5
8. For the satisfaction I experience from taking on interesting challenges.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Because it allows me to earn money.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Because it is part of the way in which I have chosen to live my life.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Because I want to be very good at this work, otherwise I would be very disappointed.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I don't know why, we are provided with unrealistic working conditions.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Because I want to be a „winner“ in life.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Because it is the type of work I have chosen to attain certain important objectives.	1	2	3	4	5
15. For the satisfaction I experience when I am successful at doing difficult tasks.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Because this type of work provides me with security.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I don't know, too much is expected of us.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Because this job is a part of my life.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix E: Socio-demographic form – translated into Bosnian language

OVA ANKETA JE ANONIMNA

STAROSNA DOB: _____

GODINE RADNOG STAŽA: _____

SPOL: Muški
 Ženski

OBRAZOVANJE: Srednja škola (SSS)
 Fakultet (VSS)

BRAČNI STATUS: Neoženjen/Neudata
 Oženjen/Udata
 Razveden/Razvedena
 Udovac/Udovica

RADNO MJESTO/POZICIJA: Medicinska sestra
 Medicinski tehničar
 Doktor

TIP UGOVORA O RADU: Ugovor na određeno vrijeme
 Ugovor na neodređeno vrijeme

Appendix F: Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) – translated into Bosnian language

<p style="text-align: center;">UPITNIK ZADOVOLJSTVA POSLOM</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Paul E. Spector Department of Psychology University of South Florida</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.</p>							
<p style="text-align: center;">PORED SVAKE TVRDNJE ZAOKRUŽITE BROJ KOJI NAJBOLJE ODRAŽAVA VAŠE MIŠLJENJE.</p>		Uopšte se ne slažem	Ne slažem se	Više se ne slažem nego što se slažem	Više se slažem nego što se ne slažem	Slažem se	Potpuno se slažem
1	Smatram da sam adekvatno plaćen/a za posao koji obavljam.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Na mom poslu postoji vrlo malo prilika za napredovanje.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Moj pretpostavljeni je dovoljno kompetentan za posao koji obavlja.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Nisam zadovoljan/na beneficijama koje nudi moj poslodavac.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Kada na poslu uradim nešto dobro, dobijem adekvatno priznanje za to.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Mislim da mnoga pravila i procedure u mojoj organizaciji otežavaju obavljanje posla.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Dopadaju mi se ljudi sa kojima radim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Ponekad mislim da je posao koji radim besmislen.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Smatram da je komunikacija u mojoj organizaciji dobra.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Povišice u mojoj firmi su isuviše male i rijetko se dobivaju.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Mislim da svi zaposleni u mojoj firmi koji dobro rade svoj posao imaju jednake šanse da budu unaprijeđeni.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	Smatram da moj pretpostavljeni nije fer prema meni.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	Beneficije za zaposlene u mojoj organizaciji su podjednako dobre kao u većini organizacija.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	Nemam osećaj da je posao koji obavljam dovoljno cijenjen u organizaciji.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	Rijetko dolazim u situaciju da me neko ili nešto sprečava u nastojanjima da dobro obavim posao.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	Smatram da na poslu moram napornije da radim zato što moji saradnici nisu dovoljno sposobni.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	Volim da obavljam aktivnosti koje su sastavni dio mog posla.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	Ciljevi moje organizacije mi nisu dovoljno jasni.	1	2	3	4	5	6

	<p>PORED SVAKE TVRDNJE ZAOKRUŽITE BROJ KOJI NAJBOLJE ODRAŽAVA VAŠE MIŠLJENJE.</p> <p>Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.</p>	Uopšte se ne slažem	Ne slažem se	Više se ne slažem nego što se slažem	Više se slažem nego što se ne slažem	Slažem se	Potpuno se slažem
19	Kada razmišljam o svojoj plati, pomislim da me organizacija ne cijeni dovoljno.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	Zaposleni u mojoj organizaciji napreduju jednako brzo koliko i zaposleni u drugim organizacijama.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	Moj pretpostavljeni je slabo zainteresovan za osjećanja svojih zaposlenih.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	Mislim da je paket beneficija koji imamo u organizaciji pravedan.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	Smatram da su zaposleni u mojoj firmi slabo nagrađeni.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	Imam previše obaveza na svom poslu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	Uživam u radu sa svojim kolegama.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	Često imam osećaj da ne znam šta se dešava u mojoj organizaciji.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	Osećam se ponosnim/om dok obavljam svoj posao.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	Zadovoljan/na sam mogućnostima za povećanje plate koje mi se pružaju.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	Mislim da postoje beneficije koje zaposleni u mojoj organizaciji nemaju, a trebalo bi da ih imaju.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	Volim svog pretpostavljenog.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	Na mom poslu ima mnogo "papirologije".	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	Smatram da moj trud nije nagrađen onoliko koliko bi trebalo.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	Zadovoljan/na sam prilikama za napredovanje koje mi se pružaju.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	Na mom poslu ima mnogo nesuglasica i svađa.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	Smatram da je moj posao prijatan.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	Mislim da radni zadaci u mojoj organizaciji nisu potpuno definisani.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix G: The Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale (WEIMS) – translated into Bosnian language

Zašto radite to što radite?					
Koristeći skalu ispod, navedite u kojoj mjeri svaka od navedenih stavki odgovara razlozima zašto se bavite trenutnim poslom.					
Uopšte se ne slažem	Svejedno mi je				Potpuno se slažem
1	2	3	4	5	
1. Zato što je ovo vrsta posla koju sam odabrao/la da bi dostigao/la određeni životni stil.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Zbog toga što mi osigurava određeni prihod.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Postavim sebi to pitanje i shvatim da ne mogu obavljati komplikovane zadatke vezane za svoj posao.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Zato što uživam učiti nove stvari.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Zato što je postao fundamentalni dio mene.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Zato što želim uspjeti u poslu, u protivnom bi se stidio/la.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Izabrao/la sam ovu vrstu posla da bi stvotio/la karijeru.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Zbog zadovoljstva kojeg mi donose izazovni zadaci.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Zato što mi omogućava da zaradim novac.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Zato što je to sastavni dio života kojeg sam izabrao.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Zato što želim biti veoma uspješan/na u ovom poslu, u protivnom bi bio/la razočaran/na.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Ne znam zašto, posao obavljamo u nerealnim uslovima.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Zato što želim biti „pobjednik“ u životu.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Izabrao/la sam ovaj tip posla da bih ostvario/la veće ciljeve u životu.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Zbog zadovoljstva nakon upješno izvršenih zadataka.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Zato što mi ovaj tip posla obezbjeđuje sigurnost.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Ne znam, previše se očekivalo od mene.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Zato što je ovaj posao dio mog života.	1	2	3	4	5

