

Job Satisfaction in Ireland: An Investigation into the influence of Self-Esteem, Generalised Self-Efficacy and Affect

CLIODHNA FITZMAURICE

1593884

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the Higher Diploma of Psychology at DBS
School of Arts, Dublin.

Supervisor: Barbara Caska

Head of Department: Dr. S. Eccles

March 2012

Department of Psychology

DBS School of Arts

Table of Contents

Acknowledgements	3
Abstract	4
Introduction	5
Review of the Literature	
Job Satisfaction: A Definition	6
Determinants of Job Satisfaction	7
Theories of Job Satisfaction	9
Job Insecurity	12
Self-Esteem	13
Generalised Self-Efficacy	16
Positive Affect	19
Gender Differences and Age	21
Hypothesis	22
Method	23
Results	28
Discussion	35
References	41
Appendix	52

Acknowledgements

I would like to express my sincere thanks to my supervisor Barbara Caska for her initial guidance in what direction to take the initial study, and also for her helpful comments and constructive criticism on the first draft of the literature review. I am very grateful for the cooperation and interest of those who took part in the study; this paper would not have been possible without your assistance.

Abstract

This research was designed to gain further insight into the relationship between self-esteem, generalised self-efficacy, affect and job satisfaction during the current economic recession in Ireland. An experiment conducted with Irish participants (N=115) tested the hypothesis that individuals' with high self-esteem, high self-efficacy and positive affect will report high levels of job satisfaction. Researchers investigating the dispositional sources of job satisfaction (Judge, Locke & Durham, 1997) maintain that positive affect and the core self-evaluations (which include self-esteem and generalised self-efficacy), are positively related to job satisfaction. However, when the three concepts were examined using self-report measures, only generalised self-efficacy and positive affect were found to be significantly related to job satisfaction. Limitations and modifications for future research are discussed.

Key Words: Job satisfaction, self-esteem, self-efficacy, positive affect, recession, Ireland.

Introduction

Ireland is experiencing the most severe recession since the state's inception (Russell & McGinnity, 2011). Considering this is a situation which is current unfolding, it offers a unique opportunity to examine aspects of job satisfaction during an unprecedented climate. Research on the psychological effects of recession has generally focused on those who have been made unemployed and the difficulties they face as a result. Previous research suggests that those who become unemployed during recession have particularly low levels of well-being, are depressed and have low levels of life satisfaction (Bell & Blanchflower, 2010). They are also more susceptible to malnutrition, illness, mental stress and loss of self-esteem (Banks & Jackson, 1982; Goldsmith et al. 1996).

The present study focuses on those who have remained working in the private and public sector during the current economic downturn. At present, research in this area is limited. While although in the past 20 years, an expanding literature has gathered lending general support to the idea that job satisfaction is, at least in part based on disposition (Judge, Heller & Mount, 2002), very few studies have been replicated in Ireland, and even fewer have been set on the backdrop of an economic recession. It could be suggested that a need for an examination of levels of job satisfaction in Ireland has become increasingly urgent given the additional stressors workers in Ireland face as a result of the severe economic downturn. The purpose of the current study is to identify whether a relationship exists between those who experience high job satisfaction and the core self-evaluations, self-esteem, general self-efficacy and positive affect.

In recent years, Judge, Locke and Durham (1997), drawing from several literatures introduced the construct of core self-evaluations. According to Judge and his colleagues (1997), core self-evaluations are fundamental premises that individuals hold about themselves and their

functioning in the world. Judge et al. took a “top-down” focus in arguing that core evaluations are all encompassing and that situation specific appraisals depend on these core evaluations. Self-esteem and generalised self-efficacy are included in Judge, Locke and Durham’s (1997) description of core self-evaluations and the present study has chosen to also include positive affect for investigation also, the reasons for which will be discussed later.

During an economic recession, budgets understandably become increasingly constricted. Employers must therefore become even more stringent in their monitoring and maintenance of high levels of job satisfaction in an effort to combat employee turnover and ensure productivity is maximised. If employers were able to unequivocally determine what personality traits are most conducive to job satisfaction, productivity, morale and employee retention could be increased, while simultaneously lowering costs. Such aims are at the heart of every business.

Job Satisfaction: A Definition

According to the *Cambridge Dictionary* (2012), job satisfaction refers to the feeling of pleasure and achievement which you experience in your job when you know that your work is worth doing, or the degree to which your work gives you this feeling. Job satisfaction is defined more specifically in the literature, and many theorists have composed their own workable definitions. Of these researchers, Robert Hoppock is perhaps the most widely cited offering one of the earliest definitions of job satisfaction. Hoppock described job satisfaction as being any number of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances which leads a person to express satisfaction with their job (Hoppock, 1935). Other researchers have however, emerged with definitions reflecting more current underpinnings of job satisfaction. Some of these versions

use the terms job attitudes, work satisfaction and job morale in a transposable manner, adding to a lack of a standardised job satisfaction definition.

More recently, Hulin & Judge (2003) described job satisfaction as multidimensional psychological responses to one's job. These responses are said to have cognitive (evaluative), affective and behavioural components. Job satisfaction refers to internal evaluations of the favourability of one's job. These evaluations may be shown through outward (i.e. verbalised) and inward (i.e. felt) emotional responses. The multidimensional responses can be arrayed along good/bad, positive/negative continua (Judge, Hulin & Dalal, 2009). This definition is consistent with the definitions offered by Thurstone (1928) Campbell (1963), Fishbein (1980) and Triandis (1980).

Determinants of Job Satisfaction

While the definition of job satisfaction can be a contentious one, most researchers share the understanding that job satisfaction is a work-related positive affective reaction. A consensus on the causes of job satisfaction however, is yet to be reached. Hodgetts (1991) considers equitable pay and benefits, and acceptability of the system in operation to be strong determinants of job satisfaction. In addition, comfortable and safe working conditions and supportive colleagues are considered by Hodgetts (1991) to be important causes of job satisfaction. The importance of co-worker social support has been a subject of interest for many decades. The Hawthorne studies of the 1920's are evidence of this, demonstrating that workers who belong to a social group and have friendships at work tend to be more satisfied (Maynard, 1986). Maynard postulates that workers who lack social support in their job experience more stress, have less coping techniques and are general less satisfied. Furthermore the extent to which the job allows a

worker to use a number of different skills and abilities in executing their responsibilities, as well as an endorsement of people-centred leadership are implicit in job satisfaction. Positive relationships with leaders tend to be those who treat workers with respect, promote staff cohesion but also allow for individual thinking (Locke, 1970). Supervision however, is a complex variable which encompasses many individual differences and personality characteristics.

Personality-job fit is a factor which is also believed to influence job satisfaction. This arises when there is congruence between personality type and the demands of the job (McKenna, 2006). The personality-job fit theory suggests that by assessing an individual's personality, this will give insight into their suitability in an organisation. This is relevant to the present study which aims to relate self-esteem, affect and generalised self-efficacy to job satisfaction. High job satisfaction is highly desirable for employers as it has been connected to greater organisational commitment, performance, motivation and lower intentions for turnover (McKenna, 2006).

Measuring Job Satisfaction

There are a number of difficulties associated with measuring job satisfaction as it is an abstract personal cognition. In order to measure job satisfaction, a conceptual understanding of the construct must exist in order to decide what indirect factors to measure. As mentioned previously, there is no agreed upon definition, and no widely accepted theory to explain job satisfaction. It is therefore unsurprising that there is no consensus on how best to measure it (Wanous & Lawler, 1972). Generally, the most basic forms of measurement include an interview, a single-item measure or a workplace observation. However, according to Spector (1994) most researchers favour a more objective and in-depth survey instrument. The most

frequently used approach to measuring satisfaction involves the use of rating scales (McKenna, 2006). Questionnaires using rating scales can be easily distributed to a wide audience, are less prone towards bias, allow for confidentiality and are more time and cost effective than interviews (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991).

For the purpose of this current study, Spector's (1994) job satisfaction scale will be used. This is adopts a facet approach to conceptualising job satisfaction and is a commonly used overall measure of job satisfaction. Spector's (1994) job satisfaction scale considers job satisfaction to be composed of feelings and attitudes about a number of facets of the job such as, pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, co-workers, nature of work and communication. The facet approach provides a more detailed assessment of job satisfaction allowing superior insight into how an individual feels about the various aspects of their job and their work environment.

Theories of Job Satisfaction

The earliest writings on job satisfaction gave credence to the influence of dispositional influence on job satisfaction. Research in this area suggests that workers have innate dispositions that cause them to have tendencies toward a certain level of satisfaction, regardless of their job. For example, Hippock (1935) found that levels of emotional adjustment significantly separated satisfied and dissatisfied employees. This reproduced the results of earlier research carried out by Fisher and Hanna (1931, p. 27) who noted "In as much as his feelings and emotions are inherent aspects of himself, he carries them with him, so to speak, into every situation he enters". Weitz (1952) also researched dispositions and job satisfaction, developing a "gripe index" to examine individual's tendencies to feel negatively, or positively, about various aspects of their lives in an

effect to judge more accurately relative dissatisfaction with one's job. Weitz stated "some individuals generally gripe more than others; in that case the number of dissatisfactions with the job should be placed in its proper background-namely, some 'gripe index' of the individual" (Weitz, 1952, p.202). Weitz noted a very strong positive correlation between his individual difference measure, the "gripe index", and job satisfaction. Smith (1955) suggested that factory workers' prone to poor emotional adjustment were more susceptible to feelings of monotony (a correlate of dissatisfaction). Locke (1976) also indicated the potential usefulness of examining dispositional factors, but at that time few studies has actually been carried out. According to Judge and Larson (2001) it is only since the mid 1980's that the dispositional source of job satisfaction has been the recipient of more than sporadic investigation.

A study carried out by Staw and colleagues proved to be very influential and renewed interest in the subject of the dispositional source of job satisfaction. Staw and Ross (1985) exploited the National Longitudinal Surveys (NLS) database and found that the measures of job satisfaction were relatively stable over time. They also discovered that job satisfaction showed moderate stability even when individuals experienced change in both employers and occupation over a 5 year period. In addition, Staw and Ross (1985) also found that prior job satisfaction was a stronger predictor of job satisfaction than changes in pay or changes in status. This study was not however without its weaknesses (Gutek & Winter, 1992; Newton & Keenan, 1991). The main criticism of this study was based on the grounds that it is difficult to establish a dispositional basis of job satisfaction without measuring dispositions. As well as this, job quality and characteristics may not change with a change of a job. Correlation of satisfaction levels across time and job may reflect the stable individual dispositions, meaning individuals who are capable of securing a good, high quality job at one time are likely to be able to do the same later.

A further study which has been credited as seminal research in relating dispositions and job satisfaction was carried out by Arvey, Bouchard, Segal and Abraham (1989). Arvey and colleagues (1989) found significant satisfaction levels in 34 pairs of monozygotic twins who were raised separately from early childhood. The intra-class correlation (ICC) of the general job satisfaction scores of the twin pairs was .31 ($p < .05$). This correlation may have been seen because the twins with similar dispositions were selected, or selected themselves, into similar environments by organisations because of genetic influence on ability (Hulin & Judge, 2003). In an effort to eliminate this explanation, Arvey et al. (1989) controlled for job level using the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (DOT) scales to classify jobs on four dimensions. Controlling for DOT scales had little impact on the correlation ($ICC = .29$). This study implied that individuals are born with characteristics which predispose them to be satisfied with a job. The heritability of job satisfaction is likely to be indirect, working through heritability in personality or other dispositions. Both Arvey et al. (1989) and Staw and Ross (1985) recognised that further research was required to examine the influence of specific traits on job satisfaction.

While it can be agreed that the concept of job satisfaction has historically been the focus of many studies, the large majority of these studies are done in the United States with a very limited number of studies found to have been carried out in Ireland. Riggio (2008) postulates that we cannot conclude that results of studies conducted with workers in the United States will generalise to workers in other countries and of different cultures. Further research demonstrates that cultural factors can affect both how workers define and perceive job satisfaction, and how members of different countries or cultural groups respond to job satisfaction measures (Riggio, 2008). In addition to this, much of the seminal research on disposition and job satisfaction (e.g. Arvey et al, 1989; Staw and Ross; 1985) does not focus directly on measuring disposition and its relationship with job satisfaction, as is the aim of the present study.

Job Insecurity

With regards to the present study, self-esteem, generalised self-efficacy and positive affect will be measured in relation to job satisfaction during the current economic downturn in Ireland. During a severe recession, such as the one in Ireland presently, job insecurity pervades much of the workforce. Job insecurity has been defined in numerous ways. For example, the construct has been described as an employee's "expectations about continuity in a job situation" (Davy et al., 1997, p. 323) and "perception of a potential threat to continuity in his or her current job" (Heaney, Israel & House, 1994, p. 1431). Job insecurity is a job stressor, which not only brings about negative psychological and physical health, but also negative job-related reactions (Judge, Locke & Durham, 1997). This is a subjective experience and likely to have a strong psychological impact (Sverke, Hellgren & Naswall, 2002). For the majority of individuals work is a necessity for the satisfaction of economic and social needs. Work is significant in that it provides a source of income, enables social contacts, influences the structuring of time, contributes to personal development (Sverke, Hellgren & Naswall, 2002) and can also be central to personal identity (Hulin & Judge, 2001). The potential threat of unemployment involves the possible loss of these important social and financial resources. Research suggests that job insecurity may have as detrimental consequences as job loss itself (Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995). This is consistent with research which postulates that anticipation of a stressful event represents an equally important, or perhaps even greater, source of anxiety than the actual event (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Research in job insecurity has been related to organisational attitudes such as commitment and trust. Studies demonstrate that organisational commitment has been found to have a moderate (Liou, 1995) or strong negative association with job insecurity (Davy et al.,

1997), but a non-significant relationship has also been reported (Robinson, 1996). Moreover both physical and mental health, have been reported to decrease in experiences of job insecurity. The correlations between job insecurity and physical and mental health have varied in strength from weak, to moderate, whereas some studies have found no support for a significant relationship between the variables (Hellgren & Sverke, 2003). High levels of job insecurity have also been associated with impaired performance and an inclination to leave an organisation. Most of the studies reporting a significant association have relied on self-report measures of performance however (e.g., Rosenblatt, Talmud & Ruvio, 1999).

Overall the results of a meta-analysis carried out by Hellgren and Sverke (2003) indicate that job insecurity can have detrimental consequences for the individual as well as the organisation. This relates to both immediate (job and organisational attitudes) and long-term (health and work-related behaviour) reactions. It is important to consider these findings in light of the present study given the potential far reaching effects that job insecurity can have. The current economic recession in Ireland provides an unprecedented backdrop to a study of job satisfaction in Ireland. It is for this reason that the potential influence of job insecurity must be acknowledged.

Self-Esteem

Many current theorists (e.g. Adler, 1980; Judge & Bono, 2001; Judge & Ilies, 2002; Judge & Mount, 2002; Orpen, 1974) view self-esteem as one of the best dispositional predictors of job satisfaction. Self-esteem refers to “people’s evaluations of their own self-worth, that is, the extent to which they view themselves as good, competent, and decent” (Aronson, Wilson, Akert & Fehr, 2001, p. 19). Self-esteem is considered by Judge et al (1997) to be the most fundamental

manifestation of core evaluation as it represents the overall value that one places on oneself as a person. It refers to an individual's self-acceptance, self-liking and self-respect and has long been viewed as an essential component of mental health. According to Owens (1994), as cited in Sciangula and Morry (2009), high self-esteem individuals generally feel worthwhile as human beings, and respect themselves, yet they are aware of their faults. Individuals with low self-esteem however, often feel deficient, unworthy and inadequate as human beings, and allow their perceived weaknesses to dominate how they feel about themselves.

Indeed, self-esteem has been argued by researchers as yielding a suite of behavioural effects which are beneficial both to the individual and to society at large (Krueger, Vohs & Baumeister, 2008). Self-esteem was shown to be the strongest predictor of life satisfaction in a national sample of adults in the United States in a study carried out by Campbell (1981). The correlation between the two was 0.55. Conversely, a growing body of research suggests that low self-esteem operates as a risk factor for depression (Roberts & Monroe, 1992). Self-esteem is one of the most widely studied personality concepts in psychology and research suggests that self-esteem demonstrates short-term fluctuations but long-term stability (Costa and McCrae, 1994).

Locke, McClellan and Knight (1996) commented that "A person with high self-esteem will view a challenging job as a deserved opportunity which he can master and benefit from, whereas a person with low self-esteem is more likely to view it as an undeserved opportunity or a chance to fail" (p. 21). Furthermore, previous research suggests that individuals with high self-esteem maintain optimism in the face of failure which makes future success, and as a result, future satisfaction, more likely (Judge & Larson, 2001). Another research element important to consider in respect to the present study is Korman's (1970) self-consistency theory. According to advocates of this theory (Festinger, 1957; Korman, 1970), people prefer outcomes which are

consistent with their self-concept and experience dissonance concerning outcomes which are inconsistent with their self-concept. This is to help preserve their cognitive balance (Judge & Bono, 2001). This is true for both positive and negative self-concepts and can explain why those with high self-esteem attribute success internally and those with low self-esteem attribute success externally. This is to remain consistent with their self-concept (Adler, 1980). Korman's theory further predicts that individuals with high self-esteem choose occupations consistent with their interests, which would lead to greater levels of job satisfaction.

Self-esteem is also related to cognition. It is associated with both the content and structure of self-beliefs, and consistently predicts patterns of thinking about one's own behaviour (Kling et al., 1999). The self-serving bias is demonstrative of this. The self-serving bias characterises that people with high self-esteem attribute their successes to internal factor and their failures to external ones. In opposition to this, it suggests that individuals with low self-esteem will attribute their successes to external sources (e.g. luck) and their failures to internal sources (Kling et al., 1999).

According to Pierce and Gardner (2004), individuals who believe themselves to be worthy and valuable in general are likely to believe that they are worthy and valuable in specific settings, such as the workplace. Researchers who study the correlates and consequences of self-esteem generally assume it is a stable trait that predicts future behaviour (Harter, 1990; Rosenberg, 1965). This assumption however has been questioned by researchers who emphasise the state-like nature of self-esteem. Leary and Baumeister (2000) for example argue that self-esteem is a barometer of transient beliefs about one's worth relative to others. Consequently from this perspective, self-esteem levels are highly reactive to social evaluation and are thus continually changing in response to external feedback (Trzesniewski et al. 2003). Given that this

outlook of self-esteem is still pervasive in personality psychology, the current study aims to build upon previous research which suggests that a positive correlation between self-esteem and job satisfaction exists, and help establish whether an association between the two can be identified in workers in Ireland.

Generalised Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is defined as one's judgements of "how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations" (Bandura, 1982, p. 122). Self-efficacy is considered to be an important influence on human achievement in a variety of settings including, education, health, sports and business (Bandura, 1997). Although Bandura treated self-efficacy as task specific, Judge et al. (1997) extended the concept to a global level. Judge and his colleague's defined generalised self-efficacy as one's estimates of one's capabilities to mobilise the motivation, cognitive resources and courses of action needed to exercise general control over events in one's life. Therefore, generalised self-efficacy represents individual's perception of their ability to perform across a variety of situations. Generalised self-efficacy differs from self-esteem because what an individual masters may not be fundamental to that which is valued by the individual (Judge & Larson, 2001). It is however likely to be related to self-esteem because it encompasses individuals' judgements of their capabilities to cope with events in their lives and deal successfully with life's challenges.

Research suggests that generalise self-efficacy is related to task effort and performance, persistence, resilience in the face of failure, effective problem solving and self-control (Bandura, 1986; Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Research has also shown that lack of autonomy (which is negatively linked generalised to self-efficacy) fosters burnout amongst workers, which in turn is

detrimental to job satisfaction (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007). Correspondingly, it has been demonstrated that autonomy is positively related to job satisfaction (Connolly & Viswesvaran, 2000). Therefore high generalised self-efficacy (meaning a strong belief in one's own abilities) may lead to self-fulfilling prophecy; high generalised self-efficacy can result in greater success in new endeavours and success and by doing so reinforces the initial assessment of self-efficacy. This current study aims to relate high levels of generalised self-efficacy with high levels of job satisfaction. It is therefore hypothesised that if an individual inherently believes in their ability, this may help them to succeed in their chosen task, increasing job performance, whilst this success will cause them to feel satisfied in their job.

Increasing Generalised Self-Efficacy and Potential Drawbacks to the Theory

Although Bandura (1997) hypothesised that self-efficacy beliefs remain relatively stable once established, researchers have commented that “little evidence exists about how efficacy beliefs change or solidify across stages of a career” (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). The developmental course of occupational self-efficacy is not uniform from early to late adulthood and as such self-efficacy may fluctuate over the course of a career as it is influenced by life and career events and challenges. Bandura (1997) believed that some workers at mid-to-late career stages may scale down overambitious goals due to waning self-efficacy, although this experience is not universal. Bandura (1997) further suggested that workplace environments influence self-efficacy beliefs, with supervisors' verbal persuasion and modelling serving as important spurs to workers' self-efficacy developments. Self-efficacy beliefs therefore are not thought by researchers to be static instead they reflect a lifelong process of development that fluctuate according to personal attributes and interpretation of environmental circumstances.

Considering self-efficacy appears to have a natural appeal for employers, attention is now being focused on whether action can be taken to increase it in various situations. Certain researchers argue that it can be increased by an uncomplicated procedure. Eden and Aviram (1993) studied a procedure relating to the self-efficacy of individuals, who had become unemployed through “downsizing” and other factors beyond their control. They were currently trying to find another job. The researchers operated on the theory that it was necessary to increase self-efficacy of the unemployed participating in the study because the experience of losing a job could result in lower levels of self-efficacy with motivational implications. Those affected could have reservations regarding their effectiveness as workers and were likely to be dejected about getting another job. With this mind, workshops were designed to enhance their self-efficacy. This was done through the screening of films in which good job-seeking skills were shown. Following the film, participants were afforded the opportunity to practise the skills on display and they received feedback and encouragement. Results from the study signified that exercise in skills development increased the participants’ self-efficacy and the success rate in obtaining new employment was significantly higher than what was found in the matched control group. This study suggests that self-efficacy can be taught. Considering self-efficacy has natural appeal to employers, should generalised self-efficacy be positively correlated to job satisfaction in Ireland (as this present study hypothesises), Irish employers can potentially boost their workers self-efficacy.

Self-efficacy theory however, is not free from criticism, with its most commonly cited fault highlighting the theory’s tendency to overstate the individual’s responsibility in the change process, failing to duly acknowledge structural encroachments upon the individual (Franzblau and Moore, 2001).

Positive Affect

According to Judge, Erez and Bono (1998), many employers would view positivity as desirable in employees. Happy individuals are successful across many life domains including marriage, friendship, income, work performance and health (Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2002; Lyubomirsky, King, & Diener, 2005). The affective or emotional aspect of job satisfaction is a theme which has surfaced in more recent years. According to Watson (2000) affect, in its most general sense, is a phenomenological state of feeling usually described in terms of emotions, such as happy, sad and enthusiastic. When considering affect, it is important to distinguish between the trait versus the state aspect of affect. State affect refers to what one is feeling at any given moment in time whereas trait affect, referred to as affectivity, indicates the dispositional tendency to experience certain affective states over time (Thoresen et al., 2003). For the purpose of the present study, it is more practical and beneficial to examine state affect as it is a stable personality dimension.

There are two major mood states, positive affectivity and negative affectivity. Positive affectivity refers to a person who is relatively upbeat and optimistic. An individual displaying positive affectivity are generally in a good mood, usually have a positive outlook on life, and have an overall sense of wellbeing. With regards negative affectivity, this individual is relatively downbeat and pessimistic, usually has a negative view of life and is normally in a bad mood (McKenna, 2006). It is generally accepted that there are short term variations to these mood states. Much of the research in the psychology of emotion has focused on negative mood, with clinical psychology for example commonly exploring the causes and symptoms of sadness rather than happiness (McKenna, 2006). Job satisfaction according to Briner (1999) is an emotion

fundamental aspect of much of what people do at work. There has been a tendency however, to ignore or play down its relevance.

As mentioned, job satisfaction can be described as “a pleasurable to positive emotional state resulting in the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences” (Locke, 1976, p. 1300). It has been suggested by researchers (Thoresen et al., 2003) that the role of affect should be stressed in the appraisal process. In spite of Locke’s reference to affect in his frequently cited definition, the role of affect in job satisfaction has only come under scrutiny in very recent years. Several studies have related positive affectivity (PA) and negative affectivity (NA) to job satisfaction. Watson and Slack (1993) carried out the first study assessing the influence of trait positive affect (TPA) and trait negative affect (TNA) on job satisfaction across time using a sample of university employees. Watson and Slack found that TPA and TNA assessed at Time 1 contributed uniquely to the prediction of several aspects of job satisfaction (satisfaction with co-workers, and the nature of the work itself) above and beyond the influences of occupational variables (occupational status, job complexity) and job-related events during the two years. Furthermore, Brief and colleagues correlated a trait anxiety measure with job satisfaction and found significant links in both studies ($r = -.34, p < .01$; Brief, Butcher & Roberson, 1995).

As mentioned earlier, Hulin & Judge (2003) describe job satisfaction as a multidimensional psychological response to one’s job. These responses are said to have cognitive (evaluative), affective and behavioural components. Thus, when individuals evaluate their jobs, both cognition and affect are involved. Therefore, to more fully understand job satisfaction, affects and cognitions must be studied as separate but related influences. This present study aims to relate both affect and self-esteem and self-efficacy to job satisfaction and demonstrate whether they influence levels of job satisfaction amongst workers in Ireland.

Gender Differences

Research on whether gender has any influence on job satisfaction has garnered conflicting results. Lefkowitz (1994) refers to a number of US studies which report that women's job satisfaction is lower than that for men. This finding however, does not stand when certain variables (e.g., education, income, age) are held constant. In the 1991 British Household panel Survey, women reported higher job satisfaction than men (Clarke, 1996). This was considered a surprising result for some given the nature of work for many women, e.g., part-time, insecure and relatively low pay when compared to men. This higher level of satisfaction for women was potentially credited to the idea that women can leave job more easily than men when they are dissatisfied, and therefore those that remain in employment are more likely to be satisfied (McKenna, 2006). The present study aims to establish whether gender significantly influences job satisfaction amongst Irish workers.

Age

There has been significant focus in the literature on age as an influential factor on job satisfaction, but again the research is inconclusive. No cohesive theory has yet been reached, with some studies showing no significant influence (Hulin, 1963; Sutter, 1994), and others proposing that satisfaction is curvilinear, changing throughout the lifespan of the worker (Hertzberg et al., 1957). Overall, research suggests that there is a tendency for job satisfaction to increase with age (Clarke, 1996). There are only speculative reasons at present for why this may be the case. For example, some argue that dissatisfied workers are more likely to leave their jobs through early retirement or redundancy schemes, while the older workers who stay in their jobs may stay in the organisations because they enjoy their work. Conversely, older workers, unlike

younger workers, have spent more time in their career and manoeuvred themselves into satisfying jobs; or as workers grow older they may have adjusted their expectations downwards meaning it takes less to satisfy them (McKenna, 2006). The present study aims to investigate age as a predictor for job satisfaction, identifying whether job satisfaction increases in correspondence with increasing age as is suggested by the previous research mentioned.

The Present Study

Building upon existing evidence, it was predicted that participants with high levels of self-esteem, generalised self-efficacy and positive affect would score higher in levels of job satisfaction than those with low levels of self-esteem, generalised self-efficacy and positive affect. Additionally, based on previous research stating that job satisfaction generally increases with age (Clarke, 1996), it is hypothesised that the older respondents will report higher levels of job satisfaction than the younger ones. Finally, any gender differences will also be explored.

The present study was therefore conducted to test these hypotheses.

Method

Materials

Each participant was asked to complete a demographic data form and a version of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE; Rosenberg, 1965), Generalised Self-Efficacy Measure (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1993), the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) as well as the Spector (1994) Job Satisfaction Survey. The data form was used to elicit the respondent's demographic data such as age and sex.

Self-Esteem: The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE; Rosenberg, 1965) was used to assess the self-esteem of participants. This scale was originally devised to measure global feelings of self-worth or self-acceptance (Robinson, Shaver & Wrightsman, 1991). The RSE was devised to be a Guttman scale, meaning items were used to represent a continuum of self-worth statements ranging from statements that are endorsed even by individuals with low self-esteem to statements that are endorsed only by participants with high self-esteem. Dobson et al. (1979) as cited in Robinson, Shaver and Wrightsman (1991), calculated a Cronbach alpha of 0.77 while Fleming and Courtney (1984) reported a Cronbach alpha of 0.88 suggesting strong internal reliability of this scale.

Participants were asked to respond to ten statements dealing with general feelings about themselves. Statements include, "On the whole, I am satisfied with myself" and "I am able to do things as well as most other people". Responses were made on 4-point Likert scales ranging from 3 (strongly agree) to 0 (strongly disagree). High scores represent high self-esteem. Five questions are negatively worded and thus are reversed scored. With regards to these negatively worded

questions, such as “At times, I think I am no good at all”, responses that expressed disagreement were consistent with high self-esteem. While the scale is well regarded, and is the standard against which new measures are evaluated, there are some potential drawbacks to its use. Most notably, the items may be susceptible to socially desirable responding (Robinson, Shaver & Wrightsman, 1991). The RSE’s ease of administration, scoring and brevity however, continues to underpin its popularity.

Generalised Self-Efficacy: Generalised self-efficacy was measured with Schwarzer and Jerusalem’s (1993) 10 item generalised self-efficacy measure. This is a widely used parsimonious scale that was developed for use in across many cultures. This measure was originally developed in German and has been translated into 28 languages, including English (Schwarzer and Jerusalem’s 1995). It has been widely used primarily by researchers outside of the US (Scherbaum, Cohen-Charash & Kern, 2006). General self-efficacy refers to an individuals’ perception of their ability to perform across a variety of situations (Judge, Erez & Bono, 1998), and as such this scale is designed to assess optimistic self-beliefs to cope with a variety of difficult demands in life. This scale was originally developed by Schwarzer and Jerusalem in 1981 as a 20-item version. It was later revised to the 10-items used in the present study. A Cronbach alpha of between 0.75 and 0.90 has been typically yielded demonstrating generally high internal consistency (Schwarzer, 1995).

In contrast to other scales that have been designed to assess optimism, Schwarzer and Jerusalem’s (1993) scale refers explicitly to personal agency, the belief that one’s actions are responsible for successful outcome. Questions include “I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough” (1 = not true at all and 4 = exactly true). Items were added

together to form a sum total and renamed 'self-efficacy sum total'. This scale does not use reverse scoring.

Positive and Negative Affectivity: Dispositional affect was measured using the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Watson and his colleagues proposed a two-dimensional model of mood. Instead of focusing exclusively on self-report arousal, Watson et al. aimed to cover the full range of moods, including those that have no particular connotation of high or low arousal (Matthews, Dreary & Whiteman, 2009). Their factor analytic studies identified two orthogonal dimensions labelled PA and NA, measured by the Positive and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS).

The PANAS is a 20-item scale measuring both PA and NA by asking the participant to denote how often they generally experience 10 negative and 10 positive emotions (e.g., upset, alert, ashamed, determined, attentive etc.). Each item is rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 = very slightly or not at all to 5 = extremely, to indicate the extent to which the respondent has felt this way in the indicated time frame. Watson and his colleagues (1988) reported Cronbach's alpha coefficient ranging from 0.86 to 0.90 for the PA scale and 0.84 to 0.87 for the NA scale indicating high internal consistency.

Overall Job Satisfaction: Overall job satisfaction was measured using the 36 item Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) which was developed by Paul E. Spector. This measure aims to assess employee attitudes towards various aspects of their job. Questions are based on nine facet subscales; pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, co-workers, nature of work and communication. Each of the above subscales is composed of four questions that are rated on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (disagree very much) to 6 (agree very

much). Questions are written in both directions, meaning reverse scoring is required. Participants were asked to respond to the 36 questions, indicating which answer reflects their opinion most closely. All responses from the subscales were combined to obtain an overall job satisfaction score which was named "TotalSatisfactionSumTotal". Saane and colleagues (2003) reported Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.91 scale indicating excellent internal consistency.

Demographic information such as age and sex were obtained also as part of the questionnaire.

Participants

The sample consisted of 115 Irish adults ($M = 32.28$ years, range 19 to 63); 48 males and 67 females, who were recruited from Galway city and its surrounding area. Participants were of mixed age, gender, occupation and consisted of both public and private sector workers. Inclusion factors for participants necessitated that they were in full-time employment and were at least 18 years old. Part-time workers, those under 18 years and individuals who were self-employed were excluded from the present study. Participants were invited to take part in the study and were not paid for their involvement.

Design

A within-subjects correlational design was utilised to test for relationships between variables. Each participant completed questionnaires which were designed to identify their level of job satisfaction and self-esteem, generalised self-efficacy and positive affect. The predictor variables were self-esteem, generalised self-efficacy and affect. The criterion variable was job satisfaction.

Procedure

Participants were approached at random by the researcher and asked to voluntarily participate in a study which examined the effects of specific aspects of an individual's disposition (self-esteem, generalised self-efficacy and affect) on job satisfaction. Participants were informed that the purpose of the study was to better understand the influence disposition can have on job satisfaction on workers in Ireland; and that it was being conducted as part of the requirements for a student's Final Year Project in the Psychology Department at Dublin Business School. After providing informed consent, participants were presented with a series of self-report measures. Questionnaires were completed on an individual basis at the participants' own pace. Participants were debriefed upon finishing the questionnaire. No surveys were opened until all completed surveys were returned to ensure anonymity of participants. Completion of all materials took approximately five to ten minutes.

Data Analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) Version 18.0 was used to analyse the data obtained. Cronbach's alpha, descriptive statistics, Pearson's correlation coefficient, analysis of covariance and independent sample t-test were the primary statistics used.

Results

A Pearson's correlation was used to assess the influence of the predictor variables on the criterion variable, job satisfaction. The main effect of the three factors was first assessed and then their interaction.

Internal Consistency

Fleming and Courtney (1984) reported a Cronbach alpha of 0.88 demonstrating strong internal reliability for the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale and of between 0.75 and 0.90 (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995) for Schwarzer and Jerusalem's (1993) 10 item generalised self-efficacy measure. Meanwhile, Watson and his colleagues (1988) reported Cronbach's alpha coefficient ranging from 0.86 to 0.90 for the PA scale and 0.84 to 0.87 for the NA scale and Saane and colleagues (2003) reported Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.91 for Spector's JSS (1994). The Alpha coefficient of each scale in the present study was greater than 0.7 and very similar to those reported above, as can be seen in Figure 1. This indicates that the scales used can be considered reliable within the current sample.

Figure 1: Alpha Coefficients of Questionnaires

Reliability Statistics of Job Satisfaction Survey JSS

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.907	.910	36

**Reliability Statistics of Self-Efficacy
Scale SFS**

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.815	.825	10

**Reliability Statistics of Self-Esteem
Scale SES**

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.798	.816	10

**Reliability Statistics of PANAS
Questionnaire**

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.799	.801	20

Descriptive Statistics

Of the participants who took part in the current study (N = 115), 48 were male (41.7%) and 57 were female (58.3%). The ages of participants ranged from 19 to 63 years, with the average age being 32.28 years. Summary descriptive statistics are displayed in Figure 2, showing

the means and standard deviations of the JSS, SES, SFS and PANAS. More detailed analysis is contained in Appendix A.

Hypothesis 1 - Job Satisfaction and Self-Esteem

The central hypothesis of this paper concerns the commonly observed tendency for workers with high self-esteem to experience high levels of job satisfaction. Specifically, it was predicted that those with high self-esteem would report high job satisfaction.

Participants' job satisfaction was classified into high-or-low satisfaction groups by means of a median split on the job satisfaction measure. This step enabled the construction of two conditions: 57 participants were classified as low in job satisfaction and 58 participants were classified as high in job satisfaction. Responses were submitted to a Pearson's Correlation. Results did not provide support for self-esteem influencing job satisfaction, where $r = 0.148$, $p = 0.114$.

The 9 facet subscales of Spector's (1994) Job Satisfaction Survey showed that no significant correlation with self-esteem when analysed using Pearson's correlation. More specifically, no relationship was found between pay and self-esteem, where $r = 0.088$, $p = 0.351$; promotion and self-esteem, where $r = 0.098$, $p = 0.300$; supervision and self-esteem, where $r = 0.139$, $p = 0.140$; fringe benefits and self-esteem, where $r = 0.080$, $p = 0.276$; contingent rewards and self-esteem, where $r = 0.103$, $p = 0.276$; operating conditions and self-esteem, where $r = -0.084$, $p = 0.370$; co-workers and self-esteem, where $r = 0.095$, $p = 0.310$; nature of work and self-esteem, where $r = 0.147$, $p = 0.116$; and finally, communication and self-esteem, where $r = 0.175$, $p = 0.062$.

A Pearson correlation analysis revealed a significant and positive relationship however, between self-esteem and self-efficacy where $r = 0.472$, $p = 0.000$. Moreover, a positive, significant relationship was also shown between self-esteem and positive affect, where $r = 0.390$, $p = 0.000$. Higher levels of self-esteem were associated with higher levels of self-efficacy and positive affect. In addition, the results of a Pearson correlation analysis demonstrated that a significant and negative relationship ($r = -0.357$, $p = 0.000$) exists between self-esteem and negative affect. Self-esteem therefore increases as negative affect decreases. Results can be seen in Appendix B, Figure 1.

Hypothesis 2 - Job Satisfaction and Generalised Self-Efficacy

It was predicted that participants reporting high generalised self-efficacy would report high levels of job satisfaction. High self-efficacy (meaning a strong belief in one's own abilities) may lead to self-fulfilling prophecy. High generalised self-efficacy may result in greater success in new endeavours and success and by doing so reinforces the initial assessment of self-efficacy.

Results indicate there was a positive correlation between the two variables, $r = 0.294$, $p = 0.001$. Findings demonstrated that participants reported generalised self-efficacy ($M = 32.3130$, $SD = 3.70719$) as more correlated to job satisfaction than self-esteem ($M = 16.8174$, $SD = 6.04890$). Exploring profile plots, it is evident that participants reporting high job satisfaction consider generalised self-efficacy more significant compared to self-esteem.

Furthermore, a Pearson Correlation analysis revealed showed that there was a significant positive correlation between self-efficacy and positive affect, $r = 0.341$, $p = 0.000$. In contrast, a significant negative relationship was observed between self-efficacy and negative affect, $r = -$

0.337, $p = 0.000$, signalling that as self-efficacy increases, negative affect decreases. A summary of results can be found in Appendix B, Figure 1.

Hypothesis 3 - Job Satisfaction and Affect

Additionally it was predicted that participants reporting high positive affect would also report high levels of job satisfaction. Research suggests that happy individuals are successful across many life domains including marriage, friendship, income, work performance and health (Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2002) and it was predicted by the present study that this would translate to job satisfaction also.

Employing Pearson's correlation coefficient, a significant relationship was found between job satisfaction and affect. More specifically, analysis using Pearson's correlation coefficient indicates a statistically significant and positive linear relationship between job satisfaction and positive affect, $r = 0.280$, $p = 0.002$ and a negative correlation between job satisfaction and negative affect $r = -0.308$, $p = 0.001$. Thus, participants tended to report positive affect as being associated with higher levels of job satisfaction ($M = 33.0435$, $SD = 7.72600$), than negative affect ($M = 18.5565$, $SD = 7.04147$). These findings support the hypothesis that those with high positive affect will demonstrate high levels of job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4 - Age

Hypothesis 4 predicted that job satisfaction would be higher for older participants when compared to the young participants. The participants were divided into four age groups, group 1 consisted of those aged 18-25 years, group 2 of 26-35 years, group 3 of 36-45 years and group 4

of 46-65 years. An independent sample t-test was carried out to assess hypothesis 4, comparing job satisfaction between the group 1 (18-25 years) and group 4 (45-65 years). The mean score for job satisfaction amongst participants aged 18-25 years was 146.1277 with a standard deviation of 24.71016. With regards participants aged 46-65 years, the mean score for job satisfaction was 155.7500 with a standard deviation of 19.73209. There is a significant difference between in job satisfaction between the two groups, ($t(65) = -1.543, p = .128$). Overall, results indicate that participants aged between 46-65 years experienced higher job satisfaction than those aged between 18-25 years.

Figure 2: Independent Sample T-Test

Group Statistics						
Age of Respondents		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	
TotalSatisfactionSumT	dimension 18-25	47	146.1277	24.71016	3.60435	
otal	1 46-65	20	155.7500	19.73209	4.41223	

Hypothesis 5 - Gender Differences

Hypothesis 5 predicted that there would be a significant difference in job satisfaction between males and females. Analysis of variances was conducted in order to compare job satisfaction and the predictor variables against gender. There was a significant difference in the scores for males and females. The mean score for job satisfaction in relation to males was 142.1667 (SD = 22.28379) and for females was 147.2985 (SD = 26.81531), indicating that female participants experience greater job satisfaction. An independent sample t-test further supported this finding, $t(113) = -1.084, p = .281$. Further information can be found in Appendix B.

Figure 3: Gender Differences

Descriptive Statistics

Sex Of Respondent		Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Male	TotalSatisfactionSumTotal	142.1667	22.28379	48
	SelfEfficacySumTotal	31.8750	3.23298	48
	SelfEsteemSumTotal	17.7708	5.80989	48
	PANASPositiveSumTotal	33.9583	7.29604	48
	PANASNegativeSumTotal	17.5000	6.33128	48
Female	TotalSatisfactionSumTotal	147.2985	26.81531	67
	SelfEfficacySumTotal	32.6269	4.00695	67
	SelfEsteemSumTotal	16.1343	6.16661	67
	PANASPositiveSumTotal	32.3881	8.00938	67
	PANASNegativeSumTotal	19.3134	7.46346	67

Discussion

This study investigated the relationship between self-esteem, generalised self-efficacy, affect and job satisfaction amongst Irish workers. It was expected that the commonly observed tendency for workers with high self-esteem to demonstrate high job satisfaction would be true of the Irish workers examined in this study. In addition, the aim of this research was also to demonstrate a positive correlation between generalised self-efficacy, positive affect and job satisfaction. The findings emerging from this study provide mixed results.

The most compelling stimulus for the present investigation was the possibility suggested by previous research that an individual's disposition affects their level of job satisfaction. This is a general theory that suggests that people have innate characteristics that tend to influence their level of job satisfaction, regardless of their area of employment (Judge & Larson, 2001). The findings of the present investigation do not provide support for one of the critical predicted hypothesis, that participants with high self-esteem would report high job satisfaction. Self-esteem was not positively correlated to job satisfaction, $r = 0.148$, $p = 0.114$. Moreover, self-esteem was shown to be the least influential predictor variable on job satisfaction with a mean score of 16.8174. Participants were shown to have a mean score of 32.3130 for self-efficacy, 33.0436 for positive affect and 18.5565 for negative affect. This is an indication that participants did not show self-esteem as an indication of job satisfaction.

Considering these unexpected results, further investigation was undertaken involving the 9 facet subscales of Spector's (1994) JSS and self-esteem. They were submitted to a Pearson's correlation and no significant relationship was found between pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, co-workers nature of work, communication and job satisfaction. These findings do not support our hypothesis and are

inconsistent with previous research (e.g. Adler, 1980; Judge & Bono, 2001; Judge & Ilies, 2004; Judge & Mount, 2002; Orpen, 1974). There are a number of potential reasons as to why this may be the case. They will be addressed later when discussing the limitations of this study and modifications for future research.

While although within the present study there was no indication that self-esteem was positively correlated with job satisfaction, literature signals that self-esteem is likely to be related to generalised self-efficacy. Both concepts encompass individuals' judgements of their capabilities to cope with events in their lives and deal successfully with life's challenges (Judge & Larson, 2001). This was supported by the present study which found a significant positive correlation between self-esteem and generalised self-efficacy, $r = 0.472$, $p = 0.000$. Furthermore, the second hypothesis of the present study predicted that generalised self-efficacy would be positively correlated with job satisfaction. This is consistent with findings, $r = 0.294$, $p = 0.001$, and thus this hypothesis was supported. Previous research supports the critical influence of generalised self-efficacy on job satisfaction (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy, 1998), with an individual's generalised self-efficacy promoting a firm commitment to their profession and collaborative relationships with colleagues. It is possible to infer that job satisfaction accompanies an employee's self-efficacy operating to sustain their efforts in the work environment. Given that a significant positive relationship has been found between generalised self-efficacy and job satisfaction, this provides implications for future research. High job satisfaction has already been linked to higher productivity and lower turnover (McKenna, 2006), therefore research should now be focusing on improving workers generalised self-efficacy, which in turn will positively influence their job satisfaction.

Fox and Spector (2002) as cited in Judge and Ilies (2003), commented that in organisational psychology, cognition has been emphasised more than emotions, and when emotions have been considered, the focus has generally been on emotional traits rather than emotional states or moods. Considering little research linked mood to job satisfaction, the third hypothesis of the present study aimed to investigate the relationship between job satisfaction and affect. More specifically, it was predicted that positive affect would positively influence job satisfaction. This hypothesis was supported by the findings of this study, where $r = 0.280$, $p = 0.002$. Conversely, the present study found that negative affect was negatively correlated to job satisfaction, meaning that as negative affect increased, job satisfaction decreased. The results suggest that affective traits may influence individual's cognitive assessment of their job situation. Considering positive affect was positively related to job satisfaction, findings would suggest that it plays a stronger role in favourable evaluations of job satisfaction than negative affect.

A significant difference in job satisfaction was found between males and females, with female participants reporting greater job satisfaction. Based on previous research, there a number of possible reasons why higher satisfaction was reported by women. Researchers have credited the idea that women can leave job more easily than men when they are dissatisfied, and therefore those that remain in employment are more likely to be satisfied (McKenna, 2006). Furthermore, researchers have argued that higher job satisfaction in women may be caused by systematic differences in occupation and work content experienced by men and women (Dex, 1988). Therefore, controlling for these differences in future research would potentially eliminate some of this gender satisfaction gap.

Furthermore, the findings of the present study provide additional support for research which suggests that older (46-65 years in this study) individuals experience greater job satisfaction than younger individuals (18-25 years in this study). This is consistent with research that suggests that there is a tendency for job satisfaction to increase with age (Clarke, 1996; Spector, 1997). This has been attributed to the idea that job expectations tend to become more realistic as workers age and mature (Hertzberg et al., 1957). As well as this, according to McCullough (1974) older employees demonstrate higher satisfaction due to acquiring more desirable positions within the organisation. Considering the lack of consensus among researchers in explaining this occurrence, further investigation is required focusing specifically on the determinants of employee's job satisfaction.

Limitations of the Present Study and Modifications for Future Research

Firstly, while there was considerable emphasis placed on ensuring that a random sample was obtained, considering the surprising result that no significant relationship was found between self-esteem and job satisfaction, it is necessary to consider that the participants used may not have been representative of the population on the whole. When repeating this study, it may be beneficial to use a larger sample to avoid potentially confounding results.

A further potentially problematic issue also relates to the design of the study and more specifically, to the use of self-report measures. While there are a number of advantages associated with self-report measures; they are time and cost effective and can be easily implemented. As well as this they can be used to measure constructs that would be difficult to obtain with behavioural or physiological measures, such as the dependent variables involved in this study, self-esteem, generalised self-efficacy and affect. However, a number of drawbacks do

exist. When using self-report measures, there is an onus on participants to be honest that is not always fulfilled. According to Fisher and Katz (2000), participants frequently wish to manage how they appear in self-report measures. In particular, it is possible that the social desirability bias affected participants' responding in the present study. This is a common fault with self-report measures where respondents tend to answer in a manner which they believe will be viewed as favourable towards others. This generally involves over-reporting good behaviour or under-reporting bad behaviour. In a similar vein impression management may also be involved in explaining the surprising findings of the present study. Impression management refers to the desire to present oneself in a socially conventional way. Individuals who score high on the impression-management component tend to be more responsive to social influence (Fisher & Katz, 2000). It may be beneficial if repeating the present study to include a measure of socially desirable responding such as the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability (MCSD) scale. Respondents who score high on the MCSD scale are likely to bias their responses as a way of blending in and escaping negative evaluations (Fisher & Katz, 2000). A further type of bias may be responsible for the surprising findings of this study. According to Paulhaus (1992) self-deceptive positivity reflects an honest but overly favourable self-presentation. It has been linked to personality constructs such as self-esteem and optimism (Fisher & Katz, 2000). These theories may provide a partial explanation as to why participants in the present study did not demonstrate a positive correlation between self-esteem and job satisfaction, as was expected.

In addition to the potential limitations listed above, the self-report measures utilised in the present study involve rating scales which can be problematic in and of themselves. While they do allow respondents greater flexibility in their answers than just yes/no options, people are likely to interpret and use scales differently (Fisher & Katz, 2000). Indeed, some people have been described as 'extreme responders' preferring to use the edges of the scales, whereas others tend

to respond using the midpoints of the scales. This problem may have been reflected in the present study and could potentially account for the unexpected results of job satisfaction and self-esteem not being significantly related to one another.

Concluding remarks

Despite the failure of the present study to support one of the central hypotheses, the findings reported here are significant in several respects. In relation to theoretical implications, the results are consistent with the robust findings that generalised self-efficacy and positive affect are positively correlated to job satisfaction. Furthermore, the general implications of these findings indicate that self-efficacy can be used by employers to bolster job satisfaction as it is a concept which can be taught. This is notably what future studies should attempt to demonstrate.

References

- Adler, S. (1980). Self-esteem and causal attributions for satisfaction and dissatisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 65*(3), 327-332. Doi:10.1037/0021-9010.65.3.327
- Aronson, E. (1999). Dissonance, hypocrisy, and the self-concept. In E. Harmon-Jones & J. S. Mills (Eds.), *Cognitive dissonance: Progress on a pivotal theory in social psychology* (pp. 103–126). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Aronson, E., Wilson, T. D., Akert, R. M., & Fehr, B. (2001). *Social psychology* (Canadian ed.). Toronto, Canada: Pearson Education Canada.
- Arvey, R. D., Bouchard, T. J., Segal, N. L., & Abraham, L. M. (1989). Job satisfaction: Environmental and genetic components. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74*, 187-192.
- Bandura, A. (1982). Self-Efficacy mechanism in human agency. *American Psychologist, 37*, 122-147.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-Efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York, NY: Freeman.
- Banks, M.H. and Jackson, P.R. (1982), 'Unemployment and the risk of minor psychiatric disorder in young people: cross-sectional and longitudinal evidence', *Psychological Medicine, 12*, 789-798.
- Barter, S. (1990). Causes, correlates, and the functional role of global self-worth: A life-span perspective. In R. J. Sternberg & J. Kolligan, Jr. (Eds.), *Competence considered* (pp. 67-97). New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Bell, D., & Blanchflower, D. (2010). UK Unemployment in the Great Recession. *National Institute Economic Review*, 214, R3-R25.

Brief, A. P., Butcher, A. H., & Roberson, L. (1995). Cookies, disposition, and job attitudes: The effects of positive mood-inducing events and negative affectivity on job satisfaction in a field experiment. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 62, 55-62.

Briner, R. (1999). The neglect and importance of emotion at work. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 8, 323-346

Cambridge dictionaries online. (2012). Retrieved from <http://dictionary.cambridge.org/> on March 28th 2012.

Campbell, A. (1981). The sense of well-being in America: Recent patterns and trends. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Campbell, D. T. (1963). Social attitudes and other acquired behavioral dispositions. In S. Koch (Ed.), *Psychology: A study of a science* (Vol. 6, pp. 94-171). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Clark, A.E. (1996). Is Job Satisfaction U-Shaped in Age? *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 69: 57-81.

Connolly, J. J., & Viswesvaran, C. (2000). The role of affectivity in job satisfaction: a meta-analysis. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 29, 265-281.

Costa, P. T., Jr., & McCrae, R. R. (1994). Stability and change in personality from adolescence through adulthood. In C. F. Halverson, G. A. Kohnstamm, & R. P. Martin (Eds.), *The developing structure of temperament and personality from infancy to adulthood* (pp. 139–150).

Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

- Davy, J.A., Kinicki, A.J., & Scheck, C.L. (1997). A test of job security's direct and mediated effects on withdrawal cognitions. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 18, 323–349.
- Dekker, W.A. and Schaufeli, W.B. (1995) The effects of job insecurity on psychological health and withdrawal: A longitudinal study. *Australian Psychologist*, 30, 57-63.
- Dex, S. (1988). *Women's attitudes to work*. London: Macmillan.
- Diener, E., & Biswas-Diener, R. (2002). Will money increase subjective well-being? *Social Indicators Research*, 57, 119–169.
- Dobson, C., Goudy, W. J., Keith, P. M., & Powers, E. (1979). Further analysis of Rosenberg's self-esteem scale. *Psychological Reports*, 44, 639-641.
- Eden, D., & Aviram, A. (1993). Self-efficacy training to speed reemployment: Helping people to help themselves. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78, 352-360.
- Festinger, L. (1957) *A theory of cognitive dissonance*, Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Fishbein, M. (1980). A theory of reasoned action: Some applications and implications. In H. Howe & M. M. Page (Eds.), *Nebraska symposium on motivation: Beliefs, attitudes, and values* (pp. 65-116). Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.
- Fisher, V. E., & Hanna, J. V. (1931). *The dissatisfied worker*. New York: Macmillan.
- Fisher, R. J., & Katz, J. E. (2000). Social-desirability bias and the validity of self-reported values. *Psychology & Marketing*, 17(2), 105-120.
- doi:10.1002/(SICI)15206793(200002)17:2<105::AID-MAR3>3.0.CO;2-9
- Fleming, J. S., & Courtney, B. E. (1984). The dimensionality of self-esteem: Some results for a college sample. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 46, 404-421.

Fox, S., & Spector, P. E. (2002). An emotion-centred model of voluntary work behaviour: some parallels between counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) and organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). *Human Resources Management Review*, *12*, 269–292.

Franzblau, S. H., & Moore, M. (2001). Socializing efficacy: A reconstruction of self-efficacy theory within the context of inequality. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology*, *11*, 83-96.

Gist, M. E., & Mitchell, T. R. (1992). Self-Efficacy: A theoretical analysis of its determinants and malleability. *Academy of Management Review*, *17*, 183-211.

Goldsmith, A.H., Veum, J.R. and Darity, W. (1996), 'The psychological impact of unemployment and joblessness', *Journal of Socio-Economics*, *25*, 3, April, pp. 333–58.

Gutek, B. A., & Winter, S. J. (1992). Consistency of job satisfaction across situations: Fact or framing artifact? *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, *41*, 61-78.

Harter, S. (1990). Identity and self-development. In S. Feldman and G. Elliott (Eds.), *At the threshold: The developing adolescent* (pp. 352-387). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Heaney, C.A., Israel, B.A., & House, J.S. (1994). Chronic job insecurity among automobile workers: Effects on job satisfaction and health. *Social Science & Medicine*, *38*, 1431–1437.

Hellgren, J., & Sverke, M. (2003). Does job insecurity lead to impaired well-being or vice versa? Estimation of cross-lagged effects using latent variable modelling. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *24*, 215_236.

Hellgren, J., Sverke, M., & Isaksson, K. (1999). A two-dimensional approach to job insecurity: Consequences for employee attitudes and well-being. *European Journal of Work and Organization Psychology*, *8*, 179–195.

Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., Peterson, R., & Capwell, D. (1957). Job attitudes: Review of research and opinion. Pittsburgh: Psychological Services of Pittsburgh.

Hodgetts, R. M. (1991). *Organizational Behavior: Theory and Practice*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.

Hoppock, R. (1935). *Job satisfaction*. New York: Harper.

Hulin, C. L. (1963). A linear model of job satisfaction. Cornell University, Ithaca, NY: Ann Arbor, Microfilms Limited.

Hulin, C. L., & Judge, T. A. (2003). Job attitudes. In W. C. Borman, D. R. Ilies, & R. J. Klimoski (Eds.), *Handbook of Industrial and organizational psychology*, 255-276. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Ilies, R., & Judge, T. A. (2003). On the heritability of job satisfaction: The mediating role of personality. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*(4), 750-759. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.88.4.750

Jackson, P., & Warr, P. (1982). Duration of unemployment and psychological wellbeing in young men and women. *Current Psychology*, *13*, 14-17.

Judge, T.A., & Bono, J.E. (2001). Relationship of core self-evaluations traits—self-esteem, generalised self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability—with job satisfaction and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*, 80 – 92.

Judge, T. A., Erez, A., & Bono, J. E. (1998). The power of being positive: The relation between positive self-concept and job performance. *Human Performance*, *11*, 167–187.

Judge, T.A., Erez, A., Bono, J.E., & Thoresen, C.J. (2003). The Core Self-Evaluations Scale: Development of a measure. *Personnel Psychology*, *56*, 303–331.

Judge, T.A., Heller, D., & Mount, M.K. (2002). Five-factor model of personality and job satisfaction: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*, 530–541.

Judge, T. A., Hulin, C. L., & Dalal, R. S. (2009). Job satisfaction and job affect. In S. W. J.

Kozlowski (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of industrial and organizational psychology*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Judge, T. A., & Larsen, R. J. (2001). Dispositional affect and job satisfaction: A review and theoretical extension. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 6, 67-98.

Judge, T.A., Locke, E.A., & Durham, C.C. (1997). The dispositional causes of job satisfaction: A core evaluations approach. *Research in Organizational Behaviour*, 19, 151–188.

Kling, K. C., Hyde, J. S., Showers, C. J., & Buswell, B. N. (1999). Gender differences in self-esteem: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 125(4), 470-500.

Korman, A. K. (197). Toward a hypothesis of work behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 54, 31-41.

Krueger, J. I., Vohs, K. D., & Baumeister, R. F. (2008). Is the allure of self-esteem a mirage after all?. *American Psychologist*, 63(1), 64-65. doi:10.1037/0003-066X.63.1.64

Lazarus, R S and Folkman, S, (1984). *Stress, Appraisal, and Coping*. New York: Springer.

Leary M. R., Baumeister R. F. (2000). The nature and function of self-esteem: Sociometer theory. In: Zanna MP, editor. *Advances in experimental social psychology*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Lefkowitz, J. (1994) "Sex-related Differences in Job Attitudes and Dispositional Variables: Now You See Them, Now You Don't." *Academy of Management Journal* 37(2): 323-350.

Liou, K. T. (1995). Role stress and job stress among detention care workers. *Criminal Justice and Behaviour*, 22, 425–436.

Locke, E. (1976). The nature and causes of job satisfaction. In Dunnette, M.D. Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology. Chicago: Rand McNally.

Locke, E. A., McClear, K., & Knight, D. (1996). Self-esteem and work. *International Review of Industrial/Organizational Psychology*.

Lyubomirsky, S., King, L.A., & Diener, E. (2005). The benefits of frequent positive affect: Does happiness lead to success? *Psychological Bulletin*, *131*, 803–855.

Matthews, G., Dreary, I. J., & Whiteman, M. C. (2009). *Personality Traits*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Maynard, M. (1986) Measuring work and support network satisfaction. *Journal of Employment Counselling*, *23*, 9-19.

McKenna, E (2006). *Business Psychology and Organisational Behaviour*. New York: Psychology Press.

Newton, T., & Keenan, T. (1991). Further analyses of the dispositional argument in organizational behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *76*, 781-787.

Orpen, C., Lisus, G. (1974) Self-esteem and the relationship between need-fulfilment and job satisfaction. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *93*(2), 307-308.

Owens, T. J. (1994). Two dimensions of self-esteem: Reciprocal effects of positive selfworth and self-deprecation on adolescent problems. *American Sociological Review*, *59*, 391–407.

Paulhus, D. L. (1992). Perceptions of competence. *Journal of Personality and Individual Differences*, *53*, 16-19.

Pedhazur, E. J., & Schmelkin, L. P. (1991). *Measurement, design and analysis: An integrated approach*. Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Pierce, Jon L., & Gardner, Donald G. (2004). "Self-Esteem Within the Work and Organizational Context: A Review of the Organization-Based Self-Esteem Literature," *Journal of Management*, 30, 591-622.

Riggio, R. E. (2008). *Introduction to Industrial/Organizational Psychology* (5th Ed.). Pearson Higher Education.

Roberts, J. E., & Monroe, S. M. (1992). Vulnerable self-esteem and depressive symptoms: Prospective findings comparing three alternative conceptualizations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 62, 804–812.

Robinson, S. L. (1996). Trust and breach of the psychological contract. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 41, 574–599.

Robinson, J. P., Shaver, P. R., & Wrightsman, L. S. (1991). Measures of personality and social psychology attitudes. In J. P. Robinson, P. R. Shaver, & L. S. Wrightsman (Eds.), *Measures of personality and social psychology attitudes* (pp. 1-753). San Diego: Academic Press, Inc.

Rosenberg, M. (1965). *Society and the adolescent self-image*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Rosenblatt, Z., Talmud, I., & Ruvio, A. (1999). A gender-based framework of the experience of job insecurity and its effects on work attitudes. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 8, 197–217.

Russell H and F McGinnity (2011) Workplace Equality in the Recession? The Incidence and Impact of Equality Policies and Flexible Working. Dublin: The Equality Authority and the Economic and Social Research Institute

Saane, N., Sluiter, J. K., Verbeek, J. H. A. M., & Frings-Dresen, M. H. W. (2003). Reliability and validity of instruments measuring job satisfaction-a systematic review. *Journal of Occupational Medicine*, 53, 191-200 DOI: 10.1093/occmed/kqg038

Schwarzer, R., & Jerusalem, M. (1993). Erfassung leistungsbezogener und allgemeiner Kontroll- und Kompetenzerwartungen [Assessment of performance-related and general control and competence beliefs]. In G. Krampen (Ed.), Diagnostik von Attributionen und Kontrollüberzeugungen (pp. 127-133). Göttingen, Germany: Hogrefe.

Schwarzer, R. & Jerusalem, M. (1995). Generalized Self-Efficacy Scale. In J. Weinmann, S&M.Johnston (Eds).*Measures in health psychology: a user's portfolio* (35-37) Windsor, U.K; NFER-NELSON

Scherbaum, C.A., Cohen-Charash, Y., & Kern, M. J. (2006) Measuring General Self-Efficacy: A Comparison of Three Measures Using Item Response Theory. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 66(6), 1047-1063, 10.1177/0013164406288171

Schmidt, S., Strachota, E., & Conceicao, S. (2006). *The Use of Online Surveys to Measure Job Satisfaction in Job Training and Workforce Development*. Columbus, OH: Academy of Human Resource Development Conference.

Sciangua, A., & Morry, M. M. (2009). Self-Esteem and Percieved Regard: How I See Myself Affects My Relationship Satisfaction. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 149(2), 143-158.

Skaalvik, E. M., & Skaalvik, S. (2007). Dimensions of teacher self-efficacy and relationships with strain factors, perceived collective teacher efficacy, and the teacher burnout. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 99*, 611-625.

Smith, P. C. (1955). The prediction of individual differences in susceptibility to industrial monotony. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 39*, 322-329.

Spector, P. E. (1994). Job satisfaction survey. Tampa, FL: University of South Florida.

Spector, P. E. (1997). Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, causes, and consequences. Thousand Oaks, CA.: Sage.

Staw, B. M., & Ross, J. (1985). Stability in the midst of change: A dispositional approach to job attitudes. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 70*, 469-480.

Sutter, M. R. (1994). Job and career satisfaction of secondary school assistant principals. Kent State University, Kent, Ohio.

Sverke, M., Gallagher, D. G., & Hellgren, J. (2000). Alternative work arrangements: Job stress, well-being and pro-organizational attitudes among employees with different employment contracts. In K. Isaksson, C. Hogstedt, C. Eriksson, & T. Theorell (Eds.), *Health effects of the new labour market* (pp. 145-167). New York: Plenum.

Sverke M, Hellgren J, Naswall K. (2002). No security: A meta-analysis and review of job insecurity and its consequences. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 7*, 242-264.

T. Theorell (Eds.), *Health effects of the new labour market* (pp. 145-167). New York: Plenum.

Thoresen, C.J., S.A. Kaplan, A.P. Barsky, C.R. Warren and K. de Chermont (2003), 'The affective underpinnings of job perceptions and attitudes: a meta-analytic review and integration', *Psychological Bulletin*, 129, 914–45.

Thurstone, L. L. (1928). Attitudes can be measured. *American Journal of Sociology*, 33, 529-554.

Triandis, H. C. (1980). Values, attitudes, and interpersonal behavior. In H. Howe & M. M. Page (Eds.), *Nebraska symposium on motivation: Beliefs, attitudes, and values*, 27, 195-259. Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.

Trzesniewski, K. H., & Donnellan, M. B. (2003). Stability of self-esteem across the life span. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 84(1), 205-220.

Tschannen-Moran, M., & Woolfolk Hoy, A., & Hoy, W. K. (1998) Teacher efficacy: Its meaning and measure. *Review of Educational Research*, 68, 202-248.

Wanous, J. P., & Lawler, E. E. (1972). Measurement and meaning of job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 56, (2), 95-105.

Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54(6), 1063-1070.

Watson D. (2000). *Mood and temperament. Emotions and social behavior*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Decision Processes, 54, 181-202.

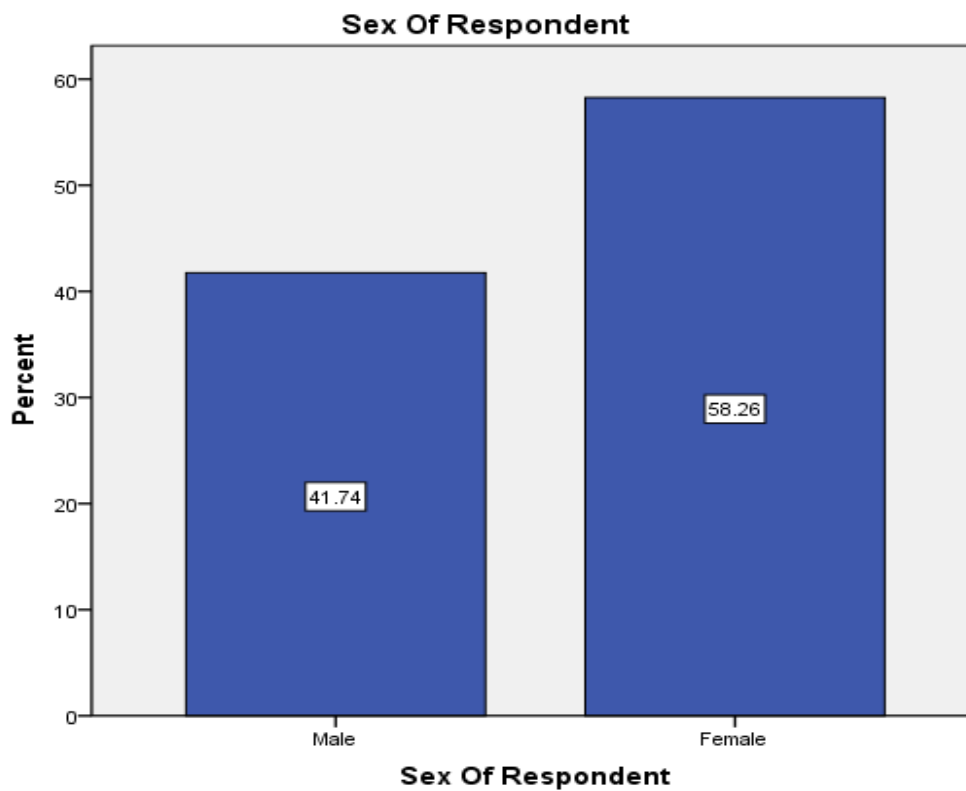
Weitz, J. (1952). A neglected concept in the study of job satisfaction. *Personnel Psychology*, 5, 201-205.

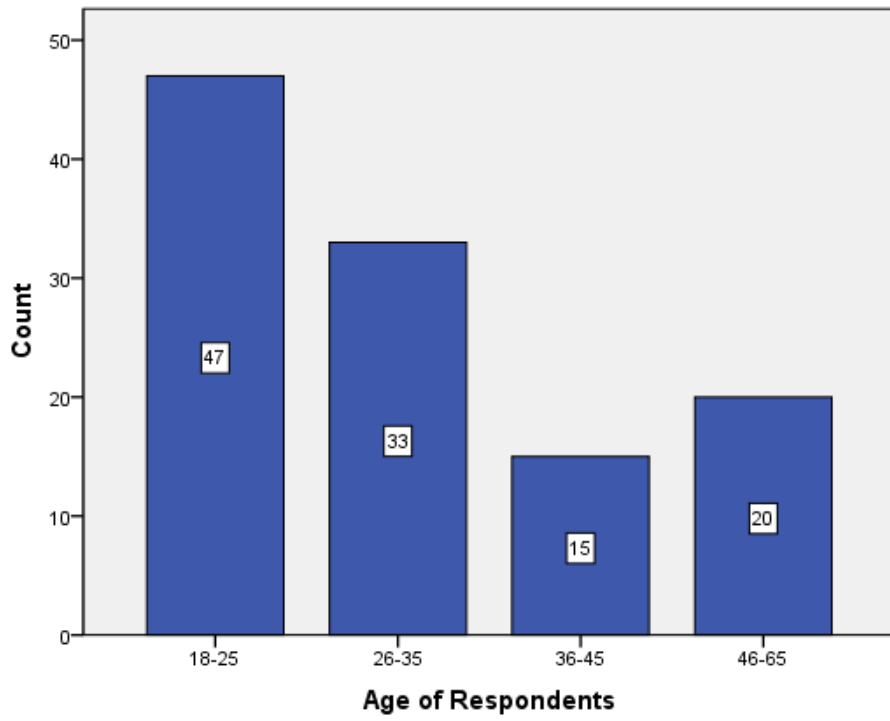
Appendix A

Figure 1: Sex of Respondents

Sex Of Respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Male	48	41.7	41.7	41.7
Female	67	58.3	58.3	100.0
Total	115	100.0	100.0	





Appendix B

Figure 1:

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
TotalSatisfactionSumTotal	145.1565	25.04963	115
SelfEfficacySumTotal	32.3130	3.70719	115
SelfEsteemSumTotal	16.8174	6.04890	115
PANASPositiveSumTotal	33.0435	7.72600	115
PANASNegativeSumTotal	18.5565	7.04147	115

Correlations

		TotalSatisf actionSum Total	SelfEffic acySum Total	SelfEste emSumTota l	PANASP ositiveSu mTotal	PANASN egativeSu mTotal
TotalSatisfactionSumTotal	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2- tailed) N	1 115	.294** .001 115	.148 .114 115	.280** .002 115	-.308** .001 115
SelfEfficacySumTotal	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2- tailed) N	.294** .001 115	1 .000 115	.472** .000 115	.341** .000 115	-.337** .000 115
SelfEsteemSumTotal	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2- tailed) N	.148 .114 115	.472** .000 115	1 .000 115	.390** .000 115	-.357** .000 115
PANASPositiveSumTotal	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2- tailed) N	.280** .002 115	.341** .000 115	.390** .000 115	1 .172 115	-.128 .172 115

al	PANASNegativeSumTot	Pearson	-.308**	-.337**	-.357**	-.128	1
		Correlation					
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.000	.172	
		N	115	115	115	115	115

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Figure 2:

Correlations

Sex Of Respondent			TotalSatisf actionSum Total	SelfEffic acySum Total	SelfEsteem SumTotal	PANASP ositiveSu mTotal	PANAS Negative SumTota l
Male	TotalSatisfactionSumTotal	Pearson	1	.211	.201	.191	-.139
		Correlation					
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.150	.170	.194	.348
		N	48	48	48	48	48
	SelfEfficacySumTotal	Pearson	.211	1	.454**	.441**	-.187
		Correlation					
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.150		.001	.002	.203
		N	48	48	48	48	48
	SelfEsteemSumTotal	Pearson	.201	.454**	1	.426**	-.365*
		Correlation					
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.170	.001		.003	.011
		N	48	48	48	48	48
	PANASPositiveSumTotal	Pearson	.191	.441**	.426**	1	-.189
		Correlation					
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.194	.002	.003		.199
		N	48	48	48	48	48
	PANASNegativeSumTotal	Pearson	-.139	-.187	-.365*	-.189	1
		Correlation					
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.348	.203	.011	.199	
		N	48	48	48	48	48

Female	TotalSatisfactionSumTotal	Pearson	1	.323**	.144	.349**	-.419**
		Correlation					
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.008	.246	.004	.000
		N	67	67	67	67	67
	SelfEfficacySumTotal	Pearson	.323**	1	.515**	.310*	-.436**
		Correlation					
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.008	.000	.011	.000	.000
		N	67	67	67	67	67
	SelfEsteemSumTotal	Pearson	.144	.515**	1	.354**	-.335**
		Correlation					
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.246	.000	.003	.006	.006
		N	67	67	67	67	67
	PANASPositiveSumTotal	Pearson	.349**	.310*	.354**	1	-.078
		Correlation					
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.011	.003	.533	.533
		N	67	67	67	67	67
	PANASNegativeSumTotal	Pearson	-.419**	-.436**	-.335**	-.078	1
		Correlation					
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.006	.533	.533
		N	67	67	67	67	67

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

