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1.1 Job Satisfaction:

Work plays a tremendous role in people’s lives, as it is a significant source of income, personal realization, personal and professional improvement. Because of the central role that work occupies in many people’s life, satisfaction with one’s job is an important component in overall wellbeing (Smith, 2007). Job satisfaction has been a topic of great interest for researchers and practitioners in a wide range of fields including organizational psychology, public administration, and management. It has been researched for more than 50 years and to this day continues to be a topic of research interest. The main reason for this interest may be due to the implications of job satisfaction for such job related behaviours as motivation, productivity, organizational commitment, and absenteeism, turnover, and employee relations. Satisfied employees are more likely to be creative and innovative, and come up with breakthroughs that allow an institution to grow and change positively with time and changing market conditions (Sharma and Jyoti, 2009). In this respect, job satisfaction is an organizational variable which should be valued, understood, and constantly monitored for the welfare of any organization.

High quality academic staff is the cornerstone of a successful educational system (Sharma and Jyoti, 2009). As Johnes and Taylor (1990) state, the goals of higher education are to provide in-depth knowledge, seek academic development, educate students, as well as to coordinate national development demands (Chen et al., 2006). None of these goals can be accomplished efficiently if low satisfaction or dissatisfaction exists amongst the university teachers in higher education organizations. Thus, the study of job satisfaction of university teachers seems inevitable. The job satisfaction of
university teachers (academic), their commitment, and their retention are crucial to effective academic institutions. The understanding of factors affecting the job satisfaction of university teachers is of upmost importance for the implementation of a successful, innovative, and vibrant educational system. Furthermore, their job satisfaction translates into a healthy and positive academic environment. Thus, attracting and retaining high quality university teachers should be a primary requirement for any educational institution (Sharma and Jyoti, 2006, 2009). Although some degree of turnover is inevitable and perhaps desirable, high rates of faculty turnover can be costly to the reputation of an institution and to the quality of instruction (Al-Omari et al., 2008).

The existence of low levels of job satisfaction among educators has received considerable attention over the years, though the majority of these studies have concentrated on elementary and secondary school teachers. Research directed towards job satisfaction among high school teachers is more limited.

Job satisfaction has been defined in a variety of ways. The most widely used definitions in the literature being those of Locke (1976), Dawis and Lofquist (1984), and Porter et al. (1975). Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job experiences. Dawis and Lofquist (1984) defined job satisfaction as the result of the worker’s appraisal of the degree to which the work environment fulfils the individual’s needs, and Porter et al. (1975) defined job satisfaction as one’s reaction against his/her occupation or organization. In general, it can be said that job satisfaction is an affective
reaction to a job that results from the person’s comparison of actual outcomes with those that are desired, anticipated, or deserved (Oshagbemi, 2000).

1.1.1 History

One of the biggest preludes to the study of job satisfaction was the Hawthorne studies. These studies (1924-1933), primarily credited to Elton Mayo of the Harvard Business School, sought to find the effects of various conditions (most notably illumination) on workers’ productivity. These studies ultimately showed that novel changes in work conditions temporarily increase productivity (called the Hawthorne Effect). It was later found that this increase resulted, not from the new conditions, but from the knowledge of being observed. This finding provided strong evidence that people work for purposes other than pay, which paved the way for researchers to investigate other factors in job satisfaction.

Scientific management (aka Taylorism) also had a significant impact on the study of job satisfaction. Frederick Winslow Taylor’s 1911 book, Principles of Scientific Management, argued that there was a single best way to perform any given work task. This book contributed to a change in industrial production philosophies, causing a shift from skilled labor and piecework towards the more modern of assembly lines and hourly wages. The initial use of scientific management by industries greatly increased productivity because workers were forced to work at a faster pace. However, workers became exhausted and dissatisfied, thus leaving researchers with new questions to answer regarding job satisfaction. It should also be noted that the
work of W.L. Bryan, Walter Dill Scott, and Hugo Munsterberg set the tone for Taylor’s work.

Some argue that Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory, a motivation theory, laid the foundation for job satisfaction theory. This theory explains that people seek to satisfy five specific needs in life – physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, self-esteem needs, and self-actualization. This model served as a good basis from which early researchers could develop job satisfaction theories.

Job satisfaction can also be seen within the broader context of the range of issues which affect an individual's experience of work, or their quality of working life. Job satisfaction can be understood in terms of its relationships with other key factors, such as general well-being, stress at work, control at work, home-work interface, and working conditions.

### 1.1.2 Models of job satisfaction

**Affect Theory**

Edwin A. Locke’s Range of Affect Theory (1976) is arguably the most famous job satisfaction model. The main premise of this theory is that satisfaction is determined by a discrepancy between what one wants in a job and what one has in a job. Further, the theory states that how much one values a given facet of work (e.g. the degree of autonomy in a position) moderates how satisfied/dissatisfied one becomes when expectations are/aren’t met. When a person values a particular facet of a job, his satisfaction is more greatly impacted both positively (when expectations are met) and negatively
(when expectations are not met), compared to one who doesn’t value that facet. To illustrate, if Employee A values autonomy in the workplace and Employee B is indifferent about autonomy, then Employee A would be more satisfied in a position that offers a high degree of autonomy and less satisfied in a position with little or no autonomy compared to Employee B. This theory also states that too much of a particular facet will produce stronger feelings of dissatisfaction the more a worker values that facet.

**Dispositional Theory**

Another well-known job satisfaction theory is the Dispositional Theory Template: Jackson April 2007. It is a very general theory that suggests that people have innate dispositions that cause them to have tendencies toward a certain level of satisfaction, regardless of one’s job. This approach became a notable explanation of job satisfaction in light of evidence that job satisfaction tends to be stable over time and across careers and jobs. Research also indicates that identical twins have similar levels of job satisfaction.

A significant model that narrowed the scope of the Dispositional Theory was the Core Self-evaluations Model, proposed by Timothy A. Judge in 1998. Judge argued that there are four Core Self-evaluations that determine one’s disposition towards job satisfaction: self-esteem, general self-efficacy, locus of control, and neuroticism. This model states that higher levels of self-esteem (the value one places on his/her self) and general self-efficacy (the belief in one’s own competence) lead to higher work satisfaction. Having an internal locus of control (believing one has control over her/his own life, as opposed to
outside forces having control) leads to higher job satisfaction. Finally, lower levels of neuroticism lead to higher job satisfaction [citation needed].

**Two-Factor Theory (Motivator-Hygiene Theory)**

Frederick Herzberg’s Two factor theory (also known as Motivator Hygiene Theory) attempts to explain satisfaction and motivation in the workplace[5] This theory states that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are driven by different factors—motivation and hygiene factors, respectively. An employee’s motivation to work is continually related to job satisfaction of a subordinate. Motivation can be seen as an inner force that drives individuals to attain personal and organizational goals (Hoskinson, Porter, & Wrench, p.133). Motivating factors are those aspects of the job that make people want to perform, and provide people with satisfaction, for example achievement in work, recognition, promotion opportunities. These motivating factors are considered to be intrinsic to the job, or the work carried out. Hygiene factors include aspects of the working environment such as pay, company policies, supervisory practices, and other working conditions.

While Hertzberg's model has stimulated much research, researchers have been unable to reliably empirically prove the model, with Hackman & Oldham suggesting that Hertzberg's original formulation of the model may have been a methodological artefact. Furthermore, the theory does not consider individual differences, conversely predicting all employees will react in an identical manner to changes in motivating/hygiene factors. Finally, the model has been criticised in that it does not specify how motivating/hygiene factors are to be measured.
Job Characteristics Model

Hackman & Oldham proposed the Job Characteristics Model, which is widely used as a framework to study how particular job characteristics impact on job outcomes, including job satisfaction. The model states that there are five core job characteristics (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback) which impact three critical psychological states (experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility for outcomes, and knowledge of the actual results), in turn influencing work outcomes (job satisfaction, absenteeism, work motivation, etc.).[6] The five core job characteristics can be combined to form a motivating potential score (MPS) for a job, which can be used as an index of how likely a job is to affect an employee's attitudes and behaviors. A meta-analysis of studies that assess the framework of the model provides some support for the validity of the JCM.

1.1.3 Communication Overload and Communication Underload

One of the most important aspects of an individual’s work in a modern organization concerns the management of communication demands that he or she encounters on the job (Krayer, K. J., & Westbrook, L., p. 85). Demands can be characterized as a communication load, which refers to “the rate and complexity of communication inputs an individual must process in a particular time frame (Faraca, Monge, & Russel, 1977).” Individuals in an organization can experience communication over-load and communication under-load which can affect their level of job satisfaction. Communication overload can occur when “an individual receives too many messages in a short period of
time which can result in unprocessed information or when an individual faces more complex messages that are more difficult to process (Farace, Monge, & Russel, 1997).” Due to this process, “given an individual’s style of work and motivation to complete a task, when more inputs exist than outputs, the individual perceives a condition of overload (Krayer, K. J., & Westbrook, L., p. 86) which can be positively or negatively related to job satisfaction. In comparison, communication under load can occur when messages or inputs are sent below the individual’s ability to process them (Farace, Monge, & Russel, 1997).” According to the ideas of communication over-load and under-load, if an individual does not receive enough input on the job or is unsuccessful in processing these inputs, the individual is more likely to become dissatisfied, aggravated, and unhappy with their work which leads to a low level of job satisfaction.

1.1.4 Measuring job satisfaction

There are many methods for measuring job satisfaction. By far, the most common method for collecting data regarding job satisfaction is the Liker scale (named after Rensis Likert). Other less common methods of for gauging job satisfaction include: Yes/No questions, True/False questions, point systems, checklists, and forced choice answers. This data are sometimes collected using an Enterprise Feedback Management (EFM) system.

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI), created by Smith, Kendall, & Hulin (1969), is a specific questionnaire of job satisfaction that has been widely used. It measures one’s satisfaction in five facets: pay, promotions and promotion opportunities, coworkers, supervision, and the work itself. The
scale is simple, participants answer either yes, no, or can’t decide (indicated by ‘?’) in response to whether given statements accurately describe one’s job.

The Job in General Index is an overall measurement of job satisfaction. It is an improvement to the Job Descriptive Index because the JDI focuses too much on individual facets and not enough on work satisfaction in general.

Other job satisfaction questionnaires include: the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), and the Faces Scale. The MSQ measures job satisfaction in 20 facets and has a long form with 100 questions (five items from each facet) and a short form with 20 questions (one item from each facet). The JSS is a 36 item questionnaire that measures nine facets of job satisfaction. Finally, the Faces Scale of job satisfaction, one of the first scales used widely, measured overall job satisfaction with just one item which participants respond to by choosing a face.

1.1.5 Factors that influence job satisfaction

Environmental factors

Communication overload and communication under load

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**Superior-Subordinate Communication**

Superior-subordinate communication is an important influence on job satisfaction in the workplace. The way in which subordinates perceive a supervisor's behavior can positively or negatively influence job satisfaction. Communication behavior such as facial expression, eye contact, vocal expression, and body movement is crucial to the superior-subordinate relationship (Teven, p. 156). Nonverbal messages play a central role in interpersonal interactions with respect to impression formation, deception, attraction, social influence, and emotional. Nonverbal immediacy from the supervisor helps to increase interpersonal involvement with their subordinates impacting job satisfaction. The manner in which supervisors communicate
with their subordinates non-verbally may be more important than the verbal content (Teven, p. 156). Individuals who dislike and think negatively about their supervisor are less willing to communicate or have motivation to work whereas individuals who like and think positively of their supervisor are more likely to communicate and are satisfied with their job and work environment. A supervisor who uses nonverbal immediacy, friendliness, and open communication lines is more likely to receive positive feedback and high job satisfaction from a subordinate. Conversely, a supervisor who is antisocial, unfriendly, and unwilling to communicate will naturally receive negative feedback and create low job satisfaction in their subordinates in the workplace.

**Effective human resources practices lead to positive financial outcomes**

A Watson Wyatt Worldwide study identified a positive outcome between a collegial and flexible work environment and an increase in shareholder value. Suggesting that employee satisfaction is directly related to financial gain. Over 40 percent of the companies listed in the top 100 of Fortune magazine’s, “America’s Best Companies to Work For” also appear on the Fortune 500. It is possible that successful workers enjoy working at successful companies, however, the Watson Wyatt Worldwide Human Capital Index study claims that effective human resources practices lead to positive financial outcomes more often than positive financial outcomes lead to good practices.
Individual factors

Emotion

Mood and emotions form the affective element of job satisfaction. Moods tend to be longer lasting but often weaker states of uncertain origin, while emotions are often more intense, short-lived and have a clear object or cause.

Some research suggests moods are related to overall job satisfaction. Positive and negative emotions were also found to be significantly related to overall job satisfaction.

Frequency of experiencing net positive emotion will be a better predictor of overall job satisfaction than will intensity of positive emotion when it is experienced.

Emotion work (or emotion management) refers to various types of efforts to manage emotional states and displays. Emotion management includes all of the conscious and unconscious efforts to increase, maintain, or decrease one or more components of an emotion. Although early studies of the consequences of emotional work emphasized its harmful effects on workers, studies of workers in a variety of occupations suggest that the consequences of emotional work are not uniformly negative.

It was found that suppression of unpleasant emotions decreases job satisfaction and the amplification of pleasant emotions increases job satisfaction.
The understanding of how emotion regulation relates to job satisfaction concerns two models:

1. Emotional dissonance. Emotional dissonance is a state of discrepancy between public displays of emotions and internal experiences of emotions, that often follows the process of emotion regulation. Emotional dissonance is associated with high emotional exhaustion, low organizational commitment, and low job satisfaction.

2. Social interaction model. Taking the social interaction perspective, workers’ emotion regulation might beget responses from others during interpersonal encounters that subsequently impact their own job satisfaction. For example: The accumulation of favorable responses to displays of pleasant emotions might positively affect job satisfaction.

Genetics

It has been well documented that genetics influence a variety of individual differences. Some research suggests genetics also play a role in the intrinsic, direct experiences of job satisfaction like challenge or achievement (as opposed to extrinsic, environmental factors like working conditions). One experiment used sets of monozygotic twins, reared apart, to test for the existence of genetic influence on job satisfaction. While the results indicate the majority of the variance in job satisfaction was due to environmental factors (70%), genetic influence is still a minor factor. Genetic heritability was also suggested for several of the job characteristics measured in the experiment, such as complexity level, motor skill requirements, and physical demands.
**Personality**

Some research suggests an association between personality and job satisfaction. Specifically, this research describes the role of negative affectivity and positive affectivity. Negative affectivity is related strongly to the personality trait of neuroticism. Individuals high in negative affectivity are more prone to experience less job satisfaction. Positive affectivity is related strongly to the personality trait of extraversion. Those high in positive affectivity are more prone to be satisfied in most dimensions of their life, including their job. Differences in affectivity likely impact how individuals will perceive objective job circumstances like pay and working conditions, thus affecting their satisfaction in that job.

**SIGNIFICANCE OF JOB SATISFACTION**

Job satisfaction has been the centre of the concentration for researchers over three decades. The reasons for such concentration are manifolds:

**Job Satisfaction and Mental Health of the People**

Dissatisfaction with once job may have especially volatile spill over effects on many other things such as family life, leisure activities etc. Many unresolved personality problems and maladjustments arise out of person inability to find satisfaction in his work. Both scientific study and casual observation provide ample evidence that job satisfaction is important for the psychological adjustment and happy living of individual. A classic study by Arthur Kornhausen provides empirical evidence for the relationship between
job satisfaction and mental health. In fact, job satisfaction and life satisfaction are inextricable bound.

**Job Satisfaction and Physical Health of Individuals**

A study by Palmore has come to the conclusion that people who like work, are likely to live longer. Here the logic behind such result is that people with greater satisfaction tend to have greater incomes and more education and thus coincidentally enjoy greater benefits, which promote longevity. On the other side of the coin, it was contended that chronic dissatisfaction with work represents stress, which, in turn, eventually takes its toll on the organization. Emotional stress, as physicians contend has been implicated as a contributory factor in the genesis of hypertension, coronary artery disease, digestive ailments and even some kinds of a cancer. Therefore, job satisfaction is essential to maintain physical health also.

**Spread Goodwill about the Organization**

From the point of view of an organization, people who feel positively about their work life are more apt to voice ‘favourable sentiments’ about the organization to the community at large. When the goodwill of the company goes up, new, qualified and dynamic entrants show their interest in joining the organization. The organization thus will be in a position to enjoy the talents of people as job satisfaction fosters a pervasive residue of public goodwill towards the organization. A happy and satisfied individual can find it easy to live within the organization as well as outside it. On the contrary, a chronically upset individual makes organization life vexations for others with whom he interacts.
Reduces Absenteeism and Turnover

The calculable costs-employee turnover and absenteeism are sufficient to accept the importance of job satisfaction. Higher job satisfaction reduces labour turnover and absenteeism, and the managers are compelled, if they are unconvinced about the merits of job satisfaction, to give priority, and adequate weightage to job satisfaction. A serious consequence of job dissatisfaction can be the employee turnover.

Now-a-days, the concept of job satisfaction is not only limited to employee sector, but covers all the sectors, where there is involvement of the employees and workers. Job satisfaction is liking of once job and its fulfilment what one do. It is acquiring an increasingly important role in modern society, in which man spends most of his time on his job, basically undertaken for payment received in lieu of it. Job satisfaction is important both to the employee as well as the employer.

Greater job satisfaction is likely to lead eventually to more effective functioning of the individual and the organization as a whole. Infect, working life is to be evaluated not simply in terms of the amount of goods turned out, the productive efficiency and the profit it brings but the level of satisfaction that the participants derive from it. Generally work is approached from three perspectives important for job satisfaction. If you approach work as a job, you focus primarily on the financial rewards. The nature of the work has little interest for you and money is more important. If a job with more pay comes your way, you’ll likely move on. If you approach work as a career, you’re interested in advancement. You want to climb the career ladder or be among
the most highly regarded professionals. You are motivated by the status, prestige and power that come with the job. If you approach your job as a calling, you focus on the work itself. You work less for the financial gain or career advancement than for the fulfilment of work. The satisfied worker is in general a more flexible and better adjusted who has the capacity to overcome the effects of an environment. He is more realistic about his own situation and goals.

The worker dissatisfied with his job, in contrast, is often rigid, inflexible, unrealistic in his choice of goals, unable to overcome environmental obstacles and generally unhappy and dissatisfied. Lack of job satisfaction can be a significant source of daily stress. There can be various reasons of job dissatisfaction, such as, Bickering co-workers supervisor; Conflict with your supervisor; Not having necessary equipment or resources to succeed; Lack of opportunities for promotion; Having little or no say in decisions that affect you; Fear of loosing your job; Work that you find boring or overly routine and Work that doesn’t tap into your education, skills or interests.

A study of job satisfaction classifies and categorizes the conditions and factors that lead to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Besides one could reinforce conditions that make work more satisfying and fulfilling instead of dull and disappointing.

1.2 Teacher Job Satisfaction:

The term Job Satisfaction is generally used in organizational endeavor in business management. One of the senses signs of deteriorating conditions in
an organization is low job satisfaction (Keith Devi, 1993). Job Satisfaction is the favourableness or unfavourableness with which employees view their work (Bruneberg, 1976). It signifies the amount of agreement between one's expectations of the job and the rewards to the job provides. Job satisfaction is concerned with a person or a group in the organization. Job Satisfaction can be applicable more to parts of an individual's job. If each person is highly satisfied with his job then only it will be considered as group job satisfaction.

Generally job satisfaction is related with number of employees variables such as turnover, absence, age, occupation and size of the organization in which he works. The degree of satisfaction of job is largely depends on satisfaction of employee variables. According to Garton (1976), employee's satisfaction and morale are attitudinal variables that reflect positive or negative feelings about particular persons or situations, satisfaction when applied to work context of teaching seems to refer to the extent to which a teacher can meet individual, personal and professional needs as an employees (Strauss, 1974).

Maslow (1970), Herberg (1959), Hay and Miskel (1978) and others proposed the theories on job satisfaction. According to Maslow 'a person's satisfaction is determined by the fulfillment of his five levels of need'. Herberg's motivation hygiene theory assumes that two variables determine a person satisfaction. (1) Internal factors like achievement, recognition etc., and (2) external factors such as salary and interpersonal relation. Relationships Lartie (1975) believed that teaching continues to be rather limited in its available extrinsic rewards and that if teacher job satisfaction is to be increased efforts are to be made to improve the teaching situations. According to Edward and others (1976) a high performance leads to high job satisfaction,
which in turn becomes feedback to influence future performance. Better performance leads to high rewards. This improvement in satisfaction is because of employee's feeling that they are receiving rewards in proportion to their performance on the other hand, if rewards one such as inadequate for one's level of performance, dissatisfaction access.

The Indian Education Commission (1964-66) also states that ‘nothing is more important than providing teachers best professional preparation and creating satisfactory conditions of work in which they carefully be effective.’ Sand Frankiewiz (1979) found a positive relationship between job satisfaction and effective teacher behaviour. In the light of the above the theoretical framework of teacher job satisfaction may be considered as one of the important factors, which can enhance teaching competency.

1.2.1 Dimensions of Teacher Job Satisfaction:

Of many dimensions, the researcher considered the following dimensions for measuring Teacher Job Satisfaction. They are (1) Professional; (2) Teaching Learning; (3) Innovation; and – (4) Inter-personal relations.

Professional related to job security and social prestige, moulding the young minds, getting appreciation from others, reaching problems of the students.

Teaching learning refer to problems of the students, new situations, successfully managing the classes, students active participation in the classes, innovative technique in teaching, systematic plan of the work.

Innovation relates to creativity, innovative technique in teaching, participation of cultural activities, co-curricular and social welfare activities.
Inter-personal relations refer to relations with colleagues, parents, students, higher authorities or any personnel confined to school.

1.2.2 Measurement of Teacher Job Satisfaction:

Job Satisfaction measuring procedures appear to be complicated at a first glance. It seems simple to go to the employees and get data from them and then interpret. But experiences are shown that careless procedural class can limit seriously the validity and usefulness of the survey. Keen attention should be given to question construction, maintenance of anonymity for employees and sampling procedures (Donald and Charlies, 1975). Even in Education field it is very difficult to measure the teacher job satisfaction.

After careful observation of the literature it is fund that teacher's job satisfaction can be measured mainly in two ways. The first one is observation and interviews; and the other is use of tests including inventories and writing scales developed by some psychologists and educational researches like Crook, Maslach, Herhier and others, and Gaba Teacher Job Satisfaction Scale, Gupta and Srivatsava – teacher job satisfaction scale, Lodahl and Kejher's Job involvement scale and Job Satisfaction scale developed by Dixit are some of the tools available for measuring job satisfaction. However, they are context specific and may not be suitable for the present study. Hence, the researcher developed a Teacher Job Satisfaction self-rating scale.
1.2.3 Factors Related to Teacher Job Satisfaction

Community factors

Around the world, community poverty and remoteness present significant challenges to teachers in under resourced schools. Teachers serving in rural communities in developing nations experience particular challenges. Physical conditions brought about by poverty often sought to measure the extent to which teachers make even daily necessities scarce. In addition, teachers in rural villages may face a lack of access to transportation, cultural resources, or educational facilities. Recreation and opportunities for enrichment and personal advancement are often limited, compared to those available in towns and cities.

Linda Ankrah-Dove writes, “Remote rural areas are in a very real sense on the periphery, far from the centres of political, economic and cultural life.” Teachers may also feel isolated from the local community, especially if they are from outside the village or if there is a wide educational gap between themselves and the local community.

Further, with global trends toward educational decentralization, teachers and schools in many developing countries are increasingly dependent on the degree of financial and other support for education in the local community. Under these reforms, the village government would generally allocate money for its schools from the village budget. In many villages, local governments have controlled the development of collectively owned enterprises to ensure that the village would get a portion of the revenues. These revenues could be directed to education. After decollectivization of agricultural production in the late 1970s and early 1980s, villages that were unable to establish industries
and enterprises were left without revenue. The poorest villages could get some
miss support in the form of various kinds of categorical grants from higher
levels of government. But, even with this assistance, collecting enough money
to fund village schools has been a challenge. Local governments have
frequently animal been unable to raise adequate funds for personnel expenses,
which are the main cost of education. Many teachers have been paid with
IOUs, and some have had to wait for months to get their salary.

The store of social capital available in a village community may also
harness economic resources for village schools. Further, social capital
facilitates access to information and social connections that may be important
for school development. Nan Lin defines social capital as “resources
embedded in a social structure which are accessed and/or mobilized in
purposive actions.” In the year 2000, one of the most important social
relationships affecting a village school was that between the principal and the
village leaders. In small rural communities in northwest China, until very
recently, primary school principals generally relied on the village government
for the financing of school buildings, maintenance, construction, as well as the
recruitment and appointment of teachers. Village governments also provided
assistance in promoting school enrolment and connections with organizations
above the village level. Through the relationship between the village leader
and the principal, information is shared, influence is exerted, the status of the
school principal is ensured, and emotional support may be obtained. This
relationship is an important but delicate one. If it is strained, it is likely that the
affairs of the school, and thus the teachers, will be affected. Teachers in
villages where there are more economic opportunities, and teachers in more
connected, better-educated, or higher income villages may have greater access
to information about the outside world and alternative opportunities, leading them to feel more dissatisfied with teaching as a career than those teachers in the most remote poor areas.

**School environment**

Drawing on previous research, we hypothesized that several factors associated with the school environment would affect teacher satisfaction. These factors are salary, school economic resources and working conditions, workload, opportunities for personal and professional advancement, collaboration with and support from other teachers, and quality of supervision.

**Remuneration:**

Concerns with remuneration may be paramount. In the United States, poor salary is one of the most important reasons given for leaving teaching due to dissatisfaction in urban, high-poverty public schools and for the attrition of teachers in small private schools. Phillip Schlechty and Victor Vance also propose that low salaries and truncated salary scales are among the main reasons that the most academically able leave teaching. “Actually, in people’s minds, teachers are losers (mei chuxi), they don’t make much money, isn’t that right?” However, in China, reliability of salary payment may be even more important than the amount of the salary itself. Teaching is generally perceived to be a stable career. Because of the trends described in the previous section that have led to the late payment and underpayment of teachers’ salaries, this expectation of stability may have been compromised. Late payment of teachers’ salaries could have a greater impact on teacher satisfaction than the actual amount of teacher salary received.
School economic resources and working conditions:

There are different types of schools found in rural areas in China, including central primary schools, complete primary schools, and incomplete primary schools. These very different school environments may have an impact on teacher satisfaction. The central primary schools (zhongxin xiaoxue) are run by the township, represent scale economies, and have access to more resources. Village schools may be complete (wanquan, from grades 1–5 or grades 1–6) or incomplete (bu wan-quan, covering only the first few early grades [usually grades 1–3]). In the late 1980s and early 1990s, China restructured its education system. Schools were consolidated using the theory of “economies of scale” in a move to improve the quality of schooling. Many village primary and junior middle schools were closed down, and the students had to walk to neighboring villages to go to school. Only complete primary schools were officially recognized, but in remote villages—where it is too far for young children to travel to the nearest complete primary school the incomplete primary schools were permitted as teaching point schools.

Other important indicators of working conditions include the condition of the school buildings; the amount of economic resources that are available to pay for teachers’ bonuses and benefits; heating, water, and electricity; and supplies such as physical education equipment, library books, and teaching aids. In the most resource-poor schools, there may not be enough desks and chairs for all the students, and the school buildings may have fallen into disrepair. Every year, principals must report the number of dilapidated rooms (weifang) in the school. There are government projects specifically aimed at providing money for poor areas to rebuild their main school buildings.
Workload:

Researchers have suggested that heavy workloads diminish teachers’ job satisfaction. In 2002, a primary school teacher interviewed in Gansu characterized the heavy workload shouldered by teachers as follows: “This job has both its hardships and its pleasures. The hardship is that every day is very tiring, much more tiring than other jobs. In another job, when you get off work you get off work and you can rest. But in teaching, there is no rest. Sometimes you have to stay at school to supervise evening study hall . . . and then on the weekends, you still need to go and do a home visit. As a teacher, you are always busy with students’ affairs and so you never have time for your own affairs.”

Opportunities for personal and professional advancement:

Research suggests that teachers are more satisfied if their job provides opportunities for personal and professional advancement. Teacher in-service training, and there are many opportunities for teachers to continue their education. These opportunities are provided by independent teachers’ continuing education institutions, educational colleges and institutes, TV teachers’ colleges, regular higher education institutions, secondary specialized schools, and other channels such as correspondence courses and self-study programs. However, schools in the remote poor areas may not be able to afford for their teachers to participate in these programs. Without such opportunities, teaching can be an isolating profession and can leave teachers with the sense of falling behind the rest of society. One of the teachers we spoke to in Gansu in 2002 expressed such a sentiment: “When we go out into society we don’t know how to do anything, especially how to interact with others. Social interaction is the basic structure of society, but as a teacher,
every day you only see children whose minds are like a blank sheet of paper and so we know nothing of the outside world.”

**Collegial relationships and collaboration:**

Another important factor related to teacher isolation is the extent to which teachers receive support from other members of the school community and engage in collegial collaboration and interaction. Research on teacher satisfaction and teacher retention has noted the importance of collegial relationships and administrative support for teaching. This support is in the form of mechanisms of teacher induction and organizational socialization, such as internships and mentoring programs.

**Quality of supervision:**

Leadership styles are related to teacher satisfaction. The quality of leadership and supervision affects a range of factors in the school environment, including the overall organizational climate of the school. Zhou Junhong describes the characteristics of a successful school leader capable of establishing an organizational climate conducive to teacher satisfaction. According to Zhou, a successful principal believes in teachers and works hard to foster teacher motivation and autonomy, harnessing the collective force of all of the teachers to carry out the work of the school. Such principals love, protect, support, understand, trust, and care for teachers.

They give reasonable work assignments, encourage teachers to participate in management, listen to suggestions, and ensure that teachers can
spend most of their time and energy on instruction and research. A successful principal provides a well-maintained, pleasant working environment, establishes a happy atmosphere, gives teachers opportunities for professional advancement, places great importance on making ample teaching resources available, and gives teachers encouragement and feedback using both emotional and material rewards. Presumably skills such as these increase with principal experience, which we are able directly to measure.

**Teacher characteristics:**

In the literature in both the United States and in China, a number of background attributes of teachers have been linked to levels of satisfaction.

Younger teachers have been shown to be less satisfied and more likely to leave than older teachers. In addition, women have been found to be more satisfied than men. Of greater concern is the finding that better-qualified teachers tend to feel more dissatisfied than do less qualified teachers, and thus they are more likely to leave teaching. This finding may be in part attributable to the fact that teachers with better qualifications perceive more alternative opportunities. Marital status may also be a factor related to teacher satisfaction. Dan Lortie found marriage to be positively correlated with teacher job satisfaction; married women over 40 years of age were the most satisfied teachers in his sample.

Training and certification may also matter for teacher satisfaction. In rural areas, many uncertified teachers are hired directly by the village government or principals to make up for the shortage of official, certified gong ban teachers available to rural schools. These uncertified teachers are sometimes referred to as dike, or substitute, teachers. The salaries of these dike teachers are substantially lower than those of the gong ban teachers. The
dike teachers come from a variety of different backgrounds. Many are from the same village or nearby villages and are likely also to work as farmers. Some have only a junior middle school or high school level of education and little or no formal teacher training. According to official statistics, only 88 percent of teachers in rural areas in China are gong ban teachers, and 12 percent are dike teachers. This is in contrast to the urban areas (cities, counties, towns), where 97 percent of teachers are gong ban teachers, and only 3 percent are dike teachers. In the rural areas of Gansu, however, it is estimated that 28 percent of teachers are dike teachers, and in the most remote areas, these percentages may be even higher.

Another characteristic that may be expected to contribute to teacher satisfaction is teacher rank. Certified teachers in China are evaluated every year, and, based on these evaluations, they are able to advance through a ranking system. Teachers are evaluated by students, colleagues, and administrators based on moral standing, instructional capability, and professional achievements, including research and publications. Thus, the ranking system offers teachers recognition for their skills and competence in the teaching profession. Xin Ma and Robert MacMillan’s results show that teachers with greater teaching competence tend to have higher levels of satisfaction.

**Marital status**

Marital status has an important role in deciding the job satisfaction. Most of the studies have revealed that the married person finds dissatisfaction in his job than his unmarried counterpart. The reasons stated to be are that wages were insufficient due to increased cost of living, educations to children etc.
**Education**

Studies conducted among various workers revealed that most of workers who had not completed their school education showed higher satisfaction level. However, educated workers felt less satisfied in their job.

**Working condition**

The result of various studies shows that working condition is an important factor. Good working atmosphere and pleasant surroundings help increasing the production of industry. Working conditions are more important to women workers than men workers.

**Superior-subordinate communication**

Superior-subordinate communication is an important influence on job satisfaction in the workplace. The way in which subordinate’s perceive a supervisor’s behaviour can positively or negatively influence job satisfaction. Communication behaviour such as facial expression, eye contact, vocal expression, and body movement is crucial to the superior-subordinate relationship (Teven, p. 156). Nonverbal messages play a central role in interpersonal interactions with respect to impression formation, deception, attraction, social influence, and emotional expression (Burgeon, Biller, & Woodall, 1996). Nonverbal immediacy from the supervisor helps to increase interpersonal involvement with their subordinates impacting job satisfaction. The manner in which supervisors communicate their subordinates may be more important than the verbal content (Teven, ). Individuals who dislike and think negatively about their supervisor are less willing to communicate or
have motivation to work where as individuals who like and think positively of their supervisor are more likely to communicate and are satisfied with their job and work environment. The relationship of a subordinate with their supervisor is a very important aspect in the workplace. Therefore, a supervisor who uses nonverbal immediacy, friendliness, and open communication lines is more willing to receive positive feedback and high job satisfaction from a subordinate where as a supervisor who is antisocial, unfriendly, and unwilling to communicate will naturally receive negative feedback and very low job satisfaction from their subordinate’s in the workplace. Mood and emotions while working are the raw materials which cumulate to form the affective element of job satisfaction. (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). Moods tend to be longer lasting but often weaker states of uncertain origin, while emotions are often more intense, short-lived and have a clear object or cause.

There is some evidence in the literature that state moods are related to overall job satisfaction. Positive and negative emotions were also found to be significantly related to overall job satisfaction Frequency of experiencing net positive emotion will be a better predictor of overall job satisfaction than will intensity of positive emotion when it is experienced.

Emotion regulation and emotion labour are also related to job satisfaction. Emotion work (or emotion management) refers to various efforts to manage emotional states and displays. Emotion regulation includes all of the conscious and unconscious efforts to increase, maintain, or decrease one or more components of an emotion. Although early studies of the consequences of emotional labour emphasized its harmful effects on workers, studies of workers in a variety of occupations suggest that the consequences of emotional labour are not uniformly negative.
It was found that suppression of unpleasant emotions decreases job satisfaction and the amplification of pleasant emotions increases job satisfaction. The understanding of how emotion regulation relates to job satisfaction concerns two models:

1. **Emotional dissonance**

   Emotional dissonance is a state of discrepancy between public displays of emotions and internal experiences of emotions, that often follows the process of emotion regulation. Emotional dissonance is associated with high emotional exhaustion, low organizational commitment, and low job satisfaction.

2. **Social interaction model**

   Taking the social interaction perspective, workers’ emotion regulation might beget responses from others during interpersonal encounters that subsequently impact their own job satisfaction. For example: The accumulation of favourable responses to displays of pleasant emotions might positively affect job satisfaction. Performance of emotional labour that produces desired outcomes could increase job satisfaction.

1.3 **Life satisfaction**

   Satisfaction is a Latin word that means to make or do enough. Satisfaction with one’s life implies a contentment with or acceptance of one’s life circumstances, or the fulfilment of one’s wants and needs for one’s life as a whole.
Life satisfaction refers to a cognitive, judgmental process, Shin and Johnspn (1978) define life satisfaction as "a global assessment of a person's quality of according to his chosen criteria" (p.478). Judgments of satisfaction are dependent upon a comparison of one's circumstances with what is thought to be an appropriate standard. It is important to point out that the judgment of how people are with their present state of affairs is based on a comparison with a standard which each individual sets for him or herself; it is not externally. It is a hallmark of the subjective well-being area that it centres on the own judgments, not upon some criterion which is judged to be improbity the researcher (Dienes, 1984). For example, although health, energy and so forth may be desirable, particular individuals may place different values on them. It is far this reason that needs to ask the person for their overall evaluation of their life, rather than summering across their satisfaction with scientific domains, to obtain a measure of overall life satisfaction. As Tatarkiewicz (1976) wrote, "Happiness requires total satisfaction, that is satisfaction with life as a whole".

Life satisfaction is an overall assessment of feelings and attitudes about one’s life at a particular point in time ranging from negative to positive. It is one of three major indicators of well-being: life satisfaction, positive affect, and negative affect (Diener, 1984). Although satisfaction with current life circumstances is often assessed in research studies, Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith (1999) also include the following under life satisfaction: desire to change one’s life; satisfaction with past; satisfaction with future; and significant other’s views of one’s life." (Beutell;2006)
1.3.1 Life satisfaction; As a component of Subjective Well Being

Recent years have seen an increase in research on subjective well-being (Dien-, 1984). Three separate components of subjective well-being have been identified: positive affect, negative affect, and life satisfaction (Andrews & Withey, 1976). The first two components refer to the affective, emotional aspects of the construct; the latter to the cognitive-judgmental aspects, although several scales for the assessment of affect exist (Bradburn, 1969; Kammann & Flett, 1983; Kozma & Stones 1980), the measurement of general life satisfaction has received less attention.

Subjective well being (SWB) is a term coined by Ed Diener (1984). SWB has three components, namely life satisfaction, positive affect, and negative affect. An individual with high life satisfaction, high positive affect, and low negative affect has high SWB. The scientific term SWB is often used to avoid the ambiguous meaning of the term happiness. However, the term happiness is more often used in the communication of research findings in the media. Researchers often distinguish between life satisfaction, as a cognitive component, and PA and NA, as an affective component of SWB. Although these components are correlated, individuals with high levels on one component can have lower levels on another component (Lucas, Diener, & Suh, 1996). Some researchers average across components to obtain a single indicator of SWB.

Life satisfaction is one of the indicators of subjective well-being (Horley J;1984). It has been conceptualized as an assessment of life as a whole
on the basis of the fit between personal goals and achievements (Andrews FM, Withey SB). It has also been viewed as a dimension of mental health (Headley B-W, Kelley J, Wearing AJ;1976). Indeed, many of its correlates—such as depressive symptoms, self-esteem, anxiety, and psychosomatic symptoms Koivumaa-Honkanen HT and others;1996)—are aspects of mental health, but life satisfaction is also associated with diagnosed mental disease and health risk factors, including poor health behavior and poor social support. Thus, life satisfaction is a broad and nonspecific subjective perception comparable to self-rated health—another of its correlates. Both have proven to be predictors of mortality, but level of life satisfaction is a particularly effective predictor of psychiatric morbidity. It is not surprising that life dissatisfaction is much more common in psychiatric patients than in the general population, regardless of the level of psychopathology (Koivumaa-Honkanen HT and others;1999).

In essence, life satisfaction is a subjective assessment of the quality of one’s life. Because it is inherently an evaluation, judgments of life satisfaction have a large cognitive component.

1.3.2. Determinates of life satisfaction

Personality

Life satisfaction can reflect experiences that have affected a person in a positive way. These experiences have the ability to motivate people to pursue and reach their goals. There are two emotions that may affect how people perceive their lives. Hope and optimism both consist of cognitive processes that are usually oriented towards the reaching of goals and the perception of
those goals. The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) is a single scale that is used by UNESCO, the CIA, the New Economics Foundation, the WHO, the Beethoven Database, the Latin barometer, the Afro barometer, and the UNHDR to measure how one views his or her self-esteem, well-being and overall happiness with life. Previous modelling showed that positive views and life satisfaction were completely mediated by the concept of self-esteem, and the different way ideas and events are perceived by people. Several studies found that self-esteem plays a definite role in influencing life satisfaction. There is also a homeostatic model that also supports these findings. One's mood and outlook on life can also influence one's own perception of their life satisfaction.

In past research, personality has been narrowed down into five categories; openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism. In a study carried out by Den eve and Cooper in 1998, multiple studies were analyzed and certain personality questionnaires that linked subjective well-being (SWB) and personality measures. They found that neuroticism was the strongest predictor of life satisfaction and negative affect while the personality measure 'openness to experience' correlated equally to life satisfaction and positive affect.

According to Seligman, the more happy people are, the less they are focused on the negative. They also tend to like others more, which creates an overall happiness which then correlates to a higher level of satisfaction with their life. However, others have found that life satisfaction is compatible with profoundly negative emotional states like depression (Carson 1981).
Values

It is proposed that overall life satisfaction comes from within an individual based on the individual's personal values and what he or she holds important. For some it is family, for others it is love, and for others it is money or other material items; either way, it varies from one person to another. Economic materialism can be considered a value. Previous research found that materialistic individuals were predominantly male, and that materialistic people also reported a lower life satisfaction level than their non-materialistic counterparts. The same is true of people who value money over helping other people; this is because the money they have can buy them the assets they deem valuable. Materialistic people are less satisfied with life because they constantly want more and more belongings, and once those belongings are obtained they lose value, which in turn causes these people to want more belongings and the cycle continues. If these materialistic individuals do not have enough money to satisfy their craving for more items, they become more dissatisfied. This has been referred to as a hedonic treadmill. On the contrary, if an individual does not hold the acquisition of wealth as a high priority, his or her personal financial state will not make a difference on how happy he or she is with life overall. Individuals reporting a high value on traditions and religion reported a higher level of life satisfaction. This is also true for reported routine churchgoers and people who pray frequently. Conveniently, the idea of religion and church are selfless, non-materialistic acts, which logically concludes why the opposite effect is true of people who hold opposite values as priority. Other individuals that reported higher levels of life satisfaction were people who valued creativity, and people who valued respect
for and from others—two more seemingly qualities not related to material goods. Because hard times come around and oftentimes people count on their peers and family to help them through, it is no surprise that a higher life satisfaction level was reported of people who had social support, whether it be friends, family, or church. The people who personally valued material items were found to be less satisfied overall in life as opposed to people who attached a higher amount of value with interpersonal relationships.

**Age**

The psychologists, Yuval Palgi and Dov Shmotkin (2009), studied the old-people who were primarily in their nineties. This subject group was found to have thought highly of their past and present. But generally the group thought lower of their future. These people were very satisfied with their life up until the point they were surveyed but knew that the end was near and so were not quite as hopeful for the future. A large factor that was talked about in life satisfaction was intelligence. The experiments talk of how life satisfaction grows as people become older because they become wiser and more knowledgeable, so they begin to see that life will be better as they grow older and understand the important things in life more.

**Religion**

In persons aged 65 to 88 years, studies have shown that highly older persons tend to increase in religiousness over the course of their lives, those who were low in religiosity tended to report a decrease. There is a low moderate positive relationship between religiosity and life satisfaction. Gender may also play a role in religiousness. Women tend to have greater religiosity,
the basis may be due to biological differences or psychological role in society. Association for Psychological Science [9] Mothers are reported to have had the strongest pro-religious influence, although both parents are perceived to be an important influence in religious development of their children.

Personal religious identity is positively associated with life satisfaction throughout the world, but the association increases in size under conditions of greater governmental regulation; and the association between participation in organized religion and life satisfaction, is attenuated as government regulation increases, and becomes negative when government regulation is high.

Studies have proven that religious people are more satisfied with their lives than nonbelievers. In people who attended a religious service weekly, many were "extremely satisfied" with their lives. According to the American Sociological Review, religious people gain more life satisfaction thanks to the social networking they build by attending religious services. According to study researcher Chaeyoon Lim, a sociologist at the University of Wisconsin-Madison, "We show that life satisfaction is almost entirely about the social aspect of religion, rather than the theological or spiritual aspect of religion. We found that people are more satisfied with their lives when they go to church, because they build a social network within their congregation."

People with more than ten friends in their congregation were reported to almost be twice as satisfied with life as people with no friends in their congregation. The religious propensity toward charity and volunteerism can be connected with close church friendship, as well.
Culture

Defining culture by reference to deeply engrained societal values and beliefs. Culture affects the subjective well-being. Well-being includes both general life satisfaction, and the relative balance of positive affect versus negative affect in daily life. Culture directs the attention to different sources of information for making the life satisfaction judgments, thus affecting subjective well-being appraisal.

Individualistic cultures direct attention to inner states and feelings (such as positive or negative affects), while in collectivistic cultures the attention is directed to outer sources (i.e. adhering to social norms or fulfilling one’s duties). Indeed, Such et al. (1998) found that the correlation between life satisfaction and the prevalence of positive affect is higher in individualistic cultures, whereas in collectivistic cultures affect and adhering to norms are equally important for life satisfaction.

Family

Life satisfaction can also be looked at in a new one as influenced by a family. Family life satisfaction is a pertinent topic as everyone's family influences them in some way and most strive to have high levels of satisfaction in life as well as within their own family. As discussed by Gary L. Bowen in his article, "Family Life Satisfaction: A Value Based Approach" he examines how family life satisfaction is enhanced by the ability of family members to jointly realize their family-related values in behaviour. It is important to examine family life satisfaction from all members of the family from a "perceived" perspective and an "ideal" perspective. Greater life
satisfaction within a family increases through communication and understanding each member's attitudes and perceptions. A family can make all the difference for someone's life satisfaction.

In the article "Family System Characteristics, Parental Behaviours, and Adolescent Life Satisfaction" by Carolyn S. Henry, adolescent life satisfaction has much different origins than the life satisfaction of adults. An adolescent's life satisfaction is heavily influenced by his or her family's dynamic and characteristics. Family bonding, family flexibility, parental support are all huge factors into the adolescent's life satisfaction. The more bonding, flexibility, and support there is within a family the higher the adolescent's life satisfaction. Results of this study also revealed that adolescents living in a single-parent family home had significantly lower life satisfaction that adolescents in a two-parent home. An adolescent's age in terms of life satisfaction coming from their family is also extremely dependent upon their age (Henry).

Family also relates to life satisfaction in a very different way: a woman's decision to have children or not. In the "Relationship between Information Search in the Childbearing Decision and Life Satisfaction for Parents and Nonparents" article by Carole K. Holahan, reveals that childless women have much higher life satisfaction than women with children. Women who consciously decided not to have children overall had very high life satisfaction. From the study, it was found that most of the life satisfaction came from careers instead of children. On the other hand, women who did have children had high life satisfaction which depended on the reasons and decision making for having children. These are just generalizations and life
satisfaction comes from many different sources which are unique and different for every person. Life satisfaction can shift all of the time from events, situations, family and friend implications and many different things that all must be taken into consideration.

1.4 Job Satisfaction and Life Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction can be indicative of work behaviors such as organizational citizenship, and withdrawal behaviors such as absenteeism, and turnover. Further, job satisfaction can partially mediate the relationship of personality variables and deviant work behaviours.

One common research finding is that job satisfaction is correlated with life satisfaction. This correlation is reciprocal, meaning people who are satisfied with life tend to be satisfied with their job and people who are satisfied with their job tend to be satisfied with life. However, some research has found that job satisfaction is not significantly related to life satisfaction when other variables such as non work satisfaction and core self-evaluations are taken into account.

An emerging area of study is the interplay between job and life satisfaction. Researchers have speculated that there are three possible forms of the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction:

(1) spill over, where job experiences spill over into non work life and vice versa;

(2) segmentation, where job and life experiences are separated and have little to do with one another; and
(3) compensation, where an individual seeks to compensate for a dissatisfying job by seeking fulfilment and happiness in his or her non work life and vice versa.

Judge and Watanabe (1994) argued that these different models may exist for different individuals and were able to classify individuals into the three groups. On the basis of a national sample of U.S. workers, they found 68% were the spill over group, 20% in the segmentation group, and 12% in the compensation group. Thus, the spill over model, whereby job satisfaction spills into life satisfaction and vice versa, appears to characterize most U.S. employees.

Consistent with the spill over model, a review of the research literature indicated that job and life satisfaction are correlated (average true score correlation: . Tait, Padgett, & Baldwin, 1989). Since a job is a significant part of one’s life, the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction makes sense—one’s job experiences spill over into one’s life. However, it also seems possible the causality could go the other way—a happy or unhappy life spills over into one’s job experiences and evaluations. In fact, the research suggests that the relationship between job and life satisfaction is reciprocal—job satisfaction does affect life satisfaction, but life satisfaction also affects job satisfaction (Judge & Watanabe, 1994).

Also in support of a spill over model for job and life satisfaction, the research literature shows a consistent relationship between job satisfaction and depression (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). One might speculate on the possibility that the relationship is simply due to personality traits that cause both low job satisfaction and depression. However, to counter this, there is evidence that job loss and other work events are in fact associated with depression
(Wheaton, 1990). Thus, this research suggests that dissatisfaction resulting from one’s job can spill over into one’s psychological well-being.

Based on this research, one conclusion is that organizations only have so much control over a person’s job satisfaction, because for many people, their job satisfaction is a result, in part, of spill over of their life satisfaction. However, continuing to take actions to address low job satisfaction is not only important for organizational effectiveness, but by not doing so, organizations can cause spill over of employees’ low job satisfaction into their life satisfaction and well-being.