

**THE EFFECT OF PERSONALITY ON THE RELATIONSHIP  
BETWEEN QUALITY OF WORK LIFE AND JOB SATISFACTION**

**FLORENCE K. MUINDI**

**D80/81021/2009**

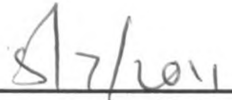
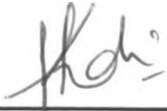
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NAIROBI**

**JUNE 2011**

## DECLARATION

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This Independent Study Paper is my original work and has not been submitted for a degree course in any other University



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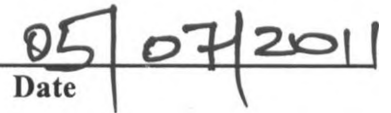
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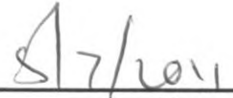
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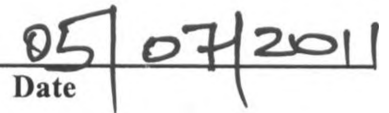
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## ABBREVIATIONS

<b>FFM</b>	Five Factor Model
<b>ISO</b>	International Organization for Standardization
<b>LOC</b>	Locus of control
<b>MBTI</b>	Myers-Briggs Type Indicator
<b>SC</b>	Social Compliance
<b>PCP</b>	Personal Construct Psychology
<b>QWL</b>	Quality of Work Life
<b>WRQoL</b>	Work-Related Quality of Life scale
<b>JDI</b>	Job Descriptive Index
<b>MSQ</b>	Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire
<b>NSQ</b>	Need Satisfaction Questionnaire

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## **ABSTRACT**

The workforce has undergone a transformation leading to an increase in dual-career families. These dual-career couples face many stressors in balancing career, family, social obligations and work expectations. Changing societal trends such as an increase in the number of women entering the work force combined with an economy that requires dual incomes to support an average standard of living contribute to work-family conflicts. As a result, society and businesses have recognized the conflicts unique to dual-career families and have responded by and many organizations have begun to take a role in developing quality of work-life programs.

Quality of work life has been defined as the employee perceptions of their physical and mental well being at work. These perceptions can be favourable or unfavourable. Quality of work life encompasses working conditions, working time, mode of wages payment, health hazards issue, in a nutshell some of financial and non-financial benefits and management behavior towards workers QWL is also the feelings that employees have towards their jobs, colleagues and the organization.

Studies have established a link between certain quality of work life practices and job satisfaction. It has been established that job satisfaction exhibit strong associations in expected directions with measures of a large number of work attributes, which include diverse aspects of work contents (as variety, task significance and skill use), pay and other benefits, job security, promotion opportunities, recognition, work conditions, relations with coworkers and supervisors, effective communication structures in the firms, and participation in managerial decision making. Reward, job security, health and safety of the workplace and other tangible benefits due to work have been identified as extrinsic determinants of QWL where as the task content, autonomy, social relations at work and other intangible benefits have been identified as the intrinsic determinants of QWL. Significant associations have been established among variables of work environment, and job satisfaction and life satisfaction.

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Several meta-analyses of research in the area of personality concluded that personality factors are valid predictors of job satisfaction. Studies have shown that some personality factors could have more effect on job satisfaction than others. Job satisfaction shows significant differences in terms of characteristics of liking competence, being ambitious in the social area and occupation, getting angry easily, and hiding their feelings. It has been found that employees with extrovert, balanced, and determined personality characteristics easily took in using new ideas and were more and creative, analytical, logical and intuitively thinking employees with strong imaginations. They were also more taking in using various strategies and technology as compared to sentimental employees with realistic and social qualities.

Despite a lot of studies being done on quality of work life, personality and job satisfaction findings are contradictory regarding quality factors in working life. There are no studies found which investigate the effect on personality has on moderating the perception about quality of work life and hence performance. Most studies from literature review have found that there is a relationship between quality of work life and job satisfaction. Other studies have shown that there is a relationship between personality and job satisfaction. It is generally agreed that our personality influences our perception of the environment and hence the way we organize knowledge around us. Having seen that personality affects the way we see the environment and hence our behaviour there is little literature which show the moderating effect of quality of work life which represents the environment in this case and performance as shown in the conceptual model.

# SECTION 1: INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 Background

The success of any organization is highly dependant on how it attracts, recruits, motivates, and retains its workforce. Today's organizations need to be more flexible so that they are equipped to develop their workforce and enjoy their commitment. Therefore, organizations are required to adopt a strategy to improve the employees' quality of work life (QWL) to satisfy both the organizational objectives and employee needs (Havlovic, 1991). The workforce has undergone a transformation leading to an increase in dual-career families. These dual-career couples face many stressors in balancing career, family, social obligations and work expectations. Changing societal trends such as an increase in the number of women entering the work force combined with an economy that requires dual incomes to support an average standard of living contribute to work-family conflicts. As a result, society and businesses have recognized the conflicts unique to dual-career families and have responded by and many organizations have begun to take a role in developing quality of work-life programs.

According to Straw and Heckscher (1984) QWL is as philosophy, a set of principles, which holds that people are the most important resource or assets in the organization and are trustworthy, responsible and capable of making valuable contribution who should be treated with dignity and respect. QWL is therefore viewed as an alternative to the control approach of managing employees. The QWL approach to managing employees considers employees as assets to the organization rather than as costs. Proponents of this approach believe that employees perform better when they achieve an all round satisfaction. The approach advocates for the motivation of employees by satisfying not only their economic needs but also their social and psychological ones. Consequently, the philosophy proposes that a satisfying overall work environment provides better QWL (Lewis *et al.*, 2001).

It is argued that the whole is greater than the sum of the parts as regards Quality of working Life, and, therefore, the failure to attend to the bigger picture may lead to the

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It is argued that the whole is greater than the sum of the parts as regards Quality of working Life, and, therefore, the failure to attend to the bigger picture may lead to the

failure of interventions which tackle only one aspect. A clearer understanding of the inter-relationship of the various facets of quality of working life offers the opportunity for improved analysis of cause and effect in the workplace. This consideration of Quality of working Life as the greater context for various factors in the workplace, such as job satisfaction and stress, may offer opportunity for more cost-effective interventions in the workplace. The effective targeting of stress reduction, for example, may otherwise prove a hopeless task for employers pressured to take action to meet governmental requirements.

## **1.2 Quality of Work Life**

QWL is a concept of behavioral scientist, and the term was first introduced by Davis in 1972 (Mathur, 1989; Hian and Einstein, 1990). Robbins (1989) defined QWL as a process by which an organization responds to employee needs by developing mechanisms to allow them to share fully in making the decisions that design their lives at work. Heskett *et al.* (1994) define QWL as the feelings that employees have towards their jobs, colleagues and the organization. Good feelings towards their jobs, colleagues and the organization mean that the employees are happy doing their work. Lau (2000) defines QWL as the favorable conditions and environments of a workplace that support and promote employees' satisfaction by providing them with job security and reward. Lau (2000) recognizes QWL as a multi-dimensional construct thereby explaining why various authors have given numerous and varying definitions of the term. This review on the definitions of QWL indicates that it is made up of a number of interrelated factors that need careful consideration to conceptualize and measure.

The key elements of QWL in the literature include job security, job satisfaction, better reward system, employee benefits, employee involvement and organizational performance (Islam and Siengthai, 2009). There are two kinds of indicators for defining quality of life. One is an objective indicator, for example money and the other is subjective indicator, such as financial status, living standard, among others (Islam and Siengthai 2009). In a nutshell, objective indicators are defined as quality of life in terms of goods while subjective indicators are defined as quality of life as perceived by

individuals. Quality of life is more than interaction, attitude, aspiration, fears, satisfaction or dissatisfaction thus it creates cross cultural similarities and dissimilarities (Wilcock and Wright, 1991)

QWL consists of opportunities for active involvement in group working arrangements or problem solving that are of mutual benefit to employees and employers (Wilcock and Wright 1991) Quality of work life is defined by Lawler (1982) as the employee perceptions of their physical and mental well being at work. These perceptions can be favourable or unfavourable. Quality of work life encompasses working conditions, working time, mode of wages payment, health hazards issue, in a nutshell some of financial and non-financial benefits and management behavior towards workers.

People also conceive of QWL as a set of methods, such as autonomous work groups, job enrichment, and high-involvement aimed at boosting the satisfaction and productivity of workers (Feuer, 1989). It requires employee commitment to the organization and an environment in which this commitment can flourish (Walton, 1975). Thus, QWL is a comprehensive construct that includes an individual's job related well-being and the extent to which work experiences are rewarding, fulfilling and devoid of stress and other negative personal consequences (Shamir, and Salomon, 1985).

### **1.3. Job Satisfaction**

Job satisfaction is a pre-requisite for employee performance in any organization. It is important for both the employee and the employer. For the employee, job satisfaction gives them a sense of security and fulfillment. In return, it leads to employee commitment, decreased absenteeism and reduced employee turnover. For the employer, employee job satisfaction ensures committed staff and stable workforce which reduce cost of recruitment and training. According to Stogdill (1962) successful organizations consider worker morale and job satisfaction an output just as important as productivity.

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on the other hand defined job satisfaction as a personal evaluation of conditions present in the job, or outcomes that arise as a result of having a job. Job satisfaction thus, has to do with an individual's perception and evaluation of his job, and this perception is influenced by the person's unique circumstances like needs, values and expectations. People will therefore evaluate their jobs on the basis of factors, which they regard as being important to them.

Spector (1997) asserts that job satisfaction is the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs. Job satisfaction is a positive orientation of an individual towards the work role, which he is presently occupying. He further states that variables related to job satisfaction include achievement, advancement, job enhancement, job enrichment and teamwork. One of the most challenging tasks in management today is keeping the most qualified employees satisfied and being able to retain them on the job. Armstrong (2006) defines job satisfaction as the attitudes and feelings people have about their work. Positive and favourable attitudes towards the job indicate job satisfaction. Negative and unfavorable attitudes indicate job dissatisfaction. Morale is often defined as being equivalent to satisfaction. Guion (1958) defines morale as the extent to which an individual's needs are satisfied and the extent to which the individual perceives satisfaction stemming from his total work situation. Lawler (1971) defines job satisfaction as the favorableness or unfavourableness with which employees view their work. Satisfaction is an aspect of motivation.

Okoth (2003) asserts that job satisfaction is a positive state, resulting from the appraisal of one's job experiences. Job satisfaction is a collection of feelings and beliefs that managers have about their jobs. She further argues that managers, who are high in job satisfaction generally like their jobs, feel that they are being fairly treated and believe that their jobs have many desirable features such as interesting work, good pay and job security.

According to Gumato (2003), job satisfaction is the extent to which employee favourably perceive their work. High job satisfaction indicates a strong correlation between an employee's expectations of the rewards accruing from a job and what the job actually provides. Workers who are satisfied in their jobs will be co-operative and well motivated while those who are dissatisfied will be more inclined than others to produce low quality output, go on strike, and be absent from work, invoke grievance procedures or even leave the organization. A worker's sense of achievement and success is generally perceived to be directly linked to productivity as well as to personal wellbeing. Job satisfaction implies doing a job one enjoys, doing it well, and being suitably rewarded for one's efforts. Job satisfaction further implies enthusiasm and happiness with one's work. The Harvard Professional Group (1998) sees job satisfaction as the keying radiant that leads to recognition, income, promotion, and the achievement of other goals that lead to a general feeling of fulfillment.

## **1.4 Personality**

Personality can be defined as a dynamic and organized set of characteristics possessed by a person that uniquely influences his or her cognitions, motivations, and behaviors in various situations (Ryckman, 2004). Funder (2001) defines personality as an individual's characteristic patterns of thought, emotion, and behavior, together with the psychological mechanisms--hidden or not--behind those patterns. Researchers generally agree that personality is the dynamic and organized set of characteristics of a person that uniquely influences his or her cognitions, motivations, and behaviors (Ryckman, 1997). "Personality is the entire mental organization of a human being at any stage of his development. It embraces every phase of human character: intellect, temperament, skill, morality, and every attitude that has been built up in the course of one's life." (Warren & Carmichael, 1930, p. 333).

Gordon Allport a pioneering American psychologist described two major ways to study personality, the nomothetic and the idiographic (Allport, 1961). Nomothetic psychology seeks general laws that can be applied to many different people, such as the principle of self-actualization, or the trait of extraversion. Idiographic psychology is an attempt to

understand the unique aspects of a particular individual. Furnham (1990) classified personality theories into three schools: benevolent eclecticism describes a long and venerable line of personality theories; partisan zealots present only one theory in which they believe; enthusiastic taxonomists classify theories according to their epistemological origins. Ryckman (1997), who belongs to the third school, categorized personality theories into five perspectives. The psychoanalytic perspective is biological in nature and based on the unfolding of a series of stages in which particular behaviors occur (Ryckman, 1997). The trait perspective assumes that there are "dispositional factors that regularly and persistently determine conduct in a variety of everyday situations" (Furnham, 1990:923). The cognitive perspective assumes that people's personality is never completely determined; people are changeful and always free to reinterpret their experiences in idiosyncratic ways (Ryckman, 1997). The existential perspective postulates the existence of an innate growth that moves individuals toward realization of their potentialities if environmental conditions are right (Ryckman, 1997). Lastly, the social behavioristic perspective assumes that most of our behavior is learned and purposive; we are guided by our motives to attain certain goals (Ryckman, 1997).

Unlike psychoanalytic and existential perspectives, the social behavioristic perspective is not interested in the growth stages. In contrast, it is similar to the trait perspective which assumes that personality refers to regularities and consistencies in the behavior of individuals (Snyder and Ickes, 1985). However, the social behavioristic perspective asserts that our personality or behavior is learned, rather than innate. People's experiences and interactions continually influence one another and behavior occurs as a result of complex interplay between inner processes and environmental influences (Rotter *et al.*, 1972). Most researchers and psychologists do not explicitly identify themselves with a certain perspective and often take an eclectic approach. Some research is empirically driven such as the "Big Five" personality model whereas other research emphasizes theory development such as psychodynamics. There is also a substantial emphasis on the applied field of personality testing.

## **SECTION 2: QUALITY OF WORK LIFE**

### **2.1 Quality of Work Life Programs**

Lawler (1982) states that quality work life programs are initiatives taken by the employer to facilitate realization of quality work life balance among its employees. Quality of work life programs benefit employees through the optimization of employee performance, improved level of motivation, reduced hours and pay/bonus without impacting on their benefits. They also benefit the employees through change of working hours without reducing pay or grade, recognition by the management, helps managing individual conflicting priorities and enable employees to integrate personal, family and work lives. Quality of work life programmes have an effect on how employees manage change, time, stress, relationships and finances. Lawler states that QWL programmes improved nature of interactions with others within and outside work, enhance capability to manage dependent care responsibilities, improved ability to focus on getting the job done. Finally, employees are led to a more productive, balanced and effective lifestyle.

QWL programs involve acquiring, training, developing, motivating and appraising for the best performance of the employees as per organizational objectives. Core elements of QWL are of working conditions, employee job satisfaction, employees' behavioral aspects, and employees' financial and non-financial benefits, growth and development, and supervision (Lau and May, 1998; Hackman and Oldham, 1974).

Walton (1975) proposed eight major conceptual categories relating to QWL namely adequate and fair compensation; safe and healthy working conditions; immediate opportunity to use and develop human capacities; opportunity for continued growth and security; social integration in the work organization; constitutionalism in the work organization; work and total life space; and social relevance of work life. Quality of working life programs has been identified by other researchers to have components such as pay, employee benefits, job security, alternative work schedules, job stress management, participation in decision making, workplace democracy, profit sharing, pension rights, working hours and generally programs that enhance workers' welfare and

overall job satisfaction. Hackman and Oldham (1976) drew attention to what they described as psychological growth needs as relevant to the consideration of QWL programmes. Several such needs were identified as skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. They suggested that such needs have to be addressed if employees are to experience high quality of working life.

Taylor (1979) more pragmatically identified the essential components of Quality of working life as basic extrinsic job factors of wages, hours and working conditions, and the intrinsic job notions of the nature of the work itself. He suggested that a number of other aspects could be added, including; individual power, employee participation in the management, fairness and equity, social support, use of one's present skills, self development, a meaningful future at work, social relevance of the work or product, effect on extra work activities. Taylor suggested that relevant Quality of working life concepts may vary according to organisation and employee group.

## **2.2 Factors Influencing Quality of Work Life**

Warr and colleagues (1979), in an investigation of Quality of working life, considered a range of apparently relevant factors, including work involvement, intrinsic job motivation, higher order need strength, perceived intrinsic job characteristics, job satisfaction, life satisfaction, happiness, and self-rated anxiety. They discussed a range of correlations derived from their work, such as those between work involvement and job satisfaction, intrinsic job motivation and job satisfaction, and perceived intrinsic job characteristics and job satisfaction. In particular, Warr et al. (1979) found evidence for a moderate association between total job satisfaction and total life satisfaction and happiness, with a less strong, but significant association with self-rated anxiety.

Bearfield (2003) in examining the quality of work life distinguished between causes of dissatisfaction in professionals, intermediate clerical, sales and service workers, indicating that different concerns might have to be addressed for different groups. Whilst some authors have emphasized the workplace aspects in Quality of working life, others have identified the relevance of personality factors, psychological well being, and

broader concepts of happiness and life satisfaction. Factors more obviously and directly affecting work have, however, served as the main focus of attention, as researchers have tried to find out the important influences on Quality of working life in the workplace. Mirvis and Lawler (1984) portends that Quality of working life is associated with factors like wages, hours and working conditions and describes the basic elements of a good quality of work life as safe work environment, equitable wages, equal employment opportunities and opportunities for advancement.

Quality of life factors are psychological in nature. Mishra (1996) found in his study that age and length of service did not affect QWL rather; it was a function of income of the employees, income leads to high QWL, and higher level of education higher level of QWL. Some authors have argued that quality of working life might vary between groups of workers. For example, Ellis and Pompli (2002) identified a number of factors contributing to job dissatisfaction and quality of working life in nurses, including poor working environments, resident aggression, workload, being able to deliver quality of care preferred, balance of work and family, shift work, lack of involvement in decision making, professional isolation, lack of recognition, poor relationships with supervisor/peers, role conflict, and lack of opportunity to learn new skills.

Sirgy *et al.* (2001) suggested that the key factors in quality of working life are need satisfaction based on job requirements, work environment, supervisory behaviour and ancillary programs, They defined quality of working life as satisfaction of these key needs through resources, activities, and outcomes stemming from participation in the workplace. Maslow's needs were seen as relevant in underpinning this model, covering health & safety, economic and family, social, esteem, actualization, knowledge and aesthetics, although the relevance of non-work aspects is play down as attention is focused on quality of work life rather than the broader concept of quality of life. Loscocco and Roschelle (1991) have also been identified as factors that should conceptually be included in Quality of Working Life. These include attitude, environment, opportunities, nature of job, people, stress level, career prospects, challenges, growth and development, risk involved and reward.

The elements that are relevant to an individual's quality of work life include the task, the physical work environment, social environment within the organization, administrative system and relationship between life on and off the job (Cunningham and Eberle, 1990). QWL consists of opportunities for active involvement in group working arrangements or problem solving that are of mutual benefit to employees or employers, based on labor management cooperation.

Pelsma *et al.* (1989) and Hart (1994) found that psychological distress and morale contributed equally to teachers' QWL. They determined that in the work climate of an occupation, QWL can be assessed by combining the amount and the degree of stress and the degree of satisfaction experienced by the individual within his/her occupational role. Winter *et al.* (2000) viewed QWL for academicians as an attitudinal response to the prevailing work environment and posited five work environment domains that include role stress, job characteristics, and supervisory, structural and sectoral characteristics to directly and indirectly shape academicians' experiences, attitudes and behavior.

According to Loscocco and Roschelle (1994), the most common assessment of QWL is the individual attitudes. This is because individual work attitudes are important indicators of QWL. The ways that people respond to their jobs have consequences for their personal happiness, the effectiveness of their work organizations and even the stability of society. Individuals selectively perceive and make attributions about their jobs in accordance with the expectations they bring to the workplace. While the characteristics of the jobs have long been considered to be important influences on work attitudes, the past decades of 1970s and 1980s have witnessed much greater attention to aspects of the organizational context in which the job is performed. Thus, we must also look at how organizational characteristics exert both direct and indirect effect on the QWL.

Age may be the most commonly studied individual influence on work attitudes. Studies which use widely differing samples find consistent results: older employees are more satisfied, more job-involved and more committed to their work. Studies of the relation between career stage and job satisfaction and job involvement yield inconsistent findings. For example, there is a positive relation between career stage and work commitment

when career stage is defined in terms of age, but curvilinear relations appear when age is defined in terms of job or company tenure (Loscocco and Oschelle, 1991).

Other studies indicate that family roles reflect needs, opportunities and constraints have influence on individuals' reactions to work. After all, two important focal points of adult life are family and work. The role expectations of these two domains are not always compatible thus creating conflicts (Netemeyer, Boles and McMurrian, 1996). These conflicts are related to outcomes such as job dissatisfaction, job burnout and turnover (Burke, 1988; Frone, Russell and Cooper, 1992; Pleck, Graham and Linda, 1980) as well as to outcomes related to psychological distress e.g. expression and life and marital dissatisfaction (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985; Gutek, Searle and Klepa, 1991). Work-family conflict studies have contributed to a better understanding of role conflict and its impact on mental health and the quality of work life (Higgins, Duxbury and Irving, 1992).

### **2.3 Indicators of Quality of Work Life**

Edvardsson and Gustavsson (2000) identify five indicators of QWL. These include the employees having an opportunity to exercise influence and control over their work situation- autonomy, experience security and meaning- task content, develop social relations at and through work, maintain good health, avoid negative stress and work in a safe physical surrounding. Roduan and Loose (2006) asserts that the indicators that are relevant to an individual employee's QWL include the employee's task and the organization's administrative systems, the relationship between life on and off the job and the social and physical environments within the organization.

Blisher and Atkinson (1978) have shown that there are two kinds of indicators for defining quality of life. One is an objective indicator, for example money and the other is subjective indicator, such as financial status, living standard, job etc. In a nutshell, objective indicators define as quality of life in terms of goods and while subjective indicators are defined as quality of life as perceived by individuals. Quality of life is not a sum of its component units. Quality of life is more than interaction, attitude, aspiration,



fears, satisfaction or dissatisfaction thus it creates cross cultural similarities and dissimilarities.

Baba and Jamal (1991) listed what they described as typical indicators of quality of working life to include job satisfaction, job involvement, work role ambiguity, work role conflict, work role overload, job stress, organisational commitment and turn-over intentions. Baba and Jamal also explored routinisation of job content, suggesting that this facet should be investigated as part of the concept of quality of working life. Other indicators of quality of work life include the employees having an opportunity to: exercise influence and control over their work situation- autonomy, experience security and meaning- task content, develop social relations at and through work, maintain good health, avoidance negative stress and work in a safe physical surrounding. Mirvis and Lawler (1984) suggested that Quality of working life was associated with satisfaction with wages, hours and working conditions, describing the “basic elements of a good quality of work life” as: safe work environment, equitable wages, equal employment opportunities and opportunities for advancement.

## **2.4 Measurements of Quality of Work Life**

There are few recognized measures of quality of working life, and of those that exist few have evidence of validity and reliability, that is, there is a very limited literature based on peer reviewed evaluations of available assessments. A recent statistical analysis of a new measure, the Work-Related Quality of Life scale (WRQoL), indicates that this assessment device should prove to be a useful instrument, although further evaluation would be useful (Van Laar, Edwards and Easton,2007). The WRQoWL measure uses 6 core factors to explain most of the variation in an individual's quality of working life: job and career satisfaction; working conditions; general well-being; home-work interface; stress at work and control at work. Other measures are job and career satisfaction.

## **SECTION 3: PERSONALITY**

Personality is influenced by the inherited characteristics of the individual and the environment, in which s/he takes place in. Many dimensions can be talked of in personality and includes talent, intelligence, education, feelings, joy, sorrow, beliefs, friendship, traditions, expediency, morals, way of talking, responsibility, culture, sincerity, talkativeness, jealousy, and nervousness. The reason for such multi-dimension has been based on the complex structure of the factors constituting the personality and relates this diversity to the displaying of the personality characteristics in different styles. Hampson (1988) relates the differences observed in conceptualizing the personality characteristics to the discussions between psychologists on the issue of what the basic factor that forms the personality is. This multiple dimensions is shown as the grounds for imposing various meaning to personality by philosophers, theologians and sociologists. Several classifications of personality theories have been documented. These include trait theories, type theories psychoanalytic theories social cognitive and behaviouristic theories. The discussion which follows is on these theories.

### **3.1 Personality Traits and Factors**

According to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of the American Psychiatric Association, personality traits are enduring patterns of perceiving, relating to, and thinking about the environment and oneself that are exhibited in a wide range of social and personal contexts. Theorists generally assume traits are relatively stable over time, traits differ among individuals and traits influence behavior.

The most common models of traits incorporate three to five broad dimensions or factors. The least controversial dimension, observed as far back as the ancient Greeks, is simply extraversion and introversion. Allport (1961) delineated different kinds of traits, which he also called dispositions. These are central, secondary, common and cardinal traits. Central traits are basic to an individual's personality, while secondary traits are more peripheral. Common traits are those recognized within a culture and thus may vary from

culture to culture. Cardinal traits are those by which an individual may be strongly recognized.

### **3.1.1. Cattell's 16 Personality Factors ( 16PF)**

Cattell (1957) developed the 16 Personality factors (16PF). The 16PF is a personality assessment that measures a person's complete personality on the basis of 16 different factors. The factors measure everything from how people think about things, to how they view rules and laws to how people are in social situations and how open they are to disclosing information about themselves, to how emotional they are to others and to how they make decisions and their confidence with those decisions. There are 16 primary factors and five global factors. The primary factors are warmth, reasoning, emotional stability, dominance, liveliness, rule-consciousness, social boldness, sensitivity, vigilance, abstractedness, privateness, apprehension, openness to change, self-reliance, perfectionism, and tension.

Cattell referred to these 16 factors as primary factors, as opposed to the so-called "Big Five" factors which he considered global factors. The global factors are derived from the original 16 primary factors and represent a broader of a definition of personality than the primary factors. The global factors are extraversion, anxiety, tough-mindedness, independence, and self-control. All of the primary factors correlate with global factors and could therefore be considered subfactors within them.

Eysenck and Eysenck (1964) believed just three traits: extraversion; neuroticism; and psychoticism were sufficient to describe human personality. Differences between Cattell and Eysenck emerged due to preferences for different forms of factor analysis with Cattell using oblique, Eysenck orthogonal, rotation to analyse the factors that emerged when personality questionnaires were subjected to statistical analysis. Today, the Big Five factors have the weight of a considerable amount of empirical research behind them, building on the work of Cattell and others.

### 3.1.2. The “Big Five” Personality Traits

In contemporary psychology, the "Big Five" factors of personality are five broad domains or dimensions of personality which are used to describe human personality (Goldberg, 1992). The Big five factors are openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism. According to (Ryckman, 2004), openness is the tendency to be imaginative, independent, and interested in variety vs. practical, conforming; Conscientiousness is the tendency to be organized, careful, and disciplined vs. disorganized, careless, and impulsive; Extraversion is the tendency to be sociable, fun-loving, and affectionate vs. retiring, somber, and reserved; Agreeableness is the tendency to be softhearted, trusting, and helpful vs. ruthless, suspicious, and uncooperative; and Neuroticism is the tendency to be calm, secure, and self-satisfied vs. anxious, insecure, and self-pitying. Psychologists have developed a number of theories to account for the “Big Five factors.

These five over-arching domains have been found to contain and subsume most known personality traits. They have brought order to the often-bewildering array of specific lower-level personality concepts that are constantly being proposed by psychologists, which are often found to be overlapping and confusing. These five factors provide a rich conceptual framework for integrating all the research findings and theory in personality psychology. The Big Five traits are also referred to as the "Five Factor Model" (FFM) (Costa & McCrae, 1992), and as the Global Factors of personality (Russell & Karol, 1994).

The Big Five model is considered to be one of the most comprehensive, empirical, data-driven research findings in the history of personality psychology. Identifying the traits and structure of human personality has been one of the most fundamental goals in all of psychology. Over three or four decades of research, these five broad factors were gradually discovered and defined by several independent sets of researchers (Digman, 1990). These researchers began by studying all known personality traits and then factor-analyzing hundreds of measures of these traits (in self-report and questionnaire data, peer

ratings, and objective measures from experimental settings) in order to find the basic, underlying factors of personality.

Many researchers have contributed to the study and identification of the “Big Five” factors. These include: (Goldberg (1982); Saucier and Goldberg (1996); Norman and Goldberg (1966); Peabody and Goldberg (1989); and Digman (1989). Others were: Cattell at the University of Illinois, (Cattell, 1957); Karson and O’Dell (1976); Krug and Johns (1986); Cattell and Mead (2007); and Costa and McCrae at the National Institutes of Health (Costa and McCrae, 1976, 1985, 1987, 1992). These researchers used somewhat different methods in finding the five traits, and thus each set of five factors has somewhat different names and definitions. However, all have been found to be highly inter-correlated and factor-analytically aligned (Carnivez and Allen (2005), Cattell (1996), Gruzca and Goldberg (2007), Mershon and Gorsuch (1988), Paunonen, and Ashton (2001).

It is important to note that the five traits have been found to organize personality at the highest level, and so they are most helpful as a conceptual, organizing framework for regular, lower-level personality traits. However, because the Big Five traits are so broad and comprehensive, they are not nearly as powerful in predicting and explaining actual behavior as are the more numerous lower-level traits. Many studies, including Mershon and Gorsuch (1988) and Paunonen & Ashton (2001), have confirmed that in predicting actual behavior the more numerous facet or primary level traits are far more effective. When scored for individual feedback, these traits are frequently presented as percentile scores. For example, a Conscientiousness rating in the 80th percentile indicates a relatively strong sense of responsibility and orderliness, whereas an Extraversion rating in the 5th percentile indicates an exceptional need for solitude and quiet. Although these trait clusters are statistical aggregates, exceptions may exist on individual personality profiles. On average, people who register high in Openness are intellectually curious, open to emotion, interested in art, and willing to try new things. A particular individual, however, may have a high overall Openness score and be interested in learning and exploring new cultures but have no great interest in art or poetry. Situational influences also exist, as even extraverts may occasionally need time away from people.

The most frequently used measures of the Big Five comprise either items that are self-descriptive sentences (De Fruyt, McCrae, Szirmák, and Nagy, 2004) or items that are single adjectives (Goldberg, 1982). Due to the length of sentence-based short forms have been developed and validated for use in applied research settings where questionnaire space and respondent time are limited, such as the 40-item balanced International English Big-Five Mini-Markers (Thompson, 2008) or a very brief (10 item) measure of the Big Five domains (Gosling, Rentfrow and Swann Jr., 2003). The Big Five contain important dimensions of personality. However, some personality researchers argue that this list of major traits is not exhaustive. Some support has been found for two additional factors: excellent/ordinary and evil/decent. However, no definitive conclusions have been established (Ryckman, 2004).

### **3.2 Personality Type Theories**

Personality type theories aim to classify people into distinct categories. Personality types are synonymous with "personality styles". Types refer to categories that are distinct and discontinuous, e.g. you are one or the other. This is important to understand, because it helps to distinguish a personality type approach from a personality trait approach, which takes a continuous approach.

Allport and Odbert (1936), cited in Funder (2001) found over 17,000 words in the dictionary which referred to psychological differences between people, e.g., trustworthy, shy, arrogant. Typically, modern personality taxonomies have emphasized between two, three, four, and five personality types, through to identifying 16 or more subtypes. The concept of personality type refers to the psychological classification of different types of individuals. Personality types are sometimes distinguished from personality traits, with the latter embodying a smaller grouping of behavioral tendencies. (<http://personalityjunkie.com/personality-type-theory/>). Types are sometimes said to involve qualitative differences between people, whereas traits might be construed as quantitative differences (Bernstein et al. 2008) According to type theories, for example, introverts and extraverts are two fundamentally different categories of people. According to trait theories, introversion and extraversion are part

of a continuous dimension, with many people in the middle. Personality types refer to psychological to the psychological classification of different types of people. Personality types are distinguished from personality traits, which come in different levels or degrees. For example, according to type theories, there are two types of people, introverts and extraverts. According to trait theories, introversion and extraversion are part of a continuous dimension, with many people in the middle.

### **3.2.1 Myers-Briggs Types Indicator**

Myers and Myers (1995) delineated personality types by constructing the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. They later added also added another personality dimension to their type indicator to measure whether a person prefers to use a judging or perceiving function when interacting with the external world. Therefore they included questions designed to indicate whether someone wishes to come to conclusions (judgment) or to keep options open (perception). This personality typology has some aspects of a trait theory and it explains people's behaviour in terms of opposite fixed characteristics. The sensing/intuition preference is considered the most basic, dividing people into intuitive or sensing personality types. Intuitive is further assumed to be guided either by thinking or feeling, and divided into the "NT" (scientist, engineer) or "NF" (author, humanitarian) temperament. Sensing by contrast, is assumed to be guided more by the judgment/perception axis, and thus divided into the "SJ" (guardian, traditionalist) or "SP" (performer, artisan) temperament. (Keirsey, 1998). These four are considered basic, with the other two factors in each case (including always extraversion/introversion) less important. Critics of this traditional view have observed that the types can be quite strongly stereotyped by professions (although neither Briggs and Myers, (1985) nor Keirsey (1998) are engaged in such stereotyping in their type descriptions) and thus may arise more from the need to categorize people for purposes of guiding their career choice (Pittenger, 1993). This among other objections led to the emergence of the five-factor view, which is less concerned with behavior under work conditions and more concerned with behavior in personal and emotional circumstances.

### **3.2.2 Type A and Type B Personality Types**

During the 1950s, Meyer Friedman and his co-workers defined what they called Type A and Type B behavior patterns. According to this theory, impatient, achievement-oriented people are classified as Type A, whereas easy-going, relaxed individuals are designated as Type B. The theory originally suggested that Type A individuals were more at risk for coronary heart disease, but this claim has not been supported by empirical research (Bates, 2006). They theorized that intense, hard-driving Type A personalities had a higher risk of coronary disease. Type B people, on the other hand, tended to be relaxed, less competitive, and lower in risk. There was also a Type AB mixed profile. Type A/B theory has been extensively criticized by psychologists because it tends to oversimplify the many dimensions of an individual's personality.

### **3.3. Psychoanalytic Theories**

Psychoanalytic theories explain human behaviour in terms of the interaction of various components of personality. Sigmund Freud was the founder of this school of personality. Freud drew on the physics of his day (thermodynamics) to coin the term psychodynamics. Based on the idea of converting heat into mechanical energy, he proposed psychic energy could be converted into behavior. Freud's theory places central importance on dynamic, unconscious psychological conflicts. Freud divides human personality into three significant components: the id, ego, and super-ego. The id acts according to the pleasure principle, demanding immediate gratification of its needs regardless of external environment; the ego then must emerge in order to realistically meet the wishes and demands of the id in accordance with the outside world, adhering to the reality principle. Finally, the superego (conscience) inculcates moral judgment and societal rules upon the ego, thus forcing the demands of the id to be met not only realistically but morally. The superego is the last function of the personality to develop, and is the embodiment of parental/social ideals established during childhood. According to Freud, personality is based on the dynamic interactions of these three components (Carver and Scheier, 2004).



Freud proposed five psychosexual stages of personality development. He believed adult personality is dependent upon early childhood experiences and largely determined by age five (Carver and Scheier, 2004). Fixations that develop during the infantile stage contribute to adult personality and behavior. One of Sigmund Freud's earlier associates, Alfred Adler, did agree with Freud early childhood experiences are important to development, and believed birth order may influence personality development. Adler believed the oldest was the one that set high goals to achieve to get the attention they lost back when the younger siblings were born. He believed the middle children were competitive and ambitious possibly so they are able to surpass the first-born's achievements, but were not as much concerned about the glory. Also he believed the last born would be more dependent and sociable but be the baby. He also believed that the only child loves being the center of attention and matures quickly, but in the end fails to become independent.

Kohut (1996) thought similarly to Freud's idea of transference. He used narcissism as a model of how we develop our sense of self. Narcissism is the exaggerated sense of one self in which is believed to exist in order to protect one's low self esteem and sense of worthlessness. Kohut had a significant impact on the field by extending Freud's theory of narcissism and introducing what he called the 'self-object transferences' of mirroring and idealization. In other words, children need to idealize and emotionally "sink into" and identify with the idealized competence of admired figures such as parents or older siblings. They also need to have their self-worth mirrored by these people. These experiences allow them to thereby learn the self-soothing and other skills that are necessary for the development of a healthy sense of self.

Another important figure in the world of personality theory was Karen Horney (Paris, 1994). She is credited with the development of the "real self" and the "ideal self". She believes all people have these two views of their own self. The "real self" is how you really are with regards to personality, values, and morals; but the "ideal self" is a construct you apply to yourself to conform to social and personal norms and goals. Ideal self would be "I can be successful, I am CEO material"; and real self would be "I just work in the mail room, with not much chance of high promotion".

### **3.4. Behaviorists Theories**

Behaviorists explain personality in terms of the effects external stimuli have on behavior. It was a radical shift away from Freudian philosophy. This school of thought was developed by B. F. Skinner who put forth a model which emphasized the mutual interaction of the person or "the organism" with its environment (Smith and Woodward, 1996). Skinner believed children do bad things because the behavior obtains attention that serves as a reinforcer. For example: a child cries because the child's crying in the past has led to attention. These are the response, and consequences. The response is the child crying, and the attention that child gets is the reinforcing consequence. According to this theory, people's behavior is formed by processes such as operant conditioning. Skinner put forward a "three term contingency model" which helped promote analysis of behavior based on the "Stimulus - Response - Consequence Model" in which the critical question is: "Under which circumstances or antecedent 'stimuli' does the organism engage in a particular behavior or 'response', which in turn produces a particular 'consequence'?"

Richard Herrnstein extended this theory by accounting for attitudes and traits. An attitude develops as the response strength (the tendency to respond) in the presences of a group of stimuli become stable. Rather than describing conditionable traits in non-behavioral language, response strength in a given situation accounts for the environmental portion. Herrnstein also saw traits as having a large genetic or biological component as do most modern behaviorists. Ivan Pavlov is another notable influence. He is well known for his classical conditioning experiments involving dogs. These physiological studies led him to discover the foundation of behaviorism as well as classical conditioning.

### **3.5. Social Cognitive Theories**

In cognitivism, behavior is explained as guided by cognitions (e.g. expectations) about the world, especially those about other people. Cognitive theories are theories of personality that emphasize cognitive processes such as thinking and judging. Bandura (1997) a social learning theorist suggested the forces of memory and emotions worked in conjunction with environmental influences. Early examples of approaches to cognitive

style are listed by Baron (1982). Baron relates early development of cognitive approaches of personality to ego psychology. More central to this field have been self efficacy work, dealing with confidence people have in abilities to do tasks (Bandura, 1997); Locus of control theory (Lefcourt, 1966, Rotter, 1966) dealing with different beliefs people have about whether their worlds are controlled by themselves or external factors; and attribution theory (Abramson, Seligman and Teasdale, 1978) dealing with different ways in which people explain events in their lives. This approach builds upon locus of control, but extends it by stating we also need to consider whether people attribute to stable causes or variable causes, and to global causes or specific causes.

Various scales have been developed to assess both attributional style and locus of control. Locus of control scales include those used by Rotter and later by Duttweiler ( 1984), the Nowicki and Strickland (1973).. Attributional style has been assessed by the Attributional Style Questionnaire (Peterson *et al*, 1982), the Expanded Attributional Style Questionnaire (Peterson and Villanova, 1985), the Attributions Questionnaire (Gong-guy and Hammen, 1990), the Real Events Attributional Style Questionnaire (Norman and Antaki, 1988) and the Attributional Style Assessment Test (Anderson et al, 1988). Mischel and Shoda (1995) considers factors such as encoding of stimuli, affect, goal-setting, and self-regulatory beliefs as important cognitive units.

### **3.6. Humanistic Theories**

In humanistic psychology it is emphasized people have free will and they play an active role in determining how they behave. Accordingly, humanistic psychology focuses on subjective experiences of persons as opposed to forced, definitive factors that determine behavior. Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers were proponents of this view, which is based on the "phenomenal field" theory (Combs and Snygg, 1949).

Maslow spent much of his time studying what he called "self-actualizing persons", those who are "fulfilling themselves and doing the best they are capable of doing". Maslow believes all who are interested in growth move towards self-actualizing (growth, happiness, satisfaction) views. Many of these people demonstrate a trend in dimensions

of their personalities. Characteristics of self-actualizers according to Maslow include the four key dimensions including awareness, reality and problem centred, acceptance/spontaneity and unhostile sense of humour (Combs and Snygg, 1949).

Maslow and Rogers emphasized a view of the person as an active, creative, experiencing human being who lives in the present and subjectively responds to current perceptions, relationships, and encounters. They disagree with the dark, pessimistic outlook of those in the Freudian psychoanalysis ranks, but rather view humanistic theories as positive and optimistic proposals which stress the tendency of the human personality toward growth and self-actualization. This progressing self will remain the center of its constantly changing world; a world that will help mold the self but not necessarily confine it. Rather, the self has opportunity for maturation based on its encounters with this world. This understanding attempts to reduce the acceptance of hopeless redundancy. Humanistic therapy typically relies on the client for information of the past and its effect on the present, therefore the client dictates the type of guidance the therapist may initiate. This allows for an individualized approach to therapy. Rogers found patients differ in how they respond to other people. Rogers tried to model a particular approach to therapy- he stressed the reflective or empathetic response. This response type takes the client's viewpoint and reflects back his or her feeling and the context for it.

## **SECTION 4: JOB SATISFACTION**

As stated earlier, job satisfaction is a pre-requisite for employee performance in any organization. It is important for both the employee and the employer. For the employee, job satisfaction gives them a sense of security and fulfillment. In return, it leads to employee commitment, decreased absenteeism and reduced employee turnover. For the employer, employee job satisfaction ensures committed staff and stable workforce which reduce cost of recruitment and training.

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 (also known as 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 approach 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.

Maslow's Hierarchy of need theory of motivation also 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. Various scholars concur that job satisfaction is affected by various factors, namely: relatively higher pay, an equitable payment system, real opportunities for promotion, considerate and participative management, a reasonable degree of social interaction at work, interesting and valid tasks and a high degree of autonomy: control over work pace and work methods. The degree of satisfaction however, largely depends upon the employee's own needs and expectations and the work environment. That is a person may feel different levels of satisfaction towards each factor (Armstrong, 2006, Luthans, 2005, Moorhead and Griffin, 1989). Job satisfaction is therefore a result of employees' perceptions of how well their job provides those things viewed as important. According to Armstrong (2006), job dissatisfaction results in absenteeism and turnover.

A commonly used theory of job satisfaction is the Discrepancy Theory (Wilcock & Wright, 1991) or as it is also called, the value-percept disparity model (Locke 1969). This model hypothesizes that satisfaction depends on the extent to which outcomes which an individual thinks he/she derives from work correspond to the outcomes pursued in work. The model has three essential elements namely the perception of some aspect of the job, an implicit or explicit value standard, and a conscious or subconscious judgment of the gap (discrepancy) between one's perceptions and one's values. Perception is the awareness that a matter existed as well as a cognitive judgment of the matter against a cognitive standard. A value judgment was defined as "an estimate of the relationship of some existent (matter) or judged relationship to one's value standards (normative standards)" (Locke, 1969:316). Branden (cited in Locke, 1969:315) defined a value as "that which one regards as conducive to one's welfare". In the evaluation process, an individual estimates, either on a conscious or subconscious level, the relationship between some object, action or condition and one or more of one's values (Locke, 1969).

Rhodes and Hammer (2000) noted that among the most important values or conditions conducive to job satisfaction are: mentally challenging work with which the individual

can cope successfully; personal interest in the work itself; work which is not too physically tiring; rewards for performance which are just, informative and in line with the individual's personal aspirations; working conditions which are compatible with the individual's physical needs and facilitate the accomplishment of his work goals; high self esteem on the part of the employee; agents in the workplace who help the employee to attain values such as interesting work, pay and promotions, whose basic values are similar to his own, and who minimize role conflict and ambiguity.

Job satisfaction mainly looks at the extent to which employees have positive or negative attitude towards their work. An attitude is an individual employee's feeling (satisfaction, indifference or dissatisfaction) towards a specific situation, object or person. Job satisfaction is the net result of the good or poor attitude held by an individual employee at a given period of time. It is subject to swings from one extreme to the other but usually reverts to a fairly stable level that can be good or poor (Mwaura, 1993). According to Luthans, (2005) job satisfaction is a result of employees' perception of how well their job provides those things which are viewed as important.

Job satisfaction is a potential determinant of absenteeism, turnover, in-role job performance and extra-role behaviours (Locke, 1976). According to Cranny, et al (1992), job satisfaction is an effective reaction to a job that results from the employee's comparison of actual outcomes with those that are desired. Locke (1976) equates job satisfaction to morale of workers. Job satisfaction increased as opportunities to provide feedback increased. When supervisors' basic values are similar to those of their subordinates, job satisfaction can increase (Locke, 1976). Personality similarities between supervisors and subordinates have also been linked to job satisfaction (Rhodes & Hammer, 2000). Bavendum (2000) argues that increasing job satisfaction is important for its humanitarian value and for its financial benefit due to its effect on employee behavior. He notes that employees with higher job satisfaction believe that the organization will be satisfying in the Long run, care about the quality of their work, are more committed to the organization, have higher retention rates and are more productive.

## 4.1 Dimensions of Job Satisfaction

Some research say that job satisfaction consist of a single dimension while other say that job satisfaction consists of a number of separate dimensions. (Buchanan, 2010). There does, however, appear to be a positive correlation between satisfaction levels in different areas of work. This suggests a single overall factor of job satisfaction. However, it seems there is no one, general, comprehensive theory which explains job satisfaction. Today is still considered by a number of critics to be, a complex concept and difficult to measure objectively. A wide range of variables affect job satisfaction and this include individual, social, cultural organizational and environmental factors affect the level of job satisfaction. Specifically individual factors include personality, education, intelligence and abilities, age, marital status. Social factors include relationships with co-workers, group working and norms, opportunities for interaction, informal organization. Cultural factors include underlying attitudes, beliefs and values. Organisational factors include nature and size, formal structure, personnel policies and procedures, employee relations, nature of the work, technology and work organization, supervision and styles of leadership, management systems, working conditions. Environmental factors include economic, social, technical and governmental influences. These different factors, all affect the job satisfaction of certain individuals in a given set of circumstances, but not necessarily in others. The various studies of job satisfaction have some validity and have served the businesses in times of need and performance appraisal.

Locke (1976) explains that for researchers to understand the job attitudes, they need to understand job dimensions, which are complex and interrelated in nature. He mentioned the common dimensions of job satisfaction as “work, pay, promotions, recognition, benefits, working conditions, supervision, coworkers, company and management” (Locke, 1976,p.1302). Kerego and Mthupha (1997,p.14) on the other hand viewed working conditions like, clear staffing policy, clear channels of communication, staff participation in decision making, security and good governance as having adverse effects on job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction is divided into two aspects; first internal-role working condition with a focus in job specific attitudes such as resources available, equity consideration, training,



existence of grievance and discipline system, pay, safety and benefits. Second, external-role interpersonal relations such as employee communication, supervisory communication, managerial concern for employee, career goals and performance appraisal which are all top organizational systems or environmental issues (Dennis & Susan, 2003).

Early scholars identified two main sources of motivation to work. One being the job as an end in itself and the other was the end towards which the job provides the means. The two were classified as intrinsic satisfaction and extrinsic satisfaction. Intrinsic satisfaction means deriving the satisfaction of one's needs and therefore one's motivation from the work itself. This concept was advanced by scholars such as Abraham Maslow in his "Hierarchy of needs Theory" in 1945, Fredrick Herzberg in his "Two-factor Theory" in 1959 and Clayton Alderfer in his ERG (Existence, relatedness and growth) theory in 1972. Extrinsic satisfaction means deriving satisfaction of needs using work as a means to an end; it is also sometimes termed an instrumental approach. Work provides individuals with money, which enables them to obtain satisfaction, so money, not the satisfaction of the job is the main motivator according to the proponents of this view. The proponents include F.W. Taylor, sometimes referred to as the father of scientific management and the Luton Studies carried out among can workers in Luton in the late 1960s.

Herzberg (1959) theorized that employee satisfaction depends on two sets of issues: "hygiene" issues and motivators. Once the hygiene issues have been addressed, he said, the motivators create satisfaction among employees. Hygiene issues (dissatisfiers) such as; Company and administrative policies, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations and working conditions decrease employees' dissatisfaction with the work environment. On the other hand, Motivators (satisfiers) such as: work itself, achievement, recognition, responsibility and advancement make workers more productive, creative and committed. Luthans, (1992) argues that there are three important dimensions to job satisfaction. First, job satisfaction is an emotional response to a job situation. As such it cannot be seen; it

can only be inferred. Second, job satisfaction is often determined by how well outcomes meet or exceed expectations. Third, job satisfaction represents several related attitudes.

Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969) have suggested that there are five job dimensions that represent the most important characteristics of a job about which people have affective responses. These are the work itself, the pay, promotion opportunities, supervision and coworkers. The work itself is the extent to which the job provides the individual with interesting tasks, opportunities for learning and the chance to accept responsibility. Pay is the amount of financial remuneration that is received and the degree to which this is viewed as equitable vis-à-vis others in the organization. Promotion opportunities are the chances for advancement in the hierarchy. Supervision means the abilities of the superior to provide technical assistance and behavioral support. Coworkers here refer to the degree to which fellow workers are technically proficient and socially supportive.

## **4.2 Factors affecting job satisfaction**

There's massive literature on what satisfies a person and what does not and various theories have been put forward to explain job satisfaction. These are: Maslow's theory, Equity Theory, Value Theory, Discrepancy Theory, Vroom's Expectancy Theory and Herzberg's two factor theory. For this study, Herzberg's two factor theory will be considered. Herzberg's theory identifies two groups of factors that were responsible for satisfaction or dissatisfaction. These were termed as satisfiers (or motivators) and dissatisfiers (or hygiene factors). According to Armstrong (2006) and Cole, (2002) motivators are those factors that are seen to be effective in motivating the individual to superior work performance and effort. Motivators are concerned with the content of the job. They include factors such as achievement, recognition, advancement, autonomy, responsibility, challenge and the work itself. Hygiene factors on the other hand essentially describe the environment and primarily serve to prevent job dissatisfaction, while having little effect on positive job attitudes. These are concerned with the context of the job. They include factors such as company policy and administration, job security, supervision, salary and working conditions.

Cole, (2002) and Herzberg et al (1957) observe that motivators appeared to produce motivated behaviour while hygiene factors produced either dissatisfaction or no response. That is: the effect of motivators was likely to have a much deeper and longer-term effect because they were inherent in individuals and not imposed from outside, while hygiene factors would have an immediate and powerful effect but would not necessarily last long.

Factors that influence job satisfaction include pay, promotion, recognition, working conditions, supervision and leadership, skills and abilities, organizational policies and procedures. Bavendam (2000) identified six factors that causes job satisfaction; opportunity, stress, leadership, increases in relative strength, work standards, fair reward and adequate authority. The level of job satisfaction is affected by intrinsic and extrinsic motivating factors, the quality of supervision, social relationships with the work group and degree to which individuals succeed or fail in their work (Armstrong, 2006). According Herzberg et al (1957) intrinsic factors (motivators) are those that are self generated and influence people to behave in a particular way or move in a particular direction. They include: Responsibility (feeling that work is important and having control over ones own resources), autonomy (the freedom to act), scope to use and develop skills and abilities, interesting and challenging work and opportunities for advancement.

Extrinsic (hygiene factors) on the other hand encompass what is done to people to motivate them. They include: rewards such as increased pay, praise or promotion and punishments such as disciplinary action, withholding pay or criticism. The most common determinants of job satisfaction includes race, age, working conditions, control of work, establishment size, financial rewards, public image of the work place, promotion opportunities, work content and attitudes of the co-workers (Futrell, 1979).

Bowen, Radhakrishna, and Keyser (1994) found significant relationships between job satisfaction and commitment to cooperative extension, concluding that one does not exist without the other. To ensure high levels of job satisfaction, administrator's need to know and understand what their employees want from work to develop better in-service training programs designed to enhance job satisfaction and reduce job dissatisfaction.

In his research, Bavendam (2000) identified six factors that influence job satisfaction. The first is opportunity. Employees are more satisfied when they have challenging opportunities at work. This includes chances to participate in interesting projects, jobs with a satisfying degree of challenge and opportunities for increased responsibility. The second factor is stress. When negative stress is continuously high, job satisfaction is low. Jobs are more stressful if they interfere with employees' personal lives or are a continuing source of worry or concern. The third factor is leadership. Employees are more satisfied when their managers are good leaders. This includes motivating employees to do a good job, striving for excellence or just taking action. The fourth factor is work standards. Employees are more satisfied when their entire work group takes pride in the quality of their work. The fifth factor is fair rewards. Employees are more satisfied when they feel they are rewarded fairly for the work they do. Consider employee responsibilities, the effort they have put forth, the work they have done well and the demands of their jobs. The sixth factor is adequate authority. Employees are more satisfied when they have adequate freedom and authority to do their jobs.

According to Terez (2002) the following key criteria are most important in determining job satisfaction: acknowledgment, balance, challenge, dialogue, direction, equality, fit, flexibility, informality, invention, oneness, ownership, personal development, purpose, relationship building, relevance, respect, self-identity, service, support, validation and worth. Terez stated that each of us has a set of factors that, for us, is what we need to have a meaningful work experience. It's much like the set of keys we carry with us at all times. For one person, the top three keys might be a deep sense of purpose, an open field to be inventive, and opportunities to build relationships. Another person's top three keys might include ownership, abundant challenges, and a good fit in the organization.

The major factors influencing job satisfaction can be summarized to be pay, the work itself, promotion, supervision, the work group and working conditions. Wages are a significant factor in job satisfaction Luthans ( 2005) . Money not only helps people attain their basic needs but is instrumental in providing upper-level need satisfaction.

Employees often see pay as a reflection of how management views their contribution to the organization. The content of the work itself is another major source of satisfaction. Some of the most important ingredients of a satisfying job uncovered by surveys include interesting and challenging work, work that is not boring and a job that provides status. Promotional opportunities seem to have a varying effect on job satisfaction. This is because promotions take a number of different forms and have a variety of accompanying rewards. For example, individuals who are promoted on the basis of seniority often experience job satisfaction but not as much as those who are promoted on the basis of performance. There seem to be two dimensions of supervisory style that affect job satisfaction. One is employee-centeredness. This is measured by the degree to which a supervisor takes a personal interest in the employee's welfare. The other dimension is participation or influence as illustrated by managers who allow their people to participate in decisions that affect their own jobs. The nature of work group will have an effect on job satisfaction. Friendly, co-operative co-workers are a modest source of job satisfaction to individual employees. The work group serves as a source of support, comfort, advice and assistance to the individual worker. If the working conditions are good (clean, attractive surroundings for instance), the personnel will find it easier to carry out their jobs. If the working conditions are poor (hot, noisy surroundings for example), personnel will find it more difficult to get things done.

### **4.3 Measure of Employee Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction**

Herzberg, Mausner and Synderman (1967) claimed that one of the major reasons for measuring job satisfaction is to answer the question, "what does the worker want from his/her job?" and that the answer to this question will assist management in discovering new methods of motivating employees. Employees that have a high job satisfaction care more about the quality of their work and, therefore are more committed to their organization (Scott and Sun, 2003). Job satisfaction is a very important attribute which is frequently measured by organizations. Employee retention and turnover are the most objective measures of employee satisfaction/dissatisfaction in organizations. Luthans (2005) argues that since job satisfaction is an attitude, it can not be directly observed and therefore must rely on the employees' self reports. According to him, some of the most

common ways of measuring job satisfaction are rating scales, critical incidents, interviews and action tendencies.

The most common way of measurement is the use of rating scales where employees report their reactions to their jobs. Questions relate to rate of pay, work responsibilities, variety of tasks, promotional opportunities the work itself and co-workers. Some questioners ask yes or no questions while others ask to rate satisfaction on 1-5 scale (where 1 represents "not at all satisfied" and 5 represents "extremely satisfied" One of the most popular rating scale is the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967). MSQ was designed to measure employee satisfaction with their jobs. This instrument provides a detailed picture of the specific satisfactions and dissatisfactions of employees. The MSQ measures satisfaction with several aspects of work and the work environment. Several studies have demonstrated good reliability and validity data for the MSQ (e.g., Albright, 1972; Anderson, Hohenshil, & Brown, 1984; Bolton, 1986; Brown, Hohenshil, & Brown, 1998; Decker & Borgen, 1993; Guion, 1978; Levinson, Fetchkan, & Hohenshil, 1988).

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) is also popular. The facets of the Job Descriptive Index are derived from the definition of job satisfaction put forth by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969). Smith et al. (1969) defined job satisfaction as "feelings or affective responses to facets of the situation" (p. 6). Because of this definition, the JDI viewed satisfaction as the accumulation of five facets: work on present job, present pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision, and people on your present job (co-workers). It has been widely by organizational behaviour researchers over the years and provides a broad picture of employee attitudes toward the major components of jobs. The JDI has been widely used in business and government (Hulin, 1968; O'Reilly & Roberts, 1973; Waters & Waters, 1969) as both a research tool and a diagnostic indicator. A strong case has been built for construct validity, both in original source (Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969) as well as in numerous other publications that report correlation between JDI scales and other measures of job satisfaction (e.g., Dunham, Smith, & Blackburn, 1977).

The Job Descriptive Index is an instrument that is used to assess job satisfaction more than any other inventory (Kinicki, McKee-Ryan, Schriesheim, & Carson, 2002). Spector (1997) also states that it may also be the “most carefully developed and validated” job satisfaction measure (p. 12). It is designed to measure job satisfaction on the basis of five facets, including an overall job satisfaction facet, the Job in General (JIG) scale (Kinicki et al., 2002). . The basis for the Job Descriptive Index is that job satisfaction is important for three different reasons: humanitarian concerns, economic concerns, and theoretical concerns.

Rating scales offer a number of important advantages in measuring job satisfaction. One is that they are usually short and can be filled out quickly and easily. Another is that they tend to be worded in general language so that they can be used with employees in many different types of organizations. A third is that because they have been so widely used in research, there is usually normative data available so that the responses can be compared with those of employees in other organizations who have taken the test in previous years.

The Critical Incidents technique as a measure of job satisfaction was popularized by Fredrick Herzberg et al ( 1959). He and his colleagues used it in their research on the two factor theory of motivation. Employees were asked to describe incidents on their job when they were particularly satisfied and dissatisfied. These incidents were then content analyzed in determining which aspects were most closely related to positive and negative attitudes. Other methods are interviews and action tendencies. Interviews allows for an in-depth exploration of job attitudes. If the respondents say something that the interviewer does not understand or would like to learn more about, the interviewer can follow up with additional questions. Action tendencies are the inclinations people have to approach or to avoid certain things. By gathering information about how they feel like acting with respect to their jobs, the job satisfaction can be measured.

## **SECTION 5: QUALITY OF WORK LIFE AND JOB SATISFACTION**

Research on quality of work life suggest that job satisfaction is closely related to quality of work life (Wooden & Warren 2003; Bearfield 2003; Bowling et al., 2004). It has been established that job satisfaction exhibit strong associations in expected directions with measures of a large number of work attributes, which include diverse aspects of work contents (as variety, task significance and skill use), pay and other benefits, job security, promotion opportunities, recognition, work conditions, relations with coworkers and supervisors, effective communication structures in the firms, and participation in managerial decision making (Wooden & Warren 2003).

The association of QWL with job satisfaction was also identified by (Lewis *et al* 2001) who reported that reward, job security, health and safety of the workplace and other tangible benefits due to work have been identified as extrinsic determinants of QWL where as the task content, autonomy, social relations at work and other intangible benefits have been identified as the intrinsic determinants of QWL (Lewis *et al* 2001). Significant associations have been established among variables of work environment, and job satisfaction and life satisfaction (Bowling et al., 2004). Work environment variables were represented by- job characteristics (skills' variety, task identity and task significance, autonomy and feedback from the task); job stressors (role overload, unclear role and conflict of the role); treatment by the coworkers; and the treatment by the supervisor. Job satisfaction correlated more significantly with the treatment by the supervisor job characteristics role stressors and treatment by the worker.

Bearfield, (2003) examined quality of working life among Australian employees, and distinguished between causes of dissatisfaction in professionals, intermediate clerical, sales and service workers, indicating that different concerns might have to be addressed for different groups. He found that the level of satisfaction with different job aspects- salary, work load, work pressure, control over the way of doing work, health and safe standards at work place, the type of job, relations among coworkers, trust in the



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management, recognition of work efforts and employees' treatment by the immediate manager, opportunity for development of a career and job skills, information about work, balance between working and private life. The data of the attitudes toward work environment, obtained in these successive researches suggest an existence of a stable high-quality work life of Australian employees so that the job satisfaction is higher among a lower than between a higher level of education. The distinction made between job satisfaction and dissatisfaction in quality of working life reflects the influence of job satisfaction theories. Herzberg *et al.*, (1959) used "Hygiene factors" and "Motivator factors" to distinguish between the separate causes of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. It has been suggested that Motivator factors are intrinsic to the job, that is; job content, the work itself, responsibility and advancement. The Hygiene factors or dissatisfaction-avoidance factors include aspects of the job environment such as interpersonal relationships, salary, working conditions and security. Of these latter, the most common cause of job dissatisfaction can be company policy and administration, whilst achievement can be the greatest source of extreme satisfaction.

An individual's experience of satisfaction or dissatisfaction can be substantially rooted in their perception, rather than simply reflecting their "real world". Further, an individual's perception can be affected by relative comparison - am I paid as much as that person - and comparisons of internalised ideals, aspirations, and expectations, for example, with the individual's current state (Lawler 1971). In summary, where it has been considered, authors differ in their views on the core constituents of Quality of Working Life (Sirgy, Efraty, Siegel and Lee, 2001; Warr, Cook and Wall, 1979).

A dominant theme of much of the QWL research is the assumption that an individual's satisfaction or dissatisfaction experiences define the quality of his/her work life. Associated with this paradigm are the ideas that objective job characteristics induce satisfaction or dissatisfaction attitudes and that the association between working conditions is moderated by an individual's abilities, values and expectations (Wilcock, and Wright, 1991). Satisfaction has often been used as a measure of the quality of work life although there is limitation to its use as such. Satisfaction is only one of the many aspects of QWL. As with many attitudinal measures, it can be regarded as a self-fulfilling

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prophecy where expectations adapt to what the work realistically provides (Wilcock, and Wright, 1991).

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Management ideas have also stressed the importance of involving employees in actively solving problems which affect the quality of the goods and services offered by the organization. For example, Deming (1986:47) recommended that workers be “encouraged to make suggestions and to take a relatively high degree of responsibility for overall performance”. Crosby (1980), Juran and Gryna (1993) and Feigenbaum (1961) all make similar recommendations. Among the anticipated benefits of such an approach are increases in employee involvement in problem solving and decision making, a more motivated work force, increased satisfaction, improved morale and involvement. Research findings have tended to support these expectations. Several studies have illustrated that quality management can result in increased employee satisfaction and attendance, decreased staff turnover and improved safety and health (Dawson 1995, Harber 1995, Lawler (1992).

Quality programs, to the extent that they enhance employee participation, involvement and responsibility, should be associated with such affective outcomes as increased job

satisfaction and commitment to the organization. The job characteristics model provides a theoretical explanation for these effects (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). The model suggests that there are five core job characteristics (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback) that are related to important individual-level outcomes (e.g. satisfaction, performance). The first three characteristics combine to create employee perceptions of meaningful work. If these characteristics are present in a job, the incumbent is expected to view the job as important, valuable and worthwhile and, therefore, should display increased levels of satisfaction and commitment. It is suggested that autonomy can provide the job incumbent with the perception of greater personal responsibility and that feedback allows the individual to know how he or she is performing. The model suggests that the greater the extent to which these core characteristics are present, the greater will be the commitment, performance and satisfaction, and the lower the absenteeism and likelihood of the employees concerned leaving the organisation.

In their study on Employee affective reactions to organizational quality efforts, Gardner and Carlopio (1996) found that that employee perceptions of their firm's quality efforts are related to employee affective reactions (satisfaction, commitment, turnover intentions), with those perceiving greater organizational quality efforts exhibiting more positive affective reactions; and that perceptions of autonomy can account for the relationship between perceptions of organizational quality efforts and affective reactions. The beliefs that employees hold about the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their wellbeing lead to their perceptions of the degree of commitment the organization has to them. Employees who perceive a high level of organizational support are more likely to feel an obligation to "repay" the organization in terms of commitment.

It seem reasonable to suggest that by implementing quality management and empowering its employees, an organization conveys the message that it values the contribution that its people can make and is committed to their development and opportunities. If this is the case, then it is likely that the relationship between organizational commitment (and other

affective reactions) and perceptions of quality efforts is determined by changes in perceptions of organizational support associated with the quality program. Another possible explanation is that an organization which invests in a quality program is in effect taking a longer-term view of its systems and processes, and of its ability to meet future requirements of its customers. From the point of view of employees this may mean that a more positive view is taken of the company's future, and hence commitment is enhanced along with job satisfaction while intentions to turnover are reduced. The relationships between quality management and organizational commitment and other affective reactions remain to be clarified, but the findings of the present study suggest that the benefits of quality management may be more diverse than has been previously realized. (Gardner and Carlopio, 1996)

## SECTION 6: PERSONALITY AND JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction shows significant differences in terms of characteristics of liking competence, being ambitious in the social area and occupation, getting angry easily, and hiding their feelings (Ayan and Kocacik, 2010). On their study on teachers, Ayan and Kocacik examined the differences in scores on job satisfaction and concluded that those teachers with extrovert personality characteristics have significantly higher levels of job satisfaction as compared to teachers with introvert personality characteristics. Teachers stating that they like competence have greater job satisfaction as compared to those who do not, those stating they are ambitious in the social area and profession have greater job satisfaction as compared to those stating they are not, those getting angry easily have greater job satisfaction as compared to those not, those stating that they do not have time to rest as compared to those they have not, and those do not hide their feelings as compared to those hide. These results show that teachers, who has found mostly to be extrovert, display characteristics that parallel extrovert personality characteristics like taking their chance in tasks with unknown outcomes, to be very active and continuously be occupied, liking changes and being unable to control their feelings completely. The results of similar studies have shown that the personality characteristics unique for teachers are reflected to teaching particularly through teaching strategies and materials they use (Erdle et.al., 1985: 394-406). Therefore, teachers with certain personality characteristics are more efficient in issues like being self-contained, improving learning or controlling the class (Robin and Sharon, 2003; 261).

It has been found that employees with extrovert, balanced, and determined personality characteristics were more “taking” in using new ideas (Katz, 1992: 39-40), and creative, analytical, logical and intuitively thinking employees with strong imaginations (Smith et.al., 1993: 281-285) were more “taking” in using various strategies and technology as compared to sentimental employees with realistic and social qualities.

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to the satisfaction with their job, rather than other variables. Some personality factors could have more effect on job satisfaction than others. Spector (1997) asserts that there are many different personality factors that have been correlated to job satisfaction, but overall, there seem to be two traits that have significant correlations: locus of control and negative affectivity. Locus of control refers to people's beliefs about how much control they have over their job, life, or various other factors (Rotter, 1966). Locus of control has been correlated with job performance as well as job satisfaction (Spector, 1997).

While the big five personality traits have received considerable attention in the literature, *locus* of control (LOC), which refers to the degree to which people believe that they have control over a wide range of factors in their lives, has received somewhat less scrutiny. Rotter (1966) indicated that with regard to LOC, people could be divided into internals and externals. Internals, or those with an internal LOC, tend to feel a strong link between their actions and their consequences. These individuals also believe in their ability to control the external environment. Externals by contrast use a more passive approach in dealing with their environment. They believe that outcomes are quite often the result of luck or fate. LOC has been found to relate to several work outcomes such as job performance and satisfaction.

A meta-analysis conducted by Judge and Bono (2001) found that internal LOC related positively with both job satisfaction and job performance. In a study of internal auditor job performance, Patten (2005) found that internal LOC employees outperformed those with external LOC. Negative affectivity is people's tendency to have negative emotions, independent of the situation (Watson, Clark, & Harkness, 1994). This is correlated to job dissatisfaction because if people feel negative overall, they will be negative about their job as well (Spector, 1997). Abraham (2000), reviewed personality on the basis of cynicism towards an organization. It was found that personality cynicism was the best predictor of job satisfaction, because it explains more than half of the variance in job satisfaction.

## **SECTION 7: CONCEPTUAL MODEL DEPICTING THE EFFECT OF PERSONALITY ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN QUALITY OF WORK LIFE AND EMPLOYEE JOB SATISFACTION**

A dominant theme of much of the QWL research is the assumption that an individual's satisfaction or dissatisfaction experiences is influenced by the quality of his/her work life. Quality of work life programs, to the extent that they enhance employee participation, involvement and responsibility, should be associated with such affective outcomes as increased job satisfaction and commitment to the organization. Despite a lot of studies being done on quality of work life, personality and job satisfaction, there are no study found which investigate the effect personality has on moderating the perception quality of work life and job satisfaction. Studies from literature review have found that there is a relationship between quality of work life and job satisfaction.

Extensive research proved that job satisfaction does not happen in isolation, as it is dependent on organisational variables such as structure, size, pay, working conditions and leadership, which constitute organisational climate (Schneider & Snyder, 1975; Hellriegel & Slocum, 1974; Kerego & Mthupha, 1997; Peterson, 1995; Boeyens, 1985). Organisational climate and organisational culture (although much more difficult to change) can be promoted to facilitate the achievement of job satisfaction and organisational goals. The measurement of climate and culture can serve as a starting point in diagnosing and influencing such change in the organisation.

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Research on quality of work life suggests that job satisfaction is closely related to work quality (Wooden & Warren 2003; Bearfield 2003; Bowling et al., 2004). It has been established that job satisfaction exhibit strong associations in expected directions with measures of a large number of work attributes, which include diverse aspects of work contents (as variety, task significance and skill use), pay and other benefits, job security, promotion opportunities, recognition, work conditions, relations with coworkers and supervisors, effective communication structures in the firms, and participation in managerial decision making

## **SECTION 7: CONCEPTUAL MODEL DEPICTING THE EFFECT OF PERSONALITY ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN QUALITY OF WORK LIFE AND EMPLOYEE JOB SATISFACTION**

A dominant theme of much of the QWL research is the assumption that an individual's satisfaction or dissatisfaction experiences is influenced by the quality of his/her work life. Quality of work life programs, to the extent that they enhance employee participation, involvement and responsibility, should be associated with such affective outcomes as increased job satisfaction and commitment to the organization. Despite a lot of studies being done on quality of work life, personality and job satisfaction, there are no study found which investigate the effect personality has on moderating the perception quality of work life and job satisfaction. Studies from literature review have found that there is a relationship between quality of work life and job satisfaction.

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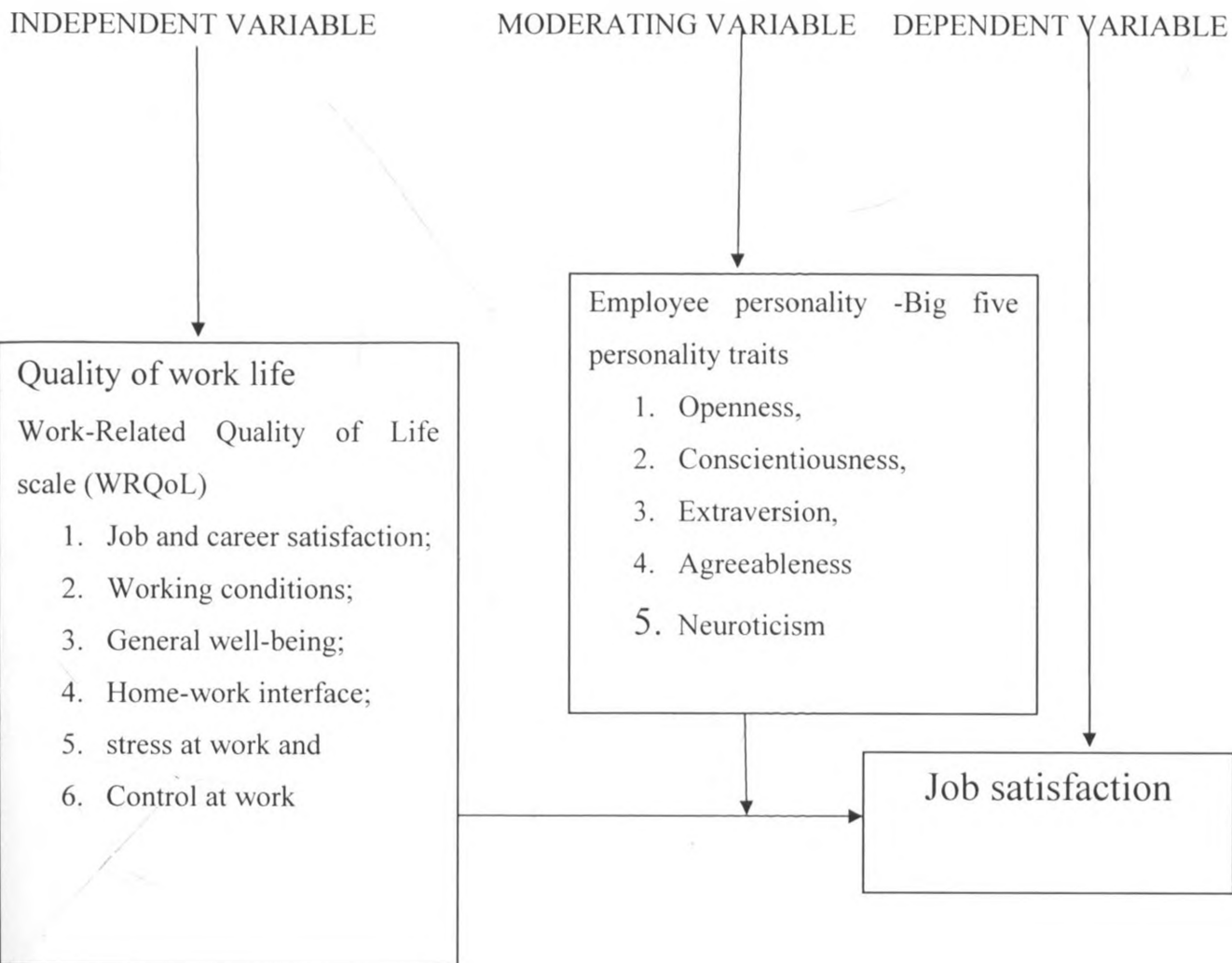
Studies have established a link between certain quality of work life practices and job satisfaction (Cappelli, 1996; Huselid, 1995), but the findings are contradictory regarding quality factors in working life. The same practices might in some cases both improve and detract from the QWL (Antila and Ylöstalo, 2002; Kumaret al., 2000; Rintala, 2005). Rintala's (2005) study, focusing on the information sector, found inconsistencies in the QWL related to work autonomy, variety of work assignments, skills demands and learning situations. Antila and Ylöstalo (2002) also found in their study of both proactive and traditional companies that proactive work based on influence opportunities and greater responsibility could be "tough and enjoyable" at one and the same time. The question is that, could these differences be because of personality difference? Ramstad (2009) study found that the practices linked with improvements in both performance and QWL were teamwork, leadership, working capacity and coping, pay, development for ageing workers, quality work, customer service and matters related to external networking

Other studies have shown that there is a relationship between personality and job satisfaction. Ayan, and kocacik ( 2010) found that job satisfaction showed significant differences in terms of characteristics of liking competence, being ambitious in the social area and occupation, getting angry easily, and hiding their feelings. Scheider and Dachler (1978) found that, over time, satisfaction with a job remains unusually stable, which made them believe that it was people's personality that was due to the satisfaction with their job, rather than other variables. Some personality factors could have more effect on job satisfaction than others. Spector ( 1997) asserts that there are many different personality factors that have been correlated to job satisfaction, but overall, there seem to be two traits that have significant correlations: locus of control and negative affectivity

Variable influencing individual behaviour are the person and the environment. The person in this case includes include skills & abilities, personality, perception, attribution, attitudes, values, ethics. The environment includes quality of work life in form of the organization, work group, job and personal life. Personality has an extremely important effect on perception and evaluation of the work and environment of the

individual, because behaviors of the individual are formed as a consequence of the continuous interaction between the environment s/he lives in and other individuals in the environment (Ayan, and kocacik, 2010). While the personality of the individual is affected from his/her environment, the individual in turn affects this environment through his/her personality (Özkalp; 2001: 84-85). In other words compliance of the personality structures with the work is an important factor affecting the job satisfaction. Skills related to job can be acquired, and competency can be improved. Studies analyzing the influence of the personality structures of employees on job satisfaction have shown that individuals with high levels of satisfaction have more flexible and determined personalities and those unsatisfied with their jobs are individuals who are not realistic when selecting their goals, unable to cope with the environmental difficulties and have rigid personality structures (Jackson, 2006: 189; Mount et.al., 2006: 595; Chiu et.al, 1997: 72; Loveland et.al, 2005: 245-246; Lim et.al, 1998: 339).

Our personality influences our readiness to perform in certain ways. It makes us naturally aware or unaware of certain aspects of our life space. It influences how we interpret the various happenings in our daily lives. And, personality affects how we respond to environmental stimuli, biasing our perceptions such that we selectively attend to some things and not others. And again, environmental and social circumstances interact with our personality traits to enhance, neutralize, or inhibit them (Geller, 2004). It is generally agreed that our personality influences our perception of the environment and hence the way we organize knowledge around us (Barat, 2007). Having seen that personality affects the way we see the environment and hence our behaviour there is little literature which show the moderating effect of quality of work life which represents the environment in this case and job satisfaction as shown in the conceptual model below



**Figure 1: A conceptual model depicting the effect of personality on the relationship between quality of work life and employee job satisfaction**

Source: Author



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