

A STUDY OF JOB AND LIFE SATISFACTION
IN THREE EMPLOYMENT GROUPS

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IN THREE EMPLOYMENT GROUPS

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I. INTRODUCTION

The systematic investigation of employee attitudes is a relatively recent development in American business and industry. Some work in this area was done in the early 1920's by Houser and his associates, but little active interest by employers was evident until early in World War II. Following the impetus brought on by war time conditions, employee attitude surveys have flourished to the point that they are now used, in one form or another, by practically every industry.

However, a suitable definition of job satisfaction becomes conspicuous by its absence in much of the literature in this field. In many studies it is not defined at all, and in some only a hazy definitive idea can be gleaned. Nevertheless, for the purposes of this study, we will draw a distinction between the terms "employee attitude", "job satisfaction", and "industrial morale". These terms are not synonymous. An attitude of an employee can be considered to be a readiness to act in one way rather than another in connection with specific factors related to a job. Industrial morale, on the other hand, is the possession of a feeling, on the part of the employee, of being accepted by and belonging to a group of employees through adherence to common goals and confidence in the desirability of these goals.

Job satisfaction can be defined as any combination of factors which cause an employee to truthfully say he is satisfied with his job. This would imply that his job is such that it meets his employment needs and

wants to a great enough degree that he is relatively happy with it.

Industry became concerned about this concept when it was suggested that an employee's satisfaction with his job could be related to such important goals of management as productivity, turnover, absenteeism, accidents, and many others. If job satisfaction could be related significantly to these important items, management would possibly have another avenue in its attempts to meet its goals.

The problem then arose of how to determine something as nebulous as the degree of employee satisfaction. The method used to study this depends on the person doing the research, the type of information sought, and the information already available. The following five methods are in general use today:

- a. Personal interviews
- b. First hand observations of the workers behavior on and off the job
- c. Reports by supervisors, personnel counselors, and union representatives
- d. Statistical records dealing with labor turnover, absenteeism, labor disputes, grievances, and production indices
- e. Questionnaires

These methods are used singularly and in combination, but it is fairly well conceded by most investigators that, although they are the best tools we have at the present time, they are still crude and insufficient.

To add to the difficulty of investigation, in this area we have other problems such as time to do the studies, unbiased sampling, and securing truthful responses. The latter problem is one of the greatest due to the fact that many employees feel threatened by anything manage-

ment initiates which would possibly put them in a poor light.

Until 1948 the emphasis in job satisfaction researches had been on the emotional life of the individual employee in relation to his job satisfaction. By 1949 the emphasis had shifted toward the methodology and the construction of the instruments used to measure job satisfaction. With this orientation in mind, Hoppock and Robinson (1950) report thirteen percentages of job satisfaction from two studies. The range of dissatisfaction was from 5% to 28% with a median of 15% dissatisfied with their jobs.

By 1951 many researchers appear to have accepted the thesis that such factors as job security, wages, physical working conditions, and the like are associated with job satisfaction but not causes of it in themselves. Therefore the researchers began probing for the causes of individual and group job satisfaction. From this point of view Robinson (1952), in reviewing seven studies, reports that the incidence of job dissatisfaction in the thirty groups observed ranged from 1% to 42% with a median of 5%.

With the coming of 1955 we find another shift in emphasis. Factors which were thought to have been related to the concept of job satisfaction such as supervision, age, and education were given more research attention. Also, many investigators became more concerned with the validation of the techniques used to measure job satisfaction. In nine studies of dissatisfaction in industry, Robinson (1956) reports 42 percentages. The frequency of dissatisfied employees ranged from 1% to 47% with a median of 14%.

In another study Robinson (1956) reports 355 percentages from research conducted over a twenty-two year period. The range of dissatis-

faction was from 1% to 92% with a median of 12%.

Handyside (1953) issued a job satisfaction questionnaire to each of 1,250 employees of a firm manufacturing household products. All grades of workers were used and 64% responded. On the overall job satisfaction scale he found the following results:

	<u>Women</u>	<u>Men</u>
Happy	24%	31%
Moderate	64%	49%
Not Happy	<u>12%</u>	<u>20%</u>
	N-530	N-278

Van Zelst and Kerr (1953) studied 304 subjects from 14 firms in 11 states. They found 20% to be extremely well satisfied; 35% to be more satisfied than dissatisfied; 21% who were neither particularly satisfied or dissatisfied; 14% were more dissatisfied than satisfied; and 10% were extremely dissatisfied.

Kessler (1954) initiated a study to determine the nature and extent of differences in a group of rehabilitated veterans who were satisfied with their jobs and a group which was not satisfied. His criteria of satisfaction were three fold. He used subjective responses by subjects, investigators findings in interviews, and records from the Veteran's Administration. A questionnaire was sent to 1,078 employees of which 477 responded. He found 73.8% to be satisfied and 26.2% to be dissatisfied.

Wrenn (1934) studied the job satisfaction of college graduates engaged in many occupations. He found 19% of his total number of subjects to be dissatisfied, but 52% of those working in clerical occupations were dissatisfied.

Patterson and Stone (1942) report similar results for clerical

workers. In a study of two groups, one numbering 117 and the other 102, the percentages satisfied were 50 and 55 respectively.

In a study by Nahm (1948) of 428 nurses, the mean satisfaction score was found to be 21.8.

We can see from these studies that in general a large percentage of workers are satisfied with their jobs. However, it should be recognized that a substantial group of individuals do report dissatisfaction with their jobs thus indicating the need for research into this problem. Nevertheless, if this dissatisfaction cannot be related to some goal or goals of management, then management probably will not consider it a problem. Therefore, an attempt has been made by many researchers to relate job satisfaction to various aspects of the job situation with which management is concerned. In the following group of studies the researchers have attempted to relate measures of job satisfaction to performance data.

The classic study relating employee attitudes and performance in the industrial situation was done by Kornhauser and Sharp (1932)⁽⁶⁾ in 1930, in a Kimberly-Clark Corporation mill in Neenah, Wisconsin. Between two and three hundred people who were engaged in routine, repetitive machine jobs were used as subjects. Both the questionnaire and the interview methods were used to obtain data. The questionnaires covered a wide range of specific attitudes toward supervisors, repetitiveness, speed of work, personnel policies, wages, and other job factors. It was found that efficiency ratings showed no relationship to worker attitudes.

Gadel (1953)⁽²¹⁾ investigated performance, satisfaction, and turnover of a group of women aged 23-65 who were employed as part-time clerical workers. He found that they performed as satisfactorily (measured by

supervisor ratings, comparative ranks, and production records) as younger full time employees placed on the same type of work. Also they had considerably higher job satisfaction and lower turnover rate. It can be seen that although they had a much higher degree of satisfaction they performed only "as satisfactorily" as the full time employees.

Weschler, Kahane, and Tannenbaum ⁽²²⁾ (1952) found a slightly negative relationship between a single-item index of job satisfaction and production among employees in two comparable groups of a naval research laboratory.

Gadel and Kriedt ⁽²⁰⁾ (1952) administered a ten-item job satisfaction questionnaire, which was designed to cover a variety of attitudes related to work duties, to 193 male IBM operators working in machine rooms of several divisions of the Prudential Insurance Company home office. The criterion of productivity consisted of rank-order ratings on overall job performance made by the employee's immediate supervisor. The ratings were converted to standard scores, correlations were computed for each of the groups, and resulting correlations were averaged using the Fisher Z transformation. The relationship between job satisfaction and performance was .08.

In 1947, Habbe ⁽²³⁾ mailed a questionnaire to 9,353 insurance agents. Of these, 75% were returned and 90% of those returned were usable. The questionnaire contained questions asking about single phases of the job to be answered by one of five alternatives indicating satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The group was divided into high and low producers and no significant relationship was found to exist between job satisfaction and production.

Giese and Ruter ⁽²⁾ (1949) conducted a study which had as its aim to

devise a method for predicting from objective data the morale of departments in a company. They had three average measures of efficiency and one average measure of morale for each of 25 departments. When correlations between efficiency and morale scores based on group averages were computed they ranged between .15 - .27. None of these were significant.

In 1953 Brayfield and Crockett (1955) studied measured characteristics of 50 farmers enrolled four hours per week in a veteran's on the job training program. The subject's performance as farmers was ranked by their instructors and reranked after several months. The correlation of these rankings was .86. The correlation between job satisfaction and performance ratings was .115 which was not significant. This same scale was used in 1953 by Roger Bellows with 109 Air Force control tower operators. The correlation with individual proficiency ratings was .005.

Now let us look at two studies which present somewhat different results. Baxter (1953) administered a comprehensive job satisfaction attitude questionnaire to 223 insurance agents. The criteria of productivity were supervisor ratings on a five-point, nine-item graphic rating scale, and sales volume figures for each agent for his first year. The correlation between supervisor ratings and job satisfaction was .23 which is significant at the 1% level. The correlation between job satisfaction and sales volume was .26 which is also significant at the 1% level.

Chase (1951) purports to find a small positive relationship between supervisor ratings or productivity and teacher satisfaction.

It can be seen from the studies thus reviewed that the popular idea that if a person is satisfied and happy with his job he will be a better producer is not borne out. Evidently people tend to produce for reasons

other than their satisfaction with their jobs. There are many factors that could explain this. One of these might be the degree of pride a person takes in his work. In other words, a person may produce in a greater or lesser degree depending partially upon how important a need he has for doing a good job. Another factor influencing productivity in many jobs is the piece-work incentive plan. The same principle works on sales jobs where a commission is involved. Since in these incidences, the more a person produces the more he earns, it would be conceivable that an employee could be extremely dissatisfied with his job and still be a high producer. There are, of course, many hypotheses which could be advanced to explain why most studies report a low degree of relationship between job satisfaction and productivity.

With our increasing emphasis upon recruitment, placement, and training, turnover has become a major problem on the industrial scene. In addition to the training cost, there are the costs of recruitment, the increased waste of material, and the greater accident liability of the new employee. It can readily be seen that turnover can be a very costly thing to management and therefore a problem with which it is vitally concerned. A number of studies have attempted to relate turnover rate with measures of job satisfaction. For instance, Wickert (1957) investigated turnover and morale among several groups of young women employees of the Michigan Bell Telephone Company. There were almost 600 subjects. He administered a questionnaire with three main sections: the first sought biographical data to supplement that available from the job application form; the second contained about 60 "personality" items from which a neurotic tendency score could be obtained; and the third section was made up of questions designed to measure attitudes toward a variety of

aspects of the girls' jobs. He found that the girls who stayed on the job seemed more ego-involved with their jobs. He used turnover as the criteria of job satisfaction.

Weitz and Nuckols (1953) in an investigation of Ordinary Life insurance agents indicated that certain attitudes about their jobs which were held by agents are significantly related to the criterion of survival-termination.

Giese and Ruter (1949), in an industrial plant study involving twenty-five departments, found that morale scores correlated - .42 with a turnover criterion. This finding, although surprising in the light of the other evidence, is significant at the 5% level.

Kerr (1952) found the relationship between his Tear Ballot scores and turnover in 30 departments to be - .13, which is not significant.

Weitz and Nuckols (1953) mailed two attitude questionnaires, one composed of 18 indirect items and one consisting of ten direct questions, to 1,200 insurance agents. Of them, 47% responded. The total scores for each questionnaire were then related to survival during a one year period. The direct questions correlated .20 with the criterion and this is significant at the 1% level. The indirect questions correlated insignificantly with survival. There may, however, be a sample bias resulting from the fact that responses were obtained from a disproportionately small number of men who subsequently terminated.

These findings lead to the conclusion that there does seem to be a significant relationship between job satisfaction and turnover. This is not surprising when we consider that the reason given for leaving one job and going to another is almost always related to some dissatisfaction with the present job situation.

Absenteeism, like production and turnover, represents a major point of interest to industrial management. In fact, Young (1950) relates absenteeism with turnover. He reports a very high correlation between labor turnover and absenteeism. He states that if absenteeism commences in a particular section of a plant it is often a forerunner of increased turnover. If this be true then the problem of absenteeism becomes doubly important.

Kornhauser and Sharp (1932) found unfavorableness of job attitudes to be slightly correlated with lost time because of sickness.

Van Zelat and Kerr (1953) studied 304 employees selected by employers in 14 firms. The employee furnished a self report of his absences and tardinesses. Two Hoppock-type job satisfaction items were combined to give a simple index. Job satisfaction correlated .31 with absentee records and .26 with tardiness records. Both of these correlations are significant at the 1% level of significance.

Metzner and Mann (1953) used questionnaires to collect data in the Detroit Edison Company. The subjects were white-collar and blue-collar men and white-collar women. They found no relationship between absences and attitudes toward any aspect of the work situation for the white-collar women. Among the white-collar men, 10 out of 15 attitudinal measures showed significant relationships at the 10% level or better; 6 at the 5% level or better.

Giese and Ruter (1949) found a correlation of $-.47$ between a morale index and absences and this was significant at the 5% level.

The general consensus again seems to indicate a relationship. This time it is between absenteeism and job satisfaction. It would appear then that job satisfaction is linked to some of the goals of management.

The question then arises as to what causes job satisfaction. The causes of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction are legion. Henle (1952) has listed three groups of factors which influence job satisfaction.

These are as follows:

Factors within the individual employee which include his ability, his age, health, intelligence, temperament, desires, and expectations.

Factors concerned with the employee's life outside the job situation which include home conditions, personal problems, financial status, group influence, labor union activity, social activities, and political and economic conditions.

Factors concerned with the employee's relations with management which include such things as employment security, opportunity for advancement, opportunity to demonstrate and use ability, opportunity for participation in decisions, recognition and fair evaluation of work, personality of supervisory personnel and methods of supervision, social relations on the job, type of work performed, company labor policy, wages, work shifts, work conditions, work pace, layoff and discharge, and safety practices.

Baehr (1954) did two separate factor analysis of attitudes toward the job and organization in order to identify some of the basic components of the work situation which affect employee morale. These were done on separate groups. The first was made up largely of junior executives, private secretaries, and stenographers. The second group was made up of

factory workers and routine clerical workers. The factors found to be common to both of these groups were believed to represent what the general population of industrial employees regard as essential components of the work situation. He found the following four factors common to both groups:

- a. Integration in the organization; that is, the employee's interest and pride in the company. This seems to be linked with appreciation of good up and down the line communication or the belief that management has integrity and concern for employee welfare.
- b. Job satisfaction; that is, the intrinsic satisfactions associated with actually doing the job and with belief that the job affords opportunity for personal growth and advancement in the organization.
- c. Immediate supervision
- d. Friendliness and cooperation of fellow employees

Pelz (1949) sought to discover what relationships exist between supervisor's attitudes and practices, and the satisfactions or dissatisfactions of employees working directly under these supervisors. He studied over 8,000 non-supervisory employees and their 750 immediate supervisors who worked in a large public utility. He distributed a self-administering, multiple choice questionnaire to obtain attitudes and perceptions regarding 128 aspects of the work situation. Also he held personal interviews with all of the first-line supervisors, and the verbatim transcripts of these interviews were coded into 95 measures. With these methods he hoped to demonstrate the relationships between employee satisfaction and the following supervisory variables:

- a. The degree to which the supervisor is concerned with the employees as individuals or as depersonalized

workers

- b. The type of recognition the supervisor gives for good work
- c. The degree to which the supervisor encourages employee participation in decision making
- d. The degree to which the supervisor takes sides with employees or management when conflicts arise
- e. The degree of social closeness or separation between supervisor and employee
- f. The supervisor's own satisfaction or dissatisfaction with his wages, promotional opportunities, supervisors, and other aspects of his job

He was unable to report conclusive results from this study.

Robinson ⁽¹²⁾ (1956) reports some work by Hersey with workers in the United States and Germany covering a period of 27 years. He approached vocational adjustment from physiological, psychological, and sociological viewpoints and placed much stress on an individual approach to employee relations. He concluded that no single factor is more important than the supervision in relation to stimulating a persistent zeal for work - or destroying it. Also he believed the influence of the supervisor reaches even into the private life of the employee.

We can conclude from these findings that studies are inconclusive concerning the role of supervision in job satisfaction.

As was noted, many factors connected with the individual are believed to be related to his satisfaction with his job. It has long been believed that an employee's vocational interests and his mental ability are influencers or determiners of his satisfaction with his job.

During a 12 month period several thousand civilian Ordnance employees in many installations throughout the United States completed a questionnaire on various aspects of supervision (Vollmer, 1953). The results showed that relatively more college trained workers in every age group report dissatisfaction than the high school group and that more high school trained employees report dissatisfaction than the grammar school group.

Robinson (1956) reports work by Bullock on this subject. He mailed questionnaires to 701 clients who had completed testing and counseling programs at least one year previous to the mailing. There were 378 responses received. They were asked to rate their job satisfaction on a five point scale. The results of the 224 subjects who did it are as follows:

	<u>Number</u>	<u>Per cent</u>
Best possible job for you	39	17
Like it very much	75	34
Like it fairly well	62	28
Indifferent to it	30	13
Dislike it	18	8

Of these there were only 108 who stated their occupations and for whom adequate measures of interest and mental ability were available. He found a tendency for respondents with the greatest job satisfaction to have occupational interests which would be classified as "suitable" in terms of the assumptions on which the Kuder Preference Record is based. Correspondingly, clients reporting job indifference or dislike tended to have interests which would be considered "unsuitable". The Minnesota Occupational Rating Scales were used as a criterion of appropriateness

of clients mental ability for their jobs. Of them, 44% had levels of mental ability which would be considered "suitable". There was a slight positive relationship between satisfaction and mental ability, but in general it was not significant.

Moore (1949) concludes from his studies that a considerable number of employee dissatisfactions have their roots in the fact that the employees are holding down jobs to which they are intellectually superior. These dissatisfactions display themselves in a number of ways such as a careless attitude, complaints about supervision, the habit of getting into sidelines and diversions, and instability.

Kates (1950) investigated the vocational interests, Rorschach responses, and job satisfaction of 100 men employed in routine clerical work by the Federal government. He investigated the following four hypotheses:

- a. The job satisfaction of routine office clerks bears a significant positive relationship to the possession of interests similar to those of the successful office workers as measured by the Strong Vocational Interest blank. His findings failed to support this.
- b. The job satisfaction of routine clerks is not associated with the number of Rorschach signs of maladjustment. His findings confirmed this.
- c. The work dissatisfaction of routine clerks who possess the interests of successful office workers is not related to the number of Rorschach signs of maladjustment. This was confirmed.
- d. Certain Rorschach responses shown in the records of these clerks are significantly associated with the possession of vocational interests held by successful office workers. This hypothesis was

supported.

Rose (1951) interviewed 200 Negro workers to investigate the influence of age and length of service on job satisfaction. He found that workers with less than three months seniority were highly satisfied. Of the workers who had two or more years of seniority he found one group who were highly satisfied, but one group that had much anxiety about the possibilities for moving up in the industrial hierarchy.

Super (1959) indicates a cyclical relationship of age and job satisfaction rather than a direct one. He found higher percentages of satisfaction in groups aged 20-24, 35-44, 55-64 years. He found lower percentages in ages 25-34 and 45-54 years.

Bernburg (1954) studied this field of the relationship between age and job satisfaction. In doing so he controlled the variable of length of service by the analysis of covariance method. His subjects were 890 hour-paid employees of an aircraft plant in southern California. He concluded that the "older worker" appears to provide a desirable aspect of stability and morale even when he is not an "old employee" in terms of years with the company.

Kolstad (1958) reports evidence that the relationship between length of service and morale is similar to that of age and morale - a cyclical relationship. He found higher job satisfaction scores with groups with less than one year and more than five years service.

Harris (1949) found somewhat conflicting results. Employees with less than six months of service had low satisfaction scores and those with more than ten years had high satisfaction scores.

Another aspect of the study of job satisfaction that appears to be worth consideration is its relationship to a person's satisfaction with

his life in general. Taking as a premise the concept that man is an organism which is seeking to adjust to the environment as a whole and not merely to isolated segments, it is easy to conceive of a relationship between satisfaction with life and satisfaction with the job. It would appear unrealistic to conceive a person as being completely satisfied with his life and completely dissatisfied with his job or completely satisfied with the job and dissatisfied with life. If this relationship does not exist it would mean that man is able to compartmentalize his life to a great enough extent to shut out the effects of one upon the other, and this does not seem feasible.

With this concept in mind, Weitz (1952) studied this problem in a group of life insurance agents. He believed that a worker's stated sources of job dissatisfaction are more meaningful if we get some idea about how generally dissatisfied he is with his everyday life. In other words, those who have high general dissatisfaction scores and a large number of job dissatisfaction scores are less likely to leave the job than those who have low general dissatisfaction scores and a large number of job dissatisfactions. He administered job and general satisfaction questionnaires to 168 life insurance agents. On the general satisfaction test he found the split-half reliability, when corrected by the Spearman-Brown Prophecy formula, to be .75. When the number of general dissatisfactions was correlated with the number of job dissatisfactions he obtained a correlation of .39. He concluded that there seemed to be a common element in the general satisfaction test and that there is some relationship with job satisfaction.

In summarizing these studies we may draw several conclusions. First it would appear that this is an area of interest to industry. This is

expressed by the large amount of research that has already been done in the field and by the fact that job satisfaction can be related, although somewhat weakly, to many of the goals of management. Secondly, we see that the popular idea that if a person is satisfied and happy with his job he will be a better producer is not born out. However, there is some indication that job satisfaction is related to absenteeism and turnover. An thirdly, there appears to be a slight positive relationship between how satisfied a person is with his job and his supervision, interests, mental ability, age, length of service, and his general satisfaction with life.

II. THE PROBLEM

In spite of the great amount of research that has been carried out in order to investigate job satisfaction, very little has been done to study the relationship between job satisfaction and a person's general satisfaction with his life. Motivation to extend this area of investigation stems from the commonly held notion that many of the goals of management are dependent on the level of satisfaction employees have with their job. It is felt, however, by Weitz and this investigator that the significance of the concept of job satisfaction must be evaluated within the context of the individual's general adjustment or satisfaction with life. This assumption is based on the theory that a person tends not to completely compartmentalize the several areas of his life and that a general concept of social-life adjustment significantly relates to more specific areas of adjustment. Therefore, it is felt that this is a neglected, but important area of job satisfaction research. For this reason the relationship of job satisfaction to general life satisfaction will be one of the problems investigated by this study.

Another problem to be studied will be the relationship of the place a person works to job satisfaction. In other words, is the place a person works a factor in job satisfaction or is the degree of satisfaction with the job an individual thing, regardless of where he works.

Three more commonly studied variables also merit some consideration in this study. They are age, length of time on the job, and amount of

education.

The problems, then, of this present study are to determine the relationship of job satisfaction to general life satisfaction, place of work, age, length of time on the job, and amount of education. In addition, the relationship of life satisfaction to place of work, age, education, and length of time on the job will also be studied.

The following null hypotheses will be advanced:

1. There is no significant relationship between job satisfaction and general life satisfaction.
2. There is no significant difference in the degree of job satisfaction between the three employment groups studied.
3. There is no significant difference in the degree of life satisfaction between the three employment groups studied.
4. There is no significant relationship between age and job satisfaction.
5. There is no significant relationship between age and life satisfaction.
6. There is no significant relationship between length of time on the job and job satisfaction.
7. There is no significant relationship between length of time on the job and life satisfaction.
8. There is no significant relationship between amount of education and job satisfaction.
9. There is no significant relationship between amount of education and life satisfaction.

III. EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE

A. General Methodology

The general procedure was to study the relevance of the independent variables of life satisfaction, place of work, length of time on the job, age, and education to the dependent variable of job satisfaction.

B. Subjects

One hundred and fifty subjects from three separate occupational groups were chosen as subjects. Sixty of these were male, white-collar workers from an industrial firm which manufactures electrical equipment. These subjects work at such jobs as production control, personnel, benefits, wage practices, accounting, and engineering. The next group was composed of sixty white-collar workers selected from a branch of local government. These subjects work at such jobs as juvenile court counselors, sheriff's office, auditors, clerks, and assessors. The last thirty subjects were male skilled tradesmen selected from a local labor union. These subjects are employed in the construction industry.

These groups were selected first, because they represent three large, separate segments of the labor market, and second because they fall generally within the same range of salary. In each group the subjects were chosen randomly from both first line supervision and line jobs. Also, they were selected from various departments and types of work in an attempt to get a truly random sample. Permission to conduct

the study in each group was secured from the department heads in each department and from the union business agent and officials. Each subject was made to understand that his participation in this study was strictly voluntary and that no attempt would be made to identify any individual or even the department he worked in. Only the three employment groups were kept separate and identified.

C. Measuring Instruments

Two questionnaires were administered to all the subjects. The first one was designed to measure the degree of job satisfaction and the other to determine how satisfied the subject was with his life in general.

The measure of job satisfaction was an eighteen item questionnaire developed by Brayfield and Rothe (1951). It was designed with the assumption that job satisfaction could be inferred from the attitudes individuals express about their jobs.

Brayfield and Rothe (1951) administered this questionnaire to two hundred and thirty-one employed female office workers and found the range of job satisfaction scores to be from 35 to 87, with a mean of 63.8, and a standard deviation of 9.4. The odd-even product-moment reliability coefficient was .77, which when corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula was .87. This would tend to indicate a sufficient degree of reliability.

The nature of the items is partial, although not crucial, evidence for the validity of the questionnaire. Additional evidence was furnished by the method of constructing the scale. An attitude variable was specified. This was job satisfaction which was to be inferred from verbal reactions to a job expressed along a favorable-unfavorable continuum. The statements used had small Q values which indicate a marked

consistency among the judges. (See Appendix B).

The questionnaire used to evaluate the degree of satisfaction with life was a modified version of one which was developed by Weitz (1952). He reported a split-half reliability corrected by the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula of .75. Again the nature of the items is looked to as an expression of validity. A 40 item scale was used in this study rather than the 44 item scale used by Weitz, and some original items were substituted for those of Weitz where it appeared advisable. (See Appendix C).

D. Administration of Scales and Treatment of Data

The questionnaires were given to the subjects individually and they were asked to complete and return them. Written instructions were included and the subjects were instructed, both in writing and verbally, that there would be no attempt to identify any individual or department. The only identification was of the broad, general occupational groups. The subjects were also asked to state on the front of the questionnaire their age, education, and length of time on the job. No specific time limit was given for completion of the questionnaires, but a central location was designated for their return.

The relationship of job satisfaction to life satisfaction, age, education, and length of time on the job were treated with Pearson's product-moment coefficient of correlation. Likewise, the relationship of life satisfaction to age, education, and length of time on the job were treated in the same manner.

To study the relationship of the variable of where a person works to job and life satisfaction t-tests were computed. Finally, to ascer-

tain the reliability of the two instruments used in this study, an odd-even product-moment reliability coefficient was computed for each questionnaire.

IV. RESULTS

The method of concomitant variation was employed as the experimental design to study the relationship of job satisfaction and life satisfaction to each other and to age, education, length of time on the job and place of work. A fair degree of cooperation was obtained from each group, with the union being more resistant to the study than either of the other two groups. They returned only 50% of the questionnaires given to them and it took numerous contacts and a great deal of explanation to obtain these. Of the questionnaires they returned they had the highest percentage of partially completed and unusable ones. It was also very difficult to obtain the permission of higher management to conduct the study in the industrial firm, but once this was granted, the subjects were cooperative. They returned 90% of the questionnaires and all of them were usable. The management of the governmental group was more cooperative than the management of either of the other two groups, but only 65% of the questionnaires were returned. Of these, 95% of them were usable.

In the union the mean job satisfaction score was 65.47 with a standard deviation of 8.11. The mean life satisfaction score was 131.93 with a standard deviation of 10.32. The mean age of this group was 47.52 years and the mean education was 9.97 years. The average worker had been working in the construction business for 21.8 years. When the Pearson r 's were computed for the union group it was found that job satisfaction

correlated .108 with life satisfaction; .075 with age; and .092 with length of time on the job. Life satisfaction correlated .18 with age; -.053 with education; and .36 with length of time on the job. The only significant coefficient in this group was the one measuring the relationship of life satisfaction to length of time on the job. This was significant at the .01 level of probability. This correlation is high enough for the conclusion to be drawn that a relationship does exist between these two factors in this study.

In the governmental group the mean job satisfaction score was 74.50 with a standard deviation of 11.85. The mean life satisfaction score was 140.57 with a standard deviation of 20.55. The average age of this group was 49.49 years and the average amount of education was 12.9 years. The average subject in this group had been at his job 11.85 years. Job satisfaction correlated .171 with life satisfaction; -.044 with age; .107 with education; and .042 with length of time on the job. Life satisfaction in this group correlated .087 with age; .0001 with education; and .029 with length of time on the job. None of these coefficients of correlation are significant at the .05 probability level.

In the industrial group the mean job satisfaction score was 64.17 with a standard deviation of 16.74. The mean life satisfaction score was 135.36 with a standard deviation of 13.33. The average age in this group was 29.78 and the average education was 15.69 years. The average length of service was 3.22 years. It was found that job satisfaction correlated .048 with life satisfaction; .151 with age; .011 with education; and .16 with length of time on the job. Life satisfaction correlates -.044 with age; -.25 with education; and .002 with length of time on the job. The only one of these coefficients of correlation which is

significant enough to consider is the one indicating the relationship between life satisfaction and education. This is significant at the .05 probability level and is negative which indicates that in this group the more education the subjects had the less satisfied they were with their lives in general.

As can be seen from the above results, there was very little significant correlation between any of the variables in any of the groups. In the union only life satisfaction, in relation to length of time on the job, correlated significantly. The governmental group had no significant correlations and the industrial group only had one. This, like in the union, is concerned with life satisfaction but in this case it is correlated with education.

Somewhat more significant results were found when dealing with the relationship of the variable of where a person works to job and life satisfaction. T-tests were computed to compare each combination of employment groups in their relationship to both job and life satisfaction. The t-value for the union and industrial group on the variable of job satisfaction was .58 and on life satisfaction was 1.56. Neither of these are significant. The t-values for the union and the governmental group on the variable of job satisfaction was 4.83 and on life satisfaction was 2.88. Both of these scores are significant at the .01 probability level indicating a significant difference in the amount of job and life satisfaction expressed by these two groups. In other words, the governmental subjects were more satisfied not only with their jobs but also with their lives in general than were the union subjects.

When the industrial and the governmental groups were compared in

this manner on these variables, it was found that they had a t-value of 3.85 on job satisfaction and a t-value of .163 on life satisfaction. The t-value on job satisfaction is significant at the .01 probability level but the life satisfaction score is not significant.

It can be seen from these findings that the governmental subjects are significantly more satisfied with their jobs than either the group from industry or from the union. Also the governmental group is significantly more satisfied with life than the union group, but the difference is not significant when compared with the industrial group.

To ascertain the reliability of the measures of job and life satisfaction, odd-even product moment reliability coefficients were computed. It was found that the job satisfaction questionnaire had a reliability coefficient of .66 and that the life satisfaction questionnaire had a reliability coefficient of .56. Although both of these express a moderate correlation, neither is high enough to be acceptable when we are considering reliability.

TABLE 1

OBTAINED MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF EACH
VARIABLE IN EACH EMPLOYMENT GROUP

Employment Group	Job Satisfaction		Life Satisfaction		Age		Education		Length of Service	
	M	σ	M	σ	M	σ	M	σ	M	σ
Union	65.47	8.11	131.93	10.32	47.52	10.34	9.97	2.06	261.60	92.94
Government	74.50	11.85	140.57	20.55	49.49	19.99	12.90	3.10	142.28	175.84
Industry	64.17	16.74	135.36	13.33	29.78	8.21	15.69	1.47	38.68	90.48

TABLE 2

OBTAINED PEARSON COEFFICIENTS OF CORRELATIONS FOR
EACH VARIABLE IN EACH EMPLOYMENT GROUP

Employment Groups	Variables	Variables				
		Job Satisfaction	Life Satisfaction	Age	Education	Service
Union	Job		.108	.075	.075	.092
	Life	.108		.18	-.053	.36 **
Government	Job		.171	-.044	.107	.042
	Life	.171		.087	.0001	.029
Industry	Job		.048	.151	.011	.16
	Life	.048		-.043	-.25 *	.002

* Significant at the .05 level

** Significant at the .01 level

TABLE 3

T-TEST OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN JOB AND LIFE SATISFACTION
FOR THE THREE EMPLOYMENT GROUPS

Employment Groups	Job t-values	Life t-values
Union - Industry	.53	1.56
Union - Government	4.83**	2.88**
Industry - Government	3.87**	1.63

** Significant at the .01 level

V. DISCUSSION

The present investigation was concerned with the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction in three employment groups. In addition, the variables of age, education, length of time on the job, and place of employment were considered.

The statistical analysis of the results obtained from the present study indicated that the first null hypothesis that was advanced should be accepted. This stated that there is no significant relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. The lack of any relationship between these two variables was born out in each of the employment groups. This finding is surprising from the standpoint that the assumption was made earlier in this study that a person could not compartmentalize his life to the point that he could completely be satisfied with his job and completely dissatisfied with his life in general. However, since no relationship is indicated between these variables, it would appear that this is an erroneous assumption.

On the other hand, this finding is not surprising when we look at the studies of other investigators in this area. Weitz (1952), in his study of insurance agents, found only a .39 correlation between these two variables. This is a low correlation at best, and indicates a small degree of relationship. A possible explanation for this lack of demonstrated relationship is that people may use either their job or their life outside their job to compensate for the other. That is,

if a subject has a job that he is dissatisfied with he may do one of two things. He may find another job or, if this is impossible or impractical due to lack of employment opportunity in his field or other reasons, he may use his time outside the job in various activities that he enjoys in an attempt to compensate for his job-related unhappiness. This subject could very well indicate a satisfaction with his life and a dissatisfaction with his job. From the other point of view, a person may have difficulty at home and use his job as a compensation for this. Perhaps his job is the only place he can feel important, therefore, it is very likely that he could indicate job satisfaction and life dissatisfaction.

The t-values which were computed to determine the relationship of the place a person works to his job and life satisfaction were significant enough for the rejection of the second and third null hypotheses. The question that was asked in this portion of the present study was whether a subject's satisfaction with his life and his job were affected by the place he worked or were subjects satisfied and dissatisfied with their job and their life regardless of where they worked. The conclusion can be drawn from these results that it does make a difference where a person works to his job satisfaction and there is some indication that it also makes a difference to his life satisfaction.

The governmental subjects were a great deal more satisfied with their jobs and their lives than were the union or the industrial subjects. There is no significant difference in job or life satisfaction between the union and the industrial group. It is difficult to advance any theory as to the reason the governmental subjects were happier with their jobs and their lives than the subjects from the other two groups,

because there are undoubtedly inherent in this situation a complex of undefined and uncontrolled variables. It must suffice, then, to simply state that they were more satisfied on these two variables.

The statistical analysis of the results of this study force us to accept the remainder of the before advanced null hypotheses. Only in two isolated instances were there coefficients of correlation which were high enough to be considered significant at all. In the union, life satisfaction correlated significantly with the length of time a subject was on the job; and in the industrial group there was a significant negative correlation between life satisfaction and education. Due to the size and isolated nature of these correlations, no conclusions can be drawn beyond this present study.

It should be noted here that although the majority of the coefficients of correlation which are found in this study are extremely small, they do serve to confirm the results of most of the other studies in this field. As has already been pointed out, Weitz (1955) found a low correlation between job and life satisfaction. In studying the variable of age and length of service in their relationship to job satisfaction, we find such men as Rose (1951), Super (1939), Bernberg (1954), Kolstad (1938), and Harris (1939) reporting positive, but small correlations. Moore (1949) and others report small positive correlations between job satisfaction and intelligence. In an attempt to explain the reason for the large amount of relatively inconclusive research in this field, the following propositions are advanced:

1. There is need for greater defining and control of variables.

In any study of this nature there is such a complex of variables involved, that it is very difficult to ascertain the role each

plays in the total outcome.

2. One of the main problems lies in the measuring instruments.

Those thus far developed are rather crude and ineffective tools. Very little is done usually to determine the validity of the instrument other than to appeal to face validity. Also, the reliability coefficients of most of these measuring instruments are ordinarily low. The excuse is often given that since we do not have anything better than the instruments we are now using, we must use them. This is true, but it is felt by this researcher that more effort should be expended in the development of more sophisticated measuring instruments, if this type of research is to be continued.

It can be seen from this study and the survey of the literature that very little decisive material has been found in the field of job satisfaction research. In most of the studies thus far reported, including this one, the end result is the conclusion that there is an indication that certain variables are related and the decision that more research is needed before meaningful generalizations can be drawn.

VI. SUMMARY

1. An experiment was conducted in which the major variables of job satisfaction and life satisfaction were investigated to determine their relationship to each other and to the variables of age, education, length of time on the job, and place of work. There were 150 subjects from three separate employment groups used in this study. Of these 150 subjects, 30 of them were skilled tradesmen from a union involved in the building industry; 60 of them were white-collar male employees of a local branch of government; and 60 of them were white-collar male employees of a private industrial firm which manufactures electrical equipment. Two questionnaires were administered to each group. One was an 18-item job satisfaction inventory and one a 40-item inventory of a person's satisfaction with his life in general. Pearson product-moment coefficients of correlation were computed to study the relationship of job satisfaction to age, education, length of time on the job and life satisfaction; and life satisfaction to age, education, and length of time on the job. T-tests of differences were employed in comparing the three groups regarding the variables of job and life satisfaction.
2. No significant relationship was found between job and life satisfaction in any of the groups.
3. No significant relationship was found between age and job or life satisfaction in any of the groups.

4. No significant relationship was found between job satisfaction and length of time on the job in any of the groups.
5. No significant relationship was found between life satisfaction and length of time on the job in the industrial and governmental groups, but a significant relationship between these two variables at the .01 level of probability was found in the union group.
6. No significant relationship was found between job satisfaction and education in any of the groups.
7. No significant relationship was found between life satisfaction and education in the union and the governmental groups, but was significant at the .05 level of probability in the industrial group.
8. The most significant results of this present study were found in comparing the different employment groups on the variables of job and life satisfaction. The governmental subjects were significantly more satisfied with their jobs than were the other two groups and were significantly more satisfied with their lives than were the union subjects.
9. The conclusion was drawn that the field of job satisfaction research is in desperate need of more refined measuring instruments than it now has.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

INSTRUCTIONS

Some jobs are more interesting and satisfying than others. On the other hand, some people enjoy jobs that others would not enjoy at all. We are interested in finding out how you feel about your job and your life in general. The following pages contain two groups of statements that we would like you to read and to answer.

As you can see there is no way in which we can identify your paper after you have completed it. DO NOT PUT YOUR NAME ON THE QUESTIONNAIRE. WE DO NOT WANT TO IDENTIFY YOU, WE ARE MERELY INTERESTED IN HOW PEOPLE IN GENERAL ANSWER THESE QUESTIONS.

This study is being carried out by Oklahoma State University, and only a few people who are working on this study in Stillwater will see the completed questionnaires. After we are finished with them they will be destroyed. Therefore, feel free to answer these questions as accurately as you can. However, if you still feel that you would rather leave some or all of the questions blank, please do so.

Thank you for your cooperation.

APPENDIX B

ITEMS ON JOB SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Each S was asked to respond to the following items by placing a check in one of five columns headed: Strongly Agree; Agree; Undecided; Disagree; Strongly Disagree.

.

1. My job is like a hobby to me.
2. My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored.
3. It seems that my friends are more interested in their jobs than I am.
4. I consider my job rather unpleasant.
5. I enjoy my work more than my leisure time.
6. I am often bored with my job.
7. I am fairly well satisfied with my present job.
8. Most of the time I have to force myself to go to work.
9. I am satisfied with my job for the time being.
10. I feel that my job is no more interesting than others I could get.
11. I definitely dislike my work.
12. I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people.
13. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.
14. Each day of work seems like it will never end.
15. I like my job better than the average worker does.
16. My job is pretty interesting.
17. I find real enjoyment in my work.
18. I am disappointed that I ever took this job.

APPENDIX C

ITEMS ON LIFE SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Each S was asked to respond to the following items by placing a check in one of five columns headed: Very Satisfied; Satisfied; Neutral; Dissatisfied; Very Dissatisfied.

.

1. City in which you live.
2. House or apartment in which you live.
3. Area of the city in which you live.
4. Highschool you attended.
5. Climate where you live.
6. Movies being produced.
7. Local political situation.
8. National political situation.
9. Our foreign policy.
10. Food prices.
11. Todays automobiles.
12. Opportunities to get ahead.
13. Local newspapers.
14. Automobile prices.
15. Last suit you bought.
16. Amount of time you have for recreation.
17. The college you attended.
18. Your first name.
19. People you know.
20. Television programs.

21. Radio program.
22. Local speed limits.
23. The way people dress.
24. The way local traffic is handled.
25. Advertising methods.
26. The way you were raised.
27. Telephone service.
28. Income tax.
29. Public transportation.
30. General public attitude toward voting.
31. School your child is in.
32. Restaurant food.
33. Sales tax.
34. Women's clothing styles.
35. Yourself.
36. Popular music.
37. Movie censorship.
38. Today's books.
39. 8 1/2 by 11 paper.
40. Your wife.

VITA

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Thesis: A STUDY OF JOB SATISFACTION IN THREE EMPLOYMENT GROUPS

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