

Am I Wired to be Happy of My Job? Looking into the Dispositional Predictors of Job Satisfaction

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Abstract

Research on the dispositional approach to job satisfaction focuses on personality variables, core self-evaluations, and positive and negative affectivity. However, most of these studies used research-intended scales rather than standard measures of these innate characteristics. Moreover, such a body of work also neglects other inherent factors like cognitive and emotional intelligence. The current study investigated nine dispositional constructs: intelligence (cognitive and emotional), the Big Five personality traits, self-esteem, and their predictive effects on job satisfaction. Forty-three resort employees from a resort in Mactan, Cebu, Philippines, participated in the study. With the respondents' consent, the researcher accessed their psychological records (e.g., personality, IQ scores). They also completed an online survey that measured the other constructs of interests (i.e., EQ, self-esteem, and job satisfaction). As a result, the respondents reported being relatively more satisfied with intrinsic work characteristics (i.e., work satisfaction) than external ones (i.e., co-workers, supervision, pay, benefits satisfaction). Moreover, out of the nine dispositional predictors considered, only self-esteem significantly predicted job satisfaction. These findings suggest the need for organizations to take care of their employees' identities by connecting their respective jobs to their self-worth. Such employee programs may include empowered job titles, representations in professional organizations, and social group events valuing employees' membership. Furthermore, future research endeavors need to look at the information processing involved in self-esteem and job satisfaction.

Keywords

Dispositional Theory, Job satisfaction, Big Five Personality Factors, Intelligence, Self-esteem

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Introduction

Interest in the effects of dispositional factors on job satisfaction has dominated research in the past forty years. Compared to previous perspectives focusing on behavior, cognition, and situational factors, the dispositional approach proposes that job satisfaction emanates from individual differences (Judge, Hulin, & Dalal, 2012). Organizational psychologists also agree on the determinant role of innate characteristics influencing work attitudes like job satisfaction (Judge & Locke, 1993; Watson & Slack, 1993).

The dispositional approach to job satisfaction started in the 1980s with trait-based models positing alternative explanations to the emergence of job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2017). Earlier works, however, did not necessarily involve measures of dispositional variables like personality and intelligence. Instead, they involved inferences or indirect measures of inherent characteristics. For example, Staw and Ross (1985) found job satisfaction's stability regardless of changes in occupation and employer. Further, monozygotic twins reared apart in early childhood shared the same levels of job satisfaction as adult employees (Arvey et al., 1989). These findings suggest natural tendencies' critical role in developing favorable or unfavorable attitudes towards one's job. But one cannot readily neglect that these inferences may be attributable to other situational factors (e.g., Hulin & Judge, 2003; Judge & Larsen, 2001).

With the proliferation of indirect studies, researchers also began utilizing direct measures of dispositional constructs in job satisfaction studies. The alternative trend began with affectivity measures. For example, Staw, Bell, and Clausen (1986) found the correlation of childhood affective tendencies with midlife job satisfaction. Levin and Stokes (1989) also demonstrated the positive link between affective disposition and job satisfaction across task characteristics in laboratory and field set-ups. The use of affectivity measures extended into the early 1990s, with research suggesting the association between neutral objects' negative reactions and lower job satisfaction (e.g., Judge & Hulin, 1993; Judge & Locke, 1993). Within the same decade, Digman (1990) and Barrick and Mount (1991) reviewed the volume of work on the Five-Factor Model of personality that eventually paved the interest shift to personality traits.

Judge and Larsen (2001) first identified the direct and indirect classification of the past decades' body of research on the dispositional approach of job satisfaction. However, a closer examination of the authors' categorization reveals two important gaps in the direct measure literature. First, intelligence (i.e., cognitive and emotional quotients) remains a less explored innate predictor of job satisfaction. Second and equally interesting, standard direct measures of dispositional variables privy to organizations persist as an untapped resource for research.

The use of psychological tests in organizations aids human resources professionals in determining person-job matches. Commonly used psychological assessment tools include personality and intelligence tests. These psychological data provide a viable opportunity to expand the direct measures used in the dispositional approach of job satisfaction. In addition, as employees complete the psychological tests before onboarding, understanding their relationships with job satisfaction offers prognostic implications for organizations' hiring and retention programs. These organizational benefits drove the researcher to explore the predictive effects of intelligence (cognitive and emotional quotients), the Big Five Traits, and self-esteem on employees' job satisfaction. The next section presents some studies of these variables in relation to job satisfaction.

As the volume of work on the dispositional approach of job satisfaction focuses on personality and core self-evaluation to include self-esteem (e.g., Judge et al., 2008; Judge & Bono, 2001; Judge & Larsen, 2001;), the review of the literature begins with these innate characteristics and then ends with intelligence.

Personality and Job Satisfaction. Research understanding the impact of personality on job satisfaction has looked into the Big Five Personality Factors. Judge, Heller, and Mount's (2002) meta-analysis serves as the benchmark of job satisfaction and personality studies. The authors found that three Big Five personality factors, namely, neuroticism, extraversion, and conscientiousness, displayed moderate to nonzero relationships. Overall, the Big Five Factors explained about 16% of the variance of job satisfaction. Bruk-Lee, Khoury, and Nixon's (2009) more recent meta-analysis of the Big Five Traits and job satisfaction mirrored the results of Judge and colleagues' (2002) study. Meanwhile, Templer (2012) obtained a multiple correlation value of .41 between the Big Five Factors and job satisfaction in his study of Singaporean HR Managers and department heads from twelve Singaporean companies.

While the above findings suggest the association of personality traits on job satisfaction, more recent culture-based studies reveal inconsistent trends. For example, Zhai et al. (2013) found that the Big Five Traits only account for 6.1% of the variance of job satisfaction among Chinese white-collar employees. Additionally, only extraversion significantly relates to job satisfaction. The authors explain these results in terms of the Chinese culture's high collectivism and power distance compared to Western nations. Furthermore, Templer's study (2012) revealed the cultural personality trait nature of agreeableness as a job satisfaction predictor. However, such a finding remains elusive in Judge et al. (2002) meta-analysis work. Bui (2017) also found that the relationships of the Big Five personality factors vary between different age and gender groups in a large British national sample ($n=7662$). More specifically, only neuroticism significantly relates to job satisfaction, and the identified association appears as negative. In terms of gender,

agreeableness and conscientiousness positively correlate to job satisfaction amongst male and female samples. Meanwhile, male respondents' levels of neuroticism and openness negatively link to job satisfaction. But amongst the female surveyed British workers, openness had an inconclusive connection with their favorable attitudes towards their jobs. On the other hand, extraversion had no significant association with job satisfaction amongst male and female respondents.

These culture-based studies seem to unravel the complexity of personality and the job satisfaction link. The roles of the situation (i.e., culture) and socio-demographic factors (i.e., age and gender) and their interactions with personality factors become critical in understanding the intricacies. These possibilities also offer valuable opportunities for future researchers to explore.

Self-esteem and Job Satisfaction. Judge, Locke, and Durham (1997) took a different approach to the inherent sources of job satisfaction. Instead of looking at personality traits and affectivity, they developed the construct of core self-evaluation. The construct includes self-esteem as one of its four specific traits alongside generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and neuroticism or emotional stability.

Judge and Bono's (2001) meta-analysis of one hundred sixty-nine independent correlations (combined $N = 59, 871$) revealed that the combination of these four factors correlates at .37 with job satisfaction. In comparison to affective disposition and the Five-Factor Model, core self-evaluation also explained more variance of job satisfaction (Judge et al., 1998; Judge et al., 2008; Piccolo et al. 2005).

As a separate construct, Coopersmith (1976) defined self-esteem as the approval and the extent that a person sees him or herself as capable, important, and worthy. And while usually clustered under the core self-evaluations construct, some researchers have established the independent impact of self-esteem on job satisfaction. Tavousi (2015), for example, showed that along with its other co-traits like generalized self-efficacy, neuroticism, and the encompassing construct of core self-evaluations, self-esteem significantly predicted overall job satisfaction. However, self-esteem weakly and positively correlates with job satisfaction amongst Kenyan secondary school teachers, accounting for only 2.5% of the respondents' level of job favorability and non-favorability (Mocheche, Bosire, & Raburu, 2017).

Despite these contrasting predictive impacts of self-esteem to job satisfaction, employees' self-worth largely entails their levels of favorability to different aspects of their jobs. Scholars also think of self-esteem as a valuable resource that influences various aspects of an individual's life (Alavi & Askaripur, 2003), including one's professional sphere. Workers with high self-esteem will likely view their jobs as challenging and filled with opportunities for promotion (Ahmed, 2012; Locke et al., 1996). Korman's (1970) self-consistency theory sheds

light on these positive self-image drives and behaviors of high self-esteem individuals. The interrelatedness of these two constructs makes it intuitively reasonable to investigate the predictive role of self-esteem in job satisfaction.

As summarized above, the dispositional approach has largely looked into personality traits and self-core evaluations. Only a few works examined intelligence as an innate predictor of job satisfaction. Despite such a limitation, there is a good reason to study the predictive role of intelligence in one's job satisfaction. A certain level of cognitive ability is required to perform successfully in particular jobs. Similarly, emotional quotient remains a vital innate characteristic in a social context like the workplace. These intellectual requirements also take part in employees' evaluations of their jobs.

Cognitive Intelligence and Job Satisfaction. Earlier works linking intelligence and job satisfaction found negative relationships between the constructs (e.g., Barrett & Forbes, 1980; Meulmann, 1991). Contrastingly, succeeding research showed zero relationships between intelligence and job satisfaction (e.g., Stone et al., 1990; Colarelli et al., 1987; Bagozzi, 1978). In these studies, sample differences account for the variables' inconsistent relationships (Ganzach, 1998).

With the advent of social cognitive theories, the attention moved from traditional personality factors (i.e., motivational traits, affective dispositions) to individual cognitive variables (i.e., intellectual competencies, information processing strategies). The interaction and reciprocal determination between people and their environments also became the dispositional approach's areas of interest. This conceptualization led to Ganzach's (1998) causal model of intelligence, complexity, and job satisfaction. His model showed a direct negative effect of intelligence on job satisfaction. Such a relationship is mediated by job complexity.

In a more recent work exploring intelligence, education, and their impacts on intrinsic and pay satisfaction, Ganzach (2003) found intelligence's strong, direct, and negative effect on intrinsic motivation while controlling for job characteristics. However, he only found a negligible effect on pay satisfaction given the same control. A contrary result applied to education. These trends shed light on employees' satisfaction compartmentalization with particular job aspects. With a compartmentalized job evaluative stance, contingency factors become essential in understanding the intelligence and job satisfaction link.

Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction. Research on cognitive intelligence has improved with the development of the field. However, the opposite may be observed with emotional intelligence (EI). Emotional intelligence is the ability to perceive emotion, integrate emotion to facilitate thought, understand emotions, and regulate emotions to promote personal growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1995). Huy (1999) expanded the definition as the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, discriminate among them, and use it

to guide one's thinking and actions. This definition led to identifying the construct's dimensions: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and social management.

Other categorizations of the dimensions of emotional intelligence also exist. For example, Cekmecelioglu, Gungel, and Ulutas (2012) found that EI's emotional recognition component (Reus & Liu, 2004) positively and significantly affected internal job satisfaction. Comparably, the emotional regulation dimension had no impact on internal (i.e., task-related like challenges) and external (i.e., rewards and benefits) job satisfaction.

Despite EI's established multi-dimensionality, only a few empirical works have analyzed the constructs association with job satisfaction (Chiva & Alegre, 2008). In the SEM Approach that Joshi, Suman, and Sharma (2015) employed, Indian teachers' emotional intelligence strongly correlated with job satisfaction. The authors also supported the earlier emotional intelligence scale of Wong and Law (2002) and its identified four dimensions. These components include Use of Emotion (UOE), Regulation of Emotion (ROE), Others' Emotions Appraisal (OEA), and Self Emotion Appraisal (SEA). Of these four dimensions, using one's emotions (UOE) and its regulation (ROE) had the highest impact on teachers' job satisfaction. These two EI dimensions, along with Others' Emotions Appraisal (OEA), also significantly and independently predicted Greek teachers' job satisfaction (Kafetsios and Zampetakis, 2008).

The current study aimed to know whether, all together, intelligence, the Big Five Personality Traits, emotional intelligence, and self-esteem significantly predict job satisfaction. Figure 1 lays out these possible relationships.

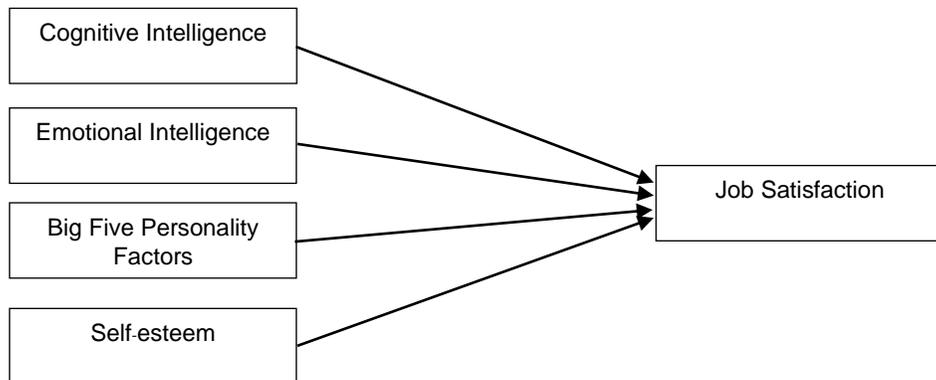


Figure 1 Conceptual Framework

Figure 1. Illustration of the hypothesized relationships of Intelligence, Emotional Intelligence, Big Five Personality Factors, and Self-esteem with Job Satisfaction. These expected relationships are based on the Dispositional Theory of Job Satisfaction.

Methods

Design

The study employed a Descriptive-Relational Design. It aimed to describe the level of job satisfaction of the respondents. But, more importantly, the study sought to identify the possible influences of the dispositional variables of interest on job satisfaction.

Sampling and Participants

The study took place at a mid-size resort in Mactan Island, Cebu, Philippines. The researcher chose the resort because of his personal and professional connections with the human resources department. As a result, the resort's Director for Human Resources allowed the researcher to conduct the study on their property. Such an agreement played a vital role in accessing the psychological data of the respondents.

The resort's human resources department uses standard psychological tests in screening their applicants. However, the utilization of CFIT's Scale III and the NEO PI-R came as added development in their selection process. The CFIT and NEO PI-R test results kept on their employees' 201 files served as the main criteria of respondent selection. Through quota sampling, the number of valid responses with complete test results totaled 43 employees.

Other eligibility criteria include direct employment with the resort or contingency workers. Furthermore, the respondent also reported for work and did not take any form of leave at the time of data gathering. Thus, out of 302 resort employees, only 14.24% of the workers' population comprise the study's sample.

The majority of the respondents worked as regular employees of the resort (69.8%). Contingency workers comprise a third of the sample (30.2%). The resort employees' average tenure in the resort ran around two and a half years ($SD = 2.64$). Seventy-seven percent of the sample came from the Associates or Rank and File employees. Meanwhile, 23% hold Specialists or Supervisory roles. In terms of departments, the Food and Beverage Service and Production team members cover 40% of the sample. Team members from the Housekeeping Department comprise 19% of the sample size. The other departments that took distribution shares ranging from two to seven percent include Front Office, Accounting, Human Resources, Engineering, Safety & Security, Information Technology, Sales and Marketing, and Communications.

The modal gender of the respondents is female (55.8%). Male respondents consisted 45% of the sample. Respondents' ages range from 18 to 59 years old, with a mean age of 28 years old ($SD = 9.37$). The majority of the respondents had college degrees (69.8%). Meanwhile, the modal civil status is single (62.8%). Married respondents only had a 38% share of the sample. The average estimated monthly income of the respondents is Php

14, 000 ($SD = 10, 622.68$) and their perceived socio-economic status is average ($M = 3, SD = 0.38$).

Measures

The measures used in the current study came from two different sources. First, the job satisfaction, emotional intelligence, and self-esteem measures came from an online survey using Google Forms. Second, the intelligence and personality measures were retrieved from the employees' 201 files. The next section discusses the details of each of these variable measures.

Job Satisfaction (JS). The dependent variable of the current study was measured using the Job Satisfaction Survey developed by Spector (1985). It is composed of 36 items that described nine job satisfaction dimensions. These dimensions include pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, co-workers, nature of work, and communication. Each dimension had four items where respondents indicate their level of agreement to the statements using a 6-point Likert-type scale, where 1 = *disagree very much*, 2 = *disagree moderately*, 3 = *disagree slightly*, 4 = *agree slightly*, 5 = *agree moderately*, and 6 = *agree very much*. Twenty of the thirty-six items were negatively stated and were reversely scored. The Job Satisfaction Survey was originally developed to assess job satisfaction in human service, nonprofit, and public organizations. In Blau (1999), the coefficient alpha of the scale was .89. In the current study, its reliability coefficient is .87.

Self-esteem (ES). The researcher utilized Rosenberg's Self-esteem Scale (1965) 10-item scale to measure respondents' global self-worth levels. Respondents signify their levels of agreement to the positive and negative items on feelings about their selves. Their evaluations range from strongly agree (4 points) to strongly disagree (1 point) in a 4-point Likert scale format. Five of the scale's items (i.e., items 2, 5, 6, 8, and 9) were negatively stated and were reversely scored. Scores were then summed up for all ten items. High scores indicate high levels of self-esteem. Gray-Little, Williams, and Hancock (1997) identified the scale's uni-dimensionality. Previous studies identified that the scale's reliability coefficient ranged from .77 to .88. In the current study, the coefficient alpha of the scale is .78.

Emotional Intelligence (EI). EI was measured by the Wong–Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS, Wong & Law, 2002). WLEIS is a 16-item measure widely used in organizational settings (Joseph & Newman, 2010) and has four subscales with four items each: Self Emotion Appraisals (e.g., *'I really understand what I feel'*), Other's Emotion Appraisals (e.g., *'I have a good understanding of the emotions of people around me'*), Regulation of Emotion (e.g., *'I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry'*), and Use of Emotion (e.g., *'I would always encourage myself to try my best'*). Employees responded to these items on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree). Alpha coefficients

of the subscales from Wong & Law's (2002) studies ranged from .76 to .89. In the current study the reliability coefficients of the subscales are as follow: Self Emotion Appraisal (SEA, $\alpha = .85$); Others Emotion Appraisal (OEA, $\alpha = .92$); Use of Emotion (UOE, $\alpha = .92$); and Regulation of Emotion (ROE, $\alpha = .93$). Meanwhile, the overall Emotional Intelligence scale's coefficient alpha is .96.

Cognitive Intelligence (IQ). The resort uses the Culture Fair Intelligence Test (CFIT; Catell, 1949) in its selection process. Employees gave out their consent for the researcher to access their IQ test scores.

The Culture Fair tests consist of three scales with non-verbal visual puzzles. The resort utilized the Scale III of the test appropriate for adults. Scale III comprises four subtests: completing a sequence of drawings, a classification task, a matrix subtest, and a conditions test. The combined raw scores of forms A and B results in the employees' IQ scores. The high loading of the Culture Fair Intelligence Test on the fluid intelligence factor indicates that the CFIT has a reasonably high direct concept validity. In addition, the Culture Fair Intelligence Test loads more favorably on a "General Intelligence" factor than on an "Achievement" factor, making it a good measure of "fluid" rather than "crystallized" intelligence (Catell et al., 1973).

Personality. Like the respondents' IQ scores, the researcher also utilized the on-file Revised NEO personality inventory (NEO-PI-R; Costa & McCrae, 1992) test results of the employees. NEO-PI-R is a 240 item, 5-point Likert-style inventory that measures each of the Big Five personality dimensions—neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. The test also provides scores for the six more specific trait facets for each of the five personality domains. Each facet comes with eight items, and the six facet scores add up to the total domain score. For example, an individual's extraversion total score is the cumulative facet scores of warmth, gregariousness, assertiveness, activity, excitement seeking, and positive emotions.

The normative data of the revised scale were obtained from 1,500 employed adults. From this sample, the Big Five dimensions' reliability scores ranged from .86 (Agreeableness) to .92 (Neuroticism).

Procedures

Respondents gave their written consent to partake in the survey and to access their psychological data. The resort's HR Office then provided the researcher with the employees' IQ and personality test scores who consented to their study participation. Only employees with completed CFIT and NEO-PI-R test scores proceeded with completing the online survey measures.

The online survey includes measures of the other dispositional (i.e., job satisfaction, self-esteem, and emotional intelligence) variables and the respondents' demographics data. Respondents answered the online questionnaire during their work breaks. Then, with the researcher's assistance, they completed the Google form at the human resources office of the resort.

The online survey's average completion time ran for 17 minutes. After completing the online form, the researcher thanked them and gave out tokens of appreciation for their research participation.

Analysis

Descriptive statistics were employed for the dispositional and demographic variables. Additionally, reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) were also obtained for scales used in the survey.

On the other hand, respondents' job satisfaction scores were treated to repeated measures analysis to determine significant differences in the employees' satisfaction levels to the nine job facets. Standard multiple regression was then utilized to determine the predictive impacts of the nine dispositional variables to the outcome construct (i.e., job satisfaction).

Results and Discussion

Analysis of employees' responses to the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS, Spector, 1985) showed that respondents are relatively satisfied with their job in the resort. The next table summarized the respondents' satisfaction ratings to the nine facets of job satisfaction in Spector's scale.

Table 1 Respondents' Level of Job Satisfaction

Job Facets	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Qualitative Description
Work Satisfaction	5.27	0.80	High
Co-workers Satisfaction	4.91	0.73	Average
Supervision Satisfaction	4.84	0.88	Average
Communication Satisfaction	4.81	0.96	Average
Promotion Satisfaction	4.41	0.77	Average
Rewards Satisfaction	4.33	0.88	Average
Pay Satisfaction	4.21	0.68	Average
Benefits Satisfaction	3.89	0.67	Average
Operating Procedures Satisfaction	3.59	0.66	Average
Overall Job Satisfaction	4.47	0.49	Average

Note. *N* = 43; above instrument used a 6-point scale where 1 is *Disagree Very Much*, 2 is *Disagree Moderately*, 3 is *Disagree Slightly*, 4 is *Agree Slightly*, 5 is *Agree Moderately*, and 6 is *Agree Very Much*

Repeated measures analysis of the facets of job satisfaction showed a significant difference in the respondents' satisfaction ratings to the nine facets of the scale ($F_{(8, 35)} = 20.58, p = .00, \eta^2_{\text{partial}} = 0.83$).

The differences in respondents' satisfaction ratings to the nine job facets provides empirical support of the importance of the job's intrinsic characteristics over external, tangible factors like rewards, pay, and benefits.

Respondents also rated relationship factors such as connection with colleagues and immediate supervisors and its corresponding communication patterns more favorably than the job's monetary aspects. These results indicate the affiliative nature of Filipinos' collective culture. The Philippines scored 32 in Hofstede's (2001) National Cultural Index for Individualism and Collectivism, thereby its collectivist culture classification. Moreover, Markus and Kitayama (1991) point out the centrality of group membership in the interdependent selves of members of collectivist cultures. Hence, positive social relationships at work play an important aspect of Filipino workers' job satisfaction. These connections are evident in non-professional peer events, including managers and supervisors' becoming marital sponsors and godparents of their employees' special life events. Such findings call for organizations to initiate programs centered on building camaraderie among workers, their leaders and

providing opportunities to sustain these formed social relationships outside the context of work (e.g., family days, team bonding).

In a different perspective, respondents' satisfaction ratings may also indicate room for more perceived injustices in areas of external, monetary rewards. While they find their work as challenging and stimulating, pay, benefits, and opportunities for promotion may not have been continuously provided in the same manner they felt of having invested more into their respective jobs. The importance of timely feedback regarding such opportunities or even on job performance matters may address these perceptual gaps.

The nine dispositional predictors and job satisfaction were then analyzed for standard multiple regression. The next table summarizes the means and standard deviations of the predictors and outcomes.

Table 2 Descriptive of the Variables

Variables	M	SD	Qualitative Description
Job Satisfaction (JS)	4.47 ^a	0.49	Average
Intelligence (IQ)	99.27	16.92	Average
Neuroticism (N)	81.70	17.28	Average
Extraversion (E)	120.23	17.01	Average
Openness (O)	110.95	12.07	Average
Agreeableness (A)	121.19	11.70	Average
Conscientiousness (C)	130.56	15.89	Average
Emotional Intelligence (EI)	5.56 ^b	1.09	Average
Self-esteem (SE)	3.16 ^c	0.34	High

Note. *N* = 43;

^a = 6-point scale where 1 is Disagree Very Much, 2 is Disagree Moderately, 3 is Disagree Slightly, 4 is Agree Slightly, 5 is Agree Moderately, and 6 is Agree Very Much

^b = 7-point scale where 1 is Strongly Disagree and 7 is Strongly Agree

^c = 4-point scale where 1 Strongly Disagree, 2 is Disagree, 3 Agree, and 4 Strongly Agree

A zero-order correlational analysis was conducted to determine if the variables met the regression assumptions of validities and multi-collinearity. The next table summarizes the results of the said analysis.

Table 3 Zero-Order Correlation Matrix

	JS	IQ	N	E	O	A	C	EI	SE
JS	--	.04	-.06	.16	-.02	.25	.24	.15	.41**
IQ		--	-.00	.13	.08	.11	.14	.11	.15
N			--	-.32*	-.37**	-.27*	-.42**	-.15	-.29*
E				--	.69***	.15	.42**	.18	.06
O					--	-.02	.38**	.04	.07
A						--	.28*	.03	.35*
C							--	.29*	.31*
EI								--	.21
SE									--

Note. * $p < 0.05$, two-tailed; ** $p < 0.01$, two-tailed; *** $p < 0.001$, two-tailed;

JS – job satisfaction; IQ – intelligence; N – neuroticism; E – extraversion; O – openness to experience;

A – agreeableness; C- conscientiousness; EI – emotional intelligence; SE – self-esteem

Among the nine considered predictors, only Self-esteem significantly and moderately correlated with job satisfaction. The other eight predictors' validities did not meet this standard regression requirement despite satisfying the multi-collinearity criterion. However, conscientiousness moderately to strongly correlated with the other four personality factors. These associations are understandable as scholars have psychometrically tested for higher-order trait factors from the Big Five Factors. For example, Digman (1997) found two higher-order factors with one dimension principally related to agreeableness, conscientiousness, and emotional stability labeled as alpha. The other meta-trait known as beta included extraversion and intellect. More recently, studies have also used the dual meta-trait taxonomy as predictors of behaviors such as social networking site activity (Liu & Campbell, 2017), egoistic and moralistic self-enhancement (Vecchione & Alessandri, 2012), and creativity (Feist, 2019). Furthermore, a General Factor of Personality (GFP), the supraitrait, has been found to have a substantive component (van der Linden, te Nijenhuis, & Bakker, 2010).

Similarly, self-esteem's moderate association with agreeableness and conscientiousness have been reported in earlier studies (e.g., Zeigler-Hill et al., 2015; Amirazodi & Amirazodi, 2011; Marlar & Joubert, 2002). These correlations of the dispositional variables of interest violate the assumption of multi-collinearity in regression, thereby calling to drop the variables measuring the same construct.

Given these assumptions violations, an inconclusive multiple regression analysis ($F_{(8, 34)} = 1.44, p = .22$) was confirmed.

The non-significance predictive impacts of the eight dispositional variables offer empirical support that job satisfaction is indeed more than people's innate potential capacity to be happy about their jobs. As learned from some Asian studies (Zhai et al., 2013; Templer, 2012), culture may play an essential role in why different personality traits emerged as significant predictors. Furthermore, socio-demographic variables may also come to play (Bui, 2017).

Meanwhile, self-esteem showed some potential to predict job satisfaction. First, it satisfies most of the assumptions of linear regression (i.e., validity and multi-collinearity). Second, people's self-worth levels entail an integrative evaluative process of their environment-responsive strengths. Social information processing, for example, brings about the development of self-worth. Furthermore, Korman's (1970) self-consistency theory suggests that individuals' drive to remain consistent with their positive self-image will likely expand to their other life aspects like job satisfaction. Thus, self-esteem serves as an important inherent resource to evaluate one's job and its facets more favorably.

These arguments drove the researcher to conduct a standard linear regression with self-esteem as a predictor of job satisfaction. This new endeavor requires first improving the internal consistency of Rosenberg's (1965) Self-esteem Scale. Such a process entails deleting items with a corrected item-total correlation of below .30. Four item statements were identified for deletion. These statements included items 1 (*On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.*), 7 (*I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.*), 8 (*I wish I could have more respect for myself.*), and 9 (*All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.*).

This deletion increased the Cronbach's alpha of the scale to .78 from .67. The process led to the computation of the respondents' new self-esteem scores with the remaining six items ($M = 3.26, SD = .47$). These new self-esteem scores were then used for linear regression with job satisfaction. Table 4 outlines the result of such analysis.

Table 4 Regression Analysis

Predictor	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Self-esteem	0.35	0.16	0.33*

Note: * $p < 0.05$, two-tailed

The results of the regression indicated that self-esteem explained 11% of the variance of job satisfaction ($R = 0.33$, $F_{(1, 41)} = 5.08$, $p = 0.03$).

The above finding supports earlier studies. For example, dispositional approach studies have shown that core self-evaluations explained more variance than affective disposition (Judge et al., 1998; Piccolo et al., 2005). With self-esteem being one of the said composite construct's dimensions, its independent predictive impact on job satisfaction is expected. As an attitude, job satisfaction is closely woven into self-esteem. More specifically, a dimension of an adult's self-esteem is his or her professional life. Successes and failures in one's job become integrated into a person's self-esteem. Correspondingly, such a self-centered information process also influences an individual's evaluation of his or her job and vice-versa.

An adult's life is extensively spent on his or her job. Employees also take pride in their jobs, even making their profession an identity indicator. Such an integrative process is evident when people introduce themselves in terms of their jobs to strangers. Furthermore, cultures around the world also speak of one's job as defining parameter of a person. In the Philippines, Filipino workers are particular about job titles, positions, and status. These professional markers are perceived as symbols of socio-economic status, educational attainment, and life achievement.

Moreover, incorporating one's professional life into one's self-worth illustrates the permeability of the interdependent self (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). As members of the collectivist cultures assimilate different facets of their job, they simultaneously develop an attitude towards their work that becomes interwoven to their self-worth. Amongst Filipino workers, such a process comes in the form of being loyal to the company treating its owners, managers, and colleagues as family members. Hence, work itself, and social relationships in the workplace are treated as important aspects of job satisfaction.

The job satisfaction and self-esteem link calls for organizations to introduce motivational strategies to include more ownership, liability, autonomy, innovativeness, and creativity. Designing jobs that integrate these parameters are highly recommended. Hackman and Oldham's Job Characteristics Theory (1980), while integrating core job dimensions (i.e., skills variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, feedback), provides a helpful framework. These initiatives may also include advertising job vacancies as challenging with important organizational implications and opportunities for growth. The use of narratives in the job vacancy marketing protocols and employee referral systems are potential platforms.

Companies may also take extra care in treating employees' jobs with more empowering job titles. Like customer service support and guests' experience specialists, these titles may carry some of the core job dimensions. Visibility of job titles, as in custom-made calling cards and email signatures, also increases jobholders' self-worth. Affiliation to

professional groups where employees take pride in representing their jobs and organizations is also an excellent way to increase esteem. This initiative also strengthens their organizational identification amidst professional counterparts in other companies.

Conclusion

The findings of the current research did not support the dispositional approach of job satisfaction. Inherent characteristics such as personality traits, IQ, and EQ did not significantly affect employees' attitudes towards their job. As a dimension of core-self evaluation, self-esteem significantly predicts job satisfaction. A trend identified in the current study relates to the evaluative nature of both self-esteem and job satisfaction. Furthermore, the information-processing involved in both constructs is tied to environmental factors like culture and job aspects. Future researchers should explore the developmental perspective of job satisfaction tying up information-processing of other evaluation-related constructs (i.e., self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control).

Additionally, as the current study partially supports the famous adage, "*We become our jobs. Our jobs become us.*" scholars need to explore how one's job becomes integrated into one's sense of self-worth. Job satisfaction is a multi-dimensional construct. It may be likely that not all of its facets are integrated into a person's self-esteem. The assimilation and non-assimilation of some job aspects vis-a-vis contextual and socio-demographic factors posit a lucrative area of research. Indeed, job satisfaction is a complex attitudinal construct in industrial, organizational, and work (IWO) psychology.

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