

**GENDER IDENTITY AND OPTIMISM AS THE
DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION
AMONG DIFFERENT OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS**

THESIS

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TRIBUTE TO
LATE NEBHAN DAS THADLANI
(Father)

And

LATE DR. M.R. THADHANI
(Colleague)



*Because you will not be forever,
I paint your picture in my memory,
As you grew, we grew together,
You became a part of me.*

*You shared with me my sorrows,
Not understanding – simply there,
You do not fear the future,
Liming only in the now.*

*I draw strength from your example,
Yet time keeps slipping by somehow,
Because the day will soon be coming,
When I will no longer see,
You rise to greet me – but in memory,
You will always walk with me.*



DECLARATION BY THE CANDIDATE

I declare that the thesis entitled “**Gender Identity And Optimism As The Determinants Of Job Satisfaction Among Different Occupational Groups**” is my own work conducted under the supervision of **Dr. Ashok Parakh**, Raipur (C.G.) {Supervisor} and under the co-supervision of **Dr. Jagdish Choith Ajawani**, HOD., Psychology, Arts & Commerce Girls’ College, Devendra Nagar, Raipur (C.G.), and **Dr. S.S. Khanuja**, Principal, Durga Mahavidyalaya, Raipur (C.G.) {Co-Supervisors} at **Arts & Commerce Girls’ College, Devendra Nagar, Raipur (C.G.)** {Centre} approved by Research Degree Committee. I have put in more than 200 days of attendance with the supervisor at the centre.

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This is to certify that the work entitled “**Gender Identity And Optimism As The Determinants Of Job Satisfaction Among Different Occupational Groups**” is a piece of research work done by **Mr. B.D. Thadlani** under my guidance and supervision for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Psychology of Pt. Ravishankar Shukla University, Raipur (C.G.), India. That the candidate has put in an attendance of more than 200 days with me.

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- (3) Fulfills the requirements of the Ordinance relating to the Ph.D. Degree of University; and
- (4) Is upto the standard both in respect of content and language for being referred to the examiner.

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PREFACE

Job satisfaction has been defined as the extent to which a person has favourable or positive feeling about work or the work environment. It refers to the positive attitude or emotional disposition people may gain from work or through aspects of work. Now-a-days, the concept of job satisfaction is not only limited to employee sector, but covers all the sectors, where there is involvement of the employees and workers. It is acquiring an increasingly important role in modern society, in which man spends most of his time on his job, basically undertaken for payment received in lieu of it. Job satisfaction is important both to the employees as well as to the employer. Greater job satisfaction is likely to lead eventually to more effective functioning of the individual and the organization as a whole. In fact, working life is to be evaluated not simply in terms of the amount of goods turned out, the productive efficiency and the profit it brings but the level of satisfaction that the participants derive from it. The present research was an attempt to throw light on relationship between job satisfaction and some of its determinants, like, gender, optimism, nature of occupation and gender identity. I am sure the findings of the research will prove of immense help to organizations and professions to initiate job satisfaction promoting interventions keeping in view the aspects considered in the present research.

*In **Chapter One** of Introduction details about various aspects of Job Satisfaction along with four determinants i.e., gender, optimism, nature of occupation, and gender identity have been described at length. Review of literature pertaining to these effects has also been provided in this chapter. **Chapter Two** is devoted to elaborating the problems and respective hypotheses undertaken for investigation in the present research. Methodology of the present research has been detailed in **Chapter Three**. Results of analysis of data through various statistics have been summarized in **Chapter Four**. The discussion of the findings have been provided in **Chapter Five**. **Chapter Six** takes the courage to summarize the whole study.*

What comes out of us is always the work of many people. Certainly, this is true of this research work also. I would like to express my sincere gratitude to all the people who made this research study possible. First and foremost I would like to thank Almighty God who has given me immense power to believe in myself and pursue my dreams.

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Date:

Place: Raipur (C.G.)

B.D. Thadlani

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER – ONE
INTRODUCTION

JOB SATISFACTION

A country is signatored as a developing country on the basis of its industrial development, wherein per capita income is the first criterion, achieved at higher level through industrial development. The human unit of each industry is the most critical and vital in view of human resource management. In the modern era job satisfaction plays a vital role in the field of industrial/organizational psychology. Job satisfaction has been defined as the extent to which a person has favorable or positive feeling about work or the work environment. It refers to the positive attitude or emotional disposition people may gain from work or through aspects of work. Now-a-days, the concept of job satisfaction is not only limited to employee sector, but covers all the sectors, where there is involvement of the employees and workers. It is acquiring an increasingly important role in modern society, in which man spends most of his time on his job, basically undertaken for payment received in lieu of it. Job satisfaction is important both to the employees as well as to the employer. Greater job satisfaction is likely to lead eventually to more effective functioning of the individual and the organization as a whole. In fact, working life is to be evaluated not simply in terms of the amount of goods turned out, the productive efficiency and the profit it brings but the level of satisfaction that the participants derive from it.

It must also be borne in mind that job satisfaction is dynamic. Almost like machinery which requires proper installation, operation and maintenance, the adequate level of job satisfaction is required to be achieved, used and maintained. Otherwise it can leave more quickly than it does arrive.

One of the biggest preludes to the study of job satisfaction was the Hawthorne studies. These studies (1924-1933), primarily credited to Elton Mayo of the Harvard Business School, sought to find the effects of various conditions (most notably

illumination) on workers' productivity. These studies ultimately showed that novel changes in work conditions temporarily increase productivity (called the Hawthorne Effect). It was later found that this increase resulted, not from the new conditions, but from the knowledge of being observed. This finding provided strong evidence that people work for purposes other than pay, which paved the way for researchers to investigate other factors in job satisfaction. Scientific management (also known as Taylorism) also had a significant impact on the study of job satisfaction. Taylor's (1911) book, 'Principles of Scientific Management', argued that there was a single best way to perform any given work task. This book contributed to a change in industrial production philosophies, causing a shift from skilled labour and piecework towards the more modern approach of assembly lines and hourly wages. The initial use of scientific management by industries greatly increased productivity because workers were forced to work at a faster pace. However, workers became exhausted and dissatisfied, thus leaving researchers with new questions to answer regarding job satisfaction.

Organizations strongly desire job satisfaction from their employees (Oshagbemi, 2003). Due to important role of human resource on organization performance, they try to keep employees satisfied. Satisfied employees would produce superior performance in optimal time which leads to increase in profits. When employees are satisfied with their work, they would be more creative and innovative and offer advances to the organization that allow company to evolve positively over time with changes in market conditions. On the other hand, a lack of job satisfaction results in a low level of employee commitment that, in turn, affect performance and the achievement of organizational goals. Farrell & Stamm (1988) draw the conclusion that high employee satisfaction will reduce the happening of the absenteeism, accident, and employee stress, improve employee satisfaction with life and thus increase productivity and profits. Employees' job satisfaction in organizations and institutions has given close attention by researchers since mid-20th

century after the emergence of Maslow's theory of Need Hierarchy in 1943. Literature in this area is filled with various analytical studies (Ajayi, 1998; Williams, 1998; and Chimanikire et al., 2007). In competitive and unpredictable phenomena, organizations try to keep and enhance their place. Many industries operate in situation, where employees play an important role in the product and service exchange. In service company such as airlines, employees have significant effect on organization's performance. Airline companies try to offer high quality services, maximize customer loyalty, gain higher market share, higher profitability, and finally customer satisfaction which is the ultimate goal of these companies. These companies may reach these long-term and short-term goals with satisfied employees. It means organizations that desire to improve their customer satisfaction must be concerned about internal issues related to employees' satisfaction and view their employees as customer too (Harter et al., 2002; and Wangenheim et al., 2007). In Airlines, employees' behaviour is critical and poor treatment of customers may directly impact on their image (Hunter, 2006). In airline industry in Iran, there is an intense competition between private and public companies to gain higher portion of market share. So, these companies try to increase their employees' satisfaction to enhance their performance. Accordingly, the aviation professionals not only have to gain advanced and comprehensive knowledge, but also needs holistic understanding of airline industry's needs based on today's rapidly changing air transport environment.

A satisfied employee at workplace puts the strong brick on the plinth of development. Job satisfaction is an attitude that employees have about their works and is based on numerous factors, both intrinsic and extrinsic to the individual. Job satisfaction is important from the perspective of maintaining and retaining the appropriate employees within the organization: it is about filling the right person to the right job in the right culture and keeping them satisfied (Crow & Hartman, 1995; and Rose, 2001). It seems obvious that job satisfaction, contentment with, and enjoyment of one's job is an asset for both the individual and the organization. A

satisfied employee is a happier employee; increased job satisfaction makes people feel better (Crohan et al., 1989).

Job satisfaction is the result of various attitudes possessed by an employee. In a narrow sense, these attitudes are related to the job and are concerned with such specific factors as wages, supervision, steadiness of employment, conditions of work, advancement opportunities, and recognition of ability, fair evaluation of work, social relations on the job, prompt settlement of grievances, fair treatment by employer and other similarities.

Job satisfaction is a complex function of a number of variables. A person may be satisfied with one or more aspects of his/her job but at the same time may be unhappy with other things related to the job. For example, a doctor may be satisfied with his designation but may not be satisfied with the level of his income.

Job satisfaction is an elusive, even mythical, concept that has been increasingly challenged and refined particularly since the Herzberg et al. study in 1959. The most important information to have regarding an employee in an organization is a validated measure of his/her level of job satisfaction (Roznowski & Hulin, 1992). Behavioural and social science researches suggest that job satisfaction and job performance are positively correlated (Bowran & Todd, 1999).

A better understanding of job satisfaction and factors associated with it helps managers guide employee's activities in a desired direction. The morale of employees is a deciding factor in the organization's efficiency (Chaudhary & Banerjee, 2004). Thus, it is fruitful to say that managers, supervisors, human resource specialists, employees, and citizens in general are concerned with ways of improving job satisfaction (Cranny et al., 1992).

However, a more comprehensive approach requires that many additional factors be included before a complete understanding of job satisfaction can be

obtained. Such factors as the employee's age, health, temperament, desires, optimizing, gender identities and level of aspiration should be considered. Further, his family relationships, social status, recreational outlets and activity in organization – labour, political, or purely social – contribute ultimately to his level of job satisfaction.

DEFINING JOB SATISFACTION

The term job satisfaction refers to an individual's general attitude toward his or her job (Robbins, 1998); a person with a high level of job satisfaction holds positive attitudes toward the job, while a person who is dissatisfied with his or her job will hold negative attitudes about the job. Some factors like mentally challenging work, equitable rewards, supportive working conditions and colleagues are significant contributors to job satisfaction (Smith et al., 1969; Cooper et al., 1988). Lawler (1973) sees job satisfaction as the discrepancy between what individuals expect to receive out of their jobs and what they actually received. Job satisfaction has always been correlated to an increased work performance or productivity of a firm (Dunnette et al., 1967; and Argyle, 1988).

There are a number of different definitions of job satisfaction. One comprehensive definition is that it is a generalized attitude, resolution from many specific attitudes in three areas i.e., (1) specific job factor, (2) individual adjustment, and (3) group relationship.

These factors can never be isolated from each other for analysis but indications of their relative importance in job satisfaction may be obtained through the use of statistical techniques.

The term 'job satisfaction', however, embraces a broad spectrum of views. The difference in these views seems to be caused, firstly by the various nature of jobs that individuals perform; secondly the attempts to conceptualize job satisfaction in a variety of ways by different disciplines like Psychology, Sociology, Education

and Management etc., and finally, by the variety of methods employed by various researchers to study job satisfaction. According to Bullock (1952), job satisfaction is an attitude which results from a balance and summation of many specific likes and dislikes experienced in connection with job.

Job satisfaction is typically defined as an employee's level of positive affect toward his /her job or job situation (Locke, 1976). Along with positive affect, a cognitive and a behavioural component can be added to this definition. The addition of these two components is consistent with the way social psychologists define attitudes (Zanna & Rempel, 1988). Job satisfaction, after all, really is an employee's attitude toward his/her job. The cognitive aspect of job satisfaction represents an employee's beliefs about his/her job or job situation; that is, an employee may believe that his or her job is interesting, stimulating, dull, or demanding – to name a few options. Although these represent cognitive beliefs, they are not completely independent of the affective component. For example, a statement or belief that "My job is interesting" is likely to be strongly related to feelings of positive affect.

The behavioural component represents an employee's behaviours or, more often, behavioural tendencies toward his or her job. An employee's level of job satisfaction may be revealed by the fact that he or she tries to attend work regularly, works hard, and intends to remain a member of the organization for a long period of time. Compared to the affective and cognitive components of job satisfaction, the behavioural component is often less informative because one's attitudes are not always consistent with one's behaviour (Fishbein, 1979). It is possible, for example, for an employee to dislike his or her job but still remain employed there because of financial considerations.

Job satisfaction has been defined as a positive emotional state resulting from the pleasure a worker derives from the job (Locke, 1976; and Spector, 1997) and as the affective and cognitive attitudes held by an employee about various aspects of their work (Kalleberg, 1977; Mercer, 1997; Wright & Cropanzano,

1997; and Wong et al., 1998), the later implying that satisfaction is related to the component facets rather than the whole job, which is consistent with Spencor's (1997) view. This definition suggests job satisfaction is a general or global affective reaction that individuals hold about their job. While researchers and practitioners most often measure global job satisfaction, there is also interest in measuring different "dimensions" of satisfaction. Examination of these facet conditions is often useful for a more careful examination of employee satisfaction with critical job factors. Traditional job satisfaction facets include: co-workers, pay, job conditions, supervision, nature of the work and benefits (Williams, 2004).

According to Mitchell & Lasan (1987), it is generally recognized in the organizational behaviour field that job satisfaction is the most important and frequently studied attitude. Luthan (1998) posited that there are three important dimensions to job satisfaction:

1. Job satisfaction is an emotional response to a job situation. As such it cannot be seen, it can only be inferred;
2. Job satisfaction is often determined by how well outcome meet or exceed expectations; and
3. Job satisfaction represents several related attitudes which are most important characteristics of a job about which people have effective response.

Weiss (2002) has also argued that job satisfaction is an attitude but points out that researchers should clearly distinguish the objects of cognitive evaluation which are affect (emotion), beliefs and behaviours. This definition suggests that people form attitudes towards their jobs by taking into account their feelings, their beliefs, and their behaviours.

According to Dictionary.com, job satisfaction is an act of satisfying; fulfilment; gratification. It is the state of being satisfied or contented. It is the cause or means of being satisfied. According to Dictionary of Education, job satisfaction is the quality, state and level of satisfaction as a result of various interests and attitudes of a person towards his job. It is the desire or no desire with which employee's view their work. It expresses the extent of match between the employee's expectations of the job and rewards that the job provides.

Job satisfaction is widely accepted as psychological aspect of effective functioning in any profession. The credit of this thought goes to Hoppcock (1935) who commented that there were many opinions about job satisfaction but there were few studies undertaken in this field. For him, job satisfaction was a combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that cause a person truthfully to say, "I am satisfied with my job". Thus job satisfaction is a favourableness with which employees view their work.

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

Katzell (1964) remarks that the term job satisfaction has been used in a variety of ways interchangeably with job morale, vocational satisfaction and job attitude by various authors. Siegel (1956) points out those factors which psychologically satisfy the worker and which usually lie in the job but also quite often lie outside the job. He called such factors as intrinsic and extrinsic to the job. Blum & Naylor (1968) consider job satisfaction as a generalized attitude of the individual resulting from many attitudes in three areas, namely, specific job factors, individual characteristics and group relationship outside the job. Smith et al. (1969), however,

suggest that, “job satisfaction is the employee’s judgment of how well his job on the whole satisfying his various needs.”

McCormick & Tiffin (1974) recognized that job satisfaction is a function of need satisfaction derived from, or experienced in the job. According to Crohan (1989), job satisfaction is the whole matrix of job factors that make a person likes his work situation and is willing to head for it without distaste at the beginning of his work day. This means that job satisfaction includes two aspects: living and enjoying the job and going to one’s job with head erect and smiles.

According to Pestonjee (1980), job satisfaction can be taken as a summation of employee’s feelings in four important areas. These are:

Job – nature of work (dull, dangerous, interesting), hours of work, fellow workers, opportunities on the job for promotion and advancement (prospects), overtime regulations, interest in work, physical environment, and machines and tools,

Management – supervisory treatment, participation, rewards and punishments, praises and blames, leave policy and favouritism,

Social relations – friends and associates, neighbours, attitude towards people in community, participation in social activity, sociability, and caste barrier, and

Personal adjustment – health and emotionality.

Derek Gold (1981) defined job satisfaction as the extent to which each person in each organization obtains satisfaction from the processes and content of his work.

According to Kovack (1977), job satisfaction is a component of organizational commitment. Spector (1996) states that job satisfaction “can be considered as a global feeling about the job or as a related constellation of attitudes about various aspects or facets of the job.” Research (Strumpfer et

al., 1998) indicates an encouraging but complex correlation between positive or negative dispositions and the various components of job satisfaction. When satisfaction is measured at a broader level, research has shown those organizations with more satisfied workers are more effective than those with less satisfied workers (Robbins, 1998). Buitendach & de Witte (2005) is of the view that job satisfaction relates to an individual's perceptions and evaluations of his job, and this perception is in turn influenced by his circumstances, including needs, values and expectations. Individuals therefore evaluate their jobs on the basis of factors which they regard as being important to them (Sempane et al., 2002).

Brief (1998) wrote, "If a person's work is interesting, pay is fair, promotional opportunities are good, supervisor is supportive and co-workers are friendly, then a situational approach leads one to predict that she/he is satisfied with her/his job". In simple words, if the pleasures associated with one's job outweigh the pains, there is some level of satisfaction. The Harvard Professional Group (1998) sees job satisfaction as the key ingredient that leads to recognition, income promotion and the achievement of goals that in turn leads to a general feeling of fulfilment.

THEORIES OF JOB SATISFACTION

In order to understand job satisfaction, it is important to understand what motivates people at work. Campbell et al. (1970) categorized job satisfaction theories into either content theories or process theories. Content theories are based on various factors which influence job satisfaction. Process theories, in contrast, take into account the process by which variables such as expectations, needs and values, interact with the job to produce job satisfaction. In terms of content theorists, there is an emphasis on the type of goals and incentives that people endeavour to achieve in order to be satisfied and succeed on the job. Scientific management believed at first that money was

the only incentive, later other incentives also became prevalent for example; working conditions, security and a more democratic style of supervision. Maslow et al. (1970) focused on the needs of employees with respect to job satisfaction and performance (Smith & Cronje, 1992; Luthans 1998; and Robbins et al., 2003).

Many theories have been proposed concerning the causes of job satisfaction. They can be classified in three categories: situational theories, dispositional approaches, and interactive theories (Judge et al., 2001). Situational theories assume that job satisfaction results from the nature of one's job or other aspects of the environment; examples are Herzberg's (1967) two-factor theory, the social information processing approach (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), and the job characteristics model (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Dispositional approaches hypothesize that job satisfaction is rooted in the personological make-up of the individual (Staw & Ross, 1985; and Staw et al., 1986). Interactive theories propose that job satisfaction results from the interplay of the situation and personality; examples are the Cornell Integrative Model (Hulin, 1991) and the Value Percept Theory (Locke, 1976).

FREDERICK HERZBERG'S TWO-FACTOR THEORY

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (1959) (also known as Motivator-Hygiene Theory) attempts to explain satisfaction and motivation in the workplace. This theory states that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are driven by different factors – motivation and hygiene factors, respectively. An employee's motivation to work is continually related to job satisfaction of a subordinate. Motivation can be seen as an inner force that drives individuals to attain personal and organizational goals (Porter et al., 2007). Motivating factors are those aspects of the job that make people want to perform, and provide people with satisfaction, for example, achievement in work, recognition, promotion opportunities. These motivating factors are considered to be

intrinsic to the job, or the work carried out. Hygiene factors include aspects of the working environment such as pay, company policies, supervisory practices, and other working conditions.

According to Herzberg (1968), organization should categorize rewards into intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. These two rewards are not directly related to job satisfaction because the relationship is moderated by how equitable these rewards are to individuals. It is argued that in attaining quality performance, the intrinsic rewards are more important than extrinsic rewards as they influence higher order needs of individuals like work itself. The extrinsic factors can be classified into two factors, socio-demographic factors and job factors. Examples of socio-demographic factors are age, gender, race, duration of service, marital status, skill categories and education. Examples of job factors are work, pay, promotion, supervision and co-worker. The relationship between age and job satisfaction is inconsistent and depends on the controlling factors such as job security and experience (Gruneberg, 1979). However, most researchers found a positive relationship between age and job satisfaction (Bass & Barret, 1981; and Maghrabi, 1999). Similarly, the positive correlation of job satisfaction with respondent's, age and duration of service could be due to reasons as explained by Locke (1976), and Kalleberg et al. (1983).

Herzberg et al. (1959) explored job satisfaction from a basically dynamic view and offered an approach to an understanding of motivation to work. They noted an important distinction between two kinds of factors: one group of factors dealt with the nature of job and the other was related to the environment in which the job was done. One set of factors, according to them, contributed to satisfaction. They are referred to as intrinsic, job content, motivators, or satisfiers. Another set of factors contributed to dissatisfaction. They are termed as extrinsic, job context, hygienes or dissatisfiers.

**Table # 1: Factors Associated With Job Satisfaction Two-Factor Theory
(Herzberg et al., 1959)**

Motivators/Satisfiers/Intrinsic/Job Content	Extrinsic/Job Context/Hygiene/Dissatisfiers
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Achievement • Recognition • Work itself • Responsibility • Advancement • Psychological growth 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Salary • Working conditions • Relations with co-employees • Relations with subordinates • Relationship with supervisors • Technical supervision • Company policy • Job securities • Status • Personal life

According to the theory, satisfiers (or motivators) which contributed to feelings of satisfaction had little to contribute to dissatisfied feeling. Similarly, dissatisfier (or hygiene) contributed more to dissatisfaction than they did to satisfaction. In other words, it was suggested that satisfaction and dissatisfaction were two separate distinct and independent feelings. They are unipolar dimensions i.e., the opposite of satisfaction is no satisfaction instead of dissatisfaction (which was the traditional view) and the opposite of dissatisfaction is no dissatisfaction instead of satisfaction. It is interesting to note here that prior to the proposal of Herzberg et al. (1959), Sinha in his study of job satisfaction of office and manual workers in North Bihar (1958) found some distinction between the factors which caused job satisfaction and those which contributed to job dissatisfaction.

An interesting feature of the theory is that satisfiers not only enable a person to feel satisfied but they induce him to produce and perform more in his job. Dissatisfiers (or hygiene) do not have that potentiality to contribute to job behaviour.

Several Indian studies in the line of Herzberg (1959) show that security and salary are considered more important by employees in India than job design, autonomy and other job related factors. Lahari & Srivastava (1965) however found that in utility industries, security, salary, and other extrinsic rewards were more important than the intrinsic. Sharma & Dayal (1976) in his review of relevant literature note that there is no complete agreement on what it is that leads to work satisfaction or fulfillment of employee's needs although there is general indicator that security, salary, supervision, and the nature of work seem to be more important for most people in India.

The general finding of the Indian studies which put Herzberg's theory to best were only partially supportive of the theory as is noted earlier in the study of Lahari & Srivastava (1965). In their study of 93 Indian middle managers Lahari & Srivastava (1965) found that satisfied and dissatisfied feelings were separate and unipolar. But both intrinsic and extrinsic factors contributed to both satisfied and dissatisfied feelings. A similar study of Rao (1972) with Indian managers and clerical employees confirmed the distinction and showed however that, contrary to the theory, both motivators and hygienes contributed to both satisfied and dissatisfied feelings. The study of Rao & Gangully (1972) further confirmed the above findings in a study with 82 highly skilled personnel in a private sector electric company in Bangalore.

While Hertzberg's model has stimulated much research, researchers have been unable to empirically prove the model; with Hackman & Oldham (1976) suggesting that Hertzberg's original formulation of the model may have been a methodological artefact. Furthermore, the theory does not consider individual differences, conversely predicting all employees will react in an identical manner to changes in motivating/hygiene factors. Finally, the model has been criticized in that it does not specify how motivating/hygiene factors are to be measured.

AFFECT THEORY

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

Accordingly, Locke's theory expresses job satisfaction as follows:

$$S = (V_c - P) \times V_i, \text{ or } \textit{Satisfaction} = (\textit{want} - \textit{have}) \times \textit{importance}$$

Where, S is satisfaction, V_c is value content (amount wanted), P is the perceived amount of the value provided by the job, and V_i is the importance of the value to the individual.

This theory also states that too much of a particular facet (high P) will produce stronger feelings of dissatisfaction (low S) the more a worker values that facet (high V_i).

DISPOSITIONAL THEORY

Another well-known job satisfaction theory is the dispositional theory. It is a very general theory that suggests that people have innate dispositions that cause them to have tendencies toward a certain level of satisfaction, regardless of one's job. This approach became a notable explanation of job satisfaction in light of evidence that job

satisfaction tends to be stable over time and across careers and jobs. Research also indicates that identical twins have similar levels of job satisfaction.

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

JOB CHARACTERISTICS MODEL

Hackman & Oldham (1976) proposed the Job Characteristics model, which is widely used as a framework to study how particular job characteristics impact on job outcomes, including job satisfaction. The model states that there are five core job characteristics (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback) which impact three critical psychological states (experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility for outcomes, and knowledge of the actual results), in turn influencing work outcomes (job satisfaction, absenteeism, work motivation, etc.). The five core job characteristics can be combined to form a motivating potential score (MPS) for a job, which can be used as an index of how likely a job is to affect an employee's attitudes and behaviours.

MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS THEORY

Maslow (1970) believed that people who come out of an environment which does not meet their basic needs, tend to experience psychological complaints later in life. Based on the application of this theory to organizational settings, it can be argued that people who do not meet their needs at work will not function efficiently.

Maslow's (1970) theory is based on two assumptions, i.e., people always want more and people arranged their needs in order of importance (Smith & Cronje, 1992). Maslow (1970), and Schultz et al. (2003) summarized these needs as:

(1) Biological and Physiological Needs: This is the basic need known as the biological needs such as the need for water, food, rest, exercise and sex. Once these needs are met they no longer influence behaviour. An example of this would be trade unions ensuring that their member's basic needs are met because they negotiate for better wages for their members (Smith & Cronje, 1992).

(2) Safety Needs: Once the first need is satisfied then the security needs assume precedence. These include the need for job security, insurance and medical aid and the need to feel protected against physical and emotional harm (Smith & Cronje, 1992).

(3) Social or Belongingness and Love Needs: This third level of needs is activated once the second level of needs has been adequately met. People have a need for love, friendship, acceptance and understanding from other people. Employees have a tendency to join groups that fulfill their social needs. Managers can play an important part by encouraging people to interact with one another and make sure that the social needs of subordinates are met (Smith & Cronje, 1992).

(4) Ego and Esteem Needs: The fourth level of needs is the need for self-respect, recognition by others, confidence and achievement. Supervisors can play an active role in satisfying the needs of their employees by recognizing and rewarding high achievers for good performance (Smith & Cronje, 1992).

(5) Cognitive needs: These needs have to do with how we understand the world around us. We seek knowledge, we have a curious mind. Human beings desire to uncover the facts, to know the "truth," to discover the laws of the universe and everything within it, including ourselves and others.

(6) Aesthetic needs: Our needs for order, symmetry, design, harmony, and beauty. If we cannot express a satisfactory aesthetic statement ourselves, we will try to

satisfy this need through the work of others, whether it be art, music, poetry, film, or another medium.

(7) Self-Actualization Needs: This need leads to the full development of a person's potential. It is a need where individuals reach full potential and what they want to be become, to utilize all talents well, and to be creative (Glueck, 1974).

(8) Transcendence needs: That is, by helping others, a person helps themselves to improve and develop too. The principle has also been applied quite recently to developing disaffected school-children, whom, as part of their own development, have been encouraged and enabled to 'teach' other younger children (which can arguably be interpreted as their acting at a self-actualizing level - selflessly helping others). The disaffected children, theoretically striving to belong and be accepted (level 3 - belongingness) were actually remarkably good at helping other children, despite their own negative feelings and issues.

Practicing managers have given Maslow's need theory wide recognition, which they ascribe to the theory's intuitive logic and ease of understanding. However, Robbins et al. (2003), argue that research does not validate the theory, since Maslow (1970) does not provide any empirical substantiation, and a number of studies that were seeking validation for the theories have similarly not found support for it.

ALDERFER'S ERG THEORY

Alderfer (1972) revised Maslow's theory to align work with more empirical research (Robbins et al., 2003). Alderfer's theory is referred to as ERG theory and is based on the following three needs; existence, relatedness and growth. Existence is involved with providing individuals with their basic existence requirements and it subsumes the individual's physiological and safety needs. Relatedness is the desire to keep good interpersonal relationships, which Maslow (1970) labeled social and esteem needs. Growth needs are an intrinsic desire for personal development based on the self-actualisation needs of Maslow.

When the aspiration to satisfy a higher need is subdued, the desire to satisfy a lower order level need increases. Alderfer (1972) mentions two forms of movement which will become important to a person. The first one is referred to as satisfaction-progression. The second movement is the frustration-regression, which provides additional insight about motivation and human behaviour. According to Alderfer (1972), when a person's needs are frustrated at higher level, it leads to movement down the hierarchy.

McCLELLAND'S THEORY OF NEEDS

McClelland's need theory focuses on the need for achievement, power and affiliation. It can be briefly described as follows:

1. Need for achievement: It is the drive to excel and to achieve in relation to a set of standard. Achievers seek rapid feedback on performance they like tasks of intermediate difficulty and they accept personal responsibility for success or failure.

High achievers tend to be successful entrepreneurs. However, having a high need for achievement does not necessarily mean the person would be a good manager for larger organization, as his or her desire for recognition supersedes or her concern for the organization. Employees with low achievement needs can be trained to increase their need achievement.

2. Need for power: It is the need to make others in a way they would not have behaved otherwise. People with power needs feel they have to have an impact or be influential with other people. They prefer to be placed into competitive and status-oriented situations. High power people are more concerned with prestige and gaining influence over others than with effective performance.

3. Need for affiliation: It is the desire for friendly and close interpersonal relationship. Affiliates strive for friendship, prefer co-operative situations, and desire friendships with a high degree of mutual understanding. The best managers appear to be those with a high need for power, and a low need for affiliation.

SIGNIFICANCE OF JOB SATISFACTION

In this highly competitive world, success of any organization depends on its human resource. A satisfied, happy and hard working employee is the biggest asset of any organization. Workforce of any organization is responsible to a large extent for its productivity and profitability. For example, in the Service Profit Chain (SPC) model, employee satisfaction can improve employee productivity (Milliman et al., 2008). Low employee morale can lead to poor service and less investment in employees, creating a repeating cycle. The SPC model involves providing employees with better training, salaries, and job designs to improve performance. Efficient human resource management and maintaining higher job satisfaction level in a big organization determine not only its performance but also affect the growth and performance of the entire economy. So, for its success, it is very important to manage human resource effectively and to find out whether its employees are satisfied or not. Only if they are satisfied, they will work with commitment and project a positive image of the organization.

A recent study showed that satisfaction with work was the most influential determinant of quality of life among government employees in Korea (Kim & Cho, 2003). Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences." Job satisfaction is an affective or emotional response toward various facets of one's job. Job satisfaction has been a topic of great interest for researchers and practitioners in a wide range of fields, including organizational psychology, public administration, and management. The topic of job satisfaction is important because of its implications for job-related variables. Job satisfaction is positively correlated with motivation, job involvement, organizational citizenship behaviour, organizational commitment, life satisfaction, mental health, and job performance, and negatively related to absenteeism, turnover, and perceived stress (Spector, 1997; and Judge et al., 2001). Job satisfaction levels within a company do affect organizational performance

(Ostroff, 1993). Most scholars recognize that job satisfaction is a global concept that also comprises various facets (Judge et al., 2001).

Job satisfaction is one of the most researched areas of organizational behaviour and education. It is perceived as an attitudinal variable measuring the degree to which employees like their jobs and the various aspects of their jobs (Spector, 1996; and Stamps, 1997). This is an important area of research because job satisfaction is correlated to enhanced job performance, positive work values, high levels of employee motivation, and lower rates of absenteeism, turnover and burnout (Begley & Czajka, 1993; Tharenou, 1993; and Chiu, 2000;). Job satisfaction, according to McCormick & Ilgen (1985), is an association of attitudes held by an organization's members. The way each employee responds towards their work is an indication of the commitment towards their employers. Many employees are of the opinion that downsizing; rightsizing and reengineering give employers an opportunity to dispose of those workers who are a liability to the organization.

When jobs match with the needs, preferences, and abilities of the employees, they are more likely to be happy and satisfied with their work and lives, and workplaces are apt to function fairly smoothly and effectively. On the other hand, when there is mismatch, or lack of fit, a variety of difficulties are likely to result for workers and their families as well as for employers and society, which could lead to poorer work performance (Kalleberg, 2008). Yankelovich (1974) explained that job satisfaction can be in the form of economic or psychological satisfaction. Examples of economic satisfaction are good salary, secure retirement and job security, while psychological satisfaction is an opportunity for advancement in the job, better pay, interesting work, satisfying work, ability to win more recognition, commitment and interest in the decision making process.

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

(1) Job satisfaction has some relation with the mental health of the people:

Dissatisfaction with one's job may have especially volatile spill over effects on many other things such as family life, leisure activities etc. Many unresolved personality problems and maladjustments arise out of person's inability to find satisfaction in his work. Both scientific study and casual observation provide ample evidence that job satisfaction is important for the psychological adjustment and happy living of individual. A classic study by Kornhauser (1965) provides empirical evidence for the relationship between job satisfaction and mental health. In fact, job satisfaction and life satisfaction are inextricable bound.

(2) Job satisfaction has some degree of positive correlation with physical health of individuals:

A study by Palmore (1999) has come to the conclusion that people who like work, are likely to live longer. Here the logic behind such result is that people with greater satisfaction tend to have greater income and more education and thus coincidentally enjoy greater benefits, which promote longevity. On the other side of the coin, it was contended that chronic dissatisfaction with work represents stress which, in turn, eventually takes its toll on the organization. Emotional stress, as physicians contend, has been implicated as a contributory factor in the genesis of hypertension, coronary artery disease, digestive ailments and even some kinds of a cancer. Therefore, job satisfaction is essential to maintain physical health also.

(3) Spread goodwill about the organization:

From the point of view of an organization, people who feel positively about their work life are more apt to voice 'favourable sentiments' about the organization to the community at large. When the goodwill of the company goes up, new, qualified and dynamic entrants show their interest in joining the organization. The organization thus, will be in a position to enjoy the talents of people as job satisfaction fosters a widespread public goodwill towards the organization.

(4) Individual can 'live with' the organization: A happy and satisfied individual can find it easy to live within the organization as well as outside it. On the contrary, a chronically upset individual makes organization life vexations for others with whom he interacts.

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

Now-a-days, the concept of job satisfaction is not only limited to employee sector, but covers all the sectors, where there is involvement of the employers and workers. It is acquiring an increasingly important role in modern society, in which man spends most of his time on his job, basically undertaken for payment received in lieu of it. Job satisfaction is important both to the employee as well as to the employer. Greater job satisfaction is likely to lead eventually to more effective functioning of the individual and the organization as a whole. In fact, working life is to be evaluated not simply in terms of the amount of goods turned out, the productive efficiency and the profit it brings but the level of satisfaction that the participants derive from it.

It is also used to predict the employees' retention in an organization. Employees' retention has become an important issue because the amount of losses to an organization due to the loss of tacit knowledge when employees resign and the cost incurred to an organization to recruit and train new employees are getting higher. Thus organization should identify their employee's level of satisfaction and determine the factors that could contribute to it. With such knowledge, management will be able to formulate strategies to ensure that their employees are satisfied hence reducing the possibility of resigning due to dissatisfaction.

DETERMINANTS OF JOB SATISFACTION

There are various factors which can contribute to job satisfaction of employees or of people involved in their professions, apart from those being considered in the present research i.e., gender, optimism, nature of occupation and gender identity. The idea of a job satisfaction is very complicated (McCormick & Ilgen, 1985). Locke (1976) presented a summary of job dimensions that have been established to contribute significantly to employees' job satisfaction. The particular dimensions represent characteristics associated with job satisfaction. The dimensions are work itself, pay, promotions, recognition, working conditions, benefits, supervision and co-workers. This is postulated to influence employees' opinion of "how interesting the work is, how routine, how well they are doing, and, in general, how much they enjoy doing it" (McCormick & Ilgen, 1985).

(i) OCCUPATIONAL STATUS

Occupational status and job satisfaction are related but not identical with each other. Frequently, studies showed that even when the holders of specific occupation state that they were very happy with their occupations, only a few of them expressed their willingness to enter their present occupation again, given a choice. The occupations which they would like to enter most often were those of higher status than that of their own. This occupational status is determined not only by the way the individual employee regards the status of his job, but also on the way it is regarded by others in the society whose opinion he values. At any given time, the occupational status which is established among people in a society may be determined through an investigation, such hierarchy of occupations, according to prestige or social status, may be found to be fairly consistent among people in society in general, or in a specific group of people in society over a period of time. The hierarchy may differ from society to society at any given point of time. Grewal (1973) in his study compared occupational prestige held by Indians, Ethiopians and

Americans and concluded as follows –

1. Government occupations were placed at the top and unskilled occupations are placed near the bottom.
2. Occupational prestige were not affected much by the economical and industrial advancement of a country.
3. The study discarded the commonly held view that the occupations placed at the bottom like the street sweeper, janitor or janitress have a standing in developed countries of the world like the U.S.A. They are placed at the bottom in the same way as in India, Ethiopia, and other countries.

Although, most often the studies on occupational status have been based on responses of students, the hierarchies appeared to be fairly similar among working and professional groups in any community. The findings suggest that prestige values of occupations are rather general in a community.

In a traditional society as in India one reckons that occupational status hierarchy and social status have been inseparable within the context of caste system. Occupations of higher status were available exclusively to people belonging to higher castes. Similarly, occupations of lower status were traditionally assigned to lower caste people.

The vestiges of the occupational status based on caste system still remain although the constitution and lip services following the same, has purported to establish equal opportunities for people, independent of caste, creed, religion or linguistic since independence.

(ii) WAGES AND SALARY

Adequate salary emerges as the most predominant preference of all the job factors among Indian workmen as is evident in the summary of the comparable Indian studies covering a period of 21 years from 1951 to 1971.

These studies which report the expressed preference of workers have led to certain controversies about interpretation of their implications in Indian conditions. In this regard, it is relevant to refer to findings in Sinha's (1965) studies of manual and clerical workers which revealed that wages were seldom mentioned as governing satisfaction, while in the discontented group, its inadequacy was looked upon as the most important factor behind dissatisfaction. Sinha (1965) holds that though it may be a contributing influence, it is not the sole determinant of the worker's attitude. The underlying cause of dissatisfaction may not be in the pay envelope or the time clock, but in the work itself. Ganguli (1955) argues against minimizing the importance of wages as the factor in satisfaction at least among Indian workers. He asserts that studies in private industries and in governmental organization of workers, as well as of supervisors have brought to the very first place men give to remuneration. The determinant of incentives and job satisfaction may overlap but are not identical. Therefore though the wages may be looked upon as the most powerful incentive, it may not occupy the same place only by itself in determining satisfaction.

It is also evident in Indian conditions that if the problems exist in the areas of attitudes and job satisfaction for various other reasons, such as ineffective supervision and work relationship, amount of increase in wages and salary will help in empowering productivity. The converse is also true, that management's eagerness to improve attitude, job satisfaction and interpersonal relationship without any regard to adequate salary and financial benefit also will not lead to overall improvement in productivity.

In any case it appears that the highest importance and preference for wages and salary will remain with Indian workers for quite some time now till the level of industrial development, worker education and attitudes and the overall level of managerial effectiveness improve considerably.

(iii) JOB SECURITY

Job security is the second most important preference out of various job factors among Indian workers. In short while getting a job is of foremost importance, being secured on the job is the very next requirement of the Indian worker. This is understandable in the face of widespread unemployment, uncertainties in the employment market and the conditions which are often termed as unfair labour practices. Security for old age does not feature in the list as it does in western structures. The security on the immediate job is possibly so pressing a need that the thought of security for old age recedes to the background. Another explanation may be that traditionally it is thought in India that security in old age was expected to be dependent on the earnings of one's own sons than on one's own employment and earnings. The situation is however changing and various retirement provisions have come into existence in view of the changing circumstances. In J.B.I. All India Survey the responses of Indian workers about their satisfaction and dissatisfaction concerning the two items, company rules and practices on temporary casual/probation employment and discharge related to on the job security while security is important for both employers to provide and the employees to get, the other side also is important to note when overdone. The failure of financial incentive scheme and reduction in production have been traced to excessive security of workers in a study of Indian port and deck workers.

(iv) OPPORTUNITY FOR ADVANCEMENT

The fact that opportunity for advancement is so highly ranked may lead to the interpretation that every worker will want to get promotion and will feel satisfied in getting it. In reality, promotion is not available to the majority of workers and the chances become less and less as one approaches the organizational pyramid. Psychologically, however, the opportunity for advancement is not viewed as promotion alone. It may also mean personal development and growth and increase

in responsibility as well. In any case, the organizational reality being as it is, which ultimately has to be accepted with all its limitations, employees expect that individual merit is rewarded and that it is related to a chance to advance, develop and grow in the organization. It is said that even where a person does not believe that he deserves a promotion, it is still highly important to him that the management is fair and consistent in promoting the best men, otherwise, there is likely to be an unfavourable attitude developed in the employees. If the criteria of such reward are clear to the employees through consistent and firm practices of management the employees can accept it, even when it is personally some what frustrating. But if the company knowingly or unknowingly leads the employees to expect advancement every one of and when promotion does not come, attitudes are bound to become highly unfavourable and employer-employees relationship gets strained.

The question has been often raised whether job satisfaction leads to performance or performance leads to job satisfaction (Lawler & Porler, 1976). The assumption which seems most realistic is that satisfaction and productivity are in a circular relationship in which each affects the other. Using this model, it can be said that high satisfaction indicates a predisposition to be productive if effective leadership is provided. From the various studies a general relationship emerges between job satisfaction and productivity as shown in Figure 1. Line C of the chart shows the condition of high productivity and low job satisfaction which can occur when the supervisor pushes the production through techniques of scientific management. Line A represents for condition which believes that satisfied workers are the best workers and tries to keep workers happy regardless of the effects of organizational goals. In this condition, the workers may derive much job satisfaction, but work may not to be done. This condition is described by one supervisor as “my workers are so happy that they don’t feel like working”. The middle line B appears to be the most desirable arrangement where high satisfaction and high productivity are combined together.

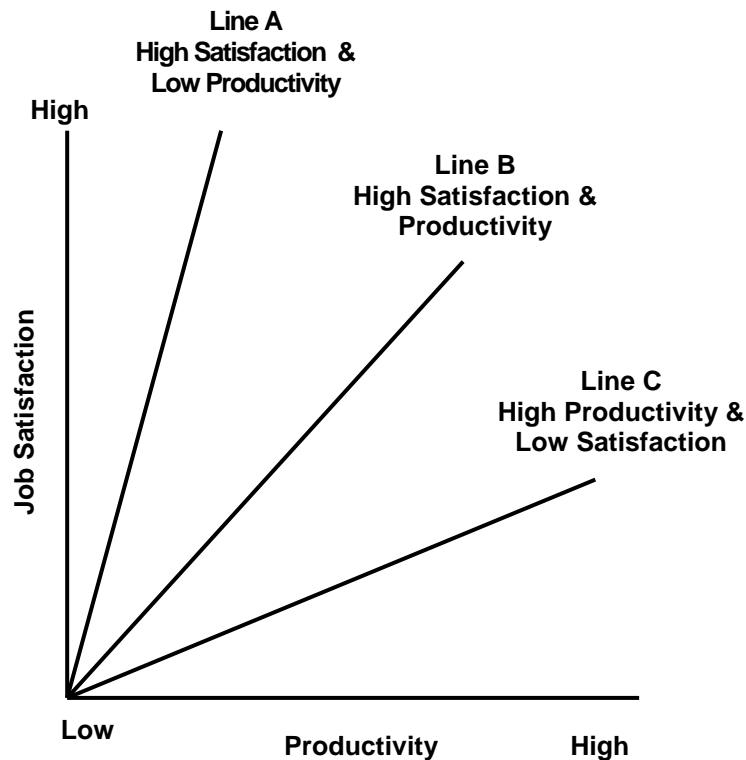


Figure # 1: Relation of Job Satisfaction And Productivity

Satisfied workers will not necessarily be the highest producers. There are many possible moderating variables, the most important of which seems to be rewards. If people receive rewards they feel are equitable, they will be satisfied and this is likely to result in greater performance effort. Also recent research evidence indicates that satisfaction may not necessarily lead to individual performance improvement but does lead to departmental and organizational level improvement.

Research has uncovered a moderate relationship between satisfaction and turnover. High job satisfaction will not, in and of itself, keep turnover low, but it does seem to help. On the other hand, if there is considerable job dissatisfaction, there is likely to be high turnover.

There are other factors such as commitment to the organization that play a role in this relationship between satisfaction and turnover. Some people cannot see themselves working anywhere else, so they remain regardless of how dissatisfied they feel. Another factor is the general economy when things in the economy are

going well and there is little unemployment, typically there will be an increase in turnover because people will begin looking for better opportunities with other organizations. Even if they are satisfied, many people are willing to leave if the opportunities elsewhere promise to be better. On the other hand, if jobs are tough to get and downsizing is occurring, as it has been in recent years, dissatisfied employees will stay where they are. On an overall basis, however, it is reasonable to say that job satisfaction is important in employee turnover. Although, absolutely no turnover is not necessarily beneficial to the organization, a low turnover rate is usually desirable because of training costs and the drawbacks of inexperience.

(v) NATURE OF WORK

The nature of the work performed by employees has a significant impact on their level of job satisfaction (Larwood, 1984; Landy, 1989; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992; and Luthans, 1998). According to Luthans (1992), employees derive satisfaction from work that is interesting and challenging, and a job that provides them with status. Landy (1989) advocates that work that is personally interesting to employees is likely to contribute to job satisfaction. Similarly, research suggests that task variety may facilitate job satisfaction (Eby et al., 1999). This is based on the view that skill variety has strong effects on job satisfaction, implying that the greater the variety of skills that employees are able to utilize in their jobs, the higher their level of satisfaction (Ting, 1997). Sharma & Bhaskar (1991) postulate that the single most important influence on a person's job satisfaction experience comes from the nature of the work assigned to him/her by the organisation. They purport that if the job entails adequate variety, challenge, discretion and scope for using one's own abilities and skills, the employee doing the job is likely to experience job satisfaction. Khaleque & Choudhary (1984) found in their study of Indian managers, that the nature of work was the most important factor in determining job satisfaction for top managers, and job security as the most important factor in job satisfaction for managers at the bottom.

Similarly, Liden et al. (2000) research involving 337 employees and their supervisors found that desirable job characteristics increased work satisfaction. Using a sample of satisfied medical technologists, Blau (1999) concluded that increased task responsibilities are related to overall job satisfaction. Similarly, Culpin and Wright (2002) found in their study of job amongst expatriate women managers, that they enjoyed the expansion of their job responsibilities. These women's job satisfaction increased as they saw the significant impact of their job on their employees. Reskin & Padavic (1994) claim that "workers value authority in its own right and having authority increases workers' job satisfaction". Aamodt (1999) posits the view that job satisfaction is influenced by opportunities for challenge and growth as well as by the opportunity to accept responsibility. Mentally challenging work that the individual can successfully accomplish is satisfying and that employees prefer jobs that provide them with opportunities to use their skills and abilities that offer a variety of tasks, freedom, and feedback regarding performance, is valued by most employees (Larwood, 1984; Tziner & Latham, 1989; Luthans, 1998; and Robbins, 1998). Accordingly, Robbins (1998) argues that "under conditions of moderate challenge, most employees will experience pleasure and satisfaction."

(vi) GENDER AND JOB SATISFACTION

Gender is another demographic characteristic that researchers have often investigated in relation to certain aspects of job satisfaction. Hulin & Smith (1964) found that male managers were more satisfied with their jobs than female managers in upper level management. This is supported by the fact that women reported lower overall levels of job satisfaction compared to men, as they rate work burden greater than the men did, as well as most of the women have greater responsibilities at home as they bear the dual pressure of home and work (Bishay, 1996). In addition to these, Sousa-Poza & Sousa-Poza (2003), Long (2005), and Kosteas (2009) emphasize the importance of expectations in job satisfaction. All three papers found evidence supporting the hypothesis that part of the difference in job satisfaction between men and

women is due to the fact that women have lower expectations. The above mentioned notions revealed that male workers are reported to have better job satisfaction since they expect more in their career as compared to their female counterparts.

Blum & Naylor (1968) said that security play a role in job satisfaction. Kalanidhi (1973) found women workers treat security as most important factors.

Gender has been figured prominently in literature on job satisfaction among postsecondary faculty. Noting that female faculty members have tended to be clustered in non-tenured positions in the lower academic ranks and generally have received lower salaries than have their male counterparts, researchers have expressed concern about the status of women in higher education (Tack & Patitu, 1992). Female faculty members have reported less satisfaction than have male faculty members in many areas (Hagedorn, 1996, 1998; U.S. Department of Education, 1998; Fiorentino, 1999; and Tang & Talpade, 1999). The literature also contains examples in which women reported higher satisfaction with certain facets of job satisfaction, such as relationships with co-workers (Tang & Talpade, 1999), than men did. Nevertheless, differences between men and women relative to job satisfaction in the postsecondary education context have consistently been present.

Bilgic (1998) did not find clear gender differences in overall job satisfaction in Turkey, but did find clear and significant gender differences related to pay satisfaction and satisfaction with the physical environment. The Turkish women expressed less satisfaction with their pay and working environments than the men did. Khaleque & Rahman (1987) found that there were significant differences between some demographic variables (age, experience, social status) and job satisfaction in Bangladesh. Older workers and married women were more satisfied with their jobs than other workers were. Traditional culture is of substantial importance in predicting and affecting job satisfaction in Kuwait (Metle, 2002). Kuwaiti women employees were dissatisfied with their jobs in the Kuwaiti government sector because Kuwaiti traditional culture negatively affects Kuwaiti

women's level of job satisfaction. There have been few empirical studies of gender and job satisfaction in Korea.

Some studies have shown women to be more satisfied than men (Bartol & Wortman, 1975; Murray & Atkinson, 1981; Hodson, 1989; Clark & Oswal, 1996, Clark, 1997; Sloane & Williams, 1996), whereas other studies have shown men to be more satisfied than women (Hulin & Smith, 1964; Weaver, 1974; Shapiro & Stern, 1975; Forgionne & Peeters, 1982; Jagacinski, 1987; and Chiu, 1998). It is important to observe, however, that most of the researchers in this area reported no significant differences between the sexes in relation to job satisfaction (Brief et al., 1977; Golembiewski, 1977; Weaver, 1978; Smith et al., 1982; Mottaz, 1986; Brush et al., 1987; Tait et al., 1989; de Vaus & McAllister, 1991; Witt & Nye, 1992; Ugorji, 1997; and Smith et al., 1998).

In regard to what men and women look for in a job, the evidence is also inconsistent (de Vaus & McAllister, 1991). Intrinsic and extrinsic work orientations represent work-related preferences to value specific types of rewards inherent in the work environment (Malka & Chatman, 2003). Individuals high in intrinsic orientation value opportunities for satisfaction with the work itself, feelings of self-determination and competence, and personal development, whereas individuals high in extrinsic orientation primarily value financial compensation, promotion, and prestige. Some studies show that women value extrinsic job characteristics more than do men (Loscocco, 1989), and some show the opposite (Neil & Snizek, 1987). Yet others have found no differences between men and women in terms of intrinsic and extrinsic work orientation (Brief et al., 1977). According to Mottaz (1986), at lower work levels men focused on intrinsic and extrinsic job rewards and had more intrinsic work-related values, whereas women emphasized social rewards and more relationship-oriented work-related values. However, at managerial levels, men and women tended to view their jobs as being equally rewarding and had similar work-related values. De Vaus & McAllister (1991) examined gender differences in

orientation to work, using closely comparable data collected in nine Western European countries. Their results show that men place greater value than women on both extrinsic and intrinsic work values and are somewhat more satisfied than women with their jobs.

Hodson (1989) analysed gender differences in job satisfaction among full-time workers. Analysis revealed few differences between men and women in job satisfaction when considering job characteristics, family responsibilities, and personal expectations. Little support is found for theories that men and women:

- (1) Focus on different aspects of work in arriving at a given level of job satisfaction;
- (2) Differentially condition their job satisfaction according to the extent of their family responsibilities; and
- (3) Employ different personal expectations in evaluating their jobs.

Clark (1997) tried to analyse why women report higher levels of job satisfaction than men even though by most objective standards their jobs are worse than men's. Neither the different jobs that men and women do neither, their different work values, nor could sample selection account for the gender satisfaction differential. The research found that the gender satisfaction differential disappears for the young, the higher-educated, professionals and those in male-dominated workplaces, for all of whom there is less likely to be a gender difference in job expectations.

Opara et al. (2005) found that for African-American female workers, the high job satisfaction was associated with high levels of satisfaction with salary. For male African-American workers, the situation is more complex. African-American male IT workers who were satisfied with their salaries were also satisfied with their jobs. Some male African American IT workers who were not satisfied with their salaries

were satisfied with their jobs. This satisfaction was related to opportunities for advancement and other job facets.

Okpara et al. (2005) examined the effects of gender on the job satisfaction of US academics. The research revealed that female faculty was more satisfied with their work and co-workers, whereas, their male colleagues were more satisfied with their pay, promotions, supervision, and overall job satisfaction. Results also indicated that ranks were significant in explaining gender differences and job satisfaction of the respondents.

A 2007 paper by Sousa-Poza & Sousa-Poza analysed the effect of job satisfaction on labour turnover by gender using data from the first two waves of the Swiss Household Panel. The results refute the claim that the gender/job satisfaction paradox (i.e., the fact that women tend to be more satisfied at work than men) is being driven by self-selection. Ayers et al. (2008) studied the level of job satisfaction of male and female dentists in New Zealand. The mean career satisfaction score of males was found to be slightly higher than that of female respondents.

Kim et al. (2009) investigated the moderating roles of gender and organization level in the relationship between role stress and job satisfaction for hotel employees. Findings revealed that the effect of role stress on job satisfaction is significantly stronger for female employees than male employees. Mora & Ferrer-i-Carbonell's (2009) research focused on the gender differences in job satisfaction reported by recent university graduates in Catalonia (Spain). Young and highly educated women in this study reported a lower satisfaction with some aspects of their job.

In comparison between public sector and private sector also generally women show higher job satisfaction but men, who work in public sector, show higher job satisfaction than women, who work in private sector, and there was much difference in especially job stability, job specification, and satisfaction in welfare

benefit. In public sector gender differences were bigger and women showed higher satisfaction in wage and working condition than men but men showed higher satisfaction in welfare benefit (Jung & Kim, 2004).

Analyzing the relation between living satisfaction and job satisfaction, men show higher satisfaction in living satisfaction, but women show higher satisfaction in job satisfaction. This can be explained that women workers face conflicts in the patriarchal system but their work affect positively in their sense of self-achievement and self-actualization even though lower working condition and compensation than men's (Bang, 2000). Also it is because women have lower expectation in job than men (Hodson, 1985; Major, 1987; and Sloane & Williams, 1995). Sloane & Williams (1995) also said that 63 % of men responded that their wage was little but only 48% of women responded that their wage was little even though women had been paid much lower.

Clark (1997) explained that women's and men's working value is different from each other, that is, men focus more than women on promotion, wage, and job stability but women focus on their relationship with their supervisor, job specification, and working hours. Age and health are variables, which affect job satisfaction of both women and men, and education has much more negative effect for men (Miller, 1980). Marital status and working hours, labor union, and supervising status etc. are only significant determinant for women.

Women's job satisfaction and quality of life were different according to their marital status and education; unmarried women were satisfied more in their job than married ones and the higher education shows the better job satisfaction and quality of life. Usually discrimination against women workers, lower wage and opportunity cause women unsatisfied in their job (Lee & Kim, 1998). For professional women they are satisfied with their job comparably but still unsatisfied with their working condition such as promotion opportunity and what they do and feel discrimination (Son, 1999; and Yoon, 1999). Jung & Tak (2004) discussed that wage and working condition caused more stress for women but family conflict for men.

(vii) OPTIMISM AND JOB SATISFACTION

According to Rasheed (2010) every organization has three types of general resources that are physical, financial and human. Most critical one is no doubt the human resource of an organization. These are the humans who can accelerate the process of organizational development or can demolish the organizational progress. This is another fact that as human resource proves to be nucleus of organizational resources, motivation is central and vital component which is key contributor in job satisfaction of an employee. Motivating employees has become one of the most significant and most demanding activities for the human resource management in any organization. There is no doubt that efficiency suffers with demotivated personnel. Organizations invest in effectual strategies to get motivated workforce to compete in market. Salary alone does not prove to be vital motivator for everyone in an organization. Various factors motivate people differently depending upon the nature of an organization and its key contributors in developing learning environment. Optimism is one such motivational factor which can be reasoned to play its vital role in job satisfaction. In a variety of contemporary industries, including business, construction, engineering, retail sales, and medicine, attitude and conduct powerfully influence every aspect of an organization. Negative attitudes and conduct undermine productivity, worker well-being, and the satisfaction of clients, whereas positive attitudes and conduct generate a more productive, healthier, and effective workplace. Two theorists (Scheier & Cover, 1985) define optimism 'as a generalized expectancy that good, as opposed to bad, outcomes will generally occur when confronted with problem, attitude or disposition that good things will happen independent of one's ability.

There are three positive conditions i.e., happiness, hope, and optimism. The differ in mechanism in which they are acquired. Happiness is nothing more than a biological state brought about by the release and blocked of certain neurotransmitters (primarily nor epinephrine, dopamine, and serotonin) triggered by

physical and cognitive activities. Individual differences, primarily acquired through learning, could account for the differences in reported levels of happiness by different individuals after experiencing certain activities. Hope seems to be a primarily learned condition. It seems that it is usually learned at an early age through the socialized reabsorption process. It seems to require little cognitive thought and, in fact, actively thinking about the pros and cons of some situations could lead an individual to lose all hope. Optimism, in comparison, seems to be a primarily cognitive activity. It seems that some people do indeed have a tendency to have an optimistic attitude about life and situations in general, but that their optimism, unlike hope, is based on logical, rational facts that are processed cognitively. So happiness, being primarily biological in nature, seems to be the most basic, fundamental condition of the three. Hope, being primarily a learned condition, can lead to happiness, and optimism, a primarily cognitive condition which, in the words of one researcher, spawns hope. And, in turn, happiness seems to reinforce optimism leading to a cycle of happy, hopeful, optimistic persons.

Tiger (1979) identified optimism as an adaptive characteristic. He viewed optimism as a driver of human evolution, since optimism gives rise to thinking about the future. When people start anticipating the future they anticipate either good or bad outcomes. According to this view optimism is inherent in human nature. The same concept has been defined as “Evolved Psychological Mechanism” by modern psychologists (Buss, 1991). Just like cognitive abilities optimism also evolves over a period of time. Over the past few years there has been a shift in the relationship between personality variables and job outcomes. Previously, researchers tended to focus on understanding of variables such as honesty, confidence and dependability (Conley, 1984), whereas, modern researchers tend to focus on dispositional affects, which consist of variables like optimism, depression, positive affectivity, negative affectivity, warmth, happiness, neuroticism and the like. The most common job outcomes are those of job satisfaction and job commitment. As Goleman (1995) has stated that personality

has a strong influence on job satisfaction and he proposed that managers should make the work environment conducive to bringing out the best in the employees. The manipulation of these variables can be traced as far back as Weitz (1952), who proposed that the individual's general statement of dissatisfaction with his job should be evaluated in terms of his tendency to "gripe".

Lightsey (1996) reviewed literature on optimism and concluded that an optimistic outlook leads to lesser incidence of psychological dysfunctional ties and greater incidence of overall well being. In addition to this, optimism and goal setting plus achievement have been positively correlated. Stein & Book (2001) view the optimistic approach as essential for enhancing resilience, the capacity to bounce back in the face of adversity.

The underlying concept of optimism is self-efficacy and happiness, which gives an individual a belief that he can successfully complete tasks and meet objectives (Goleman, 1998). Diener et al.'s study (2002) is in line with Goleman's idea. They are in agreement that positive affectivity (cheerfulness) influences job outcomes such as job satisfaction. According to them cheerful individuals are highly motivated. They readily anticipate success and tackle difficulties and challenges and consider obstacles as temporary feature of the situation. Even when cheerful individuals lose their jobs they view unemployment as a temporary condition. Another implication is that they are adept at social skills due to their good mood and therefore they are offered desirable positions in teams and projects. Another conclusion arrived at by the study was that personalities having pleasant and positive appearance are likely to receive favourable performance ratings. However, there were also some moderating variables operating like parental income which provided them opportunities to gain higher levels of education which consequently provided them with good employment positions.

Staw & Ross (1985) measured job satisfaction on two different occasions, once in 1966 and again in 1971, despite the changes in pay rate and change in

occupational status over a period of time, the 1966 job satisfaction was a strong predictor of 1971 job satisfaction. The results strongly supported the relative importance of “dispositional effects” in the determination of job satisfaction.

Staw et al. (1986) correlated affective disposition with various indicators of job satisfaction during early, middle and late adolescence. They found that job satisfaction was significantly and positively related to dispositional affect measured as far back as early adolescence.

Luthans et al. (2008) attempted to study the effect of positive mood in health care services. Among other variables studied were optimism and its relation with job performance. Results were indicative of positive relationship between measured state of optimism and supervisory performance appraisal.

Seligman (1998) while studying optimism in life insurance agents discovered that optimism leads to higher productivity and lower turnover in the workplace.

Fredrickson’s (2001) research showed that positive mood facilitates problem solving skills and increases performance, adaptation and well being. At another place, Wright (2005) states that the development of psychological resources like hope, optimism and resilience leads to enhanced job performance. These results support the well established conjecture that happy workers are productive workers.

Optimism also fosters a sense of ownership of work. Once ownership of the work is taken, people tend to feel an increased sense of responsibility for achievement of organizational goals, which in turn, promotes increased productivity.

(viii) NATURE OF OCCUPATION

Job satisfaction is a complex phenomenon that has been studied quite extensively. Various literature sources indicate that there is an association between job satisfaction and motivation. Motivation is hard to define, but there is a positive

correlation between job satisfaction, performance and motivation, whereby motivation encourages an employee, depending on their level of job satisfaction, to act in a certain manner (Hollyforde & Whiddett, 2002).

Job satisfaction is described at this point as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience. Job satisfaction results from the perception that one's job fulfils or allows the fulfillment of one's own important job values, providing that and to the degree that those values are congruent with one's needs. According to Kreitner et al. (2002) job satisfaction is an affective and emotional response to various facets of one's job.

Traditional studies of professionals ordinarily deal with categorization, description and analysis of professional groups. These include scientists, classical professions such as physicians and lawyers, older callings such as priests and officers, today also engineers, architects, psychologists, teachers, administrators and sometimes social workers. The primary focus with this kind of research has been to define the differential specific of professions i.e., what they have in common, and how they differ from other occupations.

Studies of professions clearly illustrate the intrinsic interplay between general occupations of society and history, sociological theory, definitions of social categories, empirical research and political values-or more briefly; between theory, facts and politics.

(a) Job Satisfaction Among Doctors: The healthcare industry requires a more skilled workforce today as a result of advancement in medical technology and the demand for more sophisticated patient care. Job satisfaction among doctors' professionals is increasingly being recognized as a measure that should be included in quality improvement programmers. Low job satisfaction can result in increased staff turnover and absenteeism, which affects the efficiency of health services. The profession of doctors is well distinct from any other profession in its deliverance and

social status Doctors enjoy highly prestigious social status and are always at obligatory position for people in general. However, profession itself involves some commitment, dedication and skill of empathy to enjoy that status. By virtue of their emergency duties, normally they are over exhausted and are not able to enjoy family hood, and oftenly it causes a strong source of personal conflicts. The job satisfaction of doctors depends on various factors, though there is not much researches to highlight on this important aspect of their lives.

The prevalence of dissatisfaction among doctors (Kaur et al., 2009) has been given considerable importance in recent years as it affects patient satisfaction and can adversely influence patient behaviour (e.g., adherence to medical treatment), leading to a reduction in the quality of care. At the individual level, low level of job satisfaction and high level of job stress are threats to mental and physical health, quality of life, goal achievement and personal development. At the workplace, these conditions can lead to increased absenteeism, conflict and turnover; and reduced quality and quantity of work. Job satisfaction is also important to the future recruitment of new doctors and retention of the existing doctors, in addition to the productivity and quality of the services provided by the doctors, who are an essential and integral component of our medical care system.

A significant proportion of doctors were found to be dissatisfied with the average number of their working hours and salary. Many of them did not perceive their work environment as good. Factors like the average number of work-hours per day and the number of night shifts per month were found to have a significant association with dissatisfaction. Further studies are needed to explore how best the work-hours of doctors could be adjusted to improve job satisfaction among them; and also to explore the influence of such high levels of dissatisfaction among doctors on their own health, on the optimal provision of patient care, and on the society as a whole. (Kaur et al., 2009)

Involvement with research was associated with more favorable job characteristics and job satisfaction perceptions among physicians (Mohr and Burgess, 2011). Although there is a time and opportunity cost involved with research, medical centers that provide physicians with the opportunity to conduct research may have a more satisfied workforce. Research conducted in academic medical centers by active clinical physicians has led to many important advances and generated the impetus to change health systems, guide evidence-based practices, increase the ability to understand global health issues, influence legislation related to health issues. Medical school training that emphasizes research involvement can provide opportunities for physicians to gain knowledge and skills that facilitate working in multidisciplinary teams and delivering high-quality, evidence-based care. Physicians who are involved with research during medical school training are more likely to be involved with research following graduation. Studies of physician satisfaction have shown that greater physician satisfaction is associated with greater patient adherence to treatment and with greater patient satisfaction. Zuger (2004) however, highlighted several longitudinal studies reporting that the physician population has become less satisfied over time. To address this, research opportunities may be leveraged to improve physician satisfaction. Physicians may pursue research activities to gain greater autonomy. Job autonomy may be a strong motivating force leading to greater satisfaction. Research opportunity is a particularly salient characteristic in attracting and retaining skilled employees in academic and general hospital systems. In a multiyear study conducted in the Veterans Health Administration, a majority (61%) of employees with medical degrees indicated they would not work at the organization if research opportunities were not available. Little research has examined the relationships that research involvement and research-relevant organizational characteristics have with physicians' perceptions of job characteristics and physicians' job satisfaction across broad disciplinary backgrounds. According to the model, five core job characteristics (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback) affect three critical psychological

states: experiences of meaningfulness, responsibility for outcomes, and knowledge of results. These three psychological states affect job satisfaction, growth satisfaction, and motivation.

According to this theory, the perceived locus of causality includes external, internal, and impersonal factors that explain success or failure. People who perceive a greater locus of internal control are more likely to experience inherent satisfaction and enjoyment. The locus of causality also influences perceptions of job characteristics, such as autonomy. Because physicians who reported more autonomy also reported lower work overload, burnout, and quality-of-care ratings, the autonomy component may be a particularly relevant aspect in research to explain satisfaction. Medical center characteristics may also influence job characteristics and job satisfaction. Physicians working within an academically affiliated hospital may have greater opportunities for involvement in collaborating on scholarly work, such as grants or manuscripts, and more supportive peer feedback for improvement. The activities may occur through the medical center or through the academic affiliate's research groups and committees. The distance between the university and the hospital, however, may influence opportunities for research involvement. Commuting to work can play a role in stress and job satisfaction. Universities located far away from the affiliated hospital may present an opportunity cost disincentive, because the physical distance could disrupt the physicians' commutes between home and the research and clinical setting.

The burden of dissatisfaction among medical professionals concerns both physicians and policy makers, especially given the potential ramifications on the work force. Abundant researches document a strong relationship between low levels of physician satisfaction and burnout, intention to leave, and job turnover.

Moreover, low physician satisfaction is associated with self-reported psychiatric symptoms and poorer perceived mental health. Not surprisingly,

dissatisfied physicians are less likely to recommend to medical students that they pursue their speciality. Importantly, physician satisfaction appears to benefit patients. Several studies show a positive relationship between higher physician satisfaction and patient satisfaction and outcomes. Patients cared for by satisfied physicians declare more trust and confidence in their physicians, have better continuity, higher ratings of their care, lower no-show rates and enhanced adherence to their medical care. There is also some evidence that higher job satisfaction is associated with lower likelihood of patient errors and suboptimal patient care.

Physician satisfaction can be influenced by factors intrinsic to the individual physician (age, gender, race, and speciality) and extrinsic to the physician (work environment, practice setting, patient characteristics, and income). In this way, satisfaction is not a static property in any physician or physician group, but reflects a dynamic interplay among the expectations and environments within which they work. Although each physician, physician group, and speciality has distinct factors that affect satisfaction, none are immune to potential dissatisfaction.

Some radiologists are becoming pessimistic. Declining levels of reimbursement, battles with other medical specialities over turf, and concerns about the commoditization of radiology and radiologists are some of the factors that promote discouragement. A particularly troubling aspect of this discouragement is its potential effect on medical students and residents. Writing more than 20 years ago in *The New England Journal of Medicine*, Dr. Carola Eisenberg, former Dean of Student Affairs at Harvard Medical School, argued that many students become caught up in a culture of negativity sustained by more senior students, residents, and attending physicians. She describes the case of a particular third-year medical student. The student had become profoundly discouraged. The problem was not the work; that was as exciting as he had hoped it would be. It was his interaction with his teachers. Once the formal teaching rounds were over, they talked only about the problems they faced. This atmosphere can take a substantial toll on the next generation of physicians

There is ample evidence that contemporary physicians are discouraged. A 2006 survey of U.S. physicians by the American College of Physician Executives disclosed that nearly 60% of respondents have considered leaving the practice of medicine because they are discouraged by the state of U.S. health care. Almost 70% said they knew of at least one physician who had stopped practicing medicine because of low morale. The factors contributing to low morale are numerous and include low reimbursement, loss of autonomy, bureaucratic red tape, patient overload, and loss of respect. The consequences are significant and include fatigue (77%), emotional burnout (66%), and family discord and depression (32%).

One thing that rarely gets mentioned is that, unlike other industries that are cyclical, the practice of medicine continually gets worse and worse, more intolerable, more onerous, with absolutely no hope or reason for any optimism either in the near or remote future.

To address this challenge, radiologists who work with medical students and residents need to examine the roots of pessimistic attitudes and look for ways to promote a more hopeful outlook throughout medicine. According to Seligman (2002), a founder of the contemporary positive psychology movement, pessimists are up to eight times more likely than optimists to become depressed when adverse events occur. They tend to perform below their potential, underachieving in school, in sports, and at work. They also fall ill more frequently and suffer a lower life expectancy. Their interpersonal relationships tend to be of poorer quality than those of optimists. And because they dwell on difficulties, they set lower expectations for themselves, perform less well, and throw in the towel sooner.

(b) Job Satisfaction Among Engineers: In the course of everyday work, engineers employ many types of knowledge. Some of this knowledge is specific to a particular occupation and universal among its members. The properties of wood, steel, and concrete, for example, are part of every structural engineer's knowledge repertoire;

industrial engineers, meanwhile, are well versed in the dynamics of production systems, and hardware engineers are fluent in the functioning of gates, data arrays, and memory stores. Engineering professionals build up their distinct knowledge bases over time, codifying what they can in textbooks, design manuals, and standards. Bell(1990) argued that historically established knowledge of this type is so central to modern work that it renders formal education more important than experience. Scholars of engineering work concur, claiming that although day-to-day design problems may necessitate individual ingenuity, engineers primarily use the field's established knowledge to solve problems. Studies of engineers in the field, however, often tell a different story portraying historically established knowledge as secondary to knowledge that engineers generate in the course of practice. Building conceptually on the work of Schultz & Henderson (1985) described how coordination and conflict among product designers occurred around collaboratively created drawings and sketches to such a large extent that these artifacts became the locus for situated, practice-generated knowledge. Similarly, contended that models that portray professionals as problem solvers who map the present situation onto known problems and techniques are incomplete and misleading because they ignore the complexities of practice. The rational problem-solving paradigm falls apart, for example, when engineers address new problems that do not fit existing categories. In these instances, engineers engage in a reflective discourse involving diagnosis, experimentation, development, and design, argued that because professionals work in environments characterized by uncertainty and uniqueness, they must generate substantial knowledge in the course of everyday activities.

The project structure of engineering work shapes how engineers' use of knowledge might best be captured and represented. Engineering work is typically organized as projects and staffed by teams that work together for months or years. Projects often have specified stages with clear milestones and associated deliverables. For example, in structural engineering, projects have four industry-

standard phases that reflect increasing sophistication and detail in design drawings, calculations, and models over time. Moreover, in many engineering projects, a different set of actors is involved during each stage or phase. The project organization of work suggests that different types of knowledge may be required at different points in time, perhaps by different people. For example, at the beginning of a project, design concepts would seem likely to predominate, whereas at the end of projects, construction or manufacturing issues may figure heavily. In short, an accurate portrayal of engineers' knowledge use would need to provide a record of the types and derivation of knowledge that engineers employ over the course of a project, or what we call a 'knowledge profile' of an engineering occupation. Such a profile would, for example, make clear how often engineers require knowledge of theoretical constructs from math, science, or engineering versus knowledge of product configuration and functioning. It would also reveal changes in the relative frequency of use of each type of knowledge that occurs as a project progresses.

(c) Job Satisfaction Among Teacher: Professionalization has long been a source of both hope and frustration for teachers. Since early in the 20th century, educators have repeatedly sought to promote the view that elementary and secondary teaching is a highly complex kind of work, requiring specialized knowledge and skill and deserving of the same status and standing as traditional professions, like law and medicine. This movement to professionalize teaching has, however, been marked by both confusion and contention, much of which centers around what it means to be a profession and to professionalize a particular kind of work. To some, the essence of a profession is advanced training and, hence, the way to best professionalize teaching is to upgrade teachers' knowledge and skills through professional development. For others, the essence of a profession lies in the attitudes individual practitioners hold toward their work. In this view the best way to professionalize teaching is to instill an ethos of public service and high standards – a sense of professionalism – among teachers. For even others, the focus is on the organizational conditions under which teachers work; in this

view, the best way to professionalize teaching is to improve teachers' working conditions. As a result of this wide range of emphases, it is often unclear whether education critics and reformers are referring to the same things when they discuss professionalization in teaching.

Roger (1955) stated that majority of male teachers were very much satisfied with classroom teaching when it is talked about teacher-pupil relationship. Smith (1978) found that teachers feel students as their child.

The role of a teacher cannot be denied as she/he has been assigned the responsibility of moulding future generation through education. Principals ought to have some understanding of the factors that influence teachers' satisfaction with their work lives and the impact this satisfaction has on teachers' involvement in their schools, especially when changes are implemented. Farrugia (1986) demonstrated that teachers experience job satisfaction as a result of teaching a group of pupils or standard they feel comfortable with; appreciation expressed by parents, authority and pupils; passing on knowledge and values to others; teaching their favorite subjects; working with colleagues and exercising autonomy. Participation in decision-making and exercising autonomy have been reported to contribute to job satisfaction among Australian teachers (Rice & Schneider, 1994), while in Japan, Ninomiya & Okato (1990) cited in Mwamwenda (1995) indicated that job satisfaction among teachers was associated with freedom to do their work as they saw fit, a sufficient supply of learning material and equipment, a good salary, a reasonable class size as well as the support and cooperation of colleagues. Wisniewski & Gargiolu (1997) demonstrated that teachers' job satisfaction in Poland was associated with freedom to do what they wanted, encouragement received from those in authority, participation in decision and policy making, adequate supply of teaching and learning resources, good salary, cooperation from pupils, parents and teachers, and participation in school management. Van der Westhuizen & Smit (2001) report that there is a tendency worldwide towards job dissatisfaction in education. Their

research indicates that educators display dissatisfaction with the introduction of a new education policy, new post structures and unfair appointments. In a study of Black female teachers (van der Westhuizen & du Toit, 1994), job satisfaction was observed to be a function of pupils' behaviour, job security, relationships with colleagues and pupils, and teaching as a task. However, other research (Kirsten, 2000) and van Wyk (2000) indicated that as an occupational group teachers reported relatively high levels of satisfaction. Kirsten (2000), and van Wyk's (2000) research indicated that both male and female educators, school principals, Black and White, experienced greater job satisfaction than was previously believed.

According to Neumann et al. (1988), job satisfaction among teachers can be expressed as their willingness and preparedness to stay in the teaching profession irrespective of the discomfort and the desire to leave teaching for a better job. Mwamwenda's (1995) research indicated that nearly 50% of rural teachers were dissatisfied with their working conditions. The latter research revealed that teachers in these areas indicated that they would not choose teaching again as a career if given a second chance. Blood et al. (2002) found in their research on speech language pathologists working in public schools, that the longer they remained in their jobs, the more likely they were to report higher levels of job satisfaction. Anderman et al. (1991) posit the view that a school culture that emphasizes accomplishment, recognition, and affiliation is related to teacher satisfaction and commitment and that principals' actions create distinct working environments within schools that are highly predictive of teacher satisfaction and commitment.

Similar to professionals in other occupations, job satisfaction in educators has been related to a number of factors. Researchers have linked job satisfaction to teacher attrition (Bobbitt et al., 1994) demographic variables including age, education and gender (Peterson & Custer, 1994; Ganser & Wham, 1998; Castillo et al., 1999; and Eichinger, 2000), practice related variables such as salaries, credentialing, opportunities for promotion, supervision, recognition, student behaviour, working

conditions, and sense of autonomy (Evans, 1998; and Prelip, 2001). Wisniewski & Gargiulo (1997) maintain that high attrition rates amongst teachers can be attributed to job dissatisfaction. They concluded that a lack of recognition, few opportunities for promotion, excessive paperwork, loss of autonomy, lack of supplies, low pay, and stressful interpersonal interactions all contributed to teachers' decisions to leave schools. Satisfaction within teaching is associated with teacher effectiveness, which ultimately affects student achievement (Ashton & Webb, 1986; and Carnegie Forum, 1986). Darling-Hammond (1995) states that rigid, bureaucratically administered schools have not succeeded in implementing change in education reform, while schools using collective or collaborative problem-solving strategies based on an underlying sense of commitment have succeeded. Senge (1990) found that without commitment, substantive change becomes problematic. Hence, job satisfaction appears to be one aspect of commitment. A key variable associated with a faculty member's decision to leave or to remain at a higher education institution is job satisfaction (Smart, 1990; McBride et al., 1992; Mallam, 1994; Nienhuis, 1994; Hagedorn, 1996, 1998; and Isaac, 1997). Gaining a thorough understanding of job satisfaction has implications for improving the working life of faculty members via providing insights to administrators responsible for designing and implementing staff development strategies and interventions within the post-secondary education context. However, research on postsecondary faculty job satisfaction has been fragmented and contradictory (Fiorentino, 1999). This could be due in part to the mobility of post-secondary faculty, who tend to identify more strongly with their discipline than with their institution (Nienhuis, 1994). Therefore, there has been need for national level research addressing job satisfaction among post-secondary faculty, especially research that focuses on faculty members within specific disciplines.

In reviewing the literature, the researchers found several studies that addressed job satisfaction among populations serving in the post-secondary education context, including administrators (Berwick, 1992; Santos & Eddy, 1992,

Singh et al, 1995), librarians (Leckie & Brett, 1997), and student support services personnel (Brewer & Clippard, 2002). In addition, numerous studies explored job satisfaction among post-secondary faculty from different disciplines (Isaac, 1997; Ernst, 1998; Tang & Talpade, 1999; Sanderson et al., 2000; U.S. Department of Education, 2001; and Valadez & Anthony, 2001) as well as among post-secondary faculty from single disciplines (Moody, 1996; Peterson & Provo, 1998; Robertson & Bean, 1998; and Truell et al., 1998).

As teaching does require a great deal of roughness and commitment, so in teaching it is more important to have mental commitment and loyalty than physical presence. In his study the researcher (Malik, 2011) investigated the present level of job satisfaction among the faculty members of University of Balochistan. The major purpose of this descriptive-coreational study was to examine factors affecting job satisfaction of faculty members of University of Balochistan which was explained by Herzberg job motivator and hygiene factors. A random sample of 120 faculty members of Balochistan University was selected as a statistical sample. Employing a descriptive-correlative survey method data were collected through questionnaire. It was found that the faculty members were generally satisfied with their jobs. However, male faculty members were less satisfied than female faculty members. The factor "work itself" was the most motivating aspect for faculty. The least motivating aspect was "working conditions." The demographic characteristics were negligibly related to overall job satisfaction. The factors "work itself," and "advancement" explained 60 percent of the variance among faculty members' overall level of job satisfaction. The demographic characteristics (age, years of experience, academic rank, degree) were negligibly related to overall job satisfaction.

The extensive research that has been done on levels of job satisfaction may have distinctive applications to academic faculty. This is especially true when the separation between satisfaction and dissatisfaction is viewed in relation to the intrinsic and extrinsic characteristics of academic employment. In his well known

motivational model, Herzberg (1987) makes some basic distinctions between intrinsic and extrinsic factors. The differentiations are founded on needs related to prime human characteristics, the ability to achieve and through that achievement to experience psychological growth. The dual factors arise from alternate needs that spring from basic animal nature, a drive to avoid pain from the environment and all the learned drives that are built on those basic needs. For example, an extrinsic factor, the drive to earn a good salary, is built upon the basic need of hunger. However, intrinsic factors such as responsibility and the satisfaction with work itself arise from the human ability to personally advance and grow. In the educational setting, intrinsic factors involve a direct link between faculty and their day to day routine, the actual performance of the job itself. "Intrinsic to the job are: the work itself, responsibility, and growth or achievement (Herzberg, 1987)." Herzberg's extrinsic or dissatisfaction-avoidance factors include organizational policy, status, pay, benefits, and overall work conditions. These factors comprise the background of one's work, the environment setting. Extrinsic factors less immediately affect the day to day job but are always in the background.

A research in the U.K (NFER, 2002) indicated that teachers now rated their working life more than other employees. They were more likely to experience job satisfaction and job security and to feel informed. On the negative side, secondary teachers wanted more involvement and responsibility compared to primary teachers, whereby they were neutral. The research suggested that gains in job satisfaction and freedom from stress could impact positively on job commitment.

In China, a study concerning job satisfaction among primary school teachers in rural China concluded that teachers that were younger or with greater human capital were less satisfied, at least at the individual level, with weaker evidence showing that female teachers are more satisfied. Meanwhile, at the community and school level, teachers with greater ties with the local community would be more satisfied (Sergeant & Hannum, 2003). This showed that teachers would be able to cope with the

hardships of the remote areas if they managed to build up rapport with the local communities. As for the case of Cyprus, the study revealed that teachers in Cyprus chose teaching as their career because of the salary, the hours and the holidays. The job satisfaction, meanwhile, was enjoyed the most by the teachers in administrative posts such as principal or headmaster. The study showed that educators in higher positions (vice-principals or principals) tended to have a higher level of job satisfaction (Michalinos & Papanastasiou, 2004) and this relates to the intrinsic factors.

Ahmed et al. (2003) studied the job satisfaction of 236 teachers in senior secondary schools. Female teachers enjoyed greater satisfaction than their male counterparts did. Married teachers showed more job satisfaction than unmarried teachers did. Teachers who were teaching in government schools showed greater job satisfaction than teachers teaching in private schools. There was no significant change in the job satisfaction due to change in the level of independent variables like sex, marital status and types of schools.

Noll (2007) examined the job satisfaction and factors, which affect job satisfaction of teachers. It was found that school culture, teachers' relationship with administration, working conditions and motivation were the factors, which had a significant relationship with job satisfaction among school teachers.

Ambrose et al. (2005) conducted a qualitative study to investigate faculty satisfaction and retention. The study focused on the faculty of a private university over a period of 2 years. Findings suggested sources of satisfaction or dissatisfaction clustered into areas such as salaries, collegiality, mentoring, and the appointment, promotion, and tenure process of departmental heads.

Dhingra (2006) conducted a study on randomly selected sample of 100 teachers from different government and private schools of Patiala district to study the effect of organization climate on job satisfaction of secondary school teacher. It found that there is no significant difference in job satisfaction of government and private

secondary school teachers. Further difference between job satisfactions in relation to their organizational climate of secondary school teachers found to be significant.

Brady (2007) reported that many of the factors that affect nurse faculty in baccalaureate - and graduate degree nursing programs have a consequence on the retention of nurse faculty in associate-degree nursing programs as well. Kennerly (1989) investigated the relationship among administrative leadership behaviours, organizational characteristics, and faculty job satisfaction in baccalaureate nursing programs of private liberal art colleges. The existence of organizational behaviours such as mutual trust, respect, certain warmth, and rapport between the dean/chair and the faculty member was a predictive factor in the development of nurse faculty job satisfaction. Billingsley & Cross (1992) studied 956 general and special educators in Virginia investigated commitment to teaching, intent to stay in teaching, and job satisfaction. Findings of this study revealed greater leadership support, work involvement, and lower levels of role conflict and stress-influenced job satisfaction for both groups studied.

Hagedorn (1994) tested a causal model among faculty at different stages of career development and found that satisfaction with salary, total work hours, and co-workers support affected the level of stress and ultimately satisfaction.

According to Shan (1998), teacher job satisfaction is a predictor of teacher retention, a determinant of teacher commitment, and in turn a contributor to school effectiveness. Kim & Loadman (1994) list seven predictors of job satisfaction, namely: interaction with students, interaction with colleagues, professional challenges, professional autonomy, working conditions, salary, and opportunity for advancement. However, there are also other factors that need to be considered, for example, class sizes, workload of teachers, changes in the school curriculum and labour policies which teachers have little or no control over.

Increased freedom and flexibility of academicians would have resulted in significantly greater job satisfaction (Bender & Heywood, 2006). According to

Sonmezer & Eryaman (2008), salary, social status, advancement, ability utilization, administrative-employee relationship, creativity, security are the main factors that determine job satisfaction amongst education sector employees.

Moody (1996) reported a relationship between number of years teaching in the institution and satisfaction with the job, salary and co-workers. Spector (1997) has reviewed the most popular job satisfaction instruments and summarized the following facets of job satisfaction: appreciation, communication, co-workers, fringe benefits, job conditions, nature of the work itself, the nature of the organization itself, an organization's policies and procedures, pay, personal growth, promotion opportunities, recognition, security and supervision, and its relating factors. He also felt that the above approach has become less popular with increasing emphasis on cognitive processes rather than on underlying needs so that the attitudinal perspective has become predominant in the study of job satisfaction. Truell et al. (1998) stated that with limited studies regarding job satisfaction among faculty in community colleges, the study of job satisfaction is essential due to the increasing number of student enrollments. Truell et al. (1998) found that faculty in their sample were more satisfied with the job itself. Doughty et al. (2002) studied nurse faculty at a small Liberal Arts College assessing perception of nurse faculty regarding their work environment. Factors most appreciated by faculty were involvement, co-worker cohesion, supervisor support, and autonomy. Castillo and Cano (2004) conducted a study at an agricultural college at a large university by using the Herzberg's theory and the Wood Faculty Satisfaction/ Dissatisfaction Scale (WFSDS) to explore the factors that explain job satisfaction. Their findings showed that the work itself was the most important factor that contributed to job satisfaction, with working conditions being the least important. However, they did report that all of the factors of the Herzberg's theory were moderately related to job satisfaction. The increase in enrollment and the demands placed on faculty by the community, hospitals, and the college to produce a larger number of nursing graduates appears to be affecting morale and overall job satisfaction. Findings of Hsiu-Chin et al. (2005) were consistent with results of a study in Taiwan on nurse faculty job satisfaction and their perceptions of

nursing deans' and directors' leadership styles. Findings revealed that Taiwanese Nurse Faculty was moderately satisfied with their jobs and that they preferred that their dean used a transformational type of leadership.

Universities/Colleges are a center of higher education where teachers play an important role in ensuring high quality of education by developing their students as global citizens for the outside corporate world. However, it is only possible when teachers in universities/colleges are motivated enough to accomplish their goals effectively. As according to Martin (2003) much of the research is available on student's motivation but a little on motivating teachers. Higher Education Commission is putting its extreme efforts in polishing universities/colleges performance. Higher Education Commission has taken various initiatives in order to improve teachers learning and development for higher education progress in the country. These initiatives include national and international scholarships, teachers training, increasing salary packages, revising teaching compensation programs and much more. There is no doubt that intention behind these initiatives is to motivate teachers for enhanced performance in particular and to improve higher education standard as a whole. Teachers are the building blocks of universities/colleges. Undoubtedly, teachers are the developers of positive and progressive society in any country. It is therefore, necessary to have highly motivated teachers particularly in universities/colleges where teachers' motivation is extremely demanded. The courage and dedication for developing high performance work systems can only be achieved if teachers would be willing to give their best. However, motivation of higher education teachers by salary only is quite challenging for the government as it is difficult to compete with the private sector universities in compensation and hence they must have to give attention to the non-monetary factors such as recognition, feed back and opportunities for career development to retain their high quality teachers. Famous rule of thumb in human resource management is that retaining employees is less costly than hiring new ones. When teachers in universities perform well, students are also high achievers and universities/colleges contribute more towards higher education.

Identical to every organization, teacher's motivation in higher education institutions is one of the imperative and inevitable objectives of institution management. Teachers at higher education level play an important role in institution's success and its good will among students and academia. Again motivation is significant contributor in teachers' performance in delivering knowledge and grooming their students as the global citizens and master of their specialized field. As Filak & Sheldon, (2003) put their opinion that the motivation is crucial to the long term success and performance of any educational system. Similarly, Porter et al. (1974) stressed that teacher's motivation is important for several different reasons. It is important for teachers self-satisfaction and accomplishments, and for the reason that motivated teachers more probably work for educational reforms and progressive legislation particularly at higher education level and finally it is the motivated teacher who assures the completion of reforms that are originated at the educational policy making level. They further emphasized that teacher's job satisfaction and motivation is associated with decreased number of institutional absenteeism and turnover. Oloolube (2004) explored the same point of view that increased motivation of teachers leads to an increase in productivity that gives boost to the educational systems. Maslow's (1943) need-based theory of motivation is the most commonly known theory of motivation according to which there are five fundamental needs of a person i.e., physiological, security, affiliation, esteem, and self-actualization. This theory can be true for teachers by understanding their physiological needs that may include pay, benefits, health and medical facility, accommodation and transportation, and comfortable working environment. A teacher's security needs are similar to any other employee who is always concerned about his/her job security, fair treatment, protection against threats and many more. Affiliation needs of a teacher can be the liking of head towards him, anticipation in departmental decisions, acceptance from colleagues and co-workers etc. whereas esteem needs of teachers may include the need for recognition from the departmental head, colleagues, subordinate, and students.

The Adam's theory (1989) is well implemented in the field of higher education as the inputs that a teacher is expected to deliver can be hard work, empirical knowledge, tolerance, knowledge management, developing research oriented culture and enthusiasm to develop students etc and the outputs that he can expect from his employer to be provided can be salary, benefits, recognition, empowerment, appreciation and feedback etc. The balance between both inputs which are being demanded by the institution and the outputs that are being formally or informally expected by the teacher from its institution is extremely necessary as any imbalance can create job dissatisfaction which can lead towards high job turnover. As Kyriacou et al. (1979) stressed in their research that the reasons for leaving teaching profession may include lack of support from the departmental head, work overload, increased administrative task burden rather than engaging teachers in academic assignments. On the other hand, Herzberg (1959) has divided the motivational factors in terms of job satisfaction. He pointed out that factors giving job satisfaction (called motivators) are different from the factors that give job dissatisfaction (called hygiene factors). He further emphasized that hygiene factors will not necessarily increase job satisfaction but can lead towards low motivation as compare to motivators. In accordance with this theory, hygiene factors for a teacher in higher education can be the salary, support, interpersonal relationship with supervisors and work conditions. If these factors are favorable in terms of highly facilitated working environment, increased colleague support and satisfactory compensation schemes, they can lead towards high work performance, however, if unfavorable, these factors may directly influence teacher's inspiration/motivation to do his best negatively. On the contrary, Herzberg (1959) has described motivators as internal motivating factors' which always stimulate the employee's motivation to put his best efforts. These motivators for teachers include recognition from departmental head, empowerment, students' achievement or career advancements.

As teachers play the mentoring role for their students, their primary motivation is associated with students learning achievement. The more students will grow and

learn the more satisfaction of task achievement and job involvement would be increased among these mentors.

As Adams et al. (1989) also highlighted in their study that student achievement can be a factor of motivation for teachers, i.e., if students are hardworking, talented and high achievers, teachers will be more motivated as a strong relationship between teacher satisfaction and student achievement not only will raise teacher's job satisfaction but will also prompt him to put his best. Clarke & Keating (1995) have also found same relationship between students and teachers and have asserted that students can be more satisfying aspect for teachers than an administrative support. However, Bohlender et al. (2001) stressed upon compensation as one of the important considerations in human resource management. They emphasized that it is a tangible reward to the employees for the services; therefore compensation must be in accordance to the need fulfillment of employees. Along with compensation, Fuhrman (2006) pointed out that job description is an important factor in motivating or demotivating employees, as unclear job description, stressful working environment, irrelevant administrative assignment can overburden teachers and lead to job dissatisfaction.

According to a study by Giacometti (2005), motivation to teach refers to one's feelings about the teaching profession. Some factors are: desire to work with young people, feel stimulated to teach others, and feel efficacious and motivated in the classroom (Huberman, 1989; Darling-Hammond & Sclan, 1996; and National Education Association, 1997a, 1997b); feel challenged in the profession and see opportunities for professional growth (Chapman & Lowther, 1982); strong commitment to the field of education (Chapman, 1984). In addition, how others perceive the role of the teacher in the community is in this domain. Motivational factors help people make the decision to enter the field. Some people believe that by providing their service, they will be contributing to humanity. Their position as a teacher is a challenge, and helping young people learn and succeed brings them joy. People who feel challenged by their work are more apt to persist in and have a

greater satisfaction with their employment (Chapman & Lowther, 1982). They believe they can make a difference, and that keeps them motivated to stay in the profession. Teachers generally are drawn to the profession for reasons other than extrinsic factors. More recent studies still indicate a high level of commitment because teachers are satisfied in helping children and making a difference (Harris & Associates, 1992; Kushman, 1992; National Education Association, 1997; and Luekens et al., 2004). In 2000, over one-half of teachers who left the profession felt that the challenge, prestige, and advancement opportunities are better outside of the teaching field (Luekens et al., 2004).

The mental health of a teacher relates to job satisfaction. Both positive and negative factors cause various degrees of satisfaction. Positive factors are enthusiasm and a high level of energy when teaching in the classroom. Negative factors are stress, burnout, and anxiety (Terry, 1997). Negative factors hinder the performance of a teacher and reduce satisfaction. Anxiety, stress, and burnout can affect a teacher's ability to create an environment conducive to learning. Burnout most often occurs for those teachers who are very dedicated and committed to their careers. They tend to work long, intense hours to achieve their goals (Farber, 1991). For teachers to remain enthusiastic year after year, the principal must implement strategies that will enhance the mental health of the teaching staff (Terry, 1997; and Eberhard et al., 2000). Terry (1997) included five suggestions for principals to use with teachers. They are positive feedback, high standards, opportunities for professional growth, support systems, and increased parental and community involvement. Coates & Thoresen (1976) indicated the mental health of a teacher might be more important than a teacher's knowledge of the subject matter and methods of teaching. Anxiety is a concern for teachers who are beginners teachers and can result in a negative effect on thousands of students across the country (Coates & Thoresen, 1976). New teachers have very high expectations and it results into burnout when reality is not consistent with those expectations (Terry, 1997). Teacher burnout is a cause of attrition and must be dealt with to lengthen the

time that teachers remain in the profession (Dworkin, 1985; Berry, 1995; and Terry, 1997). The strongest relationship between a teacher's satisfaction level and choosing to leave or stay in the profession is emotional factors. This area includes stress, burnout, motivation, self-confidence, and commitment. Efforts to retain teachers should include interventions that are specific to the domain of emotional factors. With respect to these results, school division administrators and school-level administrators may make a difference in the retention rate. Principals and assistant principals can help new teachers reduce the stress level that is associated with the multiple tasks of teaching on a daily basis. Based on the results that the emotional factors have the strongest relationship, it would help school districts to pay close attention to the assignment of new teachers and to design staff development programs specifically for the new teacher. Support groups that meet regularly that include administrators and experienced teachers should be a part of district and school yearly plans.

Davidson (2007) concluded in his research that high workload, large number of students in classes and burden of non-teaching activities are the problems in creating a good job design for teachers in higher education institutions. On the other hand, Ofoeqbu (2004) established that a teacher needs different resources like technology (computers, projectors, multimedia and internet etc.) and facilities (peons and financial aids etc.) for effective classroom management and institutional improvement. Institution's support in providing class aids and academic resources can prove to be effective motivators for teachers in order to have their extreme efforts. Hughes (1991) in his research found professional growth as fundamental motivators for teachers. He further described that teacher's professional learning is a component of their career development that gives them effectiveness and satisfaction in teaching (Hughes, 1991). Likewise, Lynn (2002) supported the idea that educational leaders should provide professional learning and growth opportunities in order to motivate teachers and to enhance their performance. Wright (1985) asserted that satisfaction of teachers is closely related to recognition.

He further explains that teachers get motivation from the recognition of their achievements and accomplishments by their Head, when they get appreciated for their valuable contribution or receive constructive feedback in order to correct their flaws. Open feedback and appreciation not only compel teachers to perform better but also allows the organization to grow in a collective manner. As Memmott & Growers (2002) stressed that organizations must provide feedback to its employees in order to create open communication environment in the organizations. Mufflin (1995) made the same point describing that the lack of feedback lead to increased frustration in teachers and this disturbance had a negative effect on teachers' performance.

Photanan (2004) is of the opinion that training is one of the most important activities that can be used as a motivational program for employees' development. Training programs are one of those different input factors that give motivation to teachers' for their performance enhancement (Woodward, 1992). Hall et al. (1997) examined in his research that autonomy is the most imperative factor of teacher's motivation. They further added that teachers when given due authority or autonomy while designing their courses, class management and scheming evaluation mechanism, feel more confident and self-initiators as compared to those who are always instructed for the said tasks. Praver et al. (2008) also found that teacher's empowerment was having academic freedom, i.e. planning lessons, formatting syllabus and selecting text books to recommend their students by their own and not by the department. Moreover, Short et al. (1994) found that teacher's empowerment was a process in which teachers developed the capability to grow and to resolve their problems. They explained that decision making, professional growth, status, self-efficacy, autonomy and impact were the six dimensions of teacher empowerment. The above mentioned factors provide a quick glimpse of major contributors of teacher's motivation. The major task of human resource management in universities or higher education institution is always centered to enhance the job satisfaction level, particularly of teachers as they are building blocks of institution as well as society at large.

(d) Job Satisfaction Among Executives: All organizations need timely and effective office and administrative support to operate efficiently. Office and administrative supervisors and managers coordinate in this endeavour. Employment at this level is determined largely by the demand for administrative support workers. Continuing office automation due to new technology will increase office and administrative support, workers' productivity, and allow for a wider variety of tasks to be performed by more people in professional positions, thus creating more and more job opportunities for Indian professionals.

The general growth in the various industries should have an impact on the need for administrative personnel. Nearly every sector should see a growing demand for administrative managers, administrative assistants, accountants, book-keepers, clerks and customer service employees. Demand for administrative service managers will increase specially in management services, management consulting, and facilities support services firms. Employment growth in the health care and social assistance and legal services industries will also lead to average growth for medical and legal office staff.

The job satisfaction research among administrative staff generally found satisfaction is best predicted by work stress caused by interpersonal relationships and the teamwork perceptions (Volkwein et al., 1998). They found that teamwork has a positive association with satisfaction and work stress caused by interpersonal relationships is negatively associated with satisfaction. Same results were witnessed by Volkwein & Parmley (2000) when they studied administrative satisfaction and made a comparison between public sector and private sector universities. Element of teamwork, that are same as Herzberg's relationship with co-workers, is found to be positively associated with satisfaction confirming the theory of Herzberg's (1959). Johnsrud & Rosser (1999) conducted research on middle level managers and witnessed that perception of recognition, mobility, discrimination, and external relations, were the best explanatory variables of job satisfaction. Volkwein & Zhou

(2003) found that organizational, environmental, and personal characteristics proved to be less influential than features such as teamwork, job security, and interpersonal relationship. They concluded that “overall satisfaction is the product of a complex balance of many ingredients”.

Older executives or those executives with several years of working experience in their current companies are most likely to acquire more confidence from their superiors thus in return they will be given more variety of tasks, more autonomy and control over their work. This will increase the level of satisfaction towards their present job. Similarly social interaction could also boost employee's level of job satisfaction as suggested by Hellriegel & Slocum (1973), and Gruneberg (1979). Peter & Stephen (1978) suggested that promotional opportunities could be a motivational factor for high achievers and perceived as a reward for their good performance. However, according to Imaoka (1986) Japanese firms in Malaysia emphasized seniority-merit wage and promotion systems, which could impede the progress of younger workers that in return could result in dissatisfaction among younger employees. Tsuda (1981) referred to the special features of Japanese management practices such as life-time employment, seniority based wage system, enterprise welfare and enterprise unions as a tightly coherent organic system, stressing that each of the special features does not exist in isolation or as separate entities. Latiff (1979), and Abdullah (1986) argued that limited promotion opportunities would lead to lower satisfaction while satisfaction level towards supervision was a very subjective aspect and it depended mostly on the individual ways of supervision (Gruneberg, 1979). Different superiors will have different styles of leadership and supervision approach. It also depends on individual preferences. Some executives prefer higher level or close supervision while others would prefer the opposite. However, Pascale & Maguire (1980) suggested that supervisors might motivate and improve their subordinates.

(ix) GENDER IDENTITY AND JOB SATISFACTION

The term gender identity, meaning a person's relative sense of his or her own masculine or feminine identity was first used by Money (Money, 1965). The term was introduced into the psychoanalytic literature by Stoller (Stoller, 1968).

Money (1965) used the term to distinguish the subjective experience of gender from the concept of "gender role" which he used to describe the socially determined attributes of gender. Stoller (1968) developed the idea further to distinguish between the psychological and biological dimensions of sex. He used gender to distinguish ideas and experiences of masculinity and femininity both socially determined psychological constructs, and sex, the biologically determined traits of maleness and femaleness. This usage has become the standard in psychoanalytically derived discussions of gender and sexuality to refer to the psychological aspects of sexuality, what Freud (1927) called "psychical consequences of the anatomical distinction between the sexes." Stoller (1968) further distinguishes the general sense of masculinity and femininity gender identity, the earlier awareness of sexual difference, what he calls core gender identity, a relatively fixed sense of maleness or femaleness usually consolidated by the second year of life, prior to the oedipal phase. Stoller (1968) identifies three components in the formation of core gender identity:

- 1) Biological and hormonal influences;
- 2) Sex assignment at birth;
- 3) Environmental and psychological influences with effects similar to imprinting.

In contrast to Freud's belief that the primary identification is masculine, Stoller believes that both the boy and the girl begin with a female core gender identity obtained from the maternal symbiosis. Core gender identity is derived non-conflictually through identification and, in essence, learning. Failure to interrupt the maternal symbiosis pre-oedipally with boys may result in permanent core gender identity disorders like Trans sexualize. Otherwise, normal development facilitates the

boy's shift to a male core gender identity and the subsequent oedipal conflicts associated with obtaining a masculine gender identity.

The concept of gender identity is important historically because it separates masculine and feminine psychology from the innate biological determinism suggested by Freud. Increasing attention to the diversity and multiplicity of the origins and workings of gender have made even the terms gender identity and core gender identity less than adequate to describe the nuances of such a central organizing factor of personality and behaviour. It is important to differentiate the term, gender identity, which describes the individual's sense of gender, from Stoller's speculative theory about the origins of core gender identity.

The 1970s heralded a new concept in masculinity and femininity research: the idea that healthy women and men could possess similar characteristics. Androgyny emerged as a framework for interpreting similarities and differences among individuals according to the degree to which they described themselves in terms of characteristics traditionally associated with men (masculine) and those associated with women (feminine; Cook, 1987). Although the term androgyny was not new, having its roots in classical mythology and literature (andro = male, gyne = female), the 1970s marked a resurgence of the word's popularity as a means to represent a combination of stereotypically "feminine" and stereotypically "masculine" personality traits. The Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI; Bem, 1974) was designed to facilitate empirical research on psychological androgyny. For the past quarter of a century, the BSRI has endured as the instrument of choice among researchers investigating gender role orientation (Beere, 1990).

TYPES OF GENDER IDENTITY

Femininity/Masculinity

Femininity and masculinity or one's gender identity (Spence, 1985; and Burke et al., 1988) refers to the degree to which persons see themselves as masculine or

feminine given what it means to be a man or woman in society. Femininity and masculinity are rooted in the social (one's gender) rather than the biological (one's sex) system. Societal members decide what being male or female means (e.g., dominant or passive, brave or emotional), and males will generally respond by defining themselves as masculine while females will generally define themselves as feminine. Because these are social definitions, however, it is possible for one to be female and see herself as masculine or male and see himself as feminine.

Masculinity, Femininity, And Androgyny

For years psychologists assumed that masculinity and femininity were at opposite ends of a continuum. If a person possessed highly masculine traits, then that person must be very unfeminine; being highly feminine implied being unmasculine. Bem (1974) challenged this assumption by arguing that individuals of either sex can be characterized by psychological androgyny – that is, by a balancing or blending of both masculine-stereotyped traits (for example, being assertive, analytical, and independent) and feminine-stereotyped traits (for example, being affectionate, compassionate, and understanding). In Bem's model, then, masculinity and femininity are two separate dimensions of personality. A male or female who has many masculine-stereotyped traits and few feminine ones is defined as a masculine sex-typed person. A person who has many feminine-stereotyped traits and few masculine-stereotyped traits is said to be a feminine sex-typed person. The androgynous person possesses both masculine and feminine traits, whereas the undifferentiated individual lacks both kinds of attributes.

Once a person develops a specific gender relevant characteristics his or her behaviour follows. He/she holds specific beliefs, makes specific assumptions, and acts in accordance with specific expectations (Chatterjee & McCarrey, 1991).

This leads to specific typification of a person's gender identity which may follow either of the following:

1. **Masculinity** – Identifying oneself of male gender and acting accordingly is known as masculinity.
2. **Femininity** – Identifying oneself of being female gender and acting accordingly is known as femininity.
3. **Androgyny** – Having both the characteristics of masculinity and femininity at high level is called androgyny.
4. **Undifferentiated** – Being low on both the basic dimensions of gender identity i.e., masculinity and femininity, is labeled as undifferentiated.

In general, 'feminine' is supposed to mean all that is soft, tender and helpless, and 'masculine' is supposed to mean everything hard, tough, and independent. Masculine and feminine traits upon which gender identity is based are associated with instrumental/agnatic and communal/expression tendencies, respectively. Personality traits such as independence, assertiveness, reason, rationality, competitiveness, and focus on individual goals are the hallmarks of masculinity while understanding, caring, nurturance, responsibility, considerations, sensitivity, interactions, passion, and focus on communal goals are traits associated with femininity. For years, psychologists took these opposites as evidence of psychological health. Now many feminists have challenged this view. They insist that a new standard of psychological health is required, one that allows individuals to express the full range of human emotions and role possibilities without regard to gender stereotype. They term the expanded range of human possibilities androgyny, from, 'andro' male and 'gyne' female. According to this view androgynous individuals should be more flexible in meeting new situations and less restricted in the way they express themselves. Bem (1975a, 1975b) investigated gender role among more than 1500 standard university students. Semester after semester, they found that roughly 50 percent of the students adhere to 'appropriate' sex roles, about 15 percent are cross sex-typed, and some 35 percent are androgynous.

Research with college students using self-perception inventories that contain both a masculinity (or instrumentality) scale and a femininity (or expressivity) scale found that roughly 33% of the test takers were “masculine” men or “feminine” women; about 30% were androgynous, and the remaining individuals were either undifferentiated (low on both scales) or sex reversed (masculine sex-typed females or feminine sex-typed males) (Spence & Helmreich, 1978). Around 30% of children can also be classified as androgynous (Hall & Halberstadt, 1980; and Boldizar, 1991).

Advantageous Of Androgyny

The concept of androgyny is the presence of high degree of masculine and feminine characteristics in the same individual (Bem, 1977; and Spence & Helmreich, 1978). The androgynous individual might be a male who is assertive (masculine) and sensitive to others' feelings (feminine), or a female who is dominant (masculine) and caring (feminine).

If a person can be both assertive and sensitive, both independent and understanding, being androgynous sounds psychologically healthy. Most college students – both males and females – believe that the ideal person is androgynous (Slavkin & Stright, 2000). Bem (1975c, 1978) demonstrated that androgynous men and women behave more flexibly than more sex-typed individuals. For example, androgynous people, like masculine sex-typed people, can display the “masculine” agentic trait of independence by resisting social pressure to conform to undesirable group activities. Yet they are as likely as feminine sex-typed individuals to display the “feminine” communal trait of nurturance by interacting positively with a baby. Androgynous people seem to be highly adaptable, able to adjust their behaviour to the demands of the situation at hand (Shaffer et al., 1992). Because of this only androgynous parents are viewed as warmer and more supportive than nonandrogynous parents (Witt, 1997). In addition, androgynous individuals appear to enjoy higher self-esteem and are perceived as better

adjusted than their traditionally sex-typed peers, although this may be largely because of the masculine qualities they possess (Boldizar, 1991; Spence & Hall, 1996; and Lefkowitz & Zeldow, 2006).

To some extent, social norms remain traditional, and gender-typed behaviour is expected. That is, men should be powerful, dominant, and self assertive, while women should be caring, sensitive, and emotionally expressive. For those who are comfortable with these norms, it is satisfying to conform to them and upsetting when their behaviour fails to match the expected pattern (Wood et al., 1997). Gender stereotyped behaviour even extends to bodily posture – men sit with their legs apart and arms away from the trunk, while women sit with their upper legs against each other and arms against the trunk. Women who adopt the male posture are seen as masculine, and men who adopt the female posture are seen as feminine (Vrugt & Luyerink, 2000). With the recognition of androgyny as a possible gender role, much of the research has focused in the hypothesis that it is preferable to be androgynous than to fit into either the usual male or female gender types. There is large body of research that supports the proposition that “androgyny is good”. For example, compared to gender type individuals, androgynous men and women are found to be better liked (Major et al., 1981), more comfortable with their sexuality (Garcia, 1982), better able to adapt to the demands of varied situations (Prager & Bailey, 1985), better adjusted (Orlofsky & O’Heron, 1987; and Williams & D’Alessandro, 1994), more satisfied with their interpersonal relationships (Rosenzweig & Daley, 1989), less likely to develop eating disorders (Thorton et al., 1991), more satisfied with their lives in general (Dean-Church & Gilroy, 1993; and Peter, 2008), more flexible in coping with stress (McCall & Struthers, 1994), more creative and optimistic (Norlander et al., 2000), and better able to reduce the stress of others (Hirokawa et al., 2001).

In some cultures masculinity is as advantageous as androgyny. Abadalla (1995) examined the self-efficacy of Arab students in Qatar and Kuwait with respect

to making career decisions. Individuals whose gender roles were either masculine or androgynous were higher in self-efficacy than were those who adhered to feminine or undifferentiated roles.

In other contexts, masculinity seems to create interpersonal problems. For example, among adolescent males, high masculinity is associated with having multiple sex partners, the view that men and women are adversaries, and the belief that impregnating a partner is a positive indication of one's manliness (Pleck et al., 1993). More surprising perhaps is the fact that masculinity (in both males and females) is associated with mortality – the higher the masculinity, the more likely an individual is to die earlier at any given age (Lippa et al., 2000). A possible explanation for this is that masculinity is associated with taking risks and other maladaptive behaviours that reduce life expectancies.

Feminine role identification also has its pitfalls. Those of either gender who are high on femininity tend to have lower self-esteem than either masculine or androgynous individuals (Lau, 1989). High femininity is also associated with depression, especially by the time a woman is middle aged (Bramberger & Matthews, 1996).

Moreover, during childhood, expressing too many of the traits considered more appropriate in the other sex can result in rejection by peers and low self-esteem (Lobel et al., 1997). In addition, one may need to distinguish between the androgynous individual who possesses positive masculine and feminine traits and the one who possesses negative masculine and feminine traits (Woodhill & Samuels, 2003, 2004). People with positive androgyny score higher on measures of mental health and well-being than those with negative androgyny (Woodhill & Samuels, 2003). It may be premature, then, to conclude that it is better in all respects to be androgynous rather than either masculine or feminine in orientation. Still, one can at least conclude that it is unlikely to be damaging for men to become a little more feminine or for women to

become a little more masculine than they have traditionally been. Though, not much studies have been conducted but it is believed that androgynous individuals show transient or/and even changing behaviour with various types of mood swings towards mental health which generally they evaluate in other individuals.

Beyond the kind of masculinity and femininity, there is extreme gender role identification. The first of these is hyper masculinity, which is characterized by the endorsement of a pattern of attitudes and beliefs associated with an exaggerated version of the traditional male role (Mosher & Tomkins, 1988; Mosher, 1991). The hyper masculine (or macho) man expresses callous sexual attitude toward women, believes that violence is manly, and enjoys danger as a source of excitement. Such men engage in sexually coercive behaviour (Mosher & Sirkin, 1984), are comfortable rape fantasies (Mosher & Anderson, 1986), and admit their willingness to commit rape if they could be assured of not getting caught (Smeaton & Byrne, 1987).

The analogous extreme of women is hyper femininity (Murnen & Byrne, 1991). The hyper feminine women believe that relationships with men are of central importance of her life, agrees that it is acceptable to use attractiveness and sex to “get a man and keep him”, and admits that she “sometimes says no but means yes”. Compared with women low on this dimension, hyper feminine women report having been the target of sexual coercion (Murnen et al., 1989) and being attracted to hyper masculine men (Smith et al., 1995).

Both hyper masculinity and hyper femininity are associated with the endorsement of many legal forms of aggression, for example, spanking one’s children, media violence, and the death penalty (Hogben et al., 2001). Even at less extreme levels of masculinity, men who identify strongly with the masculine role behave more violently and aggressively than do men who are only moderately masculine (Finn, 1986).

THEORIES OF GENDER IDENTITY

Gender Schema Theory

Socialization occurs as children assimilate their self-concept, the way they think about themselves, to their gender schema (Bem, 1983). Children learn the content of their particular society's gender schema, or the network of associations around the characteristics of masculine and feminine. They also know that they fall into one or other of those categories based on their own sex. When they begin to think of themselves as masculine or feminine, that particular gender schema is also associated with their sense of identity. They learn that when they are picking behaviours and ways of thinking to assimilate into their own sense of selves, they should limit themselves to the particular subset of behaviours and attitudes appropriate to their own gender. As with cognitive development theory, children are motivated to socialize themselves – but now through the mechanism of the power of gender schema.

Gender in particular becomes an important organizing category because it is seen by almost all cultures as functionally important to society. Gender schemas exist because cultures are structured in such a way as to convince us that society cannot function without the existence of sex and gender categories. Because of the importance placed on gender by most cultures, a very broad set of associations between the categories masculine and feminine and many other attributes, behaviours, and categories come to exist. In other words, gender pervades the way people think about the world and crosscuts many other categories. An example Bem (1983) provided was that people are perfectly and consistently capable in experiments of sorting seemingly gender neutral terms and objects into masculine and feminine categories. In experiments, people will spontaneously sort tender and nightingale as feminine and assertive and eagle as masculine, despite the fact that these terms have no clearly gendered content. Gender schemas are particularly important, then, because culture creates and enforces that importance.

Gender polarization, describes the way in which behaviours and attitudes that are viewed as appropriate for men are seen as inappropriate for women and vice versa. Bem (1993) argued that gender polarization operates in two ways. First, it creates two mutually exclusive scripts for being female and male. This means that the script that is appropriate for males is only ever appropriate for males, and no script can ever be appropriate for both males and females. Second, gender polarization problematizes any person who deviates from these mutually exclusive scripts as unnatural, immoral, abnormal, or pathological, depending on the particular system of thought being used. Gender polarization is an important way in which the strong link between sex (as biology), gender, and sexuality is maintained. To be female is to be heterosexual and to be attracted to males, and so lesbian women would be an example of a person who is seen as unnatural, immoral, abnormal, or pathological due to gender polarization. In this later work on the lenses of androcentrism and gender polarization, Bem focused even more attention on the question of enculturation, or on how culture comes to reside inside individuals. This shift in gender schema theory brings us back to a balance between the importance of external agents of socialization and active targets shaping their own process of learning gender through the mechanism of gender schemas.

Psychoanalytic Theory

Another theory of gender socialization also draws on psychology as a discipline, but a very different kind of psychology. Chodorow (1978) laid out her answer to this question in her book *The Reproduction of Mothering*, and explained for women's universal subordination. Like gender schema theory, psychoanalytic theory is an explanation specific to the process of gender socialization, rather than beginning as an exploration of the process of socialization more generally. Rather than drawing on cognitive or behaviourist theory, Chodorow (1978) began with Freud's legacy of psychoanalysis as important to explaining the key causal factor in women's subordinate position: their status as mothers. Psychoanalytic theory begins

with the importance of women's status as mothers and uses principles from Freud and others in the psychoanalytic tradition to explain the ways in which gender becomes deeply embedded in the psychic structure of people's personalities. This is important to distinguishing psychoanalytic theory from other theories of gender socialization in which gender is a behavioural acquisition, something children pick up in the process of socialization. For psychoanalysts, gender is something that becomes deeply embedded in our personality structures very early in our development in ways that other theories of gender socialization do not adequately describe. Psychoanalytic identification is the way in which a child modifies her own sense of self in order to incorporate some ability, attribute, or power he/she see in others (usually a parent) around them. When a child is developing a sense of right or wrong, he/she does not just internalize a kind of miniature version of the parent who tells him/her what is right or wrong. Rather, in identification, that ability to distinguish between right and wrong becomes a part of the child's own sense of self; it becomes a sense of inner regulation for the child (Chodorow, 1978). The other important concept is that of ego boundaries, another term borrowed from Freud, which describes the sense of personal psychological division between ourselves and the world around us (Chodorow, 1978). Ego boundaries are what help people figure out where the stuff called "me" stops and everything else begins. This may seem pretty self-evident, but from a psychoanalytic perspective, it's not as simple as it might seem; people are not born with ego boundaries, they are something they learn and develop in early childhood.

In her formulation of psychoanalytic theory, Chodorow (1978) maintained many of the basic ideas of Freudian theory, including the Oedipal complex. But the end result of these processes is different; rather than focusing on the attainment of gender identity and heterosexuality, psychoanalytic theory is interested in the "relational potential" produced in people of different genders. Identification occurs for both boys and girls with their mothers initially, due to the complete dependence of

the infant on the mother as primary caregiver. In this very early phase of our development, occurring beyond individuals' ability to consciously remember as adults, people have no sense of ego boundaries between themselves and their mothers. According to psychoanalytic theory, infants at this stage do not experience themselves as separate from their mothers. Eventually though, infants come to see that though they are completely dependent on their mothers for their survival, the reverse is not true; even the most dedicated of mothers has other concerns beyond her infant, and psychoanalytic theory focuses on how boys and girls resolve the tensions caused by this realization. In other words, "if Mom has concerns that are not consistent with my own, Mom must actually be separate from me." The process is qualitatively different for boys and girls, which gives people radically different personality structures for men and women as adults. Not to state the obvious, but female infants are of the same gender as their mother. Because of this similarity, they are able to experience a sense of connection with their mothers for longer than male infants. This is because, conveniently enough, the gender identity they need to learn is available to them much more readily than it is to boys; girls can develop a sense of gender identity through their direct personal relationship with their mothers. In addition, Chodorow (1978) argued that because mothers themselves have already internalized a sense of gender identity, they experience their infant daughters as more similar to them than their infant sons. On some unconscious level, mothers then push their sons away in ways that they do not push their daughters. Due to these early psychological dynamics, girls emerge with a personality structure characterized by empathy and with less of an ability to differentiate themselves from others. Feminine personality structure has less developed ego boundaries.

Male infants have the task before them of acquiring a masculine gender identity, despite the fact that their primary identification is with their mother, who represents feminine gender identity. According to Chodorow (1978), this is a problematic dynamic for masculine development as boys learn masculinity in the

absence of an ongoing relationship with a male figure. In addition, to become masculine, boys must sever their sense of connection to and identification with their mothers. Due to these underlying dynamics, masculine personality structure emerges with a much more well-developed sense of their separation from others. Men have stronger ego boundaries than do women. Masculinity is learned by boys in part as a rejection of what is feminine, including their identification with their mother. In the absence of this kind of strong relationship with other men, masculinity is learned by boys through the use of cultural stereotypes, rather than through the kind of direct observation that girls experience with their mothers. These results in two important features of masculine gender identity: it is less stable than feminine gender identity, and it contains, as a basic element, a devaluation of all things feminine.

There are two important features to highlight about psychoanalytic theory. First, it explains not just how gender socialization occurs, but how the same process of gender socialization recreates itself across generations. Girls who emerge from this developmental process more empathetic and with less of a sense of ego boundaries are predisposed to seek out the kind of nurturing involved in mothering, therefore reproducing the same personality structure in their children. These processes of gender development don't just produce generic gender differences; they produce a new generation of women whose personalities lead them to want to mother, and to therefore reproduce again in their own sons and daughters the same inevitable process. Chodorow's (1978) theory helps explain this persistence because the desire to mother is a fundamental part of feminine personalities. The second feature to note in psychoanalytic theory is that it also helps to explain the subordination of women through the development of masculine personality. Masculinity has a devaluation of women and therefore of the feminine built into its very structure. This neatly explains why women seem to be universally subordinate to men. Seeing women as inferior is an essential part of what it means to be masculine, according to identification theory.

Psychoanalytic theory has had widespread influence and has inspired many studies to explore these dimensions of masculine and feminine personality (Gilligan, 1982; Williams, 1991; and Belenky et al., 1997). Gilligan (1982) used identification theory to argue for a uniquely feminine approach to issues of justice and morality. Gilligan (1982) used identification theory to argue that women's morality is structured by the fact that they experience less of a sense of separation between themselves and others in their environment. So while traditional ideas of justice assume that right and wrong must be determined by an objective devaluation of empathy and compassion, a more feminine sense of justice is deeply entwined with the idea of being able to take the position of others. Masculine ideas of justice are blind and assume that one can only determine what is just by ignoring the particulars of a person's situation.

Other studies have used psychoanalytic theory to explain the experiences of men in predominately female occupations, the attraction of young boys to sports, and gender differences in how women and men learn (Messner, 1990; Williams, 1991; and Belenky et al., 1997).

Psychoanalytic theory is a good example of the unique perspective feminist theory can bring to preexisting and gender-biased modes of thinking. Chodorow (1978) took Freudian theory's emphasis on women's problematic development and flipped it on its head, arguing that in some ways, women's psychological development is less fraught with difficulties than that of men. Both feminine and masculine personalities have their difficulties, but psychoanalytic theory reverses the tendency of Freudian theory to normalize masculinity while problematizing femininity. But by drawing on Freud and psychoanalysis as a model, psychoanalytic theory is subject to some of the same critiques. In psychoanalytic theory, most of the important events of gender socialization happen at a very early age, resulting in a relatively fixed gender identity by the time we are about two to three years of age. In addition, though psychoanalytic theory emphasizes the importance of social factors, namely the

structure of the family, in its emphasis on unconscious processes that occur so early in our development, it can be seen as an essentialist theory in its implications. That is, psychoanalytic theory implies that because gender differences become deeply embedded in the structure of our personalities, they are part of our essential natures and difficult to change. Other critics point out the difficulty of verifying the assumptions and predictions of psychoanalytic theory using empirical research.

The motivations and experiences of male workers in traditional occupations and the implications of their career choice for gender identity. Men and women are increasingly moving into gender atypical areas (Hakim, 2000) and while there is extensive literature on 'token' women (e.g. Kanter, 1977; Ely, 1994; and Simpson, 1997, 2000), there is relatively little research on men who perform what could be seen as 'women's work' (notable exceptions here include Williams (1993), Lupton (2000), and Heikes (1992)). The tendency to overlook issues concerning men in 'female' roles, may reflect gender studies' dominating focus on women and the absence, until recently, of issues concerning men and masculinity from mainstream academic research. Recent work, however, has placed men at the center of the analysis by focusing on the dynamics of masculinity (e.g. Collinson & Hearn, 1994; Kerfoot & Knights, 1993; and Connell, 1995, 2000) and on organizations as important arenas for the definitions of masculinity and for characterizations of 'masculine' and 'feminine' work. These characterizations carry strong implications for occupants of traditional posts where conceptualizations of masculinity and femininity are 'on the line', highly visible and vulnerable to challenge (Morgan, 1992). Token women, for example, can be severely disadvantaged by their minority status through negative stereotyping (Kanter, 1977) while assumptions of male careerism and managerial potential often mean positive career outcomes accruing for men (Fløge & Merrill, 1989). The fragmentary literature on men in traditional occupations means that little is known about the motivations and experiences of men in 'female' occupations and how men manage any potential conflict between the 'feminine' nature of the job and their gender identity. It considers three questions which relate

to career motivations and aspirations, to the significance of one's minority status and to the implications of occupational choice for gender identity.

Early work on gender and organizations has traditionally assumed men and masculinity to be the normative standard case against which difference (i.e., women) has been measured (Collinson & Hearn, 1994). Criticisms of this claim to universality have led to the emergence of diverse theoretical and conceptual frameworks (e.g., Kerfoot & Knights, 1993; Hearn, 1994; Connell, 1995; and Barrett, 1996). One such development concerns the dynamics of 'hegemonic masculinity', defined by Connell (2000) as the culturally exalted form of masculinity which guarantees the dominant position of men. This and other constructions of masculinity are often located in, acted out and negotiated within the context of work and organizations (Morgan, 1992) so an understanding of how masculinities are experienced and constructed can usefully begin within this context.

Theoretical frameworks within masculinity studies remain, as yet, somewhat fragmentary, reflecting the relatively new status of the area. All approaches reject the monolithic status of patriarchy, which underpins early feminist literature, as the single cause of women's oppression. Instead, in common with later feminist work (e.g., Alvesson & Due Billing, 1997; and Alvesson, 1998), they suggest that gender relations are multidimensional and experienced differentially within specific organizational contexts. Three dominant frameworks have emerged from the literature. Psychoanalytical approaches focus on the psychic investments that individuals have in dominant sexual and gendered discourse, with masculinity historically defined as a flight from women and the repudiation of the feminine (e.g., Chodorow, 1994; Hollway, 1994; and Kimmel, 1994;).

The 'social relations' perspective (Carrigan et al., 1985) examines ways in which social practices are organized as sets of social relations. On this basis, masculinity is viewed as a set of distinct practices (e.g., Tolson, 1977; and Connell, 1987). Tolson (1977) for example focuses on the significance of class and father-son

relationships for constructions of masculinity while early work by Connell (1987) explores the structure of social relations in the form of power, production and emotional relations and how the patterning of these relations make up a 'gender regime' within an institution. Gender is therefore seen as a social practice and masculinity as a configuration of that practice. More recently, work on masculinity has focused on issues of complexity, ambiguity and fluidity and on the roles of agency and symbolism in its construction as well as of institutions and social practices.

This 'post-structuralist' perspective (Connell, 2000) explores the dynamic nature of masculinity, how it is constructed and reconstructed, how it is experienced at a subjective level and how multiple masculinities exist in relation to the dominant (hegemonic) form. Masculinity is, therefore, likely to be internally divided, ambiguous and often contradictory (Collinson and Hearn, 1994; Alvesson, 1998; Kerfoot and Knights, 1998; Connell, 2000). Ideologies and discourses of gender have a crucial role to play in promoting and sustaining the sexual division of labour and the social definition of tasks as either 'men's work' or 'women's work'. As Morgan (1992) suggests, notions of work are central to masculine identities and organizations exist as major sites for the construction and reconstruction of 'what it means to be a man'. This has consequences for those men and women who move into gender atypical areas and who thereby challenge conventionally held attitudes and assumptions concerning male and female work. As Bradley (1993) suggests, it may be easier for women to push into male jobs than vice versa. 'Compromised femininity' is still a possible female identity, involving as it does status enhancement and potential increases in pay. By contrast, the man who moves into women's work upsets the gender assumptions embedded in that work so that he is not seen as a 'real' man (Williams, 1993). Considerable work has been conducted on the difficulties women face when they move into previously male dominated areas of employment. Kanter's (1977) early work on 'token' women points to systems of bias and discrimination whereby the dominant (male) group controls the group culture and through various processes marginalizes and excludes the minority of women. In particular, tokens

experience three processes which are detrimental to their experiences within the organization and to their careers. High visibility creates increased performance pressures; polarization occurs as differences between the dominant group and tokens are exaggerated leading to separation and isolation; finally assimilation means that individuals are made to fit into stereotypical roles associated with their group (seductress, mother, pet, iron maiden) constraining behaviour so as to fit the 'role trap'. Other works (Simpson, 1997, 2000) suggest in a similar vein that gender imbalance heightens career barriers, limits career progress and helps to create a hostile working environment for the minority of women. Sexual harassment of women, for example, has been found to be both more prevalent and more virulent in male dominated occupations (Collinson & Collinson, 1996).

While 'token' women can be severely disadvantaged by their minority status, positive career outcomes may well accrue for 'token' men. Men working in non-traditional occupations have been found to benefit from their token status through the assumption of enhanced leadership and other skills and by being associated with a more careerist attitude to work (Folge & Merrill, 1989; and Heikes, 1992). Male nurses often ascend the hierarchy more quickly than female counterparts (Bradley, 1993). Men therefore tend to monopolize positions of power and are rewarded for their difference from women in terms of higher pay and other benefits (Williams, 1993). On the other hand, emotional labour such as teaching, nursing and social work may call for special abilities that only women are deemed to possess (Hochschild, 1983). This can create problems for men (Heikes, 1992) who call into question their competence and suitability if they assert a traditional masculinity and yet who invite challenges to their sexuality and masculinity if they adopt a more feminine approach. In primary school teaching, for example, men have been found to be in a double bind: their presumed masculine interests in sport and male bonding give them an initial hiring advantage but these same characteristics can alienate them from female staff (Williams, 1993). These challenges raise issues about how male workers reconcile the feminine nature of their work with the demands of a

hegemonically masculine gender regime. As Lupton (2000) found, men working in female dominated occupations fear feminization and stigmatization. One response is to reconstruct the job so as to minimize its non-masculine associations. Men may also engage in compensatory gendered practices so as to 'restore' a dominating position (Alvesson, 1998). One strategy may be to emphasize the male and downplay the female elements of the job (Williams, 1993). Such strategies suggest a tension for men in nontraditional roles between the 'feminine' nature of the job and dominant discourses of masculinity.

CHAPTER 2

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

CHAPTER – TWO

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

The present research intends to study role of gender, optimism, nature of occupation, and gender identity in job-satisfaction of professionals. The specific problems undertaken and the relevant hypotheses formulated are described in this chapter.

A. INDEPENDENT ROLE OF FACTORS

PROBLEM A (1)

The first problem of the present research is to verify role of gender in job satisfaction of professionals. In other words, the problem is whether male and female professionals differ in respect of their job satisfaction level?

HYPOTHESIS (A-i)

Though there are diverse findings in regard to gender difference in job satisfaction, there is sound reason to believe that in Indian scenario where women work force at higher level of jobs is too less and that too the working conditions for female professionals is not as favourable as of males, female professionals are more stressed at their jobs.

Hence, it is hypothesized that male professionals would be more job satisfied than female professionals.

PROBLEM A (2)

The second problem of the research pertains to role of optimism in job satisfaction of professionals. In other words, the problem is whether high optimistic and low optimistic professionals differ in regard to their job satisfaction?

HYPOTHESIS (A-ii)

Optimism has been identified as performing a self-regulatory function within control theory, which postulates that as long as an individual's expectancies of eventual success are sufficiently favourable, he is likely to remain engaged in efforts to reach desired goals, despite adversities that may arise (Carver & Scheies, 1981). Rogers & Hyner (1968), Al-Mashaan (2003), Williamson et al. (2005), and Chow et al. (2011), observed that optimism accounted variance in job satisfaction and that there was positive relationship between optimism and job satisfaction.

Hence, it has been hypothesized that optimism level of professionals would play a true role in their job satisfaction. More specifically, it is assumed that high optimistic professionals would be genuinely more satisfied with their jobs than those professionals who are low optimistic.

PROBLEM A (3)

The third problem of the research pertains to role of nature of occupation in job satisfaction of professionals. In other words, the problem is whether doctors, engineers, college teachers and executives differ in regard to their job satisfaction level?

HYPOTHESIS (A-iii)

Looking at the importance of various job related factors i.e., adequacies of income, social status related to the occupation- working hours, skill required etc. in job satisfaction, it is reasonable to believe that people involved in various occupations may feel different levels of job satisfaction (Bell, 1990; Johnsrud & Rosser, 1999; Davidson, 2007; Sonmezer & Erymen, 2008; Kour et al., 2009; Mohr & Burgen, 2011; and Malik, 2011).

Hence, it is hypothesized that there would exist genuine differences in job satisfaction of four different professional groups i.e., doctors, engineers, college teachers, and executives.

PROBLEM A (4)

The fourth problem of the research pertains to role of gender identity in job satisfaction. More specifically, the problem is whether professionals with differential gender identity i.e., masculine, feminine, androgynous, and undifferentiated, differ in respect of their job satisfaction?

HYPOTHESIS (A-iv)

Bem (1983) asserts that people have a generalized readiness to organize informations about the self on the basis of cultural definition of appropriate male and female attributes. Recently, it has been believed that androgyny is better than either being high masculine or high feminine or low on both i.e., undifferentiated (Bem,1984). Accordingly, it is expected that androgynous professionals would be the most satisfied people while undifferentiated professionals would be the least satisfied with their jobs. The other two groups i.e., masculine and feminine, would stand in between these two extreme groups in the same regard. (Boldizar, 1991; Spence & Hall, 1996; Lefkowitz & Zeldow, 2006; and Lipińska-Grobelny et al., 2012).

B. JOINT ROLE OF FACTORS

PROBLEM B (1)

The first interaction problem at first-order level pertains to joint role of gender and optimism in job satisfaction of professionals.

HYPOTHESIS (B-i)

On the basis of expected role of individual factors in job satisfaction, it is hypothesized that high optimistic male professionals would be the most job satisfied while low optimistic female professionals would be the least job satisfied. The other two sub-groups would occupy intermediate positions in this regard.

PROBLEM B (2)

The second first-order interaction problem pertains to joint role of gender of professionals and nature of occupation in their job satisfaction.

HYPOTHESIS (B-ii)

On the basis of assumed individual role of the two independent factors i.e., gender and nature of occupation, it is hypothesized that there would exist true joint role of gender and nature of occupation in job satisfaction of professionals. More specifically, it is expected that the difference in job satisfaction of male and female professionals would truly vary for four occupational groups i.e., doctors, engineers, college teachers, and executives.

PROBLEM B (3)

The third first-order interaction problem pertains to joint role of gender and gender identity in job satisfaction of professionals.

HYPOTHESIS (B-iii)

On the basis of individual role of the two independent factors, it is hypothesized that androgynous male professionals would be the most job satisfied and undifferentiated female professionals would be the least job satisfied. The other subgroups would possess intermediate positions in this regard.

PROBLEM B (4)

The fourth first-order interaction problem pertains to joint role of optimism and nature of occupation of professionals in their job satisfaction.

HYPOTHESIS (B-iv)

On the basis of expected individual role of the two independent factors i.e., optimism and nature of occupation, it is hypothesized that there would exist true joint

role of the two factors in job satisfaction. More specifically, the difference in job satisfaction of high and low optimistic professionals would vary truly due to differential nature of their occupation i.e., doctor, engineer, college teacher, and executive.

PROBLEM B (5)

The fifth first-order interaction problem pertains to joint role of optimism and gender identity in job satisfaction of professionals. In other words, the problem is whether differences among four gender identity groups i.e., masculine, feminine, androgynous, and undifferentiated, in regard to their job satisfaction level vary due to differential level of optimism in them i.e., high and low?

HYPOTHESIS (B-v)

While considering individual role of the variables, it has been expected that professionals with androgynous gender identity would be the most job satisfied while professionals of undifferentiated gender identity would be the least job satisfied, and the other two gender identity groups i.e., masculine and feminine, would possess intermediate position in this regard. Similarly, it has been assumed that professionals with high optimism would be more job satisfied than low optimistic professionals. Accordingly, in regard to their joint role in job satisfaction, it is hypothesized that high optimistic androgynous professionals would be the most job satisfied while low optimistic undifferentiated professionals would be the least job satisfied. The other sub-groups would possess intermediate positions in this regard.

PROBLEM B (6)

The sixth first-order interaction problem pertains to joint role of nature of occupation and gender identity of professionals in their job satisfaction.

HYPOTHESIS (B-vi)

On the basis of assumed individual role of the two independent factors i.e., nature of occupation and gender identity, it is expected that there would exist true joint role of the

two factors in job satisfaction of professionals. More specifically, the differences in job satisfaction of four gender identity groups of professionals would vary truly for four occupational groups i.e., doctors, engineers, college teachers, and executives.

PROBLEM B (7)

The first second-order interaction problem of the research pertains to joint role of gender, optimism and nature of occupation in job satisfaction of professionals.

HYPOTHESIS (B-vii)

On the basis of expected individual role of three independent variables i.e., gender, optimism, and nature of occupation, it is hypothesized that the three independent variables would play true joint role in job satisfaction of professionals. In other words, it is expected that the difference in job satisfaction of high and low optimistic professionals would vary due to their differential gender type and nature of occupation.

PROBLEM B (8)

The second interaction problem at second-order level of the present research pertains to joint role of gender, optimism, and gender identity in job satisfaction of professionals.

HYPOTHESIS (B-viii)

It has already been expected that male, high optimistic, and androgynous professionals would be more job satisfied than their counterparts i.e., female, low optimistic, and undifferentiated professionals, respectively. In regard to their joint role, it is expected that there would exist genuine joint role of these three variables in job satisfaction of professionals. In other words, differences in job satisfaction of four gender identity groups of professionals would vary due to their differential level of optimism and gender type. More specifically, high optimistic androgynous male professionals would be the most job satisfied while low optimistic undifferentiated

female professionals would be the least job satisfied. The other subgroups would occupy their respective intermediate positions.

PROBLEM B (9)

The third second-order problem of the research pertains to joint role of gender, nature of occupation, and gender identity in job satisfaction of professionals.

HYPOTHESIS (B-ix)

On the basis of assumed independent role of three independent variables i.e., gender, nature of occupation, and gender identity, it is expected that the three independent variables would play true joint role in job satisfaction of professionals. More specifically, the differences in job satisfaction of four gender identity groups i.e., masculine, feminine, androgynous, and undifferentiated, would vary genuinely due to different gender type and nature of occupation of professionals.

PROBLEM B (10)

The fourth second-order interaction problem of the present research pertains to joint role of optimism, nature of occupation, and gender identity in job satisfaction of professionals.

HYPOTHESIS (B-x)

On the basis of assumed individual role of three independent variables i.e. optimism, nature of occupation, and gender identity, it is hypothesized that there would be true joint role of the three independent variables in job satisfaction of professionals. More specifically, the differences in job satisfaction of four gender identity groups of professionals i.e., masculine, feminine, androgynous, and undifferentiated, would vary truly due to their differential level of optimism and nature of occupation.

PROBLEM B (11)

The last and only third-order interaction problem pertains to joint role of all the four independent variables considered in the present research i.e., gender, optimism, nature of occupation, and gender identity in job satisfaction of professionals.

HYPOTHESIS (B-xi)

On the basis of assumed independent role of four independent variables i.e., gender, optimism, nature of occupation, and gender identity in job satisfaction of professionals, it is hypothesized that the four independent variables would play true joint role in job satisfaction of professionals. In other words, the differences in job satisfaction of four gender identity groups i.e., masculine, feminine, androgynous, and undifferentiated, would vary truly due to their differential optimism level, gender type, and nature of occupation.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

CHAPTER - THREE

METHODOLOGY

The present chapter deals with Sample, Tools, and Procedure of the research.

THE SAMPLE

A final random sample of 320 professionals was selected incidentally from a larger population of 800 professionals in Chhattisgarh region equally selected from four professional groups i.e., doctor, engineer, college teacher, and executive aging 40-50 years. On the basis of Q_1 and Q_3 statistics on scores obtained on optimism scale these professionals were classified as high optimistic (above Q_3) and low optimistic (below Q_1). And on the basis of median statistic on masculinity and femininity dimensions of gender identity, these high and low optimistic professionals were further classified as masculine (above median on masculinity and below median on femininity), feminine (above median on femininity and below median on masculinity), androgynous (above median on masculinity and femininity both), and undifferentiated (below median on masculinity and femininity both).

Care was taken to maintain male-female ratio as 1:1 for all the four occupational groups. In this way, 4 professionals were selected in each of 64 sub-groups (Table 2).

Table # 2: Details Of The Final Sample

Occupational Group	Gender Identity	Male		Female		Total
		High Optimism	Low Optimism	High Optimism	Low Optimism	
Doctor	Masculine	n = 5	N = 5	n = 5	n = 5	20
	Feminine	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	20
	Androgynous	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	20
	Undifferentiated	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	20
Engineer	Masculine	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	20
	Feminine	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	20
	Androgynous	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	20
	Undifferentiated	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	20
College Teacher	Masculine	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	20
	Feminine	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	20
	Androgynous	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	20
	Undifferentiated	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	20
Executive	Masculine	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	20
	Feminine	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	20
	Androgynous	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	20
	Undifferentiated	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	n = 5	20
Total		80	80	80	80	320

TOOLS

Following tests were used to assess different dimensions under consideration in the present research.

- 1. Assessment of Optimism Level** – Optimism Scale (Ajawani & Varwandkar, 2010) was used for assessing optimism level of professionals. This scale consists of total 20 items to respond.

Higher score on the scale is indicative of high optimism level. The highest score is 100 and the minimum score is 20. The test is highly reliable and valid, the coefficients ranging between .69 to .91, and are significant. The raw scores can be converted into percentile scores.

2. Determination of Gender Identity – Gender Identity Test (Ajawani, 2006) was used to determine gender identity of professionals. The test provides scores on masculinity and femininity dimensions. It consists of a total of 40 items which have to be answered in either of seven categories i.e., ‘Never or Almost Never True’ (Score 1), ‘Usually Not True’ (Score 2), ‘Seldom True’ (Score 3), ‘Occasionally True’ (Score 4), ‘Often True’ (Score 5), ‘Usually True’ (Score 6), and ‘Always or Almost Always True’ (Score 7). Out of these 40 items, 15 items (Nos. 1, 3, 4, 6, 7, 10, 11, 12, 13, 17, 29, 31, 32, 38, and 39) are for masculinity dimensions and 15 items (Nos. 2, 5, 8, 14, 20, 21, 23, 25, 26, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, and 40) are for femininity dimension, while 10 items (Nos. 9, 15, 16, 18, 19, 22, 24, 27, 28, and 30) are neutral items and have not been considered for determining gender identity of the individual. Median has been considered to classify individuals as high (above median) or low (below median) masculine or feminine. On the basis of both the scores i.e., on masculinity and on femininity dimensions, individuals can be classified in either of four categories i.e., masculine (above median on masculinity and below median on femininity), feminine (above median on femininity and below median on masculinity), androgynous (above median on masculinity and femininity both), and undifferentiated (below median on masculinity and femininity both).

The test is highly reliable and valid, the coefficients ranging between .59 and .80 and are significant.

3. Assessment of Job-Satisfaction – Job-Satisfaction Scale (Singh & Sharma, 1990) was used to assess job-satisfaction level of professionals. The test comprises a total of 30 items to be answered by selecting one of the given five options. The positive items are scored as 4, 3, 2, 1, and 0 while negative items are scored in reverse order. The highest score on the scale is 120 while the lowest is 0. The test is highly reliable and valid.

PROCEDURE

Firstly, optimism scale and gender identity test were administered on a larger initial incidental sample of 800 professionals (400 males and 400 females) involved in either of the four professions – doctor, engineer, college teacher and executive – in Chhattisgarh region and aging 40 to 50 years. On the basis of norms, 5 professionals were randomly selected in each of the 64 sub-groups as below:

(1) Male doctors with high optimism and masculine gender identity, (2) Male doctors with low optimism and masculine gender identity, (3) Male doctors with high optimism and feminine gender identity, (4) Male doctors with low optimism and feminine gender identity, (5) Male doctors with high optimism and androgynous gender identity, (6) Male doctors with low optimism and androgynous gender identity, (7) Male doctors with high optimism and undifferentiated gender identity, (8) Male doctors with low optimism and undifferentiated gender identity, (9) Female doctors with high optimism and masculine gender identity, (10) Female doctors with low optimism and masculine gender identity, (11) Female doctors with high optimism and feminine gender identity, (12) Female doctors with low optimism and feminine gender identity, (13) Female doctors with high optimism and androgynous gender identity, (14) Female doctors with low optimism and androgynous gender identity, (15) Female doctors with high optimism and undifferentiated gender identity, (16) Female doctors with low optimism and undifferentiated gender identity, (17) Male engineers with high optimism and masculine gender identity, (18) Male engineers with low optimism and masculine gender identity, (19) Male engineers with high optimism and feminine gender identity, (20) Male engineers with low optimism and feminine gender identity, (21) Male engineers with high optimism and androgynous gender identity, (22) Male engineers with low optimism and androgynous gender identity, (23) Male engineers with high optimism and undifferentiated gender identity, (24) Male engineers with low optimism and undifferentiated gender identity, (25) Female engineers with high optimism and masculine gender identity, (26) Female engineers

with low optimism and masculine gender identity, (27) Female engineers with high optimism and feminine gender identity, (28) Female engineers with low optimism and feminine gender identity, (29) Female engineers with high optimism and androgynous gender identity, (30) Female engineers with low optimism and androgynous gender identity, (31) Female engineers with high optimism and undifferentiated gender identity, (32) Female engineers with low optimism and undifferentiated gender identity, (33) Male college teachers with high optimism and masculine gender identity, (34) Male college teachers with low optimism and masculine gender identity, (35) Male college teachers with high optimism and feminine gender identity, (36) Male college teachers with low optimism and feminine gender identity, (37) Male college teachers with high optimism and androgynous gender identity, (38) Male college teachers with low optimism and androgynous gender identity, (39) Male college teachers with high optimism and undifferentiated gender identity, (40) Male college teachers with low optimism and undifferentiated gender identity, (41) Female college teachers with high optimism and masculine gender identity, (42) Female college teachers with low optimism and masculine gender identity, (43) Female college teachers with high optimism and feminine gender identity, (44) Female college teachers with low optimism and feminine gender identity, (45) Female college teachers with high optimism and androgynous gender identity, (46) Female college teachers with low optimism and androgynous gender identity, (47) Female college teachers with high optimism and undifferentiated gender identity, and (48) Female college teachers with low optimism and undifferentiated gender identity (49) Male executives with high optimism and masculine gender identity, (50) Male executives with low optimism and masculine gender identity, (51) Male executives with high optimism and feminine gender identity, (52) Male executives with low optimism and feminine gender identity, (53) Male executives with high optimism and androgynous gender identity, (54) Male executives with low optimism and androgynous gender identity, (55) Male executives with high optimism and undifferentiated gender identity, (56) Male executives with low optimism and undifferentiated gender identity, (57)

Female executives with high optimism and masculine gender identity, (58) Female executives with low optimism and masculine gender identity, (59) Female executives with high optimism and feminine gender identity, (60) Female executives with low optimism and feminine gender identity, (61) Female executives with high optimism and androgynous gender identity, (62) Female executives with low optimism and androgynous gender identity, (63) Female executives with high optimism and undifferentiated gender identity, and (64) Female executives with low optimism and undifferentiated gender identity.

Thus, the final random sample of 320 professionals was selected in a 2X2X4X4 factorial design and 5 subjects in each of the 64 cell-design were studied for their job-satisfaction, by administering a job satisfaction scale. Scores on this scale served the basis for further computations.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS OF DATA

CHAPTER – FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS

The present chapter deals with the obtained data and their analyses. The raw data on job-satisfaction for 64 sub-groups are given in Appendix B and average job-satisfaction scores and other statistics are given in Table 3.

Table # 3: Statistical Details of Various Sub-Groups On Job Satisfaction Dimension

Group	Gender Identity	Male		Female		M
		High Optimism	Low Optimism	High Optimism	Low Optimism	
Doctor	Masculine	n = 5 M = 79.60 $\sum x^2 = 59.20$	n = 5 M = 70.40 $\sum x^2 = 165.20$	n = 5 M = 77.20 $\sum x^2 = 54.80$	n = 5 M = 67.40 $\sum x^2 = 75.20$	73.650
	Feminine	n = 5 M = 87.00 $\sum x^2 = 454.00$	n = 5 M = 70.40 $\sum x^2 = 47.20$	n = 5 M = 76.80 $\sum x^2 = 326.80$	n = 5 M = 63.80 $\sum x^2 = 84.80$	74.500
	Androgynous	n = 5 M = 86.00 $\sum x^2 = 280.00$	n = 5 M = 68.40 $\sum x^2 = 211.20$	n = 5 M = 83.40 $\sum x^2 = 201.20$	n = 5 M = 68.80 $\sum x^2 = 210.80$	76.650
	Undifferentiated	n = 5 M = 68.40 $\sum x^2 = 299.20$	n = 5 M = 52.60 $\sum x^2 = 81.20$	n = 5 M = 64.20 $\sum x^2 = 30.80$	n = 5 M = 64.80 $\sum x^2 = 102.80$	62.500
M		80.250	65.450	75.400	66.200	71.825
Engineer	Masculine	n = 5 M = 85.40 $\sum x^2 = 75.20$	n = 5 M = 72.00 $\sum x^2 = 256.00$	n = 5 M = 81.40 $\sum x^2 = 47.20$	n = 5 M = 64.20 $\sum x^2 = 34.80$	75.750
	Feminine	n = 5 M = 71.00 $\sum x^2 = 356.00$	n = 5 M = 65.40 $\sum x^2 = 11.20$	n = 5 M = 64.40 $\sum x^2 = 401.20$	N = 5 M = 65.60 $\sum x^2 = 269.20$	66.600
	Androgynous	N = 5 M = 82.80 $\sum x^2 = 180.80$	n = 5 M = 74.00 $\sum x^2 = 166.00$	N = 5 M = 78.60 $\sum x^2 = 317.20$	n = 5 M = 72.60 $\sum x^2 = 371.20$	77.000
	Undifferentiated	n = 5 M = 69.40 $\sum x^2 = 95.20$	n = 5 M = 67.80 $\sum x^2 = 302.80$	n = 5 M = 72.20 $\sum x^2 = 36.80$	n = 5 M = 64.20 $\sum x^2 = 38.80$	68.400
M		77.150	69.800	74.150	66.650	71.9375

Table Cont...

Group	Gender Identity	Male		Female		M
		High Optimism	Low Optimism	High Optimism	Low Optimism	
College Teacher	Masculine	n = 5 M = 76.20 $\sum x^2 = 50.80$	n = 5 M = 72.20 $\sum x^2 = 140.80$	n = 5 M = 73.80 $\sum x^2 = 54.80$	n = 5 M = 68.40 $\sum x^2 = 145.20$	72.650
	Feminine	n = 5 M = 69.40 $\sum x^2 = 223.20$	n = 5 M = 73.00 $\sum x^2 = 206.00$	n = 5 M = 80.40 $\sum x^2 = 89.20$	n = 5 M = 77.00 $\sum x^2 = 120.00$	74.950
	Androgynous	n = 5 M = 87.40 $\sum x^2 = 47.20$	n = 5 M = 72.00 $\sum x^2 = 254.00$	n = 5 M = 80.40 $\sum x^2 = 19.20$	n = 5 M = 74.80 $\sum x^2 = 170.80$	78.650
	Undifferentiated	n = 5 M = 69.80 $\sum x^2 = 102.80$	n = 5 M = 63.60 $\sum x^2 = 241.20$	n = 5 M = 61.60 $\sum x^2 = 117.20$	n = 5 M = 58.00 $\sum x^2 = 314.00$	63.250
M		75.700	70.200	74.050	69.550	72.375
Executive	Masculine	n = 5 M = 82.60 $\sum x^2 = 79.20$	n = 5 M = 71.20 $\sum x^2 = 210.80$	n = 5 M = 78.20 $\sum x^2 = 312.80$	n = 5 M = 68.60 $\sum x^2 = 29.20$	75.150
	Feminine	n = 5 M = 82.80 $\sum x^2 = 84.80$	n = 5 M = 68.40 $\sum x^2 = 113.20$	n = 5 M = 72.40 $\sum x^2 = 139.20$	n = 5 M = 67.60 $\sum x^2 = 59.20$	72.800
	Androgynous	n = 5 M = 83.20 $\sum x^2 = 94.80$	n = 5 M = 75.40 $\sum x^2 = 79.20$	n = 5 M = 75.80 $\sum x^2 = 662.80$	n = 5 M = 69.00 $\sum x^2 = 152.00$	75.850
	Undifferentiated	n = 5 M = 67.00 $\sum x^2 = 106.00$	n = 5 M = 58.60 $\sum x^2 = 71.20$	n = 5 M = 70.20 $\sum x^2 = 66.80$	n = 5 M = 58.80 $\sum x^2 = 28.8$	63.650
M		78.900	68.400	74.150	66.000	71.8625
Total M		78.00	68.4625	74.4375	67.10	72.00

MEANS			
Gender Groups		Optimism	
Male	Female	High	Low
73.23125 (73.23)	70.76875 (70.77)	76.21875 (76.22)	67.78125 (67.78)
Gender Identity Group			
Masculine	Feminine	Androgynous	Undifferentiated
74.300	72.225 (72.23)	77.0375 (77.04)	64.450
Occupational Group			
Doctors	Engineers	College Teachers	Executives
71.825 (71.83)	71.9375 (71.94)	72.375 (72.38)	71.8625 (71.86)

Values in parenthesis are rounded off values.

(A) ANALYSES IN RELATION TO INDEPNDENT ROLE

(I) ANALYSES IN RELATION TO GENDER

A perusal of Table 2 clarifies that average job-satisfaction scores of male and female executives are 72.23 and 70.77, respectively. An F-ratio is computed in a four-way ANOVA involving three other factors i.e., optimism, nature of occupation, and gender identity (Table 4) to check significance of this difference between two gender groups in respect of their job satisfaction.

Table # 4: Summary Of Four-Way ANOVA

Source		SS	df	MS	F-ratio	Remarks
A.	Effect of Individual Factors					
1.	Between Two Gender Groups	485.2096	1	485.2096	12.04	P<.01
2.	Between Two Optimism Groups	5695.3125	1	5695.3125	142.42	P<.01
3.	Among Four Occupational Groups	15.517	3	5.172	0.13	N.S.
4.	Among Four Gender Identity Groups	7017.09696	3	2339.698	58.49	P<.01
B.	First-Order Interaction Effect					
1.	Gender X Optimism	193.6	1	193.600	4.84	P<.05
2.	Gender X Occupational Groups	280.69	3	93.563	2.34	N.S.
3.	Gender X Gender Identity	132.51	3	44.17	1.10	N.S.
4.	Optimism X Occupational Groups	526.41	3	175.47	4.39	P<.01
5.	Optimism X Gender Identity	239.44	3	79.813	2.00	N.S.
6.	Occupational Groups X Gender identity	153.656	9	17.073	0.43	N.S.
C.	Second-Order Interaction Effect					
1.	Gender X Optimism X Occupational Groups	235.4	3	78.467	1.96	N.S.
2.	Gender X Optimism X Gender Identity	447.856	3	149.285	3.73	P<.05
3.	Gender X Occupational groups X Gender Identity	2753.52	9	305.947	7.65	P<.01
4.	Optimism X Occupational groups X Gender Identity	2590.81	9	287.868	7.20	P<.01
D.	Third-Order Interaction Effect					
1.	Gender X Optimism X Occupational groups X Gender Identity	3613.48	9	401.498	10.04	P<.01
E.	Within Sets (Error Term)	10238.40	256	39.994		
Total		35427.611	319			

Apart of it, 10 t-ratios are also computed to check significance of gender difference in regard to job-satisfaction of professionals considering one of other three factors and disregarding the other two factors (Table 5).

Table # 5: Average Job-Satisfaction Scores Of Two Gender Groups Belonging To Various Sub-Groups And Obtained t Ratios

S. No.	Comparison Groups	n	M	Σx^2	Obtained t value	Level Of Significance *
1.	High Optimistic Male	80	78	6916	2.49	P<.01
	Vs. High Optimistic Female	80	74.438	6043.686		
2	Low Optimistic Male	80	68.463	5171.89	1.055	N.S.
	Vs. Low Optimistic Female	80	67.10	5368.00		
3.	Doctor Male	40	72.850	5999.10	0.8128	N.S.
	Vs. Doctor Female	40	70.80	3926.40		
4.	Engineer Male	40	73.475	3201.98	1.5206	N.S.
	Vs. Engineer Female	40	70.40	3177.60		
5.	College Teacher Male	40	72.95	2919.9	0.5668	N.S.
	Vs. College Teacher Female	40	71.80	3500.40		
6.	Executive Male	40	73.650	3587.10	1.795	P<.05
	Vs. Executive Female	40	70.075	2598.78		
7.	Masculine Male	40	76.20	2184.4	2.083	P<.05
	Vs. Masculine Female	40	72.40	3005.60		
8.	Feminine Male	40	73.425	3461.78	1.1943	N.S.
	Vs. Feminine Female	40	71.00	2970		
9.	Androgynous Male	40	78.65	3063.10	1.6271	N.S.
	Vs. Androgynous Female	40	75.425	3065.78		
10.	Undifferentiated Male	40	64.650	2543.10	0.2488	N.S.
	Vs. Undifferentiated Female	40	64.250	1553.50		

* In one-tailed test

(ii) ANALYSES IN RELATION TO OPTIMISM

It is clear from Table 3 that average job-satisfaction scores of high optimistic professionals (M = 76.219) is higher than that of low optimistic professional (M = 67.781). An F-ratio is computed in a four-way ANOVA along with 3 other factors i.e., gender, occupation, and gender identity (Table 4), to check significance of difference between two optimism groups of professionals in regard to their job satisfaction.

Apart of it, 10 t ratios are also computed to check significance of difference between two professional groups – high and low optimism, considering one of other three factors and disregarding the other two factors (Table 6) in regard to their job satisfaction.

Table # 6: Average Job-Satisfaction Scores Of Two Optimism Groups And Obtained t Ratios

S. No.	Comparison Groups	n	M	Σx^2	Obtained t value	Level Of Significance
1.	High Optimistic Male	80	78.00	6916	6.8959	P<.01
	Vs. Low Optimistic Male	80	68.463	5171.89		
2	High Optimistic Female	80	74.438	6043.69	5.7602	P<.01
	Vs. Low Optimistic Female	80	67.10	5073.2		
3.	High Optimistic Doctor	40	77.825	4011.78	5.5695	P<.01
	Vs. Low Optimistic Doctor	40	65.900	3139.60		
4.	High Optimistic Engineer	40	75.65	3445.10	3.9667	P<.01
	Vs. Low Optimistic Engineer	40	68.225	2020.98		
5.	High Optimistic College Teacher	40	74.875	2968.38	2.56095	P<.05
	Vs. Low Optimistic College Teacher	40	69.875	2978.38		

Table Cont...

S. No.	Comparison Groups	n	M	Σx^2	Obtained t value	Level Of Significance
6.	High Optimistic Executive	40	76.525	2849.48	5.3709	P<.01
	Vs. Low Optimistic Executive	40	67.20	1852.40		
7.	High Optimistic Masculine	40	79.30	1224.40	6.6966	P<.01
	Vs. Low Optimistic Masculine	40	69.30	2254.40		
8.	High Optimistic Feminine	40	75.525	4081.98	3.4746	P<.01
	Vs. Low Optimistic Feminine	40	68.90	1589.60		
9.	High Optimistic Androgynous	40	82.20	2310.40	6.2888	P<.01
	Vs. Low Optimistic Androgynous	40	82.20	2310.40		
10.	High Optimistic Undifferentiated	40	67.85	1219.10	4.7665	P<.01
	Vs. Low Optimistic Undifferentiated	40	61.050	1955.90		

* In one-tailed test

(iii) ANALYSES IN RELATION TO NATURE OF OCCUPATION

A perusal of Table 3 clarifies that average job-satisfaction scores of four occupational groups i.e., doctor, engineer, college teacher, and executive, are 71.825, 71.938, 72.375, and 71.863. An F-ratio is computed in a four-way ANOVA along with three other factors i.e., gender, optimism, and gender identity (Table 4) to check significance of these differences among four occupational groups in respect of their job satisfaction.

Apart of it, Tukey's HSD test has also been employed to observe significance of difference between any two occupational groups (Table 7), in regard to their job satisfaction.

Table # 7: Summary Of Tukey's HSD Test For Comparison Of Occupational Groups

Occupation	M	N	Ordered Means			HSD Table Value
			71.9375	71.8625	71.825	
College Teacher	72.375	80	0.4375*	0.5125*	0.55*	df = V = 256
Engineer	71.9375	80		0.75*	0.1121*	n = ó = r = 4
Executive	71.8625	80			0.375*	0.05 = 1.82
Doctor	71.825	80				.01 level = 2.20

* Not significant

(iv) ANALYSES IN RELATION TO GENDER IDENTITY

It is clear from Table 3 that average job-satisfaction scores of four gender identity groups i.e., masculine, feminine, androgynous, and undifferentiated, are 74.30, 72.225, 77.038, and 64.45, respectively. An F-ratio is computed in a four-way ANOVA along with three other factors i.e., gender, optimism, and nature of occupation (Table 4) to check significance of these differences among four gender identity groups of professionals in regard to their job satisfaction.

Apart of it, Tukey's HSD test has also been employed to observe significance of difference between any two occupational groups (Table 8), in respect of their job satisfaction.

Table # 8: Summary of Tukey's HSD Test for Comparison Of Gender Identity Groups

Gender Identity	M	N	Ordered Means			HSD Table Value
			74.30	72.23	64.45	
Masculine	74.30	80	2.74*	4.81*	12.59*	df = V = 256
Feminine	72.23	80		2.07**	9.85*	N = σ = r = 4
Androgynous	77.04	80			7.78*	0.05 level = 1.82
Undifferentiated	64.45	80				0.01 level = 2.20

* Significant at .01 level of significance

**Significant at .05 level of significance

(B) ANALYSES IN RELATION TO JOINT ROLE

1. FIRST-ORDER INTERACTIONS

(i) ANALYSES IN RELATION TO JOINT ROLE OF GENDER AND OPTIMISM

It is clear from Table 9 that average job-satisfaction scores of four sub-groups formed on joint basis of two gender groups and two levels of optimism i.e., high optimistic males, low optimistic males, high optimistic females and low optimistic females, are 78.00, 68.4625, 74.4375, and 67.10, respectively.

Table # 9: Average Job-Satisfaction Scores Of Four Sub-groups Formed On Joint Basis Of Gender And Optimism

Gender	Optimism		Mean
	High Optimism	Low Optimism	
Male	78.00	68.4625 (68.46)	73.23125 (73.23)
Female	74.4375 (74.44)	67.10	70.76875 (70.77)
Mean	76.21875 (76.22)	67.78125 (67.78)	72.00

A first-order interaction F-ratio is computed in a four-way ANOVA (Table 4), to check significance of these differences among four optimistic gender groups in regard to their job satisfaction.

(ii) ANALYSES IN RELATION TO JOINT ROLE OF GENDER AND NATURE OF OCCUPATION

A perusal of Table 10 clarifies that average job-satisfaction scores of 8 sub-groups formed on joint basis of gender and nature of occupation i.e., male-doctor, male-engineer, male-college teacher, male-executive, female-doctor, female-engineer, female-college teacher, and female-executive, are 72.85, 73.475, 72.95, 73.65, 70.80, 70.40, 71.80, and 70.075 respectively.

Table # 10: Average Job-Satisfaction Scores Of Four Sub-Groups Formed On Joint Basis Of Gender And Nature of Occupation

Gender	Occupation				Mean
	Doctor	Engineer	College Teacher	Executives	
Male	72.85	73.475	72.95	73.65	73.23125 (73.23)
Female	70.80	70.40	71.80	70.075	70.76825 (70.77)
Mean	71.825 (71.83)	71.9375 (71.94)	72.375 (72.38)	71.8625 (71.86)	72.00

A first-order interaction F-ratio is computed in a four-way ANOVA (Table 4), to check significance these differences among eight nature of occupation–gender groups of professionals in respect of their job satisfaction.

(iii) ANALYSES IN RELATION TO JOINT ROLE OF GENDER AND GENDER IDENTITY

A perusal of Table 11 clarifies that average job-satisfaction scores of 8 sub-groups formed on joint basis of gender and gender identity i.e., masculine males, feminine males, androgynous males, undifferentiated males, masculine females, feminine females, androgynous females, and undifferentiated females, are 76.20, 73.425, 78.65, 64.65, 72.40, 71.00, 75.425, and 64.25, respectively.

Table #11 : Average Job-Satisfaction Scores Of Four Sub-groups Formed On Joint Basis Of Gender And Gender Identity

Gender	Gender Identity				Mean
	Masculine	Feminine	Androgynous	Undifferentiated	
Male	76.20	73.425	78.65	64.65	73.23125 (73.23)
Female	72.40	71.00	75.425	64.25	70.76875 (70.77)
Mean	74.30	72.2125 (72.21)	77.0375 (77.04)	64.45	72.00

A first-order interaction F-ratio is computed in a four-way ANOVA to check significance of this interaction effect of gender and gender identity on job-satisfaction of professionals (Table 4).

(iv) ANALYSES IN RELATION TO JOINT ROLE OF OPTIMISM AND NATURE OF OCCUPATION

It is clear from Table 12 that average job-satisfaction scores of 8 sub-groups formed on joint basis of optimism and nature of occupation i.e., high optimistic doctors, high optimistic engineers, high optimistic college teachers, high optimistic executives, low optimistic doctors, low optimistic engineers, low optimistic college teachers, and low optimistic executives are 77.825, 75.65, 74.875, 76.525, 65.825, 68.225, 69.875, and 67.20, respectively.

Table# 12: Average Job-Satisfaction Scores Of Four Sub-groups Formed On Joint Basis Of Optimism And Nature of Occupation

Optimism	Occupation				Mean
	Doctor	Engineer	College Teacher	Executives	
High	77.825	75.65	74.875	76.525	76.21875 (76.22)
Low	65.825	68.225	69.875	67.20	67.78125 (67.78)
Mean	71.825 (71.83)	71.9375 (71.94)	72.375 (72.38)	71.8625 (71.86)	72.00

A first-order interaction F-ratio is computed in a four-way ANOVA to check significance of this interaction effect of optimism and nature of occupation on job-satisfaction of professionals (Table 4).

(v) ANALYSES IN RELATION TO JOINT ROLE OF OPTIMISM AND GENDER IDENTITY

A perusal of Table 13 clarifies that average job-satisfaction scores of 8 sub-groups formed on joint basis of optimism and gender identity i.e., high optimistic

masculine, high optimistic feminine, high optimistic androgynous, high optimistic undifferentiated, low optimistic masculine, low optimistic feminine, low optimistic androgynous, and low optimistic undifferentiated, are 79.30, 75.525, 82.20, 67.85, 69.30, 68.90, 71.875, and 61.05, respectively.

Table #13: Average Job-Satisfaction Scores Of Four Sub-Groups Formed On Joint Basis Of Optimism And Gender Identity

Optimism	Gender Identity				Mean
	Masculine	Feminine	Androgynous	Undifferentiated	
High	79.30	75.525	82.20	67.85	76.21875 (76.22)
Low	69.30	68.90	71.875	61.05	67.78125 (67.78)
Mean	74.30	72.2125 (72.21)	77.0375 (77.04)	64.45	72.00

A first-order interaction F-ratio (Table 4) is computed in a four-way ANOVA to check significance of these differences among 8 optimism- gender identity sub-groups in regard to their job-satisfaction.

(vi) ANALYSES IN RELATION TO JOINT ROLE OF NATURE OF OCCUPATION AND GENDER IDENTITY

It is clear from Table 14 that average job-satisfaction score of 16 sub-groups formed on joint basis of nature of occupation and gender identity i.e., masculine doctors, masculine engineers, masculine college teachers, masculine executives, feminine doctors, feminine engineers, feminine college teachers, feminine executives, androgynous doctors, androgynous engineers, androgynous college teachers, androgynous executives, undifferentiated doctors, undifferentiated engineers, undifferentiated college teachers, and undifferentiated executives, are 73.65, 75.75, 72.65, 75.15, 74.50, 66.60, 74.95, 72.80, 76.65, 77.00, 78.65, 75.85, 62.50, 68.40, 63.25, and 63.65, respectively.

Table # 14: Average Job-Satisfaction Scores Of Sixteen Sub-groups Formed On Joint Basis Of Nature of Occupation And Gender Identity

Gender Identity	Occupation				Mean
	Doctor	Engineer	College Teacher	Executives	
Masculine	73.65	75.75	72.65	75.15	74.30
Feminine	74.50	66.60	74.95	72.80	72.2125 (72.21)
Androgynous	76.65	77.00	78.65	75.85	77.0375 (77.04)
Undifferentiated	62.50	68.40	63.25	63.65	64.45
Mean	71.825 (71.83)	71.9375 (71.94)	72.375 (72.38)	71.8625 (71.86)	72.00

A first-order interaction F-ratio (Table 3) is computed in a four-way ANOVA to check significance of these differences among 16 nature of occupation- gender identity sub-groups in respect of their job-satisfaction.

2. SECOND-ORDER INTERACTIONS

(i) ANALYSES IN RELATION TO JOINT ROLE OF GENDER, OPTIMISM, AND NATURE OF OCCUPATION

A perusal of Table 15 reveals the fact that average job-satisfaction scores of 16 sub-groups formed on joint basis of gender, optimism, and nature of occupation i.e, high optimistic male doctors, low optimistic male doctors, high optimistic female doctors, low optimistic female doctors, high optimistic male engineers, low optimistic male engineers, high optimistic female engineers, low optimistic female engineers, high optimistic male college teachers, low optimistic male college teachers, high optimistic female college teachers, low optimistic female college teachers, high optimistic male executives, low optimistic male executives, high optimistic female executives, and low optimistic female executives, are 80.25, 65.45, 75.40, 66.20, 77.15, 69.80, 74.15, 66.65, 75.70, 70.20, 74.05, 69.55, 78.90, 68.40, 74.15, and 66.00, respectively.

Table #15: Average Job-Satisfaction Scores Of Sixteen Sub-Groups Formed On Joint Basis Of Gender, Optimism, And Nature of Occupation

Occupation	Male		Female		Mean
	High Optimism	Low Optimism	High Optimism	Low Optimism	
Doctor	80.25	65.45	75.40	66.20	71.825 (71.83)
Engineer	77.15	69.80	74.15	66.65	71.9375 (71.94)
College Teacher	75.70	70.20	74.05	69.55	72.375 (72.38)
Executives	78.90	68.40	74.15	66.00	71.8625 (71.86)
Mean	78.00	68.4625 (68.46)	74.4375 (74.44)	67.10	72.00

A second-order interaction F-ratio is computed in a four-way ANOVA (Table 4), to check significance of these differences among 16 gender-optimism-nature of occupation sub-groups in respect of their average job-satisfaction scores.

(ii) ANALYSES IN RELATION TO JOINT ROLE OF GENDER, OPTIMISM, AND GENDER IDENTITY

It is clear from Table 16 that average job-satisfaction scores of 16 sub-groups formed on joint basis of gender, optimism, and gender identity i.e., high optimistic males with masculine gender identity, low optimistic males with masculine gender identity, high optimistic females with masculine gender identity, low optimistic females with masculine gender identity, high optimistic males with feminine gender identity, low optimistic males with feminine gender identity, high optimistic females with feminine gender identity, low optimistic females with feminine gender identity, high optimistic males with androgynous gender identity, low optimistic males with androgynous gender identity, high optimistic females with androgynous gender identity, low optimistic females with androgynous gender identity, high optimistic males with undifferentiated

gender identity, low optimistic males with undifferentiated gender identity, high optimistic females with undifferentiated gender identity, and low optimistic females with undifferentiated gender identity, are 80.95, 71.45, 77.65, 67.15, 77.55, 69.30, 73.50, 68.50, 84.85, 72.45, 79.55, 71.30, 68.65, 60.65, 67.05, and 61.45, respectively.

Table #16: Average Job-Satisfaction Scores Of Sixteen Sub-Groups Formed On The Basis Of Gender, Optimism, And Gender Identity

Gender Identity	Male		Female		Mean
	High Optimism	Low Optimism	High Optimism	Low Optimism	
Masculine	80.95	71.45	77.65	67.15	74.30
Feminine	77.55	69.30	73.50	68.50	72.2125 (72.21)
Androgynous	84.85	72.45	79.55	71.30	77.0375 (77.04)
Undifferentiated	68.65	60.65	67.05	61.45	64.45
Mean	78.00	68.4625 (68.46)	74.4375 (74.44)	67.10	72.00

A second-order interaction F-ratio is computed in a four-way ANOVA (Table 4), to check significance of this interaction effect of three independent variables – gender, optimism, and gender identity-on job-satisfaction of professionals.

(iii) ANALYSES IN RELATION TO JOINT ROLE OF GENDER, NATURE OF OCCUPATION AND GENDER IDENTITY

A perusal of Table 17 clarifies that average job-satisfaction scores of 32 sub-groups formed on joint basis of these factors i.e., gender, nature of occupation, and gender identity i.e., masculine male doctors, masculine male engineers, masculine male college teachers, masculine male executives, masculine female doctors, masculine female engineers, masculine female college teachers, masculine female executives, feminine male doctors, feminine male engineers, feminine male college teachers,

feminine male executives, feminine female doctors, feminine female engineers, feminine female college teachers, feminine female executives, androgynous male doctors, androgynous male engineers, androgynous male college teachers, androgynous male executives, androgynous female doctors, androgynous female engineers, androgynous female college teachers, androgynous female executives, undifferentiated male doctors, undifferentiated male engineers, undifferentiated male college teachers, undifferentiated male executives, undifferentiated female doctors, undifferentiated female engineers, undifferentiated female college teachers, undifferentiated female executives are 75.00, 78.70, 74.20, 76.90, 72.30, 72.80, 71.10, 73.40, 78.70, 68.20, 71.20, 75.60, 70.30, 65.00, 78.70, 70.00, 77.20, 78.40, 79.70, 79.30, 76.10, 75.60, 77.60, 72.40, 60.50, 68.60, 66.70, 62.80, 64.50, 68.20, 59.80, and 64.50, respectively.

Table # 17: Average Job-Satisfaction Scores Of Thirty Two Sub-Groups Formed On Joint Basis Of Gender, Nature Of Occupation, And Gender Identity

Gender Identity	Male				Female				Mean
	Doctor	Engineer	Executive	College Teacher	Doctor	Engineer	Executive	College Teacher	
Masculine	75.00	78.70	76.90	74.20	72.30	72.80	73.40	71.10	74.50
Feminine	78.70	68.20	75.60	71.20	70.30	65.00	70.00	78.70	72.2125 (72.21)
Androgynous	77.20	78.40	79.30	79.70	76.10	75.60	72.40	77.60	77.0375 (77.04)
Undifferentiated	60.50	68.60	62.80	66.70	64.50	68.20	64.50	59.80	64.45
Mean	72.85	73.475	73.65	72.95	72.80	70.40	70.075 (70.08)	71.80	72.00

An interaction on F-ratio (Table 4) has been computed to check significance of this interaction effect of three independent variables i.e., gender, nature of occupation, and gender identity on job-satisfaction of professionals.

Table # 18: Average Job-Satisfaction Scores Of Thirty Two Sub-Groups Formed On Joint Basis Of Optimism, Nature of Occupation, And Gender Identity

Gender Identity	Occupation	Optimism		Mean
		High	Low	
Masculine	Doctor	78.40	68.90	73.65
	Engineer	83.40	68.10	75.75
	College Teacher	75.00	70.30	72.65
	Executives	80.40	69.90	75.15
Feminine	Doctor	81.90	67.10	74.50
	Engineer	67.70	65.50	66.60
	College Teacher	74.90	75.00	74.95
	Executives	77.60	68.00	72.80
Androgynous	Doctor	84.70	68.60	76.65
	Engineer	80.70	73.30	77.00
	College Teacher	83.90	73.40	78.65
	Executives	79.50	72.20	75.85
Undifferentiated	Doctor	66.30	58.70	62.50
	Engineer	70.80	66.00	68.40
	College Teacher	65.70	60.80	63.25
	Executives	68.60	58.70	63.65
Total		76.21875 (76.22)	67.78125 (67.78)	72.00

A second-order interaction F-ratio is computed in a four-way ANOVA to check significance of these differences in regard to job-satisfaction scores of professionals (Table 4).

3. THIRD-ORDER INTERACTION

ANALYSES IN RELATION TO JOINT ROLE OF GENDER, OPTIMISM, NATURE OF OCCUPATION, AND GENDER IDENTITY

A perusal of Table 3 reveals average job-satisfaction scores of 64 sub-groups formed on joint basis of gender, optimism, nature of occupation, and gender identity. A third-order interaction F-ratio is computed to check significance of these differences among 64 sub-groups of professionals in regard to their average job-satisfaction scores.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

CHAPTER – FIVE

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

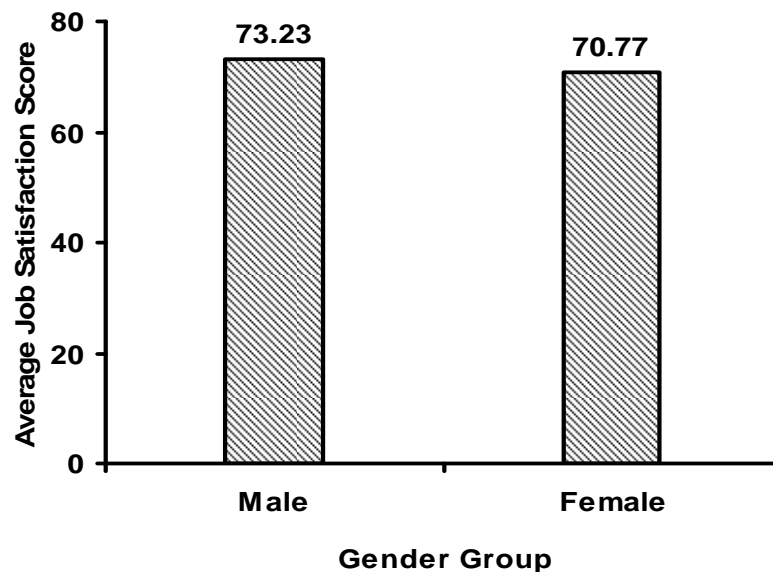
In the present research the author intends to study the roles of gender, optimism, nature of occupation and gender identity on job-satisfaction of professionals. For the purpose, data were collected on a sample of 320 professionals belonging to 64 subgroups as detailed in Table 2. Job satisfaction scores of individual professional are given in Appendix B and average job satisfaction score are given in Table 3.

(A) INDEPENDENT ROLE OF FACTORS

(A-1) ROLE OF GENDER IN JOB SATISFACTION

The first problem of the present research pertained to the role of gender in job satisfaction. It had been hypothesized that male professional would be more job satisfaction than female professionals.

A perusal of Table 3 clarifies that average job satisfaction score of male professionals (M=73.23, Figure 2) is higher than that of female professionals (M = 70.77, Figure 2).



**Figure # 2: Average Job Satisfaction Scores Of Male And Female Professionals
(As Per Table 3)**

The obtained F ratio ($F = 12.04$, Table 4) for this difference between two gender groups in respect of their job satisfaction is significant at .01 level of significance for 1 and 256 degrees of freedom. This significant statistics provides empirical ground to retain the research hypothesis, rejecting null hypothesis in this regard. It can be concluded that male professionals truly more job satisfied than female professionals.

A part of F-ratio, 10 t ratios were also computed to check significance of gender in regard to job satisfaction of professionals (Table 5), out of which 5 comparisons are found significant either at .05 or .01 level of significance. This also provides sufficient statistical ground to support the conclusions drawn on the basis of significant F-ratio.

A view of global picture on working conditions of female professionals in comparison to male professionals clearly reveals the fact about inferior socio-economic status of female professionals in general. The Indian scenario is still poorer where women workforce at higher level of jobs is too less and that too the working conditions for female professionals is not as favourable as of male professionals. Compared with male professionals, female professionals are frequently given job status with less autonomy or creativity, which decreases their level of job satisfaction. Women may also have more difficulty being accepted in the workplace because of hierarchical structures preferring men. Documentation repeatedly shows that women's income are lower than those of men in comparable positions. Female professionals working in any area, for example, doctor, engineer, college teacher, executives, find their jobs more stressful due to this discriminatory state of affairs. A part of it, female professionals are loaded with dual responsibilities at work and at home simultaneously because of which their absence from job workplace is more frequent than male professionals, leading to low appreciation at workplace and at the same time they face grievances of younger family members who feel deprived of motherly love and neglect in their personal cares. Female professionals also have to compromise with their career advancements

because of her family responsibilities. Apart from this, when women do choose or are required to work outside the home, they continue to perform the bulk of household duties as well. Lennon & Rosenfield (1994) reported that compared to men, women perform 66% more of the domestic work, sleep one-half hour less per night, and perform an extra month of work each year. Needless to say, increased workloads and decreased attention to rest and relaxation are stressful and pose obstacles to women's job satisfaction.

All these situations may be contributing to higher stress level in female professionals leading to poorer job satisfaction in comparison to male professionals who on contrary, enjoy their work at fullest due to their higher and appreciated work experience along with the freedom.

It is interesting to note that the obtained nonsignificant t ratios for such comparisons are in the conditions of low optimistic doctor, engineer, college teacher and executive, and in the condition of undifferentiated gender identity. It seems that only executive female professionals are truly poorly satisfied with their jobs. It may be due to the nature of their job which demands quite a larger hours of their daily lives which is truly a great source of stress looking at their family responsibilities. In contrast, female professionals working as doctors, engineers or college-teachers do not need that much hours to share on their jobs, leading to equal level of jobs satisfaction as of male professionals. Low optimism and undifferentiated gender identity have been proved as obstacles in seeking job satisfactions. Probably this may be the reason of in genuine gender deference in job satisfaction of male and female professionals in these specific cases. The findings of the present research is in consonance to those of Sousa-Poza & Sousa-Poza (2003), Long (2005), and Kosteas (2009).

(A-2) ROLE OF OPTIMISM IN JOB SATISFACTION

The second problem of the research pertained to role of optimism in job satisfaction of professionals. It had been hypothesized that high optimistic

professionals would be more satisfied with their jobs in comparison to low optimistic professionals.

A perusal of Table 3 clarifies that average job satisfaction scores of high optimistic professionals (M=76.22, Figure 3) is higher than of low optimistic professionals (M=67.78, Figure 3).

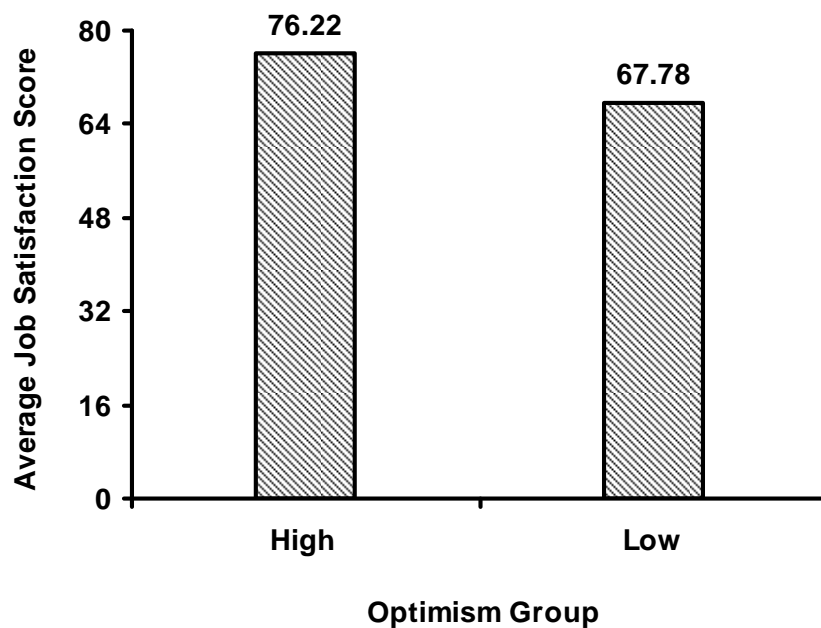


Figure # 3: Average Job Satisfaction Scores Of High And Low Optimistic Professionals (As Per Table 3)

The obtained significant F ratio ($F=142.42$, Table 3) provides ample statistical ground to believe that high optimistic professionals are truly more job satisfied than low optimistic professionals. Hence, the research hypothesis is confirmed empirically, and null hypothesis is refuted in this regard. Regers & Hyner (1968), Al-Mashaan (2003), Williamson et al. (2005), and Chow et al. (2007), also observed that optimism accounted variance in job satisfaction and that there was positive relationship between optimism and job satisfaction.

Optimism to the ability to look at the brighter side of life, to maintain to positive attitude even to face of adversity. It is positive approach of daily life. Optimism is nothing to do with being rich or poor. It is a inner resource, the ability to believe that thing has been right or critical but with renewed effort, they will improve. Moreover, high optimistic people believe that future or success are to a degree states of mind.

Optimistic people still will hopeful when faced with misfortune. They prefer to examine the situation and find way to deal with it individually. They don't feel that this is last chance or only straw left for them.

Optimism people also do not took all the blame of failure on their shoulders rather they take external cause into consideration also. They strike a healthy approach with lies some where between the two extremes.

Looking at above description of optimism, it is quite reasonable to believe that due to their optimistic attitude and proneness to consider adverse period of situation as challenge rather than burden; high optimistic professionals find themselves motivated to sort-out the problems without giving in leading to a stress-free work environment. Stress, a part of working life and every professional faces job stress very frequently, however their optimistic nature prones them to look ahead and to cope with source of stress with a balanced problem and emotion focused coping strategies.

Due to their satisfying attitude with the present situation and at the same time a balanced aspirations, high optimistic people always find themselves in the state of homoeostasis. Due to all these high optimistic professionals enjoy more job satisfaction than low optimistic professionals. In contrast, low optimistic professionals are unable to enjoy their work due to their dissatisfaction and pessimistic attitude. They also adopt such stress coping strategies which further enhances their stress level leading to a state of dishomoeostasis consequently making them remain dissatisfied with their job situations.

(A-3) ROLE OF NATURE OF OCCUPATION IN JOB SATISFACTION

The third problem of present research pertained to role of nature of occupation in job-satisfaction of professionals. In the regard, it had been hypothesized that there would exist genuine difference in job-satisfaction of four different professionals i.e., doctors, engineers, college teachers, and executives. It is clear from Table 3 and Figure 4 that average job satisfaction scores of doctors, engineers, college teachers, and executives are 71.83, 71.94, 72.38, and 71.86 respectively.

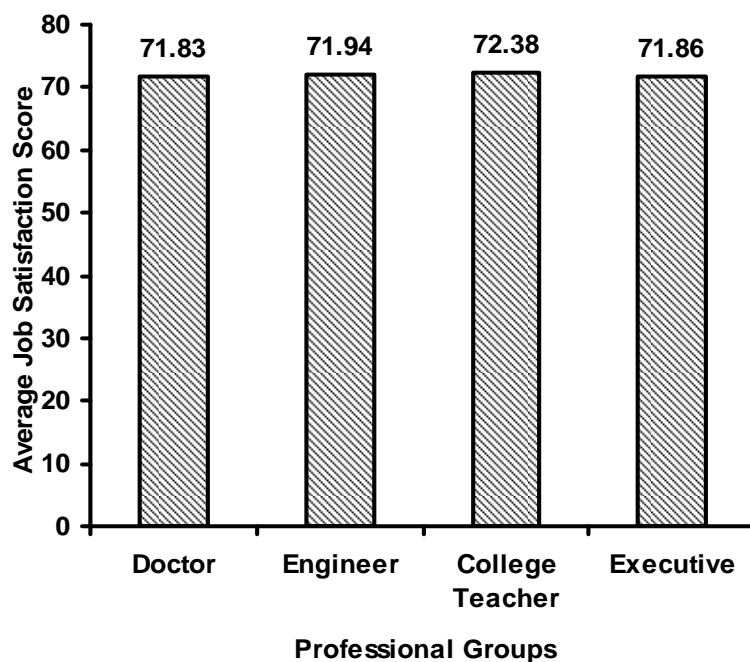


Figure # 4: Average Job Satisfaction Scores Of Professionals (As Per Table 3)

The obtained F-ratio for these differences ($F = 0.13$, Table 4) is not significant at any acceptable level of significance, providing sound statistical ground to refute the research hypothesis accepting the null hypothesis in this regard. It can be concluded that there does not exist any true difference in job-satisfaction of four groups of professionals i.e., doctors, engineers, college teachers, and executives.

It seems that all the four types of occupations are presenting similar type of privileges and deprivations. Though, doctors are working in challenging and adverse

situations all the time dealing with ill people, their job routine many a times forces them to work during those hours also when they thought of some rest or sharing family responsibility. All these factors may prevent doctors seeking satisfaction from their jobs. However, being at welfare state for others with sense of obligations on the part of ill people and their relatives, doctors enjoy a high social and economic status along with high self-esteem, the factors contribute to higher job satisfaction of doctors.

The profession of engineering prevails varied job-satisfaction due to different types of responsibility they have to perform, depending on their branch specialization. However, their interactions limit to a few people working together which may or may not be satisfying to these engineers due to restricted working area. Engineers also do not enjoy high social status in the society as doctors do. The shift working also is a great factor in the job-satisfaction. Their job satisfaction also depends on bureaucratic balance in the working environment and if this is not harmonious due to human factors, it is possible that they may be highly dissatisfied with their jobs inspite of good salary, which is strong source of job satisfaction in the modern era wherein economy of the family plays of valuable role in job-satisfaction. Apart of it, a less stressed work situation of engineers may be a contributory factor to their higher job-satisfaction. Many engineers get enough time to plan their family and social responsibilities due to specific working hours only. Because of this their lives are well settled and they have stable and predictable daily routine. These may also be contributing to higher job satisfaction of engineers.

Teachers are working in the profession which heavily demands a moral standard. Teachers always find themselves under stress socio-culturally. In spite of highly educated their true income is considerably lesser than other professional groups considered in the present research i.e., doctors, engineers, and executives, which is a great source of frustration leading to job dissatisfaction. The positive aspect of college teaching profession is high social respect and truly dedicated teachers always find themselves more self-actualized in comparison to doctors,

engineers, and executives. All these factors are source of high self-esteem of college teachers leading to higher job-satisfaction.

Executives, either in government sector or in private sector, are key figures and decision makers in the organization. They are heavily loaded with task responsibility which bring in both positive and negative factors pertaining to their job satisfaction. On the one hand, they enjoy a real good, higher, powerful, commanding position along with high salary structure to the extent of jealousy for others and source of satisfaction in themselves. However, on the other hand, due to this key position they are forced to avoid other family and social responsibilities out of these job conditions, which may frustrate executive a lot and may inculcate job dissatisfaction among such executives.

Looking at this discussion about varying job situations some of which are positive and some other are negative in working situations of all the four professionals i.e., doctors, engineers, college teachers, and executives, the findings of the present research of no genuine difference among four professional groups in respect of their job satisfaction, is very well explainable.

(A-4) ROLE OF GENDER IDENTITY IN JOB SATISFACTION

The fourth problem of present research pertained to role of gender identity in job-satisfaction of professionals. It had been hypothesized that androgynous professionals would be the most job satisfied people while undifferentiated professionals would be the least satisfied with their jobs. The other two gender identity groups i.e., masculine and feminine, would stand in between these two extreme groups in the same regard.

A perusal of Table 3 supports the hypothesis as the highest average job-satisfaction score is of androgynous professionals ($M = 77.04$, Figure 5) and the lowest average job satisfaction score is of undifferentiated professionals ($M = 64.45$, Figure 4). The masculine and feminine gender identity groups of professionals are at second ($M =$

74.30, Figure 5) and third (M = 72.23, Figure 5), respectively. The obtained significant F-ratio (F = 58.49, Table 4) provides empirical ground to retain the research hypothesis rejecting the null hypothesis in this regard. Apart of F-ratio, Tukey's HSD test was also employed to ascertain significance of differences between any two comparison groups of the four gender identity groups i.e., masculine, feminine, androgynous, undifferentiated. All the differences are significant either at .05 or at .01 level of significance (Table 6).

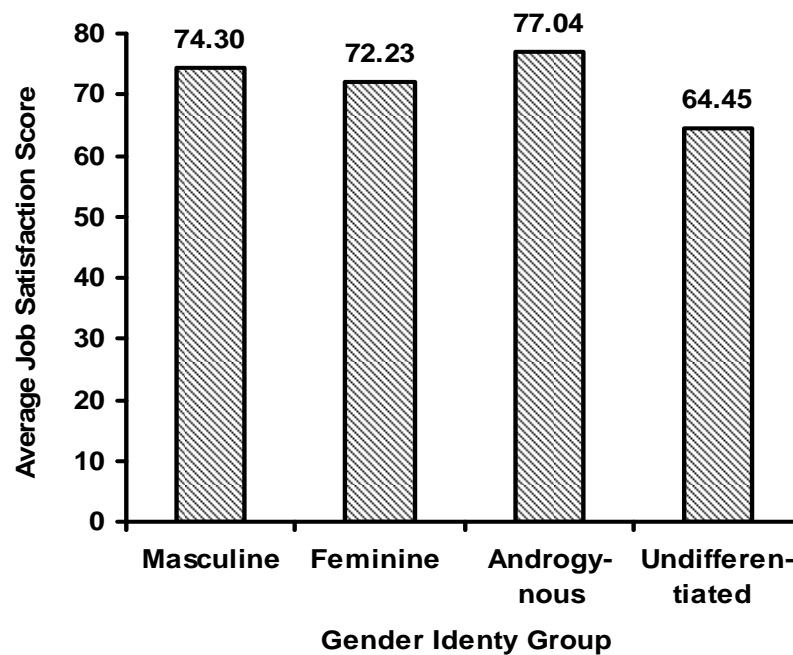


Figure # 5: Average Job Satisfaction Scores Of Four Gender Identity Groups (As Per Table 3)

All these statistics provide ample statistical ground to conclude that professionals with androgynous gender identity truly showed the highest level of job-satisfaction while professionals with undifferentiated gender identity showed the least job-satisfaction. Professionals with masculine and feminine gender identity groups stood second and third in regard to their job-satisfaction.

The term of masculine and feminine have different psychological and social meanings. "Masculine" refers to, attributes and interest on those that are typically associated with being a male in our society, whereas "feminine" refers to, attributes and interest on those that are associated with being a female. These terms are

based on people's perception about themselves as belonging to a particular gender rather than on biological sex. Typically masculinity refers to dominance of risk taking behaviour while feminine refers to submissive, emotional nurturant, kindness. Androgynous are those people who possess characteristics of both the masculinity and femininity at high level while the undifferentiated gender identity involves characteristics of both masculinity and femininity, at low level.

There is a large body of research that supports the proposition that "androgyny is good". For example, as compared to masculine and feminine gender types, androgynous men and women are found to be better liked (Major et al, 1981), better able to adapt to the demands of varied situation (Prager & Bailey, 1985; and Shaffer et al., 1992), better adjusted (Orlofsky & O'Heron, 1987; and Williams & D'Alessandro, 1994), more satisfied with their interpersonal relationships (Rosenzweig & Duley, 1989), happy with their lives in general (Dean-Church & Gilroy, 1993; and Peter 2008), more flexible in coping with stress (McClall & Sluthers, 1994), more creative and optimistic (Norlender et al. 2000), and better able to reduce the stress of others (Hirokawa et al., 2001). All these attributes of androgynous professionals prone them to be more satisfied with their jobs.

Recent research (Bem, 1974, and Cook, 1987) emphasizes that androgynous is truly better than either high masculine or high feminine. The androgynous person possess both masculine and feminine traits. Thus, an androgynous professional can be both assertive and sensitive, both independent and understanding, leading to proper handling of stressors in job situations. Bem (1975, 1978) demonstrated that androgynous men and women behaved more flexibly than more sex-typed (masculine or feminine). She asserted that androgynous people, like masculine sex-typed people, can display the "Masculine" agnatic trait of independence by resisting social pressure to conform to undesirable group activities. Yet they are as likely as feminine sex-typed individuals to display the "Feminine" communal trait of nurturance by interacting positively. In addition, androgynous individuals appear to enjoy high self-esteem and are perceived as better adjusted than their traditionally sex-typed

peers, although this may be largely due to the masculine qualities they possess (Bodizar, 1991; Spence & Hall, 1996; and Lafkowitz & Zeldaw, 2006).

In some culture masculinity is as advantageous as androgyny with respect to their decision making abilities (Abadalla, 1995). In contrast, feminine role identification has its own pitfalls. Those of either gender who are high on femininity tend to have lower self-esteem than either masculine or androgynous individuals (Lau, 1989). Bramberger & Matthewes (1996) also observed that femininity was associated with depression – a major cause of job dissatisfaction.

It has been found that success in any domain of behaviour rest on both masculine and feminine characteristics. Similarly, the job satisfaction also demands specific characteristics of masculinity and also femininity because it is not only the income or the work situation which determine the job satisfaction of the professional but also the harmonious human relations, a professional is enjoying in his profession. His own specific behaviour and personality pattern do play vital role in his job satisfaction. An androgynous professional, being high on masculinity and femininity both, is at advantage in seeking satisfaction at his work place while the undifferentiated professional, being low on masculinity and femininity both is at disadvantage in this regard, leading the former to seek the highest level of job satisfaction and the later the least job satisfaction. Masculine professionals who are high on masculinity and low on femininity enjoy same benefits of masculinity but are at loss due to low femininity, seek greater satisfaction with their jobs than feminine professionals who are high on femininity but low on masculinity which deprive them from job satisfaction due to their indecisive and submissive characteristics.

(B) JOINT ROLE OF FACTORS

So far, independent role of four independent variables in job satisfaction have been discussed. It is also worthwhile to deal with joint role of any two or more variables under consideration in regard to job satisfaction.

(B-1) JOINT ROLE OF GENDER AND OPTIMISM

The first interaction problem at first-order level pertained to joint role of gender and optimism in job satisfaction of professionals. It was hypothesized that there would exist true joint role of gender and optimism in job satisfaction of professionals.

A perusal of Table 8 clarifies that average job satisfaction scores of high optimistic male professionals is the highest (M = 78.00, Figure 6) while that of low optimistic female professionals is the lowest (M = 67.10, Figure 6). High optimistic female professionals (M = 74.44, Figure 6) and low optimistic male professionals (M = 68.46, Figure 6) stood second and third in the regard.

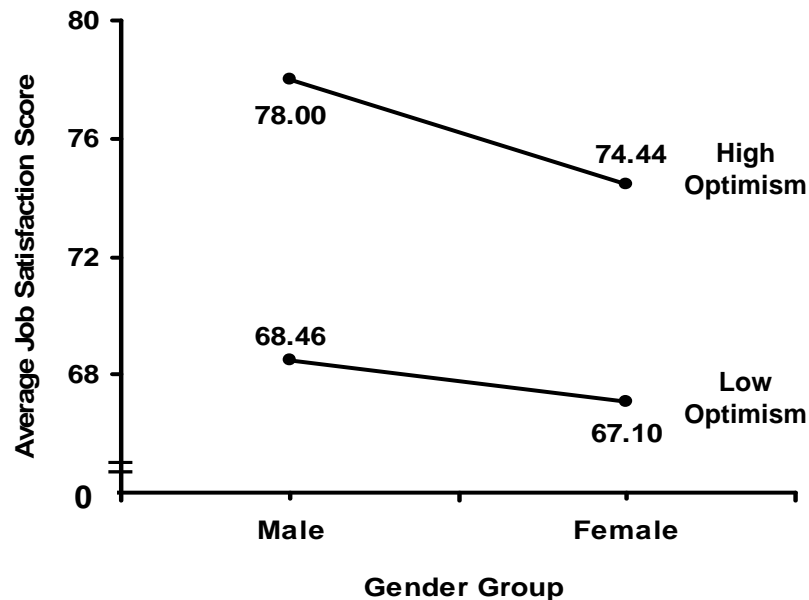


Figure # 6: Average Job Satisfaction Scores Of Four Sub-Groups Formed On Joint Basis Of Optimism And Gender (As Per Table 9)

The obtained significant F-ratio ($F = 4.84$, Table 4) provides empirical ground to conclude that there exists true joint role of gender and optimism in job satisfaction of professionals. In other words, it can be concluded that the four subgroups formed on joint basis of gender and optimism i.e., high optimistic males, low optimistic males, high optimistic females, and low optimistic females, truly differ in respect of their job satisfaction.

(B-2) JOINT ROLE OF GENDER AND NATURE OF OCCUPATION

The second first-order interaction problem pertained to joint role of gender and nature of occupation in job satisfaction of professionals. It had been assumed that there would exist true joint role of gender of professionals and nature of their occupation in their job satisfaction.

A perusal of Table 10 reveals that average job satisfaction scores of eight sub-groups formed on joint basis of gender and nature of occupation i.e., male doctor, male engineer, male college teacher, male executive, female doctor, female engineer, female college teacher, and female executive, are 72.85, 73.475, 72.95, 73.65, 70.80, 70.40, 71.80, and 70.075, respectively (Figure 7).

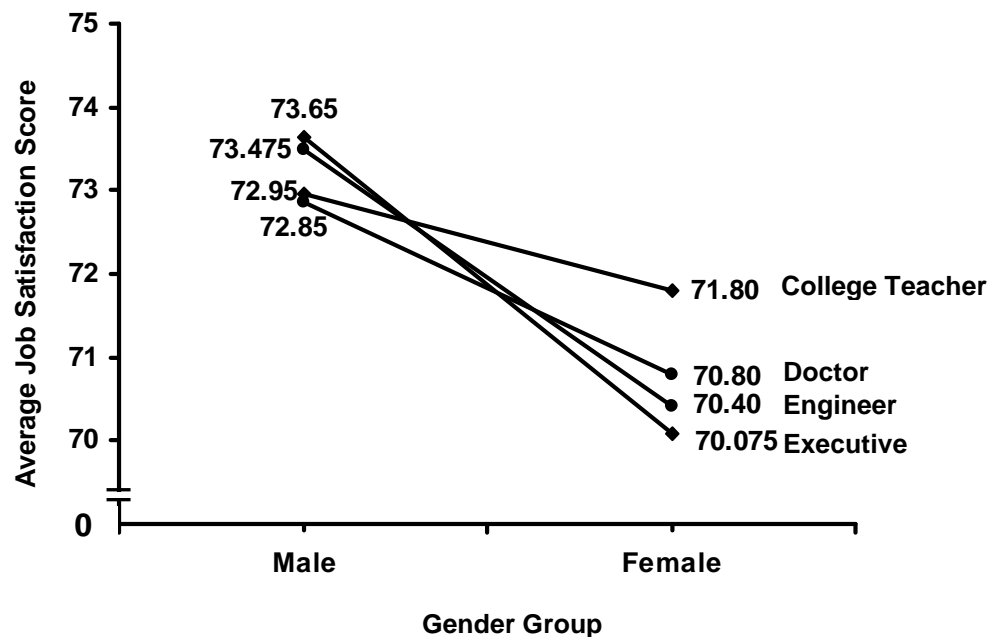


Figure # 7: Average Job Satisfaction Scores Of Eight Sub-Groups Formed On Joint Basis Of Gender And Nature Of Occupation (As Per Table 10)

The obtained F-ratio ($F = 2.34$, Table 4) for this purpose is not significant of any acceptable level of significance, providing ample statistical ground refute the research hypothesis, accepting the null hypothesis in this regard. It can be concluded that there does not exist any genuine joint role of gender and nature of occupation in job satisfaction of professionals.

It has earlier been observed that male professionals are truly more satisfied than female professionals, however no genuine difference has been observed among four groups of professionals i.e., doctor, engineer, college teacher, and executive. The obtained insignificant statistics provides empirical base to believe that the true gender difference in job satisfaction is similar for all the four professional groups i.e., doctors, engineers, college teachers, and executives.

(B-3) JOINT ROLE OF GENDER AND GENDER IDENTITY IN JOB SATISFACTION

The third first-order interaction problem pertained to joint role of gender and gender identity in job satisfaction of professionals. It had been hypothesized that there would exist true joint role of two variables in job satisfaction of professionals.

It is clear from Table 11 that average job satisfaction scores of eight subgroups formed joint basis of gender and gender identity i.e., masculine male, feminine male, androgynous male, undifferentiated male, masculine female, feminine female, androgynous female, and undifferentiated female, are 76.20, 73.425, 78.65, 64.65, 72.40, 71.00, 75.425, and 64.25, respectively (Figure 8).

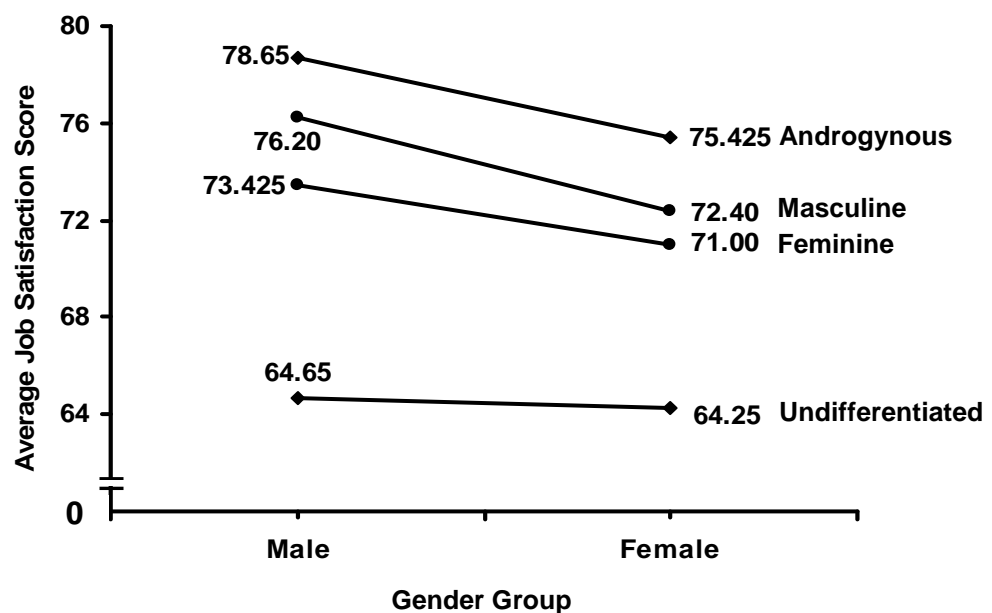


Figure # 8: Average Job Satisfaction Scores Of Eight Sub-Groups Formed On Joint Basis Of Gender And Gender Identity (As Per Table 11)

The obtained interaction F-ratio ($F = 1.10$, Table 4) is not significant at any acceptable level of significance for 3 and 256 degrees of freedom. This insignificant statistic provides empirical ground to conclude that gender and gender identity do not play any considerable joint role in job satisfaction of professionals. Hence, the null hypothesis is accepted, refuting the research hypothesis in regard to joint role of gender and gender identity in job satisfaction of professionals. Earlier in the discussion above, it has been found that both gender and gender identity play considerable individual roles in job satisfaction of professionals. More specifically, it has been observed that, male professionals showed greater job satisfaction than female professionals and similarly it too has been observed that androgynous professionals showed greater job satisfaction than masculine, feminine, and undifferentiated professionals. The undifferentiated professionals have been found to be the poorest in regard to their job satisfaction. However, the obtained insignificant interaction statistic provides a sound basis to believe that both the independent factors i.e., gender and gender identity, are independent in regard to their role in job satisfaction of professionals. More specifically, it can be reasoned that the genuine gender difference in job satisfaction of professionals does not vary considerably for four gender identity groups of professionals or vice-versa.

(B-4) JOINT ROLE OF OPTIMISM AND NATURE OF OCCUPATION IN JOB SATISFACTION

The fourth first-order interaction problem of the present research pertained to joint role of optimism and nature of occupation of professionals in their job satisfaction. It had been hypothesized that there would exist genuine joint role of optimism and nature of occupation of professionals in their job satisfaction.

It is clear from Table 12 that average job satisfaction scores of 8 subgroups formed on joint basis of optimism and nature of occupation i.e., high optimistic doctor, high optimistic engineer, high optimistic college teacher, high optimistic executive, low optimistic doctor, low optimistic engineer, low optimistic college teacher, and low optimistic executive, are 77.825, 76.65, 74.875, 76.525, 65.825, 68.225, 69.875, and 67.20, respectively (Figure 9).

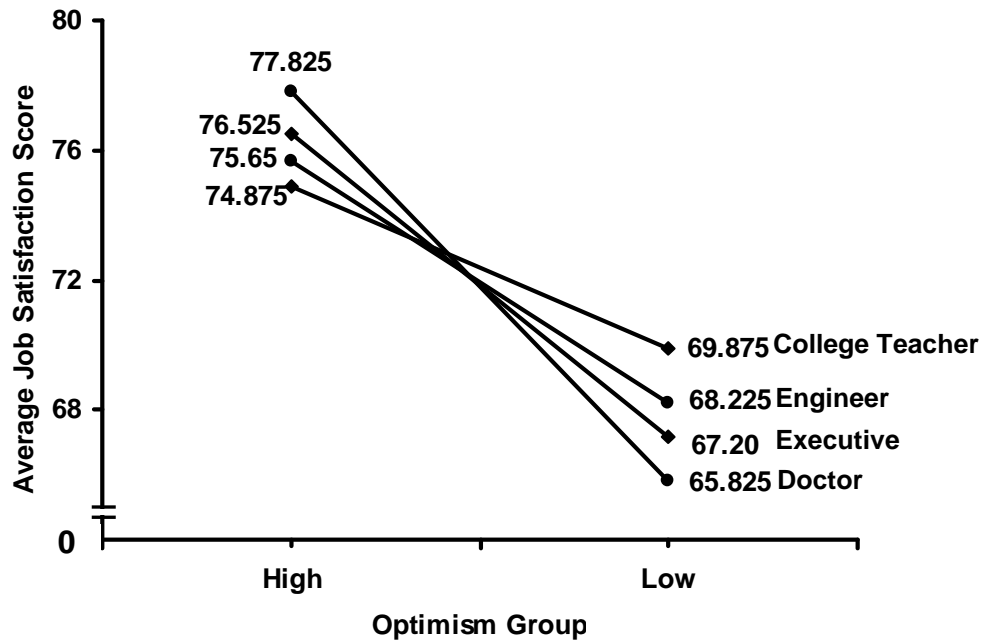


Figure # 9: Average Job Satisfaction Scores Of Eight Sub-Groups Formed On The Joint Basis Of Optimism And Nature of Occupation (As Per Table 12)

The obtained interaction F-ratio ($F = 4.39$, Table 4) is significant at .01 level of significance for 3 and 256 degrees of freedom and provides empirical ground to retain the research hypothesis in regard to joint role of optimism and nature of occupation of professionals in their job satisfaction, rejecting the null hypothesis in this regard. It can be concluded that there does exist true joint role of optimism and nature of occupation in job satisfaction of professionals. More specifically, it can be concluded that the difference in job satisfaction of 8 sub-groups formed on joint basis of optimism and nature of occupation are genuine. Alternately, it can also be said that the genuine difference between high and low optimistic professionals in respect of their job satisfaction truly varies for four occupational groups of professionals.

(B-5) JOINT ROLE OF OPTIMISM AND GENDER IDENTITY IN JOB SATISFACTION

The fifth first-order interaction problem of the present research pertained to joint role of optimism and gender identity of professionals in their job satisfaction. It

had been hypothesized that there would exist true joint role of optimism and gender identity of professionals in their job satisfaction of professionals.

A perusal of Table 13, clarifies that average job satisfaction scores of 8 sub-groups formed on joint basis of optimism and gender identity i.e., high optimistic masculine, high optimistic feminine, high optimistic androgynous, high optimistic undifferentiated, low optimistic masculine, low optimistic feminine, low optimistic androgynous, and low optimistic undifferentiated, are 79.30, 75.525, 82.20, 67.85, 69.30, 68.90, 71.875, and 61.05, respectively (Figure 10).

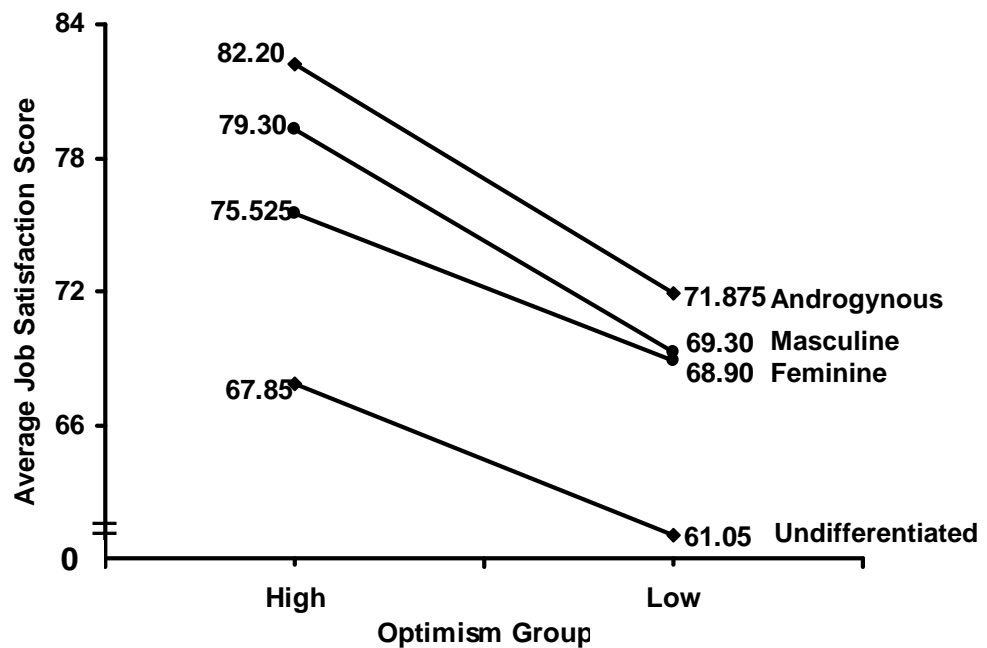


Figure # 10: Average Job Satisfaction Scores Of Eight Sub-Groups Formed On The Joint Basis Of Optimism And Gender Identity (As Per Table 13)

The obtained interaction F-ratio ($F = 2.00$, Table 4) is not significant at any acceptable level of significance for 1 and 256 degrees of freedom. This insignificant statistics provides sound statistical ground to conclude that there does

not exist any considerable joint role of optimism and gender identity of professional in their job satisfaction. Hence, the null hypothesis can be accepted in regard to joint role of optimism and gender identity of professionals in their job satisfaction, refuting the research hypothesis. Earlier in the discussion above it has been found that both the factors – optimism and gender identity play their true independent role in job satisfaction of professionals. However, the insignificant F-ratio pertaining to their joint role clearly indicates that the two important variables do play their independent role but not the joint role in job satisfaction of professionals. More specifically, it can be believed that the genuine difference in job satisfaction of high and low optimistic professionals does not vary considerably for four gender identity groups of professionals i.e., masculine, feminine, androgynous, and undifferentiated, or vice-versa.

(B-6) JOINT ROLE OF NATURE OF OCCUPATION AND GENDER IDENTITY IN JOB SATISFACTION

The sixth first-order interaction problem was whether nature of occupation and gender identity of professionals play any true joint role in their job satisfaction? It was hypothesized that the two variables would play true joint role in job satisfaction of professionals.

A perusal of Table 14 clarifies that average job satisfaction scores of 16 sub-groups formed on joint basis of nature of occupation and gender identity are 73.65, 75.75, 72.65, 75.15, 74.50, 66.60, 74.95, 72.80, 76.65, 77.00, 78.65, 75.85, 62.50, 68.40, 63.25, and 63.65, respectively (Figure 11).

The obtained insignificant interaction F-ratio ($F = 0.43$, $P > .05$, Table 4) provides empirical ground to conclude that the two variables – nature of occupation and gender identity – do not play any true joint role in job satisfaction of professionals, rather they are independent in this regard.

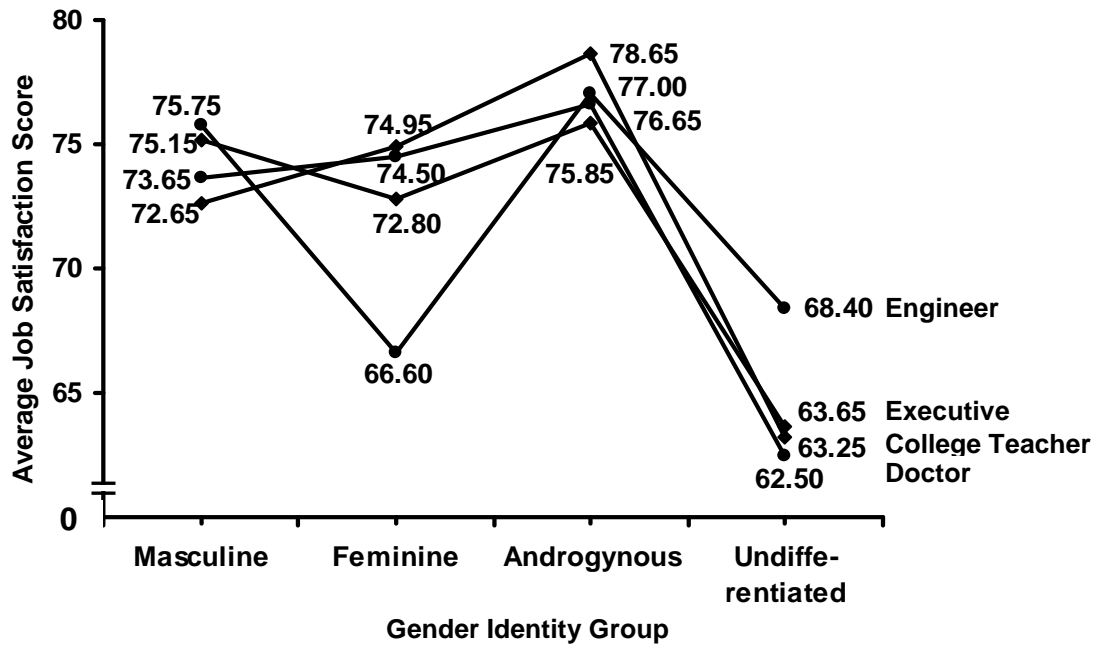


Figure # 11: Average Job Satisfaction Scores Of Sixteen Sub-Groups Formed On Joint Basis Of Nature of Optimism And Gender Identity (As Per Table 14)

Earlier it has been observed in this study that androgynous professionals tended to be the most job satisfied while undifferentiated professionals tended to be the least satisfied with their jobs. However, no any considerable difference had been observed, in the present research, among four professional groups i.e., doctor, engineer, college teacher, and executive, in regard to their job satisfaction. The obtained insignificant interaction F-ratio also indicates that the true difference among four gender identity groups of professionals i.e., masculine, feminine, androgynous, and undifferentiated, do not vary considerably due to their differential nature of jobs. More specifically, it can also be concluded that the differences in average job satisfaction scores of 16 subgroups formed on joint basis of nature and occupation do not differ considerably.

(B-7) JOINT ROLE OF GENDER, OPTIMISM, AND NATURE OF OCCUPATION IN JOB SATISFACTION

The first second-order interaction problem was whether gender, optimism, and nature of occupation play any true joint role in job satisfaction of professionals?

It was hypothesized that the three variables would play their considerable joint role in job satisfaction of professionals.

It is clear from Table 15 and Figure 12 that average job satisfaction scores of 16 sub-groups formed on joint basis of three variables i.e., high optimistic-male-doctor, high optimistic-male-engineer, high optimistic-male-college teacher, high optimistic-male-executive, high optimistic-female-doctor, high optimistic-female-engineer, high optimistic-female-college teacher, high optimistic-female-executive, low optimistic-male-doctor, low optimistic-male-engineer, low optimistic-male-college teacher, low optimistic-male-executive, low optimistic-female-doctor, low optimistic-female-engineer, low optimistic-female-college teacher, and low optimistic-female-executive, are 80.25, 77.15, 75.70, 78.90, 75.40, 74.15, 74.05, 74.15, 65.45, 69.80, 70.20, 69.55, 66.20, 68.40, 66.20, 66.65, 69.55, and 66.00, respectively.

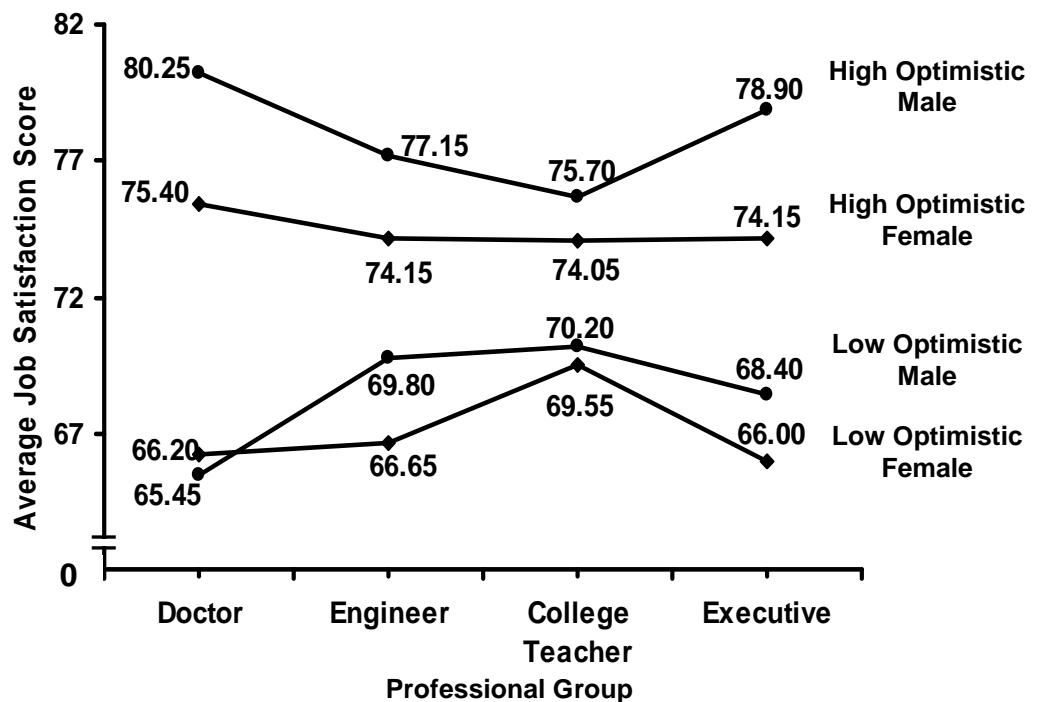


Figure # 12: Average Job Satisfaction Scores Of Sixteen Sub-Groups Formed On Joint Basis Of Gender, Optimism, and Nature of Optimism (As Per Table 15)

The obtained interaction F-ratio ($F = 1.96$, Table 4) is not significant at any acceptable level of significance for 3 and 256 degrees of freedom and provides ample

statistical ground to conclude that there does not exist any considerable joint role of gender, optimism, and nature of occupation in job satisfaction of professionals, rather they are independent in this regard.

More specifically, the 16 sub-groups formed on joint basis of these three variables do not differ truly in respect of their job satisfaction.

(B-8) JOINT ROLE OF GENDER, OPTIMISM, AND GENDER IDENTITY IN JOB SATISFACTION

The second interaction problem of the present research at second-order level pertained to joint role of gender, optimism, and gender identity in job satisfaction of professionals. It was hypothesized that the three variables would play true joint role in job satisfaction of professionals.

Table 16 and Figure 13 show average job satisfaction scores of 16 sub-groups formed on the joint basis of the three variables i.e., gender, optimism, and gender identity.

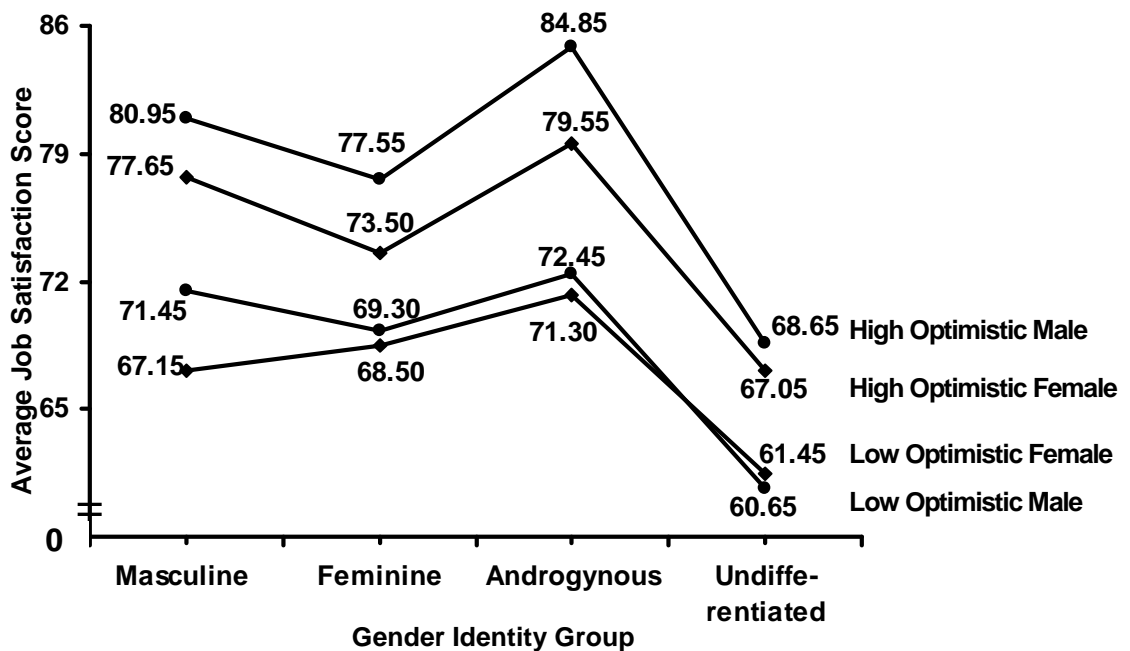


Figure # 13: Average Job Satisfaction Scores Of Sixteen Sub-Groups Formed On Joint Basis Of Gender, Optimism, and Gender Identity (As Per Table 16)

The obtained interaction F-ratio ($F = 3.73$, Table 4) is significant at .05 level of significance for 3 and 256 degrees of freedom and provides empirical ground to retain the research hypothesis, rejecting the null hypothesis in this regard. It can be concluded that the three variables do play their true joint role in job satisfaction of professionals.

Earlier it has been observed that males, high optimistic, and androgynous professionals were truly more job satisfied than their counterparts. The significant interaction F-ratio further provides sound statistical ground to believe that the 16 sub-groups formed on joint basis of gender, optimism, and gender identity truly differ in regard to their job satisfaction. Alternatively, it can be said that the true differences in job satisfaction of four gender identity groups i.e., masculine, feminine, androgynous, and undifferentiated, truly vary due to their differential gender and optimism level.

(B-9) JOINT ROLE OF GENDER, NATURE OF OCCUPATION, AND GENDER IDENTITY IN JOB SATISFACTION

The third second-order interaction problem was whether gender, nature of occupation, and gender identity play any true joint role in job satisfaction of professionals. It was expected that the three variables would play their true joint role in job satisfaction of professionals.

Average job satisfaction scores of 32 gender-occupation-gender identity sub-groups are depicted in Table 17 and Figure 14. The obtained significant F-ratio ($F = 7.65$, $P < .01$, Table 4) provides sound statistical ground to conclude that the three variables do play their considerable joint role in job satisfaction of professionals.

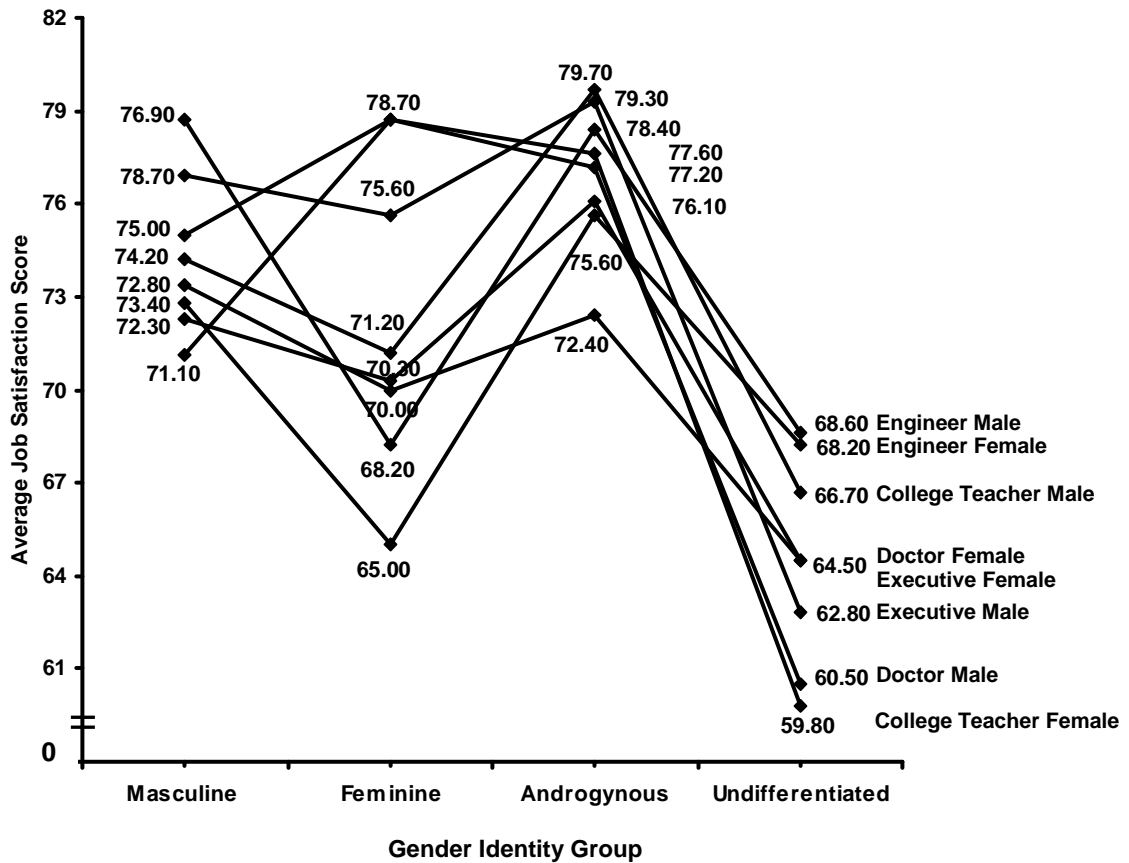


Figure # 14: Average Job Satisfaction Scores Of Thirty Two Sub-Groups Formed On Joint Basis Of Gender, Nature of Occupation, And Gender Identity (As Per Table 17)

Earlier, it had been observed that gender and gender identity did play its true independent role in job satisfaction of professionals while the four occupational groups i.e., doctor, engineer, college teacher, and executive, did not differ considerable in the same regard. However, significant interaction statistics provides empirical ground to conclude that average jobs satisfaction scores of 32 sub-groups truly differ. In other words, the difference in job satisfaction scores of four occupational groups truly vary due to their differential gender and gender identity.

(B-10) JOINT ROLE OF OPTIMISM, NATURE OF OCCUPATION, AND GENDER IDENTITY

The last second-order interaction problem pertained to joint role of optimism, nature of occupation, and gender identity. It had been hypothesized that the three variables would play their true joint role in job satisfaction of professionals.

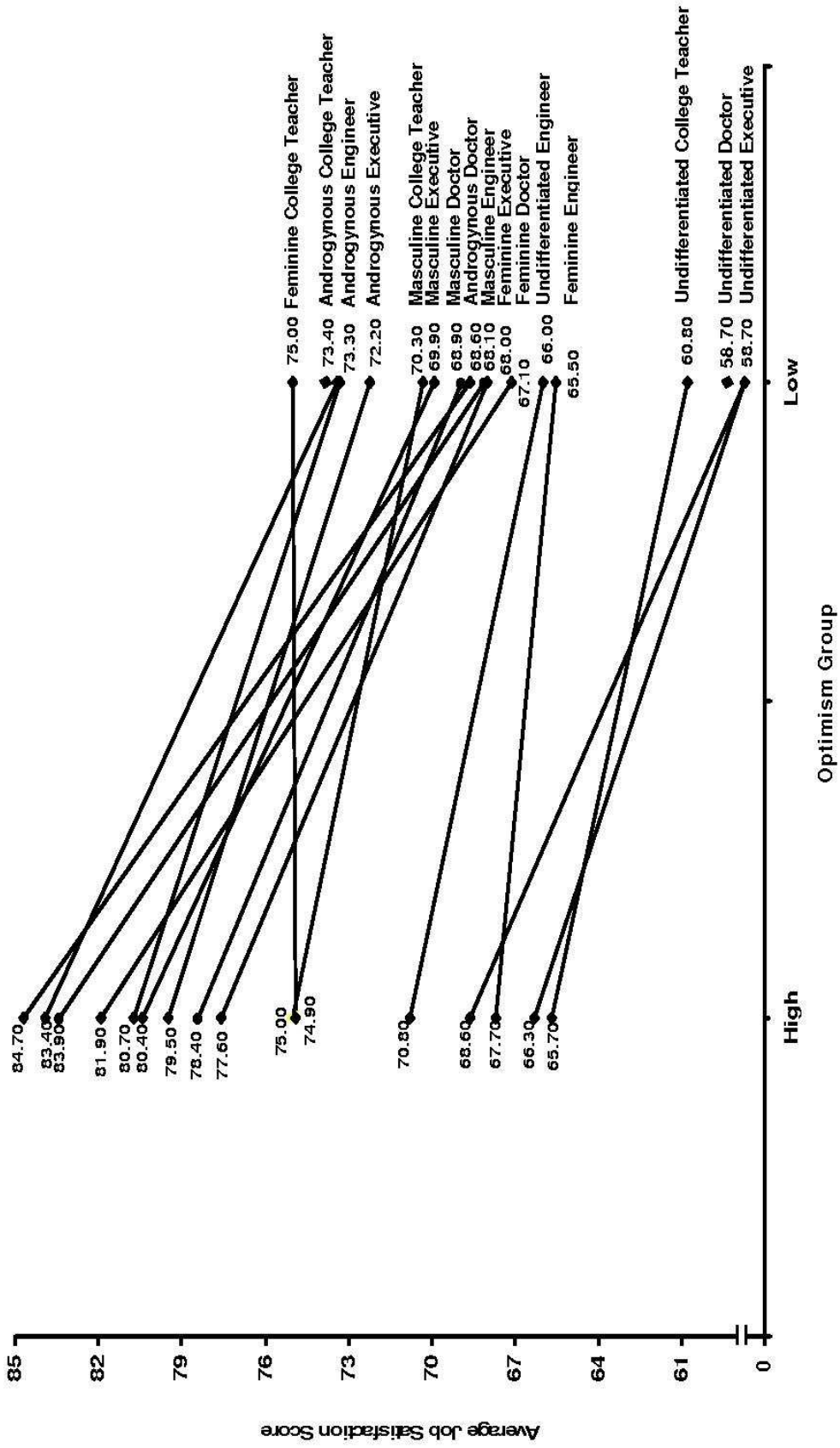


Figure # 15: Average Job Satisfaction Scores Of Thirty Two Sub-Groups Formed On The Joint Basis Of Optimism, Nature Of Occupation, And Gender Identity (As Per Table 18)

Table 18 and Figure 15 depict average job satisfaction scores of 32 sub-groups formed on joint basis of the three variables under consideration in this problem. The obtained interaction F-ratio ($F = 7.20$, Table 4) is significant at .01 level of significance for 9 and 256 degrees of freedom and provides empirical ground to accept the research hypothesis i.e., optimism, nature of occupation, and gender identity do play their true joint role in job satisfaction of professionals. More specifically, the 32 sub-groups do differ genuinely in respect of their job satisfaction.

It had already been found that high optimistic and androgynous professional were more satisfied with their jobs than their counterparts, but the four professional groups – doctor, engineer, college teacher, and executive did not differ genuinely in the same regard. However, the significant interaction statistic provides sound statistical ground to conclude that differences in job satisfaction scores of four groups of professionals i.e., doctor, engineer, college teacher, and executive, genuinely vary due to their differential level (high/low) optimism and gender identity (masculine/feminine/androgynous/undifferentiated).

(B-11) JOINT ROLE OF GENDER, OPTIMISM, NATURE OF OCCUPATION, AND GENDER IDENTITY

The last interaction problem of the present research pertained to joint role of all the four factors i.e., gender, optimism, nature of occupation, and gender identity, in job satisfaction of professionals. It had been hypothesized that the four independent variables would play their true joint role in job satisfaction of professionals.

Table 3 and Figure 16 show average job satisfaction scores of 64 sub-groups formed on joint basis of the four variables. The obtained interaction F-ratio ($F = 10.04$, Table 4) is significant at .01 level of significance for 9 and 256 degrees of freedom, and provides empirical ground to accept the hypothesized fact that the 64 sub-groups do differ genuinely in regard to their job satisfaction.

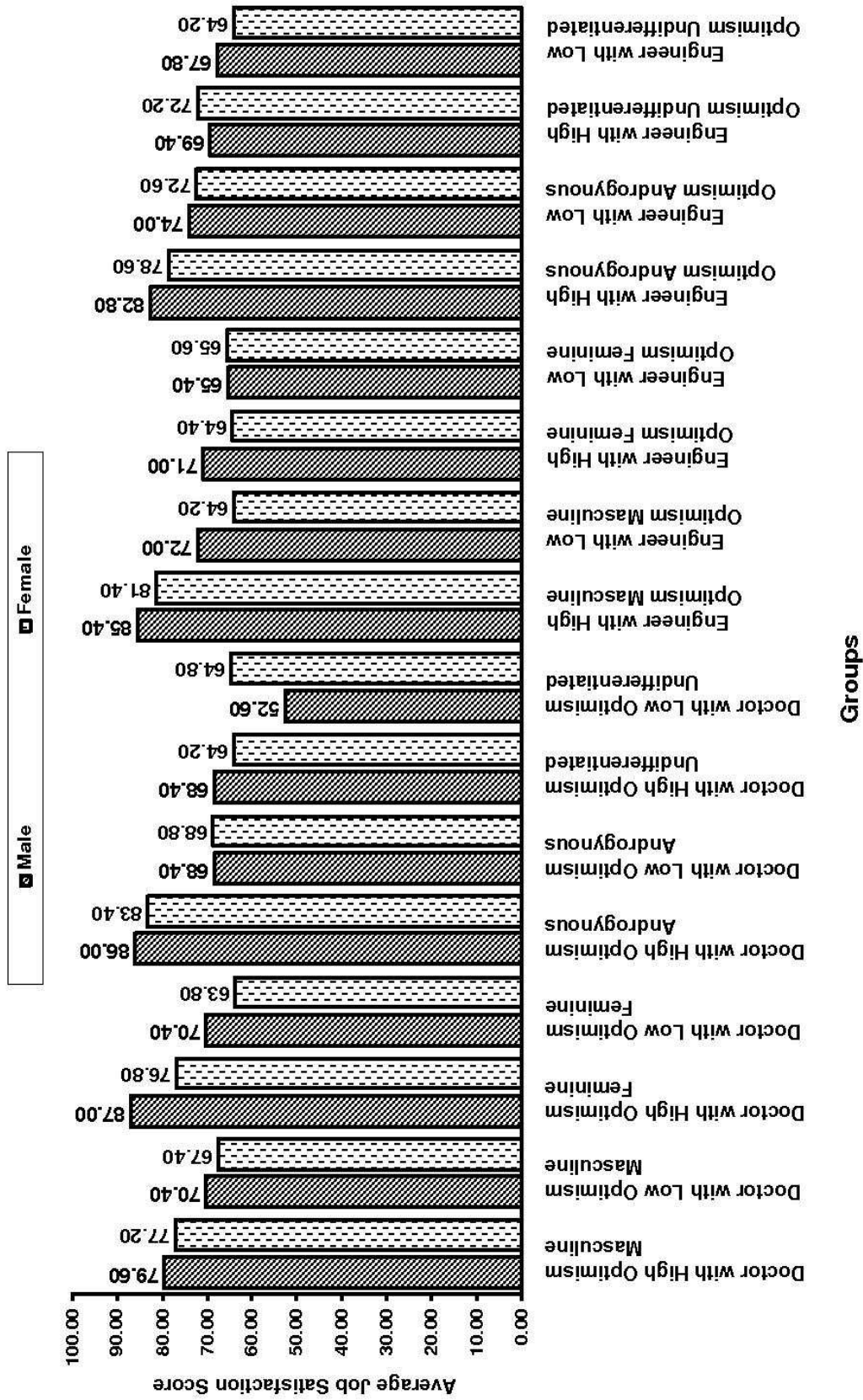


Figure # 16: Average Job Satisfaction Scores Of 64 Subgroups Formed On Joint Basis Of Gender, Optimism, Nature Of Occupation, And Gender Identity (As Per Table 3)

Figure Cont..

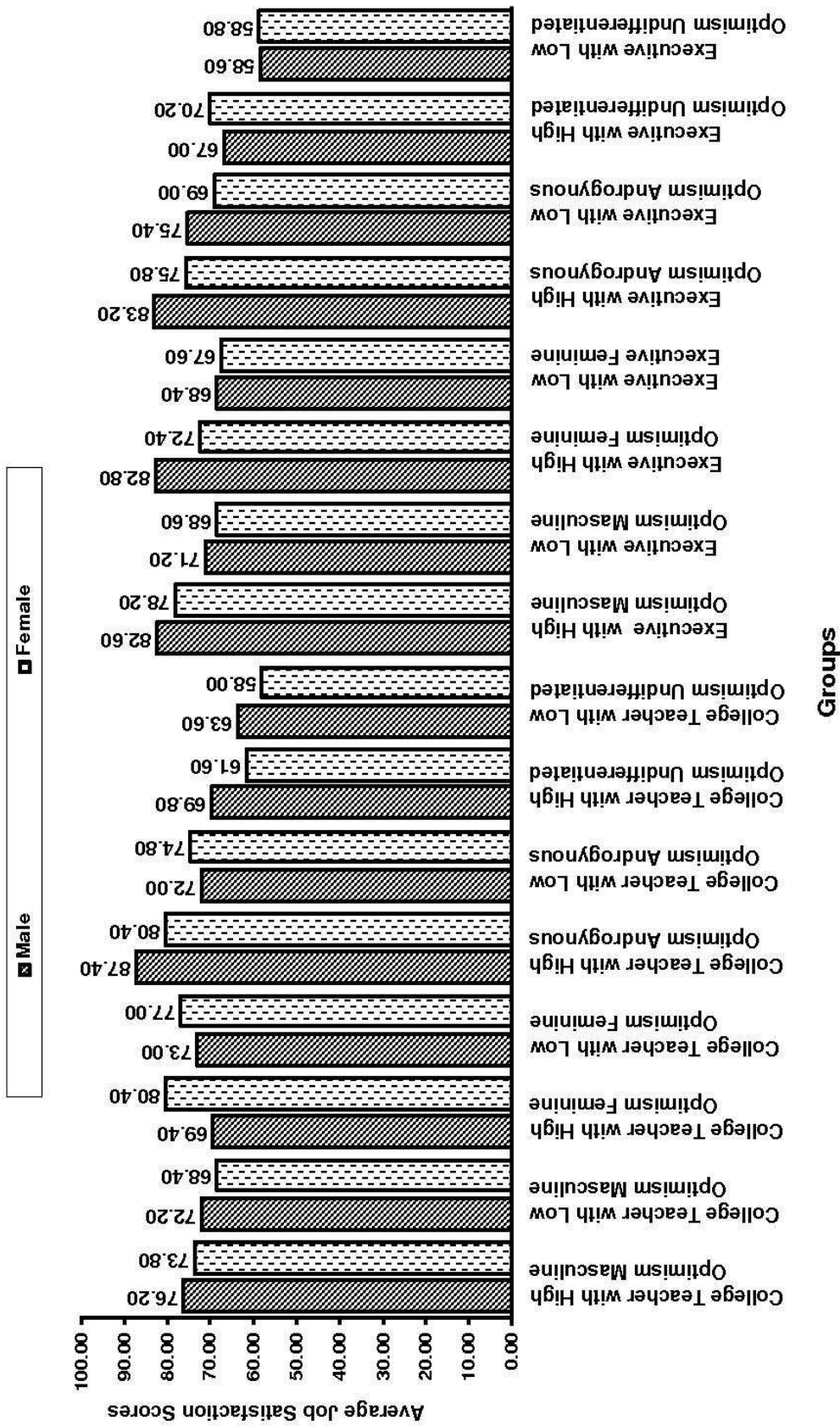


Figure # 16: Average Job Satisfaction Scores Of 64 Subgroups Formed On The Joint Basis Of Gender, Optimism, Nature Of Occupation, And Gender Identity (As Per Table 3)

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY

CHAPTER – SIX

SUMMARY

INTRODUCTION

A satisfied employee at workplace puts the brick on the plinth of development. Job satisfaction is an attitude that employees have about their works and is based on numerous factors, both intrinsic and extrinsic to the individual. Job satisfaction is important from the perspective of maintaining and retaining the appropriate employees within the organization: it is about filling the right person to the right job in the right culture and keeping them satisfied (Crow & Hartman, 1995; and Rose, 2001). It seems obvious that job satisfaction, contentment with, and enjoyment of one's job is an asset for both the individual and the organization. A satisfied employee is a happier employee; increased job satisfaction makes people feel better (Crohan et al., 1989).

Job satisfaction is the result of various attitudes possessed by an employee. In a narrow sense, these attitudes are related to the job and are concerned with such specific factors as wages, supervision, steadiness of employment, conditions of work, advancement opportunities, and recognition of ability, fair evaluation of work, social relations on the job, prompt settlement of grievances, fair treatment by employer and other similarities. According to Pestonjee (1980), job satisfaction can be taken as a summation of employee's feelings in four important areas i.e., job, management, social relations, and personal adjustment.

Campbell et al. (1970) categorized job satisfaction theories into either content theories or process theories. Content theories are based on various factors which influence job satisfaction. Process theories, in contrast, take into account the process by which variables such as expectations, needs and values interact with the job to produce job satisfaction. Many theories have been proposed concerning the causes of job satisfaction. They can be classified in three categories: situational theories,

dispositional approaches, and interactive theories (Judge et al., 2001). Situational theories assume that job satisfaction results from the nature of one's job or other aspects of the environment; examples are Herzberg's (1967) two-factor theory, the social information processing approach (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), and the job characteristic model (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Dispositional approaches hypothesize that job satisfaction is rooted in the personological make-up of the individual (Staw & Ross, 1985; and Staw et al., 1986). Interactive theories propose that job satisfaction results from the interplay of the situation and personality; examples are the Cornell Integrative Model (Hulin, 1991) and the Value Percept Theory (Locke, 1976).

There are various factors which can contribute to job satisfaction of employees or people involved in their professions, apart from those being considered in the present research i.e., gender, optimism, nature of work, and gender identity.

Gender has been figured prominently in literature on job satisfaction. Hodson (1989) analysed gender differences in job satisfaction among full-time workers. Analysis revealed few differences between men and women in job satisfaction when considering job characteristics, family responsibilities, and personal expectations. Clark (1997) explained that women's and men's working value is different from each other, that is, men focus more than women on promotion, wage, and job stability but women focus on their relationship with their supervisor, job specification, and working hours. Age and health are variables which affect job satisfaction for both women and men, and education has much more negative effect for men (Miller, 1980). Marital status and working hours, labor union, and supervising status etc. are only significant determinant for women. Hulin & Smith (1964) found that male managers were more satisfied with their jobs than female managers in upper level management. This is supported by the fact that women reported lower overall levels of job satisfaction compared to men, as they rate work burden greater than the men did, as well as most of the women have greater responsibilities at home as they bear the dual pressure of home and work

(Bishay, 1996). In addition to these, Clark (1997), Sousa-Poza & Sousa-Poza (2003), Long (2005), and Kosteas (2009) also found that part of the difference in job satisfaction between men and women is due to the fact that women have lower expectations. Some studies have shown women to be more satisfied than men (Bartol & Wortman, 1975; Murray & Atkinson, 1981; Hodson, 1989; Clark, 1996, 1997; Sloane & Williams, 1996), whereas other studies have shown men to be more satisfied than women (Hulin & Smith, 1964; Weaver, 1974; Shapiro & Stern, 1975; Forgionne & Peeters, 1982; Jagacinski, 1987; and Chiu, 1998). However, most of the researchers reported no significant differences between two sex groups in relation to their job satisfaction (Brief et al., 1977; Golembiewski, 1977; Weaver, 1978; Smith et al., 1983; Mottaz, 1986; Brush et al., 1987; 1987; Tait et al., 1989; de Vaus & McAllister, 1991; Witt & Nye, 1992; Ugorji, 1997; and Smith et al., 1998).

Optimism is a motivational factor which can be reasoned to play its vital role in job satisfaction. Optimism is defined 'as a generalized expectancy that good, as opposed to bad, outcomes will generally occur when confronted with problem; attitude or disposition that good things will happen independent of one's ability.

Tiger (1979) identified optimism as an adaptive characteristic. Lightsey (1996) reviewed literature on optimism and concluded that an optimistic outlook leads to lesser incidence of psychological dysfunctional ties and greater incidence of overall well being. The underlying concept of optimism is self-efficacy and happiness, which gives an individual a belief that he can successfully complete tasks and meet objectives (Goleman, 1998; and Diener et al., 2002). Staw et al. (1986), Seligman (1998), Fredrickson (2001), and Luthans et al. (2008) attempted to study the effect of positive mood on job performance and found that optimism lead to higher productivity and lower turnover in the work place.

The nature of the work performed by employees or nature of occupation has a significant impact on their level of job satisfaction (Larwood, 1984; Landy, 1989; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992; and Luthans, 1998). Sharma & Bhaskar (1991) postulate

that the single most important influence on a person's job satisfaction experience comes from the nature of the work assigned to him/her by the organisation. Traditional studies of professionals ordinarily deal with categorization, description and analysis of professional groups. These include scientists, classical professions such as physicians and lawyers, older callings such as priests and officers, today's professions like engineers, architects, psychologists, teachers, administrators and sometimes social workers also . The primary focus with this kind of research has been to define the differentia specific of professions i.e., what they have in common, and how they differ from other occupations. The present research deals with four of such occupationals i.e., doctors, engineers, college teachers, and executives, in regard to their job satisfaction.

The term gender identity means a person's relative sense of his or her own masculine or feminine identity. Money (1965) used the term to distinguish the subjective experience of gender from the concept of "gender role" which he used to describe the socially determined attributes of gender. Stoller (1968) developed the idea further to distinguish between the psychological and biological dimensions of sex. He used gender to distinguish ideas and experiences of masculinity and femininity both socially determined psychological constructs and sex, the biologically determined traits of maleness and femaleness. The 1970s heralded a new concept in masculinity and femininity research: the idea that healthy women and men could possess similar characteristics. Androgyny emerged as a framework for interpreting similarities and differences among individuals according to the degree to which they described themselves in terms of characteristics traditionally associated with men (masculine) and those associated with women (feminine; Cook, 1987). A male or female who has many masculine stereotyped traits and few feminine ones is defined as a masculine sex-typed person. A person who has many feminine stereotyped traits and few masculine stereotyped traits is said to be a feminine sex-typed person. The androgynous person possesses many of both masculine and feminine traits, whereas the undifferentiated individual lacks both kinds of attributes. There is a large body of

research that supports the proposition that “androgyny is good”. For example, compared to gender type individuals, androgynous men and women are found to be better liked (Major et al., 1981), more comfortable with their sexuality (Garcia, 1982), better able to adapt to the demands of varied situations (Prager & Bailey, 1985), better adjusted (Orlofsky & O’Heron, 1987; and Williams & D’Alessandro, 1994), more satisfied with their interpersonal relationships (Rosenzweig & Daley, 1989), less likely to develop eating disorders (Thorton et al., 1991), more satisfied with their lives in general (Dean-Church & Gilroy, 1993; and Peter, 2008), more flexible in coping with stress (McCall & Struthers, 1994), more creative and optimistic (Norlander et al., 2000), and better able to reduce the stress of others (Hirokawa et al., 2001).

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

The present research intends to study role of gender, optimism, nature of occupation, and gender identity in job satisfaction of professionals. The specific problems undertaken and the relevant hypotheses formulated are described here below:

1. The first problem of the present research was to verify role of gender in job satisfaction of professionals

It was hypothesized that male professionals would be more job satisfied than female professionals.

2. The second problem of the research pertained to role of optimism in job satisfaction of professionals.

It had been hypothesized that high optimistic professionals would be genuinely more satisfied with their jobs than those professionals who were low optimistic.

3. The third problem of the research pertained to role of nature of occupation in job satisfaction of professionals.

It was hypothesized that there would be genuine differences in job satisfaction of four professional groups i.e., doctor, engineer, college teacher, and executive.

4. The fourth problem of the research pertained to role of gender identity in job satisfaction.

It had been expected that androgynous professionals would be the most satisfied people, while undifferentiated professionals would be the least job satisfied with their jobs. The other two groups i.e., masculine and feminine, would stand in between these two extreme groups in the same regard.

5. The interaction problems dealt with joint role of four independent variables i.e., gender, optimism, nature of occupation, and gender identity, in job satisfaction of professionals at first-order, second-order, and at third order levels.

It had been expected that there would exist true joint role of the four independent variables i.e., gender, optimism, nature of occupation, and gender identity, in job satisfaction of professionals at all the levels i.e., first-order, second-order, and third order.

METHODOLOGY

The Sample

A final incidental sample of 320 professionals aging 40-50 years was selected incidentally from a larger population of 800 professionals in Chhattisgarh region equally selected from four professional groups i.e., doctor, engineer, college teacher, and executive. On the basis of Q_1 and Q_3 statistics on scores obtained on optimism scale these professionals were classified as high optimistic (above Q_3) and low optimistic (below Q_1). And on the basis of median statistic on masculinity and femininity dimensions of gender identity, these high and low optimistic professionals were further classified as masculine (above median on masculinity and below median on femininity), feminine (above median on femininity and below median on masculinity), androgynous (above median on masculinity and femininity both), and undifferentiated (below median on masculinity and femininity both).

Care was taken to maintain male-female ratio as 1:1 for all the four occupational groups. In this way, 5 professionals were selected in each of 64 sub-groups.

Tools

Following tests were used to assess different dimensions under consideration in the present research.

- 1. Assessment of Optimism Level** – Optimism Scale (Ajawani & Varwandkar, 2010) was used for the purpose.
- 2. Determination of Gender Identity** – Gender Identity Test (Ajawani, 2006) was used for the purpose.
- 3. Assessment of Job Satisfaction** – Job Satisfaction Scale (Singh & Sharma, 1990) was used for the purpose.

All the scales/test used were highly reliable and valid.

Procedure

Firstly, optimism scale and gender identity test were administered on a larger initial incidental sample of 800 professionals (400 males and 400 females) involved in either of the four professions – doctor, engineer, college teacher and executive – in Chhattisgarh region and aging 40 to 50 years. On the basis of norms for optimism scale and gender identity test these professionals were classified into 64 sub-groups and 5 professionals were selected in each sub-group.

Thus, the final random sample of 320 professionals was selected in a 2X2X4X4 factorial design and 5 subjects in each of the 64 cell-design was studied for their job-satisfaction, by administering a job satisfaction scale. Scores on this scale served the basis for further computations.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In regard to role of gender, as has been hypothesized male professionals had been found to excel female professionals in respect of their job satisfaction.

As it was expected high optimistic professionals had been observed to be more job satisfied than low optimistic professionals.

Contrary to expectation no genuine difference in job satisfaction levels of four occupational groups i.e., doctor, engineer, college teacher, and executive, was found.

As had been hypothesized, androgynous professionals had shown the highest level of job satisfaction and undifferentiated professionals had shown the poorest level of job satisfaction. Masculine group stood second while feminine group stood third in the same regard.

Only two out of six interaction effect at first-order level were found significant while one interaction effect out of four was not found significant at second-order level. The only third-order interaction effect was found significant.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX - A

TEST USED

OS

Dr. J.C. Ajawani

H. O. D., Psychology, Arts and Commerce Girls' College, Devendra Nagar, Raipur (C.G.)

Name _____ Age _____ Years, Sex- Male / Female

Education _____ Faculty - Arts / Commerce / Science

Occupation _____ Post _____

Educational / Vocational Address _____

Family - Nuclear / Joint _____ No. of Family Members _____ Your Ordinal Level in Family - First / Mid / Last _____

Your Annual Income -Rs. _____ Annual Family Income - Rs. _____ Residence - Urban / Rural _____

Marital Status - Unmarried / Married Doubles / Married Singles _____ Length of Marital Life _____ Years

INSTRUCTION

Some statements are given below. Kindly express your opinion about yourself by putting (✓) mark on any one option out of given five - a, b, c, d & e. Please express your opinion about yourself on the basis of your own experience only. No response is right or wrong. Your responses will be kept confidential & will be used for research purpose only. Hence, kindly give your responses freely. It is essential to answer each statement. There is no time limit to complete this test, however try to complete it as early as possible.

Statements	(a) Completely agree	(b) Somewhat agree	(c) Uncertain	(d) Somewhat disagree	(e) Completely disagree
1. Once something is lost there is no use trying to find it.					
2. If the first day of a course you thought would be interesting is boring, you will drop the course immediately.					
3. In the last 10 years I see myself a happy and successful person.					
4. I am motivated to continue even when things get difficult.					
5. I like to try new things, even if there is a chance I will fail.					
6. After missing the wallet, you assume that some one has picked it up and, seeing your address, will return to you.					
7. Receiving an urgent message from a good friend asking you to call him or her as soon as possible, you get very nervous and call, anticipating bad news.					
8. By the year 2020, there will still not be cure for the HIV (AIDS) virus.					

Statements	(a) Completely agree	(b) Somewhat agree	(c) Uncertain	(d) Somewhat disagree	(e) Completely disagree
9. In regard to my career, I fear that things never go the way I want them to go.					
10. Whenever I have problem, I feel there is a way out.					
11. Before beginning something new, I feel I will fail.					
12. Everywhere there is violence, bloodshed, but I believe it will be controlled and one day people will understand the value of human life.					
13. I always blame bad luck for my failure.					
14. For me the world is not worthy place to live in so whatever is happening I never try to change it.					
15. I believe still there are lots of good people in our country.					
16. I am assured about positive outcomes of the things I do.					
17. Life is unbearable and there is no hope for betterment.					
18. I believe that time may be rough but with renewed effort, it would improve.					
19. I am always fearful about something or the other and feel some major problem is ahead.					
20. I believe if there is a failure, then there will be many more opportunities are on the way of success.					
TOTAL SCORE					

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देवेन्द्र नगर, रायपुर (छ.ग.)

नाम (Name) :-----
लिंग (Sex) : पुलिंग /स्त्रीलिंग (Male / Female)
जन्म तिथि (Date of Birth) :-----
शिक्षा (Education) :-----
पता (Address) :-----
व्यवसाय (Occupation) :-----

निर्देश

यह एक परीक्षण है जिसका उपयोग मनोवैज्ञानिक शोध के लिए किया जाना है। इसका उद्देश्य व्यक्ति में नारीसुलभ/ पुरूषोचित प्रवृत्तियों के संदर्भ में ज्ञान प्राप्त करना है।

अगले पृष्ठों पर कुल 40 व्यक्तित्व शीलगुण-पद दिये गये हैं तथा प्रत्येक पद के समक्ष एक मापनी दी गई है। कृपया प्रत्येक शीलगुण-पद को ध्यानपूर्वक पढ़ें तथा स्वयं के संदर्भ में आंकलन कर अपने प्रत्युत्तर सात श्रेणियों में से किसी एक श्रेणी पर (✓) मार्क लगाकर व्यक्त करें। श्रेणी '1' पर निशान लगायें यदि आपको यह लगता है कि वह गुण आपको कभी-भी वर्णित नहीं करता है अथवा आपके संदर्भ में लगभग कभी भी सत्य नहीं है। श्रेणी '2' पर निशान लगायें यदि वह गुण सामान्यतया आपको वर्णित नहीं करता है या सामान्यतया आपके संदर्भ में सत्य नहीं है। श्रेणी '3' पर निशान लगायें यदि वह गुण विरले/यदा-कदा ही आपको वर्णित करता है अथवा आपके संदर्भ में विरले ही सत्य है। श्रेणी '4' पर निशान लगायें यदि वह गुण आपको कभी-कभी ही वर्णित करता है अथवा आपके संदर्भ में कभी-कभी ही सत्य है। श्रेणी '5' पर निशान लगायें यदि वह गुण आपको प्रायः ही वर्णित करता है अथवा बहुधा आपके संदर्भ में सत्य है। श्रेणी '6' पर निशान लगायें यदि वह गुण सामान्यतया आपको वर्णित करता है अथवा सामान्यतया आपके संदर्भ में सत्य है। श्रेणी '7' पर निशान लगायें यदि वह गुण आपको हमेशा वर्णित करता है अथवा लगभग हमेशा ही आपके संदर्भ में सत्य है।

कृपया सभी पदों के लिए अपने प्रत्युत्तर दें। इस परीक्षण को पूरा करने के लिये कोई समय सीमा नहीं है, फिर भी जितनी जल्दी हो सके पूरा करें। आपके समस्त प्रत्युत्तर पूर्णतः गोपनीय रखे जायेंगे एवं इनका उपयोग केवल शोध हेतु ही किया जावेगा। अतः निःसंकोच होकर अपने प्रत्युत्तर दें।

Instruction

This is a test which is going to be used in the psychological research. This aims at providing knowledge pertaining to behaviour tendencies in a person.

Total 40 personality trait items are given on the following pages along with a scale in front of each item. Please read each trait item carefully and express your response by putting a (✓) mark after analyzing it in reference to yourself. Put the mark in category "1" if you feel that the trait never describes you or almost never true for you. Put the mark in category "2" if the trait usually does not describe you or usually not true for you. Put the mark in category "3" if the trait seldomly describes you or infrequently true for you. Put the mark in category "4" if the trait describes you or is true for you only occasionally. Put the mark in category "5" if the trait oftenly describes you or is often true for you. Put the mark in category "6" if the trait usually describes you or is true usually for you. Put the mark in category "7" if the trait always describes you or is true for you, almost always.

Please respond to all the items. There is no time limit to complete this test, however, try to complete as early as possible. All your responses will be kept quite confidential and will be used for the research only. Hence, please give your response without any hesitation.

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Answer Sheet

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
कभी नहीं अथवा लगभग कभी सत्य नहीं (Never or almost never true)	सामान्यतया सत्य नहीं (Usually not true)	विरले / यदा- कदा ही सत्य (Seldom true)	कभी-कभी ही सत्य (Occasion- ally true)	प्रायः/ बहुदा सत्य (Often true)	सामान्यतया सत्य (Usually true)	हमेशा अथवा लगभग हमेशा सत्य (Always or almost always true)

क्रमांक	व्यक्तित्व शील गुण	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Scores
M 1.	नेतृत्व करने वाला (Leader)								
F 2.	स्नेही / स्नेहशील (affectionate)								
M 3.	दृढ़ व्यक्तित्व (strong personality)								
M 4.	शक्तियुक्त / प्रभावशील (forceful)								
F 5.	प्रेमपूर्ण / हार्दिक व्यवहार (warm)								
M 6.	जोखिम लेने वाला (risk-taking)								
M 7.	प्रबल / प्रभुत्वपूर्ण (dominant)								
F 8.	बालोचित (सरल व निष्कपट) (child-like)								
N 9.	व्यवहारकुशल (tactful)								
M 10.	पुरूषोचित (masculine)								
M 11.	आक्रामक (aggressive)								
M 12.	अपने विश्वासों पर दृढ़ रहने वाला/ वाली (defends own beliefs)								
M 13.	आत्मविश्वासी (self-reliant)								
F 14.	शर्मीला / शर्मीली (shy)								
N 15.	ईर्ष्यालु (jealous)								
N 16.	मित्रवत् (friendly)								
M 17.	स्वतंत्र (independent)								
N 18.	सहायता करने वाला (helpful)								

क्रमांक	व्यक्तित्व शील गुण	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Scores
N 19.	अस्थिरचित (moody)								
F 20.	भोलाभाला जिसे आसानी से छला जा सके (innocent, easily persuaded to be cheated)								
F 21.	सहानुभूतिपूर्ण / हमदर्द (sympathetic)								
N 22.	प्रशंसा प्रेमी (praise loving)								
F 23.	संवेदनशील / सहृदय (tender)								
N 24.	शांत / सौम्य (gentle)								
F 25.	संतापित/चोट खाई भावनाओं को शांत करने हेतु आतुर (eager to soothe hurt feelings)								
F 26.	निष्ठावान / वफादार (loyal)								
N 27.	सत्यवादी (truthful)								
N 28.	बच्चों को प्यार करने वाला / वाली (loves children)								
M 29.	अपना पक्ष रखने हेतु इच्छुक (willing to take own stand)								
N 30.	प्रसन्न (happy)								
M 31.	आसानी से निर्णय लेने वाला / वाली (makes decision easily (decisive)								
M 32.	बलिष्ठ (powerful/ athletic)								
F 33.	मृदुभाषी (soft spoken)								
F 34.	दूसरों की आवश्यकताओं के प्रति संवेदनशील (sensitive to other's needs)								
F 35.	नारीसुलभ (feminine)								
F 36.	समझदार (understanding)								
F 37.	खुशमिजाज / प्रफुल्ल (cheerful)								
M 38.	प्रतिस्पर्धात्मक (competitive)								
M 39.	आत्मनिर्भर (self sufficient)								
F 40.	दबाव की स्थिति में समर्पण करने वाला / वाली (yielding give way to demands or pressure)								

GENDER IDENTIFICATION

	Total	Average	Level	Gender Identity
Masculinity Scores			High/Low	(i) Androgynous
Femininity Scores			High/Low	(ii) Masculine
				(iii) Feminine
				(iv) Undifferentiated



घोपनीय

कार्य संतोष सापनी
(J S S)

डॉ० अमर सिंह
डॉ० टी० आर० शर्मा (पटियाला)

T. M. No. 458715

कृपेकर निम्न सूचनायें हैं :-

नाम..... योग्यतायें : (1) शैक्षिक.....
व्यवसाय..... (2) व्यावसायिक.....
आयु (वर्षों)..... पदनाम (यदि हो तो).....
वर्तमान कार्य में कितने वर्षों से हैं.....
यदि विश्राहित हों तो बच्चों की संख्या..... पुत्र..... पुत्री.....
यदि पत्नी/पति की कार्य कर रहे हों तो उनके व्यवसाय तथा पदनाम दें :
व्यवसाय..... पदनाम.....

निर्देश :-

यहाँ कुछ कथन दिए गए हैं जिनका सम्बन्ध आपसे और आपके व्यवसाय (कार्य) से है। प्रत्येक कथन के पाँच वैकल्पिक उत्तर हैं, उनमें से आपको उस उत्तर का चयन करना है जो आपकी प्रतिक्रिया को स्पष्ट रूप से अभिव्यक्ति करता है। उस उत्तर को आपकी रेखांकित करना है। सामान्य रूप से स्वाभाविक तथा स्वतः मिलने वाला उत्तर आपकी प्रतिक्रिया को सही रूप से व्यक्त करता है। अतः आप किसी वैकल्पिक उत्तर पर अनावश्यक रूप से देरी न लगाकर स्वतः तथा शीघ्र मिलने वाला उत्तर देकर कथनों की पूर्ति करें। कृपया यह देख लें कि आपने संमस्त कथनों का उत्तर दे दिया है। धन्यवाद! विश्वास रखें कि आपके प्रतिक्रिया स्वरूप उत्तर आपके व्यवसाय या व्यक्तिगत पर प्रतिकूल दशा में प्रभावित नहीं करेंगे।

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Translated by : Dr. V. P. Bhargava (Agra)

1. सामान्य रूप से, मैं अपने व्यवसाय के द्वारा, समाज में.....सामाजिक स्तर प्राप्त करता हूँ।	अत्युत्तम	उत्तम	सामान्य	हीन	अतिहीन
2. आर्थिक कार्यों की दृष्टि से (जैसे बचत, भत्ते आदि) मैं अपने व्यवसाय (कार्य) को..... निर्धारित करता हूँ।	अति संतोषजनक	अधिक संतोषजनक	सामान्य संतोषजनक	कम संतोषजनक	असंतोषजनक
3. अपने व्यवसाय के लिए जो प्रशिक्षण, परिचय, अभिविन्यास तथा अनुभव मुझे प्राप्त हुआ है, उससे मेरी योग्यता एवं कार्यक्षमता (व्यक्ति के रूप में)..... वृद्धि की है।	अत्यधिक मात्रा में	अधिक मात्रा में	यथेष्ट मात्रा में	कम मात्रा में	बिल्कुल नहीं
4. व्यक्तिगत कारकों के आधार पर (बुद्धि, क्षमता परिश्रमी आदि) मैं समझता हूँ कि मैं सच्चाई से..... हूँ।	कार्य में अधिक उत्तम अनु रूप	कार्य में उत्तम अनु रूप	कार्य के अनुरूप	कार्य के कम अनुरूप	कार्य के अति-कम अनु रूप
5. पेंशन, बीकरी से अवकाश प्राप्त करने पर मिलने वाले कार्यों आदि से मैं अपने कार्य को..... निर्धारित करता हूँ।	प्रथम श्रेणी का	उत्तम	सामान्य	हीन	अतिहीन
6. मेरे कार्य में शांति-असौद के प्रोग्राम जैसे शांति, छेद-संपादे, धूमने का अवसर तथा अन्य विविध कार्यक्रम.....हैं।	अत्यधिक	यथेष्ट रूप में	काफी मात्रा में	कम	अतिकम
7. प्रस्तुत कार्य में रहने से मेरा सामाजिक क्षेत्र मेरे लिए.....बढ़ गया है।	अत्यधिक मात्रा में	अधिक मात्रा में	सामान्य रूप में	थोड़ी ही मात्रा में	कोई हित में नहीं
8. क्या आप सोचते हैं कि आपके अफसर एवं साथी, सहयोगी, मदद करने वाले एवं प्रेरणा प्रदान करने वाले हैं जिससे अच्छा एवं वास्तविक कार्य हो सके।	अत्यधिक सहमत हूँ	सहमत हूँ	कम सहमत हूँ	थोड़ा असहमत हूँ	पूर्ण असहमत हूँ
9. मेरे कार्य में बिक्रिया, आवासीय, कम कीमत पर भोजन सामग्री, यात्रा आदि की सुविधायें..... मिलती हैं।	अधिकता से	सही रूप में	सामान्य रूप से	कम मात्रा में	बिल्कुल नहीं
10. मेरा कार्य मेरे में वार्षिक जीवनभावन का हंग, आदतें एवं अभिप्रायें.....के करने में समर्थ है।	अत्यधिक मात्रा में	अधिक मात्रा में	सामान्य मात्रा में	कुछ कम मात्रा में	बिल्कुल

11. मेरा कार्य मुझे पारिवारिक आवश्यकताओं (शिक्षण-कार्यों) को निवाहने में.....समय व अवसर प्रदान करता है।	अधिक आसानी से	आसानी से	बिना किसी कठिनाई से	कुछ कठिनाई से	बिल्कुल नहीं
12. अपने कार्य में रहने से मुझे कुछ ऐसी पदवी व स्थान मिल जाते हैं जो.....वदेव प्राप्त होते हैं।	बहुत अधिक	कई	साधारण रूप में	कम	बिल्कुल नहीं
13. जिन स्थानों में मेरी नियुक्ति होती है वे मेरे लिए तथा परिवार के लिए कठिन, परेशानी वाली होती है।	अधिक अवसरों पर	अक्सर	कभी-कभी	बहुत कम	कभी नहीं
14. मेरा कार्य अपने तरीके के आधार पर जीवन की दशा उत्तम करने में प्रयासरत है जैसे कि एक अच्छा व्यक्ति बनाने के लिए प्रयत्नशील है.....क्या आदर इस कथन से सहमत है ?	हाँ-हाँ	हाँ	हाँ-नहीं	नहीं	नहीं-नहीं
15. प्रजातांत्रिक क्रिया-प्रणाली की मापनी पर मैं अपने व्यवसाय को.....आँकता हूँ।	अत्यधिक प्रजातांत्रिक	अधिक प्रजातांत्रिक	कम प्रजा-तांत्रिक	कभी-कभी प्रजातांत्रिक	प्रजातंत्र के विरोध में
16. व्यवसाय में बने रहने की आवश्यकताओं, जैसे योग्यताएँ प्रशिक्षण आदि समान होने पर मैं दूसरे व्यवसायों की तुलना में अपने व्यवसाय को.....निर्धारित करता हूँ।	अति-उच्च	उच्च	सामान	निम्न	अति-निम्न
17. मेरा कार्य इतना-सहयोग प्रदान करने वाला है कि अधिक समय के पारिवारिक के अभाव में भी मैं परिवार तथा अवकाश के दिनों में.....सँभार हूँ।	सदा	कभी-कभी	अब-समय	देखाव में	कभी नहीं
18. मेरे न रहने पर मेरा व्यवसाय (आवश्यकता के समय में, मेरे परिवार के बच्चों को कार्य देने तथा उपहार स्वरूप सुविधायें देने के लिए).....व्यवस्था रखता है।	अत्यधिक मात्रा में	अधिक मात्रा में	काफी मात्रा में	कम मात्रा में	बहुत कम मात्रा में
19. मेरे व्यवसाय स्थान में बैठने की आरामदायक सुविधायें समुचित कार्यक्रम, आदरता, स्वच्छता, स्वस्थ वातावरण आदि की.....व्यवस्था है।	अति सन्तोष-जनक	सन्तोष-जनक	कम सन्तोष-जनक	असन्तोष-जनक	सन्तोष जनक बिल्कुल नहीं
20. मेरा व्यवसाय इतनी हल्की द्यूटी वाला है कि मैं.....अतिरिक्त कार्य से सकता हूँ।	अधिक मात्रा में	यथेष्ट मात्रा में	थोड़ा ही	बहुत कम	बिल्कुल नहीं

21. झण्टापाटी, बलपात आदि जैसी बलवत बातें मेरे व्यवसाय में भी हैं।	अत्यधिक आना में	शेष्ट भाग में	सामान्य रूप में	कम मात्रा में	बिल्कुल नहीं
22. क्या आप समझते हैं कि आपका व्यवसाय देश की आर्थिक उन्नति तथा राष्ट्र के विकास में सहायता करता है ?	पूर्ण सहमत हैं	सहमत हैं	कम सहमत हैं	कम मात्रा में असहमत	बिल्कुल असहमत
23. यदि कौकू दिया गया हो मैं अपने बच्चों को भी, अपने व्यवसाय में लगाना चाहूँगा।	पूर्ण सहमत	सहमत	कम सहमत	शायद ही कभी	कभी नहीं
24. 'कार्य ही पूजा है' यह कथन मेरे ही व्यवसाय के लिए कहा गया था।	पूर्ण रूप से सही	सही	सही नहीं	गलत	सूर्यतापूर्ण कथन
25. मेरे व्यवसाय में पारस्परिक सूचना आदान-प्रदान (निम्न से उच्च की ओर तथा उच्च से निम्न की ओर) हैं।	बहुत सही है	शेष्ट रूप में सही है	कम मात्रा में सही है	सही नहीं है	बहुत गलत है (सही नहीं)
26. मेरे व्यवसाय में तथा दूसरे व्यवसाय में जाने के तथा अपने ही व्यवसाय में बढ़ने के अवसर (जैसे— पदोन्नति, बढ़ती जिम्मेदारी का पद) हैं।	बहुत अधिक	कई	कभी	कुछ	बिल्कुल नहीं
27. यदि अवसर मिले (चाहे बतन वृद्धि के अनुसार ही) तो भी मैं दूसरे ही व्यवसाय में जाना चाहूँगा।	फौरन ही	जल्दी से	धीमे-धीमे	अनिच्छा से	कभी नहीं
28. आप कहां तक सहमत हैं कि आपके व्यवसाय में उच्चता कम से कार्य-साध स्वतंत्रता, निर्णय देने तथा स्वयं प्रेरणा देने का अधिष्ठान नहीं है बल्कि उसमें कीरसता ही उत्पन्न होती है।	अधिक सहमत हैं	सहमत हैं	सामान्य सहमत हैं	कम से कम असहमत हैं	अधिक असहमत हैं
29. मेरे परिवार, सम्बन्धियों एवं मित्रों को मेरा व्यवसाय लगता है।	अधिक पसन्द	पसन्द	सही-सही पसन्द	कुछ नापसन्द	नापसन्द
30. मिला कर, आप अपने व्यवसाय से कितने संतुष्ट हैं।	पूर्ण रूप से संतुष्ट	बहुत संतुष्ट	कम संतुष्ट	बहुत ही कम संतुष्ट	बिल्कुल असंतुष्ट

C. E. P., Agra.

APPENDIX - B

RAW SCORES

Table # 01: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Masculine Male Doctors

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	92	5.33	5.20	78
2.	85	5.27	5.47	80
3.	79	5.60	5.07	86
4.	80	5.53	5.33	76
5.	92	5.53	5.20	78

Table # 02: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Masculine Male Doctors

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	57	5.40	4.93	78
2.	57	5.67	4.53	68
3.	54	5.80	3.07	74
4.	49	5.60	3.00	61
5.	51	5.27	2.27	71

Table # 03: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Feminine Male Doctors

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	93	4.73	5.73	94
2.	87	4.73	5.73	93
3.	92	4.57	5.67	97
4.	79	3.20	5.87	77
5.	79	4.07	6.27	74

Table # 04: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Feminine Male Doctors

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	53	3.07	5.67	67
2.	54	2.40	5.67	75
3.	48	2.73	5.80	72
4.	54	2.53	5.87	67
5.	51	2.07	6.13	71

Table # 05: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Androgynous Male Doctors

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	97	6.80	6.33	97
2.	91	5.53	5.60	91
3.	83	5.07	5.13	83
4.	79	6.33	5.67	75
5.	84	6.00	5.60	84

Table # 06: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Androgynous Male Doctors

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	51	5.73	5.60	63
2.	51	5.73	5.60	67
3.	52	5.40	5.73	72
4.	53	5.33	5.67	61
5.	52	5.13	5.60	79

Table # 07: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Undifferentiated Male Doctors

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	82	4.93	4.53	75
2.	90	4.20	4.00	79
3.	79	3.87	2.80	59
4.	85	2.73	3.93	61
5.	82	3.00	4.47	68

Table # 08: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Undifferentiated Male Doctors

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	56	4.13	3.93	57
2.	69	3.60	4.47	53
3.	66	3.53	4.33	54
4.	53	3.60	3.27	45
5.	70	3.87	3.87	54

Table # 09: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Masculine Female Doctors

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	81	5.40	5.53	77
2.	83	5.13	4.80	74
3.	79	5.40	4.80	78
4.	90	5.47	5.35	74
5.	83	5.13	4.80	74

Table # 10: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Masculine Female Doctors

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	48	5.60	4.40	64
2.	57	5.33	4.93	74
3.	46	5.40	4.80	63
4.	42	6.07	4.87	68
5.	54	5.07	4.27	68

Table # 11: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Feminine Female Doctors

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	98	4.07	6.47	82
2.	88	2.56	6.33	61
3.	84	4.47	6.40	80
4.	96	5.00	6.40	78
5.	90	4.67	5.60	83

Table # 12: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Feminine Female Doctors

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	53	3.93	6.40	57
2.	55	3.20	5.87	68
3.	48	4.60	6.40	68
4.	51	3.73	6.07	64
5.	53	4.10	6.30	62

Table # 13: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Androgynous Female Doctors

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	86	6.27	7.00	95
2.	85	5.87	6.00	81
3.	79	5.07	6.00	85
4.	91	5.73	5.60	78
5.	84	5.87	6.00	78

Table # 14: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Androgynous Female Doctors

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	56	5.27	5.60	72
2.	57	5.06	5.60	75
3.	48	6.00	5.93	60
4.	46	5.87	6.13	62
5.	57	5.06	5.60	75

Table # 15: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Undifferentiated Female Doctors

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	79	4.87	4.87	62
2.	85	4.27	4.60	61
3.	90	4.07	5.47	65
4.	86	4.33	3.93	65
5.	86	4.47	5.13	68

Table # 16: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Undifferentiated Female Doctors

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	57	2.73	2.67	66
2.	56	3.80	3.60	63
3.	53	3.93	3.40	57
4.	51	3.00	3.20	70
5.	54	4.93	4.27	68

Table # 17: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Masculine Male Engineers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	88	6.67	4.93	84
2.	84	6.13	5.40	82
3.	83	5.40	4.40	93
4.	86	6.27	5.33	84
5.	90	5.60	4.40	84

Table # 18: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Masculine Male Engineers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	56	5.13	4.67	82
2.	57	5.07	5.47	78
3.	57	5.13	4.93	68
4.	55	5.08	4.82	70
5.	56	5.06	4.84	62

Table # 19: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Feminine Male Engineers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	86	5.03	6.07	74
2.	79	4.80	6.00	58
3.	79	4.53	5.67	84
4.	85	5.03	5.87	68
5.	79	5.00	5.94	71

Table # 20: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Feminine Male Engineers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	54	4.67	5.83	64
2.	52	3.83	5.60	68
3.	54	3.94	5.70	65
4.	53	3.96	5.62	66
5.	50	3.94	5.80	64

Table # 21: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Androgynous Male Engineers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	92	6.60	6.53	90
2.	82	6.00	6.20	84
3.	88	6.27	5.67	72
4.	90	6.00	5.67	86
5.	90	6.93	6.00	82

Table # 22: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Androgynous Male Engineers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	56	6.33	7.00	70
2.	57	6.40	5.67	85
3.	54	6.50	5.69	72
4.	56	6.41	6.00	74
5.	55	6.32	6.90	69

Table # 23: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Undifferentiated Male Engineers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	82	4.60	5.33	72
2.	88	3.53	4.47	68
3.	82	3.73	3.73	62
4.	80	4.93	4.27	70
5.	85	4.20	5.07	75

Table # 24: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Undifferentiated Male Engineers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	55	4.93	3.27	78
2.	52	3.87	3.93	61
3.	54	3.93	3.40	76
4.	56	3.87	3.60	65
5.	52	3.92	3.84	59

Table # 25: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Masculine Female Engineers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	99	5.73	5.40	80
2.	90	5.77	4.86	87
3.	84	5.90	4.49	80
4.	86	5.84	4.60	82
5.	90	6.00	4.90	78

Table # 26: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Masculine Female Engineers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	48	5.33	3.20	69
2.	57	6.20	4.33	65
3.	49	5.07	4.74	63
4.	50	5.21	4.62	62
5.	53	5.10	4.51	62

Table # 27: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Feminine Female Engineers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	89	5.00	5.80	64
2.	80	3.60	5.67	48
3.	80	3.33	6.27	73
4.	84	3.87	6.13	65
5.	85	3.67	6.27	72

Table # 28: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Feminine Female Engineers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	48	3.74	6.13	55
2.	56	3.47	6.13	78
3.	50	3.51	6.24	66
4.	53	3.62	6.19	65
5.	52	3.67	6.16	64

Table # 29: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Androgynous Female Engineers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	94	5.13	5.80	83
2.	80	5.60	5.67	72
3.	95	5.27	5.83	67
4.	90	5.31	5.90	89
5.	84	5.32	5.86	82

Table # 30: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Androgynous Female Engineers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	42	5.53	5.74	69
2.	57	6.20	6.74	74
3.	51	5.53	5.47	88
4.	52	5.70	5.94	70
5.	55	6.00	5.92	62

Table # 31: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Undifferentiated Female Engineers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	90	4.13	5.07	65
2.	88	4.93	4.80	60
3.	94	4.67	4.60	67
4.	79	4.60	5.13	62
5.	88	5.00	5.20	67

Table # 32: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Undifferentiated Female Engineers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	56	3.87	4.27	65
2.	48	3.33	2.80	60
3.	44	4.33	4.47	67
4.	47	3.60	3.93	62
5.	51	4.07	4.13	67

Table # 33: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Masculine Male College Teachers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	80	6.27	4.80	80
2.	90	6.60	5.13	73
3.	80	6.20	4.47	73
4.	79	5.93	4.33	75
5.	85	5.07	5.46	80

Table # 34: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Masculine Male College Teachers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	55	5.13	5.00	70
2.	52	6.13	3.67	63
3.	56	5.07	4.13	74
4.	42	5.53	5.20	78
5.	49	6.33	3.20	76

Table # 35: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Feminine Male College Teachers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	97	3.60	5.67	76
2.	83	4.80	5.83	67
3.	96	4.60	5.83	76
4.	98	4.60	5.83	58
5.	96	5.00	5.97	70

Table # 36: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Feminine Male College Teachers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	56	4.93	5.73	74
2.	45	3.07	6.40	78
3.	51	4.80	5.73	81
4.	56	3.80	5.93	63
5.	57	3.53	5.93	69

Table # 37: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Androgynous Male College Teachers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	94	5.80	5.93	90
2.	90	6.80	6.33	92
3.	84	6.00	5.60	85
4.	86	6.00	6.07	84
5.	82	5.07	5.03	86

Table # 38: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Androgynous Male College Teachers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	56	5.06	5.80	73
2.	54	6.27	6.00	78
3.	53	5.60	5.67	81
4.	56	5.47	6.47	66
5.	54	6.33	6.13	62

Table # 39: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Undifferentiated Male College Teachers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	80	4.20	4.20	72
2.	79	2.73	3.93	61
3.	87	4.47	4.33	73
4.	90	4.67	5.27	70
5.	81	4.60	5.07	73

Table # 40: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Undifferentiated Male College Teachers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	52	3.40	3.67	68
2.	50	3.27	3.07	65
3.	46	2.87	3.00	69
4.	57	3.00	3.47	66
5.	57	4.00	3.60	50

Table # 41: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Masculine Female College Teachers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	91	5.73	5.40	77
2.	81	5.40	5.53	74
3.	86	5.40	4.80	78
4.	92	5.47	5.35	74
5.	80	5.13	5.13	74

Table # 42: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Masculine Female College Teachers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	57	5.33	4.93	64
2.	55	6.13	2.87	74
3.	56	5.87	4.40	63
4.	52	5.80	3.13	68
5.	56	5.73	3.47	68

Table # 43: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Feminine Female College Teachers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	80	4.07	5.60	82
2.	88	4.07	6.00	61
3.	84	4.27	5.67	80
4.	80	4.67	5.60	78
5.	90	4.93	5.97	83

Table # 44: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Feminine Female College Teachers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	57	4.47	5.53	57
2.	40	4.60	6.40	68
3.	55	4.33	5.73	68
4.	54	3.40	5.63	64
5.	49	4.00	5.74	62

Table # 45: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Androgynous Female College Teachers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	79	5.07	6.00	95
2.	97	5.27	5.80	81
3.	97	5.13	5.80	85
4.	80	5.54	6.27	78
5.	80	6.27	7.00	78

Table # 46: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Androgynous Female College Teachers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	55	5.27	5.87	72
2.	56	5.53	5.67	75
3.	56	5.27	5.60	60
4.	56	5.47	6.00	62
5.	57	5.06	6.00	75

Table # 47: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Undifferentiated Female College Teachers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	87	4.47	5.13	62
2.	80	4.30	3.70	61
3.	87	5.00	4.88	65
4.	85	4.27	4.60	65
5.	79	4.00	4.67	68

Table # 48: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Undifferentiated Female College Teachers

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	56	3.80	3.40	66
2.	55	4.00	3.80	63
3.	55	3.47	3.80	57
4.	56	1.00	1.00	70
5.	56	4.20	4.47	68

Table # 49: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Masculine Male Executives

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	91	5.60	4.93	78
2.	85	5.93	4.73	81
3.	90	5.47	4.00	82
4.	79	6.13	5.47	82
5.	80	5.67	4.33	90

Table # 50: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Masculine Male Executives

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	50	6.53	5.33	81
2.	56	5.27	5.07	76
3.	54	5.07	5.00	65
4.	56	6.13	5.07	70
5.	56	5.13	4.13	64

Table # 51: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Feminine Male Executives

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	86	3.60	6.13	78
2.	82	4.27	6.40	90
3.	83	3.60	6.67	84
4.	83	3.73	5.63	82
5.	84	4.13	5.73	80

Table # 52: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Feminine Male Executives

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	56	4.67	5.73	74
2.	53	4.20	5.93	69
3.	54	3.33	5.60	62
4.	51	4.80	5.63	64
5.	56	3.74	5.74	73

Table # 53: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Androgynous Male Executives

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	79	5.60	5.67	79
2.	88	5.80	5.73	89
3.	86	5.73	6.07	80
4.	88	6.27	5.67	88
5.	79	6.00	6.53	80

Table # 54: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Androgynous Male Executives

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	53	5.60	5.60	81
2.	56	5.27	5.67	72
3.	57	5.07	5.67	78
4.	56	6.13	5.67	76
5.	56	5.07	5.83	70

Table # 55: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Undifferentiated Male Executives

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	88	4.60	5.33	69
2.	80	3.73	4.93	72
3.	92	3.53	3.87	59
4.	82	4.20	3.67	70
5.	84	4.13	4.47	65

Table # 56: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Undifferentiated Male Executives

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	57	1.60	1.53	52
2.	56	3.20	3.80	64
3.	56	2.67	4.00	60
4.	46	2.60	2.73	57
5.	57	4.47	3.47	60

Table # 57: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Masculine Female Executives

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	90	5.73	5.40	80
2.	90	5.77	4.86	87
3.	82	5.93	5.40	86
4.	80	5.13	4.47	70
5.	85	6.00	4.20	68

Table # 58: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Masculine Female Executives

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	40	5.20	4.74	69
2.	54	5.13	5.27	68
3.	45	5.13	4.74	73
4.	51	5.07	2.33	66
5.	45	5.53	4.60	67

Table # 59: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Feminine Female Executives

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	79	5.00	6.40	78
2.	80	5.00	6.00	64
3.	96	4.47	5.60	72
4.	96	4.53	5.67	70
5.	79	4.60	5.63	78

Table # 60: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Feminine Female Executives

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	51	4.67	6.27	66
2.	57	4.40	5.74	66
3.	57	4.47	5.93	74
4.	57	3.27	5.67	68
5.	54	4.60	5.93	64

Table # 61: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Androgynous Female Executives

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	80	5.87	6.13	58
2.	79	6.00	5.73	93
3.	97	5.27	5.80	81
4.	83	5.06	5.83	76
5.	84	5.93	5.80	71

Table # 62: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Androgynous Female Executives

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	55	5.47	5.80	69
2.	53	5.40	6.30	75
3.	53	5.53	5.53	73
4.	51	5.53	5.67	69
5.	46	5.76	5.74	59

Table # 63: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of High Optimistic Undifferentiated Female Executives

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	84	4.67	4.60	74
2.	79	4.93	4.80	75
3.	82	3.20	2,74	69
4.	81	2.53	2.60	67
5.	79	3.74	4.00	66

Table # 64: Optimism, Gender Identity, And Job Satisfaction Scores Of Low Optimistic Undifferentiated Female Executives

S. No.	Optimism Score	Gender Identity Scores		Job Satisfaction Score
		Masculine	Feminine	
1.	57	3.60	4.40	62
2.	55	3.20	4.80	60
3.	57	3.60	3.80	56
4.	52	4.93	4.27	56
5.	50	4.73	4.09	60