Job Satisfaction in Public Sector and Private Sector: A Comparison

Geeta Kumari and K. M. Pandey

Abstract—Public Sector versus Private Sector comparisons are a debate which seems to be a never ending topic. It is very difficult to take stand for either of these two forms of administration. The reason behind that is not unknown but obvious as both provide scopes in different ways. Job satisfaction describes how content an individual is with his or her job. The happier people are within their job, the more satisfied they are said to be. This paper surveys both the sectors in most of the aspects of analysis. As the current findings show, jobholders vary regarding the extent of ambivalence experienced with respect to their attitude toward their job. The current findings also open up opportunities for further research regarding the consequences of job ambivalence. For instance, the present findings imply that job performance of individuals with high versus low job ambivalence may fluctuate such that job performance is comparatively high when positive beliefs and affective experiences are salient and thus predominate at a certain point in time but that their performance may be comparatively low at other times when negative beliefs and affective experiences are salient and predominate. In this respect, research could, for instance, collect manager perceptions of performance consistency. Future research should aim to replicate the present findings with larger and more diverse samples as well as profit from the use of multiple-item scales to measure job performance.

Index Terms—job satisfaction, public sector, private sector, scope

I. INTRODUCTION

Job satisfaction has been defined as a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job; an affective reaction to one’s job; and an attitude towards one’s job. We can argue that job satisfaction is an attitude but researchers should clearly distinguish the objects of cognitive evaluation which are affect (emotion), beliefs and behaviors. This definition suggests that we form attitudes towards our jobs by taking into account our feelings, our beliefs, and our behaviors. Job satisfaction is not the same as motivation, although it is clearly linked. Job design aims to enhance job satisfaction and performance; methods include job rotation, job enlargement and job enrichment. Other influences on satisfaction include the management style and culture, employee involvement, empowerment and autonomous work position. Job satisfaction is a very important attribute which is frequently measured by organizations. The most common way of measurement is the use of rating scales where employees report their reactions to their jobs. Questions relate to rate of pay, work responsibilities, variety of tasks, promotional opportunities, the work itself and co-workers. Some questioners ask yes or no questions while others ask to rate satisfaction on 1-5 scale (where 1 represents "not at all satisfied" and 5 represents "extremely satisfied").

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

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. 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.

Hackman & Oldham proposed the Job characteristics Model, which is widely used as a framework to study how particular job characteristics impact on job outcomes, including job satisfaction. The model states that there are five core job characteristics (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback) which impact three critical psychological states (experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility for outcomes, and knowledge of the actual results), in turn influencing work outcomes (job satisfaction, absenteeism, work motivation, etc.). The five core job characteristics can be combined to form a motivating potential score for a job, which can be used as an index of how likely a job is to affect an employee's attitudes and behaviors. To test the present hypothesis, René Ziegler, Britta Hagen, and Michael Diehl University of Tübingen, Germany conducted a study in which job satisfaction, job ambivalence, and job performance were measured cross-sectionally. Further, we employed a scale to measure job satisfaction that is of a similar broad scope as job performance. More specifically, both in social psychological attitude research and in job attitude research it has been argued that it is important for measures of attitude and behavior to be compatible in terms of their level of generality (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977; Fisher, 1980; Judge et al., 2001; Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006). That is, it has been suggested and shown that the attitude behavior consistency is higher when both attitudes and behavior are measured at the same level of abstraction. Given that overall job performance represents a global behavior assessment, we chose to measure job attitudes with a measure of similarly broad scope. Accordingly, the Overall Job Satisfaction Scale (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951) was employed to measure job satisfaction rather than a scale assessing an individual’s satisfaction with various job facets (e.g. JDI, Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969; MSQ, Weiss et al., 1967). While scales of the latter type focus specifically on cognitive processes, the set of items of the OJS captures...
both affective processes and cognitive processes of an individual’s job attitude (see Footnote 1). With respect to job ambivalence, similarly, we included items tapping both affective and cognitive processes to obtain a broad measure of an individual’s subjective experience of tension regarding his or her job. Geeta Kumari and Dr. K. M. Pandey[26] worked on analysis of an individual’s behavior in work environment for better output. This research explores the cause variables which affect employee involvement. According to the empirical research finding, high-intensity internal marketing generates positive impact upon employee involvement and low-intensity internal marketing results in negative impact upon employee involvement; the effect of sentimental relationship upon employee involvement is prominent and positive; employees with personality traits of internal control reveal higher level of involvement than those with external control. Mainly this paper briefly narrates what has been studied so far on lazy people.

A. Methods

Participants and procedure. Two hundred and ten managers from a large German information technology company (over 5000 employees) were sent a questionnaire via e-mail. Of the seventy-three questionnaires returned via e-mail (35%), sixty-five questionnaires (54 male, 11 female) were complete and thus retained for data analyses. All managers were White. Participants’ age ranged from between 21 and 25 years to between 56 and 60 (modal answer: between 36 to 40 years of age, n = 24). A similar answer format was used to measure tenure. The modal answer was between 6 and 10 years (n = 24; range from 1 to 5 years up to 31 to 35 years).

B. Measures

Job satisfaction measure. Participants responded to the 18 items of the Overall Job Satisfaction Scale (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951.) Responses were taken on 5-point scales (1= donot agree at all to 5 = agree completely) and averaged (Coefficient alpha = .84). Job ambivalence measure. To ascertain job ambivalence, participants then completed a self-report measure consisting of the following eight items (adopted from Riketta & Ziegler, 2006, 2007): “I have positive and negative feelings toward my job at the same time; “When I look at my job, thinking and feeling tell me different things”, “My image about my job is contradictory”, “I am torn in my attitude toward my job”, “I face my job with mixed feelings”, “My view of my job includes positive and negative ideas”, “My feelings toward my job are conflicting with my ideas about my job”, and “My attitude toward my job is mixed”. Responses were given on six-point scales ranging from 1 (completely incorrect) to 6 (completely correct) and averaged (alpha = .91).2

As Job performance measure, the direct supervisor’s performance rating was collected. Participants were informed that we were collecting their supervisor’s performance rating. In order to keep time and effort low, the rating scale that was used was one commonly used by supervisors of the company in appraisal interviews and is and overall job performance assessment on a single four-point scale. Specifically, supervisors rated the participants’ performance as “improvement needed”, “meets all or most objectives”, “exceeds most objectives”, or “significantly exceeds all objectives”. Answers were coded 1 (low job performance) to 4 (high job performance), respectively.

Results

The zero-order correlation between the job satisfaction index and the supervisors’ performance ratings was not significant (r = .08, ns.). Nonetheless, given the lower end of the credibility interval of the meta-analyzed studies’ corrected true score correlations (r = .03; Judge et al., 2001), the present correlation fell within the expected range. Further, job ambivalence correlated markedly negatively with job satisfaction (r = -.58). We will return to this finding in the discussion. To test for the postulated effect of job ambivalence on the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance, a hierarchical moderated multiple regression analysis was conducted. To do so, job satisfaction scores and ambivalence scores were centered. Further, product scores were calculated by multiplying the centered job satisfaction index with centered job ambivalence (cf. Aiken & West, 1991).3 Given that previous research has found that gender, age and tenure may be related to job satisfaction (e.g. Kossek & Ozeki, 1998), these demographic variables were also included in the regression analysis. Specifically, in a first step, job satisfaction, job ambivalence, age, gender, and tenure were entered into the regression. None of these variables was significantly related to job performance. In a second step, the job satisfaction-job ambivalence product was added to the regression model. In line with predictions, the interaction of job ambivalence and job satisfaction proved significant. Hence, simple slopes were conducted to assess the extent to which OJS scores and supervisor performance ratings are related given low job ambivalence (i.e., one standard deviation below the sample mean) or high job ambivalence (i.e., one standard deviation above the sample mean). The simple slope was significant given low ambivalence. Thus, in line with the hypothesis, individuals with higher job satisfaction as measured by the OJS were given higher performance ratings by their supervisor only when they did not experience ambivalence toward their job. The present research provides an initial test of the construct of attitudinal ambivalence in the realm of job satisfaction. Specifically, a hypothesis was tested regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance contingent on job ambivalence, that is, an ambivalent attitude toward the job.

C. The relationship between job satisfaction and job performance

In line with predictions, job ambivalence was found to moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. Whereas higher job satisfaction was related to a higher supervisor rating of the individual’s job performance when the individual experienced little ambivalence regarding the job, job satisfaction and job performance were unrelated for individuals who experienced a high level of ambivalence regarding their job. That is, similar to what has been found in research on the attitude-behavior relationship, an individual’s job attitude is more strongly related to job performance when the individual does not hold an ambivalent attitude toward the job. Thus, the current results suggest that future research on
the job satisfaction-performance relationship may profit from measuring job ambivalence in addition to job satisfaction. More generally, both the present findings and the research by Schleicher et al. (2004) suggest that job attitudes may be related to job behavior more or less strongly contingent on strength-related attitudinal properties (cf. Brief, 1998; Ilies & Judge, 2004; Krosnick & Petty, 1995). For instance, attitude importance (Boninger, Krosnick, Berent, & Fabrigar, 1995) may play a similar role for the job satisfaction-job performance relationship, not the least given its conceptual similarity to work centrality (e.g. Paullay, Alliger, & Stone-Romero, 1994). Attitude importance refers to an individual’s sense of significance that he or she attaches to an attitude; work centrality is defined as the degree of importance that work plays in one’s life.

D. The relationship between job satisfaction and job ambivalence

As the results showed, ambivalence correlated negatively with job satisfaction. Thus, individuals with lower job satisfaction were found to be more ambivalent regarding their job than individuals high in job satisfaction. In this respect, it is worth restating (see above) that it is a very common finding that most people are satisfied with their job (Gallup Poll, 2005; Szilagyi & Wallace, 1983; Weaver, 1980), that is, distributions of job satisfaction scores are usually skewed such that most people score above the midpoint of the job satisfaction scale. As a consequence, people considered to have comparatively low job satisfaction actually have job satisfaction scores around, or even slightly above, the midpoint of a job satisfaction scale. Importantly, this suggests two alternative interpretations concerning the nature of (relatively) low job satisfaction. First, these scores may reflect indifference, or a neutral attitude, toward the job. In this case, low job satisfaction would denote the absence of both positive and negative views of the job. Second, those moderate job attitudes may reflect job ambivalence, or a conflicted attitude toward one’s job. In this case, low job satisfaction would denote the co-existence of positive and negative views regarding one’s job. In this respect, the present findings suggest that job ambivalence is more characteristic of people with relatively low as compared to high job satisfaction.

III. MEASURING JOB SATISFACTION

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

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) is a specific questionnaire of job satisfaction that has been widely used. It measures one’s satisfaction in five facets: pay, promotions and promotion opportunities, coworkers, supervision, and the work itself. The scale is simple; participants answer either yes, no, or can’t decide in response to whether given statements accurately describe one’s job. The Job in General Index is an overall measurement of job satisfaction. It is an improvement to the Job Descriptive Index because the JDI focuses too much on individual facets and not enough on work satisfaction in general.

A. Superior-Subordinate Communication

Superior-subordinate communication is an important influence on job satisfaction in the workplace. The way in which subordinate’s perceive a supervisor’s behavior can positively or negatively influence job satisfaction. Communication behavior such as facial expression, eye contact, vocal expression, and body movement is crucial to the superior-subordinate relationship. Nonverbal messages play a central role in interpersonal interactions with respect to impression formation, deception, attraction, social influence, and emotional expression. Nonverbal immediacy from the supervisor helps to increase interpersonal involvement with their subordinates impacting job satisfaction.

The manner in which supervisors communicate their subordinates may be more important than the verbal content. Individuals who dislike and think negatively about their supervisor are less willing to communicate or have motivation to work where as individuals who like and think positively of their supervisor are more likely to communicate and are satisfied with their job and work environment. The relationship of a subordinate with their supervisor is a very important aspect in the workplace. Therefore, a supervisor who uses nonverbal immediacy, friendliness, and open communication lines is more willing to receive positive feedback and high job satisfaction from a subordinate where as a supervisor who is antisocial, unfriendly, and unwilling to communicate will naturally receive negative feedback and very low job satisfaction from their subordinate’s in the workplace. Mood and emotions while working are the raw materials which cumulate to form the affective element of job satisfaction. Moods tend to be longer lasting but often weaker states of uncertain origin, while emotions are often more intense, short-lived and have a clear object or cause. There is some evidence in the literature that state moods are related to overall job satisfaction. Positive and negative emotions were also found to be significantly related to overall job satisfaction. Emotion regulation and emotion labor are also related to job satisfaction.

B. Communication Overload and Communication under load

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

The understanding of how emotion regulation relates to job satisfaction concerns two models:

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

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

The figure given below describes the job satisfaction model.

Job Satisfaction can be an important indicator of how employees feel about their jobs and a predictor of work behaviors such as organizational citizenship, absenteeism, and turnover. Further, job satisfaction can partially mediate the relationship of personality variables and deviant work behaviors. One common research finding is that job satisfaction is correlated with life satisfaction. This correlation is reciprocal, meaning people who are satisfied with their job tend to be satisfied with their job and people who are satisfied with their job tend to be satisfied with life. An important finding for organizations to note is that job satisfaction is correlated with life satisfaction. Performance of emotional labor that produces desired outcomes could increase job satisfaction.

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The UK national contribution, following Rose’s approach, addresses some possible factors contributing to job satisfaction. Rose (2003) analyzed a number of possible influences on job satisfaction including individual well-being, working hours, work orientation, financial variables, the employment contract, and market and job mobility. His findings fail to provide strong support for explanations of job satisfaction primarily in terms of socio-technical rewards of the job, although low influence in the workplace did emerge as a significant factor. All but one of the indirect measures developed to represent qualitative features of the workplace remained statistically insignificant, the measure of workplace influence being the exception. Much more important were factors related to the contractual features of the job. Having the ‘right package’- contractually assured promotion opportunities, annual pay increments, bonuses and, above all, a job that was regarded as permanent - significantly boosted the job satisfaction score, with a marginal increment for not having to work unpaid overtime. There was also little support for the view that job satisfaction rises in a closely linear association with earnings; rather, jobs enabling financial expectations - at whatever level these were set - to be met, were more important. Having a recognized career path was also a highly significant factor relating to job satisfaction. High levels of work stress and a desire to work fewer hours - an aspiration held by a third of the sample of respondents - together accounted for well over a half of a standard deviation in job satisfaction scores. The key point that Rose makes (echoed in his more recent publication, (Rose 2005)) is that his conclusions are not intended to demonstrate that intrinsic rewards do not matter in analysing job satisfaction. However, they may matter significantly less than is sometimes assumed once a greater range of influences is introduced. What is needed is an expansion of the range of causality. Differences in job satisfaction between groups and individuals are extremely complex and require more research, especially in relation to the measures used to
gauge job satisfaction. In the UK, the need to control for workplace influences and to gather more reliable survey data on quality of working life issues are seen as two critical areas to address.

A. Job satisfaction as an indicator of job quality

Although job satisfaction emerged as an indicator of job quality, proposed by the European Council in 2001, as was outlined at the start of this report, a Spanish research paper (Llorente and Macías, 2003) concluded that there is little or no correlation between job satisfaction and job quality. Two approaches were followed in this paper in order to assess the adequacy of using job satisfaction as an indicator of the quality of work. First, using the ISSP of 1997, the authors explored whether differences between countries in terms of job satisfaction can be explained by job quality-related variables, such as working time, wages, etc. Secondly, using the Spanish SQLW 2000 as a case study, the authors studied the relationship between certain objective measures of job quality and job satisfaction. In both cases, ‘job satisfaction has no apparent relevant relation to other objective indicators of job quality, which makes this indicator of little adequacy for evaluating job quality’ (Llorente and Macías, 2003). Paradoxically, in a context of pronounced objective differences in quality among jobs, the authors found a coexistence of high levels of job satisfaction, with only a small range of variation between the maximum and minimum levels of job satisfaction. In order to explain this paradox, two possible response mechanisms to situations of job dissatisfaction were put forward. The first would be the process through which workers who are dissatisfied with their job tend to leave it and look for a better job. This process would culminate in those workers finding a more suitable job, and thus raising their level of job satisfaction. The second mechanism refers to those cases, suggested earlier, in which workers cannot find a more suitable job and must change and adapt their work expectations to the type of job available. This process of adaptation could lead to an increase in their declared level of job satisfaction.

B. Public Sector vs Private Sector

Public Sector vs Private Sector is a debate which seems to be a never ending topic. It is very difficult to take stand for either of these forms of administration. The reason behind that is not unknown but obvious as both provide scopes in different ways. From an employee's standpoint, job satisfaction is a desirable outcome in itself. From a managerial or organizational effectiveness standpoint, job satisfaction is important due to its impact on absenteeism, turnover, and prosaically "citizenship" behaviors such as helping coworkers, helping customers, and being more cooperative. According to Edwin Locke, job satisfaction results from the perception that one's job fulfills or allows the fulfillment of one's important job values. Thus, to redesign jobs, reward systems, and human resource management policies that will result in optimum job satisfaction and productivity, managers need to know what employees value.

The first allegation that can be put up for this debatable issue is that Public Sector is more divided than organized. What this means is that a public sector administration runs on the shoulders of many sub divisions. For example –

human resource has a ministry and has many governmental organizations working under it to collect the data from. This may seem to be organized but ultimately it becomes divided and creates a problem in the long run. A Private Sector is also divided into departments which work closely. They need to have a coherent working structure or else business will falter. The organization and separation of departmental power is very strict. This does not create any kind of rift between the different departments as they work together. They operate on different functions and so cannot override each other's functions. Again, Private Sector employees have to be visible and accountable for each and every action they take. In other words they have to be visible in order to promote their business but can work in their own comfort. However, Public Sector employees have to work showing complete transparency to their jobs. They have to work under the public eye. So it can be said that they work with the governmental radar on and under public scanner. It is said that the Public Sector is not clear with its endeavors. The objectives of the public sector are more confusing and indefinite in comparison to the Private Sector. The Private Sector supposedly provides more clarity to their apparent subjectivity. This makes the sector more evident. Well this lucidity could go against the Private Sector as this sector is accused of only profit oriented work. This sector will never take anything until and unless it sees profit in it. This “what's in it for me” mentality is very dangerous as it eventually does not do any good for the community. The dream of this sector is to make more money at the cost of anything and everything. Hence the need of a public sector arises which can look into and offer its services to the well being of a nation. Apart from all this, there is another positive point for the Government Sector in this contest of Public Sector vs Private Sector, that it has elected representatives. These representatives are chosen by the public who are more trusted than any corporate honcho like Bill Gates, Steve Jobs or a Rupert Murdoch. It is needless to say that the Private Sector has no such intentions of using popular voting or veto power to ensure its working. It is private and that is how it has to be treated. No trespassing is surely allowed on the private properties. State and local governments have expanded their payrolls and added 110,000 jobs whereas the private sector has cut 6.9 million jobs since the start of the recession. This report was based on an analysis of federal jobs data, found out that state and local governments steadily added jobs for eight months after the recession started in December 2007, with their employment peaking last August. They have since lost 55,000 jobs, but from the commencement of the recession till last month they added a net of 110,000 jobs. Public sector jobs are always more stable as compared to the private sector jobs during downturns, but their ability to acclimate the current deep recession startled many research analyst.

C. A few examples of job satisfaction

This particular study is based on a unique data set for the years 1988–2003 and uses structural equation models to examine the impact of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction on physicians’ intention to switch from public to private sector work. In Finland, physicians who
work primarily in a public-hospital or health-centre setting can also run a private practice. Therefore, we also analyzed the impact of having a private practice on a physician's intention to change sector. We found that private practice had a positive, statistically significant effect on the intention to switch sector in 1998 and 2003. Results also suggest that job satisfaction decreases a physician's intention to switch sector, although for 1998 it had no effect. Surprisingly, job dissatisfaction significantly increased the physicians' intentions to leave the public sector only in the 1988 data.

- The main purpose of this example is to compare the differences in job satisfaction among public and private kindergarten school teachers in Cyprus. These comparisons take place from the perspectives of the teachers themselves and how they evaluate the working conditions in their own schools. More specifically, a series of three logistic regressions and a MANOVA were performed to predict whether the teachers are employed in private or public schools based on:
  1) The motivational factors that influenced them to enter the teaching profession,
  2) Their satisfaction with their working conditions,
  3) The status and recognition that they receive, and
  4) Their satisfaction with the work of educational boards and associations.

The results are interpreted in the context of how a country's cultural, social, and economic structures contribute to the development of particular forms of private/public schooling and the ways in which these structures seem to influence teacher job satisfaction.

- In the aftermath of the Norwegian hospital reform of 2002, the private supply of specialized healthcare has increased substantially. This analyses the likelihood of medical specialists working in the private sector. Sector choice is operationalized in two ways: first, as the likelihood of medical specialists working in the private sector at all, and second, as the likelihood of working full-time (90–100%) privately. The theoretical framework is embedded in work values theory and the results suggest that work values are important predictors of sector choice. All analyses are based on a postal questionnaire survey of medical specialists working in private contract practices and for-profit hospitals and a control group of specialists selected from the Norwegian Medical Association's member register.

V. CONCLUSIONS

In fact to take liberty at the discussion of Public Sector versus Private Sector, it can be said that both are equally important for any nation. It should be Public Sector and Private Sector which should be the area of discussion. A harmony between the two is required for any nation to prosper and grow. It may be interesting to investigate whether the extent of experienced ambivalence is similar, higher, or lower for employees in different industries, occupying different jobs, holding different positions, with different ethnic or cultural backgrounds, etc. Moreover, future research should aim at understanding the causes of job ambivalence for further studies. It might be informative to also test the present hypothesis with more diverse samples and samples from other types of work, industries, racial, ethnic or cultural backgrounds etc. In any case, it is worth noting that the present homogeneous sample has allowed for a rather conservative test of the present hypothesis. Specifically, restrictions of range with respect to predictor and criterion variables are known to limit the extent to which the two variables may correlate. Note also that the rather small sample size limits the statistical power for the current interaction hypothesis. It is concluded that to do the quantitative analysis about job satisfaction, some analysis on specific case studies must be completed to reach at good conclusion.

A. Scope for Future Work

Further research can be done in this field taking variety of examples and taking to people from different line of work to see the relative advantages and disadvantages of working in public sector and private sector. The present results are based on a sample of relatively small size that consists of white and predominantly male managers of a single IT company. As is true in regard to any study, it remains a task for future research to replicate (and extend) these findings. In this regard, further, as has been demonstrated by McClelland and Judd (1993), it is difficult for field research (as compared to experimental research) to find evidence for interaction effects for statistical reasons. Looked at from this perspective, it may be seen as encouraging that the findings provide support for our hypothesis despite of these restrictions. In this respect, also note that the size of the interaction effect in the present research (Cohen’s $f^2$) lies between what is considered to be a small effect size ($f^2 = .02$) and what is considered to be a medium ($f^2 = .15$) effect size (cf. Cohen, 1988). It should also be pointed out that job performance was measured with a single item, disallowing to compute scale reliability. We believe this measure to tap a central aspect of this construct inasmuch as the rating scale is one used on a regular basis in appraisal interviews in participants’ company. Further, single-item measures have been employed successfully in previous research (e.g. Miller, Katerberg, & Hulin, 1979). Also, although dealing with single item measures of overall job satisfaction (e.g. the Faces Scale by Kunin, 1955) rather than overall job performance, a meta-analysis by Wanous, Reichers and Hudy (1997) found single item measures to be acceptable. These authors suggested that their findings should be interpreted “as a case for the acceptability of single-item measures when either the research question implies their use or when situational constraints limit or prevent the use of scales” (p. 250). Following up on their work, Nagy (2002) showed single-item measures of the JDI facets to predict significant incremental variance (beyond the full JDI multiple-item measures of facet satisfaction) in a single-item job performance measure. Nonetheless, future research should aim to replicate the present findings with larger and more diverse samples as well as profit from the use of multiple-item scales to measure job performance. As the current findings show, jobholders vary regarding the extent of ambivalence experienced with respect to their attitude toward their job. Furthermore, supporting Brief’s (1998) conjecture as to the frequency of ambivalent job attitudes (see above), in the present study 17 % of the participants indicated to experience ambivalence at a level.
at least as high as the scale midpoint. Accordingly.

In this respect, facet measures of job satisfaction (e.g. Smith et al., 1969; Weiss et al., 1967) may be of interest even though, as outlined above, summary scores calculated from an individual’s evaluation of the different job facets do not allow distinguishing between an indifferent job attitude and an ambivalent job attitude. Specifically, ambivalence should be higher to the extent that there are both many positively evaluated job facets and many negatively evaluated job facets. Further, however, affective experiences should contribute to job-related ambivalence. That is, ambivalence should be higher to the extent that a person experiences both many positive and many negative emotions at work (cf. Fisher, 2000). The current findings also open up opportunities for further research regarding the consequences of job ambivalence. For instance, the present findings imply that job performance of individuals with high (versus low) job ambivalence may fluctuate such that job performance is comparatively high when positive beliefs and affective experiences are salient and thus predominate at a certain point in time but that their performance may be comparatively low at other times when negative beliefs and affective experiences are salient and predominate. In this respect, research could, for instance, collect manager perceptions of performance consistency. Moreover, future research may extend the present focus on job performance by exploring the role of job ambivalence for the relationship of job satisfaction with other work-related behaviors such as latency and organizational citizenship behavior (Organ, 1988). Further, based on attitudinal ambivalence research (cf. Conner & Sparks, 2002; Jonas et al., 2000a; Krosnick & Petty, 1995), it may be of interest to explore the extent to which job ambivalence plays a role in the stability of job satisfaction (Dormion & Zapf, 2001) as well as for individuals’ reactions to positive or negative job-related information (cf. Riketta & Ziegler, 2007). With respect to reactivity, for example, more recent work using experience-sampling methodology (e.g. Ilies & Judge, 2004) has begun to examine the extent to which affect at work fluctuates across time.ivalence regarding their job rather than by holding a neutral attitude toward their job.

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