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The Effects of Mood and Dispositional Affectivity on Self-reported Job Satisfaction

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THE EFFECTS OF MOOD AND DISPOSITIONAL AFFECTIVITY ON SELF-REPORTED JOB SATISFACTION

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I HEREBY RECOMMEND THAT THE THESIS PREPARED UNDER MY SUPERVISION BY Cristina Kirkendall ENTITLED The Effects of Mood and Dispositional Affectivity on Self-reported Job Satisfaction BE ACCEPTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF Master of Science.

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ABSTRACT

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Job satisfaction has several antecedents, including situational factors (e.g., pay, job characteristics), personality factors (e.g., positive and negative affectivity), and social interactions at work. Job satisfaction is most often measured with self-report surveys which may not effectively capture unconscious attitudes or context effects such as mood. Mood at time of survey completion has been shown to have an effect on self-reported satisfaction measures. This study uses animal-related video clips as a mood induction and examines the effect of induced mood and personality factors on self-report measures of job satisfaction.

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Introduction

Job satisfaction, which is defined as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from an appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (Locke, 1976, p. 1300), is currently one of the most widely studied topics in the field of industrial-organizational psychology (Spector, 1997). The extensive attention given to job satisfaction should not be surprising, given that it is related to several important organizational variables, such as absenteeism (Farrell & Stamm, 1988; Hackett & Guion, 1985), turnover (Hom & Griffeth, 1991), job performance (Judge & Larsen, 2001), contextual performance (Organ & Ryan, 1995), and organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

There are also other reasons for the interest in job satisfaction. Proponents of the humanitarian viewpoint believe that it is every person's right to be treated with respect by his or her employer. Spector (1997) states that job satisfaction may be a reflection of how an employer treats its workers. Humanitarians believe that if an employer is getting consistently low job satisfaction ratings, then it may be a reflection of poor treatment of workers. Spector (1997) also states that job satisfaction may be used as a diagnostic tool for the organization. Problems within the organization may first come to light through employees' satisfaction reports.

All of these reasons for studying job satisfaction make it a topic of wide interest in industrial-organizational psychology. Because the topic is so widely studied, it is important that researchers and organizations understand the data collection methods being used. It is also important to understand any other variables, such as personality or mood, that may be contributing to the job satisfaction scores being reported. In this paper

I will discuss the use of self-reports to capture job satisfaction. I will also address other issues that may contribute to job satisfaction, specifically personality factors and mood.

Self-Reports of Satisfaction

Questionnaires are by far the most common way organizations measure job satisfaction (Spector, 1997). These methods are the quickest and most cost-effective way to measure job satisfaction (Spector, 1997). Sometimes these measure are completed by supervisors or others (e.g., Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998) but usually they are self-reports, meaning measures that are filled out by the employee (Brief, 1997). This method of assessing job satisfaction may be neglecting unconscious attitudes individuals have towards their job. For example, an individual may not agree with the ideals of their company but would suppress these feelings because they like their job. These negative feelings may surface in the self-report job satisfaction measure even though the employee is unaware of them. Using self-reports may also leave the job satisfaction score vulnerable to biasing effects, such as context effects and mood at the time of survey completion (Lavine, Huff, Wagner, & Sweeny, 1998).

Biasing effects may also occur because researchers do not yet fully understand how individuals process the information needed to complete self-report surveys. There are two competing models on how individuals draw the material they need to fill out job satisfaction self reports: retrieved from memory, which treats attitudes as stable constructs, or "on the spot" explanations, which treats attitudes as temporary constructs (Bowling, Boss, Hammond, & Dorsey, 2009; Schwarz & Strack, 1999).

In the attitudes as stable constructs model, individuals store the information about their jobs in memory and when asked about job satisfaction they retrieve this information and apply it to the job satisfaction scale provided (Lavine et al., 1998). This theory presents job satisfaction as a stable trait because there is a "true" job satisfaction score stored that merely needs retrieval. In support of this stable view of job satisfaction, studies have been conducted to investigate a stable component of job satisfaction. Several studies have found that job satisfaction ratings remain stable over extended periods of time (Staw & Ross, 1985; Newton & Keenan, 1991).

The second theory of how individuals draw the material they use to fill out job satisfaction surveys is an "on-line" (Lavine et al., 1998) or an "on the spot" view (Bowling et al., 2009; Schwarz & Strack, 1999). In this view, individuals use information available to them at the time of survey completion to construct attitudes "on the spot." The "on the spot" theory states that there is no "true" attitude that can be retrieved (Lavine et al., 1998). This study is based on the theory that moods are constructed at the time of survey completion; therefore, it is important to know why mood has such an impact on attitudes. There have been several theories proposed to explain the relationship between satisfaction ratings and mood or emotional state at the time or survery completion.

Mood congruency theory suggests that an emotional state at the recall stage will elicit a congruent response. In this theory, a person will interpret ambiguous past events either positively or negatively depending on his or her current mood. Therefore, positive mood at time of recall will cause more positive interpretation of past events whereas negative mood will cause a negative interpretation (Rusting & DeHart, 2000).

Similar to mood congruency theory is the affect priming model. In his affect priming model, Bower (1981) theorizes that affective state at time of recall will facilitate the retrieval of memories that are consistent with that mood. In the affect priming model, an individual in a positive (negative) mood will be better able to recall positive (negative) memories. The memories that are consistent with the individual's present mood will be more salient to him or her. In the affect priming model, unlike the mood congruency theory, individuals are recalling memories that are consistent with their mood, they are not interpreting ambiguous events based on their current mood state.

Another theory in the relationship of mood on judgments is the affect as information model proposed by Schwarz (1990) in which present mood is used to judge feelings toward a stimulus. According to Schwarz, an individual will use his or her current mood state as a heuristic for judging his or her level of satisfaction. Because participants feel positive (or negative) at the moment, they reason that they must feel positive (or negative) in general and use this information to answer satisfaction questions. The use of this heuristic reduces the cognitive processing needed to make these judgments. All of these models support the theory that mood while filling out the job satisfaction questionnaire will affect the reported level of job satisfaction.

Schwarz and Clore (1983) conducted two studies testing the relationship between mood at time of recall and satisfaction ratings. They found that individuals asked to write positive things about their lives reported higher life satisfaction than individuals asked to write negative things about their lives. In the second study, individuals interviewed on sunny days reported higher life satisfaction than those interviewed on rainy days. However, when participants had an alternative explanation for their bad mood, such as

attributing the mood to the environment, the participants' mood was not correlated with self-reported satisfaction.

Researchers have also found that mood at work is also consistently correlated with job satisfaction (Fisher, 2000; Ilies & Judge, 2002; Judge & Ilies, 2004). Both of these studies found that current mood is related to self-reported job satisfaction. Brief, Butcher, and Roberson (1995) found a link between manipulated mood and self-reported job satisfaction. This study will be discussed in greater detail in a later section. Based on these previous studies on mood and satisfaction, I expect to find a relationship between mood and job satisfaction.

> *Hypothesis 1*: The mood induction will have a direct effect on job satisfaction. Specifically, those placed in a positive mood will report relatively higher job satisfaction than those placed in a neutral mood. Those placed in a negative mood will report relatively lower levels of job satisfaction than those in the neutral mood.

Personality and Job Satisfaction

Beyond the effects of mood on satisfaction, researchers have undertaken studies to investigate the dispositional source of job satisfaction. In a meta-analysis, Judge, Heller, and Mount (2002) found that four out of the five Big Five personality traits were significantly correlated with job satisfaction. Specifically, Neuroticism (r = -.24, k = 92, N = 24, 527), Conscientiousness (r = .20, k = 79, N = 21,719), Agreeableness (r = .13, k = 38, N = 11,856), and Extraversion (r = .19, k = 75, N = 20,184) each correlated

significantly with job satisfaction whereas Openness to Experience did not (r = .01, k = 50, N = 15,196).

Positive affectivity (PA) and negative affectivity (NA) have also been consistently linked to job satisfaction (Levin & Stokes, 1989; Agho, Mueller, & Price, 1993; Watson & Slack, 1993; Necowitz & Roznowski, 1994). Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988) characterize PA as the "extent to which a person feels enthusiastic, active, and alert" and NA is a "general dimension of subjective distress and unpleasurable engagement." Connolly and Viswesvaran (2000) performed a meta-analysis to study the relationship between affectivity and job satisfaction. The relationship was highest between PA and satisfaction with a correlation of .49. The lowest value was found for NA and satisfaction with a correlation of -.33. Positive affectivity has been linked to the Big Five trait of Extraversion, whereas NA has been linked to the Big Five trait of Neuroticism (Ilies & Judge, 2002; Watson & Clark, 1984).

Watson and Slack (1993) state that the relationship between affective disposition and job satisfaction may be due to differences in temperament. In other words, the way high-NA and high-PA people are differently sensitive to the dimensions that make up job satisfaction. Costa and McCrae (1980) characterize those high in Neuroticism as being more affected by negative events but not necessarily less receptive to positive events. Given the consistent finding of correlations between NA, PA, and job satisfaction, I also expect to find these relationships.

Hypothesis 2: Positive affectivity will be positively correlated with job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3: Negative affectivity will be negatively correlated with job satisfaction.

Sensitivity to Stimuli

Judge and Ilies (2004) found both state NA and PA to be significantly related to job satisfaction. Trait NA and PA also moderated the relationship between mood and job satisfaction. Fisher (2000) also pointed out that mood at work and job satisfaction are not the same thing even though they are correlated, stating that the two variables are not equivalent because typical job satisfaction measures involve much more of the cognitive aspect, reducing the correlation between affect measures and job satisfaction measures

One of the few studies investigating manipulated mood and self-reported job satisfaction was undertaken by Brief, Butcher, and Roberson (1995). The researchers used a positive mood inducing event (cookies, soda, and a wind-up toy) to examine the relationship between mood, NA, and job satisfaction using a sample of fifty-seven hospital employees randomly assigned to either the positive mood condition or a control condition. Brief et al. (1995) used the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale (Taylor, 1953) to assess NA and the Faces scale (Kunin, 1955) to assess job satisfaction. Results of the study showed a significant difference in the job satisfaction levels in individuals low in NA between conditions but not for individuals high in NA. The belief of NA being independent from positive emotion is challenged by the fact that high NA individuals were not as affected by the mood induction (Brief et al., 1995). The Brief et al. study showed that seemingly irrelevant events had an impact on self-reported job satisfaction; however, it did not have a negative mood induction condition nor did it measure positive

affectivity, which has been shown to have a stronger link to job satisfaction. The present study attempts to replicate the findings of Brief et al. (1995) and extends these findings by adding a negative mood condition and by measuring positive affectivity.

It is generally accepted that high PA or extraverted and high NA or neurotic individuals have different sensitivity to environmental stimuli. Several theories attempt to explain why these different sensitivities occur. These theories are divided into two general categories which McCrae and Costa (1991) categorize as the temperamental view and instrumental view. According to the temperamental view, people high on extraversion or neuroticism are differently sensitive to emotional stimuli. According to the instrumental view, on the other hand, the traits of the individual are said to create the environment and life circumstances around him or her. For example, a person high in NA may have a negative attitude around co-workers. The negative attitude may cause co-workers to avoid the high-NA individual, which in turn lowers job satisfaction. In the instrumental view personality is not actually influencing perception of stimuli but personality has an indirect effect through the environment.

Much of the research supports a temperamental view of sensitivity to environmental stimuli. Gray (1981) proposed Reinforcement Sensitivity Theory which suggests that extroverts are especially sensitive to cues of reward or pleasure in the environment which he called the Behavioral Approach System. Conversely, neurotics are more sensitive to cues of punishment or frustration which Gray termed Behavioral Inhibition System (Judge & Larsen, 2001). Torrubia, Avila, Molto, and Caseras (2001) developed the Sensitivity to Punishment and Sensitivity to Reward Questionnaire to test Gray's Reinforcement Sensitivity Theory. Torrubia et al. (2001) found that their measure

of Sensitivity to Punishment was strongly correlated with Neuroticism whereas their measure of Sensitivity to Reward was more stongly correlated with Extraversion although it did have significant correlations with all of the Big 5 dimensions.

Larsen and Ketelaar (1989, 1991) have found in multiple studies that individuals high in extraversion are more receptive to positive mood inductions but do not differ from stable individuals in their response to negative mood inductions. Individuals high in neuroticism were found to be more receptive to negative mood inductions but do not differ from stable individuals in response to positive mood inductions (Larsen & Ketelaar, 1989, 1991). This research also supports the temperamental view.

The temperamental view is most consistent with the hypotheses of this study. The temperamental view states that participants high on NA or neuroticism will be more sensitive to negative cues and those high on PA or extraversion will be more sensitive to positive cues. According to the threshold theory of Brief et al. (1995), people higher in PA may have a higher threshold for negative mood and will therefore be less sensitive to the negative mood induction.

> *Hypothesis 4*: Participants higher in NA will be more sensitive to the negative mood induction when compared with participants lower in NA. Specifically, the difference in job satisfaction scores between the negative mood condition and the control condition will be greater for higher-NA participants than for lower-NA participants.

> *Hypothesis 5*: Participants lower in PA will be more sensitive to the negative mood induction when compared with participants higher in PA. Specifically, the

difference in job satisfaction scores between the negative mood condition and the control condition will be greater for lower-PA participants than for higher-PA participants.

Although Costa and McCrae (1980) stated that being high in neuroticism should not diminish the affect of positive events, Brief et al. (1995) found that individuals high in NA were less affected by the positive mood-inducing event. Brief et al. (1995) give several reasons why this effect may have occurred.

The first explanation is that individuals high in NA have a higher threshold for positive events and are therefore less sensitive to these events. In this theory, low-NA individuals will react to even small positive stimuli but high-NA individuals need a more powerful positive stimulus to break their threshold and elicit a reaction. It may also be that high-NA individuals do react to positive stimuli but their reaction is at a much lower magnitude than low-NA individuals. In this theory, all individual's thresholds for positive stimuli are exceeded but the positive reaction is so minute that it is either barely perceptible or imperceptible in the measures used.

Another explanation for the diminished effect of positive stimuli on high-NA individuals is that the positive mood induction wears off more quickly on high-NA individuals. This means that for high-NAs the positive stimulus does elicit a positive response; however, the effect may only last a few moments and wear off before the effect can be measured.

A final explanation for the relationship between positive mood and negative affectivity is that individuals that are high in NA use less heuristics than those low in NA.

This explanation states that individuals high and low in NA respond the same to positive mood inductions but high-NA individuals high in NA do not use their current mood as a basis for their judgment. If this explanation is true and high-NA individuals are not using heuristics, the negative mood induction should also not affect high-NA individual's satisfaction ratings. As stated in Hypothesis 4, I do not believe that this final explanation is correct. I believe that in accordance with Gray's Reinforcement Sensitivity Theory, high-NA individuals will show differences in satisfaction ratings when negative mood is induced. No studies have investigated the relationship between PA and positive stimuli; however, according to Gray's Reinforcement Sensitivity Theory, participants higher in PA will be more sensitive to positive stimuli.

> *Hypothesis 6*: Compared with higher-NA participants, lower-NA participants will be more sensitive to the positive mood induction. Specifically, the difference in job satisfaction scores between the positive mood condition and the control condition will be greater for lower-NA participants than for higher-NA participants.

> *Hypothesis 7*: Participants higher in PA will be more sensitive to the positive mood induction when compared with participants lower in PA. Specifically, the difference in job satisfaction scores between the positive mood condition and the control condition will be greater for higher-PA participants than for lower-PA participants.

Method

Sample

Participants in this study included 301 undergraduate students drawn from a psychology department subject pool. All participants were employed in their current job for at least three months. Research credit points were awarded to each student for their participation. The mean age for the sample was 20 years old. The sample was 65% female and 63% Caucasian. The average participant had 17 months of job tenure and worked 22 hours per week. Each participant was only involved in one session or condition.

Experimental manipulation

I used three different types of short video clips for the mood manipulation. In the positive condition I had participants watch a funny movie clip showing animals in various funny situations (e.g., a dog falling in a pool). In the negative condition I had participants watch a sad video clip which consists of still photos of animals that have been victims of abuse. Participants in the neutral or control condition watched some a clip that shows a man discussing how to train a dog to play tug-o-war. The film clips range from three minutes and eight seconds to three minutes and nineteen seconds.

To pilot test the videos, I used a sample of 55 undergraduate students divided into three conditions. In the positive condition students watched two positive videos. In the negative condition participants watch two negative videos and in the neutral condition participants watched two neutral videos. After each video, participants completed a short mood measure (Sinclair, Mark, Enzle, Borkovec, & Cumbleton, 1994) and after watching

both videos participants were asked which one made them feel more emotional. Analysis of this data showed that there was a significant difference between groups after the first video. Due to this fact, I decided to use only the first video shown in each condition in the full study.

Procedure

Participants for each time slot (between 20-60 participants) gathered in one experiment room and were then randomly assigned to one of three groups. Each smaller group contained approximately 5-20 participants. This was done to make sure that all participants who signed up for a specific time slot are not all in the same experimental condition and minimize differences between the experimental groups. One of the groups stayed in the original room and the other two groups went to separate experiment rooms.

In each condition, the experimenter administered personality scales before showing the video. Next, the experimenter in each room played the video appropriate for the experimental condition they were conducting. Finally, the experimenter asked the participants to complete the survey, which contained a few filler questions about animals. The filler questions were to convince participants that the animal survey is complete and therefore to not view the mood induction as being related to the next part of the study, which measured job satisfaction. Schwarz and Clore (1983) showed in their studies that when individuals could attribute their mood to an outside source the mood manipulation failed to affect self-reported satisfaction. To avoid drawing attention to the mood manipulation in this study a mood measure was not included.

While the participants were filling out the first survey, a second experimenter entered the room and asked the first experimenter to have her participants fill out another short survey. After the first survey was complete, the experimenter asked participants to complete the second short survey, explaining that it is only a few questions and did not warrant an experiment session of its own. To avoid a possible confound by experimenter, I had each experimenter rotate which experimental condition she ran and which room she was in. I also rotated which experimental condition was held in each room.

Measures

Affective Disposition. The PANAS (Watson et al., 1988) was used to assess participants' affective disposition. The PANAS consists of 10 positive adjectives and 10 negative adjectives and asks participants to rate to what extent they *generally* experience each emotion overall. Participants will rate their level of agreement with each adjective on a 1-5 scale ranging from *very slightly or not at all* to *extremely.* Internal consistency reliabilities for the PANAS with general instructions are .82 for PA and .84 for NA (Watson et al., 1988).

Job satisfaction. The single-item FACES scale (Kunin, 1955) was used to assess participants' overall job satisfaction. Participants chose a face from a range of 7 different pictures that best described their overall attitude toward their job. I also used the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (MOAQ) introduced by Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins and Klesh (1985) as a measure of overall job satisfaction. The MOAQ asks participants to choose how strongly they agree with the three satisfaction items on a 6-point scale from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree.* Internal consistency reliability for the MOAQ as reported by the authors is .90 (Spector, 1997).

Demographics. I used a single item for each demographic variable including gender, ethnicity, and age. These demographics were used on both surveys to reinforce the perception that two separate studies were taking place. On the second survey, I also used a single item each to record participants' job tenure, job title, and number of hours worked per week.

Results

Direct Effects of Mood Condition on Self-Reported Job Satisfaction

Hypothesis 1 predicted that the mood manipulation would have a direct effect on self-reported job satisfaction. Specifically, participants in the positive mood condition would report higher levels of job satisfaction than those in the neutral condition and participants in the negative condition would report lower levels of job satisfaction than those in the neutral condition. To test this hypothesis, I compared the means of each job satisfaction measure by condition using *t*-tests, results for these analyses are presented in Table 1. For the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (MOAQ; Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins and Klesh, 1985), participants in the positive condition (M = 4.91, SD = 1.51) had significantly different scores than participants in the neutral condition (M = 5.44, SD = 1.27), but the effect was not in the hypothesized direction, $t(192) = 2.62$, $p < .01$, $d = -.37$. Participants in the negative condition (M = 4.86, SD = 1.66) reported significantly lower job satisfaction on the MOAQ than participants in the neutral condition, $t(204) = 2.78$, $p < .01$, $d = .03$). For the Faces scale (Kunin, 1955), the positive condition (M = 5.44, SD = 1.24) was not significantly different from the neutral condition (M = 5.73, SD = 1.08), $t(192) = 1.76$, n.s., $d = .24$. Participants in the negative condition (M = 5.18, SD = 1.46) reported significantly lower levels of job satisfaction on the Faces scale than participants in the neutral condition, $t(204) = 3.07$, $p < .01$, $d = .42$). These results partially support *Hypothesis 1*.

Relationships of Positive and Negative Affectivity to Self-Reported Job Satisfaction

Hypothesis 2 predicted that PA would be positively related to job satisfaction. As shown in Table 2, PA was significantly related to both the MOAQ (r = .24, p < .01) and the Faces scale (r = .23, p < .01). These results support *Hypothesis 2*. *Hypothesis 3* predicted that NA would be negatively correlated with job satisfaction. Consistent with this prediction, NA was significantly negatively related to both the MOAQ (r = -.18, p < .01) and the Faces scale (r = -.16, p < .01).

Moderating Effects of Affectivity and Mood Condition on Self-Reported Job Satisfaction

Moderated regression (Baron & Kenny, 1986) was used to test *Hypothesis 4* through *Hypothesis 8.*Moderated regression is a statistical procedure to test the incremental validity of an interaction on the outcome variable after controlling for the main effects of the predictor and moderator variables. In the present study, a two-step hierarchical regression model was used with job satisfaction as the outcome variable. Mood condition and personality variable were entered in step 1 and the interaction between the mood condition and personality variable was entered in step 2.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that the difference between job satisfaction scores in the negative and neutral conditions would be greater for participants higher in NA. Moderated regression analysis was used to test this hypothesis (Baron & Kenny, 1986). As shown in Table 3, the interaction between NA and the negative mood condition did not add any significant explained variance over and above the negative mood condition and NA for the Faces scale. Table 4 shows that the interaction between NA and negative mood condition did explain significant variance for the MOAQ (b = .52, p < .05). The

negative mood manipulation had a larger impact on high-NA participants' job satisfaction scores than on low-NA participants' job satisfaction scores for the MOAQ scale. A depiction of this interaction is presented in Figure 1. The high NA and low NA groups were created using Aiken and West's (1991) method. The high NA group is comprised of all participants who scored over one standard deviation above the mean on NA. The low NA group is comprised of everyone who scored over one standard deviation below the mean on NA. These groups were created separately for the control condition and the negative condition. There was no difference in job satisfaction scores for high and low NA participants on the Faces scale. Therefore, *Hypothesis 4* was partially supported.

Table 5 shows the moderated regression analyses for PA and negative mood condition on job satisfaction for the Faces scale. Table 6 shows the moderated regression analyses for PA and negative mood condition on job satisfaction for the MOAQ. *Hypothesis 5* predicted that the difference between job satisfaction scores in the negative and neutral conditions would be greater for participants lower in PA. As shown in Tables 5 and 6, the interaction between PA and negative mood condition was not significant for either the Faces scale or the MOAQ; therefore, *Hypothesis 5* was not supported.

Hypothesis 6 predicted that the difference between job satisfaction scores in the positive and neutral conditions would be greater for participants higher in PA. Table 7 shows the moderated regression analyses for PA and positive mood condition on job satisfaction for the Faces scale. Table 8 shows the moderated regression analyses for PA and positive mood condition on job satisfaction for the MOAQ. These tables show that

the interaction between PA and positive mood condition was not significant for either the Faces scale or the MOAQ; therefore, *Hypothesis 6* was not supported.

Hypothesis 7 predicted that the difference between job satisfaction scores in the positive and neutral conditions would be greater for participants lower in NA. Table 9 shows the moderated regression analyses for NA and positive mood condition on job satisfaction for the Faces scale. Table 10 shows the moderated regression analyses for NA and positive mood condition on job satisfaction for the MOAQ. These tables show that the interaction between NA and positive mood condition was not significant for either the Faces scale or the MOAQ; therefore, *Hypothesis 7* was not supported.

Discussion

Summary of Results

This study expanded on the current literature by exploring relationships between negative mood induction and self-reported job satisfaction. There was a direct relationship between the negative mood manipulation and both measures of job satisfaction. Participants in the negative mood condition reported lower job satisfaction scores on both the Faces scale and the MOAQ than participants in the neutral condition. No significant differences were found, however, between participants in the positive and neutral conditions.

A moderating effect of NA on job satisfaction was also found for the MOAQ scale but not the Faces scale. It is somewhat surprising that a more affective measure of job satisfaction such as the Faces was not as sensitive to the mood induction when combined with NA. However, because the Faces scale is only a one-item measure it has a fairly low reliability (Wanous, Reichers, & Hudy, 1997). This low reliability makes it difficult to detect a moderating relationship (Aguinis, 2004).

One reason individuals higher in NA may have been more affected by the mood induction is that individuals higher in NA may have been more sensitive to the negative mood induction. This would be consistent with Gray's (1981) Behavioral Inhibition System in which individuals high in neuroticism are more sensitive to cues of punishment. As expected these results are consistent with the temperamental view (McCrae & Costa, 1991), which states that individuals high on neuroticism are differently sensitive to environmental cues. The alternative theory is the instrumental view, whereby the individual creates the environment around them. The instrumental view, however,

does not fit with this study due to the fact that all of the participants were exposed to the same stimuli. The participants did not have an option to influence their environment or chose to which stimuli they would respond.

The present study found no direct relationship between the positive mood induction and self-reported job satisfaction. There are several possible reasons the positive mood induction did not affect mood. One possible reason was a time-lapse between the mood induction and the presentation of the job satisfaction survey. In the pilot study, a mood measure immediately followed the mood induction. This mood measure showed a significant difference in mood between participants in the positive condition and those in the neutral condition. In the full study, the two surveys were separated by a window of about 5 minutes. Two minutes were spent on the memory task and a few minutes were spent collecting the first surveys and passing out the job satisfaction surveys. During this period of activity, the effects of the positive mood induction may have worn off. It is also possible that the essay portion of the experiment actually decreased participants' mood after the positive condition. The manipulation may have worked but being asked to write a short essay, a task many students do not like to do, may have counteracted the effects of the positive mood manipulation.

Previous research has found positive mood inductions to be less effective than negative mood inductions (Westermann, Spies, Stahl, & Hesse, 1996) so this may be another reason the positive mood induction did not have the hypothesized effect. Due to the findings of the pilot study I believe the positive mood induction did in fact affect participants' mood; however, the weaker effect combined with the time-lapse may have also contributed to the findings.

Another possibility is a ceiling effect, meaning that participants' job satisfaction is initially so high that even a positive mood induction cannot increase it. The participants in the neutral condition reported a fairly high level of job satisfaction so it is possible that the positive mood induction could not increase the scores any further.

A final possible explanation for the failure of the positive mood induction is that the mood induction did work but the participants may not have used their mood at the time as a basis for filling out the job satisfaction survey. Several theories were discussed explaining why current mood may affect judgments but based on the findings of this study, participants did not use a positive mood to recall or interpret part job-related events. That is, a positive mood may have been induced in participants but when faced with the job satisfaction survey they put these feelings aside. According to mood congruency theory, an individual will interpret ambiguous past events in a way that fits with their mood at the time of recall (Rusting & DeHart, 2000). Affect priming model (Bower, 1981) was also discussed earlier. This theory states that individuals will recall events that are consistent with their current mood. The last model discussed earlier was affect as information model (Schwarz, 1990). In this model, individuals use their current mood as a heuristic for how they feel in general. In other words, an individual rationalizes that if they are in a positive mood at the moment, they must generally feel positive about the stimulus they are assessing. All of these theories reason that mood at the time or recall will be used as a basis for self-reported satisfaction questionnaires. Assuming the participants were affected by the mood manipulation, these theories do not fit with the data.

Much of the work on mood and satisfaction has been focused on life satisfaction. Because life satisfaction is a much broader construct than job satisfaction it is possible that life satisfaction is more susceptible to mood biasing effects. Job satisfaction is a much more focused measure of satisfaction focusing on a particular type of satisfaction. I also expect that measures of facets of job satisfaction would be even less susceptible to mood biasing effects because they have an even narrower satisfaction focus.

Current study compared with Brief et al. (1995) findings

In their study, Brief et al. (1995) found that a positive mood induction positively impacted self-reported job satisfaction. They also found that this relationship was stronger for people who were low in NA than for people who were high in NA. The current study set out to replicate these findings and also expand the research on the relationship between mood and job satisfaction. The present results were inconsistent with the Brief et al. findings. I should note, however, that I did examine relationships that were not investigated in the Brief et al. study.

There are a few possible reasons why this study failed to replicate the Brief et al. (1995) study. One possible reason is the nature of the mood induction. In this study the mood induction was not as integrated into the data collection session as the Brief et al. (1995) study. In the Brief et al. (1995) study the mood induction was a combination of cookies, soda, and a wind-up toy. This mood manipulation may have been more subtle, therefore drawing less attention to the effects of mood. As previously discussed, the effects of a mood manipulation may be negated if the subject is aware of the manipulation (Schwarz & Clore, 1983). In this study, I tried to disguise the fact that mood was being manipulated by posing the experimental session as two separate studies.

It is possible that participants caught on to this strategy but there was no evidence during the session that participants suspected the two studies were one.

Another possible reason this study did not find a relationship between positive mood and job satisfaction is that in the Brief et al. (1995) study took place in the workplace. Given the location and the findings it is possible that the results were due a reciprocating attitude on the part of the participants. The participants may have attributed the gifts to the employer or workplace and therefore reciprocated by reporting higher levels of job satisfaction.

In the Brief et al. (1995) study, individuals high in NA were less affected by the positive mood induction. One possible explanation Brief et al. (1995) gives for this finding is that high-NA individuals may not use current mood as a heuristic for making judgments. The current study contradicts this theory due to the fact that high-NA individuals were more affected by the negative mood induction when filling out the MOAQ. If mood had no role in making judgments there should have been no difference in job satisfaction scores for high-NA individuals.

Practical Implications

The current study shows that a negative mood can affect job satisfaction even if the mood is unrelated to the job. It is important for employers to understand this concept when measuring employees' job satisfaction. If they are measuring job satisfaction at only one point in time they may not be adequately capturing employees' true job satisfaction. For example, before coming into work the day and filling out a job satisfaction measure, an individual may have had a confrontation with a spouse. Their negative mood from the conflict may carry over onto their self-reported job satisfaction.

If negative mood due to factors outside the job affect job satisfaction it stands to reason that job-related moods will also affect job satisfaction, probably more so. If an employee has a negative or positive work-related experience soon before job satisfaction is measured it is likely to have an effect on the self-reported job satisfaction. With this in mind it would probably be best to measure job satisfaction at a neutral time to get a more realistic appraisal, as opposed to right after a big lay-off or after bonus checks are delivered.

Limitations

One potential limitation of this study is the use of a student sample. Because all of the students were employed for at least 3 months I do not believe this was a problem (Highhouse & Gillespie, 2009). Also, due to the nature of the study it would be difficult to conduct with employees. Because participants had to watch a video clip, it would be logistically difficult to administer the experimental sessions at a workplace.

Another potential limitation was the time-lapse between the mood induction and the job satisfaction survey. As previously discussed, the two surveys were separated by a window of about 5 minutes. Because a significant relationship was found between the negative mood and job satisfaction, it does not seem that it was a problem for everyone; however, as previously discussed, the positive mood induction may have worn off faster.

Future Research

One possibility for future research is the use of a work-related mood induction. For example, casual Fridays, free lunches, and work parties may have an effect on employees' job satisfaction. These manipulations are likely to have fleeting effects on job satisfaction ratings but it would be interesting to see if they would have a cumulative

effect over time. One problem with this line of research is that it is limited to a positive mood manipulation condition because it may be unethical and impractical to have a negative mood manipulation condition. It also would be difficult to have a control group due to perceptions of fairness.

Another possibility for future research is trying to determine which theory about mood and judgments is correct. Mood congruency theory theorizes that mood at time of recall will cause individuals to interpret past events in ways that are consistent with their current mood (Rusting & DeHart, 2000). Affect priming model states that individuals will not interpret past events differently but will instead recall only events that are consistent with their current mood (Bower, 1981). The affect as information model theorizes that individuals use current mood as a heuristic for how they feel overall, thereby reducing the cognitive load of making judgments (Schwarz, 1990). Future research should also examine if the effect of mood on judgments differs for people with different personality traits.

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Table 1

Job Satisfaction Scores for Each Experimental Condition

Satisfaction Measure	Experimental Condition			*t*-tests and Effect Sizes	
	Positive	Neutral	Negative	Positive vs. Neutral	Negative vs. Neutral
Faces	*M* = 5.44 (*SD* = 1.24) (*n* = 95)	*M* = 5.73 (*SD* = 1.08) (*n* = 99)	*M* = 5.18 (*SD* = 1.46) (*n* = 107)	1.76 (*d* = .24)	3.07** (*d* = .42)
MOAQ	*M* = 4.91 (*SD* = 1.51) (*n* = 95)	*M* = 5.44 (*SD* = 1.27) (*n* = 99)	*M* =4.86 (*SD* = 1.66) (*n* = 107)	2.62** (*d* = .37)	2.78** (*d* = .39)

Note. *p<.05; **p<.01. MOAQ = Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire. All scales were coded such that higher scores reflect higher satisfaction. Scores for both measures could potentially range from 1 to 7.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics, Reliabilities, and Correlations for All Experimental Condition Variables

	M	SD	1	2	3	4
1. Positive Affectivity	3.61	.59				
2. Negative Affectivity	2.10	.64	-.17**			
3. Job Satisfaction Faces scale	2.55	1.29	.23**	-.16**		
4. Job Satisfaction MOAQ scale	5.07	1.50	.24**	-.18**	.76**	
5. Neutral vs. Positive Conditions	--	--	.10	-.01	-.12	-.18**
6. Neutral vs. Negative Conditions	--	--	-.04	.04	.20**	.18**

Note. $N =$ 301 for all variables except experimental conditions. *n* for Neutral vs. Positive Conditions = 194. *n* for Neutral vs. Negative Conditions = 208. *n* for Positive vs. Negative Conditions = 202. *$p < .05$, two-tailed; **$p < .01$, two-tailed.

Table 3

Moderated Regression for the Interactive effects of Negative Affectivity and Negative Mood Condition on Job Satisfaction Faces Scale

Ordered Predictors	*Beta*	*R*-square change
1 Negative Affectivity (A)	-.44*	.07**
Negative Condition vs. Neutral Condition (B)	-.09	
2 A x B	.39	.00

Note. $n = 208$. *$p < .05$, one-tailed; **$p < .01$, one-tailed. *Betas* are from the second step.

Table 4

Moderated Regression for the Interactive effects of Negative Affectivity and Negative Mood Condition on Job Satisfaction MOAQ Scale

Ordered Predictors	*Beta*	*R*-square change
1 Negative Affectivity (A)	-.56**	.08**
Negative Condition vs. Neutral Condition (B)	-.20	
2 A x B	.52*	.01*

Note. $n = 208$. *$p < .05$, one-tailed; **$p < .01$, one-tailed. *Betas* are from the second step.

Table 5

Moderated Regression for the Interactive effects of Positive Affectivity and Negative Mood Condition on Job Satisfaction Faces Scale

Ordered Predictors	*Beta*	*R*-square change
1 Positive Affectivity (A)	.17	.08**
Negative Condition vs. Neutral Condition (B)	.14	
2 A x B	.07	.00

Note. $n = 208$. *$p < .05$, one-tailed; **$p < .01$, one-tailed. *Betas* are from the second step.

Table 6

Moderated Regression for the Interactive effects of Positive Affectivity and Negative Mood Condition on Job Satisfaction MOAQ Scale

Ordered Predictors	*Beta*	*R*-square change
1 Positive Affectivity (A)	.14	.09**
Negative Condition vs. Neutral Condition (B)	.02	
2 A x B	.19	.00

Note. $n = 208$. *$p < .05$, one-tailed; **$p < .01$, one-tailed. *Betas* are from the second step.

Table 7

Moderated Regression for the Interactive effects of Positive Affectivity and Positive Mood Condition on Job Satisfaction Faces Scale

Ordered Predictors	*Beta*	*R*-square change
1 Positive Affectivity (A)	.07	.10**
Positive Condition vs. Neutral Condition (B)	-.66	
2 A x B	.57	.00

Note. $n = 194$. *$p < .05$, one-tailed; **$p < .01$, one-tailed. *Betas* are from the second step.

Table 8

Moderated Regression for the Interactive effects of Positive Affectivity and Positive Mood Condition on Job Satisfaction MOAQ Scale

Ordered Predictors	*Beta*	*R*-square change
1 Positive Affectivity (A)	.13	.12**
Positive Condition vs. Neutral Condition (B)	-.59	
2 A x B	.43	.00

Note. $n = 194$. *$p < .05$, one-tailed; **$p < .01$, one-tailed. *Betas* are from the second step.

Table 9

Moderated Regression for the Interactive effects of Negative Affectivity and Positive Mood Condition on Job Satisfaction Faces Scale

Ordered Predictors	*Beta*	*R*-square change
1 Negative Affectivity (A)	-.08	.02*
Positive Condition vs. Neutral Condition (B)	-.10	
2 A x B	-.02	.00

Note. $n = 194$. *$p < .05$, one-tailed; **$p < .01$, one-tailed. *Betas* are from the second step.

Table 10

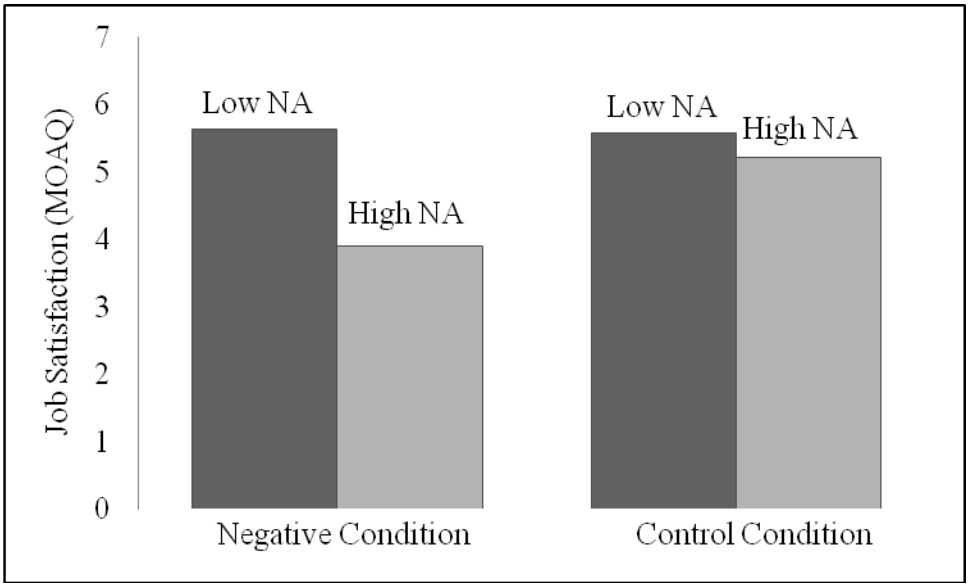
Moderated Regression for the Interactive effects of Negative Affectivity and Positive Mood Condition on Job Satisfaction MOAQ Scale

Ordered Predictors	*Beta*	*R*-square change
1 Negative Affectivity (A)	-.05	.04**
Positive Condition vs. Neutral Condition (B)	-.12	
2 A x B	-.08	.00

Note. $n = 194$. *$p < .05$, one-tailed; **$p < .01$, one-tailed. *Betas* are from the second step.

Figure 1

Comparison of High NA and Low NA participants in the Negative and Control Conditions



Appendix A

Last 5 digits of UID _____

Section 1 *Circle the number of the response that best represents how you feel about each object.*	Dissatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied
1. The city in which you live	1	2	3
2. The residence where you live	1	2	3
3. The neighbors you have	1	2	3
4. The high school you attended	1	2	3
5. The climate where you live	1	2	3
6. The movies being produced today	1	2	3
7. The quality of food you buy	1	2	3
8. Today's cars	1	2	3
9. Local newspapers	1	2	3
10. Your relaxation time	1	2	3
11. Your first name	1	2	3
12. The people you know	1	2	3
13. Television programs	1	2	3
14. Local speed limits	1	2	3
15. The way people drive	1	2	3
16. Advertising	1	2	3
17. The way you were raised	1	2	3
18. Telephone service	1	2	3
19. Public transportation	1	2	3
20. Restaurant food	1	2	3
21. Yourself	1	2	3
22. Modern art	1	2	3
23. Popular music	1	2	3
24. 8 ½" x 11" paper	1	2	3
25. Your telephone number	1	2	3

Section 2 *This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then choose the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate to what extent* ***you generally feel this way, that is, how you feel on average****.*	Very slightly or not at all	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Extremely
1. Interested	1	2	3	4	5
2. Distressed	1	2	3	4	5
3. Excited	1	2	3	4	5
4. Upset	1	2	3	4	5
5. Strong	1	2	3	4	5
6. Guilty	1	2	3	4	5
7. Scared	1	2	3	4	5
8. Hostile	1	2	3	4	5
9. Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5
10. Proud	1	2	3	4	5
11. Irritable	1	2	3	4	5
12. Alert	1	2	3	4	5
13. Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5
14. Inspired	1	2	3	4	5
15. Nervous	1	2	3	4	5
16. Determined	1	2	3	4	5
17. Attentive	1	2	3	4	5
18. Jittery	1	2	3	4	5
19. Active	1	2	3	4	5
20. Afraid	1	2	3	4	5

Section 3 *The following 10 questions ask about different aspects of your personality. Please circle the number that best reflects the extent to which each statement describes you.*	Strongly disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Strongly agree
1. I am the life of the party.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I don't talk a lot.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I feel comfortable around people.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I don't mind being the center of attention.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I keep in the background.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I get upset easily.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I talk to a lot of different people at parties.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I don't like to draw attention to myself.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I am quiet around strangers.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I start conversations.	1	2	3	4	5

Section 4 The following 10 questions ask about different aspects of your personality. Please circle the number that best reflects the extent to which each statement describes you.	Strongly disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Strongly agree
1. I am easily disturbed.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I seldom feel blue.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I get stressed out easily.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I worry about things.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I have frequent mood swings.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I get upset easily.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I change my mood a lot.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I am relaxed most of the time.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I get irritated easily.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I often feel blue.	1	2	3	4	5

Section 5

1. What is your age? _____years

2. What is your gender ? ☐ Female ☐ Male

3. What is your race? ☐ African-American ☐ Asian
   ☐ Caucasian ☐ Hispanic
   ☐ Native-American ☐ Other

Section 6

1. What type of pets do you own?

   ☐ Cat
   ☐ Dog
   ☐ Bird
   ☐ Small pet
   ☐ Reptile/Amphibian
   ☐ Other(please specify) _____
   ☐ None

2. Have you ever donated time or money to an animal rights organization (e.g., PETA, Humane Society)?
   ☐ Yes ☐ No

Section 7

1. In the next two minutes write down your reaction to the video and as much as you can recall about it:

Part A

Circle the one face that best describes your overall evaluation of your job.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Part B

The following questions refer to how you feel about your job. Circle the number of the response option that most closely matches your opinion for each statement.	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. All in all I am satisfied with my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. In general, I don't like my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. In general, I like working at my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part C

1. What is your age? _____years

2. What is your gender (circle one)? Female Male

3. What is your race (circle one)?

   a. African-American

   b. Asian

   c. Caucasian

   d. Hispanic

   e. Native-American

   f. Other (please specify) _____

4. How long have you been employed at your current job? _____ Months

5. How many hours do you work per week? _____ Hours

6. What is your job title? _____

7. What are the last 5 digits of your University ID? __ __ __ __ __