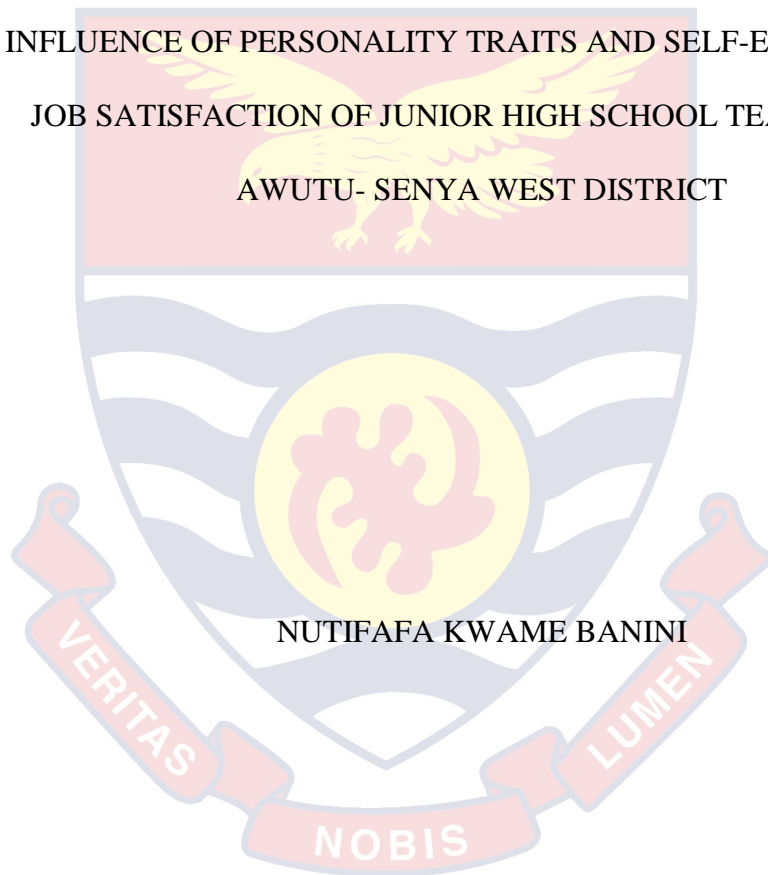UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

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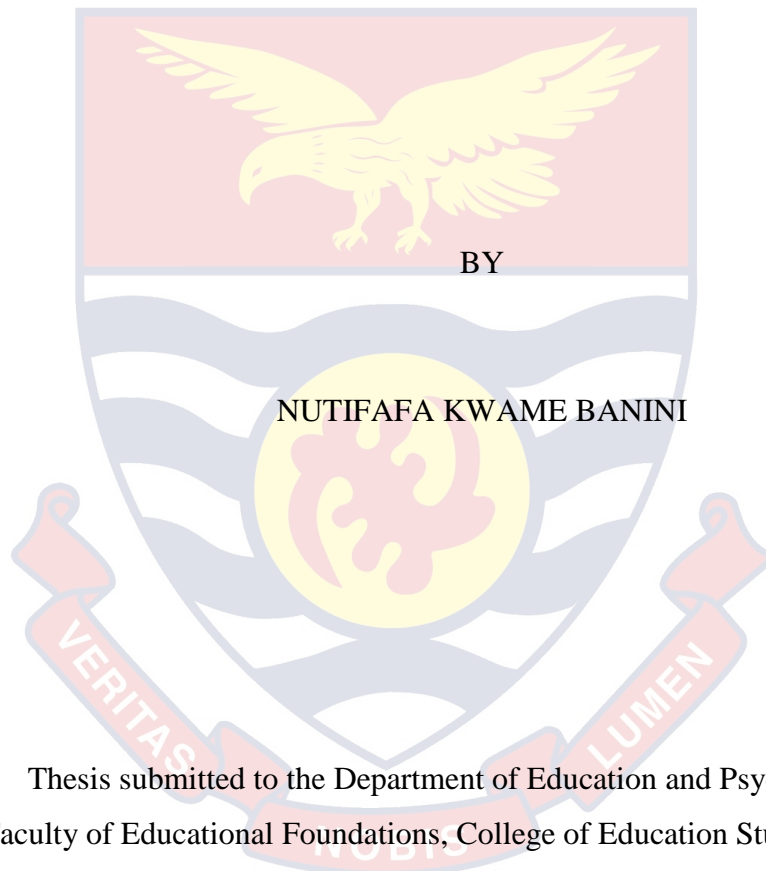
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INFLUENCE OF PERSONALITY TRAITS AND SELF-EFFICACY ON

JOB SATISFACTION OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS IN

AWUTU-SENYA WEST DISTRICT

BY

NUTIFAFA KWAME BANINI

Thesis submitted to the Department of Education and Psychology of the
Faculty of Educational Foundations, College of Education Studies, University
of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of
Doctor of Philosophy degree in Educational Psychology

SEPTEMBER 2020

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature: ………………..…..   Date: ………………………

Name: Nutifafa Kwame Banini

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature: ………..………...   Date: ……………

Name: Dr. Bakari Yusuf Dramanu

Co-supervisor's Signature: ………………………   Date: …………...

Name: Dr. Mark Owusu Amponsah

ABSTRACT

The study investigated the influence of personality traits and self-efficacy on job satisfaction of junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District. The study adopted a descriptive survey design. The sample size comprised 461 respondents. The census survey technique was used to select respondents. Structured questionnaires were the instruments used to collect data for the study. Multiple Linear Regression, Independent Samples T-test and the Bootstrapping Approach were used to test the hypotheses. The study revealed that personality traits in terms of extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness to experience do not significantly influence teachers' job satisfaction. However, neuroticism significantly predicted teachers' job satisfaction. Also, teacher self-efficacy in terms of student engagement, instructional practices and classroom management is not a relevant predictor of their job satisfaction. The results further revealed that male and female teachers do not differ in terms of their personality traits, self-efficacy and job satisfaction. It was also found that location (rural/urban) of teachers significantly influenced their extraversion but not their self- efficacy and job satisfaction. The study concluded that the more teachers become emotionally stable and deliver to the satisfaction of students, the more satisfied they become with their job. Lastly, it is recommended that the Ministry of Education in collaboration with Awutu-Senya West District Directorate should organise in-service and capacity building workshop in professional practice and psychological preparedness for teachers to enable them to develop a positive attitude towards work and enhance their job satisfaction.

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KEYWORDS

Influence

Personality Trait

Self-efficacy

Junior High School Teachers

Job Satisfaction

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DEDICATION

To my family, especially my lovely wife Mrs. Linda Kusi Banini, and our

children.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

Teachers enter the profession for several reasons; however, in the course of discharging their duties, they share the need for appreciation, autonomy and affiliation. Macbeath (2012) revealed that wherever teachers in South America, Sub-Saharan Africa, Europe, East Africa or North America were asked about their priorities and satisfiers, they referred to the importance of recognition and respect for their daily challenges which included: motivation, salary, morale, promotion and environmental support. These common factors are essential for all teachers, shape the status of the teaching profession and play an important role in delivering quality and ensuring equity in education. Also, teachers' positive sense of their status is closely linked to other aspects of quality education including: continuous professional development, community service, engagement in research activities, collaboration and exchange with other professionals, and involvement in decision-making (Hargreaves & Flutter, 2013). Munir and Khatoon (2015) stated that lowered job satisfaction is believed to influence teachers' commitment, morale and turnover. Job satisfaction has been of interest to many researchers both present and past, mainly because of its connection with important organizational phenomena such as turnover, absenteeism and organizational effectiveness (Currivan, 1999; Nguni, 2006; Van Scooter,

2000). Therefore, job satisfaction among teachers is an important management element that deserves continuous attention.

Job satisfaction among teachers is a multifaceted construct that is critical to teacher retention and is believed to be an important determinant of teacher commitment and, in turn, a contributing factor to school effectiveness. It is a complex variable and is influenced by situational factors of the job (extrinsic) as well as the dispositional characteristics of the individual (intrinsic) (Munir and Khatoon (2015). Hence, job satisfaction is an attitude towards a job and its environment, taking into account feelings, beliefs and behaviours. Thus, to measure how satisfied the teachers in a school are, it would usually start by measuring their satisfaction with important job factors such as pay, morale, promotion, recognition, teacher-pupil relationship and teacher-authority relationship, and compiling the results to obtain a measure of the teachers' overall job satisfaction. Further, because teacher job satisfaction is all about "measuring teachers' satisfaction with different circumstances" (Skaalvik, & Skaalvik, 2009), teacher characteristics such as age, gender and teaching experience may enhance our understanding of their job satisfaction (Fairchild, Tobias, Corcoran, Djukic, Kovner, & Noguera, 2012).

Job satisfaction can be defined as ''a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences'' (Locke, 1976: p. 1304). The claim that a different meaning should be given to job satisfaction, depending on the research subject, seems reasonable (Kantas, 1998). Lawler (1973) refers to job satisfaction as a term encompassing all those things a person expects to get from his/her job and all those things he/she receives. Brooke, Russell & Price (1988) and Okoye

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(2011) defined job satisfaction as a measure for checking whether a person is satisfied or not with his/her job. Bogler (2001) defined job satisfaction by using teachers' perceptions of occupational prestige, self-esteem, autonomy at work and professional self-development. Although numerous definitions have been given to job satisfaction, there is no consensus on how it should be defined. However, one of the most commonly cited definitions of job satisfaction was provided by Locke (1976), who defined it as "the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or facilitating the achievement of one's job values" (p. 317).

Job satisfaction is believed to be an inside reaction to or against working conditions. It has also been claimed that job satisfaction is the overall evaluation somebody makes of his/her working environment. This overall evaluation has been connected with levels of motivation and productivity (Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart & Wright, 2009). Job satisfaction arises from the attitudes that employees have developed towards their job. These attitudes have emotional precursors; that is, there can be a satisfactory or unsatisfactory response to the work environment (Avşaroğlu, Deniz & Kahraman, 2005). Because of this, job satisfaction plays a crucial role in the achievement of organizational goals. Levi (1967) revealed that the degree of employees' involvement in decision-making at the workplace has an impact on workers' productivity. In other words, the more an individual is involved in a certain task, the more productive, self-sufficient and satisfied they feel with their job. Then, job satisfaction drives professional motivation toward group objectives, the achievement of which has further implications for satisfaction with one's job (Robbins, 1984). Interestingly, according to Kanter (1977), while workers

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may be satisfied with their current job contents, this does not guarantee they will have the same level of satisfaction, at the same time, for their potential career development or internal mobility in an organization. This means that an employee may be satisfied with present job contents and yet be dissatisfied with opportunities in their current career, opportunities for professional training and job prospects. Employees with fewer chances for career development are more likely to leave their unsatisfying job (Kanter, 1977). For example, studies in Greece suggested that teachers of public schools were satisfied with the job itself and their supervision, but were dissatisfied with pay and opportunities for promotion (Koustelios, 2001; Tsigilis, Zachopoulou & Grammatikopoulos, 2006). These teachers are quite likely to be dissatisfied overall with their job and may want to abandon a classroom career. Therefore, career development opportunities and employee turnover intentions in an organization are important variables that influence job satisfaction.

The foregoing suggests that professional motivation and success, and also job satisfaction, depend on an interplay of both intrinsic and extrinsic factors (Li, 1993). On the extrinsic level, teachers are influenced by individual and contextual factors such as school and culture (You, Kim, & Lim, 2015). According to Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2004), job satisfaction refers to the relationships between teachers and their teaching. Therefore, teachers may get their job satisfaction from their relationship with students (Shann, 1998), from their students' success (Taylor & Tashakkori, 1995), and performance rewards (Conley, 1985). In this particular regard, teachers can influence classroom management and solve many problems in the schools if they retain good inter-personal relations with students' parents, colleagues and principals

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(Henke, Choy, Geis, & Broughman, 1996). Meanwhile, different aspects of the school environment may have varying effects on job satisfaction. For example, in many countries, teacher job satisfaction is "at risk due to new responsibilities, and to the scarcity of external rewards" caused by rapid changes in and big challenges to educational environments, society, and expectations of parents, students and administrators. Besides, educational policies and new laws regarding teachers may also influence teacher job satisfaction " (Caprara, Barbaranelli & Malone, Steca, 2006). Cognisant of the various extrinsic factors, Balci (1985) distilled the primary drivers of job satisfaction into six dimensions, thus: nature of work, salary, development and promotion possibilities, working conditions, interpersonal relations and organizational environment."

Another important extrinsic predictor of job satisfaction is the rural-urban placement of employees. The "accessibility for recreation, entertainment, shopping, social activities, and interactions with their peers was a continuous and vital component for teachers when they were choosing a school and community to work in (Buchanan, 2005). A comparative study on different dimensions of job satisfaction among rural and urban high school teachers "by Naik and Yadav (2017) revealed that there is significant mean difference in the intrinsic aspect of job satisfaction among rural and urban high school teachers. The study further revealed that there exists no significant mean difference in the salary, service conditions and promotion dimension of job satisfaction among rural and urban high school teachers. Another study by Najar and Dar (2017) on job satisfaction of rural and urban teachers in

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India, revealed that there is a significant difference between urban and rural high school teachers on job satisfaction.

On the intrinsic level, job satisfaction is a major job attitude – an evaluative statement concerning objects, people and events, according to Stephen, Robbins and Timothy (2007). Stephen, Robbins, and Timothy (2007) posit that attitude consists of three components: affective – emotional or feeling segment of attitude; cognitive – the opinion or belief segment of attitude and; behavioural – the intention to behave in a certain way toward someone or something. Job satisfaction is a strong indicator of the degree to which employees identify with their jobs (job involvement), organizations and their goals (organizational commitment), believe that organizations value their contributions and care about their wellbeing (perceived organizational support) and are satisfied with and enthusiastic about work. It can thus be seen that 'personality' is important for predicting or evaluating job satisfaction.

Hogan (1991) defined personality as a relatively stable precursor of behaviour; it underlies an enduring style of thinking, feeling and acting. Further, Guthrie, Coate and Schwoerer (1998) stated that personality can be defined as a predisposition to act or behave "characteristically in response to one's environment. Even though it is not easy to identify an individual with all the characteristics that constitute his/her personality, it is possible to develop various judgments based on the characteristics the person demonstrates consistently. Personality can also be explained as the collection of characteristics that represents who individuals are. In this regard, research has gone on to classify individuals' personality characteristics based on the Five-Factor Personality Model. This involves an analysis of the words that

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individuals use to define themselves or others (McCrae & John, 1987). The dimensions of the Five-Factor Personality Model are *extraversion*, *agreeableness*, *conscientiousness*, *neuroticism* and *openness to experience*.

In another definition of 'personality', Pervin and John (1999) treat 'personality' as those characteristics of the person that account for consistent patterns of feeling, thinking and behaving. This definition focuses on many different aspects of the person. At the same time, it suggests consistent patterns of behaviour and inherent qualities that account for these regularities as opposed to, for example, looking exclusively at qualities in the environment that account for such regularities. However, the regularities of interest include the thoughts, feelings and overt (observable) behaviours of people. Of particular interest is how these thoughts, feelings and overt behaviours of people combine to form the unique, distinctive individual. Chamorro-Premuzic and Furnham (2005) were of the views that personality trait illustrates characteristics of a person 's behaviour and also gives varieties, to a degree from one person to another and they may be grouped under the degree by which individuals have each one of these traits as property.

Barrick and Mount (1995) explained the Big-Five Model Personality Model using five factors, with each factor categorized by groups of intercorrelated traits known as facets. The facets of Extraversion include warmth, gregariousness, assertiveness, activity, excitement seeking and positive emotions. The Agreeableness facets include straightforwardness, altruism, trust, compliance, modesty and tender-mindedness. Conscientiousness traits include competence, order, dutifulness, achievement-striving, self-discipline, and deliberation. Neuroticism or Emotional instability

traits include anxiety, anger, depression, self-consciousness, impulsiveness, and vulnerability. And, the Openness to experience facets includes fantasy, aesthetics, feelings, actions, ideas and values.

The Big Five Personality Model enjoys widespread theoretical and empirical support. Barrick and Mount (1995) suggested that many personality psychologists have reached a consensus that the five personality constructs in the Model are necessary and sufficient to describe the basic dimensions of normal personality." Paunonen and Ashton (2001) noted that the Big Five personality dimensions of neuroticism, extroversion, agreeableness, openness to experience and conscientiousness have been studied extensively and have been associated with a variety of work attitudes and behaviour. These five personality dimensions are broad dimensions that are theorised to subsume narrowly focused personality traits. The breadth of these dimensions is beneficial in that it distils a large number of personality traits into a parsimonious set of dimensions for use in research. As stated by Harris and Fleming (2005), the Five-Factor Model has enjoyed widespread popularity in the field of work attitude and behaviour. Therefore, the model is widely used and is suitable to be used in any research. For these reasons, this present study used the Big Five Model.

It appears that gender may have important implications for differences in personality traits. "Research in this area indicates that males tend to show higher levels of assertiveness, aggressiveness and self-esteem but their levels of trust, anxiety and tender-mindedness are low (Feingold, 1994). Women tend to score higher than men on Neuroticism and Agreeableness in adults and older ages (Chapman, Duberstein, Serensen, & Lyness, 2007). One study

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reported that men were higher in assertiveness, excitement seeking and openness to ideas. Women were rated as being higher in anxiety, vulnerability, aesthetics, feelings and tender-mindedness (McCrae & Terracciano, 2005). Costa, Terracciano, and McCrae (2001) researched twenty-six cultures. They found out that gender differences in personality traits of college-age students and adults are rather small. They reported that women are higher in Neuroticism, Agreeableness, Warmth and Openness to feelings while men scored higher in assertiveness and openness to ideas.

Another intrinsic factor that influences job satisfaction is self-efficacy (Pandey & Kavitha, 2015). Bandura (1986) described self-efficacy as a person's judgment of his or her ability to achieve or accomplish action and was an important determinant of behavioural performance. In other words, individuals who are efficacious and can perform a given activity are often found to be socially engaged in rendering supportive services to peers, family relatives and others in a target behaviour more frequently than those who feel unskilled (Bandura, 1986). Schwarzer and Luszczyuska (2007) indicated that self-efficacy is related more to specific situations and tasks than are personality traits; this is because these are rather temporary characteristics. After all, individuals sometimes identify behaviours that they would like to change and activities in which they would like to participate; however, most people do realize that a gap exists between their desire to make a change and their ability to put that desire into action.

Because teacher job satisfaction is all about "measuring teachers' satisfaction with different circumstances" (Skaalvik, & Skaalvik, 2009), teacher characteristics such as age, gender and teaching experience may

enhance our understanding of their job satisfaction (Fairchild, Tobias, Corcoran, Djukic, Kovner, & Noguera, 2012). For example, most empirical studies reviewed for this work reported greater satisfaction among females than among male workers (see Olorunsola, 2012; Nurullah, 2010; Kim, 2005; Ahmad, Raheem and Jamal, 2003; Bas and Ardic, 2002; Ma and Macmillan, 1999; Abu Saad and Isralowitz, 1997; Perrie and Baker, 1997). At least, one paper reported that females were less satisfied than males at their jobs (see Castillo and Canno, 2004). Oshagbemi (2003) concluded the gender did not directly influence job satisfaction. Meanwhile, other studies concluded that gender was not significantly related to job satisfaction (Toker, 2011; Koyuncu, Burke and Fiksenbaum, 2006). From these reviews alone, it appears that gender has a relationship with job satisfaction. Gender appears, at least in the empirical literature, to have a relationship with personality. Personality, in turn, seems to have a strong relationship with the intrinsic factors that moderate job satisfaction. Therefore, it is plausible that gender may have an indirect moderating effect on job satisfaction.

Self-efficacy plays a significant role in closing the gap between thought and action, aiding individuals in moving towards behavioural changes. People who receive and accept positive verbal encouragement from others display a reduction in self-doubt and therefore present a higher self-efficacy. Acquiring the capacity to minimize negative thoughts and keep a positive outlook when one faces difficulties helps individuals achieve a level of self-efficacy and lower their negative emotional arousal as well as social relationships (Bandura, 1986). Strong self-efficacy beliefs enhance human accomplishment and personal well-being in many ways, including job

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satisfaction. People with a strong sense of personal competence approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than as dangers to be avoided; they have a great intrinsic interest in activities, set challenging goals and maintain a strong commitment to them, heighten their efforts in the face of failure; they more easily recover their confidence after failures or setbacks and attribute failure to insufficient effort or deficient knowledge and skills which they are capable of acquiring (Bandura, 1986). High self-efficacy helps create feelings of serenity in approaching difficult tasks and activities.

Conversely, people with low self-efficacy may believe that things are tougher than they are, a belief that fosters stress, depression and a narrow vision of how best to solve a problem. As a result of these influences, self-efficacy beliefs are strong determinants and predictors of the level of accomplishment that individuals finally attain (Bandura, 1986). For these reasons, Bandura (1986) made the strong claim that beliefs of personal efficacy constitute the factors of the human agency while self-efficacy, in general, refers to one's confidence in executing courses of action in managing a wide range of situations.

Teacher efficacy examines teachers' confidence in managing workplace experiences. The theoretical underpinning is that teachers with higher work self-efficacy are more likely to look forward to and to be successful in their delivery and, subsequently have greater job satisfaction. Bandura (1986) posited that self-efficacy influences the tasks employees choose to learn and the goals they set for themselves. Self-efficacy also influences employees' level of effort and persistence when learning difficult tasks. According to Bandura (1986), self-efficacy has a widely acclaimed

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theoretical foundation and a proven record of application in the workplace, and its influence on job satisfaction.

Judge, Heller and Mount (2002) in their research estimated the unique contribution of self-efficacy to work-related performance controlling for personality (the Big Five traits), intelligence or general mental ability and job or task experience. Their meta-analysis of the relevant literature revealed that overall, across all studies and moderator conditions, the contribution of self-efficacy relative to purportedly more distal variables was relatively small. Within moderator categories, there were several cases in which self-efficacy made unique contributions to work-related performance. For example, self-efficacy predicted performance in jobs or tasks of low complexity but not those of medium or high complexity; self-efficacy predicted performance for tasks but not for job performance. Overall, results suggested that the predictive validity of self-efficacy was attenuated in the presence of individual (or perhaps personality and gender) differences, though this attenuation does depend on the context.

Empirical research shows that men largely outnumber women in science, technology, engineering and mathematics programs and careers (Baker, 2002; Ivie, Czuiko, & Stowe, 2002; National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2006), while women earn fewer degrees in mathematics and science than do men, with the largest discrepancies in the fields of mathematics, engineering, chemistry and physics (NCES, 2006). Such discrepancies have been attributed in large part to the self-beliefs that females hold about their capabilities (Betz, Schifano & Kaplan, 1999; Hackett, 1995; Lent & Hackett, 1987). In explanation, Hackett and Betz (1981) point out

that men were more likely than were women to be exposed to models relevant to career-related efficacy. Consequently, women were less likely to experience vicarious learning that could help them to develop efficacy expectations for non-traditional careers. Therefore, exploring self-efficacy differences between male and female teachers in this study is justifiable, at least, in so far as it may trigger a deeper enquiry into the gender-based inequities in exposure to the antecedents of self-efficacy.

Cobbold and Asamani (2015) also found out that career orientations, service and dedication to a case, entrepreneurial creativity and functional competence were the most dominant among Ghanaian teachers. They further revealed that the various career anchor measures on turnover intentions except security, stability and dedication to cause, significantly influenced turnover intentions of Ghanaian teachers. Another study by Asamani, Cobbold and Dai-Kosi (2015) showed that the inner drives, motive and values of teachers affect their work experiences and, consequently, job satisfaction. They further confirmed that when there is a fit between the personal resources of teachers and their job demands, they are more likely to have fulfilled and satisfying work experience, which will boost their satisfaction in life. Also, Munir and Khatoon (2015) indicated that job satisfaction is a complex variable and is influenced by situational factors of the job, as well as the dispositional characteristics of the individual "which includes: feelings, beliefs and behaviours. Based on the above expositions, there is the need to investigate the psychological experience or determinants that influence job satisfaction among Ghanaian teachers, namely: the inner drives, motives, values and performance. Hence, the influence of personality traits and self-efficacy on

job satisfaction of junior high school teachers in Awutu Senya West District in the Central Region of Ghana needs to be studied.

Job satisfaction has enjoyed significant attention in empirical educational research (De Nobile & McCormick, 2008; Dinham & Scott, 2000; Singh & Billingsley, 1996; Spector, 1997). Heller, Clay & Perkins (1993) contended that "schools must pay more attention to improve teacher job satisfaction" (p. 75). Zigarelli (1996), in an attempt to search for the underlying characteristics that lead to school effectiveness, has suggested the need to investigate the following factors: the selection of qualified teachers, teacher morale, teacher satisfaction, school culture as well as the autonomy of the principal of the school. A study conducted by the Ghana Education Service (2012) revealed that teachers would want to quit teaching for higher pay (24.8%), improved conditions of service (59.8%), change of profession (6.5%) and other reasons (8.9%). Another study conducted by the Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT) and Teachers and Educational Workers Union (TEWU) (2010) showed that about 50% of Ghanaian teachers sampled in a survey indicated that they would want to quit teaching before they retired for several reasons including poor working conditions and other personal factors. The two studies conducted by Ghana Education Service (2012) and Ghana National Association Teachers /Teachers and Education Workers Union (2010) have revealed that apart from salaries, working conditions, morale and environmental support, other factors could also influence teacher job satisfaction and these factors, according to Pandey and Kavitha (2015) are personality traits and self-efficacy.

Statement of the Problem

The survival of an organisation depends largely on its capacity to attract and retain qualified workers (Vecchio & Sussmann, 1991). The Ghana Education Service has a high teacher attrition problem; considerable effort, time and money are invested in training teachers, a lot to whom afterwards abandon the profession to pursue careers in other sectors (Cobbold, 2010). A study by the Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT) and the Teachers and Educational Workers Union (TEWU) in 2010 revealed that 50 per cent of teachers intended quitting teaching before they retired for higher pay (24.8 per cent); for improved conditions of service (59.8 per cent); for a change of profession (6.5 per cent); and for other reasons (8.9 per cent). Widespread quitting intention among Ghanaian teachers is perhaps indicative of extensive dissatisfaction with work among the teaching force. Low satisfaction with their jobs has detrimental consequences on their efficient delivery of service toward optimal learner gains, which in turn, has negative implications for Ghana's long-term human capital development. Therefore, job satisfaction among teachers and research into all aspects of it should continue to excite the interest of researchers.

To illustrate concerns among stakeholders over teacher job satisfaction: at Awutu-Senya West District Education Performance Review Meetings over the most recent half-decade, there have been consistent calls for investigating teacher motivations and tackling job dissatisfaction with greater effort. Pupils' poor performance in the terminal WAEC Basic Education Certificate Examinations (BECE) has been a persistent problem for years. Statistics from District's Education Management Information System (MIS)

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for the years 2014 through 2018 show a consistent below-national-average and below-regional-average performance among BECE candidates from the Awutu Senya West District's Junior High Schools (JHS) schools. More importantly, for each of those years, less than half of all candidates obtained a passing grade in the BECE. For instance, in 2014 and 2015 only 19.76% and 29.25% passed the exam, respectively. In 2016, the percentage pass was 40.22%. Continuing the trend, in 2017 only 42.03% passed the BECE, while in 2018 the proportion of students who passed was 46.25%. While there appears to be a consistent rise in the proportion of students who pass the exam, the more than half-of-all-students fail rate is a condition that increasingly frustrated impatient parents, teachers, education officials and candidates are clamouring about. Therefore, stakeholders have begun to look at the problem from different angles to formulate a holistic approach to tackling the unacceptably low pass rates. Teacher job satisfaction has come to be one of the priority issues in this regard.

Inspired by these calls, the researcher conducted preliminary investigations at five selected junior high schools in Awutu-Senya West District. Fifteen teachers in all were engaged in informal conversations on reasons why they want to leave the profession with the least opportunity they get. Five selected schools were randomly visited to observe what teachers do daily with regards to teaching and attitudes towards work. After the interactions with the teachers, visiting the schools and observations made, the following were revealed; teachers in Awutu Senya West District did not take teaching as a lifelong career. Rather, they considered teaching as a stepping stone for entry into other professions. Such teachers left the teaching

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profession with the earliest opportunity they find outside the profession. Teachers in the five selected schools visited have displayed various incidence of indiscipline; they did not report to school early, others did not attend school gatherings, some also left the classroom without permission to go to market, banks, pursue further studies and others engaged in petty trading as a means of supplementing their income, thereby, leaving the students helpless in the classroom.

The five selected schools have also revealed that teachers displayed strong negative emotions such as anger, depression, anxiety and aggression which badly affected their work output in the classroom. Some teachers also felt that they deserve to be in better occupations other than teaching, others also resorted to the use of corporal punishment as a way of disciplining pupils which resulted in a series of confrontations between teachers and parents. Some parents had no option than to send their wards to other schools.

Do these preliminary findings hold for all (or most) teachers in the District? Is teacher dissatisfaction with their jobs widespread enough to plausibly hypothesise a link between it and students' poor performance in the BECE? If so, what are the drivers of teachers' dissatisfaction with their jobs, and how do these factors interplay? This is the primary motivation for this present study.

Another reason for this study is the need to study intrinsic teacher factors and their relationship with job satisfaction. In Ghana, studies conducted on job satisfaction among teachers have focused mainly on motivation, salary, conditions of service, teacher-student interaction, infrastructural improvement and other environmental support variables. (see,

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for examples, Cobbold & Asamani, 2015; Asamani, Cobbold & Dai-Kosi, 2015; Sam, Effah & Osei-Owusu; 2014; Ghana Education Service, 2012; GNAT/TEWU, 2010; Cobbold, 2010; Koomson, 2005; Bame, 1991; Agbenyega, 1986). However, almost all variables in such studies have been those extrinsic to the teacher as a person. Meanwhile, the scholarly literature on job satisfaction indicates that the phenomenon is influenced by dispositional (intrinsic) characteristics of the individual, namely: personality traits and self-efficacy (see, for examples, Pandey & Kavitha, 2015; Badri, Mohaidat, Ferrandina & Mourad, 2013; Ronfeldt, 2012; Lent & Brown, 2006; Spear, Gould & Lee, 2000). There is a scholarly gap that needs to be filled. This enquiry sought to contribute to filling that gap and inspiring further research into employee intrinsic factors in Ghana.

On a global level, while teacher job satisfaction, in general, has attracted a broad range of pedagogical research, only a little attention has been paid to teacher job satisfaction in developing countries. Additionally, most studies on the nexus between personality traits, self-efficacy and job satisfaction have predominantly been done in developed economies and some Asian countries (see, for examples, Pandey & Kavitha, 2015, Badri, Mohaidat, Ferrandina & Mourad, 2012; Ronfeldt, 2012; Lent & Brown, 2006; Spear, Gould & Lee, 2000). Meanwhile, the environmental, socioeconomic and cultural contexts of a developing country like Ghana vary considerably from those that pertain in the economic North, with implications for job satisfaction among teachers. These gaps provided further impetus for this study.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study was to examine the influence of personality traits and self-efficacy on job satisfaction of junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District. Specifically, the study sought to find out "whether:

1. Personality traits influenced the job satisfaction of junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District.

2. Self-efficacy influenced the job satisfaction of junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District.

3. Personality traits influenced the self-efficacy of junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District.

4. Self-efficacy mediated the influence of Personality Traits on job satisfaction of junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District.

5. Male and female junior school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District differ in their personality traits.

6. Male and female junior school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District differ in their self-efficacy.

7. Male and female junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District differ in their job satisfaction.

8. Rural and Urban junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District differ in their personality traits.

9. Rural and Urban junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District differ in their self-efficacy.

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10. Rural and Urban junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District differ in their job satisfaction.

Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were formulated to guide the study:

H_o 1: Personality traits will not influence the job satisfaction of junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District.

H_A 1: Personality traits will influence the job satisfaction of junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District.

H_o 2: Self-efficacy will not influence the job satisfaction of junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District.

H_A 2: Self-efficacy will influence the job satisfaction of junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District."

H_o 3: Personality traits will not influence the self-efficacy of Junior High School Teachers in Awutu-Senya West District.

H_A 3: Personality traits will influence the self-efficacy of Junior High School Teachers in Awutu-Senya West District.

H_o 4: Self-efficacy will not mediate the influence of personality traits on job satisfaction of junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District.

H_A 4: Self-efficacy will mediate the influence of personality traits on job satisfaction of junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District.

H_0 5: There is no significant difference between personality traits of male and female junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District.

H_A 5: There is a significant difference between personality traits of male and female junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District.

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H_0 6: There is no significant difference between the self- efficacy of male and female junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District.

H_A 6: There is a significant difference between the self- efficacy of male and female junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District.

H_0 7: There is no significant difference between the job satisfaction of male and female junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District.

H_A 7: There is a significant difference between the job satisfaction of male and female junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District.

H_0 8: There is no significant difference between the personality traits of Rural and Urban junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District.

H_A 8: There is a significant difference between the personality traits of Rural and Urban junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District.

H_0 9: There is no significant difference between the self-efficacy of Rural and Urban junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District.

H_A 9: There is a significant difference between the self-efficacy of Rural and Urban junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District.

H_0 10: There is no significant difference between the job satisfaction of Rural and Urban junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District.

H_A 10: There is a significant difference between the job satisfaction of Rural and Urban junior high school teachers in Awutu Senya West District.

Significance of the Study

This study is geared towards providing information or blueprint on the influence of personality traits and self-efficacy on job satisfaction of junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District. Through dissemination of the outcome of the study, the researcher in collaboration with the Awutu

Senya West District Directorate will organise seminars and workshops for teachers in Awutu-Senya West District to go the extra mile in preparing teachers to develop a positive attitude towards work.

The study will also serve as a guide to "the Awutu-Senya West District Education Office to extend guidance and counselling services to teachers. This will prepare them emotionally for effective delivery in the subjects they teach. The study will also enable the Ministry of Education in collaboration with the Awutu-Senya West District Education Office, as a matter of urgency conduct periodic supervision in urban JHS with respect to class size, teacher absenteeism and teacher-pupil relationship as a way of ensuring teacher effectiveness.

The study will also encourage urban teachers to demonstrate a commitment to work and maintain a good interpersonal relationship with pupils and parents. Finally, understanding the factors that can contribute to job satisfaction and self-efficacy is an important managerial information that will assist in curbing attrition among teachers in Awutu-Senya West District.

Delimitations of the Study

The study was delimited to only professional public junior high school teachers in Awutu Senya West District. Factors that influenced job satisfaction among junior high school teachers are many and varied but the current study considered the inner drives, motives and thinking, namely: personality traits which included: neuroticism, openness, conscientiousness, agreeableness and extraversion of teachers in Awutu-Senya West District. The self-efficacy component of the study, focused on the ability of teachers to

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influence instructional outcomes, students' engagement and classroom management.

Limitations of the Study

In conducting this study, the researcher encountered certain limiting factors that affected the validity and reliability of the results of the study. To ensure that the reliability of the instrument and pre-testing of the instrument was done to make it free from errors and inconsistencies, items that were found confusing and ambiguous were modified and, in some cases, deleted. A crucial limiting factor was the researcher's inability to employ multiple instruments to collect varied data from the respondents. The use of only questionnaire to collect data would not be adequate since such instruments were liable to participant motivation (McMillian, 1996).

To minimize the problem of participant motivation, time was set aside to explain the importance of the research to the respondents, and to assure them of confidentiality. The research findings were limited to factors and conditions existing in the Awutu-Senya West District. To overcome this, all professional junior high school teachers in the District were used for the study to prevent problems associated with small sample size. The sample involved the entire population to be studied. Also, for example, a survey depends on the self-report of participants. Therefore, the validity of findings is dependent on the extent to which participants were honest in their responses. Because the study was delimited to Awutu Senya West District, generalising its findings and conclusions to teachers all over Ghana should be done with caution.

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Definition of Terms

Agreeableness: It refers to the personality trait of junior high school teachers who are compassionate and cooperative rather than suspicious towards others.

Conscientiousness: It refers to the personality trait of junior high school teachers who show self-discipline, aim for achievements, tend to be organized and are mindful of details

Efficacy to Influence Classroom Management: It refers to the belief of junior high school teachers about their ability to control, prevent and manage effectively routine activities in the classroom.

Efficacy to Influence Instructional Strategies: It refers to the belief junior high school teachers hold about their ability to organize and effectively deliver to the satisfaction of students.

Efficacy to Influence Student Engagement: It refers to the belief of junior high school teachers about their ability to motivate children to participate in the teaching/learning process.

Extraversion: It refers to the personality trait of junior high school teachers who like to communicate with people, full of energy and often create positive emotions.

Job Satisfaction: This refers to a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences.

Neuroticism: This is a personality trait of junior high school teachers who exhibit unpleasant emotions, such as anger, anxiety, depression or vulnerability.

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Openness: It refers to characteristics such as imagination, insight displayed by junior high school teachers who also tend to have a broad range of interests.

Personality traits: These refer to those characteristics of junior high school teachers that account for consistent patterns of feeling, thinking and behaving.

Public junior high school teachers: These are professional teachers who teach at junior high schools established, funded and controlled by the government of Ghana.

Rural junior high school teachers: These are public professional teachers who teach at a locality that is either far or not too far from an urban area, that has settlement patterns characterized by isolation, extractive economic activities and a population of fewer than 5,000 inhabitants.

Self-efficacy: This refers to the belief that junior high school teachers can bring about desired instructional outcomes, students' engagement and classroom management practices.

Urban junior high school teachers: These are public professional teachers who teach in areas lauded for being healthier, safer and a population of more than 5,000 inhabitants with fewer textbooks and inadequate infrastructure.

Organization of the rest of the Study

The study was organized into five chapters, with a list of references and appendices at the end of the last chapter. Chapter Two of the study focused on the review of related literature, by providing the theoretical framework/conceptual base for the study. Also, the chapter contained an empirical review related to the issues under investigation. Chapter Three discussed the methodology including a description of the research design, the

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population, the sample and sampling procedure, research instruments, validity and reliability of the research instruments, as well as data collection and data analysis procedures. Chapter Four analysed the hypotheses, presented, and discussed the results with appropriate literature; it also consists of the discussion of the preliminary results and research hypotheses. Finally, Chapter Five focused on the summary, conclusion and recommendations of the study. Suggested areas for further research were also captured in this chapter.

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CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter reviews related literature, the underpinning theories that inform the basis of the study, such as the social cognitive career theory, self-efficacy theory, the job characteristics model of job satisfaction, Herzberg two-factor theory of motivation, Locke's (1976) theory on job satisfaction, the Big Five Personality traits "model. The chapter includes the conceptual framework for this study.

The chapter also considers an empirical review, including the influence of the Big Five Personality traits on job satisfaction, the influence of self-efficacy on job satisfaction, the influence of personality traits on self-efficacy, gender and personality traits, gender and self-efficacy as well as the influence of job satisfaction on gender, rural/ urban differences and personality traits, rural/urban differences and self-efficacy, rural/urban differences and job satisfaction, job satisfaction among Ghanaian teachers and empirical studies on dispositional source of job satisfaction were also reviewed.

Social Cognitive Career Theory

According to Bandura (1986), in conceptualizing the personal determinants of career development within the triadic causal system, social cognitive career theory incorporates three central variables: (1) self-efficacy (2) outcome expectations and (3) personal goals. These three variables are seen as the basic "building blocks" of career development, and they represent critical mechanisms by which people can exercise individual agency. Of the

three, self-efficacy has received the most attention in the career literature. Self-efficacy refers to people's beliefs about their capabilities "to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (Bandura, 1986, p. 391).

According to Bandura (1986), self-efficacy is not a unitary, fixed, or decontextualized trait; instead, it involves a dynamic set of self-beliefs that are specific to particular performance domains, and that interact in a complex way with other people, behaviour and environmental factors. Although the specific effects of these sources on self-efficacy depend on several factors, personal attainments are typically seen as the most potent or compelling source of self-efficacy. The experience of success with a given task or performance domain tends to raise self-efficacy, whereas repeated failures lower them.

The second theoretical position of the social cognitive career theory by Bandura (1986) is outcome expectations. These outcome expectations include several types of beliefs about response outcomes, such as beliefs about extrinsic reinforcement (receiving tangible rewards for successful performance), self-directed consequences (such as pride in oneself for mastering a challenging task) and outcomes derived from the process of performing a given activity (for instance, absorption in the task itself). Outcome expectations are acquired through learning experiences similar to those that inform self-efficacy. For example, outcome expectations regarding particular career actions derived from people's appraisal of the outcomes (such as rewards) they received for performing relevant activities in the past; observation of the results produced by other people; attention to self-generated outcomes (such as self-approval) and the reactions of others; and sensitivity to

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physical cues (such as level of emotional arousal or sense of well-being) during task performance. Outcome expectations are probably also influenced by self-efficacy when outcomes are determined by the quality of one's performance.

The third and the final theoretical position by Bandura (1986) is personal goals. Personal goals may be defined as the determination to engage in a particular activity or to affect a specific future outcome (Bandura, 1986). By setting personal goals, people help to organize, guide and sustain their behaviour, even though overly long intervals, without external reinforcement. In that regard, goals constitute a critical mechanism through which people exercise personal agency or self- empowerment. Although environmental events and personal history undoubtedly help shape behaviour, the behaviour is not wholly determined by the difficulties of a nonspecific reinforcement history, by genes, or by other non-volitional factors. Behaviour is also motivated, in part, by people's self-directed goals and by the other social-cognitive factors with which goals interrelate. Bandura (1986) presents a complex interplay among goals, self-efficacy and outcome expectations in the self-regulation of behaviour. For example, self-efficacy and outcome expectations affect the goals that one selects and the effort expended in their pursuit. Personal goals, in turn, influence the development of self-efficacy and outcome expectations (for example, goal attainment enhances self-efficacy). As with outcome expectations, goals (defined in various ways) are represented in a variety of other psychological theories, such as the theory of work motivation and performance. The goal construct also plays an important role,

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if generally implicit, in virtually all theories of career choice and decision making

Self-Efficacy Theory

The next theory considered in this study was the self-efficacy theory. In the description of the human cognitive self-regulation system, self-efficacy beliefs are the most central and pervasive influence on the choices people make, their goals, the amount of effort they apply to a particular task, how long they persevere at a task in the face of failure or difficulty, the amount of stress they experience, and the degree to which they are susceptible to depression. Self-efficacy is a central tenet of Bandura's (1977) social cognitive theory. Self-efficacy is the belief, or confidence, that one can successfully execute a behaviour required to produce an outcome such that the higher the level of self-efficacy, the more an individual believes he or she can act to obtain the particular outcome (Bandura, 1977). People usually avoid situations considered to exceed their abilities and get involved, without hesitation, in activities for which they feel capable (Bandura, 1977).

A central idea posed in social cognitive theory is that successful experiences raise self-efficacy but repeated failures lower self-efficacy. Moreover, enhanced self-efficacy, secondary to repeated successes, often generalizes to new situations (Bandura, 1977). Bandura (1997) described self-efficacy as a person's judgment of his or her ability to achieve or accomplish action and support the importance of a determinant for behavioural performance. The beliefs are that people with high self-efficacy hold influence on what they feel and think about others, thus motivating them into action. In other words, individuals who are capable of performing a given behaviour are

often found to be socially engaged in rendering supportive services to peers, family relatives and others in a target behaviour more frequently than those who feel unskilled (Bandura, 1997). For instance, self-efficacy is related to specific situations and tasks, rather than a personality trait, which is because it is rather a temporary characteristic since individuals sometimes identify behaviours that they would like to change and activities in which they would like to participate. However, most people realize that a gap exists between their desire to make a change and their ability to put that desire into action.

Self-efficacy plays a critical role in closing the gap between thought and action, aiding individuals in moving towards behavioural changes. People who receive and accept positive verbal encouragement from others demonstrate a reduction in self-doubt and therefore present a higher self-efficacy. Acquiring the ability to minimize negative thoughts and keeping a positive outlook when facing difficult or challenging tasks helps individuals achieve a level of self-efficacy, and lower their negative emotional arousal as well as social relationships (Bandura, 1977). Strong self-efficacy beliefs enhance human accomplishments and personal well-being in many ways. People with a strong sense of personal competence in a domain approach difficult tasks in that domain as challenges to be mastered rather than as dangers to be avoided. They have a tremendous intrinsic interest in activities as they set challenging goals and maintain a strong commitment to them. Such people heighten their efforts in the face of failure, and they more quickly recover their confidence after failures or setbacks. Furthermore, such individuals attribute failure to insufficient effort or deficient knowledge and

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skills, which they believe they are capable of acquiring. High self-efficacy helps create feelings of serenity in approaching difficult tasks and activities.

Conversely, people with low self-efficacy may believe that things are tougher than they are; a belief that fosters stress, depression and a narrow vision of the best way to solve a problem. As a result of these influences, self-efficacy beliefs are strong determinants and predictors of the level of accomplishment that an individual finally attains. For these reasons, Bandura (1977) made a strong claim that beliefs of personal efficacy constitute factors of the human agency while self-efficacy, in general, refers to one's confidence in executing courses of action in managing a wide range of situations.

Bandura (1977) discusses four sources of information that impact an individual's efficacy, namely, performance accomplishments, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion and emotional arousal. The first source to consider is performance accomplishments. Performance accomplishments provide the most dependable source of efficacy expectations because they are based on one's personal experiences. Successes raise mastery of expectations; repeated failures lower them, especially if the mishaps occur early in the course of events. After strong efficacy expectations are developed through repeated success, the negative impact of occasional failures is likely to be reduced. Indeed, occasional failures that are later overcome by determined effort can strengthen self-motivated persistence through experience that even the most difficult of obstacles can be mastered by a sustained effort. The effects of failure on personal efficacy, therefore, partly depend upon the timing and the total pattern of experiences in which they occur. Once established, efficacy expectancies tend to be generalized to related situations.

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The second source is the vicarious experiences from which many expectations are derived. Seeing others perform risky activities without adverse consequences can create expectations in observers that they too would eventually succeed if they intensify and persist in their efforts. They persuade themselves that if others could do it, they should be able to achieve at least some improvements in performance. Several modelling variables likely to affect mastery expectations have been shown to enhance the disinhibiting power of modelling procedures (Bandura, 1977). Phobias benefit more from seeing fearful models gradually overcome their difficulties by determined effort than from observing facile performances by adept models.

Similarly, the model, as regards other characteristics, can likewise increase the effectiveness of symbolic modelling. Diversified modelling, in which the observer's activities seen as hazardous are repeatedly shown to be safe by a variety of models, is more effective than the same performances by a single model. If people of widely differing characteristics can succeed, then observers have a reasonable basis for increasing their sense of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977).

The third source of self-efficacy is verbal persuasion. In one's attempt to influence human behaviour, verbal persuasion is widely used because of its ease and ready availability. People are led, through persuasive suggestion, into believing they can cope successfully with what has overwhelmed them in the past. Efficacy expectations induced in this manner are likely to be weak and short-lived. In the face of distressing threats and a long history of failure in coping with them, whatever success expectations are induced by suggestion would be rapidly extinguished by disconfirming experiences. "Results of

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several lines of research attest to the weakness of verbal persuasion in that it creates expectations without providing an authentic experiential base for them.

The ultimate source of self-efficacy is emotional arousal likely to influence efficacy expectations in threatening situations. People rely partly on their state of physiological arousal in judging their anxiety and vulnerability to stress. Because high arousal usually debilitates performance, individuals are more likely to expect success when they are not beset by aversive arousal than when they are tense, shaking and viscerally agitated. Fear reactions generate further fear (Bandura, 1986).

The Job Characteristics Model of Job Satisfaction

The job characteristics model of job satisfaction is the third theory for consideration in this study. According to Hackman and Oldham (1976), the job characteristic model identified five characteristics of the job: namely, skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. "Skill variety is concerned with the variation in the job, and the unique skills and talents needed for a specific task. The second is the task identity, related to the uniqueness of the task, followed by task significance which refers to the impact that particular job has on employees' life and the lives of other people. Another characteristic of the job is autonomy, which is connected within dependence, discretion and the freedom given to the individual in planning and specifying the procedure to be used in carrying out a task.

Last but not least, feedback includes information about the effectiveness of performance and moral rewards after the accomplishment of a goal. Hackman and Oldman (1976) contended that enhancing these five

features would lead to job enrichment, increased autonomy, job enlargement and increased responsibility, which in turn positively impact on job attitude. Conversely, studies showed that job redesign does not necessarily increase job satisfaction. Argyle (1989) found that increased responsibility only increased job satisfaction when accompanied by increased pay and other incentives.

The above dimensions are "connected with high levels of intrinsic motivators, high efficiency, high job satisfaction, and low level of turnover and absenteeism. This model has been criticized because it investigated only positive-motivated aspects in work, leaving out dimensions of job that present dysfunctions repeatedly" (Hackman & Oldham, 1975).

Herzberg's (1959) Two-Factor Theory of Motivation

In 1959, Frederick Herzberg, a behavioural scientist, proposed a two-factor theory or the motivator-hygiene theory. According to Herzberg, some job factors result in satisfaction, while other job factors prevent dissatisfaction. According to Herzberg, the opposite of "Satisfaction" is "No satisfaction" and the opposite of "Dissatisfaction" is "No Dissatisfaction". Herzberg (1959) classified these job factors into two categories; Hygiene factors and motivation factors

Hygiene factors are those job factors which are essential for the existence of motivation at the workplace. These do not lead to real satisfaction in the long-term. But if these factors are non-existent at the workplace, then they lead to dissatisfaction. In other words, hygiene factors are those factors which, when adequate/reasonable in a job, pacify the employees and do not make them dissatisfied. These factors are extrinsic to work. Hygiene factors are also called maintenance factors as they are required to avoid

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dissatisfaction. These factors describe the job environment/scenario. The hygiene factors symbolized the physiological needs which the individuals wanted and expected to be fulfilled. Hygiene factors include: Pay: The pay or salary structure should be appropriate and reasonable. It must be equal and competitive in the same industry in the same domain. Company Policies and administrative policies - The company policies should not be too rigid. They should be fair and transparent and should include flexible working hours, dress code, breaks, vacation and so on. Fringe benefits - The employees' health care plans (medical claims), benefits for family members, employee help programmes should also be considered. Physical Working conditions - The working conditions should be safe, clean and hygienic. The work equipment should be updated and well-maintained. Status - The employees' status within the organization should be familiar and retained. Interpersonal relations - The relationship of the employees with his peers, superiors and subordinates should be appropriate and acceptable. There should be no conflict or humiliation element. Job Security - The organization must provide job security to the employees

Motivational factors- According to Herzberg (1959), hygiene factors cannot be regarded as motivators. The motivational factors yield positive satisfaction that is inherent in work. These factors, called satisfiers, motivate employees for superior performance. These are factors involved in performing the job which employees consider as intrinsically rewarding. The motivators symbolized the psychological needs that were perceived as an additional benefit. Motivational factors include: Recognition - The employees should be praised and recognized for their accomplishments by the managers. Sense of

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achievement - The employees must have a sense of achievement, depending on the job. There must be a fruit of some sort in the position. Growth and promotional opportunities - There must be growth and advancement opportunities in an organization to motivate the employees to perform well. Responsibility - The employees must hold themselves responsible for the work. The managers should give them ownership of the work; they should minimize control but retain accountability. Meaningfulness of the work - The work itself should be meaningful, exciting and challenging for the employee to perform and to get motivated.

The two-factor theory is not free from limitations: The two-factor argument overlooks situational variables. Herzberg (1959) assumed a correlation between satisfaction and productivity. But the research conducted by Herzberg stressed upon satisfaction and ignored productivity. The theory's reliability is uncertain. Analysis has to be made by the raters who are likely to spoil the findings by analysing the same responses differently. No comprehensive measure of satisfaction was used. An employee may find his job acceptable although he may hate/object part of his job. The two-factor theory is not free from bias as it is based on the natural reaction of employees when they are questioned about the sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction at work. They will blame dissatisfaction on the external factors such as salary structure, company policies and peer relationship. On the other hand, the employees will give credit to themselves for the satisfaction factor at work. The theory ignores blue-collar workers.

Despite these limitations, Herzberg's Two-Factor theory is acceptable broadly. The Two-Factor theory implies that managers must stress upon

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guaranteeing the adequacy of the hygiene factors to avoid employee dissatisfaction. Also, managers must make sure that the work is stimulating and rewarding so that employees are motivated to work and perform harder and better. This theory emphasizes job-enrichment to motivate employees. The job must utilize employees' skills and competencies to the maximum. Focusing on motivational factors can improve work-quality. The most significant and fundamental difference between Herzberg's Two Factor Theory is the inherent level of satisfaction and dissatisfaction within each factor. If motivation includes only those things which promote action over time, then motivators are the factors that promote long-running attitudes and satisfaction. According to Herzberg (1959), motivators cause positive job attitudes because they satisfy the worker's need for self-actualization, the individual's ultimate goal. The presence of these motivators has the potential to create excellent job satisfaction; however, in the absence of motivators, Herzberg (1959) says, dissatisfaction does not occur. Likewise, hygiene factors, which simply "move" (cause temporary action), have the potential to cause great discontent. Similarly, their absence does not provoke a high level of satisfaction. How does Herzberg base this non-bipolar relationship? Job satisfaction contains two separate and independent dimensions which are not on differing ends of one continuum; instead, they consist of two separate and distinct continua.

In today's litigious society, most managers will probably deal less and less with workers utilizing negative physical 'kick-in-the-act', or physical contact to initiate action out of a lazy employee. Negative psychological 'kick-in-the-act' is also rather useless in motivating workers; the primary benefit,

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though malicious, is the feeding of one's ego, also known as a power trip. Positive 'kick-in-the-act' can be summarized in one word – reward. The relationship is "if…, then…" That is to say, ''If you finish this task in one week, then you will receive this bonus''; many managers give incentives to motivate, but Herzberg says that positive 'kick- in- the -act' is not motivational. Positive 'kick-in-the-act', instead, moves or stimulates movement. When the worker receives the bonus on completion of the task, is the individual any more motivated to work harder now? Was there a lasting effect because of the conditional bonus? No, the worker was simply moved temporarily to act. There are, however, no extended effects once the bonus is received. Recalling motivator factors, Herzberg (1959) concludes that only these factors can have a lasting impression on a worker's attitude, satisfaction and, therefore, work. Furthermore, workers perform best when this stimulation is internal and work-related.

Locke's (1976) Theory of Job Satisfaction

Locke's composite theory of job satisfaction is the product of many other concepts which he developed through study and research on related topics such as goalsetting and employee performance. Likewise, his explanation of job satisfaction is, in part, a response to some of Herzberg's proposals. Thus, Locke's criticism of Herzberg will be the initial discussion, followed by his theory on values, agent/event factors, and finally, an adjusted view of job satisfaction. Criticisms of Locke's (1976) assessment of Herzberg (1959) Two-Factor Theory can be summarized in brief by the following conclusions about Herzberg's thinking: 1) Job satisfaction and dissatisfaction result from different causes. 2) The two-factor theory is parallel to the dual

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theory of man's needs, which states that physical needs (like those of animals) work in conjunction with hygiene factors, and psychological needs or growth needs (unique to humans) and work alongside motivators (Locke, 1976). With these propositions as the basis for Locke's understanding of Herzberg, the following is a list of Locke's criticisms: mind-body dichotomy; unidirectional operation of needs; lack of parallel between man's requirements and the motivation and hygiene factors incident classification system; defensiveness; the use of frequency data; denial of individual differences.

According to Locke's (1976) first critique, Herzberg's view of man's nature implies a split between the psychological and biological processes of the human make-up; the two function apart, not related to each other. On the contrary, Locke (1976) proposes that the mind and body are very closely related. It is through the mind that the human body discovers the nature of its physical and psychological needs, and how they may be satisfied. Locke suggests the proof that the basic need for survival, a biological need, is only reached through the use of the mind. Concerning Herzberg's correlation between hygiene motivators, physical and psychological needs, it can be inferred that the first set is unidirectional, and so are physical and psychological needs (Locke, 1976). Locke notes there is no justification for this conclusion. Providing the example of the physical need of hunger, he writes that acts like eating can serve not only as aversions of hunger pangs but also as pleasures for the body. The third criticism which pertains directly to the previous two is simply the lack of a parallel relationship between the two groupings of factors and needs (Locke, 1976). Their relation is hazy and overlapping in several instances. A new company policy (hygiene) may have a

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significant effect on a worker's interest in the work itself or his/her success with it. The correlation lacks a clear line of distinction. Locke's critique of Herzberg's classification system (Locke, 1976), common to the preceding criticism, claims that the two-factor theory is, in itself, inconsistent in categorizing factors of satisfaction. The two-factor theory merely splits the spectra of satisfaction into two sections. For example, if an employee is given a new task (which is deemed a motivator), this is considered responsible. However, if a manager will not delegate the duty, the situation takes the label of supervision-technical. Locke states that the breakup of one element (such as responsibility) into two different types of factors results from the confusion between the event and the agent. The phenomenon of defensiveness (Locke, 1976) is a further criticism of Herzberg's work, whereby the employees interviewed tended to take credit for the satisfying events such as advancement or recognition, while blaming others such as supervisors, subordinates, peers, and even policy, for dissatisfying situations. Locke does not feel that Herzberg addressed this fallacy sufficiently for the importance it has in assessing the validity of his results. Herzberg's use of frequency data emphasized the number of times a particular factor was mentioned. However, as the scope of 203 accountants and engineers was narrow, it is likely that many workers, though unique, experienced similar difficulties. Herzberg (1959) concludes that those most listed are the most satisfying or dissatisfying. Even though, for example, a dissatisfying factor is recorded numerously, this does not necessarily imply that this factor is a significant problem or even irritates a worker as much as an infrequent problem which causes a higher level of dissatisfaction. Locke suggests the measurement of intensity rather

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than frequency (Locke, 1976). For instance, an employee could mention a time when he or she succeeded or failed and rank its level of intensity. Concurrent with the previous criticism, the denial of individual differences pertains to the incorrect minimization of diversity within the sample. Locke (1976) concedes that though an individual's needs may be similar, his or her values are not. Values, furthermore, have the most significant impact on the emotional response to one's job. Therefore, since individuals have unique values and do not place the same importance on money or promotion, for example, the study deprives them of what makes them distinct from others. Values are of crucial importance in Locke's theory of job satisfaction, as evidenced in his response to Herzberg's theory.

Distinguishing values from needs, Locke (1976) contends that they have more in common with goals. Both values and goals have content and intensity characteristics. The content attribute answers the question of what is valued while the intensity attribute answers how much is valued. Concerning finding satisfaction in one's job, the employee who performs adequately on the job is the individual who decides to pursue his or her values. Though Locke's discussion continues into more technical areas, the section presents his conceptualization of values in contrast to needs. As values are a point at which Locke's theory of job satisfaction begins to separate from the theory of Herzberg, so too are agent and event factors as sources of divergence between the two theorists.

Agent/event factors: an event, or condition, is that which causes an employee to experience satisfaction (Locke, 1976). An agent refers to that which causes an event to occur (Locke, 1976). Events, therefore, are

motivators, in Herzberg's terms. Conditions such as success/failure or responsibility to motivate workers and have the potential to evoke satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Agents, conversely, are comparable to hygiene factors; the customer or supervisor, for instance, causes an event, which then causes a feeling of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Whereas Herzberg's factors limit the chance of equal outcomes for positive and negative results, the event categories include both positive and negative possibilities for satisfaction (Locke, 1976). The clarification of factors which motivate versus the means through which the motivation occurs leads to an adjusted view of job satisfaction/dissatisfaction.

An adjusted view of job satisfaction/ dissatisfaction defines the phenomenon as a positive emotional state (Locke, 1976) which results from the appraisal of one's job experiences. Satisfaction (Locke, 1976), then, "becomes a function of the perceived discrepancy between intended and actual performance, or the degree to which one's performance is discrepant with one's set of values. The closer the expected is to the outcome, and the greater the achievement of one's values, the higher the satisfaction (Locke, 1976). As long as the agents mentioned above can be viewed as facilitators in the attainment of the worker's goals and the acknowledgement of the worker's values, the employee will be satisfied.

The Big Five Personality Model

Costa and McCrae (1992), classify individuals' personality characteristics into a Five-Factor Personality model. The dimensions of the Five-Factor Personality Model are extraversion, neuroticism, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience. Extraversion is explained to

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mean the degree to which an individual is friendly, gregarious, talkative, assertive, adventurous, active, energetic and ambitious. Extroverts develop psychological contracts that reflect their hard work, commitment and willingness to work with others. They are also sociable, assertive, active, talkative, and people-oriented; they are also interested in interacting with others and can maintain interpersonal relationships. Extroverts are also very energetic and are fine with challenges. Being reserved, task-oriented and quiet are considered traits of highly introverted people. Extraversion is widely construed as sociability.

The second personality trait explained by Costa and McCrae (1992) is Neuroticism. They conceptualized neuroticism as the extent to which a person is emotional, insecure, nervous, fearful and apprehensive. They stated that neurotic persons are also limited in social skills; they are not interested in any long-term relationship. Neurotic persons have positive psychological adjustment and emotional stability. Individuals scoring high on measures of neuroticism are frequently characterized as fearful, anxious, and depressed. These tendencies might make employees that are high on neuroticism more likely to engage in withdrawal behaviours, for instance, failing to come to work frequently.

The third personality trait, according to Costa and McCrae (1992), is Agreeableness. They indicate that agreeableness is associated with "the need for intimacy", the recurrent preference in thought and behaviour for the experience of warm, close and communicative interactions with others. Individuals high in agreeableness are trusting, cooperative, altruistic, compliant and "moved by others". High agreeable individuals may, in their

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pursuit of harmonious relations, generate more positive attributions to otherwise provocative behaviour than low-agreeable persons would do. Agreeableness is related to "pro-social motives", aimed at seeking good outcomes for one as well as for other group members. Costa and McCrae (1992) further argued that agreeableness should be related to happiness because agreeable individuals have greater motivation to achieve interpersonal intimacy, which should lead to higher levels of well-being. Agreeable individuals get along with co-workers in enjoyable ways which should lead to higher levels of job satisfaction.

The fourth personality dimension, according to Costa and McCrae (1992), is ¨Conscientiousness. Conscientiousness refers to self-control and the active process of planning, organizing and carrying out tasks. The conscientious person is purposeful, strong-willed and determined. Conscientiousness is related to achievement orientation (hardworking and persistent), dependability (responsible and careful) and orderliness (playful and organized). On the negative side, high Conscientiousness may lead to annoying fastidiousness, compulsive neatness or workaholic behaviour. Costa and McCrae (1992) revealed further that conscientiousness should be related to job satisfaction because it represents a general work involvement tendency and thus leads to a higher likelihood of obtaining satisfying work rewards, both formal (example; pay, promotions) and informal (example; recognition, respect, feelings of personal accomplishment). An individual that rates high on conscientiousness is known as tidy, self-disciplined and determined. He/she prefers to perform well in their work; they are also known as scrupulous,

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punctual and reliable. Low conscientious individuals are unreliable, lazy, lax, weak-willed and hedonistic (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

The fifth and last personality dimension, according to Costa and McCrae (1992)   is Openness to Experience. Openness to experience includes the following: active imagination, aesthetic sensitivity, and attentiveness to inner feelings, a preference for variety, intellectual curiosity and independence of judgment. People scoring low on Openness tend to be conventional in behaviour and conservative in outlook. They prefer the familiar to the novel, and their emotional responses are somewhat muted. People scoring high on Openness tend to be unconventional, willing to question authority and prepared to entertain new ethical, social and political ideas. Open individuals are curious about both inner and outer worlds, and their lives are experientially richer. They are willing to entertain novel ideas and unconventional values, and they experience both positive and negative emotions more keenly than do closed individuals.

Conceptual Framework
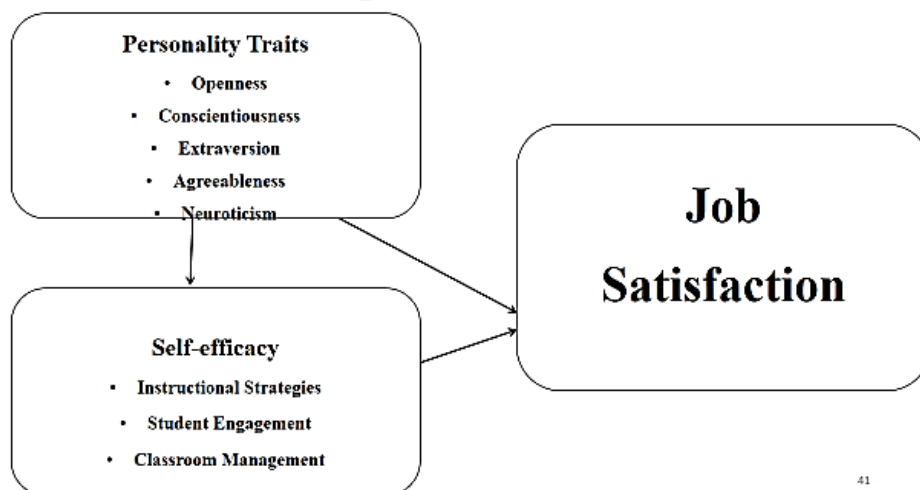
Figure 1: Conceptual Framework on Influence of personality traits, self-efficacy on the job satisfaction of junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District.

The Conceptual Framework for the present study was derived from the social cognitive career theory proposed by Lent and Brown (2006). According to the Lent and Brown (2006) model, there are five interrelated key elements: personality traits, self-efficacy, goal-directed activity, work conditions and environmental support which are related to job satisfaction. The present conceptual framework considered two of these interrelated vital elements, namely, personality traits and self-efficacy. The study explains that personality traits are those characteristics of basic school teachers that account for consistent patterns of feeling, thinking and behaving. These regular patterns of feeling, thinking and behaving include the following: (a) conscientiousness (b) openness (c) extraversion (d) agreeableness and (e) neuroticism. "These personality trait variables are linked to job satisfaction. The other component, which is also linked to job satisfaction is self –efficacy, explained as teachers' belief or ability to bring about desired instructional outcomes. These beliefs of teachers to bring about desired instructional outcomes also include (a) efficacy to influence instructional strategies, (b) efficacy to influence classroom management and, (c) efficacy to influence student engagement. These self-efficacy variables are also linked to job satisfaction. The conceptual framework also indicates that teachers' personality traits influenced their self-efficacy, and self-efficacy, in turn, influenced job satisfaction. The present study, therefore, considered the relationship between personality traits and self-efficacy and how they influenced job satisfaction.

The Influence of the Big Five Personality Traits on Job Satisfaction

Some researchers think that personality traits are correlated to job satisfaction (Judge, Locke & Durham, 1997; Locke, 1976). Staw, Bell and Clausen (1986) revealed that the person who holds a positive emotion and keeps it for a long time has positive job satisfaction. Also, Staw and Ross (1985) discovered that "different timing and work conditions influenced job satisfaction." (Tokar & Subich, 1997) used several different measures to survey the job satisfaction of adults employed in various occupations, and concluded that "the big five personality dimensions contributed significantly to the prediction of job satisfaction. Barrick and Mount (1991) found that conscientiousness was a strong predictor of job performance in occupational groups. Some studies showed that job satisfaction and job performance are positively related and that both are negatively related to turnover rate (McLean & Andrew, 2000).

Sekaran and Mowday (1981) believed that human psychological factors greatly influence job satisfaction. An individual is thought to possess a certain amount of desire or value and, hence, he/she tends to work harder or more involved in their jobs to fulfil their demands or values. Any changes in individuals' possession of certain values or personal characteristics would drive their level of job involvement to vary. According to a study by Mudrack (2004), most of the researches assume that the level of job involvement is highly dependent on the attributes of employees. Freud (as cited in Hung, 2008) viewed job involvement as a fixed variable which critically controlled employees' working attitude, such as job satisfaction, a tendency to resignation, and organizational commitment.

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Hung (2008) stated that job involvement is one's cognitive needs fulfilment, which assists him or her in working harder and boosting up his or her performance. Liao and Lee (2009) noted that a higher degree of job involvement among the members of an organization is essential to enhance organizational effectiveness. Job involvement has been of immense interest to researchers and has been related to various workplace variables.

One of the well-presented correlations of job involvement is job satisfaction (Baba & Jamal, 1991), which states that a person with high job involvement would exhibit a healthy level of job satisfaction. As far as the relationship of personality with job involvement is concerned, not much empirical evidence establishing the relationship between the Big Five personality framework and job involvement is available. The study by Liao and Lee (2009) established the relationship between personality traits and job involvement. They found out that neuroticism relates negatively to employee job involvement, whereas extroversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness relate positively to it.

Eswaran, Islam and Yusuf (2011) examined the relationship between the Big Five Personality Dimensions and job involvement. In their study, they found out that extroversion and agreeableness were significantly positively related to job involvement.

Agbor, Nwankwo, Iroegbu, Obi and Agu (2013) investigated the relationship between Big Five personality traits and job involvement of university lecturers in South-east Nigeria. The findings revealed that high scores on conscientiousness and low scores on neuroticism were significant predictors of job involvement. The relationship of each of the Big Five traits

and job involvement can be best understood from the review of existing literature as captured in the succeeding paragraphs.

According to Botwin and Buss (1989), Conscientiousness or Conscience is referred to as conformity or dependability. Because of its relationship to a variety of educational achievement measures and its association with volition, it is also called Will to Achieve or Will (Peabody & Goldberg, 1989). As the disparity in labels suggests, there is some disagreement regarding the essence of this dimension. Botwin and Buss (1989) have suggested that conscientiousness reflects dependability; that is, being careful, thorough, responsible, organized, and playful. Others have suggested that in addition to these traits, it in hardworking volitional variables, such as hardworking, achievement-oriented and persevering. Based on the evidence cited by Digman (1990), the preponderance of evidence supports the definition of conscientiousness as including these volitional aspects (McCrae & Costa, 1985; Smith, 1967). Conscientiousness refers to self-control and the active process of planning, organizing and carrying out tasks (Barrick & Mount, 1993). The conscientious person is purposeful, strong-willed and determined. Conscientiousness is related to achievement orientation (hardworking and persistent), dependability (responsible and careful) and orderliness (playful and organized). On the negative side, high conscientiousness may lead to annoying fastidiousness, compulsive neatness or workaholic behaviour. Low scorers may not necessarily lack moral principles, but they are less exacting in applying them. Borman, White, Pulakos and Oppler (1991) and Hough (1990) found a correlation of 0.80 between reliability (an aspect of Conscientiousness) and job performance.

Various researchers such as Barrick and Mount (1991), Ones and Viswesvaran (2000) reported significant correlations between conscientiousness and job performance.

According to Sackett and Wannek (1996), the relationship between conscientiousness and job performance could be attributed to the conceptual relationship between conscientiousness and integrity. Furthermore, autonomy and goal setting influence the relationship between conscientiousness and job performance. Barrick and Mount (1993) argued that conscientiousness should be related to job satisfaction because it represents a general work involvement tendency and thus leads to a greater likelihood of obtaining satisfying work rewards, both formal (example, pay, promotions) and informal (example, recognition, respect, feelings of personal accomplishment). Indirectly, the subjective well-being literature also suggests a positive relationship between conscientiousness and job satisfaction   (DeNeve & Cooper, 1998).

Organ and Lingl (1995) argued that conscientiousness should be related to job satisfaction because it represents a general work involvement tendency and thus leads to a greater likelihood of obtaining satisfying work rewards, both formal (pay, promotions) and informal (example; recognition, respect, feelings of personal accomplishment). Indirectly, the subjective well-being literature also suggests a positive relationship between conscientiousness and job satisfaction (DeNeve & Cooper, 1998). Judge and Ilies' (2002) research indicate that conscientious individuals exhibit a higher level of motivation and job satisfaction. Few researchers reported a relationship between conscientiousness and job satisfaction. Judge (1997); Nikolaou and Robertson (2001); Kappagoda (2013), Barrick and Mount

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(1991) mentioned that conscientious individuals have been hardworking as dependable, responsible, hard-working, self-disciplined, persistent, playful and organized. Similarly, Costa and McCrae (1992) mentioned that conscientious people value duty, competence, self-discipline and achievement.

Moreover, Costa and McCrae (1992) mentioned that conscientiousness consists of the specific traits of competence, order, dutifulness, achievement striving, self-discipline and deliberation. Based on Barrick & Mount (1995)'work, individuals high in conscientiousness are characterized as being responsible, hardworking, reserving, orderly, cautious, diligent and achievement-oriented.

As stated by Wright (2003), people high in conscientiousness have a sense of duty and obligation to their work and have high job performance, career success, motivation and job satisfaction. However, Harris and Fleming (2005) submitted that conscientiousness refers to characteristics such as being organized, orderly, precise and efficient. Manning (2006) stated that conscientious is about the number of goals that an individual pursues and the extent to which they pursue them in a focused way. The two extremes are spontaneous individuals, who pursue many goals but in an unfocused way, and the conscientious individuals, who pursue fewer goals but do so in a more focused, controlled and structured way.

Individuals that rate high on conscientiousness are known to be tidy, self-disciplined and determined. They plan to perform well in whatever they do. They are also known as scrupulous, punctual and reliable. Low conscientious individuals are unreliable, lazy, lax, weak-willed and hedonistic (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Personal competence, dutifulness, self-discipline

and deliberation are the characteristics of conscious people frequently described as purposeful, strong-willed, determined, punctual, and reliable. The notion of self-control is regarded as a critical component of conscientiousness (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Because of their achievement orientation, conscientious people are motivated to perform on the job.

According to Barrick and Mount (1991), conscientiousness is the ability of the individual to work hard and be motivated to pursue a goal. According to Costa and McCrae (1992), a conscientious personality dimension is constituted by competence, order, self-discipline, dutifulness, achievement striving and deliberation. These descriptors are similar to the component of work commitment; thus, conscientiousness is associated with a work commitment. Meta-analytic studies suggest that conscientiousness is the most potent and consistent correlate of job performance across all types of jobs and occupations (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Judge and Ilies' (2004) study reveal that conscientiousness is instrumental to people's work success, as well as their motivation to get along, and their desire to be productive. Li, Lin and Chen (2007) noted that employees scoring high on conscientiousness are more likely to believe that their work has a special meaning, so, they experience greater psychological attachment to their jobs. Liao and Lee (2009) & Agbor, Nwankwo, Iroegbu, Obi & Agu (2013) reported a significant positive relationship between conscientiousness and job satisfaction.

According to Williams, Gavin, and Williams (1997), extroverts tend to be high in positive affectivity, self-efficacy and optimism. Tallman and Bruning (2008) stated that extroverts' need for power and recognition might also cause them to take more risks in the job, and they would expect the

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organization to support their work activities. Besides, Tallman and Bruning (2008) also stated that people high in extroversion tend to be top performers and committed to the organization and their work. They are likely to develop psychological contracts that reflect their hard work, commitment and willingness to work with others. Being sociable, assertive, active, talkative, and people-oriented is considered for high extroverted people. They are interested in interacting with others and could maintain interpersonal relationships.

It was found that extroversion is a valid predictor of performance in jobs such as teaching, salesmanship and management and are characterized by social interaction (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Johnson, Null, Butcher and Johnson (1984) found a positive relationship between extroversion and job performance of police personnel. They explained this relationship in terms of the high level of interaction in the police service. Extroverts are predisposed to experiencing positive emotions (Costa & McCrae, 1992); positive emotionality likely generalizes to job satisfaction, as demonstrated by Connolly and Viswesvaran's (2000) meta-analysis of PA–job satisfaction relationships. Evidence also indicates that extroverts have more friends and spend more time on social situations than do introverts. Moreover, because of their social facility, they are likely to find interpersonal interactions (such as those that occur at work) more rewarding (Watson & Clark, 1997).

The review of literature on Big Five and job satisfaction shows us that personality factors such as extroversion and, especially, neuroticism have an indirect, as well as direct influence on job satisfaction. DeNeve and Cooper (1998) noted that extroverted individuals are emotionally firm, that is why

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they possess contented personality. A meta-analysis by Connolly and Viswesvaran (2000) demonstrated that extroverts are more likely to experience positive emotions that would then lead to a higher level of job satisfaction. The Research by Judge and Hullin (1993) indicated that extroverted individuals possess a pleasant personality, seem to perform well in salesmanship, customer service and managerial jobs; they tend to do better in training programmes and usually have higher levels of job satisfaction. Judge and IIies (2004) noted that extroverted employees have better utilization of their competencies than those with low extroversion, hence enabling these extroverts to achieve better work efficacy.

Soni (2003) noted that employees who are more stable and introverted tend to be more satisfied with achievement, as well as human and technical supervision at the workplace. It has also been established that extraverted and sociable individuals in an organization are less satisfied with human oversight. Most of the researchers noted a significant positive relationship between extraversion and job satisfaction (Nikolaou & Robertson, 2001; Husin & Zaidi, 2011; Kappagoda, 2013). In a recent study, Shahamiri and Namdari (2013) found a significant positive correlation between job satisfaction and introversion personality types. Still, between extraversion personality types and job satisfaction, the relationship was negative and significant.

In a study conducted by Suls, Green and Hillis (1998), 48 healthy adult males were asked to keep detailed diaries of their problems and moods over their jobs for eight days. The result showed that those (males) who scored high in neuroticism reported having more frequent daily problems with their involvement in their job and finding them to be more distressing than did men

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who scored low in neuroticism. Liao and Lee (2009) found a negative correlation between neuroticism and psychoticism and job involvement. However, a study by Eswaran, Islam and Yusuf (2011) established that neuroticism was not related to job involvement. All in all, scholars believe that neuroticism appears consistently negatively correlated with job satisfaction.

Neuroticism is a dimension of normal personality that indicates the general tendency to experience negative effects such as fear, sadness, embarrassment, anger, guilt and disgust. High scorers may be at risk of some kinds of psychiatric problems. A high neuroticism score indicates that a person is prone to having irrational ideas, being less able to control impulses and coping poorly with stress (Barrick & Mount 1995). A low neuroticism score is indicative of emotional stability, and emotionally stable people are usually calm, even-tempered, relaxed and able to face stressful situations without becoming upset.

Dunn, Mount, Barrick and Ones (1995) showed that emotional stability (the opposite of neuroticism) is the second most important characteristic that affects the employability of candidates. In a recent study, Judge, Higgins, Thoresen and Barrick (1999) found that neuroticism is inversely related to job performance. However, according to Salgado (1997), neuroticism predicts job performance in certain circumstances. Because of their inherently negative nature, neurotic individuals experience more negative life events than other individuals (Magnus, Diener, Fujita & Pavot, 1993) in part because they elect themselves into situations that foster negative effects (Emmons & Diener, 1985). To the extent that such cases occur concerning the job, they would lead to diminished levels of job satisfaction. Neuroticism has been described as the

primary source of Negative affect, and the link between Negative affect and job satisfaction was documented in Connolly and Viswesvaran (2000) meta-analysis.

Neuroticism is always related to the characteristics of people who have negative feelings and low self-esteem. According to Watson and Clark (1997), the negative attitude is defined by a propensity to view the world in a negative emotional state. Similarly, Levin and Stokes (1989) mentioned that individuals high in negative emotions tend to focus on the negative aspects of other people and themselves. George (1996) also stated the same view that individuals high in negative affectivity, a concept related to the neuroticism, are likely to be more pessimistic, taking a negative view of themselves and the world around them. Brockner (1988) also mentioned that persons low in self-esteem and self-efficacy look to others for approval.

Turban and Dougherty (1994) mentioned that individuals with low self-esteem tend to withdraw from challenging situations, are less confident in their abilities, less likely to seek feedback and see themselves as less appealing to others. Judge (1997) mentioned that neuroticism was negatively related to self-esteem, self-efficacy and locus of control. Both of these characteristics are seen by Bernerth, Armenakis, Field, Giles & Jack-Walker (2007) as characteristic in neuroticism, which is composed of several traits including low self-esteem and negative affectivity. However, Costa and McCrae (1992) submit that neuroticism consists of the specific characteristics of anxiety, angry hostility, depression, self-consciousness, impulsiveness and vulnerability.

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According to Barrick, Mount and Judge (2001), neuroticism is "emotional stability" (reverse scale) as explained by some scholars. It can be further conceptualized as the extent to which a person is emotional, insecure, nervous, fearful and apprehensive. Some scholars stated that neurotic persons are also limited in social skills, and they are not interested in any long-term relationship. As reported by Judge (1997), neurotic individuals are severely limited in their social skills. Raja, Johns & Bilgrami (2001) mentioned that the neurotic individuals are not likely to establish long-term relationships that demand commitments, social skills and trust in others.

Neuroticism is generally about a lack of positive psychological adjustment and emotional stability. Individuals scoring high on neuroticism are frequently characterized as fearful, anxious and depressed. These tendencies might make employees high on neuroticism more likely to engage in withdrawal behaviours, for example, failing to come to work frequently. These traits are most widely found in psychology (Judge & Bono, 2001) and collectively, self-esteem, locus of control, and neuroticism are the subjects of more than 50,000 studies. Conceptually, these traits constitute strong similarities (Bono & Judge, 2003).

Individuals with high agreeableness prefer to maintain positive interpersonal relationships and therefore cooperate with others. On the other hand, Digman (1990), Costa and McCrae (1992) submitted that individuals with low agreeableness could be described as manipulative, self-centred, suspicious, and ruthless (as cited in Zhao & Seibert, 2006). Barrick and Mount (1991) and Salgado (1997) noted that a high level of agreeableness has a positive relationship with job satisfaction. Hence, individuals who score low

on agreeableness must be more involved in their work because of their antagonistic and impression-seeking nature, which must direct them towards finding advancement and acknowledgement in their work environment. On the other hand, because of their altruism, modesty and good nature, individuals who score high on agreeableness prioritize relationships with others overwork and career success. Hence, they are less likely to report high involvement in their work. However, Barrick and Mount (1991) further concluded that individuals who score low on agreeableness might demonstrate the type of involvement in their work that is detrimental to work performance such as, they may be primarily involved in informal network building as a means to advance their careers at the expense of engaging in productive activities. On the other hand, because of their altruism and modesty, those who score high on agreeableness are probably less likely to view their work as a means to satisfy ambitious needs and hence, they are less involved in their work. However, Liao and Lee (2009) found a positive correlation between agreeable personality and job satisfaction. Also, Eswaran, Islam and Yusuf (2011) found that agreeableness is positively related to job satisfaction.

A person who scores low on Agreeableness is fundamentally selfless, sympathetic to others and eager to help them and, in return, believes that others will be equally helpful. The disagreeable/antagonistic person is egocentric, sceptical of others' intentions and competitive rather than co-operative. Tett, Jackson and Rothstein (1991) argued that agreeableness is a significant predictor of job performance. Salgado (1997) found that agreeableness is related to training success. The co-operative nature of agreeable individuals may lead to success in occupations, where teamwork

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and customer service are relevant (Judge et al., 1999). McCrae and Costa (1991) concluded that agreeableness should be related to happiness because agreeable individuals have greater motivation to achieve interpersonal intimacy, which should lead to greater levels of well-being. Indeed, they found that agreeableness was positively related to life satisfaction, although at a relatively low level (mean r _ .16). Assuming these same communal motivations exist on the job, then the same process should operate concerning job satisfaction. Organ and Lingl (1995) agreed, commenting that agreeableness "involves getting along with others in pleasant, satisfying relationships" (p. 340).

McCrae and Costa (1991) on their part, argued that agreeableness should be related to happiness because agreeable individuals have greater motivation to achieve interpersonal intimacy which should lead to higher levels of well-being. Individuals who exhibit agreeableness get along with co-workers in enjoyable ways (Organ & Lingl, 1995) which should lead to higher levels of job satisfaction. Rhodes and Hammer (2000) stated that agreeableness is a reliable predictor of job satisfaction. However, very few researchers have found a relationship between agreeableness and job satisfaction (Kappagoda, 2013).

According to Costa and McCrae (1992), agreeableness is associated with "the need for intimacy", the recurrent preference in thought and behaviour for the experience of warm, close and communicative interactions with others. Individuals high in agreeableness are trusting, cooperative, altruistic, compliant and "moved by others". However, Graziano, Gensen-Cambell and Finch (1996) mentioned that high agreeable individuals might, in

their pursuit of harmonious relations, generate more positive attributions to otherwise provocative behaviour than low-agreeable persons would do. According to Barry and Friedman (1998), agreeableness is related to "pro-social motives", aimed at seeking good outcomes for one, as well as for other group members.

Judge and Heller (2002) stated that agreeable individuals have greater motivation to achieve interpersonal intimacy while, Harris and Fleming (2005) mentioned that agreeableness describes courteous, sympathetic, tender-hearted and kind characteristics. In the view of Dijkstra (2005), those who are low in agreeableness are antagonistic, competitive, cynical, callous, ruthless and cruel, and they tend to experience and express hostility. According to Manning (2006), agreeableness is about the extent to which people are sensitive and responsive to others, including the extent to which they will defer to them. The two extremes are, on the one hand, the tough-minded individual, operating predominantly at a thinking level and lacking sensitivity and responsiveness, and on the other, the tender-minded individual, operating predominantly at a feelings level and displaying sensitivity and responsiveness on the other.

Bernerth et al. (2007) have observed that agreeable individuals are described as good-natured, cheerful and caring. An individual high in agreeableness is fundamentally altruistic. Altruistic people are mainly high in terms of agreeableness and would prefer to cooperate with others, and are always interested in helping. Less agreeable individuals are identified as being egocentric, sceptical about the intentions of others, and also competitive, rather than cooperative (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

One of the least studied of the Big Five personality dimensions in terms of job satisfaction, is the ability to be imaginative, unconventional, curious, broad-minded and cultured (Clarke & Robertson, 2005). Most studies did not find any relationship between openness and job involvement. However, Liao and Lee (2009), in their research, noted a positive correlation between openness and job involvement. A longstanding debate exists between psychologists who believe that structural characteristics of the job are the primary determinants of job satisfaction (Kulik, Oldham & Hackman, 1987) and those who believe that personal attributes of the worker are most important (Hackman & Lawler, 1971). However, thousands of traits have been invented in the history of personality research, and scores of traits have been studied about job satisfaction. Although the five-factor model has been researched in many areas of industrial-organizational psychology, there is a virtual dearth of research that had linked the complete taxonomy to job satisfaction until recently when few researchers focused on this relationship. Schneider and Dachler (1978) found that, over time, satisfaction with a job remains unusually stable, which made them believe that it was people's personality that affected their satisfaction with their job, rather than other variables. Staw (1986) studied people's job satisfaction for decades and found that personality assessed in adolescents predicted job satisfaction up to 50 years later.

Furnham and Zacherl (1986) in a study that examined the relationship between Eysenck's personality traits and job satisfaction, found that extraversion correlated positively with overall job satisfaction. In contrast, neuroticism showed negative correlations with some aspects of job

satisfaction. Hulin (1991) argued that personality affects job satisfaction but through the mediation of working conditions. Job satisfaction is a reaction to working conditions which could be improved to increase job satisfaction without manipulating the personality variables (Cook & Brown, 1995).

Tokar and Subich (1997) found that the block of the Big-Five personality dimensions contributed significantly to the prediction of job satisfaction, where higher extraversion and lower neuroticism were unique predictors to higher job satisfaction. Hart (1999) examined a theoretical model that linked neuroticism, extraversion, job satisfaction and non-work satisfaction to overall life satisfaction. Structural equation model determined that life satisfaction was affected by neuroticism, job satisfaction and extraversion.

Tanoff (1999) examined the relationship between personality traits and job satisfaction in a major international corporation. The Five-Factor Model explicitly defined personality features. He concluded that all the factors of the Big Five, except for culture, were related to job satisfaction. The results indicated that the variable neuroticism played a decisive role and portrayed inverse relation with job satisfaction in all but one job category. Neuroticism has been described as the primary source of Negative Affectivity. The link between Negative Affectivity and job satisfaction was also acknowledged in Connolly and Viswesvaran's (2000) meta-analysis. Seibert, Kraimer and Liden (2001) ascribe the Big Five factors in connection with the variable job satisfaction, a prognostic validity as well, but the effects are minor. Similarly, the results of a meta-analysis of stabilities in job

satisfaction done by Dormann and Zapf (2001) also concluded that personality factors play an essential role in job satisfaction.

Heller, Judge and Watson (2002) found correlations of the personality traits with self-rated job satisfaction to be moderate and significant, especially for neuroticism. He further noted that the mostly negative nature of neurotic individuals, the predisposition of extraverts to the experience of positive emotions and the general work-involvement tendency that characterizes conscientious individuals suggest links between these factors and job satisfaction. Judge and Illies (2004) observed with the help of a meta-analysis that "neuroticism" was a significant correlate of job satisfaction followed closely by Conscientiousness and Extraversion. Finally, the other two traits that are -Agreeableness and Openness to Experience displayed relatively weak correlations with job satisfaction. Nikolaou and Robertson (2001) in their study, found Neuroticism to be negatively correlated to job satisfaction, whereas agreeableness showed no relationship to job satisfaction, and extraversion had a statistically significant association. The remaining two dimensions of the Big-Five were also correlated to job satisfaction to a statistically significant level.

Conscientiousness correlated positively to job satisfaction and openness to experience negatively. Furnham, Petrides, Jackson and Cotter (2002) in two studies that investigated the relationships between personality traits and aspects of job satisfaction, found that in both studies, personality accounted for a small percentage of the total variance both in importance ratings and in levels of job satisfaction. They concluded that personality does not have a strong or consistent influence either on what individuals perceive as

important in their work environment or on their levels of job satisfaction. Thomas, Buboltz, and Winkelspecht (2004) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between job characteristics, personality and job satisfaction. They concluded that personality had neither a direct effect on satisfaction nor a moderating effect on the job characteristics-job satisfaction relation. Najafkhani (2007), in his research on the connection between personality traits and job satisfaction, noted that there is a relationship between job satisfaction and personality dimensions. Although this relation is negative for openness variable, it is positive for extraversion. However, no relationship was reported between job satisfaction and neuroticism, agreeableness or conscientiousness.

Lounsbury, Sundstrom, Loveland and Gibson (2003) examined personality traits concerning job satisfaction. They found openness and extraversion to be significantly related to job satisfaction. In research by Matzler and Renzl (2007), a negative relationship was revealed between neuroticism, and agreeableness was positively associated with job satisfaction. A study by Acuna, Gomez and Juristo (2009) analyzed the relationships between personality, team processes, task characteristics, product quality and satisfaction in software development teams. They found that the teams with the highest job satisfaction were precisely the ones whose members scored highest for the personality factors of agreeableness and conscientiousness. Patrick (2010) found a significant positive relationship between extraversion and satisfaction. A significant negative relationship was found between neuroticism and job satisfaction. No significant relationship was found between agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness and job satisfaction. Husin and Zaidi (2011) studied the correlation effects between the Big Five

Personality traits and an employee's job satisfaction. The results indicated a small, positive and significant relationship between the Big Five Personality traits as a whole on an employee's job satisfaction. Openness to experience and extroversion portrayed a significant positive relationship on the employee's job satisfaction. In a research conducted by Zhai, Willis, O'Shea, Zhai and Yang (2013) to examine the effect of the Big Five Personality traits on job satisfaction and subjective wellbeing (SWB), extraversion was found to be the strongest predictor of job satisfaction. The study conducted by Kappagoda (2013) indicated that the personality types of extraversion, agreeableness and conscientiousness of non-academic employees had significant positive relationships with their job satisfaction. Results further showed that neuroticism had a significant negative association with job satisfaction. Insignificant relationships were reported between openness to experience and job satisfaction.

Research has shown that Openness to Experience is related to success in consulting (Hamilton, 1988), training (Barrick & Mount, 1991) and adapting to change (Raudsepp, 1990). In contrast, Johnson (1997) found that successful employees (compared with unsuccessful employees) obtained significantly lower scores on Openness. Tett, Jackson and Rothstein (1991) reported that Openness to Experience is not a valid predictor of job performance. A possible explanation for the contradictory results regarding the relationship between Openness to Experience and job performance is that different jobs have different requirements.

None of these psychological states seems to be closely related to job satisfaction. Furthermore, DeNeve and Cooper (1998) noted that openness to

experience is a 'double-edged sword' that predisposes individuals to feel both the good and the bad more deeply" rendering its directional influence on affective reactions like subjective wellbeing or job satisfaction. Not much empirical research has established this relationship. To the layperson, the fact that personality factors play an essential part in job performance is self-evident. Yet the psychological literature in this regard is equivocal. Schmitt, Gooding, Noe and Kirsch (1984) found in a meta-analysis of validation studies of personality measures an average validity coefficient of r = 0.21. However, Barrick and Mount (1991) concluded that there are grounds for optimism concerning the use of standard personality tests to predict performance and job satisfaction of employees. Hayes, Roehm and Castellano (1994) found that supervisor ratings of specific performance criteria and overall job effectiveness were related positively to Conscientiousness and, inversely, to Openness and Extraversion in a sample of automobile machine operators.

According to Costa and McCrae (1992), openness to experience is related to active imagination, aesthetic sensitivity, and attentiveness to inner feelings, preference for variety, intellectual curiosity, and independence of judgment. Costa and McCrae (1992) again stated that high openness employees seek challenging and exciting work and would expect the organization to satisfy this need. Open people have a high demand for autonomy and tend to be creative and adaptive and accept change. This is similar to Judge and Bono's (2000) observation that open individuals are also at times better able to understand and adapt to new perspectives. Based on Bozionelos (2004), individuals who score high on openness should be more likely to report involvement in their work, as their work can serve as the arena

to entertain their curiosity, their appetite for exploring new perspectives, and their tendency to develop genuine interests for any activities they are involved in.

On the other hand, Harris and Fleming (2005) mentioned that openness to experience or creativity refers to personal characteristics such as being imaginative, original and curious. Manning (2006) also stated the same perspective when he mentioned that openness is about a person's openness to new experience and is manifested in such things as an individual's breadth of interests, level of creativity and intellectual qualities. At two extremes are the conventional individuals who are relatively closed to new experiences, and the open individual, who is relatively open to such experiences. Individuals that rate high on openness to experience appreciate art and aesthetics; these people are interested in variety and are intellectually curious. They can appreciate new experiences, tolerate uncertainty, and are prone to exploration. These people are not conventional in their ideas, their values and beliefs. People who are not open to experience are conventional and show narrow interests (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

In a sample of sewing machine operators, Krilowicz and Lowerey (1996) found significant positive relations between operator productivity and traits corresponding closely with Conscientiousness and Extraversion. Hörmann and Maschke (1996) found that personality variables, especially those reflecting Neuroticism, predicted variance in pilot performance beyond that explained by flying experience, age and grade in a simulator check flight. Substandard pilots were more neurotic than successful pilots. In a sample of nursing service employees, Day and Bedeian (1995) found that the more the

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aagreeableness among employees, the more positive supervisors' ratings of their performance.

Salgado (1997) conducted a meta-analysis of the five-factor personality dimensions to performance for three criteria (supervisory ratings, training ratings and personnel data) and five occupational groups using 36 validity studies conducted in Europe. Results indicated that Conscientiousness for all performance criteria and most occupational groups. Extraversion predicted manager and police performance, and Openness to Experience predicted police and skilled labour performance. Because items on many personality inventories are transparent, and thus easily faked, researchers are often concerned about the potential effect of response distortion on the prediction of job satisfaction from personality measures. However, Ones and Viswesvaran (1997) found that social desirability had no impact on the predictive validity of the big five personality dimensions.

Furthermore, Barrick and Mount (1996) reported that Conscientiousness and Emotional Stability (low Neuroticism) positively predicted supervisor performance ratings for truck drivers and that, when adjusted for social desirability, the validity coefficients were not attenuated significantly. Several studies reported research evidence suggesting that personality is related differently to different dimensions of job satisfaction. Using a sample of hotel workers, Stewart and Carson (1995) related Conscientiousness, Extraversion and Agreeableness to three different satisfaction and performance variables (citizenship, dependability and work output) and found significant validity coefficients for Conscientiousness and Extraversion, but different sets of criteria. Conscientiousness positively

predicted dependability and work output, and Extraversion inversely predicted citizenship and dependability.

In sum, it is evident that there is an association between personality traits and job satisfaction. However, the body of knowledge in this regard is still growing and needs more research work to understand its relationships with job satisfaction fully. Digman (1990) worked upon it and associated its relationship with job satisfaction. Here, the researcher highlighted the five popular personality traits (openness to experience, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and extraversion) and their impacts on job satisfaction. Among other personality traits, neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness have regular relationships with job satisfaction (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002). On these personality traits, a study conducted by Furnham and Zacherl (1986), found out what sort of relationship exists between personality traits and job satisfaction. Using a multi-dimensional scale, they concluded their study by positing that psychoticism and neuroticism were negatively correlated with job satisfaction while extraversion was positively correlated with job satisfaction.

Furthermore, according to the study, those employees who got a high score on neuroticism tended to be minimally satisfied with the amount of work, colleagues and their remuneration. Those employees who got a high score on psychoticism trait were less satisfied with their supervisors, the nature of their duties and colleagues as compared to those with low psychoticism scores. On the other side, those employees who got high scores on extraversion trait were satisfied, happy and beneficial to the organization. On the same problem, Brief, Butcher and Roberson (1995) concluded from

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their study that neuroticism had the strongest negative correlation with job satisfaction.

A meta-analysis thoroughly examined by Barrick and Mount (2000), consisted of five major groups. Group 1 consisted of police, Group 2 consisted of professionals, Group 3 consisted of managers, Group 4 consisted of sales personnel and Group 5 comprised skilled/semiskilled personnel. Against these groups, three criteria of job performance, that is to say, job aptitude and personality, training aptitude and expertise, and personal records were used. In this meta-analysis, personality terms and classifications of Digman (1989)'s inventory were used. The classifications are extraversion, emotional stability, agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness to experience. This meta-analysis study was conducted only to understand the interrelationships of different facets of (Big Five) personality dimensions.

Furthermore, the different facets of personality were explained in terms of correlation with the selected professional groups and standards. That is why this study is unique and differs from previous studies. From Frei and McDaniel's (1998) extensive work, he concluded that for all professional groups and standard types, conscientiousness was the most consistent as well as reliable forecaster that contributed towards effectiveness. The same result was found by Frei and McDaniel (1998) in another meta-analysis. Here, the same personality trait that is 'conscientiousness' was the dominant predictor of job satisfaction and desirable performance as ranked by supervisors (Frei & McDaniel, 1998). Similarly, the personality trait of 'extraversion' was the most valid and consistent facet that was highly correlated with two professionals, namely, manager and salesman. In this meta-analysis, those

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employees who got high scores on this dimension had a high tendency for learning new programs/ lessons—staff on this dimension like to attain training sessions. Likewise, a study conducted by McCrae and Costa (1987) showed that personnel had training sessions because they wished to update themselves. The deciding factor was 'success', which brought them to training sessions. Furthermore, employees who have the characteristic of preferring training, such properties are thoroughly related to cognitive abilities (McCrae & Costa, 1987).

The Influence of Self-efficacy on Job Satisfaction

Self-efficacy is an individual's belief about his/her capability to manage responsibilities (Bandura, 1986). More specifically, teacher self-efficacy is about the desired learning objectives of a teacher to improve his/her students' learning. Ruble, Usher and McGrew (2011). Better educational outcomes depend on the level of teacher self-efficacy. Low levels of teacher self-efficacy may inhibit the level of achievement at school (Battersby & Cave, 2014). There are certainly personal and environmental factors in developing self-efficacy that include believing in one's capacity to accomplish a task, modelling successful people and getting the support of others (Bandura, 1977).

Self-efficacy of teachers is also related to teachers' content knowledge in their classes (Marri, Ahn, Fletcher, Heng & Hatch, 2012), "students' academic adjustment, patterns of teacher behaviour and practices related to classroom quality and factors underlying teachers' psychological wellbeing, namely: personal accomplishment, job satisfaction, commitment and coping with behavioural problems (Zee, 2016) A teacher's self-efficacy

beliefs improve his/her job satisfaction (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001) which may have a significant contribution to school society (Coladarci, 1992). Teacher self-efficacy has three dimensions which are efficacy for student engagement, efficacy for instructional strategies, and efficacy for classroom management (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). A teacher with a high level of self-efficacy is successful in student engagement, instructional strategies and classroom management by letting students participate in the lesson, improving teaching practices and carrying out a good orchestration of the learning environment."

Bandura (1993) stated that "Efficacy beliefs influence how people feel, think, motivate themselves and behave" (p. 118). Self-efficacy aids individuals in succeeding at tasks (Bandura, 1993). Although knowledge and skills are required, Bandura reported that those requirements are not necessary to guarantee success. He further argues that two people may have similar educational backgrounds and abilities. Still, one may not succeed at the same task because of a difference in the level of self-efficacy. Bandura (1986) again stated that four primary sources influence a person's self-efficacy: mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social (verbal) percussion and emotional state in judging one's capabilities (physiological arousal). The first, and most effective, is through "mastery experiences," or successes at tasks.

Mastery experiences increase one's self-efficacy, while failures may inhibit its development. The best mastery experiences should take time and effort to accomplish. People who experience only quick and easy successes may be defeating themselves. If a more challenging task arises, it may cause the person to become frustrated and stressed, thereby decreasing his or her

self-efficacy. The second source of strengthening self-efficacy is through "vicarious experiences provided by social models" (p. 3). "Observing the successes of others, similar to one's own contributes positively to self-efficacy. The opposite is also true in that, seeing the failures of others identical to one's own may decrease self-efficacy. The third source of strengthening self-efficacy is through "social percussion" (p. 3).

Self-efficacy can be influenced if others tell one that they "have what it takes to succeed" (p. 3). Self-efficacy can also be diminished if others tell one that he/she does not possess the skills for success. It is far easier for social percussion to decrease self-efficacy than to increase it (Bandura, 1986). The ultimate source of self-efficacy is built through "somatic and emotional states in judging one's capabilities" (p.3). This is how people react to situations, whether physical or mental. As Bandura (1997) observes, "Somatic indicators of personal efficacy are especially relevant in domains that involve physical accomplishments, health functioning, and coping with stressors" (Bandura, 1997, p. 106). Relieving stress and enhancing physical status can aid in increasing self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). Bandura (1993) described teachers with a low level of efficacy as being less committed to the teaching profession than those teachers with higher efficacy. Because of their lack of commitment, teachers with a lower sense of efficacy also spend more time on non-academic activities than do highly efficacious teachers who are more likely to assist students who have difficulty learning and praise students for success. Teachers with lower efficacy, on the other hand, are more apt to give up on students who do not learn quickly and criticize their failures (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). Highly efficacious teachers have a higher motivation to remain

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in the teaching profession (Whittington, Johnson, Quan, McDonald & Muir, 2003). Less efficacious teachers are more likely to experience burnout and leave the profession (Bandura, 1993).

Based on Bandura's (1977), Self-Efficacy Theory, Tschannen-Moran Hoy and Hoy (1998) offered a revised definition for teacher self-efficacy in an attempt to provide clarity. They defined teacher self-efficacy as "the teacher's belief in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context" (p. 223). Also, "both self- perception of teaching competence and beliefs about the task requirements in a particular teaching situation contribute to teacher self-efficacy" (p. 223). As Tschannen-Moran, Hoy & Hoy (1998) noted, teacher self-efficacy is context-specific in that, "Teachers feel efficacious for teaching particular subjects to certain students in specific settings. (p. 227).

Based on theory and research by Bandura (1995), self-efficacy places a difference in how people feel, think, behave and motivate themselves. Relating to feeling, a low sense of self-efficacy is associated with stress, depression, anxiety and helplessness. Individuals with low self-esteem often become pessimistic about their accomplishments and personal development. About thinking, a strong sense of efficacy facilitates cognitive processes and performance in a variety of settings with quality of decision- making and academic achievement.

Self-efficacy can influence people's choice of activities. Self-efficacy levels can increase or hamper motivation. People with high self-efficacy approach difficult tasks as challenges and do not try to avoid them. People's self-efficacy beliefs identify their level of motivation, as reflected in how

much effort they will exert in an endeavour and how long they will persevere in the face of obstacles (Bandura, 1986). Bandura (1986) presents the high value of self-efficacy as beliefs that act as an essential set of proximal determinants of human motivation, affect, and action. These mentioned beliefs organize a form of action via motivational, cognitive, and affective intervening processes. An instance of a cognitive process relates to setting personal aims. Where there is a high level of perceived self-efficacy, accordingly, there can be found higher levels of objectives individuals set for themselves that result in a higher level of commitment to objectives.

Another instance regarding the high value of self-efficacy relates to an experiment by Collins, Tamarkin (1982) as cited in Bandura (1986) which revealed that there is the possibility that having too high an estimate of one's beliefs can lead to physical injury as well. For instance, an individual may overestimate his ability to perform a marathon but receives injuries due to improper training. However, it is suggested by Bandura (1986) that one may overestimate capabilities and thoughts to achieve success.

According to the Social-cognitive theory of learning, a person's self-efficacy depends on behavioural, environmental and cognitive factors (Bandura, 1986). Bandura and Wood (1989) supported the idea that a robust sense of personal efficacy to sustain the necessary attention on productivity and a constant effort to achieve goals is the key to success in many areas. Bandura (1986) was the first to define self-efficacy as a person's sense and confidence in his/her abilities to achieve his/her goals. More specifically, the term "self-efficacy" refers to a person's critique of his/her capabilities to

organize and perform a specific behaviour (Staple, Hulland & Higgins, 1999).

The concept of self-efficacy does not indicate the actual skills that a person may have, but the degree of his/her faith in them. People with high self-efficacy consider a new situation as a challenge, do not give up their efforts in case of failure, but very quickly regain what they have lost. In contrast, people with low self-efficacy have low aspirations and consider a new situation as a threat, trying to avoid it, reducing their effort or even abandoning every effort to achieve their goals (Bandura, 1994). According to self-efficacy theory, increasing the manager's self-efficacy and, organization performance could develop and improve (Staple, Hulland & Higgins, 1999).

Self-efficacy has, among others, been investigated in the frame of contemporary occupational settings. As Golia, Belias, Tsioli and Kousteliosn (2013) have mentioned, teachers' self-efficacy is strongly related with their principals' leadership behaviour which provides motives, vision and opportunities for flexible and adaptive behaviour in the classroom. The relation between a school's leadership and teachers' self-efficacy is strongly affected by the latter's job satisfaction, in terms of ambitions and mutual content to future goals (Golia, 2014). Another interesting study of Sahinidis, Giovanis and Sdrolias (2012) on entrepreneurial intention among students revealed the strong effect of social norms and valuations on personal attitude, perceived behavioural control and emotional intelligence. As Sahinidis, Giovanis and Sdrolias (2012) explain, the role of social norms and valuations are pivotal when an intervention is attempted to increase the self-efficacy of a person. Therefore, teachers can improve their students' self-efficacy by

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instilling in them the belief that starting a business is feasible once one has the skills for it, and the opportunity arises

Influence of Personality Traits on Self-efficacy

Many factors determine the efficacy of teachers in their professional behaviour. It is imperative to recognize the difference between successful and less successful teachers. Concerning that problem, stable personality characteristics - such as personality traits - are always of research interest. There are two basic conceptualizations of traits, the first one being traits as the inherent properties of a person that trigger his behaviour. According to this conception, traits are internal dispositions that cause the outward behavioural manifestation" (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

The second conceptualization, less accepted in the literature, views traits as descriptive summaries of a person's overt behaviour (Goldberg, 1993; Larsen & Buss, 2005). Another two fundamental issues for personality psychology based on traits are, how to identify the essential traits, and how to formulate a comprehensive taxonomy of personality traits. Numerous studies were conducted to offer the best solution. Some of them were based on the lexical approach; some used a statistical approach, while others applied the theoretical approach (Larsen & Buss, 2005).

According to Costa and McCrae (1994), the Big Five Personality Model can be described with the following five basic dimensions which represent broad domains of personality: neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness and conscientiousness. Neuroticism differentiates persons as regards emotional stability and emotional instability. It is a disposition of a person to experience negative emotions such as sadness, fear, anxiety, wrath,

guilt. Extraversion relates to sociability and activity. Persons with high scores on Extraversion are talkative and friendly, active, cheerful, optimistic, full of energy and outgoing. Introverts are closed, reserved, more independent and sensitive. Openness stands for intellectual curiosity, preference of diversity, a need for a change and a tendency towards experimenting, inclination to new ideas and non-conventional values. Persons with high scores on Openness tend to be open-minded, liberal and open to novelty. They are also likely to question authority and dogmas. Agreeableness stands for trust, altruism and compassion for others. Persons with low scores on Agreeableness tend to be cynical, selfish, suspicious about other people's intentions, egocentric and competitive. On the other hand, those with high scores show a tendency for cooperativeness, altruism and empathy. Conscientiousness represents an ability to exercise self-control in the sense of a disciplined inclination towards goals and duties, strict holding on to one's principles. So, this dimension is connected to academic and professional success.

John and Srivastava (1999) contended that the Five-Factor Model showed a significant predictive value with different behaviours, including professional success and academic achievement. Taking into account the research findings which suggest that personality traits are important factors of teachers' professional success, this study is concerned with the influence of personality traits on self-efficacy.

Djigic, Stojiljkovic and Doskovic (2014) investigated the Five-Factor Model dimensions and teacher self-efficacy; the significance of differences between average measures of particular aspects of teachers' self-efficacy was checked by *t*-test. The average estimation of self-efficacy in the area of

instruction is significantly higher than teachers' self-efficacy in all other dimensions. All differences are statistically significant at the 0.01 level except the difference between instruction and maintaining discipline, which is significant at the 0.05 level. It means that teachers feel more competent in their teaching role in the narrowest sense than for all other roles that they performed in the classroom. However, the successful performance of these other professional teachers' roles is very important because it represents the foundation of quality teaching. Also, the average estimation of self-efficacy in motivating students is significantly lower than measures of all other dimensions (at least at the 0.05 level) except adaptation of instruction to students' individual needs. Consequently, the development of competencies in the area of motivating students could be a priority for teachers.

The next step in the analysis by Djigic, Stojiljkovic and Doskovic (2014) was to determine the degree of basic personality dimensions of teachers; the regression analysis was aimed at examining the predictive power of particular basic personality dimensions concerning teachers' self-efficacy. The regression analysis was also to determine correlation coefficients. The same procedure was performed for the teachers' self-efficacy as a whole, as well as for each of its dimensions. The basic personality dimensions were inserted into the regression model according to the amount of their correlation with self-efficacy (or its dimensions). The first regression analysis was done to show the predictive power of personality dimensions about the teachers' self-efficacy as a whole. Personality dimensions were inserted into the model in the following order: Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Openness, Extraversion and Conscientiousness. The results indicated that all personality dimensions

significantly correlated with the general measure of teachers' self-efficacy. In this analysis, predictors became insignificant with every new predictor inserted into the model. Thus, the last inserted dimension of conscientiousness proved to be the only significant and the most potent predictor of teachers' self-efficacy (Beta= 0.274).

The same predictive model was applied to each particular self-efficacy dimension. Each model involved only personality dimensions that were significant correlation with concrete self-efficacy dimensions: Instruction, adapting instruction to individual students' needs and motivating students, were somewhat more appropriate. Instruction as the dimension of teachers' self-efficacy could be best predicted by personality dimensions Openness (*Beta*= 0.2). A tested predictive model for adapting the instruction to individual student's needs, involving four personality dimensions (Extraversion, Neuroticism, Openness and Conscientiousness), showed that the best predictor of self-efficacy is conscientiousness (*Beta*=0.32). The predictive power of the tested model concerning motivating students is similar to the previous one (R^2=0.201, significant at the 0.000 level). The Five-Factor Model involved the following dimensions: Agreeableness, Extraversion, Conscientiousness and Openness. Among them, the best predictor of this domain of self-efficacy is Openness (Beta=0.25).

The regression analysis showed that basic personality dimensions are weak but are significant predictors of teachers' self-efficacy. Among the personality dimensions, the most important predictor of teachers' self-efficacy is conscientiousness. The analysis further showed that teachers' self-efficacy does not significantly correlate with age and working experience of teachers.

The gender differences are a significant factor only in the case of maintaining discipline. Men asserted their self-efficacy in this area better than women (DM=1.62, *p*<0.05).

Finally, elementary school teachers assessed their self-efficacy better than subject teachers regarding adapting instruction to the individual student's needs (DM=1.195, p<0.05), and motivating students (DM=1.121, *p*<0.05). These two self-efficacy dimensions were assessed to be the lowest in the whole sample. Bearing in mind this difference and also the fact that these two dimensions were estimated the weakest by the entire sample, it could be supposed that different primary education specializations of teachers contribute to a better assessment of the self-efficacy in the sample of elementary school teachers. In other words, study programs preparing future elementary school teachers contain more psychological, pedagogical and methodical content and are more practical than study programs aimed at preparing future subject teachers."

Djigic, Stojiljkovic and Doskovic (2014) observed that during the process of educational reform in Serbia, elementary school teachers had more in-service training that supported their competences for new professional roles than had the subject teachers. It is possible, as well, that the age of students and their psychological and developmental characteristics provide more favourable self-perception of professional competences in elementary teachers than in subject teachers' sample.

Djigic, Stojiljkovic and Doskovic (2014) concluded that Instruction is the best-evaluated dimension of teachers' self-efficacy. Motivating students and adapting instruction to individual student's needs are the worst evaluated

dimensions. This finding suggests that teachers need additional support to develop their competencies for coping with complex everyday tasks connected with motivating students, and the individualization of the teaching process. This kind of support is especially important for subject teachers whose assessment of self-efficacy in these areas was significantly lower when compared to the self-assessment of elementary-school teachers. Noting the earlier differences between study programs for future elementary school teachers and subject teachers, it is clear that appropriate educational and in-service programs may contribute to the development of the professional competency of teachers.

Also, the results of this study represent clear guidelines for the teacher having in mind vicarious experience as the source of self-efficacy. The valuable resource for in-service teacher training could be seen in model lessons conducted by teachers experienced in different aspects of the teaching process. Through observation of model lessons, teachers with lower evaluated self-efficacy could build more favourable self-efficacy beliefs which would support the improvement of their practice. There are undoubtedly numerous factors connected with teachers' experience with their self-efficacy in general and self-efficacy domains in particular. Some factors are teachers' self-esteem; their real achieved professional success; feed-back coming from students, parents, colleagues, principals and educational administration; student teachers' abilities, motivational orientations, interests, adopted social and moral values, and socio-economic status; quality of teachers' education, and in-service programs. Basic personality dimensions (Big Five) are weak but significant predictors of teachers' self-efficacy and that they might explain a

part of the differences in teachers' self-efficacy measures (Djigic, Stojiljkovic & Doskovic, 2014).

Caprara, Vecchione, Alexandri, Gerbino and Barbaranelli (2011) asserted that conscientiousness and self-efficacy beliefs could be decisive personal determinants of academic and work performance; however, they address distinctive structures and processes while also operating on different levels. In this manner, self-efficacy beliefs may allow inherent personality traits to develop into a behaviour. Caprara et al. (2011) have indicated that self-efficacy beliefs may mediate the relationship between conscientiousness and performance. A study by Di Giunta, Alessandri, Gerbino, Kanacri, Zuffiano and Caprara (2013) found that academic self-efficacy completely mediated the effect of conscientiousness on senior high schooler while an earlier study reported only partial mediation of self-efficacy for the relationship between conscientiousness and academic performance. The findings varied concerning how conscientiousness influenced work performance, ranging from full mediation to partial mediation and no mediation at all.

There is no single answer to how this mediation occurs. Some theorists refer to how conscientiousness affects motivation, thereby influencing the level of effort and stamina one chooses to expend (Tabak, Nguyen, Basuray & Darrow 2009). Illustrating this, Judge and Ilies (2002) showed that conscientiousness correlated positively to three types of motivation for performance: goal-setting, expectancy and self-efficacy. Motivation may represent a possible explanation for how self-efficacy leads to

improved performance by influencing interest, persistence, goals and learning strategies (Dinther, Dochy & Segers, 2011)

Individuals scoring high on conscientiousness tend to get more involved and to work harder towards their goals. This, in turn, contributes to an increased sense of accomplishment, greater verbal support from others and increased control over negative emotions (Bandura, 1994), thereby allowing such individuals to achieve a higher level of self-efficacy and a potentially better performance. This train of thought is in line with Mischel and Shoda's (1998) who found that conscientiousness is involved in activating expectations of self-efficacy. Martocchio and Judge (1997) concluded that self-efficacy represents the mechanism through which general tendencies towards conscientiousness manifest themselves.

Gender and Personality Traits

Research in the domain of gender differences in personality traits show that males tend to show higher levels of assertiveness, aggressiveness and self-esteem. Still, their levels of trust, anxiety and tender-mindedness are low (Feingold, 1994). Women tend to score higher than men on Neuroticism and Agreeableness in adults and older ages (Chapman, Duberstein, Serensen, & Lyness, 2007). Budaev (1999) found that females scored higher on Agreeableness and low Emotional Stability versus Hostility and high Emotional Stability.

In another study, college students from fifty cultures identified an adult man or woman whom they knew very well to rate their personality types employing the Big Five factors. It was reported that men were higher in assertiveness, excitement seeking, and openness to ideas. Women were rated

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as being higher in anxiety, vulnerability, aesthetics, feelings and tender-mindedness (McCrae & Terracciano, 2005). Costa, Terracciano, and McCrae (2001) researched twenty-six cultures. They found out that gender differences in personality traits of college-age students and adults are rather small. They reported that women are higher in Neuroticism, Agreeableness, Warmth and Openness to feelings while men scored higher in assertiveness and openness to ideas.

It could be stated at this point that personality factors have been applied to the learning domain and second or foreign language learning. However, to the best knowledge of the researcher, no studies have investigated the probable effect of male and female learners' personality traits on their successes and failures and the factors to which they ascribe their failure or success in language learning. In case learners' personality types and their gender differences influence their attributions, this fact can give more awareness to language teachers about learners' differences in viewing their successes or failures. It can also encourage or discourage more perseverance, and consequently, affect students 'motivation for learning.

Another study by Minghui and Qinghua (2013) examined whether gender affects how teacher candidates view the role of personality traits in teacher effectiveness. Overall, MANOVA lends no support to the hypothesis in the third research question that gender affects teacher candidates' perceptions of effective teacher attributes. Furthermore, ANOVA tests conducted on each personality trait suggest that only one personality trait, that is, teacher expectations, is significantly affected by gender, with females showing substantially greater concern than males about the importance of

teacher expectations. The other traits are not significantly affected by gender; female and male teacher candidates do not differ substantially in their emphasis on the importance of adaptability, enthusiasm, fairness, patience, sense of humour, responsibility, agreeableness, caring, friendliness, honesty, and respectfulness. However, the study revealed significant culture and gender interaction effects on three personality traits: adaptability, trustworthiness and respectfulness.

Gender and Self-efficacy

Studies in the area of teacher efficacy have led researchers to conclude that even if teachers attend workshops and are exposed to additional teaching methods, they will still be resistant to change (Bandura, 1993). On the other hand, efficacy beliefs affect thinking, feelings, motivation and behaviour (Bandura, 1993). Therefore, teachers can develop positive attitudes toward their work, in general, and have control over disruptive behaviour, and confidence in how to handle those behaviours and have a positive impact on students' undesirable behaviours. The results of a study by Anderson (2011) in Botswana yielded exciting insight into gender differences in self-efficacy among teachers. Males in Molepolole College of Education aged between 25-29 showed a higher teacher efficacy in all the three subscales, namely, student engagement, instructional practices and classroom management. Females in the same college performed worse. According to Anderson (2011), these findings appeared to signal a shift in teacher efficacy among males and females; past research reported females having higher teacher efficacy than males. Anderson (2011) considered the results to be particularly interesting because in Botswana teaching has conventionally been perceived as a female

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job with males only now showing interest in the profession. Pre-service teachers in Serowe College aged 20-24 rated themselves high on student engagement. Young adults of ages 20-24 at Tlokweng College also did well in student engagement, while those within 25 to 29 years old performed poorly. In the same study, males aged 25-29 did well in *classroom management* and other subscales as well. According to the Social Cognitive theory, males in the present study possess perceived teacher self-efficacy, whereby, as teachers, they believe that they can influence students' behaviour and academic achievement. The results also show older students in Serowe College, displaying a higher teacher efficacy. Older females in Tlokweng College did well on classroom management tests."

The participation of women in science, technology, engineering and mathematics programs and careers is disproportionately lower than that of men (Baker, 2002; Ivie, Czuiko, & Stowe, 2002; National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2006). Although college enrolment has increased such that women currently make up the majority of the student population, women earn fewer degrees in mathematics and science than do men, with the most substantial discrepancies in the fields of mathematics, engineering, chemistry and physics (NCES, 2006). Researchers continue to examine this phenomenon, but those who embrace a social cognitive perspective suggest that the underrepresentation of women in these careers may be due in large part to the self-beliefs that they hold about their capabilities (Betz, Schifano & Kaplan, 1999; Hackett, 1995; Lent & Hackett, 1987).

According to Gilligan (1982), ''the elusive mystery of women's development lies in its recognition of the continuing importance of attachment

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in the human life cycle'' (p. 23). This suggests that women's confidence, created from social sources and maintained within relational contexts, may differ fundamentally from that of men. Erikson (1980) argued that men form their identity primarily from independent, work-related achievements, whereas women rely, for their identity formation, on the intimacy of the relationships in their lives. It may thus be that men and women's confidence respectively travels along two developmentally different roads: one paved by mastery experiences, the other by relational episodes. These developmental differences would affect the influence of each of the four sources on the development of self- efficacy. Self-efficacy was initially brought in to the career literature to explain the underrepresentation of women in traditionally male college courses, majors and careers, including those in science, technology, mathematics and engineering. Researchers have demonstrated that the lack of participation by women in male-dominated professions may have been due in part to their low self-efficacy in mathematics and science (Hackett, 1985; Lau & Roeser, 2002; Lent, Brown, & Larkin, 1984, 1986; see also Betz & Hackett, 1997; Hackett, 1995; Lent & Hackett, 1987). Among high school students, science self-efficacy predicted science-related career interests, and girls reported lower science self-efficacy (Lau & Roeser, 2002).

Betz and Hackett (1983) investigated the applicability of self-efficacy to the domain of mathematics and career selection with college undergraduates. As predicted, students reporting stronger mathematics self-efficacy were more likely to select science-based college majors than those who reported weaker mathematics self-efficacy. As also predicted, the mathematics self-efficacy expectations of female students were consistently

and significantly weaker than those of the male students. Betz and Hackett (1997) suggested that women's lower mathematics self-efficacy led to avoidance of mathematics-related coursework and majors in science fields, resulting in lower participation in science-related occupations.

Betz and Hackett (1997) further revealed that differential background experiences associated with gender role socialization might have led to gender differences in self-efficacy and confidence within specific domains of career behaviour. The total level of self-efficacy for men and women for the educational requirements and the job duties of 20 occupations showed no significant gender differences. When mean scores were separated by traditional and non-traditional occupations, however, there were significant and consistent gender differences. Women demonstrated significantly greater self-efficacy for traditionally female occupations than did men, whereas men demonstrated significantly greater self-efficacy for traditionally male occupations than did women.

Specifically, women demonstrated much lower efficacy as compared with men. Perceptions for traditionally male occupations than traditionally female occupations, whereas men showed consistency in self-efficacy estimations across the traditional professions. Thus, gender differences were due to the women's response to the traditionality of the occupation. Findings in this study by Betz and Hackett (1997) also revealed no significant gender differences in ability as measured by the English and mathematics scores. Therefore, the differences in self-efficacy as regards traditionality of careers did not correspond with actual achievement performance. The fact that there existed a lack of correspondence between the measure of ability and

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perception of ability is important to note. It is especially pertinent to the findings that the women in this study demonstrated lower self-efficacy for non-traditional careers than for traditional occupations. For women, the lack of correspondence between their self- efficacy for non-traditional jobs and their measured ability seems to be a problem of self-perception.

Matsui, Matsui and Ohnishi (1990) found out that social persuasion was the only source that did not make a significant contribution to mathematics self-efficacy beliefs. Although these findings support Bandura's (1986) contention that mastery experience is the most crucial source of efficacy information, researchers have reported some interesting gender differences. For example, although male students report more mathematics-related performance accomplishments than do women, women report more vicarious learning and compelling experiences than do men (Lent, Lopez, Brown, &Gore, 1996). Lent, Brown, Gover and Nijjer (1996) found out that mastery experience was the self-efficacy source that college students believed accounted for their mathematics-related efficacy perceptions. Still, women tended to cite physiological reactions and teaching quality considerations much more often than did men.

Contrary to previous findings that past performance accomplishments were the most significant sources for developing self-efficacy, the findings of Zelden (2000) suggested that the perceived importance of vicarious experiences and social persuasions might be stronger for women in male-dominated domains than was indicated by previous research.

Onukwube (2012) ascertained the levels of job satisfaction amongst quantity surveyors in consulting firms in Lagos, Nigeria. Biographical and job

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descriptive index were used to gather data. The results showed that workers were satisfied with supervision, work and relation with co-workers. Dissatisfaction was associated with remunerations and promotions. Akhter and Ali (2009) investigated through survey, the level of satisfaction among the faculty of tertiary level in private universities of Bangladesh. The findings showed that the faculty members were more or less satisfied with their job, except for some physical conditions. There was no gender bias found among faculty because the nature of the job was the same for both male and female.

Nurullah (2010) explored the aspects of satisfaction with job and careers and the predictors of job satisfaction among the emerging adults of Alberta. A job satisfaction model was developed by using structural equation modelling. The results showed that self-esteem and valued job characteristics were direct predictors, along with happiness and income. Nurullah (2010) conducted this study to investigate the difference between gender (male and female teachers) and types of school (urban and rural) about job satisfaction. The study was descriptive, and Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire was used to collect data from 785 teachers selected from all Public High schools (192) in one district. The findings were drawn after the descriptive and inferential analysis, Means, Standard Deviation and 't' test, were run to test the hypotheses. Generally, teachers were less satisfied with advancement, compensation, supervision, human-relation and working conditions. Female teachers were more satisfied than their male counterparts.

Gender and Job Satisfaction

Sultana and Begum (2012) measured the level of job satisfaction of female health library professionals in Dhaka city and how the job facets

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affected job satisfaction of female health library professionals. A standard questionnaire was used to measure the level of job satisfaction of the sample. The result showed that out of twenty job facets, eleven facets were highly significant for job satisfaction, and nine facets quite insignificant for job satisfaction. Furthermore, it revealed that females were less satisfied with their job. Ofuani (2010) examined the job satisfaction of women in paid employment in Benin City. A sample of two hundred women was selected using the stratified random sampling, and the data instrument was a questionnaire called Job Satisfaction of Women in Paid Employment Questionnaire. Data collected were analysed using the t-test. The result of the study revealed that marital status, experience, academic qualification and relationship with superior officers had no significant effect on the job satisfaction of women in paid employment in Benin City.

Nurullah (2010) investigated and found out that job satisfaction of the senior-level executives of Bangladesh showed that other than work itself, there were not many strong motivating forces present to satisfy the executives. Both male and female executives had confirmed that their companies recognized their good work, and they were also clear about the goals of their organizations. It was noted that there was hardly any gender difference regarding job satisfaction, even though there was less scope of promotion possibility in most of the organizations. Both male and female executives expressed a relatively higher level of agreement about their liking of co-workers and enjoying their jobs and company, suggesting less sex discrimination, though they mildly agreed that there were bickering and fighting at work. Regarding satisfaction on benefits received, the male

executives were found somewhat less satisfied compared to the female executives.

Olorunsola (2012) investigated job satisfaction of administrative staff, and also investigated whether workers' job satisfaction was related to their characteristics. An instrument titled Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (JSQ) was used to collect data. The descriptive analysis of the data was done using t-test analysis, one-way and posthoc ANOVA. The findings revealed that job satisfaction of the administrative staff was high. Furthermore, working experience will not significantly influence the job satisfaction of workers, while age will impact the job satisfaction of the administrators substantially; also, sex made a significant difference in job satisfaction of workers.

Ahmad, Raheem and Jamal (2003) studied the job satisfaction of 236 teachers in senior secondary schools in Bangladesh. Female teachers enjoyed greater satisfaction than their male counterparts did. Married teachers showed more job satisfaction than unmarried teachers. Teachers who were teaching in government schools showed greater job satisfaction than teachers teaching in private schools. There was no significant change in job satisfaction due to change in the level of independent variables like sex, marital status and types of schools. Noll (2004) examined job satisfaction and factors, which affect the job satisfaction of teachers. It was found out that school culture, teachers' relationship with administration, working conditions and motivation were the factors which had a significant relationship with job satisfaction among school teachers. Dhingra (2006) conducted a study on a randomly selected sample of 100 teachers from different government and private schools of Patiala district to study the effect of organizational climate on job satisfaction of secondary

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school teachers. It found out that there was no significant difference in job satisfaction of government and private secondary school teachers. Further, the difference between job satisfaction as regards the organizational climate of secondary school teachers was found to be significant.   Rama (2000) concluded a study of the attitude of teachers towards teachers' centres. It concluded that teachers' centres were useful to the teachers in solving academic problems. The teachers had a positive attitude to the functioning of teachers' centres. Female and experienced teachers had a positive attitude to teachers' centres.

Howery (2001)   conducted a study to investigate the impact of technology on teacher training attitude. The result of the study revealed an increase in teacher attitude and use of computers. The results suggested that teachers had become comfortable with the use of technology and that their positive attitude towards technology had increased. Singh (2006) studied the impact of terrorism on physical education. He found out that Punjab State physical education teachers were 'extremely satisfied' with their jobs, but Jammu and Kashmir teachers were in a 'very satisfied' category. Teachers in both groups had a solitary personality. Further, it was found out that the teachers of both states had an unfavourable attitude towards education. Studies in other jurisdictions revealed some findings. Okpara, Squillace and Erondu (2005), found out that there were gender differences apparent in the job satisfaction levels of university teachers.

Similarly, Hickson and Oshagbemi (1999) also found out that women academicians tended to be slightly more satisfied in their career than their male counterparts. In the same vein, Santhapparaj & Alam (2005) also

investigated that female academic staff were more-satisfied than their male counterpart. Likewise, Noll (2004), while researching the levels of job satisfaction of educators in the Bloemfontein-West district, realized that in general, female educators showed more satisfaction with the teaching profession than their male counterparts. Du Toit (1994) also found out that female educators experienced job satisfaction on the grounds of happiness in their personal lives, their relationships with colleagues and learners, as well as with some issues on education."

According to Billingsley and Cross (1992), issues like age, gender, education and rate of involvement at work are factors that affect the level of commitment. Gender emerged as a variable of commitment, where women exhibit higher levels of commitment than men, the reasons cited being that women have had to overcome more obstacles than men to obtain jobs. In the same view, Abu Saad and Isralowitz (1997) found out that female educators and educators with higher educational levels were more likely to be satisfied with their jobs than their male counterparts. Conklin and Cano (1999), in a survey of 81 female educators and 212 male agriculture educators, found that job satisfaction factors such as achievement, advancement, recognition and the work itself, related significantly to the female educators' satisfaction, but not to those of male educators.

Also, a study by Ma and Macmillan (1999) on educator professional satisfaction related to background characteristics and workplace conditions, indicated that female educators experienced more job satisfaction than males and that the workplace conditions positively affected educator satisfaction. This point was further emphasized by Lee (1987) that women educators are

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more satisfied with their work than their male counterparts. Lee indicates salary as the most important determinant of satisfaction. Young males in mid-career need more opportunities for promotion. The lack of lateral and upward mobility in education and the fact that long service brings limited salary increases result in a significant exodus of male educators from the education profession.

On the other hand, Oshagbemi (2003) posited that gender does not affect the job satisfaction of university teachers directly. Koyuncu, Burke and Fiksenbaum (2006) also reported that no significant differences were found in job satisfaction between male and female professors in Turkey. In a similar study, Bas and Ardic (2002) said that females were slightly more satisfied than males and, finally, there was a positive relationship between age and job satisfaction among academicians. In Zimbabwe, Chimanikire (2007) established that most of the academic staff in tertiary institutions were not satisfied with their job. This was due to a high volume of workload, and inadequate salaries, allowances and loans to facilitate the purchase of houses and cars. On a similar note, Akpofure (2006), who researched job satisfaction among educators in colleges of education in Southern Nigeria, identified that in general, educators were not satisfied with their job. The respondents indicated that they were happy with their workload but highly dissatisfied with their salary. On top of that, the results also showed that there was a significant negative relationship between age, education level and academic rank with job satisfaction. Perrie and Baker (1997) conducted a study on job satisfaction among more than 36,000 school teachers in America. They reported that male teachers were less satisfied than female teachers regarding their jobs. They

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further concluded that female teachers also had a strong correlation with salary and benefits than their male counterparts. Jaafar & Ramayah (2006) found out that one of the factors that contribute to job satisfaction is interpersonal relationship while Oshagbemi (2000) confirmed that lecturers were satisfied with their job when they had a good rapport with their colleagues.

Rural/Urban Differences and Personality Traits

Although rural areas are often lauded for being healthier, safer and a better place to raise children, rural lifestyles also pose some substantial disadvantages that threaten the retention of teachers in rural classrooms (Miller, 2012). Cowan (2010) noted that many teachers refuse postings to rural schools because of concerns about the quality of housing, classroom facilities, healthcare, school resources, opportunities for professional advancement, professional isolation and language barriers (Addy, 2013; Amoako, 2011; Acheampong & Gyasi, 2019).

Teachers in rural schools may also have reduced contact hours with their students as compared to their colleagues in urban schools. Rural teachers miss school days when they have to travel to urban centres to seek medical care, collect salaries, attend in-service training, or visit family members (Mulkeen, 2005). Such misses negatively affect school effectiveness. The rural and urban population in Africa will keep rising until 2040, which implies increased demand for education in rural and urban areas; hence, increased demand for teachers in rural and urban schools (United Nations Development Planning, 2009).

Schultz (2014) suggested that urban teachers require strong subject-matter knowledge to provide differentiated instruction because of the

uniqueness of their students. Teachers also need to exhibit openness, a personality trait measured by the Big Five Inventory, toward the students' conditions. Otherwise, teachers with a lack of experience and cultural awareness may be unreceptive to many impoverished students who may experience challenges such as hunger, fatigue and fear. Effective teachers are capable of building relationships with their colleagues, families and communities by providing social, personal and emotional resources for students who lack the necessities for life (Jacob, 2007).

Researchers believe that without vital resources, teacher strategies, materials and relevant pedagogy are worthless (Shaw, 2012; Tintiangco-Cubales, Chohli, Sacramento, Henning, Aggarwal-Rangnath & Sleeter, 2014). Despite the challenges that rural students who live in poverty may face, teachers are not social workers and cannot change students' conditions. However, teachers who exhibit high levels of personality characteristics measured by the Big Five Inventory could still offer students some form of support by exhibiting behaviours that allow their students to have a sense of belonging (Howard, 2001; Tintiangco-Cubales et al., 2014).

Many researchers and educators agree that successful teachers in urban settings have high expectations for all students regardless of the students' cultural background, socioeconomic status, or linguistic challenges (Gehrke, 2005; Tintiangco-Cubales et al., 2014). For example, Castillo, Fernández-Berrocal, and Brackett (2013) believed that effective teachers encourage positive interactions that can influence a wide range of students despite adverse economic circumstances. Castillo et al. (2013), reported that teachers who can create an optimal learning environment that includes

adequate communication amongst all stakeholders in the classroom could increase student academic progress.

Many theorists, including Gehrke (2005), Milner and Tenore (2010), and Wrenn, (2005) have also reported that ineffective teachers lower their expectations for rural students out of the belief that rural students are inferior because of their traditions, financial status, and language barriers. Lowered expectations, in turn, make the closure of achievement gaps impossible regardless of evidence-based reforms. Theorists such as (Donaldson, 2013; Ingle & Rutledge, 2010) have posited that teacher success in urban schools is a reflection of teacher personal characteristics, cultural competence and other personality characteristics that are not associated with preparation programs or content knowledge measured by aptitude testing."

Teacher effectiveness in a rural setting has not been questioned as strongly as teacher effectiveness in urban environments because urban school teachers have probably been educated at highly competitive colleges and universities, typically completing credentialing programs and usually passing certification exams (Jacob, 2007). Unlike teachers in urban schools, rural school teachers typically have more experience, and urban districts rarely use long-term substitute teachers to fill hiring gaps (Jacob, 2007). Urban public schools generally do not have difficulties attracting high-quality teachers and the need to understand cultural diversity still exists because cultured students also attend urban schools.

According to Watson (2012), teachers use superficial behaviours, principles and views of students' socioeconomic status, language and country of origin to decide the academic expectations and standards for student

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placement. For example, teachers had higher educational expectations for students who appeared affluent (Watson, 2012). The more a student appeared to live in poverty, be a language learner, or come from a different country of origin, the lower the academic expectations the rural school teacher would have for that student (Watson, 2012).

The requirements for employment and the title of "Highly Qualified teacher" in urban and rural schools are the same (Darling-Hammond, 2012; Jacob, 2007; Milner & Tenore, 2010; Skiba, Horenr, Choong-Geun, Rausch, May & Tobian, 2011; Watson, 2012). Contributing to the debate, Ispa-landa and Conwell (2015) believed that the racial classifications of schools are stereotypically similar to students; rural schools are characterized as schools in communities of disorder and dysfunction, and urban schools are located in safe and secure communities.

The current processes for hiring teachers have not been reliable for identifying new highly effective teachers; certification score predictability for teacher effectiveness has been minimal (Rockoff, Jacob, Kane, & Staiger, 2008). Decades of Freudian and Jungian-dominated theories have transitioned into simple empirical measures of vital dimensions of personality. Predicting job performance across various occupations has been accomplished by the Big Five Inventory factors that show a link between conscientiousness and positive job performance, Extroversion and success in jobs requiring social interaction. Globally, personality testing ranked second for pre-employment screening in all industries in 2013 (Fallaw & Kantrowitz, 2013).

The majority of teacher certification programs focus on teaching student engagement, classroom management, and differentiated instruction for

language learners and students with special needs, and then provide a supervised platform for student-teachers to practice their learned skills in a real classroom (Darling-Hammond, 2012). According to Okhremtchouk, Newell and Rosa (2013), teachers must also demonstrate the ability to develop purposeful lesson plans that offer adaptations and accommodations that support student progress at the student's academic level on a Teacher Practice Assessment. Unfortunately, student teachers are not required to perform their teaching skills in all settings. For this reason, some teachers believe that their certification programs did not adequately prepare them to teach in all environments, notably in contexts that differ from the teacher's cultural background (Darling-Hammond 2012; Jacob, 2007).

A quantitative design was the most appropriate research design to evaluate the relationship between personality characteristics and highly effective teachers in either an urban or a suburban school setting, as quantitative studies can show how prominent a problem is by looking at projectable results compared to a larger population (Turner, Balmer & Coverdale, 2013). The researcher used the BFI 44-item self-report developed by Oliver, Guerin and Coffman (2009) to describe the personality characteristics of Teachers of the Year nominees in Solano County, California. The analysis of scores of the participating teachers determined which dimensions, if any, of the BFI were more or less related to urban Teachers of the Year or related to suburban Teachers of the Year. The descriptive data collected from the Big Five Inventory required quantitative analysis to examine the relationship between personality characteristics of highly effective teachers in urban and suburban school settings (Jamison, 2010;

Turner et al., 2013), making a quantitative study the appropriate research design.

This study evaluated the possibility that personality characteristics of highly effective teachers might vary by geographic locations of the teachers' schools. Because qualitative research aims at making sense of human behaviour by understanding people's interpretation of reality at some point in time, in a specific setting, it was not used during this study (Jamison, 2010). Additionally, qualitative research is capable of advocating claims or participatory perspectives by using open-ended questions, text and image data to enact change or reform from circumstantial information (Jamison, 2010; Turner et al., 2013; Wolcott, 2009), which was not the purpose of this study.

Experimental designs are the best for studying cause and effect; however, educational researchers sometimes face situations that do not allow the use of a randomized experimental or quasi-experimental design that manipulates independent variables (Jamison, 2010; Turner et al., 2013). This study used a non-experimental descriptive correlational design because the independent variables (rural and urban schools) could not be manipulated since teachers alone selected their locations of employment, not the researcher. The dependent variables were the Big Five Inventory dimensions. The results of the study describe the personality characteristics of highly effective teachers and provide data for statistical analysis to explain the relationship between personality characteristics and highly effective teachers in urban and suburban settings. The results from the study illustrate the magnitude of the relationship between personality characteristics and school location among highly effective teachers (Jamison, 2010; Turner et al., 2013), thereby producing information

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that can describe the personality characteristics most likely to be associated with highly effective teachers in both urban and suburban settings.

Rural and urban-born teachers are capable of being successful teachers in urban schools if they can practice Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Extroversion and Openness. The Agreeableness personality characteristic of an urban-born teacher will provide the teacher with a sense of humility and allow him or her to keep expectations high for urban students, despite the conditions associated with poverty (Gehrke, 2005; Wrenn, 2005)."

Conscientiousness is a characteristic that teachers need to become culturally conscious of the similarities they share with students. Conscientiousness helps teachers to build trust, and reduce cultural conflicts while connecting with their students positively; this is a characteristic of Extroversion. If rural and urban-born white teachers show Openness by countering their ideas, they could be more effective at teaching students in urban schools.

A study by Milner and Tenore (2010) indicated that Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Openness are personality characteristics that influence teaching effectiveness in urban and suburban settings. The higher scores for personality characteristics of Conscientiousness and Openness are consistent with the literature because both traits are qualities in the teaching profession known to help teachers succeed in an urban setting (Gay & Howard, 2000; Howard, 2001; Howard & Obidiah, 2005). Neuroticism was not a personality characteristic of highly effective teachers; however, the data showed that the urban group had a higher propensity for the personality characteristic of

Neuroticism than did the suburban group. A possible explanation of this finding is that the urban setting is the site of the majority of America's most impoverished students, where many student needs are so complex that they create financial burdens on district resources that otherwise would support initiatives such as class size reduction and tutoring services, requiring teachers to do more with less   (Gehrke, 2005; Schultz, 2014).

Studies have shown that there is no relationship between measures of Extroversion between highly effective teachers in urban schools and highly effective teachers in suburban schools. The personality characteristic of Extroversion has no influence on teaching effectiveness in either of the settings. Extroversion is an assortment of positive behaviours that classify tendencies to engage in social acts showing leadership potential, power, and dominance to achieve rewards in the presence of others (Denissen & Penke, 2008; DeYoung, Hirsh, Shane, Papademetris, Rajeevan & Gray, 2010). Very high scores in Extroversion would indicate that participants were producing a learning atmosphere that was effective and comfortable, meaning extroversion was expected to be observed as a common personality characteristic contributing to high effectiveness (Fenderson, 2011). However, the preceding claims are not supported by all published research. Perhaps this inconsistency can be explained by errors due to different sample sizes and characteristics across various studies.

Meanwhile, Denissen and Penke (2008) found a relationship in measures of Agreeableness between highly effective teachers in urban schools and highly effective teachers in suburban schools; the personality characteristic of Agreeableness had an influence on teaching effectiveness in

both settings. Agreeableness is a personality characteristic linked to friendliness and sociability. Denissen and Penke's (2008) findings support claims in the published literature because the personality characteristic of Agreeableness is a quality in the teaching profession known to promote sensitivity and cultural competence that can help teachers succeed in an urban setting (Gay & Howard, 2000; Howard, 2001; Howard & Obidiah, 2005).

This finding suggests that the urban group is not as friendly or sociable as the suburban group but that both groups tend to be friendlier and more sociable than the average person. An explanation for the difference in scores is that less agreeableness in the urban setting is associated with the diversity of the students that many teachers handle. According to Kyles and Olafson (2008), teachers in urban school cultures often differ widely from the diverse population of urban teachers who are members of minority groups and members of socioeconomically disadvantaged groups. This means that urban teachers use less agreeableness in the urban setting to be effective.

Conscientiousness is a personality characteristic that has typically been referred to as performance-based behaviours that are associated with a work atmosphere (De Young et al., 2010). Denissen and Penke (2008) reported a relationship in measures of Conscientiousness between highly effective teachers in urban schools and highly effective teachers in suburban schools. Data analyses showed that the personality characteristic of Conscientiousness influenced teaching effectiveness in urban and suburban settings. The findings in this study are not in conflict with other literature because the Conscientiousness personality characteristic is a quality in the teaching profession known to promote sensitivity and cultural competence that

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can help teachers succeed in an urban setting (Gay & Howard, 2000; Howard, 2001; Howard & Obidiah, 2005).   Denissen and Penke's (2008) finding suggests that the urban teachers studied were   more sensitive to diversity than the suburban group. An explanation for the difference in scores is that more Conscientiousness is needed for the urban setting to be effective. Alderman and Green (2011) suggested that social competence and self-awareness are required to influence inner-city communities which may explain the slightly higher scores on Conscientiousness among highly effective urban teachers because the suburban setting is not as diverse.

Furthermore, Dennissen and Penke (2008) found a relationship in measures of Openness between highly effective teachers in urban schools and highly effective teachers in suburban schools.   Their data showed that the personality characteristic of Openness influences teaching effectiveness in urban and suburban settings. Openness is a personality characteristic that reflects the propensity to process theoretical and perceptual information that encourages imagination, curiosity, and intelligence, as well as anatomical differences in the percentile, some or all the brain structures involved in the regulation of working memory, attention, and reasoning (Denissen & Penke, 2008; DeYoung et al., 2010; Wrenn, 2005). The finding in Denissen and Penke (2008) support other published findings because the Openness personality characteristic is needed to adapt instruction due to the uniqueness of the students whom teachers teach in different settings (Gehrke, 2005; Jacob, 2007; Schultz, 2014). Denissen and Penke (2008) explained that urban teachers needed to be more innovative to be effective. Teachers who are capable of developing culturally-relevant pedagogy will use students' cultural

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experiences to build more engaging instruction to pique student interest while raising the teacher's expectations that can lead to better student outcomes (Gay & Howard, 2000; Jacob, 2007; Long, 2012; Milner &Tenore, 2010; Tintiangco-Cubales et al., 2014).

Finally, Denissen and Penke (2008) found that there is a relationship in measures of Neuroticism between highly effective teachers in urban schools and highly effective teachers in suburban schools. Although the data analysis showed that there was a relationship in measures of Neuroticism between highly effective teachers in urban schools and highly effective teachers in suburban schools, neuroticism does not influence the effectiveness in the settings because neither group of teachers scored above average. This is important since teachers with high expectations for their students are effective (Jacob, 2007). The finding in Denissen and Penke (2008) study is not in conflict with other literature because the personality characteristic of Neuroticism is not a trait in highly effective teachers. The trait has been seen as the result of people's differences in distress regulation or the ability to cope with stress caused by negative cues in the environment (Wright, 2006). Individuals with low Neuroticism scores are more likely to show emotions such as calmness, security, relaxation, and stress-tolerance (Wrenn, 2005). Denissen and Penke's (2008) finding suggests the urban group is less calm under stress than the suburban group. The lack of resources could cause more stress for teachers in the urban setting.

Researchers believe that without vital resources, teacher strategies, materials, and relevant pedagogy are worthless (Gehrke, 2005; Howard, 2001; Shaw, 2012; Tintiangco-Cubales et al., 2014). Reduced access to financial

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resources in an urban setting may lead to a more stressful environment for urban teachers, indicated by a higher score in Neuroticism. The findings in this study suggest that highly effective teachers in urban and suburban settings are descriptively aligned with Fenderson's (2011) National Teachers of the Year Nominees in 2009. The differences between urban and suburban groups are that the suburban group's scores were higher for the personality characteristics Extroversion and Agreeableness than those of the urban group; the urban group's scores were higher for the personality characteristics of Conscientiousness, Openness, and Neuroticism than the suburban group. Also, the scores were different for the personality characteristic of Neuroticism, as the urban group is average for the trait and the suburban group is low in the trait., this suggests there are more stressors associated with teaching in the urban setting than those that may exist in the suburban setting.

Rural/Urban Differences and Self-efficacy

In Ghana, a rural area is described as a locality that has settlement patterns characterized by isolation, extractive economic activities, and a population of fewer than 5,000 people (Ghana Statistical Service, 2012). Although urban areas are often lauded for being healthier, quieter, safer and a better place to raise children, rural lifestyles also pose some substantial disadvantages that threaten the retention of teachers in rural classrooms (Miller, 2012). Rural areas are also known to offer family-oriented settings, fresh air and enhanced quality of life (Cowan, 2010). Yet, many teachers refuse being posted to rural areas due to concerns about the quality of housing, classroom facilities, healthcare, school resources, opportunities for professional advancement, professional isolation, and language barriers

(Addy, 2013; Amoako, 2011; Acheampong & Gyasi, 2019). Teachers in rural schools may also have reduced contact hours with their students as compared to their colleagues in urban schools with respect to missed school days when teachers have to travel to the urban centres to seek medical care, collect pay, attend in-service training, or visit family (Mulkeen, 2005), which negatively affect teacher effectiveness.

According to Zeichner (2003), turnover rates are highest in rural schools, almost a third higher than for teachers in urban schools (Ingersoll, 2001). Rural schools with the highest percentages of poor and ethnic minority students have the highest teacher turnover rates, the highest percentage of first-year teachers, teachers with less than five years of teaching experience and the lowest percentage of veteran teachers (Ingersoll, 2001). Regardless of school urbanicity, Shen (1995) identifies the negative results of teacher attrition that raises concerns about the quality of the teaching force, disrupting program continuity and planning, hindering of student learning and increasing district expenditures on recruiting and hiring.

School characteristics have been studied in connection with teacher attrition. Ingersoll (2001) identified schools in the Southern and Western regions of the United States that had higher teacher attrition for public schools, and that rural schools had higher attrition rate than that of urban or suburban schools but mainly due to school enrolment size. This is in line with Ingersoll's (2001) identification of small private schools to have high attrition. It can be argued that his information may be useful for planning at a national level, but it does not negate the importance of urban and suburban schools and their hiring needs. There is high attrition in schools with inadequate building

facilities (Buckley, Schneider & Shang, 2005). Ingersoll (2001) reported that for public schools, large enrolment schools have low attrition and that the number of students assigned to a class had no effect. Schools with low-academic achievement were found to have high attrition rates in Texas (Hanushek, Kain, & Rivkin, 2004), and challenging student behaviour was a factor for movers and leavers (Harrell, Leavell, VanTassell, & McKee, 2004; Ingersoll, 2001). Shen (1995) found out that leavers were from schools with more racial minority students. Still, when Shen (1995) compared the attrition rates for schools with predominately white students to schools in similar areas, schools with higher minority enrolment had lower attrition rates. High-poverty schools had more movers and leavers, according to Birkeland and Johnson (2003), Darling-Hammond and Berry (2006) and Imazeki (2005). These researchers found out that if an entire district had a sizeable high-poverty student enrolment, high-poverty was not a significant factor for attrition in individual schools.

Ingersoll (2001) again found out that high-poverty public schools (with a poverty enrolment of 50% or more) had higher turnover rates than that of the more affluent schools (less than 15% poverty enrolment). The attrition rate for the urban, high-poverty public schools was reported at 14.4%, as compared to that of small private schools at 22.8%. This vast difference was due to the leavers, as the percentage of movers was approximately the same. This study has strengths in its systematic statistical analysis: first, with descriptive statistics on teacher attrition, migration, and retirement; then, a multiple regression analysis on teacher characteristics, school characteristics, and organizational conditions, controlling for teacher race, gender, age, and

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teaching field, accounting for the likeliness of younger and older teachers leaving. After the teacher characteristics and school characteristics were controlled, Ingersoll (2001) focused on the four organizational conditions; the specific indexes are given to define each organizational condition in Texas.

Another study by Mitchell and DellaMattera (2011) at the University of Alberta in Canada, investigated the role of teacher support and its influence on middle school students' self-efficacy beliefs. A state-wide survey of 9,702 urban and rural middle school students was conducted. The relationship between the amount of perceived teacher support and students' self-efficacy beliefs shows a strong positive correlation between these two variables r (9,381) = .581, p. <.001. The amount of variability explained in this relationship equals 33.7%, which is considered to be quite strong (Cohen, 1988). More specifically, these findings illustrate that one-third of the variability in student perceived self-efficacy beliefs are explained by the support they receive from teachers. Teacher support is crucial for student success and engagement in school.

The differences between rural and urban settings on students reports of self-efficacy found a moderate difference F (14, 9,561) = 6.19, p<.001. Rural students reported greater levels of self-efficacy beliefs (M=5,71) compared to those of urban students (M=5.67). These differences were also seen on the socio-economic status between urban and rural students. Rural poor students reported higher levels of self-efficacy beliefs (M=5.71) compared to those of their urban counterparts (M=5.69) and prosperous rural students also reported higher levels of self-efficacy (M=5.72) compared to those of their affluent urban peers (M=5.65). Rural poor students reported

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lower levels of teacher support (M=5.01) compared to their poor urban counterparts (M=5.20); however, prosperous rural students reported higher levels of teacher support (M-5.12) compared to their affluent urban counterparts (M=5.03). While the mean differences between the groups on these measures are small, the large sample size suggests that there are real differences between the perceptions of urban and rural students on these measures. Additionally, the relationship between students' self-efficacy beliefs and their grade point average (GPA) was significant r (8,603) = 0429, p.<.001 which accounts for a moderate to a significant relationship between the two variables (18.4%; Cohen, 1988). Finally, the relationship between teacher support and students' GPA was also significant r (8,498) =.265, p<.001. Still, the amount of variance explained by teacher support on students' GPA was 7%, which is considered to be small to a moderate relationship.

Mitchell and DellaMattera (2011) concluded that rural students reported extremes on the measure of teacher support. Rural poor students reported lower levels of teacher support compared to their poor urban counterparts. Still, prosperous rural students reported higher levels of teacher support compared to their affluent urban counterparts. Students perceived that they were receiving average teacher support, whether they were from poor or prosperous countries. In contrast, rural students were more inclined to recognise that they were very under-supported or very much supported. Again, perception can be deceiving. What this dog bone continuum tells us is that rural poor children do not perceive that they are receiving the teacher supports they may need. The inability of middle school students in poor rural counties to get the teacher support they need, whether real or imagined is cause for

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concern.   Real or imagined, community involvement is the answer. When school communities are rural and poor, resources are hard to find due to either a deficiency in funding and/or a lack of availability. One resource that is limited in rural areas is the number of teachers. This may result in a student finding it difficult getting an adult that they feel comfortable with. School administrators need to free up teachers and other adults in the school so that the latter will have time to meet with students on an individual basis and be sure that each student has someone that they are connected to.

Additionally, perceptions of lesser teacher support need to be addressed and changed. In poor rural communities, the school is often the centre of the community, and often community members are deeply and emotionally involved in the school culture. Community involvement can hurt school culture if the community has a pessimistic view of the importance of schooling on positive futures for its students. The upside to an involved and engaged citizenry is that a strong belief, a loud public outcry, can change public opinion.   In poor rural communities, people have to work harder to make less go farther. Teachers and schools need to be better at using volunteers, finding resources that meet a variety of student needs, and creating a positive presence in the community. Schools need to keep community members informed about the good work that teachers are doing, and its resulting positive impact on students. There are a variety of ways to spread the word: a weekly "good news" article about great things students are doing could appear in the local newspaper; a "student of the week" on the school marquee; a monthly student art or math or science show to which community members are invited. The possibilities are endless. The study of students'

perceptions of teacher support in the middle school classroom over the middle school years is an important step in our ability to understand the complex ways in which teachers influence students' self-efficacy beliefs. Future research should investigate individual and classroom level effects of teacher practices on students' perceptions and beliefs.

Rural/Urban Differences and Job Satisfaction

Much of the literature on rural and urban teacher job satisfaction speaks to the disadvantages of rural teachers. It appears that one generally makes more money and has more equipment and fewer preparations in urban settlements compared to those in rural areas (Muse & Stoneworker, 1979). The literature also tells us that urban centres have more cultural and educational opportunities, and those social and professional relationships are more challenging in rural areas, especially for those teachers who did not grow up in rural areas. Why then does anyone teach in a rural school except necessity? Even more importantly, how do those who teach in rural areas feel about themselves and their jobs? Do they differ from teachers in the more "desirable" urban areas? Muse and Stoneworker (1979) found much support for the idea that persons from all sorts of backgrounds can and do teach in rural areas, and they like it well enough to stay.

Blackburn and Robinson (2008) in an informal interview survey of rural and urban teachers, found all of their participants reasonably satisfied with their jobs and very satisfied with their locations. They also found some evidence that rural and urban teachers' expectations and attitudes relative to work differed. Rural teachers seemed to draw more satisfaction from their students and peers. Urban teachers, on the other hand, were happy to have

excellent facilities and opportunities for social/cultural development offered in urban settings. Haughey and Murphy (1983) investigated rural teachers' satisfaction levels in four areas: working conditions, teaching-related matters, student-related matters and occupation-related matters.

Rottier, Kelly and Tomhave (1983) found out that many teachers in rural schools' experience personal teaching dissatisfaction. Specific concerns were related to unhappiness with the community, administration and expectations for teachers. A variety of studies on urban teachers' problems and stresses indicate that their areas of dissatisfaction are more often related to physical harassment, large classes and lack of close relationships with students (Cook, 1979; Kaiser & Polczynski, 1982). Most of the studies which have investigated teachers' attitudes about their work and its (work) relationship to them as individuals have been based on relatively informal non-standardized data. This study was designed to investigate formally the relationships among rural and urban teachers' self -concepts as measured by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS), and job-related attitudes as measured by the Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire (PTO).

Another area which is closely linked to job satisfaction is classroom management. Classroom management in urban schools is more challenging than that in rural schools (Cotton, 1996; Delpit, 1995; Wilson & Corbett, 2001). An American study revealed that 50 per cent of urban teachers leave the profession within the first five years of their careers, citing behaviour problems and management as factors influencing their decision (National Commission for Teaching and America's Future, 2003). Wilson & Corbett, 2001) agreed that "classroom management is especially problematic for urban

teachers" (p. 305).   Burnett (1994) noted that urban youth present higher rates of disruptive behaviour in class than do rural youth. Urban students often view themselves as victims, and exhibit learned helpless behaviours (Reed & Davis, as cited in Foote, 2009).

Lemke (1994) and Collins (1999) both suggested that shortage of teachers has affected many schools across the nation and that rural school administrators "find it extremely difficult" (Lemke, p. 10) to find and employ highly qualified teachers who "fit in" (Collins, p. 2) a rural school and rural community. They also noted that rural schools find it challenging to employ teachers who accept posting to rural schools to remain in the job, rather than merely obtaining an initial teaching experience reference while waiting for an available position in a larger district. School districts in rural areas experience a more difficult time in attracting teachers to their rural schools due to budget limits, and also the lack of amenities available in larger metropolitan areas (Crews, Smith, Maddux, Smaby, Torres, Rivera & Urbani, 2002). Collins (1999) also found out that it was particularly difficult for rural schools to recruit teachers who held state certification in multiple subject areas such as special education, foreign languages, Limited English Proficiency (LEP), or English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL).

Current educational thought has suggested that the leading cause of poor school performance is the difficulty that schools have in staffing each of their classrooms with capable and highly qualified teachers. Collins (1999) stated that "attracting and retaining quality teachers will be instrumental in creating and implementing the higher standards for student academic achievement being advocated in rural schools" (p. 2).   Since education has

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continued to be in competition with other businesses and careers for intelligent and dedicated people, school districts have the obligation not only to place a high effort in attracting bright individuals and strong candidates to their schools but also to provide support and opportunities for these new teachers to become highly qualified (Banks, 1999). Banks (1999) continued by stating that "new teachers have the passion and motivation to teach, but many districts provide a sink or swim atmosphere that new teachers must overcome" (p. 12). Bradley (1998) noted that an increase in shortages of teachers was compounded by a teacher distribution problem across the United States which was generated from both geographical and subject-speciality related issues. Affluent suburban districts were not experiencing many issues associated with the theme of teacher shortage because they were receiving adequate numbers of teacher applicants. At the same time, rural and urban schools struggled to fill their available teaching positions.

Buchanan (2005) pointed out that rural school's face problems that urban and suburban schools did not experience when trying to attract teachers to their rural schools created by social isolation and the unavailability of leisure activities or entertainment. Robinson (as cited by Buchanan (2005) stated that "the city lights, for most young people, are blazing too brightly" (p. 17). In essence, the personal time after the school bell rings to end the teacher workday remains relevant to young teachers. The accessibility for recreation, entertainment, shopping, social activities, and interactions with their peers was a continuous and vital component for teachers when they were choosing a school and community to work in. National Board Certification Legislation (NBCL) imparted even more significant difficulties for all rural schools, with

their traditionally high minority and high poverty populations, in their success in attracting new teachers (Tompkins, 2003). In Tompkin's article, *Law May Intensify Teacher Shortage,* (March 2005), it was reported that in North Carolina, administrators and educators feared that NBCL, although believing it a well-intentioned federal law, could exacerbate the existing teacher shortages. Tompkins (2003) noted the difficulties rural schools faced by presenting an example of a veteran teacher of 13 years possessing a master's degree, National Board Certification, and a former district teacher of the year. Contrary to the intention of the law, this teacher is not considered "highly qualified" according to the National Board Certification's definition because she teaches multiple subjects, which is a common practice in rural schools and does not hold certifications in each of the subject areas. Sullivan (as cited by Tompkins (2003), stated that "in a state that was already struggling to find teachers is making it extra difficult."   Ironically, what was intended to provide students with qualified teachers creates a situation of an unintended consequence which aggravates the problem of shortage of teachers.

Tompkins (2003) also reported that there was considerable disparity in the chronically low salaries that rural teachers received in relation to the salaries of teachers in urban schools. Rural teachers earned an average of 86 cents on the dollar as compared to that of urban colleagues who earned 108 cents on a dollar. This correlated to a possible variance of $5,000 a year as the salaries of teachers with comparable college degrees and years of experience and was reported to be in the range of $6,886 to $7,896 per year in New York, Pennsylvania, and Iowa, and up to $8,573 in Illinois. The Florida Education Association reported that between 1993 and 2003, the average salary of a

teacher in Florida grew by a total of 1.2%, taking into consideration a calculated adjustment for inflation. At first glance, it might look like the increase was reasonable until it was compared to the nationwide average of 2.6% increase. In the southeast, it was only in Kentucky that a teacher's average salary increase was lower than Florida's. More impressive and significant gains were made by other south-eastern states such as 18% increase in Georgia, 15.1% increase in North Carolina, 11.6% increase in Louisiana, 11.2% increase in Alabama, 11.1% increase in Mississippi, and 8.2% increase in South Carolina. The Florida Education Association also reported that, comparatively, the salaries of teachers in Florida have stayed somewhat stagnant while at the same time healthcare costs have jumped to all-time highs, making it even more challenging to attract and keep good teachers in Florida where rural districts are not immune to these increased healthcare costs.

According to Jimerson (2003), from the Rural School and Community Trust in Charlotte, Vermont, research was limited, at best, when studying the specific needs and challenges in attracting teachers to rural schools. As problems and concerns facing rural schools have started to gain the serious attention of educational administrators and policymakers, new focuses and proposals have surfaced with possible programs and solutions in an effort at assisting rural schools in attracting high-quality teachers, while reducing the effects of the shortage of teachers on rural schools.

Compounding the issue concerning rural teacher job satisfaction is the challenge rural schools face in placing highly qualified teachers in each of their classrooms amid a nation-wide teacher shortage. Tompkins (2003) and

Buchanan (2005) noted that the current crisis of teacher shortages has a disproportionate effect on rural schools. They pointed out that even with positive, concerted efforts by schools to attract new teachers to rural schools, accepting teaching positions in a rural school was not the first choice of new teachers. Harris (2001) found that many teachers who had taken rural teaching jobs indicated that if they had been aware of the lack of the financial stability of rural schools, they would not have sought out or accepted those positions. The effects of the teacher shortage within the context of the geographical, cultural, and educational isolation of rural schools make recruiting and retaining teachers in rural schools difficult, at best, especially when they are coupled with negative anecdotal overtones that are associated with rural areas (Voke, 2002). Many rural school districts have embraced the concept of "growing your own" to alleviate the consequences of teacher shortage (Hutchinson & Sundin, 1999). Homegrown teachers return to rural schools because of their connection with an existing place in the community, and with the basic awareness of the rural community's prevailing values and quirks. Although the grow-your-own strategy has been perceived to be a program that places teachers in the rural classroom with inherent motivation and job satisfaction, research is virtually non-existent regarding the actual effects of the implementation of the program.

Kim and Loadman (1994) proposed that by becoming more aware of teachers' expectations and perceptions of their job and work environment, administrators can gain essential and valuable information. The data from this study have the potential to uncover the factors perceived by rural teachers that influence their job satisfaction. By recognizing the factors that affect

teacher job satisfaction, rural school administrators have the opportunity to view school improvement from a different perspective. A new perspective may offer rural administrators a new appreciation of the role that job satisfaction plays in teacher retention, school climate, and student achievement. Considering the 20 components of job satisfaction as identified within the workforce and vocational research (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1997), all but compensation can be addressed with minimal or no financial collateral. Within this paradigmatic shift from being unaware or unconcerned to a deliberate concentration regarding the implications of teacher job satisfaction, positive results may emerge influencing teacher and student performance, and school climate as a result of the enhanced levels of teacher job satisfaction.

A comparative study on different dimensions of job satisfaction among rural and urban high school teachers by Naik and Yadav (2017) revealed that there is a significant mean difference in the intrinsic aspect dimension of job satisfaction among rural and urban high school teachers. The study further revealed that there exists no significant mean difference in the salary, service conditions and promotion dimension of job satisfaction among rural and urban high school teachers. It has been found that there is no significant mean difference in the physical facilities dimension of job satisfaction among rural and urban high school teachers. Naik and Yadav (2017) recommended that high school teachers should try to sort out the exact cause of job –dissatisfaction and solve the problems by a mutual discussion with management. They should also consider their profession as a service to society rather than as a wage earner. Teachers should continuously try to

improve themselves with the latest developments in the educational field. Furthermore, teachers should realize that satisfaction is an attitude of mind; hence they should try and find ways to establish peace of mind. Last but not least, if they find difficulty in adjustment with the co-staff and other members of the institution, they should feel free to discuss it with the higher authorities of the institute.

Another study by Najar and Dar (2017) on job satisfaction of rural and urban teachers in India, revealed a significant difference (at 0.01 significance level) between urban and rural high school teachers on job satisfaction. The study showed that rural high school teachers had more job satisfaction than urban high school teachers. Furthermore, both male and female rural high school teachers had greater satisfaction on the job than did their urban contemporaries. Therefore, Najar and Dar (2017) failed to find a basis to accept the hypothesis that "rural and urban high school teachers do not differ significantly on job satisfaction".

Job Satisfaction among Ghanaian Teachers

Any individual's commitment to their organization or institution depends on the satisfaction they derive from that enterprise. On the other hand, if an individual is dissatisfied with the job, his or her attitude towards that job is lukewarm and indifferent to all the activities in that organization, and this can adversely affect output. In the case of teachers, Attafuah (2004) reported that Ghanaian teachers, since the introduction of formal education, cannot be said to have been wholly satisfied with their job. This is because around 1844, it was observed that funds for education were limited. McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh (1975) mentioned that in 1844 the only local

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source of revenue for the colonial government was customs duties on certain goods which passed through the harbours it controlled. This implies that if the trade was low, then revenue was also going to be small. These reports and views show how limited and unreliable the source of government revenue was at the time, and how the economic situation of the teacher could not have been any better. Besides, Philip Quaque suffered as a teacher in the hands of the colonial masters because on his death his salary was in arrears of 300 pounds. Moreover, he was paid in goods, not in money. He was probably dissatisfied with his job. In the early part of the twentieth century, the government introduced the payment by results policy. With this policy, the quantum of a school's grant, which invariably was the teacher's salary, depended on the number of children who passed the annual examination conducted by the Inspector of Schools at the time (McWilliams & Kwamena-Poh, 1975). This policy was so harsh that teachers lost interest in and commitment to their jobs, so later the system was abolished. Consequently, the resignation rate of teachers increased, and in 1919, the situation worsened with the resignation of more experienced and senior teachers as a result of the unattractive pay and poor conditions of service. (McWilliams & Kwamena-Po, 1975).

Nasurdin, Ramayah and Kumaresan (2005) researched job satisfaction and organisational commitment and noted that committed employees take pride in corporate membership, believe in the goals and values of the organisation and show higher levels of performance and productivity. He contended that if the workers perceived that the organisation is failing to provide necessary resources capable of satisfying the needs of its members, then their commitment is likely to decrease. Nasurdin, Ramayah and

Kumaresan (2005) are also of the view that quality education does not come in a vacuum and does not even involve brilliant ideas, but rather it depends on the qualification of teachers and their willingness and preparedness to teach; therefore, a teacher's job satisfaction should not be taken for granted. Robbins and Judge (2013) supported the views of Nasurdin, Ramayah and Kumaresan (2005) by indicating that teachers are of great value to a country's educational development and socio-cultural progress. Again, these teachers can remove the scourge of poverty, ignorance and superstition prevalent in developing countries since job dissatisfaction can be detrimental to an organisation, as well as the teaching service. McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh (1975) also noted that the shortage of trained teachers grew more and more serious. It was made even worse by a rising flood of resignations, especially among the more senior and experienced teachers. However, the dissatisfaction of teachers with their jobs did not see any improvement, and this led to a high attrition rate of teachers in the country.

Antwi (1992) reported that between August 1977 and September 1978, 4000 teachers left the teaching service to seek employment in other countries. Antwi (1992) estimated that about 70 per cent of new graduates from the universities undertook their National Service as teachers in secondary schools and of that proportion, over 90 per cent opted out of the teaching field after the completion of their year's national service. It was also noted that between 1978 and 1980, over 1000 graduate and non-graduate teachers left the service. The primary cause of this exodus was the frustration encountered by these teachers in the context of economic, academic, political and social conditions. He further explained that in the economic sphere, that is, in the late 1970s the

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average monthly take-home pay of most secondary school teachers was about ¢240, for university lecturers ¢300 and professors ¢480. During the same period in Nigeria, a secondary school teacher's monthly take-home pay was $300-$350 (¢1,285.70 – 1,500) so the majority of Ghanaian teachers left in search of greener pastures in Nigeria and elsewhere. As a result, the quality of education in the country was adversely affected. This also affected the human resources produced in the country.

Bame (1991) also conducted a study on job satisfaction among teachers. He found that the most important factors that drove away teachers from the Ghana Education Service were: paltry salary, lack of opportunity for promotion, low prestige, and relationship with supervisors. The teachers also saw a lack of opportunity to perform useful service and inability on the teachers' part to teach as the least important motivating reasons that made teachers leave teaching. On the contrary, a majority of the teachers stated that the most satisfying aspect of elementary school teaching in Ghana was that teaching was a steady and secure occupation for as long as a teacher had satisfactory educational and professional qualifications, and was efficient. Moreover, a teacher had a good chance of getting ahead in the service, albeit slowly. It is interesting to note that despite the rather poor salaries and conditions of service in the past, there had not been any definitive satisfaction of teachers, which would guarantee seriousness and commitment to their job. Terbory and Miller, as cited in Freeman and Stoner (1989), observed that inadequate salary and lack of proper remuneration would affect job satisfaction. They further explained that factors such as fringe benefits and

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overall salary system could affect workers satisfaction and decision to perform at the workplace.

Empirical Studies on Dispositional Sources and Job Satisfaction

This aspect of the literature review looks at the views on dispositional influence on job satisfaction. The two most important areas for consideration are; a) which traits should be included in investigations into the dispositional source of job satisfaction b) the elucidating processes underlying the effects of dispositions on job satisfaction. There has been recognition of individual differences in job satisfaction for as long as the topic of job satisfaction has been studied. Fisher and Hanna (1931) concluded that job dissatisfaction could be traced to emotional maladjustment; Hoppock (1935) determined that questions assessing emotional adjustment separated satisfied and dissatisfied employees. Weitz (1952) found out that workers' responses to a "gripe index" were predictive of job dissatisfaction; Smith (1955) suggested that factory workers' susceptibility to monotony (a correlate of dissatisfaction) was rooted in personal and generalized discontents of the workers.

Locke (1976) suggested the possible usefulness of looking at dispositional factors, but at that time few such studies had been carried out. It has been only since the mid-1980s that the dispositional source of job satisfaction has been the focus of more than sporadic research attention. Since 1983, there have been roughly 20 studies formally investigating the dispositional cause of job satisfaction, though many more have investigated personality traits and job satisfaction in the same survey. Although a few of the early studies were criticisms of the approach (Cropanzano & James, 1990; Davis-Blake & Pfeffer, 1989; Gerhart, 1987; Gutek & Winter, 1992), these

criticisms appear to have subsided, and few argue with a necessary conclusion that a significant part of job satisfaction is rooted in individuals' personalities. In this literature, consideration is given to two broad categories of studies. The first category, known as the indirect studies, seeks to demonstrate a dispositional basis to job satisfaction by inference. Typically, in such studies, disposition or personality is not measured but is inferred to exist from a process of logical deduction or induction. The second group of studies, which is termed direct studies, relates a direct measure of a construct purported to assess a personality trait to job satisfaction. Therefore, in keeping with the above dichotomy, the literature review is organized into indirect and direct studies.

Pulakos and Schmitt (1983) found that individuals who expected their job to be psychologically rewarding were, in fact, more likely to find it worthwhile. Specifically, the authors found that high school graduates' expectations of having their growth needs met by their prospective jobs were with intrinsic job satisfaction 20 months after the individuals had graduated. Though this study was not explicitly concerned with testing the dispositional source of job satisfaction, Pulakos and Schmitt (1983) interpreted these findings as indicative of the fact that predispositions are an important source of job satisfaction. Staw and Ross (1985), utilizing an extensive, longitudinal database, found that measures of job satisfaction were reasonably stable over two years. Staw and Ross (1985) further discovered that job satisfaction showed significant stability under situational change, even when individuals changed both employers and occupations over five years. However, this stability was much lower than for individuals who changed neither occupation

nor employer. Finally, the authors found that prior job satisfaction was a more reliable predictor of current satisfaction than changes in pay.

Interestingly enough, Staw and Ross' (1985) study was attacked on several fronts. Gerhart (1987) corrected several methodological flaws in the study. Although Gerhart's interpretation was more conservative regarding the dispositional source of job satisfaction, he "essentially replicated the Staw and Ross (1985) result using a younger sample of both men and women and a more sophisticated methodology which also controlled for changes in job complexity" (Davis-Blake & Pfeffer, 1989, p. 16). Gutek and Winter (1992) criticized the Staw and Ross (1985) design on the argument that frames of reference might shift over time, thus explaining stability in job satisfaction (employees who change jobs may be no more or less satisfied than before because their standards used to judge the favourability of the job shift with the new job).

Thus, according to these authors, Staw and Ross (1985) may have erroneously attributed attitude stability to dispositional influences. Of course, this argument ignores the possibility that frames of reference themselves might be dispositionally based. Finally, Newton and Keenan (1991) found that job satisfaction scores had some stability over two years, but that mean levels of satisfaction change significantly throughout the study and these changes in satisfaction were affected by changes in the employer. It should be noted, however, that correlation addresses stability in rank orders but not the stability of means; thus, even if the correlations were 1.0, average job satisfaction levels could have changed substantially over time. More recently, Steel and Rentsch (1997) took a similar approach to that of Staw and Ross (1985) in

showing significant stability in job satisfaction over ten years for military employees. The stability was significantly stronger for employees performing similar work than for those performing different work (r 5 .23, ns). Finally, the authors found both previous job satisfaction, present job characteristics and changes in job characteristics all predicted Time 2 job satisfaction, with previous job satisfaction being the most critical predictor. Like the findings of Staw and Ross (1985), Steel and Rentsch's (1997) study provides support for both the dispositional and situational perspectives. There is significant stability in job satisfaction over relatively long periods, but this stability decreases somewhat in the face of situational change. Moreover, prior satisfaction is as powerful a predictor of current satisfaction as a change in job conditions.

In a provocative study, Arvey, Bouchard, Segal, and Abraham (1989) found significant similarity in the job satisfaction levels of 34 pairs of monozygotic (identical) twins reared apart from early childhood. The intraclass correlation (ICC) between the general job satisfaction of the twin pairs was. To rule out the possibility that this correlation was observed because the twins (as people with similar dispositions) selected themselves into identical work environments, or were selected into same settings by the organization because of genetic effects on ability, Arvey, Bouchard, Segal and Abraham (1989) attempted to eliminate this explanation by controlling for jobs held, using the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (DOT) scales to classify jobs on four dimensions. Controlling for the DOT scales had little effect on the correlation. Cropanzano and James (1990) criticized numerous aspects of the methodology employed by Arvey et al. (1989) (e.g., potential similarities in the environments in which the twins were raised may have caused similarities

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in satisfaction, monozygotic twins are not representative of the population). While Cropanzano and James' (1990) concerns about the Arvey et al. (1989) study are well taken, like Bouchard, Arvey, Keller, and Segal (1992) noted in reply, the authors do not introduce evidence to directly refute the evidence presented by Arvey et al. (1989).

Though this series of indirect studies can be credited for establishing interest in the dispositional perspective, they have an obvious limitation—they cannot demonstrate a dispositional source of job satisfaction. For example, the correlation between expectations to be satisfied and subsequent satisfaction may be because individuals who expected to be happy were, in fact, more satisfied because they expected—and subsequently received—better jobs (Gerhart, 1987). Similarly, though similarity in twins' job satisfaction levels indeed suggests a dispositional source of job satisfaction, it cannot rule out possible alternative explanations of the results, such as intelligence (Judge, 1992). Thus, these studies are suggestive but insufficient by themselves to give steady support to the dispositional approach. For this strong support, we look to studies that directly measured dispositional traits, which we review next.

Although more recent studies on the dispositional source of job satisfaction have the common characteristic of directly measuring a trait that is related to job satisfaction, the specific traits that are measured in studies have varied widely. There are three classes of traits that have been investigated. These studies are reviewed by type of trait as indicated below.

Positive and negative affectivity. Research by Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988) has suggested that affective disposition is composed of two

facets: positive affectivity and negative affectivity. High energy, enthusiasm and pleasurable engagement characterize Positive affectivity (PA), whereas distress, unpleasurable engagement, and nervousness characterize Negative affectivity (NA) (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988).

Levin and Stokes (1989) found that Negative Affectivity was significantly correlated with job satisfaction; this relationship remained significant once job characteristics such as job autonomy and skill variety were controlled. In a sample of employees working for various organizations, Necowitz and Roznowski (1994) found that Negative affectivity was significantly negatively related to three facets of job satisfaction. In the second study of students working on enriched and unenriched tasks, these authors found that Negative affectivity was negatively correlated with task satisfaction. In a longitudinal study of university employees, Watson and Slack (1993) found that whereas negative affectivity was significantly negatively correlated with several job satisfaction facets at Time 1 and Time 2. Negative affectivity was not significantly correlated with overall job satisfaction at Time 1. Like negative affectivity, positive affectivity was not significantly correlated with every job satisfaction facet. Still, it was significantly correlated with overall job satisfaction at Time 1 (r 5 .29, p, .05) and Time 2 Connolly and Viswesvaran (2000) conducted a meta-analysis of 27 articles and found true score correlations of PA and NA with job satisfaction of .52 and 2.33, respectively. Thus, it appears that both PA and NA are generally related to job satisfaction.

Core self-evaluations. Recently, Judge, Locke, and Durham (1997), drawing from literature, introduced the construct of *core self-evaluations*.

According to Judge, Locke, and Durham (1997), *core self-evaluations* are fundamental premises that individuals hold about themselves and their functioning in the world. Judge, Locke, and Durham (1997), took a "top-down" focus in arguing that core evaluations are all-encompassing and that situationally specific appraisals depend on these core evaluations. Judge et al. argued that core self-evaluation is a broad personality construct composed of several more specific traits as follows:

Self-esteem: Self-esteem is the overall value that one places on oneself as a person (Harter, 1990). It is the individual's self-acceptance, self-liking, and self-respect. Research indicates that self-esteem demonstrates short-term fluctuations but long-term stability (Costa & McCrae, 1994).

Generalized self-efficacy: Self-efficacy is one's judgments of "how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations" (Bandura, 1982, p. 122). Thus, generalized self-efficacy represents individuals' perceptions of their ability to perform across a variety of situations. Generalized self-efficacy is not the same as self-esteem because what individuals master may not be fundamental to that which is valued by the individual. Only for essential life domains should an individual's self-efficacy and self-esteem be significantly associated.

Neuroticism: Neuroticism is one of the traits in the five-factor model of personality. Neuroticism represents the tendency to exhibit poor emotional adjustment and experience negative effects such as fear, hostility, and depression (Goldberg, 1990). Neurotic individuals are prone to anxiety, manifesting itself in tendencies to be fearful of novel situations and susceptibility to feelings of dependence and helplessness (Wiggins, 1996).

Locus of control: Locus of control represents the perceived degree of control in life. Individuals with an internal locus of control believe their behaviour controls their lives. In contrast, individuals with an external locus of control believe that their life is controlled by luck, chance, fate, or powerful others (Rotter, 1966). Although locus of control is conceptually related to self-efficacy, the two concepts differ in one crucial respect. Self-efficacy pertains to confidence about behaviours, whereas locus of control is more concerned with confidence in being able to control outcomes.

Two published primary studies have related core self-evaluations to job satisfaction. Judge, Locke and Durham (1997), analysing data across three samples, found that core self-evaluations had a "true score" total effect of 0.48 on job satisfaction when both constructs were self-reported by employees and a "true score" effect of 0.37 when core self-evaluations were measured independently (by a significant other). Judge and Bono (2000) found that core self-evaluations correlated .41 (p, .01) with job satisfaction when both constructs were self-reported and .19 (p, .05) when significant others reported core self-evaluations. Judge and Bono (2001) completed a meta-analysis of 169 independent correlations (combined N559, 871) on the relationship between each of the four core traits and job satisfaction. When the four meta-analyses were combined into a single composite measure, the overall corrected correlation was 0.37.

Other measures of affective disposition: There have been other measures of affective disposition used in investigating the dispositional source of job satisfaction. Staw, Bell, and Clausen (1986) utilised a unique data set by which psychologists rated children on several characteristics, 17 of the authors

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argued on the assessed affective disposition ("cheerful," "warm," and "negative"). Due to the panel nature of the study, Staw, Bell, and Clausen (1986) reported various correlations between affective disposition and various measures of job satisfaction collected throughout the study. Perhaps most impressive, however, were their results showing that affective disposition assessed at ages 12–14 correlated .34 (p, .05) with overall job satisfaction evaluated at ages 54–62. Judge and Hulin (1993) and Judge, Higgins, Thoresen and Barrick (1993), utilising distinct samples, found that employees' responses to a neutral object's questionnaire were correlated with job satisfaction. The measure used in these studies, termed the Neutral Objects Satisfaction Questionnaire (NOSQ), was adapted from Weitz's (1952) "gripe" checklist, which asked individuals to indicate their satisfaction with a list of facially neutral objects common to everyday life (your telephone number, your first name, the neighbours you have, and 8 1/2 3 11 in. paper). The idea was that individuals predisposed to be dissatisfied with such ostensibly neutral items are predisposed to unhappiness with most aspects of their lives, including their jobs. Locke (1976) found that this measure of affective disposition was significantly correlated with facets of job satisfaction (average rate of 5 .19 in both studies). Despite favourable psychometric evidence for the measure (Judge, Higgins, Thoresen and Barrick, 1993), it is unclear about what construct this measure assesses. Furthermore, Judge (1992) conducted a usefulness analysis and found that the NOSQ did not explain significant incremental variance in job satisfaction controlling for core self-evaluations, but core self-evaluations did control for the NOSQ measure. Thus, the NOSQ measure of affective disposition appears to be less useful

than core self-evaluations in assessing the dispositional source of job satisfaction.

Even though research on the dispositional source of job satisfaction has made enormous strides, considerable room for further development exists. Early in this research stream, Davis-Blake and Pfeffer (1989) criticised dispositional research for its failure to define or carefully measure affective disposition. To some extent, this criticism is still relevant. As the above review clarifies, even those that have directly measured affective disposition have done so with fundamentally different measures.

Hence, the question that arises is: What traits and measures are best suited in predicting job satisfaction? Despite many studies on job satisfaction, there have been very few efforts to compare, contrast and integrate these different conceptualisations and measures of affective disposition. The above research needs further investigations as regards to which disposition is best suited to predict job satisfaction. Brief (1998) would turn this issue around by arguing that we need to consider which job satisfaction is best suited to be predicted by affective disposition. According to Brief (1998) and Brief and Weiss (2001), job satisfaction is a combination of affection (feelings) and cognition (thinking), but most measures of job satisfaction are overly cognitive in their orientation. If more emotion-laded measures were used, according to Brief, correlations of such job satisfaction measures with affective disposition would be stronger than they now appear. In support of his argument, Brief uses an earlier study (Brief & Roberson, 1989) which shows that cognition correlates more strongly (average r 5 .70) with job satisfaction than does affect (average r 5 .43.)

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A limitation in this study exposes the difficulty in operationally separating cognition and affection in job satisfaction research—affection correlated is as strongly as its measure of cognitions because it did with job satisfaction. It is also important to note that this study, as well as others (Weiss, Nicholas, & Daus, 1999), clearly show that both cognition and affection contribute to job satisfaction. To more fully understand job satisfaction, affections and cognitions must be studied as separate but related influences. The most important studies would take both influences into account. Thus, in evaluating our jobs as when we think about most anything consequential, both cognition and affection are involved. When we think, we have feelings about what we think. When we have feelings, we think about what we are feeling. Cognition and affection are thus related in our psychology, especially even in our biology. Evidence indicates that when individuals perform specific mental operations, a reciprocal relationship exists between cerebral blood flow in areas specialised for processing emotions and those specific for cognitive processes (Drevets & Raichle, 1998). There are cognitive theories of emotion (Reisenzein & Schoenpflug, 1992) and emotion-based theories of cognition (Smith-Lovin, 1991).

Researchers conclude that emotion frequently plays a crucial role in high-level cognitive control processes (LeDoux, 1995; Cacioppo & Gardner, 1999). To illustrate the interrelatedness of emotion and cognition, the neurologist Damasio (1994) presents the case of Elliot, a businessman, who developed a large brain lesion in his prefrontal cortex. Assessments of the Elliot's memory, intelligence, and attention revealed that all of these abilities remained intact and were completely unaffected by his brain lesion. However,

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Elliot lost the ability to experience emotion and began to behave irrationally in his business dealings, making unsound and seemingly illogical decisions. Damasio (1994) argues that Elliot lost the guiding power of emotional reactions. Higher-level cognition, Damasio (1994) argues, relies on evaluative input in the form of emotion, and so cognition and emotion are interwoven in our psychological architecture.

Brief and Weiss (2001) argued that affection and cognition could and should be studied as separate and separable influences on job satisfaction. However, researchers should realize that the two processes are highly related. Separating them is easier in theory than in practice. What we are objecting to is (a) the characterization of measures of job satisfaction as either cognitive or affective (such measures are necessarily both) and, (b) the need to develop new, affectively saturated measures of job satisfaction or to replace measures of job satisfaction with "work affect" measures. Cognition and affection can help us to better understand the nature of job satisfaction, but they are not substituting for job satisfaction any more than the accumulated body parts of a cadaver substitute for a living human. Further research should be conducted on the interrelationships of affections, emotions, and job satisfaction. These sources of job satisfaction have been virtually ignored in the literature, and further study is needed, as Brief and Weiss (2001) persuasively argued.

Turning the attention to the broader issue of theoretical development (or lack thereof) in the literature, the call for greater conceptual grounding in investigations of personality and organisational behaviour is, by now, becoming an old refrain. Weiss and Adler (1984), in reviewing the role of personality in industrial/organizational psychology, explained that the

generally disappointing results are due to improper theoretical development. This concern has been echoed repeatedly in reviews of the literature on the dispositional source of job satisfaction as follows: (1) "None of this research attempts to specify, a priori, a causal model of job attitudes" (DavisBlake & Pfeffer, 1989, p. 393); (2) "It has been noted that it is particularly important for future research to address the psychology of the process, drawing from existing theories" (Judge, 1992, p. 67); (3) Those interested in dispositional research must do "A better job of theoretically linking dispositions and situations in predicting outcomes . . . theory building should specify what outcomes are being predicted and why" (House, Shane, & Herold, 1996, p. 218); (4) "Although many traits have been shown to correlate significantly with job satisfaction, most research with personality has done little more than demonstrating relations without offering much theoretical explanation" (Spector, 1997, p. 51); (5) "Past dispositional research has lacked strong theory" (Judge, 1997, p. 182); and (6) "The need for explanation is a concern that has been voiced about the dispositional approach to job attitudes" (Brief, 1998, p. 93). Given these repeated calls, it is startling how little progress has been made in understanding the psychological processes underlying the dispositional source of job satisfaction. Although the exceptions are noteworthy (Brief, 1998; Motowidlo, 1996; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), it remains a relatively theoretical area of research. There are other areas in need of research in investigating the dispositional source of job satisfaction. For example, more research needs to link dispositional traits to actual behaviours. More interactive models need to be tested.

As an affective phenomenon, job satisfaction may be influenced by both positive and negative affection (Connolly & Viswesvaran, 2000). Hence, there is a need to understand the dispositional processes that influence these two affects. It is believed that the personal characteristics that people bring to the job each day (that is personality) influence job satisfaction primarily through these affective processes.

In the personality psychology, one taxonomy is enjoying widespread acceptance. This is the so-called "Big Five" taxonomy (Digman, 1990). In developing this taxonomy, researchers began with a very straightforward criterion; if a personality trait were essential to social functioning, then in the development of language we would invent many words (mostly adjectives) to describe people who had or did not have this trait. For example, suppose in our ancestral past, it was vital to know whether a given person was conscientious. If so, the lexical argument goes, society would have developed many words to describe people with this trait (example, careful, meticulous, prudent, exacting, thorough, and punctilious) and many words to describe people without this trait (example, unreliable, careless, lax, messy, lazy, and sloppy). The idea that social important traits have become encoded in our language, and that we can discover those traits by analysing language, is known as the lexical hypothesis. Although a simple notion (Block, 1995), it leads to rather powerful implications. One implication is that beginning with the collection of adjectives used to describe persons, researchers could distil the major dimensions of personality. When applied to the English language, such analyses have consistently revealed a remarkably replicable structure consisting of five factors. Moreover, the analyses of other languages—from

Japanese to Russian, to Chinese to Spanish, to German to Croatian—have resulted in the very similar five-factor structures, suggesting that different linguistic cultures have generated very similar ways of talking about, and categorizing important individual differences.

Summary of the Literature Review

This chapter dealt with the review of the literature that related to issues that influenced job satisfaction of teachers. The entire chapter was organized into a theoretical framework and review of empirical studies to provide the foundational framework of the study. Social Cognitive Career Theory formed the theoretical underpinning for this study. Other approaches discussed under this section comprise self-efficacy theory, the Job Characteristics Model of Job Satisfaction, Herzberg Two-factor Theory of motivation, Locke's theory on job satisfaction and the Big Five Personality Traits Model.

The empirical review was conducted under the following sub-headings: the influence of the big five personality traits on job satisfaction, the impact of self-efficacy on job satisfaction, influence of personality traits on self-efficacy, gender and personality traits, gender and self-efficacy, and, gender and job satisfaction. The empirical review also looked at rural/urban differences on personality traits, rural/urban differences on self-efficacy and rural/urban differences on job satisfaction. The literature review dealt with gender and personality traits, gender and self-efficacy, gender and job satisfaction as well as empirical studies in Ghana and dispositional source of job satisfaction among teachers.

According to the Social Cognitive Career Theory, in conceptualising the personal determinants of career development, three variables are seen as

the basic "building blocks'' namely; self-efficacy, outcome expectations and personal goals. Of the three, self-efficacy has received the most attention in the career literature. Bandura (1986) posited that self-efficacy is not a unitary, fixed, or decontextualized trait; instead, it involves a dynamic set of self-beliefs that are specific to particular performance domains, and that interact in a complicated way with another person, behaviour and environmental factors. On job characteristics model on job satisfaction, Hackman and Oldham (1976) opined that a high level of intrinsic motivators, high efficiency is linked to high job satisfaction, low level of turnover and absenteeism. Herzberg (1959) two -factor theory of motivation indicated that hygiene factors which include; pay, company policies, employees health care plans, employees' status, the relationship with employees and peers and job security are essential for the existence of motivation at workplaces. According to Hertzberg (1959), the motivational factors symbolised the psychological needs that were perceived as an additional benefit. Motivational factors include recognition, sense of achievement, growth and promotional opportunities, responsibility, minimising control and work is challenging and meaningful. These factors motivate employees for superior performance. Locke's (1976) theory on job satisfaction proposed that the mind and body are very closely related. It is through the mind that humans discover the nature of their physical and psychological needs and how they may be satisfied.

The literature review also showed that there was a strong linkage between personality traits and job satisfaction. Eswaran & Islam (2011) found that there is a relationship between the Big Five Personality dimensions and job satisfaction. They found extraversion and agreeableness to be significantly

related to job satisfaction while neuroticism, conscientiousness and openness to experience were not found to be significantly associated with job satisfaction. The findings of Eswaran, Islam and Yusuf (2011) established that the overall Big Five personality traits significantly influenced job satisfaction. Agbor, Nwankwo, Iroegbu, Obi, and Agu's (2013) findings also revealed that high scores on conscientiousness and low scores on neuroticism were significant predictors of job satisfaction. When it comes to self-efficacy and job satisfaction, Battersby and Cave (2014) found that low levels of self-efficacy may translate into a low level of attainment. Marri, Ahn, Fletcher, Heng and Hatch (2012) also indicated that self-efficacy is significantly related to subject-matter knowledge in their area of specialization. Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) posited that teachers with a high level of self-efficacy are successful in student engagement, instructional strategies and classroom management. They do this by allowing students to participate in the lesson, improving teaching practices and carrying out a good orchestration of the learning environment. Gibson & Whittington (2009) found out that highly efficacious teachers have more motivation to remain in the teaching profession, and less efficacious teachers are more likely to experience burnout and leave the profession.

On rural/urban differences and personality traits, Gehrke (2005) contended that rural-born and urban-born teachers are capable of being successful teachers in urban settings if they practice agreeableness, conscientiousness, extraversion and openness. The literature also found that the Agreeableness personality characteristic in an urban-born teacher provides the teacher with a sense of humility and allow them to keep expectations high

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for rural students despite the conditions associated with poverty (Milner & Tenore, 2010). On rural/urban differences and self-efficacy, Mitchell and DelaMattera (2010) reported that rural teacher support and efficacy were low as compared to those of their urban counterparts. On rural/urban differences and job satisfaction, a comparative study on different dimensions of job satisfaction among rural and urban high school teachers by Naik and Yadav (2017) revealed that there is the significant mean difference in the intrinsic aspect dimension of job satisfaction among rural and urban high school teachers. The study further revealed that there exists no significant mean difference in the salary, service conditions and promotion dimension of job satisfaction among rural and urban high school teachers. Naik and Yadav (2017) recommended that high school teachers should try and sort out the exact cause of job dissatisfaction and solve the problems by a mutual discussion with management.

On the influence of gender on personality traits, Budaev (1999) found out that females scored high on agreeableness and low on extraversion. Coaster, Terracciano and McCrae (2001) reported that women were higher in neuroticism, agreeableness and openness to feelings whiles men scored higher openness to ideas. On gender and self-efficacy, Anderson (2011) found out that males aged between 25-29 showed a high self-efficacy in all three subscales, namely; student engagement, instructional strategies and classroom management. Females in the same age category were the worst performers in all the three sub-scales. National Centre for Education Statistics [NCES], 2006) also reported that older females responded well about classroom management. Erickson (1980) argued that men form their identity primarily

from independent, work-related achievements, whereas women rely on their identity formation on the intimacy of relationships in their lives. On the issue of gender and job satisfaction, Kim (2005) found out that women were more satisfied with their jobs than men. Grissom, Nicholson-Crotty and Keiser (2012) also found that there were no significant differences between the antecedents of employee satisfaction between genders. Effects of gender congruence appear to be driven by lower job satisfaction and higher turnover among male teachers with female principals. Ofuani (2010) examined the job satisfaction of women in paid employment. The result of the study revealed that marital status, experience, academic qualification and relationship with superior officers had no significant effect on job satisfaction of women in paid employment."

Research conducted in Ghana has repeatedly shown that job satisfaction is influenced by motivation, salary, work conditions, infrastructural improvements and other environmental support variables (see, Cobbold &Asamani, 2015; Asamani, Cobbold & Dai-Kosi (2015); Sam, Effah & Osei-Owusu; 2014; Ghana Education Service, 2012; Ghana National Association of Teachers/Teachers & Educational Workers Union, 2010; Cobbold, 2010; Koomson, 2005; Bame, 1991; Agbenyega, 1986). Other scholars have indicated that job satisfaction is influenced by dispositional characteristics of the individual, namely: personality traits and self-efficacy (Pandey & Kavitha, 2015, Badri, Mohaidat, Ferrandina& Mourad, 2013; Ronfeldt, 2012; Lent & Brown, 2006; Spear, Gould & Lee, 2000). This gap, together with a few conflicting findings on the determinants of job satisfaction

of teachers, provided the need for the present study, which was conducted in the Ghanaian context.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

Introduction

This chapter describes the procedures and techniques that were employed to conduct the study. The philosophical foundations of research, research design, study area, population, sample, as well as the sampling procedures, are discussed. Also, the research instruments, including their validity and reliability, ethical considerations, data collection and data analysis procedures, are described.

The Philosophical Foundations of Research

Research is one of the ways of understanding phenomena and creating or acquiring knowledge. Research is different from other ways of knowing "and understanding, such as supernatural revelation or acceptance of authoritative pronouncements (Mertens, 2010). Research "is a process of systematic inquiry that is designed to collect, analyze, interpret, and use data" (Mertens, 2010, p. 2).

How research is designed and conducted is influenced by researchers' frames of references within which they systematize their thoughts and observations (Bhattacherjee, 2012). These frames of reference are a researcher's theoretical framework, which in tandem with the weight, the researcher places on differentiating between different research approaches and ways of knowing, informing the researcher's definition, designing, and conducting of research (Mertens, 2010). These frames of reference also called

mental models or belief systems, are known as paradigms (Bhattacherjee, 2012). A paradigm "is composes of certain philosophical assumptions that guide and direct thinking and action" (Mertens, 2010, p. 7).

Viewpoints vary, sometimes sharply, as to the relevance of philosophical or paradigmatic considerations in research. There are those (example, Patton, 2002) who hold that linking methodological choices to philosophical paradigms are superfluous and perhaps even impeding. On the other end, some (example, Schwandt, 2000) believe that the philosophical assumptions that underlie research methodology are inescapable.

However, if it is agreed that "everyone is a philosopher–everyone has a concept of the world" as argued by Walliman (2018, pp. 15–16), then, in the study of people, recognizing paradigms is vital to understanding and negotiating the differences in people's views of the same phenomenon (Bhattacherjee, 2012). Even a person who claims to have no philosophy still has an unconscious philosophy which informs what he or she does in every sphere of his or her lives. Therefore, while a researcher may work without acknowledging any philosophical basis for methodological choice, that researcher is working based on the unrecognized and unexamined assumptions (Mertens, 2010). Walliman (2018) posits that acknowledgement and appreciation for philosophical issues is key to critical research evaluation as it fosters insight into the underlying assumptions upon which any research output is based, and therefore allows for evaluation of the appropriateness of methodological choice and conclusions. After all, "a paradigm is a way of looking at the world" (Mertens, 2010, p. 7).

Various paradigms have been identified or developed and championed over time. Mertens (2010) identifies and describes four prevailing paradigms: postpositivist (the successor to positivist), constructivist (or relativist), transformative, and pragmatic. However, she acknowledges (1) the difficulty in grouping all research under a few paradigms, and (2) the blurring of lines and the overlapping of assumptions and methodologies among paradigms. Due to the acknowledgement and negotiation of their weaknesses, some paradigms may evolve into others. For example, post-positivism evolved from a recognition of a key weakness in positivism. Other paradigms, because of their overlapping philosophical assumptions, maybe lumped together under umbrella paradigms. For example, Mertens (2010) places the emancipatory paradigm and critical theory under the transformative paradigm, while Walliman (2018) groups the emancipatory paradigm with postmodernism. Another paradigm worth acknowledging is postmodernism, along with its variants or related paradigms, poststructuralism and deconstructivism. Following is a concise discussion of four prevailing paradigms, according to Merten (2010).

Positivism/Post-positivism

The positivist paradigm is based on the cold, clinical, and rational approach to enquiry that characterises research in the natural sciences. This cold approach constrains knowledge creation to what can be observed and measured. In its extreme form, positivism is strictly empiricist and precludes any extension of knowledge beyond observable and measurable facts (Bhattacherjee, 2012). The positivist approach to research emphasizes that the world around us is real, ordered, knowable, and measurable. Positivist

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research attempts to provide, mostly through deductive reasoning, a materialistic description of any aspect of the world – a description that is independent of what people think (Walliman, 2018). The paradigm essentially holds up theory testing (Bhattacherjee, 2012), downplays value judgments, and promotes objectivity over subjectively derived knowledge (Hesse-Biber, 2010). In this regard, the positivist's viewpoint is reductionist in that it attempts to reduce less measurable science to more measurable ones (Walliman, 2018). While this rationale, objective view of reality might seem elegant because it is difficult to apply this paradigm to the study of human behaviour, to studies in the social sciences. This is because "there is much about the human experience that is not [objectively] observable but still is important…" (Mertens, 2010, p. 11). For example, it is difficult, if not impossible, to objectively quantify 'affection' in any adequate way. Further, it is almost impossible to be certain about every single phenomenon in the world. It is frustration with the strict empiricist nature of positivism that spawned post-positivism (Bhattacherjee, 2012). Post-positivist researchers still espouse objectivity and the need to establish generalisable laws. However, such researchers acknowledge that knowledge of the truth can only be probabilistic, not certain (Mertens, 2010). This acknowledgement makes researchers in this paradigm critical realists; they accept that reality exists, but that observing or knowing this reality is moderated by the researcher's limitations (Mertens, 2010). Post-positivism favours making reasonable inferences about a phenomenon by leveraging both empirical measurements and logical reasoning (Bhattacherjee, 2012).

Post-positivist researchers promote intellectual honesty, inhibition of the researcher's own bias, meticulous data collection, and frank description of the scientific reliability of empirical studies (Callahan and Jennings, 1983). Post-positivist work, like enquiry in the natural sciences, is dominated by quantitative methods, even though some qualitative techniques have been used in postpositivist work. However, unlike the natural scientists who favour experimental designs, postpositivist researchers favour quasi-experimental studies (Shadish, Cook and Campbell, 2002).

Postpositivist research is predominated by experimental, quasi-experimental, correlational, and causal research methodologies and designs.

Constructivism/Relativism/Interpretivism

This paradigm is grounded in the basic assumption that reality is socially constructed (Mertens, 2010). What this means is that constructivists see the world as a creation of the mind; they reject the idea of an objective reality that can be known. Therefore, the reality is not independent of the observer's thinking and perceptions. According to Walliman (2018), constructivists do not deny the existence of reality, but instead, hold that perception of this reality. Therefore, the creation of knowledge is a personal experience that is moderated by personal values and beliefs. In this regard, the researcher's experience and perceptions cannot be extrinsic to the human situation he/she is researching. As succinctly stated by Mertens (2010, p. 16), "the constructivist paradigm emphasises that research is a product of the values of researchers and cannot be independent of them." Interpretivist researchers attempt to understand the complex world from the lived experiences of the human participants in the research process. This means that

constructivists acknowledge multiple realities which may or may not clash with each other. This also means that perceptions of reality are fluid and may change in the course of research work.

From the ethical standpoint, constructivism differs from the morally neutral, non-contextual objectivity of positivism/post-positivism. Constructivists approach research in socially sensitive ways, i.e. in ways that respect the researcher-participant relationship and also promote social justice (Mertens, 2010). While constructivist research accepts subjectively acquired knowledge as valid, proponents and practitioners of this paradigm are committed to ethical rigour characterized by trustworthiness, authenticity, fairness, rapport, and reciprocity, among others (Lincoln and Guba, 1987).

Constructivist research is mostly qualitative and emphasises "a personal, interactive mode of data collection" (Mertens, 2010). Some widely known constructivist methodologies are naturalistic, phenomenological, hermeneutic, symbolic interaction, ethnographic, and participatory action research. Data collection techniques include interviews, observations and document reviews.

Transformative Paradigm

This an umbrella paradigm under which researchers and their works in feminism, gender, race and ethnicity, participatory action, disabilities, critical theory, etc. are grouped (Mertens, 2010). Essentially, these researchers and their works are constructivism, the primary difference being that social science work in the transformative paradigm is deliberately located in the social justice space. According to Mertens (2010, p. 21), " transformative researchers consciously and explicitly position themselves side by side with the less

powerful in a joint effort to bring about social transformation." The development of transformative research was fuelled by joint calls from the marginalized and those who advocate the causes of the less powerful for a shift from dominant research thinking and practice to a situation where lived experiences and aspirations of the less privileged would take centre stage in research.

The transformative paradigm is a profoundly complex one with philosophical bases in a diverse array of thought. However, in its essence, it represents four characteristics of the diverse perspectives in its base. According to (Mertens *et al.*, 1994), transformative research focuses on the lives and experiences of the diverse groups that, traditionally, have been disregarded; analyses how and why inequities are reflected in unbalanced power connexons; examines how the output of social enquiry translates to political and social action; and, uses transformative theory to develop research approaches.

While the transformative paradigm accommodates various perspectives of reality, it rejects the notion that all perspectives have equal legitimacy because such recognition would amount to a deliberate denial of the factors that have created inequities in the different versions of reality (Mertens, 2010). Therefore, in choosing a methodology, transformative researchers seek to include traditionally suppressed groups deliberately; deliberately analyse power connexons in the social relationships among stakeholders in the research process; and, actively seek to connect the product of the research to social action that grants the suppressed groups place (Mertens, 1999).

The transformative paradigm encompasses research methodologies in the following areas: Critical theory; Neo-Marxism; Feminism; Critical Race Theory; Freirean Theory; Participatory research; Emancipatory research; Postcolonial/indigenous Theory and research; Queer Rheory; Disability theories; and, Action research. Transformative researchers particularly favour mixed methods designs.

Pragmatism

Pragmatism has been credited with being the underlying philosophical framework for mixed methods research. In essence, pragmatism does not accept the positivist scientific notion that social research can lead to the truth about phenomena via any one scientific method. Rather, pragmatists have a common-sense approach; they hold that rather than be constrained by an affinity for a particular methodology, researchers can and should do what works to solve the problem at hand. Therefore, for pragmatic researchers, the best line of action is the method or combination of techniques that allow sound enquiry into the phenomenon of interest (Mertens, 2010). The pragmatic approach is a critical realist approach as it accepts the notion of a single reality while also acknowledging that different people can have different experiences and interpretations of that reality. Therefore, the underlying order, in reality, must be accessed by doing empirical work (positivism) along with a process of interpretation (constructivism) (Walliman, 2018).

From a methodological standpoint, pragmatists have a "whatever works" approach to social science enquiry. According to (Morgan, 2007, p. 72), the value of research is based on how effective the methods chosen are in arriving at an output that resolves the researcher's problem. Therefore, it is

irrelevant whether the researcher is positioned as an objective observer or as a contextualised entity. What matters is that the researcher studies what he/she values (constrained or not by the issues transformative researchers champion), using methods or combinations of methods deemed appropriate, and using the research output pursue any goals that are considered positive in the researcher's value system (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998, p. 30).

Pragmatism is mostly associated with mixed methods, mixed models, and participatory research (Mertens, 2010).

Postmodernism

Postmodernism questions all the key thoughts on knowledge, truth, and reality. It accepts nothing as constant; for example, it promotes the notion of science as "just a construct and only one of the types of knowledge that are all subjects of continual reinvention and change" (Walliman, 2018, p. 23). The extreme relativism of postmodernism, according to (Walliman, 2018, p. 25), is deemed to portend a "descent into chaos and powerlessness" as it does not allow for the option of agreement on what is true and what is real.

Beyond the paradigms discussed, there are other ways of (or other names for) organising the ontological and epistemological assumptions, and the methodological approaches that they prescribe. For example, Burrell and Morgan (1979) identified four primary paradigms of social research as radical structuralism, functionalism, radical humanism, and interpretivism based on continuums of radical change versus social order, and objectivism versus subjectivism.

Beside positivist and constructivist paradigms, the lines between most other paradigms are blurred by overlapping assumptions and overlapping

methodological approaches. Metaphysically, they are just on the different points of the same spectrum, emphasising the relevance of mind and material things in various degrees. Meanwhile, it is not plausible that the ages-old controversy between the two most prominent and monolithic paradigms (i.e. [post]positivism and constructivism] will ever be resolved. More importantly, it is not necessary to staunchly align one's self with any one of those two paradigms. After all, as Walliman (2018, p. 23) posits, "different aspects of life lend themselves to different methods of interpretation".

The present work is situated in the postpositivist paradigm. It is the reductionist in reducing human feelings, emotions, and behaviour into quantifiable variables and attempting to measure these by quantitative instruments. However, the researcher understands the inherent limitations in any attempt at quantifying human emotions, intentions and behaviour. Therefore, while the researcher endeavoured to be as objective and neutral in the pursuit of how things are with Junior High School teachers in the Awutu-Senya West District, it is understood that any insights uncovered in this study are made based on probability and not a certainty. What this means is that the researcher makes no claim that understandings of teacher motivations and satisfaction as found in this study are unassailable, given that social phenomena are not as organised and predictable as those of concern in the natural sciences. In this regard, this study is not positioned to 'prove' any of the social theories that formed the theoretical framework of this enquiry. Instead, the study hypotheses have been formulated such that the findings may or may not eliminate alternative explanations concerning teacher personality traits and self-efficacy as they regard job satisfaction.

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Aspirations to high intellectual honesty have guided the researcher. Further, the researcher has endeavoured to make sure that collection, organizing, and interpretation of data has been pursued with care and with as much objectivity as possible. In keeping with the predominant postpositivist methodological trends, the quantitative study design is employed in this enquiry.

Research Design

The research strategy or design employed in this enquiry was the descriptive survey. Surveys are generally useful for gathering information from a large number of participants within a relatively short frame of time.

Surveys may be exploratory. Exploratory surveys are useful for understanding the nature of a problem (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Such surveys are usually not driven by assumptions or models, but explore patterns in the data and may test relationships between phenomena (Tavakoli, 2012). On the other hand, confirmatory surveys may be used to test models, causal relationships and hypotheses, perhaps in explanatory studies (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009; Tavakoli, 2012). Another way to categorize surveys is as descriptive or analytic. Descriptive studies describe data on variables that matter to the researcher, while analytic surveys are concerned with assessing the influence of predictor variables on dependent (or criterion) variables (Tavakoli, 2012). Analytic surveys are useful for explanatory surveys because of their emphasis on *testing* causal relationships (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009).

The research design used in this study was both descriptive and analytic. It was descriptive in its use to build a profile of the personalities, self-

efficacy and job satisfaction of the population of interest. At the same time, it was analytic in its testing of hypotheses on the influential relationships between personality traits,   self-efficacy and job satisfaction of junior high school teachers.

A structured questionnaire was used to elicit information and opinions from junior high school teachers on their motives, feelings, emotions and performance on their current job.

Study Area

The Awutu-Senya West District was created by Legislative Instrument in 1860 as an autonomous district from Effutu-Awutu Senya Assembly. The district composes of two main traditional areas, namely: Awutu and Senya. The Awutu traditional area covers the northern part sharing of boundaries with Gomoa East and Agona East in the western part. The Senya traditional area is located at the coastal belt along the Gulf of Guinea. This district lies between latitudes 52 and 54 degrees and longitudes 0.24 and 0.37 degrees west respectively. It covers an area of 244.473 square kilometres. Awutu Senya West District shares boundaries with West Akim District in the north-eastern part of the District (Annual District Performance Report, 2016).

The political administration of the urban council is made up of the following towns: Adawukwaa, Mfadwen, Opembo, Papaase, Senya, Bawjiase, Jeikrodua, Awutu Breku, Bontiase and Obrachire. These towns are located in the urban areas lauded for its healthier and safer settlements with a population of more than 5000 inhabitants. The district is traditionally under two paramountcy: 1. Awutu: Bontrase, Bawjiase, Ayensuako and Nyarkokwaa, and 2. Senya: Bonsuoku and Peuduase. These localities are far or not too far

from urban areas and it has settlement patterns characterised by isolation, extractive economic activities and a population of more than 5000 inhabitants. Their main occupation is agriculture representing about 54% of the population, and fishing also representing 36%. Others are mining, quarrying, manufacturing, transportation and services (teaching and banking) representing 10% (Annual District Performance Report, 2016). The population in the municipality as of 2010 was 274,584 (Ghana Statistical Service, 2012). The sex ratio of male and female is 9: 10 and the average household stands at 8 per household.

Population

The target population comprised all Junior High School teachers in "Awutu-Senya West District in the Central Region of Ghana. The accessible population was all professional public junior high school teachers in Awutu-Senya West District in the Central Region of Ghana. The Awutu-Senya West District was chosen for the study because the district has consistently performed below the overall average percentage of students who passed the Basic Education Certificate Examination in the National and Regional rankings for the past five years. Also, the District has been lying at the bottom four (4) consistently in the past five years in the Regional Ranking of Districts (The League Table) for Central Region (EMIS, 2019).

The Awutu-Senya West District was also chosen because it is among the few districts in the Central Region that has almost equal number of rural and urban junior high school teachers which would make comparison easier in the analysis. The district also has adequate numbers of male and female

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professional teachers in junior high schools relevant to the study and therefore makes the choice of Awutu-Senya West District appropriate for the study.

The target population for the study was made up of 470 professional public junior high school teachers. The accessible population was also 470 junior high school teachers from 56 basic schools (Educational Management Information System, 2017).

Sample and Sampling Procedure

A sample size of 461 public professional Junior High School teachers was reached to carry out the study. Out of this number, 324 (70.28%) were males, and 137(29.72%) were females. Also, 218 (47.30%) were rural teachers, while 243 (52.70%) were urban teachers.

The census technique was used to select 461 public professional junior high school teachers. The census technique was used because in the first place, according to Cooper and Shindler (2000) where the population is small and variable, it is appropriate to sample everyone. Also, it is very easy to achieve validity and reliability. Getting information from the population using census provide an accurate representation of views. Reliable data is also obtained by using this approach. Junior High School teachers in Awutu Senya West District by their training as subject teachers from accredited institutions endorsed by the National Accreditation Board, they were in a position to provide adequate knowledgeable information on the influence of personality traits and self-efficacy on their job satisfaction which was relevant to this study. The sampling technique yielded 98% return rate.

Table 1: Distribution of Teachers by Schools, Gender and Location (rural/urban)

	RURAL			URBAN		
	SCHOOL	M	F	SCHOOL	M	F
1.	Ahentia D/A 'A&B' J.H.S	4	9	Awutu A.M.E. Zion J.H.S.	5	4
2.	Akrampa St. Ang. Basic	3	4	Awutu D/A 'A&B' J.H.S.	4	8
3.	Akpeteshie Nkwanta Ang.	5	0	Awutu SS Peter & Paul Basic	5	4
4.	Ayensuako D/A J.H.S.	4	1	Awutu St.Kilian Cath. Basic	2	6
5.	Kofi Ansah D/A Basic	3	1	Chochoe St. John Ang. Basic	6	0
6.	Mayenda D/A/SDA J.H.S.	4	1	Nyarkokwaa Basic School	8	0
7.	Penim D/A Basic School	5	1	Bawjiese Meth. Basic A&B	8	5
8.	Fianko D/A J.H.S.	7	1	Bawjiese Presby. Basic Sch.	9	1
9.	Ofadaa Methodist J.H.S.	7	0	Bawjiese Catholic Basic Sch.	6	2
10.	Ofaso Methodist Basic	5	0	Bawjiese D/A J.H.S. A, B&C	9	5
11.	Okwabena S.D.A. Basic	5	1	BawjieseNuriya D/A Basic	2	6
12.	Topiase D/A Basic Sch.	7	0	Bawjiese S.D.A. A&B J.H.S.	9	6
13.	Dankwa D/A Basic Sch.	3	0	BawjieseSultanya Islam Bas.	8	2
14.	Bawjiese Ang. J.H.S.A&B	7	6	Okwampa St. Mary Cath. Ba	6	1
15.	Aberful D/A Basic Sch.	6	2	Mfadwen St. Ann Ang. Basic	5	0
16.	Awutu Bontrase D/A JHS	9	2	Adawukwao Ro Cath. Basic	5	4
17.	Ayiresu D/A Basic Sch.	6	1	Opembo St Francs A Basic	8	3
18.	Bontrase Catholic Basic	7	1	Papaase St. Peter Cath. Basic	9	5
19.	Bontrase St. Francis Ang.	4	1	Obrachiri D/A J.H.S. 'A&B'	9	3
20.	Odotom/ Akubrifa S.D.A.	5	0	Senya A.M.E. Zion 'C'Basic	4	1
21.	Jei-Krodua Ang. J.H.S.	3	11	Senya D/A J.H.S. 'A&B'	7	3
22.	AkuffulKrodua R/C JHS	7	1	Senya Methodist J.H.S. A&B	7	2
23.	Osae-Krodua Ang. Basic	7	1	Senya Mother Teresa School	4	3
24.	Atwer-Babianiha D/A	5	2	Senya Salv. Army Basic Sch.	6	2
25.	Awutu AkrobongD/A JHS	7	1	Senya St. Anth. Cath. Basic	6	2
26.	Bewuanum Ang. Basic	6	0	Senya AME Zion A&B J.H.S	5	3
27.	Kwaman Catholic Basic	4	5			
28.	Mfafo D/A Basic School	6	2			
29.	Bonsuoku Rev. Dr. D/A	6	1			
30.	Petuduase T.I Aham Basic	5	0			
	TOTAL	**162**	**56**		**162**	**81**

Source: Field data, 2018

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Data Collection Instruments

Three instruments were used to collect data for the study, namely: Personality Traits Inventory (PTI), developed by Pervin and John (1999); Teachers' Sense of Self-efficacy Scale (TSES), developed by Tschamen-Moran and Hoy (2001); and, Teachers' Job Satisfaction Scale (TJSS), developed by Munir and Khatoon (2015). All three instruments were adapted to suit the local conditions of teachers in Ghana.

The rationale for adopting the instruments was that, in the first place, the instruments were crafted in developed countries and some parts of Asia and therefore, there was the need to modify the instruments to suit local conditions of teachers in Awutu Senya West District. Also, individual dispositions in terms of patterns of feelings, thinking, behaving and beliefs among teachers in Awutu-Senya West District vary considerably from those of developed countries, and could probably affect their job satisfaction and performance.

The items on the questionnaires were closed-ended and based on the Likert type of scale with each set of responses ranked from 1 to 4, permitting respondents to rank their opinions. The use of questionnaires also allowed the study participants to respond at their convenience and pace. The researcher prefaced each instrument with a document that declared and explained the purpose of the study (see Appendix F). The text further assured the participant of anonymity as well as the confidentiality of responses. The researcher made sure to include an address to which the participants could, if they wanted to direct any grievances. The document, while encouraging the teachers to participate in the study, and to be frank in their responses, also explicitly

stated that no participant was obliged to respond to any or all items. Although the questionnaires did not offer any opportunity for probing and motivation on the part of the respondents, the instruments tended not to be "affected by problems of no-conduct" (Sarantakos, 1998, P.224).

The 87-item questionnaire was divided into four sections A, B, C and D. Section A of the instrument elicited information on the background characteristics of the respondents. The section contained three items on school, type of school (rural/urban) and gender of teachers.

Section B contained 44 items which sought information on personality traits of teachers, namely: extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness to experience. The items were scored as follows; 1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Agree, 4= Strongly Agree. Extraversion traits covered items 4-12 and agreeableness traits covered items 13-20. Items 21-29 focused on conscientiousness traits while items 30-37 sought information on neuroticism traits. Items 38-48 focused on openness to experience traits. The reliabilities of the sub-scales according to Pervin and John (1999) were as follows: extraversion, r= 0.88; agreeableness, r= 0.79, conscientiousness, r= 0.82, neuroticism, r= 0.84 and openness, r= 0.81. The overall reliability of the Big Five Personality Inventory (BFI), according to Pervin and John (1999), was 0.83.

Section C contained 20 items which dealt with Teachers Self- Efficacy Scale. The items comprised three sub-scales, including "efficacy in the student engagement, efficacy in instructional practices and efficacy in classroom management. The items ranged 1 to 4 as follows; 1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Agree, 4= Strongly Agree efficacy in student engagement

covered items 49 to 54. Efficacy in instructional practices covered items 55-61 and Efficacy in classroom management covered items 62-67. The reliabilities of the sub-scales according to Tschamen-Moran and Hoy (2001) are as follows; students engagement, r= 0.75; instructional practices, r= 0.45 and classroom management, r= 0.39. The overall reliability of the Teachers Sense of Efficacy Scale is r= 0.69. The instruments were pre-tested in selected junior high schools in Agona West District in the Central Region of Ghana. The population comprised professional teachers in selected junior high schools. The similarity of population characteristics and proximity were the factors that motivated the selection of this study area.

Section D of the research instrument is the Teachers' Job Satisfaction Scale (TJSS) developed by Munir and Khatoon (2015), and it consists of 20 statements. The items were scored as follows; 1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Agree, 4= Strongly Agree. Twelve (12) of these items are positive statements, while the remaining eight items were negatively stated. The positive statements included items 70, 71, 72, 74, 75, 76, 80, 81, 82, 83, 84 and 87. The negative statements also included items 68, 69, 73, 77, 78, 79, 85 and 86. The instrument had split-half reliability of 0.84 and Cronbach's alpha of 0.86 for positive and negative statements, respectively.

Validity and Reliability of the Instruments

The three research instruments, namely: Personality Traits Inventory, Teachers' Sense of Self-efficacy Scale (TSES) and Teachers' Job Satisfaction Scale (TJSS), were subjected to validity and reliability test. The instruments were given to experts (supervisors) to read through several times to ascertain their face and content validity. The supervisors hold a PhD in Educational

Psychology and have published extensively in the area of personality traits and self-efficacy and therefore, were in the position to give adequate knowledgeable suggestions that shaped the administration instruments. The suggestions offered by the experts (supervisors) were used to effect the necessary changes to improve upon the instruments. After that, a pre-test of the instruments was conducted whereby the questionnaire was administered in 6 selected junior high schools in the Agona West District in the Central Region of Ghana. The pre-testing involved 60 junior high school teachers. This area was selected because it has similar characteristics in terms of location (rural and urban settlements), learning environment and school type when compared with the characteristics of Awutu-Senya West District. Cronbach's alpha was established for items under each of the variables. The pre-testing yielded overall correlation coefficient of r= 0.72, for personality trait inventory, reliabilities for the subscales were as follows: extraversion, r= 0.39; agreeableness, r= 0.39; conscientiousness, r= 0.50; neuroticism, r= 0.52 and openness, r= 0.43. Teachers self-efficacy scale yielded an overall correlation coefficient of r= 0.82. Reliabilities for the sub-scales were as follows: student engagement, r= 0.46; instructional practices, r= 0.66; classroom management, r= 0.69 and for job satisfaction scale yielded a reliability of r= 0.62. The following items were adapted and fine-tuned to ensure the reliability of the test items or the extent to which measures were free from error. For the personality trait inventory, items: 1, 7, 19, 22, 27, 31, 35, 36, 37, 40, 40, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46 and 47 were fine-tuned. These items were more of indirect statements and therefore, were not applying directly to the respondents' local needs and context. For teachers' self-efficacy scale, items;

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48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66 and 67 were fine-tuned because they were ambiguously stated that for job satisfaction scale, items: 68, 70, 73, 74, 75, 76 and 77 were fine-tuned because it did not apply locally to teachers in Awutu Senya West District.

Ethical Considerations of the Study

Research ethics is defined as the appropriate behaviour of a researcher relative to the norms of society (Zikmund, 2010). This study involved human beings, and therefore the issue of ethics is of importance because, as much as a researcher has the right to seek knowledge, his quest should not infringe on the rights and values of the research subjects. In this study, due respect was accorded the respondents at all times.

To start with, the researcher submitted copies of the study proposal and the questionnaires to the Ethical Review Board of the University of Cape Coast to review. This was done to ensure that the research participants were protected. Based on the recommendations of the Board, the researcher ensured that all ethical requirements, such as academic honesty, plagiarism, acknowledgement of copyrighted materials used and institutional ethical clearance were addressed.

The ethical integrity of this study was maintained by obtaining a letter from the Head, Department of Education and Psychology, University of Cape Coast, introducing the researcher and the purpose of the study to the District Director of Education in Awutu-Senya West District. The District Director of Education responded to the letter by granting permission for the research to be conducted. This gave the researcher access to the participating schools.

Before the researcher reached each of the participating schools in the study, a letter introducing the researcher had been sent to each participating school by the District Director of Education, explaining the purpose of the study to the heads and teachers. The researcher took time further to explain the purpose of the study to the respondents and sought the consent of the teachers in the participating schools in each school visited.

Before the questionnaire was administered, respondents were once again briefed on the purpose of the research and the objective was sought to achieve. The questions were read to them, and the necessary clarifications were made. Anonymity and consent of respondents as well as the confidentiality of responses were negotiated and secured in signed documents. Each participant was issued a copy of the signed consent and confidentiality document to keep. After the researcher had made sure to inform all prospective respondents thoroughly, he administered the questionnaires. Respondents were encouraged to fill the questionnaires as frankly as they could. Nevertheless, each participant was informed that he or she had the liberty to choose whether to participate in the study or not. The participants also had the option to withdraw their consent at any time and without any form of adverse consequence. They were assured that the information they provided was going to be used exclusively for academic purposes. The researcher endeavoured to be respectful of respondents at all times during the study.

Data Collection Procedure

Before the actual data collection, the researcher embarked on a preliminary survey of all the participating Junior High Schools in the Awutu-Senya West District. A covering letter introducing the researcher, together

with the ethical clearance form, was handed over to the District Director of Education to seek permission for data collection in junior high schools in the District. A letter from the District Director of Education was given to the researcher after two weeks of application, to enable the researcher to do the actual data collection. The data collection lasted four months, from September 10 to December 10, 2018. The instruments were personally hand-delivered to the respondents. In each school visited, a permission letter from the District Director of Education was given to the headteacher or the assistant. Upon arrival in each school, the researcher met and briefed the teachers on how to respond to the questions. After giving the guidelines on how to respond to the questionnaire, the researcher issued copies of the questionnaires to the teachers. Respondents were given between 30 to 40 ̍ minutes to complete the questionnaire and return them the same day; those who were not able to complete the questionnaire was allowed to return it the following day. The procedure was repeated until all the respondents in the 56 junior high schools in the Awutu-Senya West District had been contacted. The strategy yielded a 98% return rate.

Data Processing and Analysis

Descriptive statistics involving frequencies, means and standard deviation were used to describe the population of the study. The statistical tools by which hypotheses 1, 2 & 3 were tested was multiple linear regression. The data set indicated that the dependent variables have linear relationships. Also, the scores were normally distributed and continuous. Moreover, the variables were independent of each other. For instance, Personality traits described in terms of extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness,

neuroticism and openness to experience had sub-scales which were independent of each other.

The statistical tool used for testing Hypothesis 4 was the bootstrapping approach. Bootstrapping is the practice of estimating properties of an estimator (such as its variability) by measuring those properties when samples from an approximation distribution. In this study, the bootstrap sought to find out whether self-efficacy will mediate personality traits and job satisfaction. This is because mediation has an indirect effect, and the indirect effect is not symmetrical, and therefore normality or equality of variance cannot be tested, and that is why an estimator such as bootstrap is required to test the hypotheses.

Independent sample T-test was used to test Hypothesis 5, 6 and 7. This is because the independent variables, male and female, were compared to continuous variables, personality traits, self-efficacy, and job satisfaction. The sub-scales under the personality traits were: extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness. Differences between male and female were tested with each of these sub-scales. The sub-scales under self-efficacy were: student engagement, instructional practices and classroom management. Differences between male and female were tested with each of these sub-scales. The choice of independent sample T-test was necessitated by the fact that categorical variable male and female was to be compared to a continuous variable (job satisfaction).

Independent sample T-test was used to test hypothesis 8, 9 and 10 on rural and urban differences concerning personality traits, self-efficacy and job satisfaction. The sub-scales under the personality traits were: extraversion,

agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness. Rural-urban differences were tested with each of these sub-scales. The sub-scales under self-efficacy were: student engagement, instructional practices and classroom management. Rural and urban differences were tested with each of these sub-scales.

Summary of Chapter Three

This chapter outlined the methodology used in conducting the study. It examined the study institution and area, research approach and design, population, sample and sampling procedure, sources of data collection, and instrumentation. It was established that the study adopted a descriptive survey design where only quantitative data were collected. The chapter further presented the validity and reliability of the instrument, ethical issues considered in the study, and data collection procedures. The statistical analyses used to test the propositions of the study were also elaborated. The chapter also discussed the nature of the data, how the data were processed, and methods and programmes used in analysing the data.

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CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter presents the results and discussion of the data that was collected. The data were analysed using both descriptive and quantitative techniques of analysis. The analyses were done according to the study's hypotheses. The first part of the results focused on the preliminary analysis (background information of the respondents) and the second part dealt with the main findings of the study.

Analysis of Data

The background   information about the teachers   included their gender and location in terms of rural or urban settlements. The results were analysed using frequencies and percentages. This information is presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Background Information of Respondents (n=461)

Variables	Sub-scale	Frequency	Percent
Location	Rural	218	47.30
	Urban	243	52.70
Gender	Male	324	70.28
	Female	137	29.72

Source: Field data, 2018

Regarding the location (residence) of the teachers, it was found that (n=218; 47.30%) of them resided in rural areas while (n=243; 52.70%) of the teachers resided within urban areas. Thus, the majority (52.70%) of the respondents reside in urban areas. This result was important to the study because it would help to identify whether the teachers' location (area of

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residence) has any influence on their personality, self-efficacy and job satisfaction. Within this location, it was realized that male teachers (n=324; 70.28%) were more than female teachers (n=137; 29.72%). It is believed that gender (male and female) could be a significant driver of teachers' personality, self-efficacy and job satisfaction.

Results of Hypotheses Testing

This section of the chapter focused on the testing of the hypotheses. There are ten (10) hypotheses that guided the study. The results are presented in Tables 4-13.

Influence of Teachers' Personality Traits on Job Satisfaction

Hypothesis One: Personality traits will not influence the job satisfaction of Junior High School teachers in Awutu-Senya West District.

The objective of this research hypothesis was to determine whether teachers' personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness) will influence teachers' job satisfaction. The statistical tool used to test the hypothesis was the multiple linear regression analysis. The result is presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Influence of Teachers' "Personality Traits on Job Satisfaction"

	Unstandardized Coefficients		t-value	p-value	R	R^2	F-test	p-value
	B	Std. Error						
(Constant)	46.878	2.803	16.727*	.000				
Extraversion	.020	.085	.236	.814				
Agreeableness	-0008	.069	-.114	.909				
Conscientiousness	-.039	.069	-.564	.573				
Neuroticism	.209	.076	2.737*	.006	0.138	0.019	1.759	0.120
Openness	.028	.066	.422	.673				

Source: Field data, 2018   * Significant, $p < 0.05$

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Multiple regression was used to predict job satisfaction from the teachers' personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness). In Table 3, the multiple correlation coefficient is 0.138. This value is a measure of the quality of the prediction of the dependent variable (job satisfaction). The value of 0.138 indicates a weak level of prediction.

The R^2 (coefficient of determination) value is 0.019. This shows the proportion of variance in the dependent variable (job satisfaction) that is explained by the independent variables (personality traits: extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness). The value of 0.019 indicates that the independent variables (personality traits: extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness) explain approximately 2% of the variability of the dependent variable (job satisfaction). The F-ratio tests whether the overall regression model is a good fit for the data. In Table 3, the independent variables (personality traits: extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness) do not statistically significantly predict the dependent variable (job satisfaction), $F (5, 455) = 1.759$, $p = 0.120$ (that is, the regression model is not a good fit of the data).

From Table 3, the unstandardized coefficients indicate how much the dependent variable (job satisfaction) varies with an independent variable (personality traits: extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness) when all other independent variables are held constant. For example, the constant of the regression model is 46.878. This suggests that teachers' job satisfaction will be highly positive when teachers' personality

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traits are held constant (zero). The coefficient of constant is statistically significantly different to 0 (zero). From Table 4, the unstandardized coefficient of teachers' extraversion is equal to .020. This represents the partial effect of teachers' extraversion on teachers' job satisfaction. This suggests that for one percent increase in teachers' extraversion, there would be a positive increase in teachers' job satisfaction by 0.020. The coefficient of teachers' extraversion is not statistically significantly different to 0 (zero).

From Table 3, the unstandardized coefficient of teachers' neuroticism is equal to 0.209. This represents the partial effect of teachers' neuroticism on teachers' job satisfaction. This suggests that for one percent increase in teachers' neuroticism, there would be a definite increase in teachers' job satisfaction by 0.209. The coefficient of teachers' neuroticism is statistically significantly different to 0 (zero). From Table 3, the unstandardized coefficient of teachers' openness is equal to 0.028. This represents the partial effect of teachers' openness on teachers' job satisfaction. This suggests that for one percent increase in teachers' openness, there would be a positive increase in teachers' job satisfaction by 0.028. The coefficient of teachers' openness is not statistically significantly different to 0 (zero). It is concluded from these results that teachers' personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness) do not statistically significantly predict teachers' job satisfaction.

Influence of Teachers' Self-Efficacy on Job Satisfaction

Hypothesis Two: Self-efficacy will not influence the job satisfaction of Junior High School teachers in Awutu-Senya West District.

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The main objective of this research hypothesis was to determine whether teachers' self-efficacy would influence teachers' job satisfaction. The statistical tool used to test the hypothesis was multiple linear regression analysis. The result is presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Influence of Teachers' Self-Efficacy on Job Satisfaction

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficients		t-value	p-value	R	R^2	F-test	p-value
	B	Std. Error						
(Constant)	48.504	1.576	30.776*	.000				
Student engagement	.137	.089	1.545	.123				
Instructional practices	.118	.089	1.330	.184				
Classroom management	-.144	.094	-1.521	.129	0.125	0.016	2.421	0.065

Source: Field data, 2018   *Significant, p <0.05

Multiple regression was used to predict teachers' job satisfaction from teachers' self-efficacy (students' engagement, instructional practices and classroom management). In Table 4, the multiple correlation coefficient is 0.125. This value is a measure of the quality of the prediction of the dependent variable (job satisfaction). The value of 0.125 indicates a weak level of prediction. Thus, a weak correlation between teachers' self-efficacy and teachers' job satisfaction.

In Table 4, the R^2 (coefficient of determination) value is 0.016. This shows the proportion of variance in the dependent variable (job satisfaction) that is explained by the independent variables (self-efficacy: students' engagement, instructional practices and classroom management). The value of 0.016 indicates that the independent variables (self-efficacy: students' engagement, instructional practices and classroom management) explain

approximately 2% of the variability of the dependent variable (job satisfaction). The F-ratio tests whether the overall regression model is a good to fit for the data. In Table 4, the independent variables (self-efficacy: students' engagement, instructional practices and classroom management) do not statistically significant predict the dependent variable (job satisfaction), F (3, 457) = 2.421, p =0.065. Therefore, the regression model is not a good fit for the data).

From Table 4, the unstandardized coefficients indicate how much the dependent variable (job satisfaction) varies with an independent variable (self-efficacy: students' engagement, instructional practices and classroom management) when all other independent variables are held constant. For example, the constant of the regression model is 48.504. This suggests that the teachers' job satisfaction would be highly positive when teachers' self-efficacy is held constant (zero). The coefficient of constant is statistically significantly different to 0 (zero). From Table 4, the unstandardized coefficient of teachers' student engagement is equal to 0.137. This represents the partial effect of teachers' student engagement on teachers' job satisfaction. This suggests that for one percent increase in teachers' student engagement, there would be a positive increase in teachers' job satisfaction by 0.137. The coefficient of teachers' student engagement is not statistically significantly different to 0 (zero).

From Table 4, the unstandardized coefficient of teachers' instructional practices is equal to 0.118. This represents the partial effect of teachers' instructional practices on teachers' job satisfaction. This suggests that for one percent increase in teachers' instructional practices, there would be a definite

increase in teachers' job satisfaction by 0.118. The coefficient of teachers' instructional practices is not statistically significantly different to 0 (zero). It is concluded from these results that teachers' self-efficacy (students' engagement, instructional methods and classroom management) do not statistically significantly predict teachers' job satisfaction. Furthermore, all three variables of teachers' self-efficacy do not statistically significantly add to the prediction (Table 4).

Influence of Teachers' Personality Traits on Self-Efficacy

Hypothesis Three: Personality traits would not influence the self-efficacy of Junior High School teachers in Awutu-Senya West District.

The main objective of this research hypothesis was to determine whether the teachers' personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness) will influence teachers' self-efficacy. The statistical tool used to test the hypothesis was multiple regression. The information is presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Influence of Teachers' Personality Traits on Self-Efficacy

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficients		t-value	p-value	R	R^2	F-test	p-value
	B	Std. Error						
(Constant)	34.576	4.899	7.058*	.000				
Extraversion	-.314	.148	-2.12*	.035				
agreeableness	.583	.121	4.832*	.000				
conscientiousness	.215	.121	1.781	.076				
Neuroticism	.217	.133	1.630	.104				
Openness	.452	.115	3.945*	.000	.371	.138	14.531	.000*

Source: Field data, 2018   *Significant, $p < 0.05$

In Table 5, the multiple correlation coefficient is 0.371. This value is a measure of the quality of the prediction of the dependent variable (self-efficacy). The value of 0.371 indicates a weak level of prediction, hence, a weak correlation between teachers' personality traits and self-efficacy.

The R^2 (coefficient of determination) value is .138. This shows the proportion of variance in the dependent variable (self-efficacy) that is explained by the independent variables (personality traits: extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, Neuroticism and openness). The value of 0.138 indicates that the independent variables (personality traits: extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, Neuroticism and openness) explain approximately 14% of the variability of the dependent variable (self-efficacy). The F-ratio tests whether the overall regression model is a good fit for the data. The results show that the independent variables (personality traits: extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness) predicted the dependent variable (self-efficacy), $F (5, 455) = 14.531$, $p = 0.000$ (that is, the regression model is not a good fit of the data).

From Table 5, the unstandardized coefficients indicate how much the dependent variable (self-efficacy) varies from an independent variable (personality traits: extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness) when all other independent variables are held constant. For example, the constant of the regression model is 34.576. This suggests that teachers' self-efficacy will be highly positive when teachers' personality traits are held constant (zero). The coefficient of constant is statistically significantly different to 0 (zero). From Table 5, the unstandardized coefficient of the teachers' agreeableness is equal to 0.583. This represents the partial

effect of teachers' agreeableness on teachers' self-efficacy. This suggests that for one percent increase in teachers' agreeableness, there would be a positive increase in the teachers' self-efficacy by 0.583. The coefficient of teachers' agreeableness is statistically significantly different to 0 (zero). From Table 5, the unstandardized coefficient of teachers' conscientiousness is equal to 0.215. This represents the partial effect of teachers' conscientiousness on teachers' self-efficacy. This suggests that for one percent increase in the teachers' conscientiousness, there would be a positive increase in teachers' self-efficacy by 0.215. The coefficient of teachers' conscientiousness is not statistically significantly different to 0 (zero).

From Table 5, the unstandardized coefficient of teachers' neuroticism is equal to 0.217. This represents the partial effect of teachers' neuroticism on teachers' self-efficacy. This suggests that for one percent increase in the teachers' neuroticism, there would be a positive increase in teachers' self-efficacy by 0.217. The coefficient of teachers' neuroticism is not statistically significantly different to 0 (zero). From Table 6, the unstandardized coefficient of teachers' openness is equal to 0.452. This represents the partial effect of teachers' openness on teachers' self-efficacy. This suggests that for one percent increase in teachers' openness, there would be a positive increase in teachers' self-efficacy by 0.452. The coefficient of teachers' openness is statistically significant. Only teachers' agreeableness, openness and extraversion added statistically significantly to the prediction (Table 5).

Influence of Teachers' Personality Traits on Job Satisfaction: Mediating Role of Self-Efficacy

Hypothesis Four: Self-Efficacy will not mediate the influence of personality traits on job satisfaction of Junior High School teachers in Awutu-Senya West District.

The main objective of this research hypothesis was to determine the role of teachers' self-efficacy in the influence of personality traits on job satisfaction of JHS teachers. The statistical tool used to test the hypothesis was the bootstrapping approach based on Hayes process model procedure.

Table 6: Indirect effect of Teachers' Personality Traits on Job Satisfaction through Self-efficacy

Variable	Effect	BootSE	BootllCI	BootulCI
Extraversion	-.0114	.0114	-.0386	.0056
Agreeableness	.0211	.0171	-.0109	.0579
Conscientiousness	.0078	.0091	-.0048	.0308
Neuroticism	.0079	.0087	-.0042	.0296
Openness	.0164	.0138	-.0086	.0465

Source: Field data (2018)

The results, as demonstrated in Table 6, showed no significant mediation role of self-efficacy in the relationship between the dimensions of the teachers' personality trait (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness) and job satisfaction. For extraversion, the bootstrap confidence ranged between –.0386 to 0.0056. Also, for extraversion, the bootstrap confidence lies between -.0109 to 0.579. Again, for conscientiousness, the bootstrap confidence ranged from -0.0048 to 0.0308. Furthermore, for neuroticism, the bootstrap confidence ranged from -0.0042 to

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0.0296. Finally, for openness, the bootstrap confidence ranged from -0.0086 to 0.0465. From the mediation analysis, it could be observed that the range for all the five personality traits variables include zero (0), which means the mediation is not statistically significant. This, therefore, implies that self-efficacy did not mediate the relationship between all the five dimensions of teacher's personality traits on job satisfaction.

Gender Differences in Personality Traits of Teachers

Hypothesis Five: There is no significant difference between the personality traits of male and female Junior High School teachers in Awutu-Senya West District. The main objective of this hypothesis determined whether the gender of teachers is a significant variable that affects their personality traits. The statistical tool used to test the hypothesis was the independent-samples t-test. The information is presented in Table 7.

Table 7: Gender Differences in Personality Traits of Teachers

Variables	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t-value	Df	p-value
Extraversion	Male	324	2.61	.34			
	Female	137	2.62	.31	-0.468	459	0.640
	Male	324	2.62	.48			
Agreeableness	Female	137	2.64	.47	-0.416	459	0.677
	Male	324	2.56	.42			
Conscientiousness	Female	137	2.57	.41	-0.221	459	0.825
	Male	324	2.64	.43			
Neuroticism	Female	137	2.62	.41	0.474	549	0.636
	Male	324	2.67	.40			
Openness	Female	137	2.68	.40	-0.156	459	0.876

Source: Field data, 2018

From Table 7, Levene's test for equality of variances was used to check for the assumption of homogeneity of variances. The assumption of homogeneity of variances was not violated for all the variables of teachers' personality traits, so equal variances assumed was used in the analysis.

From Table 7, there are differences in the mean scores of male and female teachers regarding their personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, Neuroticism and openness). However, the results from the independent-samples t-test show that there is no difference in the personality traits score of male and female teachers. For example, concerning teachers' extraversion, it was found there was no significant difference in scores for male teachers (M=2.61, SD=0.34) and female teachers [M=2.62, SD=0.31; t (459) =-0.469, p=0.640]. Similarly, it was found that there was no significant difference in scores for male teachers (M=2.62, SD=0.48) and female teachers [M=2.64, SD=0.47; t (459) =-0.416, p=0.677]

It is concluded from these results that there is no statistically significant difference in the personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness) of male and female teachers. Thus, male and female teachers are equal or similar in their personality traits. Hence, it is concluded that the gender of teachers is not a significant factor that affects their personality traits (Table 7).

Gender Differences in Self-efficacy of Teachers

Hypothesis Six: There is no significant difference between the self-efficacy of male and female Junior High School teachers in Awutu Senya West District. The main objective of this hypothesis was to determine whether the gender of teachers is a significant variable that affects their self-efficacy. The statistical

tool used to test the hypothesis was the independent-samples T-test. The information is presented in Table 8.

Table 8: Gender Differences in Self-Efficacy of Teachers

Variables	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t-value	Df	p-value
Student engagement	Male	324	3.12	.52			
	Female	137	3.05	.54	1.325	459	0.186
	Male	324	3.09	.57			
Instructional practices	Female	137	2.99	.62	1.764	459	0.078
	Male	324	3.01	.59			
	Female	137	2.94	.64	-1.094	459	0.275
Overall self-efficacy	Male	324	3.08	.48			
	Female	137	3.00	.52	1.632	459	0.13

Source: Field data, 2018

From Table 8, Levene's test for equality of variances was used to check for the assumption of homogeneity of variances. The assumption of homogeneity of variances was not violated for all the variables of teachers' self-efficacy, so equal variances assumed were used in the analysis.

From Table 8, it appears that there are differences in the mean score of male and female teachers regarding their self-efficacy (student engagement, instructional practices and classroom management). However, the results from the independent-samples T-test show that there is no difference in the self-efficacy score of male and female teachers. For example, concerning the teachers' student engagement, it was found there was no significant difference in scores for male teachers (M=3.12, SD=0.52) and female teachers [M=3.05, SD=0.54; t(459)=1.325, p=0.186]. Similarly, it was found that there was no significant difference in scores for male teachers (M=3.09, SD=0.57) and female teachers [M=2.99, SD=0.62; t (459)=1.764, p=0.078]. Therefore, it is

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concluded from these results that there is no statistically significant difference in the self-efficacy (student engagement, instructional practices and classroom management) of male and female teachers. Thus, male and female teachers are equal or similar in their self-efficacy. It is concluded that the gender of teachers is not a significant factor that affects their self-efficacy (Table 8).

Differences in Teachers' Job Satisfaction Based on Gender

Hypothesis Seven: There is no significant difference between the job satisfaction of male and female Junior High School teachers in Awutu- Senya West District. The hypothesis determined whether the gender of teachers is a significant variable that affects their job satisfaction. The statistical tool used to test the hypothesis was the independent-samples t-test. The information is presented in Table 9.

Table 9: Gender Differences in Job Satisfaction of Teachers

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t-value	Df	p-value
	Male	324	2.57	.26			
Job satisfaction					-0.355	459	0.722
	Female	137	2.58	.28			

Source: Field data, 2018

Table 9 presents the results of the difference in job satisfaction score of male and female teachers. The independent-samples t-test (or independent t-test, for short) was conducted to compares the means of teachers' job satisfaction between male and female teachers. From Table 9, Levene's test for equality of variances was used to check for the assumption of homogeneity of variances. The assumption of homogeneity of variances was not violated for teachers' job satisfaction, so equal variances assumed was used in the analysis.

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From Table 9, it appears that there are differences in job satisfaction mean scores of male and female teachers. However, the results from the independent-samples t-test show that there is no significant difference in the job satisfaction mean score of male teachers (M=2.57, SD=0.26) and female teachers [M=2.58, SD=0.28; t(459)=-0.355, p=0.722]. Therefore, it is concluded from these results that there is no statistically significant difference in the job satisfaction mean score of male and female teachers. Thus, male and female teachers are equal or similar in their job satisfaction. Hence, it is concluded that the gender of teachers is not a significant factor that affects their job satisfaction (Table 9).

Differences in Teachers' Personality Traits Based on Location

Hypothesis Eight: There is no significant difference between the personality traits of rural and urban Junior High School teachers in Awutu-Senya West District. The main objective of this hypothesis is to determine whether location (residential area) of teachers is a significant variable that affects teachers' personality traits. The statistical tool used to test the hypothesis was the independent-samples T-test. The information is presented in Table 10.

Table 10: Differences in Personality Traits of Teachers Based on Location

Variable	Location	N	Mean	SD	t-value	Df	p-value
Extraversion	Rural	218	2.65	.34			
	Urban	243	2.56	.32	3.010*	459	0.003
Agreeableness	Rural	218	2.61	.50			
	Urban	243	2.63	.45	-0.459	459	0.647
Conscientiousness	Rural	218	2.57	.42			
	Urban	243	2.55	.42	0.568	459	0.571
Neuroticism	Rural	218	2.64	.44			
	Urban	243	2.64	.41	0.101	459	0.920
Openness	Rural	218	2.70	.42			
	Urban	243	.65	.38	1.354	459	0.177

Source: Field data, 2018   *Significant, p< 0.05

From Table 10, Levene's test for equality of variances was used to check for the assumption of homogeneity of variances. The assumption of homogeneity of variances was not violated for all the variables of teachers' personality traits, so equal variances assumed were used in the analysis. From Table 10, it seems that there are differences in the mean score of rural and urban teachers regarding their personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness)

However, the results from the independent-samples T-test show that there is no difference in the personality traits score of rural and female teachers except for the extraversion of teachers where a significant difference was found; t (df = 459) = -3.010, p < 0.05. For example, concerning the teachers' agreeableness, it was found there was significant difference in scores for rural teachers (M=2.61, SD=0.50) and urban teachers [M=2.63, SD=0.45; t (459) = -0.459, p=0.647]. Similarly, regarding conscientiousness of teachers, it was found that there was no significant difference in scores for rural teachers (M=2.57, SD=0.42) and urban teachers [M=2.55, SD=0.42; t (459) = 0.568, p=0.571]. From the results, there is a statistically significant difference in the personality traits (agreeableness) of rural and urban teachers. Thus, rural teachers are high on extraversion compared to their urban counterparts. Hence, it is concluded that the location (residential area) of teachers is a significant factor that affects their personality traits (Table 10).

Differences in Teachers' Self-Efficacy Based on Location

Hypothesis Nine: There is no significant difference between the self-efficacy of rural and urban Junior High School teachers in Awutu-Senya West District. The main objective of this hypothesis was to determine whether location

(residential area) of teachers is a significant variable that affects their self-efficacy. The statistical tool used to test the hypothesis was the independent-samples t-test. The information is presented in Table 11.

Table 11: Differences in Self-Efficacy of Teachers Based on Location

Variables	Location	N	Mean	SD	t-value	df	p-value
Student engagement	Rural	218	3.14	.50			
	Urban	243	3.06	.54	1.729	459	0.085
Instructional practices	Rural	218	3.14	.58			
	Urban	243	3.00	.59	2.568*	459	0.011
Classroom management	Rural	218	3.04	.58			
	Urban	243	2.94	.62	1.918	459	0.056
Overall Self-efficacy	Rural	218	3.11	.48			
	Urban	243	3.00	.500	2.423	459	0.016

Source: Field data, 2018   *Significant, p< 0.05

Table 11 presents the results of the difference in self-efficacy scores of rural and urban teachers. The independent-samples t-test (or independent t-test, for short) was conducted to compare the means of teachers' self-efficacy between rural and urban teachers. From Table 11, Levene's test for equality of variances was used to check for the assumption of homogeneity of variances. The assumption of homogeneity of variances was not violated for all the variables of teachers' self-efficacy, so equal variances assumed were used in the analysis. From Table 11, it appears that there is a difference in the mean

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scores of rural and urban teachers regarding their self-efficacy (student engagement, instructional practices and classroom management).

Furthermore, the results from the independent-samples t-test show that there is a difference in the self-efficacy scores of rural and urban teachers. For example, concerning teachers' instructional practices, it was found that there was a significant difference in scores for rural teachers (M=3.14, SD=0.58) and urban teachers [M=3.00, SD=0.59; t (459) =2.568, p=0.078]. Therefore, it is concluded from these results that there is a statistically significant difference in the self-efficacy (instructional practices) of rural and urban teachers. Hence, it is found that location (residential area) of teachers is a significant factor that affects their self-efficacy because there is an over-all significance as a result of the instructional practice.

Differences in Job Satisfaction of Teachers Based on Location

Hypothesis Ten: There is no significant difference between the job satisfaction of rural and urban Junior High School teachers in Awutu-Senya West District. The main objective of this hypothesis was to determine whether location (residential area) of teachers is a significant variable that affects their job satisfaction. The statistical tool used to test the hypothesis was the independent-samples T-test. The information is presented in Table 12.

Table 12: Differences in Job Satisfaction of Teachers Based on Location

Variable	Location	N	Mean	SD	t-value	Df	p-value
Job satisfaction	Rural	218	2.58	.27			
					1.251	459	0.212
	Urban	243	2.56	.26			

Source: Field data, 2018

The independent-samples T-test (independent t-test, for short) was conducted to compare the means of teachers' job satisfaction between rural

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and urban teachers. From Table 12, Levene's test for equality of variances was used to check for the assumption of homogeneity of the variances. The assumption of homogeneity of variances was not violated for teachers' job satisfaction, so equal variances assumed were used in the analysis.

From Table 12, it appears that there are differences in the job satisfaction mean score of rural and urban teachers. However, the results from the independent-samples t-test show that there is no significant difference in the job satisfaction mean score of rural teachers (M=2.58, SD=0.27) and urban teachers [M=2.56, SD=0.26; t (459) = 1.251, p=0.212]. Therefore, it is concluded from these results that there is no statistically significant difference in the job satisfaction mean scores of rural and urban teachers. Thus, rural and urban teachers are equal or similar in their job satisfaction. Hence, it is concluded that the location of teachers is not a significant factor that affects their job satisfaction.

Discussion of Results

H_1: The results show that among the five personality traits variables studied, only teachers' neuroticism predicted their job satisfaction. Therefore, low neuroticism is related to job satisfaction. A low neuroticism score is indicative of emotional stability. People with low neuroticism are usually calm, even-tempered, relaxed and able to face stressful situations without becoming upset. On the other hand, teachers who are high on neuroticism may be at risk of some kinds of psychiatric problems to the extent that if their neurotic tendencies are triggered on the job, such teachers could experience diminished levels of job satisfaction. The finding points to both direct and indirect influence of neuroticism on job satisfaction. This result is in line with Staw,

Bell and Clausen (1986) who revealed that the person who holds a positive emotion and keeps it for a long time has positive job satisfaction.

The position of George (1996) also indicated that individuals high in negative affectivity are likely to be more pessimistic, taking a negative view of themselves and the world around them. Brockner (1988) on his part, posited that persons low in neuroticism look for others for approval. Heller, Judge and Watson (2002) also found correlations of the personality traits with self-rated job satisfaction to be moderate and significant, especially for neuroticism. He further explained that the inherently negative nature of neurotic individuals and the general work-involvement tendency that characterizes individuals suggest links between these factors and job satisfaction. Wrenn (2005) concluded that individuals with low neuroticism scores are more likely to show emotions, such as calmness, security, relaxation and stress-tolerance which contribute to job satisfaction. The other four personality dimensions did not add to job satisfaction. The reason being that with conscientiousness, because of its relationship to a variety of educational outcomes measures and its relationship with integrity. It is more geared towards personal integrity and accomplishments, which are not directly related to job satisfaction. Also, for extraversion, it is more of people-oriented, social interaction and interpersonal relationship. Because extraversion is mostly construed as sociability, they develop psychological contracts that reflect a willingness to work with others and maintaining good interpersonal relationships. With regards to agreeableness, it is usually associated with the need for intimacy. Agreeableness is related to pro-social motives; it aimed at seeking good for one and other group members because agreeable individuals have greater

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motivation to achieve intimacy, which is likely to lead to greater levels of well-being of others and not necessarily job satisfaction. Finally, with openness to experience, it is usually related to individuals who curious about both inner and outer worlds. They also tend to be unconventional, willing to question authority and prepared to entertain new ethical, social and political ideas which are not related to job satisfaction. This is in line with Thomas, Buboltz and Winkelspecht (2004) who investigated job characteristics, personality traits and job satisfaction and concluded that personality had neither a direct effect on job satisfaction nor a moderating effect on job characteristics or job satisfaction relation.

H_2: The results in Table 4 also indicated that instructional practice, student engagement and classroom management did not influence the job satisfaction of teachers. The three self-efficacy dimensions did not affect teachers' job satisfaction because, with instructional practice, it is geared towards establishing routines to keep activities running smoothly, help students to comprehend what has been taught, crafting useful items for students and help foster student's creativity. These activities are related to students' success. Therefore, job satisfaction may not be a relevant issue for the teacher as far as instructional practice is concerned. As regards student engagement, the focus of the teacher is to help students to think critically; help students believe that they can do well in school; help motivate students who show low interest in school work; and, help students to respond to difficult questions. Here, the teacher's primary focus is on how to engage students in learning and ensuring that students get concepts right, which is not necessarily related to job satisfaction. When it comes to classroom management, the

teacher's attention is on how to make students follow classroom rules, help get through to the most difficult students and help control disruptive behaviour. The teacher in this regard needs to work on students' behaviour by way of correcting, directing and shaping. This takes a lot of the teacher's time and attention and therefore, little or no attention is paid to job satisfaction. Corresponding to this idea, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) pointed out that a teacher with a high level of self-efficacy is successful in student engagement, instructional strategies and classroom management by letting students participate in the lesson, improving teaching practices and carrying out a good orchestration of the learning environment. Avanzi, Miglioretti, Velasco, Balducci, Vecchio and Skaalvik (2013) reported that job satisfaction was associated with higher teacher self-efficacy. Similarly, Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2009) concluded that job satisfaction was positively associated with teacher self-efficacy.

H_3: The results in Table 5 revealed that personality traits (agreeableness, openness and extraversion) contributed meaningfully to self-efficacy, and therefore there are important factors that should be critically looked at. In terms of agreeableness, persons with low score tend to be cynical, selfish, suspicious about other's intentions, egocentric and competitive, and that contribute to low self-efficacy whiles a high score shows a tendency to be cooperative, altruistic and empathetic and this also contributes to high self-efficacy. Supporting this view, Denissen and Penke (2008) stated that Agreeableness is a personality characteristic linked to friendliness and sociability. They added that agreeableness influences teaching effectiveness. For openness, individuals who are low in openness are

conventional in their ideas and show narrow interest, and this, in turn, lowers their self-efficacy. Individuals that are rated high on openness to experience appreciate art and aesthetics. These people are interested in variety and are intellectually curious. They can appreciate new experiences, tolerate uncertainty and explore. This contributes to high self-efficacy. This validates the views of Passmore (2012), who found that openness showed the value in predicting training outcomes because people with open personalities are more accepting to change, thus, contributing to their self-efficacy. In terms of extraversion, persons with high scores tend to be talkative, friendly, active, cheerful, optimistic, outgoing and full of energy, and this contributes largely to their self-efficacy. This is in agreement with Judge and IIies (2002) found that extroverted individuals possess a pleasant personality, seem to perform in training programmes and usually have higher levels of self-efficacy. Bernerth, Armenakis, Field, Giles and Walker (2008) noted that extroverted employees have better utilization of their competencies than those with low extraversion, thus, enabling them to achieve better work efficacy.

H_4: The results in Table 6 showed a non-significant mediation role of self-efficacy in the relationship between the dimensions of teacher personality traits in terms of extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness on job satisfaction. This implies that self-efficacy did not mediate the relationship between the dimensions of teacher personality traits and job satisfaction. The confidence interval was between negative zero and positive. In between negative and positive, the interval is zero, which depicts no relationship between the dimensions of personality and job satisfaction. The result further implied that all personality trait variables (extraversion,

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agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness) directly influenced job satisfaction without mediating self-efficacy. This result contradicts the views of Caprara, Vecchione, Alessandri, Gerbino and Barbaranelli (2011), who asserted that conscientiousness and self-efficacy beliefs, could be decisive determinants of work performance. Caprara et al., (2011) further posited that self-efficacy might allow inherent personality traits to develop in work behaviour; hence, the relationship between conscientiousness and job satisfaction may be mediated by self-efficacy beliefs. In a study, Capa (2005) found that self-efficacy completely mediated the effect of conscientiousness on work performance on senior high school grades while an earlier study reported only on partial mediation of self-efficacy for the relationship between conscientiousness and work performance. The findings varied concerning how conscientiousness influences work performance, ranging from full mediation to partial mediation and no mediation at all.

The results in Table 7 also showed that self-efficacy does not mediate personality trait and job satisfaction. The results contradict earlier finding by Djigic, Stojiljkovic and Doskovic (2014) that conscientiousness proved to the only significant and the most powerful predictor of teachers' self-efficacy. The study further explained that instructional practices as a dimension of teacher self-efficacy could be best predicted by personality dimension (openness).

H_5: The results in Table 8, presuppose that male and female teachers do not differ on their personality traits. In terms of openness, male and female teachers indicated that they display characteristics such as imagination and insight and also tend to have a broad range of interests. Concerning

conscientiousness, male and female teachers showed that they were self-disciplined, aimed for achievement, and tended to be organised and mindful of details. When it comes to agreeableness, male and female teachers revealed that they are compassionate and cooperative rather than suspicious towards others. On extraversion, male and female teachers confirmed that they like to communicate with people are full of energy and often create positive emotions. Finally, on neuroticism, male and female teachers exhibited unpleasant emotion in terms of anger, anxiety, depression or vulnerability. This confirms the views of Minghui and Qinghua (2013), who established that male and female teacher candidates do not differ substantially in their emphasis on the importance of adaptability, enthusiasm, fairness, patience, sense of humour, responsibility, agreeableness, caring friendliness, honesty and respectfulness.

H_6: The result in Table 9 suggests that male and female teachers share similar attributes when it comes to self-efficacy. With respect to instructional strategies, male and female teachers do well to organise and effectively deliver to the satisfaction of learners. On student engagement, male and female teachers confirmed that they could motivate learners to participate in the teaching/learning process. Concerning classroom management, both male and female teachers confirmed that they could control and prevent stubbornness, and manage effectively routine activities in the classroom. The previous statement is contrary to the findings by Anderson (2011). He found that males in Molepolole College show a higher teacher efficacy in all the three subscales, namely: student engagement, instructional practices and classroom management. Females in the same college were worse performers. Alwan and

Mahasneh (2014) reported that there was no significant difference in the level of self-efficacy between male and female teachers. What accounted for the difference is, as men, it is believed that they could better influence the students' behaviour and academic achievement compared to their female counterparts. Female teachers were thought to have better capacity at classroom management than male teachers were.

H_7: The result in Table 10, shows that both male and female teachers have equal job satisfaction. This may be because there is no gender bias in job allocation and teaching at the junior high school level. Also, by virtue of their training from accredited institutions of higher learning by taking courses in teaching pedagogy and school-community relationship make them have similar thinking when it comes to expecting too much from the job. The results support the earlier findings of Oshagbemi (2003), who found out that gender does not affect the job satisfaction of teachers. Further, Koyuncu, Burke and Fiksenbaum (2006) reported that no significant differences were found in job satisfaction between male and female professors. Oshagbemi (2000) confirmed that lecturers are satisfied with their job when they have good rapport with their colleagues. Contrary to these views, Santhapparaj and Alam (2005) found that female academic staff were more satisfied with their job as compared to their male counterparts.

H_8: The results in Table 11 revealed that rural and urban teachers differed in their personality traits in terms of extraversion. Rural teachers exhibited energy, willingness to work with others, assertiveness. They were pupils-oriented and fared well under challenges. The rural teachers liked to communicate with people and often create positive emotions. Rural teachers

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offered students some form of support by exhibiting behaviours that allowed their students to have a sense of belonging. Rural teachers also had high expectations for all students regardless of the students' cultural background, socio-economic status or linguistic challenges. Urban teachers, on the other hand, may have reduced contact hours with their students, travel to seek medical care and attend to other businesses to the detriment of pupils learning. Corresponding to this idea, Jacob (2007) stated that effective teachers are capable of building relationships with their colleagues, families and communities by providing social, personal and emotional resources for students who lack the necessities for life. Wrenn (2005) further added that is urban teachers need to possess to become culturally conscious of the similarities they share with urban students to build trust and reduce cultural conflicts while connecting with their students positively. This is the characteristic of extroversion.

H_9: The results from Table 12, also revealed that self-efficacy in terms of instructional practices has a statistically significant influence on teacher location. Rural teachers believe that they can affect student performance. In other words, rural teachers have the conviction that they can influence how well students learn and help those who may be in difficulty or are unmotivated. Rural teachers also try as much as possible to help provide an alternative explanation for confused students. They also used varieties of assessment strategies and adjusted lessons to the proper levels of individual students. Urban teachers, on the other hand, experience difficult working conditions due to overcrowding in the classrooms, less ventilation, and this situation results in difficulty in teaching with little or no assistance from

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colleagues. Due to the large classes, pupils' exercises are mostly left unmarked, and feedback is not given pupils to correct their mistakes. Besides, urban teacher's leave the classroom for other engagements. The resultant efficacy judgements would impact the goals teachers set for themselves and the effort they put into reaching these goals. This result is in line with Capa (2005) who opined that teachers in rural settings receive more support from colleagues, mentors and principals compared to their urban counterparts. Capa and Cil (2000) opined that on the average, teachers in elementary schools and urban settings gave lower ratings on the characteristics of teaching assignment scale, indicating that they were not satisfied with the teaching load they had. Mulkeen (2005) concluded that teachers in rural schools might also have reduced contact hours with their students as compared to their colleagues in urban schools with respect to missed school days when teachers have to travel to the urban centres to seek medical care, collect pay, attend in-service training, or visit families; all these negatively affect schooling effectiveness.

H_{10}: The results in Table 13 show that teachers in both rural and urban areas have similar expectations   as far as their job satisfaction is concerned. It also indicates that location (rural and urban) is not an essential factor in determining one's job satisfaction. Therefore, opportunities granted to rural teachers to make them satisfied with their job should also be extended to urban teachers. This is because both rural and urban teachers are satisfied with their jobs under their various circumstances. Therefore, it would be needless to satisfy rural teachers and neglect urban teachers. Any form of intervention given to rural teachers should be extended to urban teachers as well. The results validate the views of Blackburn (2007), who in   an informal interview

survey of rural and urban teachers reported that all of their participants were fairly satisfied with their jobs and very satisfied with their locations. They also found some evidence that rural and urban teachers' expectations and attitudes relative to the differed work. Rural teachers seemed to draw more satisfaction from their students and peers. Urban teachers, on the other hand, were happy to have good facilities and the opportunities for social/cultural development offered in urban settings. Naik & Yadav (2017) further reported that there is no significant mean difference in the intrinsic aspect dimension of job satisfaction among rural and urban high school teachers. The study revealed that there exists no significant mean difference in the salary, service conditions and promotion dimension of job satisfaction among rural and urban high school teachers. There is no significant difference in the physical facilities dimensions of job satisfaction among rural and urban high school teachers. This result supports the views of Gay and Howard (2000). They believed that effective teachers are capable of building relationships with stakeholders, simulating home-like environments, finding vital resources and maintaining high expectations for all students regardless of the students' cultural background, location (rural/urban), economic status, and linguistic challenges.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the study, conclusions as well as recommendations; the chapter further presents suggestions for further research.

Summary

This summary comprises two parts. The first is an overview of the study, including the goal of the enquiry, description of the study population, and description of methodology and instruments. The second part of the summary is a condensed hypothesis-by-hypothesis presentation of the findings of this enquiry.

Overview of the Study

The study investigated the influence of personality traits and self-efficacy on job satisfaction of junior high school teachers in the Awutu- Senya West Municipality.   The researcher's ontological and epistemological approach to the study objective influenced the adoption of a quantitative methodology. The descriptive survey design was also used for the study. The researcher-maintained objectivity by presenting the true research findings.

The study population was Junior High School teachers in the Awutu Senya West Municipality. The population for the study was 461 teachers, comprising 324 (70.28%) males and 137 (29.72%) females. 218 (47.30) teachers were classified as working in rural areas, while 243 (52.70) worked in urban communities.

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Questionnaires were used to collect data from the respondents. A pre-testing was carried out to ensure the validity and reliability of the instruments. The Cronbach's Alpha yielded correlation coefficient reliability r= 0.72 for personality traits; r= 0.88 for teacher self-efficacy and r=0.67 for job satisfaction. The researcher endeavoured to adhere to various ethical recommendations made by the Institutional Review Board of the University of Cape Coast.

The data were analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistical procedures. Specifically, data on the background characteristics of the respondents were analysed using descriptive statistics such as frequency counts and percentage distributions. At the same time, those of the hypotheses were tested using multiple linear regression, independent sample t-test and the bootstrapping approach.

Key Findings

The ten (10) specific hypotheses of the study examined the influence of personality traits, self-efficacy and job satisfaction of junior high school teachers in the Awutu-Senya West District. The main findings that emerged from the study were:

1. Personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness) do not significantly influence teachers' job satisfaction. Only teachers' neuroticism added significantly to the prediction.

2. Students' engagement, instructional practices and classroom management did not predict the job satisfaction of teachers.

3. Teachers' extraversion, agreeableness and openness significantly predicted their self-efficacy. Conscientiousness and neuroticism did not add to the prediction (self-efficacy).

4. Personality traits of teachers (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness) were not statistically significant   with the mediation variable (self-efficacy).

5. There is no statistically significant difference in the personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness) of male and female teachers.

6. There is no statistically significant difference in the self-efficacy (student engagement, instructional practices and classroom management) of male and female teachers.

7. There is no statistically significant difference in job satisfaction mean scores of male and female teachers.

8. There is a statistically significant difference in the personality traits (extraversion) of rural and urban teachers.

9. There is a statistically significant difference in the self-efficacy (instructional practices) of rural and urban teachers.

10. There is no statistically significant difference in the job satisfaction mean score of rural and urban teachers.

Conclusions

From the findings of the study, it can be concluded that less neurotic teachers are more satisfied with their job. The more neurotic teachers, the less satisfied they become with their job. The study also concluded that self-efficacy of teachers (student engagement, instructional practices and

classroom management) is not a relevant predictor of their job satisfaction. Moreover, teachers who display extraversion, agreeableness and openness traits are more likely to be efficacious on their job. Again, the self-efficacy of teachers in Awutu Senya West District did not mediate the relationship between their personality traits and job satisfaction. The teachers' personality traits, self-efficacy and job satisfaction in Awutu Senya West District do not differ between males and females. Teachers in the rural areas in Awutu Senya West District are more likely to be higher in extraversion as compared to their rural counterparts. Finally, teachers in the rural areas are more likely to be efficacious in terms of student engagement, instructional practices and classroom management compared to their rural counterparts.

Recommendations

Based on the key findings and conclusions drawn from the study, several practical recommendations were made:

1. Less neurotic teachers are more likely to be satisfied with their job. It is recommended that the Awutu-Senya West District Directorate of Education through the Regional Education Directorate should extend guidance and counselling programmes in schools to address teachers' emotional needs by providing psychological support for teachers. This is to ensure that teachers develop positive attitudes towards their job, which, in turn, enhance their job satisfaction.

2. Teachers who display extraversion, agreeableness and openness traits are likely to be more efficacious, it is, therefore, recommended that the Ministry of Education in collaboration with the Awutu Senya West District Directorate should organize capacity building workshops, and

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seminars periodically to expose and develop the teachers' agreeableness, extraversion and openness traits to enable them to become efficacious in the discharge of their duties.

3. Teachers in rural areas are more likely to be efficacious in terms of instructional practices as compared to their urban counterparts in the Awutu Senya West District. It is therefore recommended that the Ghana Education Service in collaboration with Awutu Senya West District Directorate should make a policy in urban schools to maintain the good teacher-pupil ratio, use varieties of assessment strategies, help to establish routines to keep activities running in the school and adjust lessons to the proper level of individual pupils. Hence, it enhances their self-efficacy.

4. Teachers in the rural areas in the Awutu Senya West District are high in extraversion as compared to their rural counterparts. It is therefore recommended that Awutu Senya West District Directorate in collaboration with circuit supervisors, headteachers, guidance co-ordinators and parents must support the urban teachers by instituting an award scheme for teachers who demonstrate a commitment to work, willingness to work with others and maintain a good interpersonal relationship with pupils and parents. This will develop extraversion traits in urban teachers.

Suggestions for Further Research

The study concentrated on one District (Awutu-Senya West). The study could be replicated in other districts in the country to find out what persists in other parts of the country. This would significantly increase

generalisability in different institutions and populations. Again, it would be prudent to compare private and public learning environments in terms of the study variables.

Summary of Chapter Five

The chapter presented an overview of the entire thesis which focused on the influence of personality traits and self-efficacy on job satisfaction of Junior High School teachers in the Awutu-Senya West Municipality.   It depicts the last impression of the study. The chapter begins with an overview of the study; this includes the purpose and the research methods employed. It also summarised the key findings of the study, followed by the conclusions from the results discussed in' the results and discussion' section. The chapter ended with practical recommendations based on the key findings of the study, and suggestions for further research.
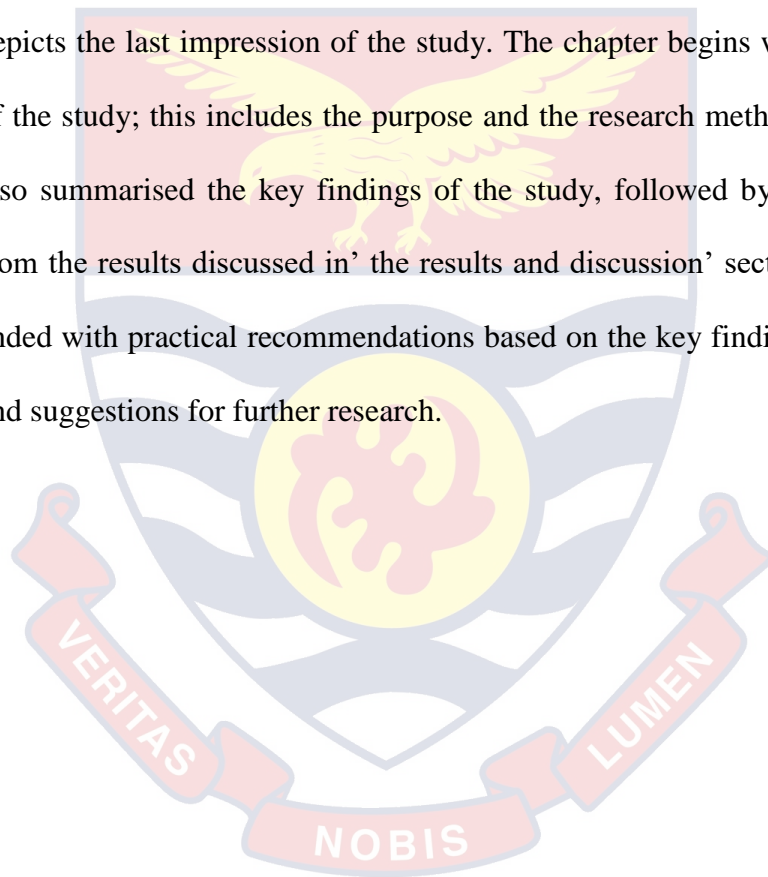
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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES

FACULTY OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND PSYCHOLOGY

QUESTIONNAIRE   FOR RESPONDENTS (TEACHERS)

Introduction

This questionnaire is designed to find out the influence of personality traits and self-efficacy on job satisfaction of junior high school teachers in Awutu Senya West District. Please indicate your opinions about each of the statements by ticking (√) in the column (on your right) that is applicable to you. Your answers will be kept strictly confidential and will not be identified by name.

Thank you.

SECTION A: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Please tick (√) the response/option that is appropriate or applicable to you.

1. School: …………………………………………………….

2. Location: Rural [   ] ; Urban [   ]

3. Gender: Male [   ]; Female [   ]

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SECTION B: PERSONALITY TRAITS INVENTORY

Instruction: Please read each item carefully and make a tick (√) from the list

of statements by indicating the extent to which you agree or disagree with the

following;

1= Strongly Disagree (SD)

2= Disagree (D)

3= Agree (A)

4= Strongly Agree (SA)

N/S	STATEMENT	RESPONSES			
		S D	D	A	S A
4.	I see myself to be someone who is a talkative.				
5.	I see myself to be someone who is reserved.				
6.	I see myself to be someone who has full energy.				
7.	I see myself to be someone who generates a lot of enthusiasm.				
8.	I see myself to be someone who tends to be quiet.				
9.	I see myself as someone who has an assertive personality.				
10.	I see myself as someone shy or inhibited.				
11.	I see myself as someone outgoing, and sociable.				
12.	I see myself as someone who tends to find fault with others.				
13.	I see myself as someone who is helpful and unselfish to others.				
14.	I see myself as someone who starts quarrels with others.				
15.	I see myself as someone who has a forgiving nature.				
16.	I see myself as someone who is generally trusting.				

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17.	I see myself as someone who can be cold and aloof.				
18.	I see myself as someone who is considerate and kind to everyone.				
19.	I see myself as someone who is rude to others.				
20.	I see myself as someone who likes to cooperate with others.				
21.	I see myself as someone who does a thorough job.				
22.	I see myself as someone who can be somewhat careless.				
23.	I see myself as someone who is a reliable worker.				
24.	I see myself as someone who tends to be disorganized.				
25.	I see myself as someone who tends to be lazy.				
26.	I see myself as someone who perseveres until the task is finished.				
27.	I see myself as someone who does things efficiently.				
28.	I see myself as someone who makes plans and follows through with them.				
29.	I see myself as someone who is easily distracted.				
30.	I see myself as someone who is depressed.				
31.	I see myself as someone who relax and handle stress well.				
32.	I see myself as someone who can be tense.				
33.	I see myself as someone who worries a lot.				
34.	I see myself as someone who is emotionally stable, not easily upset.				
35.	I see myself as someone who can be moody.				
36.	I see myself as someone who does things efficiently.				
37.	I see myself as someone who easily gets nervous.				

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38.	I see myself as someone who is original and comes out with new ideas.				
39.	I see myself as someone who is curious about many things.				
40.	I see myself as someone who is ingenious, a deep thinker.				
41.	I see myself as someone who has an active imagination.				
42.	I see myself as someone who is inventive.				
43	I see myself as someone who value artistic, aesthetic experience.				
44.	I see myself as someone who prefers work that is routine.				
45.	I see myself as someone who likes to play with ideas.				
46.	I see myself as someone who has few artistic interests.				
47.	I see myself as someone who has sophisticated in art, music or life.				

SECTION C: TEACHER SELF-EFFICACY

Instruction: Please, read each item carefully and make a tick (√) from the list of statements by indicating the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following:
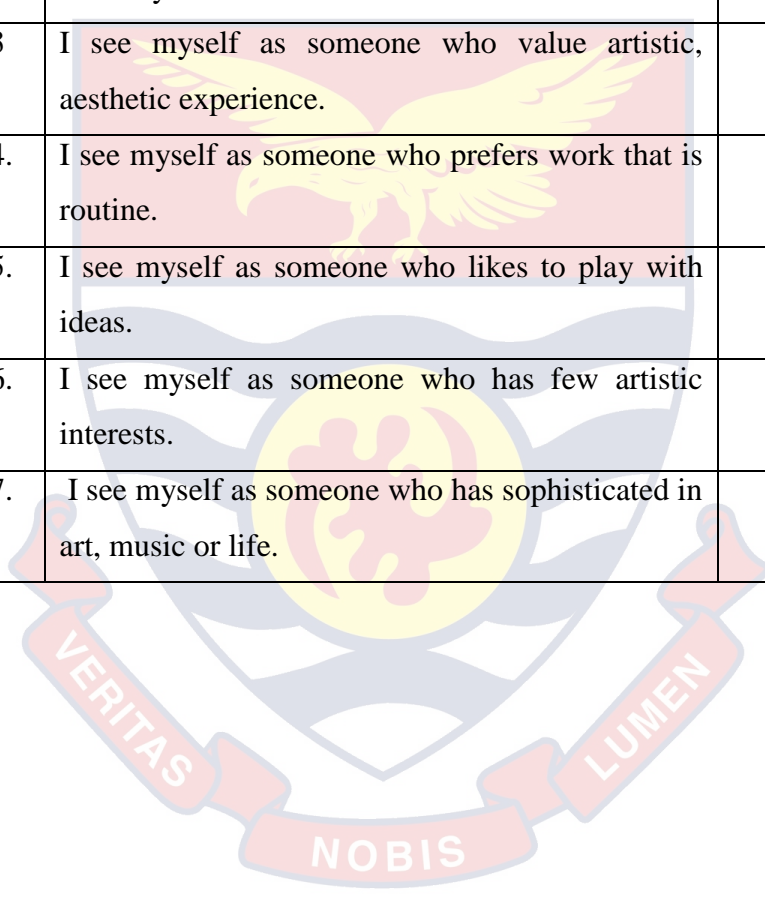
1= Strongly Disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Agree, 4= Strongly Agree

N/S	STATEMENT	RESPONSES			
		S D	D	A	S A
48.	I help to get through to the most difficult students.				
49.	I help my students to think critically.				
50.	I help to control students' disruptive behaviour in the classroom				
51.	I help motivate students who show low interest in school work.				
52.	I help make expectations clear about students' behaviour.				
53.	I help my students to believe that they can do well in school work.				
54.	I help my students to respond to difficult questions.				
55.	I help to establish routines to keep activities running smoothly.				
56.	I help my students to value learning.				
57.	I help my students to comprehend what have been taught.				
58.	I craft good questions for my students.				

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59.	I help foster students' creativity.				
60.	I help students 'to follow classroom rules.				
61.	I help to improve the understanding of a student who is failing.				
62.	I help students who are disruptive or noisy.				
63.	I help to establish classroom management system with each group of students.				
64.	I help to adjust my lessons to the proper level for individual students.				
65.	I use a variety of assessment strategies.				
66.	I help keep a few problem students from ruining an entire lesson.				
67.	I help to provide an alternative explanation for students who are confused.				
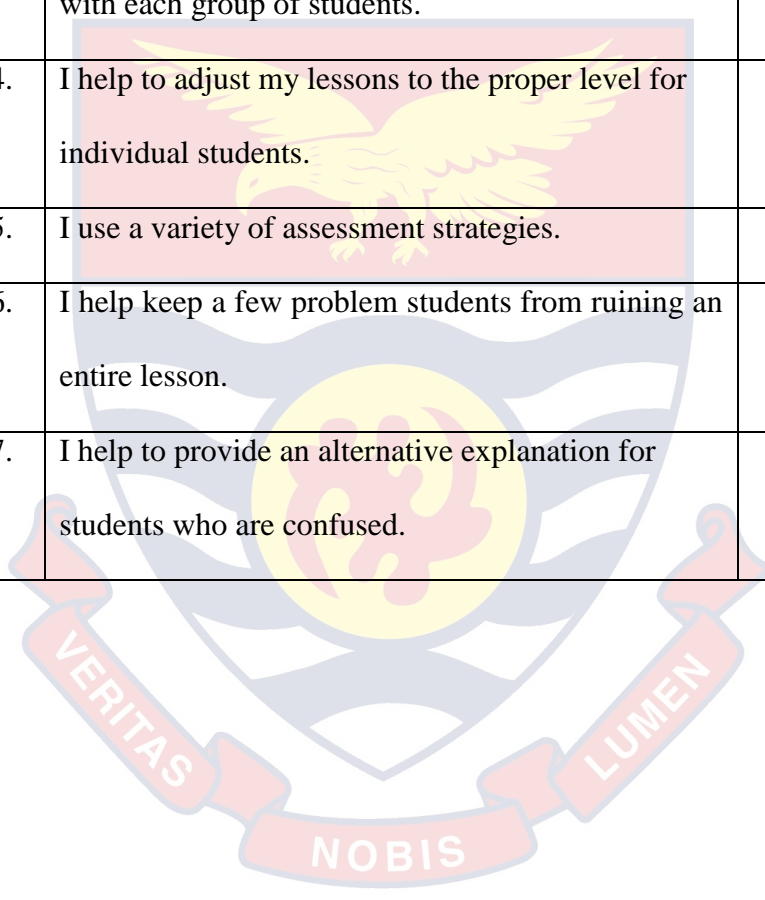
SECTION D: JOB SATISFACTION SCALE

Instruction: Please, read each item carefully and make a tick (√) from the list of statements by indicating the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following:

1= Strongly Disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Agree, 4= Strongly Agree

N/S	STATEMENT	RESPONSES			
		S D	D	A	S A
68.	I lead vocationally unsatisfied live.				
69.	It would have perhaps been better if I had joined some other profession.				
70.	My salary as a teacher is not keeping with my abilities and qualification.				
71.	Given fresh opportunity for choosing a career, I will again choose teaching.				
72.	People give much respect when they know that I am a teacher.				
73.	No profession is as good as teaching.				
74.	Teaching is boring because of repetition of similar work.				
75.	The work of teachers is interesting because of variety of activities				
76.	Society appreciates teacher's work.				
77.	The teaching profession is one among the few noble professions.				

78.	Teaching profession provides opportunity for satisfaction of my abilities and capabilities.				
79.	Economic condition of a teacher makes me dislike this profession.				
80.	To control children is a headache for me.				
81.	Kind treatment of teachers spoils the children.				
82.	I like to attend seminars within and outside the school.				
83.	The school authorities are fair and impartial.				
84	My teacher colleagues are kind and cooperative.				
85.	I always keep track of my progress.				
86.	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.				
87.	I am satisfied with my chances of promotion.				

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APPENDIX B

RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS OF INSTRUMENTS

TEACHERS' PERSONALITY TRAITS RELIABILITY

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.716	44
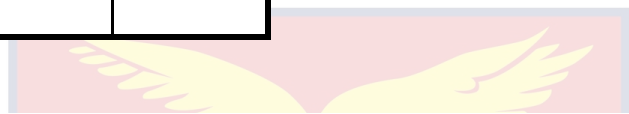
Item-Total Statistics

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I see myself to be someone who is a talkative.	107.6941	218.713	.017	.719
I see myself to be someone who is reserved	107.5640	220.894	-.060	.721
I see myself to be someone who has full energy	107.1302	210.457	.294	.707
I see myself to be someone who generates a lot of enthusiasm	107.2863	210.100	.319	.707
I see myself to be someone who tends to be quiet	107.4794	215.341	.156	.713

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I see myself as someone who has an assertive personality	107.4707	213.754	.202	.712
I see myself as someone shy or inhibited	107.5141	213.985	.190	.712
I see myself as someone outgoing, sociable	107.5445	215.675	.117	.715
I see myself as someone who tends to find fault with others	107.5184	213.007	.196	.712
I see myself as someone who is helpful and unselfish with others	107.4555	214.514	.134	.714
I see myself as someone who starts quarrels with others	107.4143	211.956	.214	.711
I see myself as someone who has a forgiving nature"	107.3818	208.406	.323	.705

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I see myself as someone who is generally trusting	107.4816	209.502	.303	.707
I see myself as someone who can be cold and aloof	107.3254	207.055	.129	.721
I see myself as someone who is considerate and kind to everyone	107.4403	207.608	.119	.722
I see myself as someone who is rude to others	107.5228	211.028	.239	.709
I see myself as someone who likes to cooperate with others	107.4729	210.498	.254	.709
I see myself as someone who does a thorough job	107.4230	211.723	.212	.711
I see myself as someone who can be somewhat careless	107.5271	212.719	.189	.712
I see myself as someone who is a reliable worker	107.5597	212.799	.190	.712
I see myself as someone who tends to be disorganized	107.4165	211.257	.231	.710
I see myself as someone who tends to be lazy	107.4751	210.741	.256	.709
I see myself as someone who perseveres until the task is finished	107.4707	211.584	.229	.710
I see myself as someone who does things efficiently	107.5445	213.522	.188	.712
I see myself as someone who makes plans and follows through with them	107.5748	209.267	.318	.706

Item-Total Statistics

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I see myself as someone who is inventive.	107.4490	213.348	.206	.711
I see myself as someone who value artistic, aesthetic experience.	107.5315	210.937	.283	.708
I see myself as someone who prefers work that is routine.	107.4967	211.924	.263	.709
I see myself as someone who likes to reflect play with ideas.	107.4252	210.641	.290	.708
I see myself as someone who has few artistic interests.	107.5054	215.503	.127	.715
I see myself as someone who is sophisticated in art, music or life.	107.5510	213.518	.202	.711

TEACHERS' SELF-EFFICACY RELIABILITY

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.818	20

Item-Total Statistics

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I help my students to get through to the most difficult students.	53.3203	128.065	.088	.842
I help my students to think critically.	53.1874	126.685	.409	.810
I help to control students' disruptive behaviour in the classroom.	53.2092	126.144	.439	.809
I help to motivate students who show low interest in school work.	53.1416	125.768	.457	.808
I help to make expectations clear about the students' behaviour.	53.3987	127.821	.379	.811
I help my students to believe that they can do well in school work.	53.1481	124.629	.507	.806

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I help my students to respond to difficult questions.	53.1895	123.848	.527	.805
I help to establish routines to keep activities running smoothly.	53.3464	126.760	.414	.810
I help my students to value learning.	53.2571	124.012	.521	.805
I help my students to comprehend what have been taught.	53.3159	123.710	.532	.805
I craft good questions for my students.	53.2331	125.830	.208	.825
I help foster students' creativity.	53.2157	122.148	.426	.809
I help students to follow classroom rules.	53.2440	123.840	.528	.805

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Item-Total Statistics

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I help to improve the understanding of a student who is failing.	53.2832	125.762	.452	.808
I help students who are disruptive or noisy.	53.3290	124.985	.482	.807
I help to establish classroom management system with each group of the students.	53.2810	124.067	.525	.805
I help to adjust my lessons to the proper level for individual students.	53.3486	122.647	.295	.819
I use a variety of assessment strategies.	53.2614	120.014	.406	.810
I help to keep a few problem students from ruining an entire lesson.	53.3159	123.959	.530	.805
I help to provide an alternative explanation for students who are confused.	53.4227	125.563	.457	.808

JOB SATISFACTION OF TEACHERS RELIABILITY

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.621	20

Item-Total Statistics

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Teachers lead vocationally unsatisfied lives.	48.2560	49.400	.066	.641
It would have perhaps been better if I had joined some other profession.	48.3297	50.856	.116	.620
The salary in teaching job is not keeping with my abilities and qualification.	48.1866	49.574	.219	.608
Give fresh opportunity for choosing a career, I will again choose teaching.	48.3189	50.035	.177	.613
People give much respect when they know that I am a teacher.	48.3926	50.274	.161	.615

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No profession is as good as teaching.	48.3059	49.121	.259	.604
Teaching is boring because of repetition of similar work.	48.3319	47.566	.230	.607
The work of teachers is interesting because of variety of activities.	48.2451	48.629	.293	.599
Society appreciate teacher's work	48.3492	49.376	.244	.605
The teaching profession is one among the few noble profession	48.2061	48.290	.318	.596
Teaching profession provides opportunity for satisfaction of my abilities and capabilities.	48.1670	48.696	.278	.601
Economic condition of a teacher makes me dislike this profession	48.2603	48.558	.295	.599

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Item-Total Statistics

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
To control children is a headache for me.	48.2863	49.992	.176	.613
Kind treatment of teachers spoil the children.	48.3210	49.258	.214	.609
I like to attend seminars within and outside the school.	48.2082	49.774	.181	.613
The school authorities are fair and impartial.	48.2668	48.044	.314	.596
My teacher colleagues are kind and cooperative.	48.2777	48.679	.165	.618
I always keep track of my progress.	48.2711	48.385	.305	.598
I sometimes feel my job is meaningless	48.3384	48.346	.274	.601
I am satisfied with my chances of promotion.	48.3839	49.946	.182	.613

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PERSONALITY TRAITS SUB- SCALE (EXTRAVERSION)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.396	9

Item-Total Statistics

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I see myself to be someone who is a talkative.	20.2321	11.035	.122	.383
I see myself to be someone who is reserved.	20.1020	11.405	.091	.394
I see myself to be someone who has full energy.	19.6681	11.061	.091	.399
I see myself to be someone who generates a lot of enthusiasm.	19.8243	10.641	.172	.362
I see myself to be someone who tends to be quiet.	20.0174	10.634	.229	.340
I see myself as someone who has an assertive personality.	20.0087	10.591	.206	.348
I see myself as someone shy or inhibited.	20.0521	10.893	.148	.372
I see myself as someone outgoing and sociable.	20.0824	10.750	.145	.374
I see myself as someone who tends to find fault with others.	20.0564	10.075	.228	.334

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PERSONALITY TRAIT SUB-SCALE (AGREEABLENESS)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.395	8

Item-Total Statistics

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I see myself as someone who is helpful and unselfish with others.	17.7332	24.492	.045	.408
I see myself as someone who starts quarrels with others.	17.6920	23.314	.156	.370
I see myself as someone who has a forgiving nature.	17.6594	21.756	.307	.314
I see myself as someone who is generally trusting.	17.7592	21.992	.304	.318
I see myself as someone who can be cold and aloof.	17.6030	18.709	.140	.399
I see myself as someone who is considerate and kind to everyone.	17.7180	18.533	.145	.396
I see myself as someone who is rude to others.	17.8004	23.330	.149	.372
I see myself as someone who likes to cooperate with others.	17.7505	22.292	.249	.336

PERSONALITY TRAIT SUB-SCALE (CONSCIENTIOUSNESS)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.504	9

Item-Total Statistics

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I see myself as someone who does a thorough job.	19.6356	16.076	.202	.481
I see myself as someone who can be somewhat careless.	19.7397	16.197	.202	.481
I see myself as someone who is a reliable worker.	19.7722	16.089	.220	.474
I see myself as someone who tends to be disorganized.	19.6291	15.851	.237	.468
I see myself as someone who tends to be lazy.	19.6876	15.589	.284	.452
I see myself as someone who perseveres until the task is finished.	19.6833	16.065	.225	.473
I see myself as someone who does things efficiently.	19.7570	16.419	.220	.475
I see myself as someone who makes plans and follows through with them.	19.7874	16.233	.223	.474
I see myself as someone who is easily distracted.	19.7484	16.841	.163	.493

PERSONALITY TRAIT SUB-SCALE (NEUROTICISM)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.517	8

Item-Total Statistics

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I see myself as someone who is depressed.	17.5423	13.218	.119	.528
I see myself as someone who relaxes and handles stress well.	17.6139	12.246	.258	.476
I see myself as someone who can be tensed.	17.6312	12.151	.296	.463
I see myself as someone who worries a lot.	17.5466	12.127	.301	.461
I see myself as someone who is emotionally stable and not easily upset.	17.4881	12.403	.246	.481
I see myself as someone who can be moody.	17.6573	12.626	.214	.493
I see myself as someone who does things efficiently.	17.4751	12.819	.196	.499
I see myself as someone who gets nervous easily.	17.6377	12.101	.293	.463

PERSONALITY TRAIT SUB-SCALE (OPENNESS)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.433	10

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I see myself as someone who is original and comes out with new ideas.	22.2928	18.012	.151	.579
I see myself as someone who is curious about many things.	22.4772	31.489	.272	.386
I see myself as someone who is ingenious and a deep thinker.	22.4469	32.096	.224	.398
I see myself as someone who has an active imagination.	22.4859	31.442	.277	.384
I see myself as someone who is inventive.	22.4338	32.881	.161	.414
I see myself as someone who values artistic and aesthetic experience.	22.5163	31.494	.280	.384
I see myself as someone who prefers work that is routine.	22.4816	32.042	.247	.394
I see myself as someone who likes to reflect play with ideas.	22.4100	31.369	.286	.382
I see myself as someone who has few artistic interests.	22.4902	33.911	.065	.436
I see myself as someone who is sophisticated in art, music or life.	22.5358	31.801	.266	.389

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TEACHERS' SELF-EFFICACY

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.818	20

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I help to get through to the most difficult students.	53.3203	128.065	.088	.842
I help my students to think critically.	53.1874	126.685	.409	.810
I help to control students' disruptive behaviour in the classroom.	53.2092	126.144	.439	.809
I help to motivate students who show low interest in school work.	53.1416	125.768	.457	.808
I help to make expectations clear about students' behaviour.	53.3987	127.821	.379	.811
I help my students to believe that they can do well in school work.	53.1481	124.629	.507	.806
I help my students to respond to difficult questions.	53.1895	123.848	.527	.805

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I help to establish routines to keep activities running smoothly.	53.3464	126.760	.414	.810
I help my students to value learning.	53.2571	124.012	.521	.805
I help my students to comprehend what have been taught.	53.3159	123.710	.532	.805
I craft good questions for my students.	53.2331	125.830	.208	.825
I help to foster students' creativity.	53.2157	122.148	.426	.809
I help students to follow classroom rules.	53.2440	123.840	.528	.805

Item-Total Statistics

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I help to improve the understanding of a student who is failing.	53.2832	125.762	.452	.808
I help students who are disruptive or noisy.	53.3290	124.985	.482	.807
I help to establish classroom management system with each group of students.	53.2810	124.067	.525	.805
I help to adjust my lessons to the proper level for individual students.	53.3486	122.647	.295	.819
I use a variety of assessment strategies.	53.2614	120.014	.406	.810
I help to keep a few problem students from ruining an entire lesson.	53.3159	123.959	.530	.805
I help to provide an alternative explanation for students who are confused.	53.4227	125.563	.457	.808

TEACHERS' SELF-EFFICACY SUB-SCALE (STUDENT

ENGAGEMENT)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.462	6

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I help to get through to the most difficult students.	14.2907	9.811	.083	.621
I help my students to think critically.	14.1649	12.403	.298	.390
I help to control students' disruptive behaviour in the classroom.	14.1844	12.385	.306	.387
I help motivate students who show low interest in school work.	14.1193	12.010	.365	.360
I help make expectations clear about students' behaviour.	14.3688	12.938	.241	.417
I help my students to believe that they can do well in school work.	14.1215	12.120	.344	.369

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TEACHERS' SELF-EFFICACY (INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICES)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.669	7

Item-Total Statistics

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I help my students to respond to difficult questions.	16.8391	18.519	.469	.612
I help to establish routines to keep activities running smoothly.	16.9978	19.558	.364	.639
I help my students to value learning.	16.9065	18.691	.449	.617
I help my students to comprehend what have been taught.	16.9674	18.197	.508	.602
I craft good questions for my students.	16.8826	17.786	.199	.721
I help foster students' creativity.	16.8674	17.383	.389	.631
I help students to follow classroom rules.	16.8957	18.638	.455	.616

TEACHERS' SELF-EFFICACY SUB-SCALE (CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.693	7

Item-Total Statistics

Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I help to improve the understanding of a student who is failing.	16.4891	21.479	.428	.656
I help students who are disruptive or noisy.	16.5391	20.859	.496	.640
I help to establish classroom management system with each group of students.	16.4913	20.704	.516	.636
I help to adjust my lessons to the proper level for individual students.	16.5587	19.088	.291	.712
I use a variety of assessment strategies.	16.4739	18.659	.375	.676
I help keep a few problem students from ruining an entire lesson.	16.5261	21.004	.479	.644
I help to provide an alternative explanation for students who are confused.	16.6304	21.471	.426	.656

APPENDIX C

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION FROM DEPARTMENT

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES
FACULTY OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND PSYCHOLOGY

Telephone: 233-3321-32440/4 & 32480/3
Direct: 033 20 91697
Fax: 03321-30184
Telex: 2552, UCC, GH.
Telegram & Cables: University, Cape Coast
Email: edufound@ucc.edu.gh

**UNIVERSITY POST OFFICE
CAPE COAST, GHANA**

Our Ref:

Your Ref:
To Whom It May Concern

Dear Sir/Madam,

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION
MR. NUTIFAFA KWÁME BANINI

We introduce to you Mr. Banini, is a Ph.D. student from the Department of Education and Psychology, University of Cape Coast. He is pursuing Ph.D. degree programme in Educational Psychology and is currently at the thesis stage.

Ms. Banini is researching on the topic:

"Influence of Personality Traits and Self-Efficacy on Job Satisfaction of Junior High School Teachers in Awutu Senya West District".

As part of the programme requirement, he is expected to collect data for his work and have opted to make the study at your institution/establishment for his project.

We would be most grateful if you could provide him the opportunity for the study. Any information provided would be treated as strictly confidential.

Thank you,

Theophilus A. Tladzomor (**Mr.**)
Senior Administrative Assistant
For: **HEAD**

APPENDIX D

APPROVAL OF PERMISSION LETTER

GHANA EDUCATION SERVICE

In case of reply the date and number of this letter should be quoted:

REPUBLIC OF GHANA

AWUTU-SENYA DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICE
PO BOX 11
AWUTU-BEREKU

E-mail: awutu.senva.ges@gmail.com

My Ref No: GES/CR/ASDO /202/VOL.I/46

Your Ref No: ....

27th August, 2018

APPROVAL OF PERMISSION

We write to approve your request to conduct a survey in the public educational institutions within the Awutu Senya District Assembly.

By this letter all heads of Basic Schools concerned are expected to collaborate with you for a successful survey.

Thank you.

....
ISAAC GODWIN KWESI ACQUAAH-ARHIN
DISTRICT DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
AWUTU-SENYA

NUTIFAFA KWAME BANINI
DEPARTMENT OF EARLY CHILDHOOD
UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA
P O BOX 25
WINNEBA

CC:
1. CIRCUIT SUPERVISORS CONCERNED
2. ALL HEADS OF SCHOOLS CONCERNED

APPENDIX E

ETHICAL REQUIREMENT CLEARANCE LETTER

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES
ETHICAL REVIEW BOARD

UNIVERSITY POST OFFICE
CAPE COAST, GHANA

Our Ref: CES-ERB/ucc-edu/V2/18-42

Your Ref: ....

Date: Sept 3rd, 2018

Dear Sir/Madam,

<u>ETHICAL REQUIREMENTS CLEARANCE FOR RESEARCH STUDY</u>

Chairman, CES-ERB
Prof. J. A. Omotosho
jomotosho@ucc.edu.gh
0243784739

Vice-Chairman, CES-ERB
Prof. K. Edjah
kedjah@ucc.edu.gh
0244742357

Secretary, CES-ERB
Prof. Linda Dzama Forde
lforde@ucc.edu.gh
0244786680

The bearer, Nuhfafa Kwame Banini., Reg. No. ED/EPY/15/0003 is an M.Phil. / Ph.D. student in the Department of Education and Psychology in the College of Education Studies, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast, Ghana. He / She wishes to undertake a research study on the topic:

Influence of personality traits and self-efficacy on job satisfaction of junior high school teachers in the Awutu Senya West District of Ghana.

The Ethical Review Board (ERB) of the College of Education Studies (CES) has assessed his/her proposal and confirm that the proposal satisfies the College's ethical requirements for the conduct of the study.

In view of the above, the researcher has been cleared and given approval to commence his/her study. The ERB would be grateful if you would give him/her the necessary assistance to facilitate the conduct of the said research.

Thank you.
Yours faithfully,

Prof. Linda Dzama Forde
(Secretary, CES-ERB)

APPENDIX F

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES

FACULTY OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND PSYCHOLOGY

SURVEY CONSENT, ANONYMITY AND CONFIDENTIALITY

FORM

Introduction

I am conducting a research study on ''Influence of Teachers' Personality Traits, Self-efficacy and Job Satisfaction of Junior High School Teachers' in the Awutu-Senya West District. The outcome of this research is expected to contribute to research on teacher job satisfaction and performance with a positive consequence for learner outcomes. I hereby invite you to participate in this research by taking a short survey. If you decide to participate in this study, you will complete a short survey questionnaire, which I shall collect from you in person. The survey should take between 20-30 minutes of your time.''

Participation

Your participation in this survey is voluntary. You may refuse to take part in the research or exit the survey at any time without penalty. You are free to decline to answer any particular question you do not wish to answer for any reason. Your participation or otherwise will not affect your relationship with the person(s) or institution(s) involved in this project.

Benefits

You will receive no direct benefits from participating in this survey. However, your responses may help to generate information on teacher personality traits, self-efficacy and job satisfaction in the Awutu-Senya West District. It is hoped that the information generated in this study will contribute

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to teacher training, motivation, and retention policy, however, I make no guarantee that such will be the case.

Risks

The potential risks or discomforts from this study are minimal, at most. Some questions may be mildly sensitive. Consequently, such questions may make you feel minor discomfort or embarrassment. Beyond these, there are no foreseeable risks involved in participating in this research other than those that you may already face in your daily life.

Consent

By filling out the questionnaire and submitting it to me, you signify your consent to being a respondent in this study according to the terms explicitly spelt out in this form.

Confidentiality

Your responses to this survey will be mixed with and analysed along with several other responses. Your personal details such as your name, phone number, home address, email address, and so forth, are not important to this study. No effort is made to collect such information from you. Your responses will not be traceable to you as your responses will remain anonymous. Again, please be assured that no one will be able to identify your answers and that, apart from the researcher, no one will know whether or not you participated in the study. At the end of the survey, you may be asked if you would like to be contacted for a follow-up interview by phone or in person. If you choose to provide contact information such as your phone number or email address, your survey responses may no longer be anonymous to the researcher. However, no names or identifying information will be included in any publications or presentations based on these data, and your responses to this survey will remain confidential.

Contact

If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures, you may contact my research advisor(s),

Dr. Bakari Yusuf Dramanu

Department of Education and Psychology

0244713844

Dr. Mark Owusu Amposah

Department of Education and Psychology

0242524710

If you feel you have not been treated according to the descriptions in this form, or that your rights as a participant in research have not been honoured during the course of this project, or you have any questions, concerns, or complaints that you wish to address to someone other than the investigator, you may contact School of Graduate Studies, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast.

Please, check where applicable

- o I have read and understood the above information
- o I voluntarily agree to participate in the study under the terms of this document
- o I have been given a second copy of this form to keep for my records

The researcher wishes you well in all you do!!