



**UNIVERSITI PUTRA MALAYSIA**

**MEDIATING ROLE OF WORK-FAMILY PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT IN  
RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN PERSONALITY AND WORK-FAMILY FACTORS,  
AND JOB SATISFACTION IN SELECTED UTILITY SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS**

**MARDHIAH MAT JUSOH**

**FPP 2014 7**



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By

**MARDHIAH MAT JUSOH**

**Thesis Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies, Universiti Putra Malaysia,  
in Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Science**

**May 2014**

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Abstract of thesis presented to the Senate of Universiti Putra Malaysia in fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of Master Science

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FACTORS, AND JOB SATISFACTION IN SELECTED UTILITY SERVICE  
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Most studies have examined the direct relationship between personality factors and work-family factors with job satisfaction. However, research on the role of work-family psychological contract as a mediator in the relationships between personality factors and job satisfaction, and in the relationship between work-family factors and job satisfaction is less examined. This study tested a mediation model consisting of personality factors and work-family factors as independent variables, job satisfaction as dependent variable and work-family psychological contract as the mediator.

The objectives of the study are to determine (i) the mediating effect of work-family psychological contract on the relationship between self-esteem and job satisfaction, (ii) the mediating effect of work-family psychological contract on the relationship between locus of control and job satisfaction, (iii) the mediating effect of work-family psychological contract on the relationship between positive affectivity and job satisfaction, (iv) the mediating effect of work-family psychological contract on the relationship between negative affectivity and job satisfaction, (v) the mediating effect of work-family psychological contract on the relationship between work interference with family and job satisfaction, and (vi) the mediating effect of work-family psychological contract on the relationship between work-family facilitation and job satisfaction.

This study used correlation research design to discover the direction and strength of the relationship among variables. This research used the structural equation modelling analysis to achieve the study objectives. There are six independent variables (self-esteem, locus of control, positive affectivity, negative affectivity, work interference with family and work-family facilitation), one dependent variable (job satisfaction) and one mediator (work-family psychological contract). This study point out that personality factors and work-family factors affect job satisfaction directly and indirectly. Indirect effects explain the relationship between independent variables (personality factors and work-family factors) and job satisfaction through the work-family psychological contract as a mediator. Meanwhile, direct effect describes the relationship between independent variables (personality factors and work-family factors) and job satisfaction.

The sample of this study consisted of executives and professionals in private organizations in the Klang Valley. Data were gathered from 230 employees of private organizations using self-administered questionnaires. The drop and collect method was used to collect data from the sample, with the assistance from human resource department of particular organizations. The random sampling procedure was used to pick the respondent for this study.

This study extends the existing psychological contract literature and hopes to contribute additional insights to psychological contract and work-family studies especially in Malaysia. For the field of human resource development this study will yield additional insights to the relationship between work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction among employees and employers. Furthermore, this study hopes to provide knowledge especially for private organizations to give attention personality and work-family factors which could influence work-family psychological contract fulfilment and thereby provide a practical means to improve job satisfaction among employees.

Abstrak tesis yang dikemukakan kepada Senat Universiti Putra Malaysia adalah untuk memenuhi keperluan ijazah Master Sains

**PERANAN PENGANTARA KONTRAK PSIKOLOGI KERJA-KELUARGA  
TERHADAP HUBUNGAN ANTARA FAKTOR PERSONALITI DAN KERJA-  
KELUARGA, DAN KEPUASAN KERJA DALAM ORGANISASI  
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Kebanyakan kajian telah mengkaji hubungan langsung antara faktor personaliti dan faktor kerja-keluarga dengan kepuasan kerja. Walau bagaimanapun, kajian tentang peranan kontrak psikologi kerja-keluarga sebagai pengantara dalam hubungan antara faktor personaliti dan kepuasan kerja, dan dalam hubungan antara faktor kerja-keluarga dan kepuasan kerja adalah kurang dikaji. Kajian ini mengkaji model pengantaraan yang terdiri daripada faktor personaliti dan faktor kerja-keluarga sebagai pembolehubah bebas, kepuasan kerja sebagai pembolehubah bersandar dan kontrak psikologi kerja-keluarga sebagai pengantara.

Objektif kajian ini adalah untuk menentukan (i) kesan pengantara kontrak psikologi kerja-keluarga pada hubungan antara harga diri, dan kepuasan kerja, (ii) kesan pengantara kontrak psikologi kerja-keluarga pada hubungan antara lokus kawalan, dan kepuasan kerja, (iii) kesan pengantara kontrak psikologi kerja-keluarga pada hubungan antara positif afektif, dan kepuasan kerja, (iv) kesan pengantara kontrak psikologi kerja-keluarga pada hubungan antara negatif afektif, dan kepuasan kerja, (v) kesan pengantara kontrak psikologi kerja-keluarga pada hubungan antara kerja mengganggu keluarga, dan kepuasan kerja, dan (vi) kesan pengantara kontrak psikologi kerja-keluarga pada hubungan antara fasilitasi kerja-keluarga, dan kepuasan kerja.

Kajian ini menggunakan rekabentuk kajian korelasi untuk mencari arah dan kekuatan perhubungan di antara pemboleh ubah. Kajian ini menggunakan analisis deskriptif dan

pemodelan persamaan struktural. Terdapat enam pemboleh ubah bebas (harga diri, lokus kawalan, positif afektif, negatif afektif, kerja mengganggu keluarga, fasilitasi kerja-keluarga), satu pemboleh ubah bersandar (kepuasan kerja), dan satu pengantara (kontrak psikologi kerja-keluarga). Kajian ini menunjukkan bahawa faktor-faktor personaliti dan faktor-faktor kerja-keluarga mempengaruhi kepuasan kerja secara langsung dan tidak langsung. Kesan tidak langsung menerangkan hubungan antara pemboleh ubah bebas (faktor-faktor personaliti dan faktor-faktor keluarga-kerja) dengan kepuasan kerja melalui kontrak psikologi kerja-keluarga sebagai pengantara. Manakala kesan secara langsung menerangkan hubungan lurus antara pemboleh ubah bebas (faktor-faktor personaliti dan faktor-faktor keluarga-kerja) dengan kepuasan kerja.

Sampel kajian ini terdiri daripada pekerja-pekerja eksekutif dan professional organisasi swasta di Lembah Klang. Data telah dikumpul dari 230 pekerja-pekerja organisasi swasta dengan menggunakan soal selidik yang ditadbir sendiri. Kaedah letak dan kutip telah digunakan untuk mengumpul data daripada sampel, dengan bantuan jabatan sumber manusia organisasi. Persampelan rawak digunakan untuk memilih responden untuk kajian ini.

Kajian ini memperluaskan literatur kontrak psikologi yang sedia ada dan akan menyumbang pandangan tambahan terhadap kontrak psikologi dan kajian kerja-keluarga terutamanya di Malaysia. Bagi bidang pembangunan sumber manusia kajian ini akan dapat menyumbang kepada pengetahuan tambahan terhadap hubungan antara kontrak psikologi kerja-keluarga dan kepuasan kerja di kalangan pekerja dan majikan. Tambahan pula, kajian ini diharap dapat memberikan pengetahuan terutamanya kepada organisasi-organisasi swasta dalam mengambil kira faktor-faktor personaliti dan faktor-faktor kerja-keluarga yang mana dapat mempengaruhi penunaian kontrak psikologi kerja-keluarga, dan dengan itu dapat menyediakan cara praktikal untuk menggalakkan kepuasan kerja di kalangan pekerja-pekerja.



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I certify that a Thesis Examination Committee has met on DD MM YYYY to conduct the final examination of Mardhiah Binti Mat Jusoh on her thesis entitled “Mediating role of work-family psychological contract in the relationships between personality and work-family factors, and job satisfaction in selected utility service organizations” in accordance with Universities and University Colleges Act 1971 and the Constitution of the Universiti Putra Malaysia [P.U.(A) 106] 15 March 1998. The Committee recommends that the student be awarded the degree of Master of Science.

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AGFI	Adjusted goodness-of-fit index
AMOS	Analysis of Moment Structures
AVE	Average variance extracted
CFA	Confirmatory factor analysis
CFI	Comparative fit index
CMIN	Chi-square
COR	Conservation of resources
<i>df</i>	Degrees of freedom
GFI	Goodness-of-fit index
HRD	Human Resource Development
IFI	Incremental fit index
JS	Job Satisfaction
LOC	Locus of control
M	Sample mean
n	Number of cases
NA	Negative affectivity
NFI	Normed fit index
PA	Positive affectivity
PGFI	Parsimony goodness-of-fit index
<i>r</i>	Correlation coefficient
<i>r</i> <sup>2</sup>	Squared correlation
RMSEA	Root mean square error of approximation
SE	Self-esteem

SEM	Structural equation modelling
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TLI	Tucker-Lewis coefficient index
WFF	WF facilitation (WFF)
WFPC	Work-family psychological contract
WIF	Work interference with family
WIF	Work interfere with family
$\beta$	Standardize regression weights
$\delta$	Error variance
$\lambda$	Factor loading
$\rho$	Rho (probability)

## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the background of the study, the statement of the problem, objectives of the study, significance, assumptions and limitations of the study and the operational definitions of terms used in this research.

#### 1.1 Background of the Study

After independence in 1957, Malaysia has achieved remarkable socio-economic growth. Malaysia has maintained an average growth rate of 5.7% per annum in 2010 (Bank Negara Malaysia, 2012). Malaysia's economy was strengthened further to 5.4 per cent against 4.9 per cent in the preceding quarter of 2010, led by continued expansion in the services and manufacturing sectors (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2012). The economic growth and stability has resulted in an increment in the rate of the 'gross domestic product' and improvement of human resources in the labor force. In addition, the rising demand of human resources in the labor force has also resulted in significant changes in terms of gender and employment structure in human resources.

These changes are significantly shown in the increasing number of women's participation in the labor force. In Malaysia, the participation of women in the workplace showed a raise from 44.5 per cent in 1982 to 46.4 per cent in 2011 (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2012). The United Nations Statistics also shows that the population of women is higher than men by the record of 160 847 thousand women compared to 156 794 thousand men in 2010 which was also the cause of the increasing number of women participating in the United States workforce (United Nations Statistics Division, 2009). In India, demographic changes in labor force can also be seen in the form of the increasing number of women in the workforce (Baral & Bhargava, 2010). This increase has created another new scenario which is accompanied by increasing figures of dual-earner couples (Aminah & Zoharah, 2010) which also expose working men and women to pressure when balancing their work and family roles (Baral & Bhargava, 2010). Pressure to balance work-family roles has exposed more employees with work-family conflict (de Janasz, Behson, Jonsen, & Lankau, 2013). Research by Khalid, Salim, Loke, and Khalid (2011) in Malaysian utility organization found that employees in private utility organization scored significantly lower on the levels of job satisfaction than public utility organization due to work-family imbalance at the workplace. According to a study by Bruce and Reed (1994), formerly, the situation at the workplace is different

compared to today's situation. Formerly, women were only recognized as housekeeper or housewife who did the home chores and gave support to their husband while men were away at work, and thus minimize the conflict between work and family roles (Bruce & Reed, 1994). Today, the increasing number of women participation in the workforce has caused more employees to confront pressure to balance of work and family roles (Aminah & Noryati, 2011).

Imbalanced work and family situation leaves an impact to employees' job satisfaction level (Saltzstein, Ting, & Saltzstein, 2001). Employees who experience work-family imbalance may experience difficulty to manage work and family equally. When employees are under pressure or stress they may feel dissatisfied with their job. Job satisfaction is defined as an internal state of employees that is expressed through work experience evaluation (Brief, 1998). Hence, family-friendly programs may assist employees to achieve balance between their work and family (Saltzstein, Ting, & Saltzstein, 2001). Work-family benefits or family-friendly programs are seen as an essential tool to improve job satisfaction level of employees. Once these employees succeed in managing their roles in their work and family, employees will perform well at the workplace since they feel satisfied with their job. Job satisfaction plays an important role in determining the subjective well-being of workers (Kaiser, 2007). Employees who achieve high well-being will improve work performance and reduce absenteeism and intention to quit, and this is beneficial to the organization (Frey & Stutzer, 2002). In general, job satisfaction is an essential indicator for the economy and society (Kaiser, 2007). Therefore, research on job satisfaction is very important especially on employees who have family responsibilities because they are more likely to encounter work-family imbalance which will lead to the decrement of job satisfaction.

There are many factors that influence job satisfaction level among employees and one of them is work-family psychological contract (Suazo, 2009). The concept of psychological contract was introduced by Schein (1965) which refers to an unwritten set of expectations that includes the consideration of mutual respect in the employee-employer relationship. According to Rousseau (1995), the psychological contract has been defined as "the terms of an exchange agreement between individuals and their organization". Psychological contracts regarding employment also refer to 'an individual's belief regarding the terms and conditions of a reciprocal exchange agreement between that focal person and another party' (Rousseau, 1989, pp. 123). Rousseau (1995) also states that 'psychological contracts (both written and unwritten) are individual beliefs, shaped by the organization, regarding terms of an exchange agreement between individuals and their organizations' (pp. 9). McDonald and Makin (2000) state that the psychological contract not only revolves on expectations but also implicit promises and reciprocity of obligation between employees and employer. Robinson and Rousseau (1994) define the psychological contract as the belief of individuals towards the organization concerned with an exchange of agreement between employees and the organization.



Employees who have family responsibilities will face difficulties in dividing their roles for work and family adequately (Rousseau, 1995). This situation may encourage employees to expect their organization to help them achieve work-family balance (Conway & Briner, 2005). The researchers suggest that the psychological contract may help to obtain work-family balance at the workplace.

Generally, the psychological contract may affect job satisfaction (Conway & Briner, 2005; Suazo, 2009). Previous research shows that the fulfillment of the psychological contract may increase job satisfaction of individuals, and if employees perceive that their employers fail to fulfill their promises, it will decrease employees' job satisfaction (Lo & Aryee, 2003; Gakovic & Tetrick, 2003; Karatepe & Tekinkus, 2006). Suazo (2009) reports that the psychological contract breach has caused a decrease in job satisfaction among USA service-oriented employees. In addition, Raja, Johns, and Ntalianis (2004) have found that psychological contract breach is negatively related to job satisfaction. Psychological contract breach refers to a state in which employees perceive that employers fail to execute their obligations (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000). It shows that the psychological contract may affect the level of job satisfaction, whereby the unfulfilled psychological contract may decrease job satisfaction.

Employees today prefer to negotiate a psychological contract that includes work-family benefit so that they can achieve balance in work and family roles. Rousseau (1995) suggests that employees with family responsibility prefer to have a psychological contract that includes work-family benefit. Scandura and Lankau (1997) have reported that a psychological contract with flexible work hours may enhance job satisfaction level of employees. Moreover, research on work-family balance shows that family-friendly activities at the workplace contribute to positive job outcomes such as high job satisfaction among employees (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005; Baral & Bhargava, 2010). Thus, in line with the importance of psychological contract and work-family research, this study introduces the term of work-family psychological contract. Derived from general psychological contract definition, the work-family psychological contract refers to the extent of employees' belief towards promises regarding work-family benefit that have been fulfilled. Coussey (2000) finds that employees tend to develop a positive perception on the psychological contract if their organizations are concerned with their work-family balance. Therefore, the work-family psychological contract is seen as a useful mechanism that may contribute to high job satisfaction among employees.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

Demographic changes in the workforce have increased employer's awareness of the importance of work-family balance among employees (Saltzstein, Ting, & Saltzstein,



2001). The increase in number of women participating in the workforce (Baral & Bhargava, 2010) has caused more couples in need of organizational support to balance both work and family roles (Aminah & Zoharah, 2010). Consequently, employees may expect that the organization will assist them with work-family balance. Many organizations in Western countries have implemented family-friendly policies at the workplace since they acknowledge the effectiveness of the policies in improving work-family balance and job satisfaction (Jones & McKenna, 2002). The importance of family-supportive work culture and the provision of work-family support have been shown could help reduce employees work-family conflict (Aminah & Zoharah, 2013). However, in Malaysia, there is no legislative pressure placed by the government on employers to provide work-family policy especially in the private sectors (Ministry of Women, Family and Community Development, 2009). Besides that, there is still lack of study that focus on utility service of private company regarding work-family assistance. Khalid et al. (2011) stated that it is important to shift the focus to utility services company since employees who are attached with service-based have been reported to deal with job stress especially in private sector.

Nevertheless, the growing number of research on work and family fields has found that the work-family policy alone is not strong enough in reducing the imbalance of work and family roles because work-family policy gives limited impact on employees' attitude (Smithson & Lewis, 2004). Furthermore, Smithson and Lewis (2004) suggest that the focus of research should be altered from the policy to employees' expectation concerning the psychological contract. This is due to the findings of many current researches which agree that the psychological contract may increase work-family balance and also job satisfaction (Scandura & Lankau, 1997; Smithson & Lewis, 2004). Although studies on the psychological contract have received a lot of attention in Western countries (DelCampo, 2007), research on work-family issues rarely emerge in the psychological contract research and hence, the need for more exploration and investigation (Smithson & Lewis, 2004; Aminah & Zoharah, 2010). Moreover, studies on the psychological contract are also still scarce in Malaysia. Therefore, in this research, the term of work-family psychological contract is used and it refers to employees' perception on the psychological contract which narrows down to work-family issues. In other words, work-family psychological contract is reflected on individuals' perception on implicit belief towards their organization's obligation to fulfill employees' expectation regarding work-family benefit. Work-family psychological contract is expected to enhance job satisfaction.

Based on the literature review, most research have examined the direct relationship between personality factors and work-family factors with job satisfaction (Ilies & Judge, 2003; Hill, 2005; Conway & Briner, 2002). However, research on the role of work-family psychological contract as a mediator in the relationships between personality factors and job satisfaction, and in the relationship between work-family factors and job satisfaction is less examined.

Thorough inspection of past studies has shown that the relationship between personality factors (self-esteem, locus of control, positive affectivity and negative affectivity) and work-family factors (work interference with family and work-family facilitation) with psychological contract had been given little attention (Raja, Johns, & Ntalianis, 2004; Taylor, DelCampo, & Blancero, 2009). In addition to that, much evidence of psychological contract research is rooted and more concentrated in Western and developed countries (Baral & Bhargava, 2010). Thus, more research is needed to explore the impact of antecedents (personality factors and work-family factors) and work-family psychological contract on job satisfaction in developing countries, such as Malaysia. This study is to test the effect of work-family psychological contract as a mediator in the relationships between personality factors and work-family factors, and job satisfaction.

### **1.3 Objectives of the Study**

#### **1.3.1 General objective**

In general, this study examined the role of the work-family psychological contract as a mediator of the relationship between personality factors and work-family factors, with job satisfaction.

#### **1.3.2 Specific objectives**

The specific objectives of this study are:

1. To determine the mediating effects of the work-family psychological contract on the relationship between self-esteem, and job satisfaction.
2. To determine the mediating effects of the work-family psychological contract on the relationship between locus of control, and job satisfaction.
3. To determine the mediating effects of the work-family psychological contract on the relationship between positive affectivity, and job satisfaction.
4. To determine the mediating effects of the work-family psychological contract on the relationship between negative affectivity, and job satisfaction.
5. To determine the mediating effects of the work-family psychological contract on the relationship between work interference with family, and job satisfaction.
6. To determine the mediating effects of the work-family psychological contract on the relationship between work-family facilitation, and job satisfaction.

## **1.4 Significance of the Study**

### **1.4.1 Significance to Theory**

This research hopes to answer the call to study a new perspective of research on psychological contract by integrating with work-family issues in the research model that still remains largely unexplored as compared to the traditional psychological contract research (DelCampo, 2007). This study extends the existing psychological contract literature and hopes to contribute additional insights into the psychological contract and work-family fields of study especially in Malaysia. From the field of human resource development (HRD) this study will yield additional insights to the relationship between work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction among employees and employers.

The contribution of this study is threefold. Firstly, a few studies have integrated two dimensions of variables namely personality factors and work-family factors within a single framework (Bruck & Allen, 2003; Blanch & Aluja, 2009). Secondly, research to date has not adequately examined how personality influences the psychological contract and subsequent satisfaction (Raja, Johns, & Ntalianis, 2004). This has given new insight to the human resource development, since previous studies have mostly focused on organizational and job factors rather than individual factors (e.g. personality) in psychological contract research (e.g. Guest, 2004; Taylor et al., 2009; Casper et al., 2011). Therefore, this study incorporates several theories including the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989), the model of psychological contract (Rousseau, 1989), and the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) in a single model. Thirdly, this study utilizes the construct of work-family psychological contract as the mediating variable between antecedent factors and job satisfaction; the two factors which have been overlooked so far in psychological contract research.

### **1.4.2 Significance to Practice**

From a practical perspective, this study hopes to provide information especially to the human resource practitioners of organizations in Malaysia to emphasis on the personality and work-family factors which could help enhance work-family psychological contract fulfillment and thereby providing a practical means to promote job satisfaction among employees.

Organizations may benefit by fulfilment of work-family psychological contract that enable their employees to feel satisfied. Individuals also may benefit from seeking opportunities to enhance their experience of work-family psychological contract

fulfillment and job satisfaction. By empirically examining antecedents of psychological contract, this study hopes to draw the attention of Government and private organizations to provide a better workplace by give rise to work-family psychological contract in line with the increasing number of workers with family responsibilities, and thereby to promote employees' job satisfaction.

### **1.5 Assumptions of the Study**

Eventhough many of the research models and measurement scales are adopted from Western literature, it is however assumed that the models and measurement scales are still suitable and applicable for use within the Malaysian employees. Beside that, it is assumed that the respondents had answered all the questions honestly, in a non-biased manner.

### **1.6 Limitations of the Study**

The sample consisted of executives and professionals from utility-service provider organizations in Klang Valley who are randomly selected. With such limitation of the sample, the findings of this study cannot be generalized to all employees in Malaysia and other occupational groups. Besides that, this study is limited to the examination of respondents' perception on work-family psychological contract and consequences on employees' job satisfaction.

This research is limited to the investigation of self-esteem, locus of control, positive affectivity, negative affectivity, work interference with family, work-family facilitation, work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction. Other variables such as organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior and turnover intentions are not examined. To add, family interference with work and family-work facilitation are also not included.

The family size was not considered in this study because regardless of having big or small size family size, the employees still hold responsibilities toward their work and family (Karatepe & Sokmen, 2006).

## **1.7 Operational Definitions of Terms**

### **Job satisfaction**

Job satisfaction refers to how individuals feel about their job. It is referring to the extent of individuals' enjoyment or feeling of content on their job, whether one is satisfied or not with their job or they have the intention to quit.

### **Work-family psychological contract**

Work-family psychological contract refers to individuals' perceptions on the organizations' obligation and employee expectation based on what has been promised by the organization regarding the fulfillment of work-family benefits.

### **Self-esteem**

Self-esteem refers to individuals' overall evaluation or appraisal about themselves. Self-esteem is reflected in people's perception about their achievement, worth and self-value; whether they are a person of worth or of a failure.

### **Locus of control**

Locus of control refers to the general belief about who or what influences an element of control (either inner or outer control) on aspects like achievement in life, whether it is due to their own effort or ability or to luck. Locus of control is divided into two – internal and external loci of control.

### **Positive affectivity**

Positive affectivity is described as positive emotion experienced by individuals when they interact with other people and with their environment. Individuals with high positive affectivity are viewed as enthusiastic and cheerful whereas people of low positive affectivity are people in a distress and sadness state.

### **Negative affectivity**

Negative affectivity is defined as unpleasant emotion experienced by individuals when they engage in, and react to, their surroundings. Individuals with negative

affectivity tend to respond negatively to their environment. Individuals with high negative affectivity tend to feel the fear and nervousness, and thus people with low negative affectivity is characterised as being calm.

#### Work interference with family

Work interference with family is defined as a condition of conflict in which the work roles interferes with family roles.

#### Work-family facilitation

Work-family facilitation is defined as the extent to which individuals' engagement in work contributes to benefit their roles in the family.



## CHAPTER 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews the literature on job satisfaction, work-family psychological contract, self-esteem, locus of control, positive affectivity, negative affectivity, work interference with family, and work-family facilitation. This chapter also discusses the theories and models used in this research.

#### 2.1 Job Satisfaction

Most researchers recognize job satisfaction as a global concept that is comprised of various facets (Judge & Klinger, 2008). Job satisfaction facets which are frequently assessed include pay, promotions, co-workers, supervisors, and the nature of the work itself (Spector, 1997). A research on 3,400 executive employees in 29 nations has reported that about half of the respondents (43 percent women and 42 percent men) have less satisfaction with their job (Jami'ah, 2011). This phenomenon is due to low salary and the need for flexible work rules (Jami'ah, 2011). Employers are responsible to help employees in maintaining and increasing their satisfaction towards their job. Studies on job satisfaction have caught researchers' attention for the reason of dissatisfaction that can cause counterproductive work behavior among employees (Mount, Ilies, & Johnson, 2006; Zakaria & Battu, 2013). Job satisfaction should be studied continually because employees' job satisfaction is constantly changing in line with changes of organization's environment (Kalleberg, 1977; Mount, Ilies, & Johnson, 2006; Munap, Badrillah, & Rahman, 2013).

Saari and Judge (2004) suggest that there are three important dimensions of job satisfaction namely emotional response to the work situation, appraisal of work, and attitude on work. The dimension of job satisfaction is commonly described through the two-factor theory (theory of Herzberg). A motivation theorist, Herzberg (1950) divided the elements required for job satisfaction into two dimensions namely hygiene factors and motivators. Hygiene refers to the working environment which includes company policies, supervision, appraisal, salary, job equipment and adequate work space. Motivators refer to individuals' ability, achievements, recognition, reward, advancement, work itself and responsibilities. Herzberg and Mausner (1959) emphasize that once the hygiene factors are prepared, employees may feel a meaningful connection to their work, and strengthening motivator factors may increase job satisfaction. These two dimensions of job satisfaction are very important in order to increase employees' job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction refers to the positive or negative evaluative judgements people pass about their jobs (Weiss, 2002). A classic definition of job satisfaction is, “a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one’s job values” (Locke, 1969, pp.316). Satisfaction depends on individuals’ expectation, needs, and values. Job satisfaction explains individuals’ feelings towards their job achievements that are valued by the individuals. Job satisfaction refers to the extent of how content an individual is with his or her job (Karatepe & Sokmen, 2006). Job satisfaction is also defined as a pleasant feeling or pleasure feeling which employees experience in their job (Dick, Knippenberg, Kerschreiter, Hertel, & Wieseke, 2008). Individuals who are happy or satisfied with their job and believe that the job itself gives some value to them are considered to have achieved job satisfaction at the workplace.

## **2.2 Psychological Contract**

Research on the psychological contract has recently become a trend in organizational psychology literature as a way of examining and exploring the employee’s expectations that employee has of their relationship with their employer (McDonald & Makin, 2000). Psychological contract is a concept that describes the relationship between employee and employer in terms of the responsibilities they share. Employees who work sturdily and give benefit to their organization will expect the organization to give something in return as rewards (Mauno, Kinnunen, Makikangas, & Natti, 2005). Psychological contract refers to individual’s perception on exchange obligation in the employment relationship (Aggarwal & Bhargava, 2009). According to Aggarwal and Bhargava (2009), both the employee and organization will have different perceptions about what they owe each other.

Rousseau (1989) illustrates how the psychological contract occurs between employees and organization. Employees who are employed by an organization have a perception on the organization’s obligation. Once employees experience consistent inducement from the organization it will lead to development of ‘belief’ that will create a psychological contract. Therefore, psychological contract refers to beliefs on reciprocal obligations. In the organizational context, a psychological contract refers to employees’ beliefs towards the organization on the exchange of obligations. Employees may have expectation to receive a response commensurate with the effort of their work for the benefit of the organization.

Previous research has stated that there are two types of psychological contract, which are transactional psychological contract and relational psychological contract (McDonald & Makin, 2000). According to researchers, transactional psychological contract is attached to promises in terms of economic promises. For example, the transactional psychological contract is pictured as employees’ willingness in taking



additional roles and overtime work in exchange for a better pay from the organization. Transactional psychological contract is characterized as a short-term contract that focuses on materialistic or monetary asset (Raja, Johns, & Ntalianis, 2004). Employers need to provide high performance-based pay as exchange obligation with employees' work to strengthen the transactional contract.

The relational psychological contract is a long-term contract and it does not just focus on economic exchange but also security in jobs (Raja, Johns, & Ntalianis, 2004). As an exchange, loyal employees expect that organization may provide job security or growth in the organization (career path) for the employees (McDonald & Makin, 2000). For example, an employee who works for several years for an organization believes that the organization will provide security for their job as to mark the employer's obligation. Psychological contract contains both transactional and relational elements in different weights even when there are different characteristics between these two types of psychological contracts. Balance and changes of transactional and relational in the psychological contract depends on the desired outcome between employees and employer (McDonald & Makin, 2000). Researchers state that the psychological contract is influenced by the employee's behavior. Thus, each organization should know their employees' priority; whether they join the organization only for money or they can be loyal to the organization. The organization should know which 'promises' are appropriate to be made with the employees since the psychological contract may vary from one employee to another (McDonald & Makin, 2000).

In the early 80's, Rousseau (1989) explained how the psychological contract was developed. The psychological contract begins when an individual has the perception that their contribution will lead the organization to reciprocate obligation (Rousseau, 1989). "Belief that reciprocity will occur can be the precursor to the development of a psychological contract" (Rousseau, 1989, pp.124). When an employee and an employer have interacted with each other, the expectation on reciprocal obligation will occur and this explains the development of psychological contract. Argyris (1960), Levinson (1962), and Schein (1980) suggest that psychological contract refers to the "unwritten expectations that operate between employees and managers" (Rousseau, 1989, pp.126). Employees will have some expectations towards the organizations in return for their contributions. They expect that their organization will give something in return for their hardwork in the organization such as promotion to a higher position after they successfully help boost their organization's profit. This concept of psychological contract is easily understood as unwritten expectations of employees from their organizations.

However, Robinson and Rousseau (1994) argue that psychological contract is not about 'expectation' but it is about 'belief'. As opposed to what Argyris (1960), Levinson (1962), and Schein (1980), Robinson and Rousseau (1994) consider psychological contract as individual's belief shaped by the organization regarding the

exchange of mutual obligation in the employee-employer relationship. Silent agreement or implicit promise in terms of responsibility exchange between employees and organization is the 'belief' that defines this psychological contract (Conway & Briner, 2002). Rousseau (1995) also states that the psychological contract is not an 'expectation' since the psychological contract is a consequence of promises and acceptance. After promises are made and accepted by the parties involved in the agreement, then the psychological contract will occur.

Recently, researchers suggest that the psychological contract is engaged with both the beliefs and expectations (Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003). This is because the expectation in the context of psychological contract does not refer to ordinary expectation but it refers to perceived promises (Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003). Briefly, psychological contract is related to 'belief' and 'expectation'. This is supported by Morrison (1994), which states that the concept of expectation in psychological contract is similar to the concept of belief which refers to implicit promises. In other words, psychological contract explains the perception of employees' belief towards their organization in terms of responsibility exchange at the workplace. Johnson and O'Leary-Kelly (2003) found that employees who have positive perceptions on mutual obligation tend to express positive belief and generate fulfilment of psychological contract.

In recent times, many researchers agree that the concept of 'belief' is more appropriate and potent to be used to define psychological contract (Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003; Aggarwal & Bhargava, 2009). For the purpose of this study, psychological contract is defined as beliefs held by employees towards their organization regarding the exchange of obligations (Conway & Briner, 2002). Psychological contract refers to an individual's belief regarding a reciprocal agreement between herself/himself and the organization (Liao-Troth, 2005). Psychological contract consists of the belief on reciprocal obligation that expresses how much the employee owes their employer, and vice versa (Robinson, Kraatz, & Rousseau, 1994). According to Mauno et al. (2005) a psychological contract emphasizes balance in the employee and employer relationship. Johnson and O'Leary-Kelly (2003) state that the psychological contract only indicates employee's belief. This is supported by Rousseau (1989) who states that the psychological contract is a 'one-way contract' that focuses merely on the employee's side. Hence, the psychological contract can be classified as employee's belief towards their organization regarding the reciprocity of shared obligation. It is normal for employees to expect something from the organization after they have contributed to the organization, but in the psychological contract context, the expectation refers to the belief by the employees toward their organization in terms of exchange responsibilities.

Studies on psychological contract show that the psychological contract is important for the relationship between employees and the organization (McDonald & Makin,

2000). Besides that, this contract is seen as essential in understanding and predicting attitudes and behaviors among employees (Robinson, 1996; Rayton & Yalabik, 2014; Eckerdt, Hill, Boyer, Donohue, & Ward, 2013). In this study, psychological contract refers to employees' belief regarding reciprocal of organization's obligation on what has been promised.

### **2.3 Work-Family Psychological Contract**

As discussed previously, psychological contract denotes employees' belief towards their employer regarding the act of reciprocating obligations. Researchers state that a psychological contract may change over time when the expectation of individuals towards their organization changes (Borrill & Kidd, 1994). The majority of past research on psychological contract only explore the aspect of theory testing and discuss it in general (DelCampo, 2007). Most researchers only discuss the psychological contract theory and its relevance to the employee and employer relationship. Besides, past research only focus on the traditional content of the psychological contract (Conway & Briner, 2005) which includes expectations regarding job security, training, development in path career, and reward. However, the content of the psychological contract may differ or change over time (Sutton & Griffin, 2004). Since the study on psychological contract mostly focuses on limited subsets of the content and excludes non-work benefits, more research is needed to expand the current psychological contract content.

Today's organizations face dynamic changes in their structure, culture, and demography that may affect the employees' expectations towards their organizations and also the employers' expectations towards their employees. This condition may also change the psychological contract in terms of the expectation of additional aspects such as family-friendly benefits and other non-work activities that employees need. Rousseau (1995) has agreed that employees with family responsibilities may negotiate a new psychological contract that includes family responsive benefits which is needed for balancing work and family. With changes of the workplace structure and technology advancement, work and family imbalance become a serious problem among employees and which subsequently needs the organizations' attention. This phenomenon insists that the psychological contract is able to help provide work-family balance to employees at present (Becker & Moen, 1999; Lu, Siu, Spector, & Shi, 2009).

The rising number of studies on work and family issues portrays the importance of work-family balance at the workplace (Aziz & Chang, 2013; Noor, Gandhi, Ishak, & Wok, 2014). There are many researches on work and family issues that have been conducted by various researchers due to the demographic changes in the workplace (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005) such as the growth of dual-

earner couples in the workplace caused by the increasing number of working women. Nevertheless, there are gaps that exist in the study of psychological contract and work-family issues due to the scarcity of research conducted to measure work-family issues as part of employees' psychological contract. Giga and Cooper (2005) state that 'employees and employer enter adult contract focusing on mutual benefits, and work-life balance possibly brought to the front' (pp.410). This shows that there is requirement for work-family balance assistance at the workplace will become important to be provided for in every organization. Hence, organizations should increase their efforts in helping or preparing or organizing family-friendly workplace since nowadays most employees demand for balance in work and family activities (Joplin, Francesco, Shaffer, & Lau, 2003).

Scandura and Lankau (1997) conducted a study on 160 male and female managers regarding psychological contracts, which focused on flexible working hours. Scandura and Lankau (1997) discover that flexible working hours contribute to enhance employees' positive perception on psychological contract. The provision of flexible working hours is able to encourage employees to have a positive belief on psychological contract related to work-family benefits. This happens because the employees believe that their organization cares for work and family issues faced by employees. Researchers have suggested more research should be conducted in the future concerning work-family psychological contract since psychological contract is seen as a significant tool that can help to manage work-family imbalance (Scandura & Lankau, 1997; Guerrero & Herrbach, 2008).

Thus, in this research, work-family psychological contract is refers to individuals' perceptions on the organizations' obligation and employee expectation based on what has been promised by the organization regarding the fulfillment of work-family benefits.

## **2.4 Relationship between Work-Family Psychological Contract and Job Satisfaction**

Nowadays, organizations are sensitive with the needs for work and family balance among employees. Moreover, many organizations now realize that their responsibility is not just in making profit but also in fulfilling employees' needs (Siomkos, Rao, & Narayanan, 2001; Zacher & Winter, 2011). As seen in earlier studies, psychological contract breach and violation is negatively related to job satisfaction (Suazo, 2009) which also shows that employees' belief towards their employer will give an impact to the job satisfaction level (Roman, Battistelli, & Odoardi, 2014). Psychological contract breach or violation occurs when organizations fail to fulfill their obligation. Employees who experience psychological contract breach or violation might develop a negative perception on the



psychological contract (Suazo, 2009). Employees' belief towards the organization would diminish and further cause low job satisfaction (Ng, Feldman, & Butts, 2013). According to Scandura and Lankau (1997), when employees believe that their employer will try to address their work-family problems, it will increase their job satisfaction. Therefore, researchers suggest that the psychological contract fulfillment will enhance job satisfaction. A research by Gakovic and Tetrick (2003) suggests that fulfillment of organizational obligations is positively related to job satisfaction. Organizations that fulfill their obligations associated with the psychological contract such as providing work-family assistance will promote high job satisfaction at the workplace (Lee & Kartika, 2014).

Lo and Aryee (2003) report that psychological contract breach is negatively related to job satisfaction. Failure of an organization to fulfill the work-family psychological contract will cause employees to have negative or weak perception on the work-family psychological contract and will result in of the decreasing level of employees' job satisfaction. Suazo (2009) adds that psychological contract breach or violation can cause low job satisfaction among employees. In other words, once employees have a perception that there is a discrepancy between what have been promised and what they gain from the organization, they will feel dissatisfied with their job. Bukhari, Saeed, and Nisar (2011) also state that when employees perceive that employer does not perform its obligations, employees' job satisfaction level will decrease. Karatepe and Tekinkus (2006) further add that the establishment of the psychological contract will lead to high job satisfaction among employees. Psychological contract is seen as a source for employees to feel happy or satisfied with their job (Karatepe & Tekinkus, 2006). For example, an organization which executes their responsibility in assisting employees with work-family balance will make their employees feel that their job is meaningful. In other words, psychological contract may increase employees' job satisfaction (Guest & Conway, 2004).

Many researchers agree that the family-friendly workplace can increase job satisfaction among employees (Jones & McKenna, 2002). Hence, psychological contract that includes work-family benefits is believed may help to increase the job satisfaction level of employees. Accordingly, work-family psychological contract is believed to be able to influence employees' job satisfaction. This research suggests that the work-family psychological contract may help to increase job satisfaction.

Based on the above discussion, this research tests the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction.

## **2.5 The Role of Work-Family Psychological Contract as a Mediator in the Relationship between Self-Esteem and Job Satisfaction**

### **2.5.1 Self-esteem**

Based on past studies, many researchers view self-esteem as an important attention-seeking personality because it involves change in desired behaviors of employees through time. The term self-esteem was first coined by Stanley Coopersmith from California in late 1960s but Nathaniel Branden is well known as the pioneer in the field of self-esteem (Craig, 2006). Self-esteem refers to the good feeling experienced by individuals if they can deal with challenges in their lives (Branden, 1969). Besides, self-esteem also reflects individuals who think positively about themselves and have thoughts that they are worthy. According to Branden (1969), self-esteem is a combination of self-confidence and self-respect in individuals. Self-confidence refers to confidence in one's own abilities while self-respect is about individuals' exalted view on themselves.

Earlier, studies on self-esteem have focused on the context of intimate relationship or marriage (Branden, 1969). Afterwards, studies on self-esteem have expanded into the academic performance field. In the late 1980's, a politician in California stated that social problems like drugs, abortion, crime, and failure at school among teenagers were due to the lack of self-esteem among themselves (Craig, 2006). However, many researchers did not agree as there was not enough evidence to prove the statement. Later, there are scientific researches conducted and researchers have found that self-esteem is not really related to achievement at school (Baumeister, Smart, & Boden, 1996). In addition, they have also found that the lack of self-esteem does not cause bullies and crime among students and high self-esteem refers to an individual who is happier and energetic. Subsequent studies by Baumeister, Smart, and Boden (1996) support the findings which show that low self-esteem is not the main trait causing failure in academic among children. A survey on children in England shows that low self-esteem is not a risk factor for academic success and other social problems (Emler, 2001). At first, studies on self-esteem were mainly designed to measure self-esteem of students or teenagers on the achievement in school and social activities (Craig, 2006; Emler, 2001). Later, self-esteem of employees was examined since researchers noticed that it could also affect work-related attitude and behavior (Korman, 1970). Nevertheless, research on 'organization-based self-esteem' still needs to be explored deeper since the role played by self-esteem framed within the work and organizational context is still vague (Pierce & Gardner, 2004).

Self-esteem is viewed as individuals' self-evaluation about themselves (Gelfand, 1962; Korman, 1976; Wells & Marwell, 1976). Self-esteem expresses individuals' judgment about themselves; it is associated with personal view about the extent of their likes and dislikes about themselves. Self-esteem also reflects the extent of

individuals' belief on their self capability. Self-esteem is defined as 'the degree to which individuals believe that they can satisfy their needs by participating in organizational roles' (Pierce, Gardner, Cummings, & Dunham, 1989, pp.625). This means that individuals who are successful in their work or are able to perform their roles at the workplace successfully will develop satisfaction and belief of their capability which will lead to high self-esteem. Bandura (1977) further states that self-esteem is part of self-efficacy. According to Bandura (1977), individuals with self-esteem have strong expectation; believing that they are good enough to do their job or to perform their roles at the workplace. Pierce et al. (1989) state that 'individuals who develop beliefs about their own efficacy ... develop a strong sense of self-esteem' (pp.625). Although both self-esteem and self-efficacy look very similar, they are two different self-concepts (Gardner & Pierce, 1998). According to Gardner and Pierce (1998), self-efficacy refers to perceptions of individuals regarding their abilities to do a job, whereas self-esteem refers to one's trait or personality in perceiving and valuing their own self. In other words, self-esteem refers to the personality that each individual has; which refers to the capability to evaluate him/herself. In the organizational context, self-esteem refers to individuals' belief about their capability, significance, or worth as employees.

In general, a person with high self-esteem personality is someone who loves him/herself, while a person with low self-esteem personality is someone who always looks down on himself/herself (Burton, Mitchell, & Lee, 2005). Besides that, high self-esteem encompasses individuals who are more efficient in the workplace since they are more confident in handling their chores. High self-esteem reflects positive self-concept (Raja, Johns, & Ntalianis, 2004). Low self-esteem occurs when there is a difference in individuals' thinking or viewpoint about themselves; 'what a person thinks he or she should be and what they think they are' (Meckler, Drake, & Levinson, 2003, pp. 221). For example, employees think that they should be more hard-working so that they will be successful in their job instead of despairing over obstacles.

### **2.5.2 Relationship between Self-esteem and Work-Family Psychological Contract**

High self-esteem is pictured as a personality that drives individuals to have their own expectation on the psychological contract since individuals with high self-esteem have an 'ideal ego' that renders them to impress their organization to fulfill their needs (Rousseau, 2003). Having high self-esteem may be a prerequisite to achieve successful psychological contract. Individuals with high self-esteem are seen as people who are determined and able to control their own destiny. They know what is needed for themselves and if their belief of control is threatened, it may lead them to perceive uncertainty in the organization (Hui & Lee, 2000). Individuals with high self-esteem feel that they are important, meaningful, and valuable to organization and in return, they perceive that organization will meet the expectations of their needs (Hui & Lee, 2000). Hence, individuals with high self-esteem are suggested to have a

strong or positive perception on the psychological contract. It means that they have a belief that their employer will fulfill their promises.

Self-esteem is known as a personality which represents self-belief found in a person (Hughes & Palmer, 2007). Individuals with high self-esteem believe that the organization is concerned with their welfare at the workplace such as providing working flexibility (Hughes & Palmer, 2007). Thus, high self-esteem individuals are expected to develop a positive perception on work-family psychological contract. In other words, individuals with high self-esteem have beliefs that the organization will reciprocate its mutual obligation. On the other hand, individuals with low self-esteem find it less convincing that their organization will fulfill the promises.

Rousseau (2004) states that employees who have high self-esteem tend to build relational contract because they have a desire to succeed and they are very competitive. Individuals with high self-esteem tend to engage with psychological contract that includes non-work promises than promises solely monetary (Rousseau, 2004). A strong relational psychological contract encourages employees to have high self-esteem (Gardner, Huang, Pierce, Xiongying Niu, & Lee, 2010). Indeed, when employees receive what have been promised by their employer, they will develop high self-esteem. Through this statement, researchers have found that the psychological contract can also influence self-esteem. Researchers argue here that self-esteem also has an impact on psychological contract (Raja, Johns, & Ntalianis, 2004). In accordance with the self-enhancement theory perspective, employees with high self-esteem will try to find a better psychological contract if they sense the availability of a new and improved psychological contract (Gardner, Huang, Pierce, Xiongying Niu, & Lee, 2010) such as the work-family psychological contract. According to the psychological contract theory, nowadays, individuals with family responsibility need work-family benefits as part of a psychological contract so that they can balance their work and family adequately (Rousseau, 1995). Based on this argument, self-esteem may have a positive relationship with work-family psychological contract. In other words, individuals with high self-esteem will develop a positive perception on work-family psychological contract. Conversely, individuals with low self-esteem may produce negative perceptions on the contract. This is because, in relation to self-consistency theory, a low self-esteem employee will not give much attention even if a better option of contract exists (Gardner, Huang, Pierce, Xiongying Niu, & Lee, 2010).

The study on psychological contract violation and breach are also included to discuss the relationship between self-esteem and the work-family psychological contract because there is still a lack of study that examines the relationship between the two. High self-esteem is positively related to willingness and trust (Weining & Smith, 2012) which lead to lower psychological contract breach (Robinson, 1996). In other words, individuals with high self-esteem are expected to have a tendency to produce positive perceptions on psychological contract fulfilment which means that they have



a strong belief that their organization would fulfill their obligations similar to what the employees expect and what have been agreed regarding work and family assistance. For the purpose of this research, self-esteem is expected to correlate positively with work-family psychological contract fulfillment.

### **2.5.3 Relationship between Self-esteem and Job Satisfaction**

Many researchers have found that self-esteem is significantly correlated with job satisfaction (Judge & Bono, 2001). Scholars claim that self-esteem will give effects to employees' job satisfaction, motivation, and performance (Gardner, Dyne, & Pierce, 2004). Based on the psychological contract theory, low self-esteem may lead to dissatisfaction among employees on their job (Lambert, Edwards, & Cable, 2003). Individuals with high self-esteem will demonstrate high job satisfaction compared to individuals with low self-esteem (Gardner, Dyne, & Pierce, 2004). Orth, Robins, and Widaman (2012) state that self-esteem can prospectively predict job satisfaction. Researchers have revealed that there is a positive relationship between self-esteem and job satisfaction (Kuster, Orth, & Meier, 2013; Gardner & Pierce, 2013).

Based on the above discussion, this research tested the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2a: There is a positive relationship between self-esteem and work-family psychological contract.

Hypothesis 2b: There is a positive relationship between self-esteem and job satisfaction.

## **2.6 The Role of Work-Family Psychological Contract as a Mediator in the Relationship between the Locus of Control and Job Satisfaction**

### **2.6.1 Locus of Control**

The 'locus of control' concept is developed by Rotter in 1954 (Throop & Jr, 1971) based on the social learning theory (Bradley & Sparks, 2002). The original study by Rotter in 1954 described locus of control as 'generalized expectancies for control of reinforcement' (Mearns, 2011). Rotter (1966) introduced the concept of locus of control as a firm character in individuals as they have a belief about the degree to which they have control over many aspects of their lives. Locus is a Latin word which means 'place' or 'location' (Wikipedia, n.d.). In other words, locus refers to one's ego in a perceived output of life event whether in their control (internal) or caused by others forces (external) (Han, Song, & Chen, 2011). Simply, locus of

control expresses the concentration of the control point whether it is internal or external. In other words, locus of control refers to individuals' general belief on the attribution of consequences whether something occurs within their self-control or controlled by another power. In this regard, Rotter (1966) also states that there are two categories of locus of control which are internal locus of control and external locus of control. Individuals with internal locus of control believe that something that happens in their lives is caused by their own character and action. On the other hand, individuals with external locus of control believe that something like luck, chance, exterior power or fate will resolve events of life. They have the assumption that there is an exterior power that will influence their reinforcement. Individuals with external locus of control believe everything that happens in life is beyond their control. They believe that outcomes or rewards are attributed by other forces, for example fate or luck. In contrast, individuals with internal locus of control perceive that their lives' outcome is depending on their own decision and behavior (Bruk-Lee, Khoury, Nixon, Goh, & Spector, 2009). Individuals with internal locus of control believe that to be success or rich, one has to work hard.

Locus of control refers to individuals' personalities who have cognitive beliefs in outcomes and rewards in their lives (Bruk-Lee et al., 2009). Johnson, Batey, and Holdsworth (2009) define locus of control as generalized expectation to the extent of individuals' belief –whether the events that have happened in their lives are determined by interior or exterior factors. As explained by Rotter (1954), internal locus of control represents individuals who believe that everything happening in life is determined by the interior factor which is one's desire or effort. Individuals with internal locus of control trust that success or failure in one's life is up to oneself. On the other hand, individuals with external locus of control believe that life events are conquered by exterior factors like luck, chance, and fate. They deem human life to be controlled by fate.

### **2.6.2 Relationship between Locus of Control and Work-Family Psychological Contract**

Not many researches study the correlation of personality with psychological contract (Bukhari, Saeed, & Nisar, 2011). According to Liao-Troth (2005), personality has an effect on contract formation. Individuals will choose the types of contracts that they are willing to sign with the organization depending on their personality. Different people may have different perceptions of the psychological contract (Ho, Weingart, & Rousseau, 2000).

Studies on the relationship between the locus of control and psychological contract show different results. A research by Zhao and Chen (2008) in China and the United States has found that, in general, locus of control is negatively related to the transactional contract and has a positive relationship with the relational contract. It

shows that locus of control, a facet of personality, is reasonable to be linked with the work-family psychological contract. This is because relational contract is concerned with socio-emotional promises which include work-family terms (Aggarwal & Bhargava, 2009). Specifically, Zhao and Chen (2008) have found that the internal locus of control is positively related to the relational psychological contract. Hence, the internal locus of control is also expected to be positively related to the work-family psychological contract. According to Zhao and Chen (2008), individuals with external locus of control are positively related to the transactional psychology which focuses on monetary conditions. Thus, external locus of control is predicted to be negatively related to the work-family psychological contract since it does not favor the non-economic relationship.

In addition, Bilgin (2007) has found that individuals with external locus of control are more sensitive to sense breach in the psychological contract than the internal locus of control individuals do. People with external locus of control are illustrated as individuals who have less belief towards their organization or union. Hence, individuals with external locus of control tend to react negatively to the psychological contract fulfilment. This happens because individuals with external locus of control may easily feel threatened with any changes around them since their locus of control is influenced by outside factors. Based on that argument, it is suggested that the external locus of control may negatively relate to the work-family psychological contract. In contrast, individuals with the internal locus of control are less sensitive to changes and this explains why they have more confidence that their organization may fulfil the psychological contract (Bilgin, 2007). In accordance, individuals with the internal locus of control may have positive relationship with the psychological contract.

Edwards and Karau (2007) in their study, however, have found that there is no correlation between the locus of control and psychological contract. The finding is dissimilar with their expectation as they have expected that the locus of control is significantly and negatively (external locus of control) related to the psychological contract. For the deviant result, Edwards and Karau (2007) state that there is a high possibility for the locus of control to correlate with the psychological contract if only the samples (employees) work in a less constrained environment. This is because Edwards and Karau (2007) find out that the samples of their research have faced a highly constrained environment.

Based on the previous study, it is expected that the internal locus of control will lead to a positive relationship with the work-family psychological contract while the external locus of control will lead to a negative relationship with the work-family psychological contract. This is reinforced by the nature of the external locus of control that will convict the cause of a problem to another factor that is beyond their control (Alatrasta & Arrowsmith, 2004). For individuals with external locus of control, they believe that if they fail to do well in their job, it is possibly due to the

weak management in the organization. Hence, this situation encourages the employees to develop a negative perception towards their organization. Unlike individuals with internal locus of control, they believe everything –failure or success is controlled or decided by themselves (Mitchell, Smyser, & Weed, 1975). Thus, individuals with internal locus of control may have a positive perception on the work-family psychological contract, and individuals with external locus of control may negatively be related to the work-family psychological contract.

### **2.6.3 Relationship between Locus of Control and Job Satisfaction**

Internals are individuals with internal locus of control, have self-satisfaction towards their environment and they are better adjusted to job than the externals could. A study by Judge and Bono (2001) has revealed that internals are positively related to job satisfaction, while externals are negatively related to job satisfaction. Hence, individuals with internal locus of control may be motivated to feel satisfied with their job (Zhao & Chen, 2008). Individuals with internal locus of control are reported to have better relations with colleagues that will encourage positive work reactions such as job satisfaction (Martin, Thomas, Charles, Epitropaki, & McNamara, 2005). Thus, internal locus of control has been found to be positively correlated to job satisfaction (Bilgin, 2007).

Based on the previous study, this research has tested the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3a: There is a positive relationship between the locus of control and work-family psychological contract.

Hypothesis 3b: There is a positive relationship between the locus of control and job satisfaction.

## **2.7 The Role of Work-Family Psychological Contract as a Mediator in the Relationships between Positive Affectivity, Negative Affectivity and Job Satisfaction**

### **2.7.1 Positive Affectivity and Negative Affectivity**

In general, positive affectivity is reflected through positive moods like vigor, enthusiasm, and determination (Watson, Clark, & Carey, 1988). On the other hand, negative affectivity is defined as a negative mood-dispositional dimension such as anger, fear, and depression (Watson & Pennebaker, 1989). Positive and negative affectivity can either be measured as a state or a trait. Traits of affectivities

correspond to mood experienced by an individual over time, and state is referred to the fluctuations in mood (Watson & Pennebaker, 1989).

For the purpose of this study, positive affectivity and negative affectivity refer to the mood experienced by individuals (Heller, Judge, & Watson, 2002; Lim, Yu, Kim, & Kim, 2010). 'Individuals who are high in positive affectivity are characterized by high energy, enthusiasm, and pleasurable engagement, whereas those who are high in negative affectivity are characterized by distress, unpleasant engagement, and nervousness' (Heller, Judge, & Watson, 2002, pp. 818). It seems acceptable to imply that positive affectivity and negative affectivity have an effect on each other which means that high positive affectivity may lower negative affectivity, and vice versa. However previous researches prove that positive affectivity and negative affectivity are independent of each other (Crawford & Henry, 2004; Lim, Yu, Kim, & Kim, 2010). Positive affectivity and negative affectivity are not opposite to each other but they are in the continuum and are also not dependent of each other (Geenen, Proost, Dijke, Witte, & Grumbkow, 2011). Positive affectivity and negative affectivity are divisible dimensions (Yperen, 2003). In short, low positive affectivity dimension does not indicate high negative affectivity dimension, and vice versa.

Individuals with high positive affectivity are viewed as people who have alertness and excitement, while individuals with low positive affectivity are people with emotions such as exhaustion and sadness. High negative affectivity refers to emotions of sorrow and disagreement, whereas individuals with low negative affectivity signify people who are calm and tranquil (Lim, Yu, Kim, & Kim, 2010). Hence, positive affectivity refers to energetic personality, and negative affectivity refers to disagreeable personality. In fact, individuals with high positive affectivity tend to experience positive emotions, while individuals with high negative affectivity are likely to retain negative emotions like blaming themselves when they fail or blaming others to express their disappointment (Zellers, Hochwater, Hoffman, Perrewe, & Ford, 2004).

### **2.7.2 Relationships between Positive Affectivity and Negative Affectivity with Work-Family Psychological Contract**

Affectivity may influence individuals' perception of situations through information interpretation (Staw & Cohen-Charash, 2005). Individuals with high positive affectivity are likely to remember good things and they likely to have a positive perception towards their organization (Zhai, Smyth, Nielsen, & Luan, 2009). On the other hand, individuals with high negative affectivity are more likely to remember unpleasant events at the workplace (Zhai, Smyth, Nielsen, & Luan, 2009). The research by Jones and George (1998) states that individuals' moods and emotions play essential roles in determining their relationship with people and daily activities. Thus, positive and negative affectivity personalities may influence individuals'



perception on the psychological contract (Jones & George, 1998). According to Jones and George (1998), individuals with positive affectivity are viewed as people who have the enthusiasm and energy which could cause them to have more beliefs towards their organization. Indeed, individuals with positive affectivity are trusted to have good spirit and positive emotion. Hence, in a way, positive emotion helps to escalate the positive perception which increases individuals' belief on the psychological contract. Conversely, negative affectivity personality refers to unpleasant and distressing mood/emotion experienced by individuals, and they tend to construct negative perceptions towards their organizations. Hence, researchers suggest that individuals with positive affectivity may develop a positive belief on the psychological contract than might the individuals with negative affectivity. Thus, it is suggested that positive affectivity will positively relate to the psychological contract, which means that, the more positive affectivity individuals have, the more fulfilment of psychological contract may be created. Meanwhile, negative affectivity is suggested to relate negatively to the psychological contract.

Lo and Aryee (2003) have further found that individuals' negative affectivity may influence their perceptions of the psychological contract breach. They have found that negative affectivity is positively related to the psychological contract breach. When the breach of psychological contract occurs, it will lower the employees' trust on their employers. Consequently, employees will not be motivated to engage in actions that exhibit mutual obligations. Furthermore, individuals with negative affectivity are more sensitive to injustice in their organization than individuals with positive affectivity (Begley & Lee, 2005). Negative emotions experienced by individuals with negative affectivity personality will lower their belief in mutual obligation relationships (Begley & Lee, 2005). Hence, individuals with negative affectivity tend to have a negative perception on the psychological contract. Lo and Aryee (2003) also suggest for more research in the future regarding affectivity with the psychological contract.

Individuals with negative affectivity are inclined to see their organization in a negative way and prefer to find the 'worst' in their organization. Conversely, positive affectivity personality encourages individuals to seek for the 'best' in their organization (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004). Therefore, employees with negative affectivity have a tendency to see problems on the psychological contract, whereas employees with positive affectivity perceive 'kinder' perceptions on the psychological contract (Kiewitz, Restubog, Zagenczyk, & Hochwarter, 2009). Individuals with negative affectivity are likely to focus on negative aspects of their environment (employer, peers, and policies) including themselves (Kiewitz et al., 2009). Positive affectivity individuals favor seeing the world in positive ways. Indeed, individuals who experience positive emotions tend to have positive perception on psychological contract which means that they have a strong belief in the employee-employer relationship that demonstrates mutual obligations (Kiewitz et al., 2009). For individuals with negative affectivity, they might have a negative perception on psychological contract fulfilment since they are likely to have a negative perception towards their organization.

Based on the earlier discussion, researcher proposes a positive relationship between positive affectivity and work-family psychological contract, and a negative relationship between negative affectivity and work-family psychological contract.

### **2.7.3 Relationships between Positive Affectivity and Negative Affectivity with Job Satisfaction**

Previous researches suggest that positive affectivity may encourage positive attitude and negative affectivity might encourage negative attitude at the workplace (Geenen, et al., 2011). Individuals with high positive affectivity feel satisfied with their work, whereas individuals with high negative affectivity are inclined to feel less satisfied towards their job (Zhai, Smyth, Nielsen, & Luan, 2009). Zhai et al. (2009) have found that positive affectivity is positively correlated to job satisfaction and negative affectivity is negatively related to job satisfaction. According to Begley and Lee (2005) positive affectivity and negative affectivity will affect job satisfaction. Begley and Lee (2005) add that if the initial expectation toward the organization is different (or not met) with what they have received, it will disturb their satisfaction at the workplace. Individuals with positive affectivity are likely to have high level of job satisfaction, and individuals with negative affectivity are likely to have low level of job satisfaction.

High negative affectivity employees would possibly express dissatisfaction with their job at the workplace than to feel satisfied with the improvement done at the workplace. On the other hand, for high positive affectivity employees, they tend to appreciate satisfaction and evade from the feeling of dissatisfaction at the workplace (Siomkos, Rao, & Narayanan, 2001).

Based on the previous studies, this research tested on the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 4a: There is a positive relationship between positive affectivity and work-family psychological contract.

Hypothesis 4b: There is a positive relationship between positive affectivity and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 5a: There is a negative relationship between negative affectivity and work-family psychological contract.

Hypothesis 5b: There is a negative relationship between negative affectivity and job satisfaction.

## **2.8 The Role of Work-Family Psychological Contract as a Mediator in the Relationship between Work Interference with Family and Job Satisfaction**

### **2.8.1 Work Interference with Family**

Major, Klein, and Ehrhart (2002) state that, nowadays, over 60% of American workers want to work fewer hours since working for long hours can cause or provoke work-family conflicts. Work-family conflict is a concept that explains an individual's inability to separate the time for various demands and roles (Duxbury, Higgins, & Lee, 1994; Hill, 2005). Individuals will face work-family conflict when they have to carry out many roles such as being a worker, mother and wife at the same time (Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998). Work-family conflict is conflict between the roles in which the demand for a role (work) interferes with the demand for other roles (family) (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Kahn, Wolf, Quinn, & Rosenthal, 1964). In fact, work-family conflict happens when one domain, work or family, requires high levels of role demand, while another domain is affected because individuals fail to perform their roles successfully (Boyar & Mosley Jr., 2007). For example, when employees spend more time at work, they will spend less with family and vice versa.

Past researches have only described work-family conflict as work-to-family conflict (Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000). Recently, growing evidence shows that work-family conflict actually happens in two-fold –work interference with family (WIF) and family interference with work (Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000; Boyar & Mosley Jr., 2007). Work domain contributes to work interference with family, while family domain is reported to contribute to family interference with work (Boyar & Mosley Jr., 2007). Work interference with family happens more frequently than family interference with work (Boyar & Mosley Jr., 2007; Carlson, Witt, Zivnuska, Kacmar, & Grzywacz, 2008) because family boundary is vaguer (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Taylor, DelCampo, & Blancero, 2009). Excessive workloads or job conflicts have caused more ‘work interference with family’ occurring in the organization (Beham & Drobnic, 2010). Moreover, Boyar and Mosley Jr. (2007) state that too many roles and responsibilities at the workplace may reduce resources and give rise to work demand, and as a result, individuals will neglect their roles in the family.

Work interference with family is defined as the conflict between roles in work and family domain wherein work domain interferes with the family domain (Taylor, 2009). According to Beham and Drobnic (2010), high job demands force individuals to sacrifice their time and energy spent on their families. Nowadays, it is customary for an organization to encourage its employees to work for long hours. This scenario leads to the increasing work interference with family (Beham & Drobnic, 2010). Besides that, work interference with family also happens when one's role demand in the work domain interferes with one's role demand in the family domain (Boyar & Mosley Jr., 2007). Both domains are essential for individuals and each requires a



significant role demand. However, when an individual prefers work over family, it will lead to work interference with family. Thus, this familial interference is regarded as an inter-role conflict that happens when the role demand in the work domain has caused failure for one to perform the role in the family domain.

Previous research has stated that there are three categories of work interference which are time-based work interference with family, strain-based work interference with family and behavior-based work interference with family (Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991). Time-based work interference with family regarding the time spent on work makes it difficult to fulfill the role for the family. Various role demands in the work domain will require more time to be spent on work and at the same time will limit the time for the family. Working for long hours and inflexible work contribute to the interference with family (Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000).

Strain-based work interference with family refers to pressures that cause anxiety, depression, lack of enthusiasm and irritability caused by the incompatibility of role demands at the workplace (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Strain-based work interference with family refers to the outcomes of strain such as fatigue and exhaustion in fulfilling one's jobs role which affect one's performance role in the family domain. Researchers have found that the cause of strain-based work interference with family is the same with time-based work interference with family which is working for long-hours, inflexible work schedule and overtime.

Behavior-based work interference with family is defined as behaviors in the job role that causes difficulty to fulfill the role demand in the family (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). For example, what is considered appropriate at the work place is very different from what is considered appropriate at home and the individuals need to modify their behavior between the two settings. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) state that the inconsistency of behavior may lead to work interference with family. According to Beham and Drobic (2010) the lack of work-family balance at the workplace may increase work interference with family. Usually, mothers are more familiar with work interference with family. However, researchers find that fathers are also related to work interference with family (Hill, 2005).

For this study, work interference with family is referred to the conflict of roles in work and family, whereby work gets in the way of family life.

### **2.8.2 Relationship between Work Interference with Family and Work-Family Psychological Contract**

Work interference with family (WIF) happens when individuals' job demands interfere into the family domain (Shaffer, Harrison, Gilley, & Luk, 2001). Work demands such as work overload and overtime require individuals to sacrifice time and energy that should be allocated for family towards their work. High work interference with family is a message to employees that the organization fails to perform their promise regarding work-family assistance. This is because when employees execute their obligation, they will expect the organization to do the same in return, which is described as psychological contract fulfilment (Karatepe & Tekinkus, 2006). Hence, if the employees encounter work interference with family, they may believe that their organization does not care about their well-being (Gakovic & Tetrick, 2003) and that it may render the employees to have a negative perception on the psychological contract. Work interference with family (WIF) is found to be positively related to employees' psychological distress (Major, Klein, & Ehrhart, 2002) and it may affect employees' perception on the psychological contract. Hence, high work interference with family (WIF) may lead to negative perceptions on the work-family psychological contract. In other words, employees with high work interference with family may develop a negative perception on the psychological contract because when employees face high work interference with family, they tend to have a negative belief towards their organization in fulfilling mutual obligations.

So far, there is yet to be a research that explores into the direct relationship between work interference with family and work-family psychological contract. Hill (2005) has stated that once employees go through work interference with family, they tend to find resources, such as work-family policies to handle it. Work-family psychological contract is believed to be the solution for employees to handle work interference with family. High work interference with family among employees is a message that the organization fails to fulfill their obligations. When employees feel that they are troubled with work interference with family, they tend to believe that their organization does not govern their mutual obligation. Hence, it can be said that work interference with family experienced by employees may affect their perception on the work-family psychological contract. Based on the argument, work interference with family is suggested to be negatively related to the work-family psychological contract.

Taylor, DelCampo, and Blancero (2009) study the direct effect of work-to-family conflict on the fairness of the psychological contract. The fairness of psychological contract refers to employees' perception on psychological contract violation (Taylor, DelCampo, & Blancero, 2009). Taylor et al. (2009) find out that work-to-family conflict is related to fairness of psychological contract, in the way that individuals with low conflict perceive psychological contract to be fair. Individuals with low work-family conflict tend to believe that an organization is fulfilling their obligation.

Based on this study, it shows that individuals with low work interference with family may develop positive perception on psychological contract as they have strong belief towards their organization regarding the exchange of mutual obligation. For the purpose of this research, researcher suggests that work interference with family (WIF) has a negative relationship with the work-family psychological contract.

### **2.8.3 Relationship between Work Interference with Family and Job Satisfaction**

Previous study reports that high level of work interference with family experienced by employees may decrease the job satisfaction level (Beham & Drobic, 2010). Employees who undergo high work interference with family may not be able to focus or feel happy about their job resulting in low job satisfaction level. Negative consequences of high work interference with family induce low job satisfaction (Boyar & Mosley Jr., 2007). Even if there is a research reporting that work interference with family is related to family satisfaction, the majority of researchers agreed that work interference with family is in fact, associated with job satisfaction (Brough, O'Driscoll, & Kalliath, 2005; Hill, 2005). Brough, O'Driscoll, and Kalliath (2005) acknowledge that work interference with family will decrease the job satisfaction level. This is because, individuals who have to spend more time and energy on their work will neglect their family. As a result, they will feel guilty and disappointed and this encourages dissatisfaction in the job. A job seeker is likely to choose organization that offers work-life benefit at the workplace since it may lessen work-family conflict and enhance job satisfaction (Casper & Buffardi, 2004). Work demands led to work interfering with family (WIF), and further leading to lower job satisfaction (Rupert, Stevanovic, Hartman, Bryant, & Miller, 2012).

Based on the above discussion, this research tested on the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 6a: There is a negative relationship between work interference with family and work-family psychological contract.

Hypothesis 6b: There is a negative relationship between work interference with family and job satisfaction.

## **2.9 The Role of Work-Family Psychological Contract as a Mediator in the Relationship between Work-Family Facilitation and Job Satisfaction**

### **2.9.1 Work-Family Facilitation**

The growing number of studies on work and family has found that domains of work and family can benefit each other (Hill, 2005). Hill (2005) has stated that as much as conflict can occur between work and family domains, it can also facilitate one another. However, there are few studies that focus on the facilitation of work and family (Hammer, Cullen, Neal, Sinclair, & Shafiro, 2005). Previously, the terms positive work-family spillover (Almeida, McDonald, & Grzywacz, 2002) and work-family enhancement (Barnett, 1998; Voydanoff, 2002) are used to describe the same construct. Work-family phenomenon is a reverse state of work-family conflict (Taylor, DelCampo, & Blancero, 2009). However, many researchers argue that work-family facilitation is not a reverse state of conflict because these two aspects are dissimilar to each other (Boyar & Mosley Jr., 2007; Hill, 2005) depending on employees' perception on resource availability (Voydanoff, 2004a).

Work-family facilitation refers to one's role in one domain that helps one's role in another domain through moods, skills, values, or behaviour (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Work-family facilitation may occur in two ways which are work-to-family facilitation and family-to-work facilitation (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000).

Behaviors or roles that are played at the workplace may assist employees to execute appropriate roles in their family. For instance, when employees work, they can gain money to support their family's necessity. Individuals' involvement in their work may be beneficial to their family (Grzywacz & Butler, 2005). Many studies suggest that work may be useful for individuals to play a role in their family because when they work, they are able to get resources or values that help them to perform their role in family successfully.

It is suggested that when individuals participate with more roles, they will gain more resources to be used and as a result, would obtain more facilitation. Researcher states that the ability to make own decision on the job will lead to work-family facilitation (Hammer et al., 2005). Individuals who have the authority to make decision on their job are capable of managing their family too. Hence, those individuals may perceive that their work may facilitate their family. Researchers have posited that the enrichment role in one domain such as new skills, economy sustainability and social expansion will improve the functioning in another domain. Work demands are popularly related to work interference with family, whereas work resources contribute to the work-to-family facilitation (Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, & Kacmar,

2007; Voydanoff, 2005). In other words, work-to-family facilitation is explained as individuals' role at the workplace benefits their role in the family. Work-family facilitation can be viewed as a win-win situation for both work and family domains. For example, skills that individuals gain from their work such as communication skills and management skills can be applied in the family and this phenomenon contributes to the work-family facilitation (Voydanoff, 2004).

### **2.9.2 Relationship between Work-Family Facilitation and Work-Family Psychological Contract**

To date, many organizations acknowledge the importance of work-family balance to employees, hence psychological contract is seen as a new way to approach it (Cortese, Colombo, & Ghislieri, 2010). Hill (2005) affirms that work-family resources such as flexible job and supportive organizational culture contribute to high work-family facilitation, whereas job stressors like job pressure may decrease work-family facilitation. Employees who obtain work-family balance at the workplace perceive that the organization cares about the employees' need. Employees who experience high work-to-family facilitation would perceive the psychological contract to be fair (Taylor, DelCampo, & Blancero, 2009). When organizations can provide sufficient resources to the employees in handling work and family balance, employees will believe that the psychological contract is fair. According to Taylor et al. (2009) psychological contract fairness refers to employees' perception that the organization does not violate their promise to execute exchange of mutual obligation. Hence, high work-family facilitation is suggested to be positively related to the work-family psychological contract. Based on Taylor et al. (2009), work-family facilitation experienced by employees encourages a positive perception on the psychological contract. In a situation when the employees' work facilitates their family, they tend to believe that their organization has implemented reciprocity of shared obligation.

### **2.9.3 Relationship between Work-Family Facilitation and Job Satisfaction**

Work-family facilitation is significantly related to job satisfaction (Boyar & Mosley Jr., 2007). Researchers state that when individuals' job can assist their family, they will find the job pleasurable. Participation in a job allows individuals to be more successful in the family role. Hence, work-family facilitation is found to be positively related to job satisfaction (Hill, 2005). When employees perceive that their work is facilitating their family, they will love their job. Work resources that employees gain from their work may assist their role in the family (Hill, 2005). Hence, employees will be satisfied with their job when they know their job will benefit their family in return.



Voydanoff (2005) pictures work-family as a situation where work resources meet or satisfy family demands. As work resources fit family demands, work-family balance may increase and this will also enhance job satisfaction. Work-family facilitation is posited to be positively related to work-family balance and to lead to increasing job satisfaction. Wayne, Musisca, and Fleeson (2004) have found that work-family facilitation is related to job satisfaction. Kinnunen, Feldt, Geurts, and Pulkkinen (2006) state that work-family facilitation is positively related to job satisfaction. Researchers believe that work-family facilitation is associated with job satisfaction (Carlson, Grzywacz, & Zivnuska, 2009).

Based on previous studies, this research has tested the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 7a: There is a positive relationship between work-family facilitation and work-family psychological contract.

Hypothesis 7b: There is a positive relationship between work-family facilitation and job satisfaction.

## **2.10 Theories**

The conservation of resources theory is the main theory in explaining the whole framework of this study. Meanwhile, psychological contract and social exchange are the two theories that assist to explain and understand the work-family psychological contract.

### **2.10.1 Conservation of Resources Theory**

The conservation of resources theory is seen to be able to provide a foundation to support researches that are associated with psychological contract. The basic of the conservation of resources theory states that individuals would attempt to obtain, maintain and protect resources from any loss (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll, 2002). The conservation of resources theory explains that individuals will strive to conserve and maintain resources to minimize the psychological stress or to avoid the loss of resources. Stress is a reaction towards circumstances where there is a threat to loss of resources or loss of resources to expand another resource (Hobfoll, 1989).

Resources refer to 'properties of the environment that can be acted upon' (Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, & Kacmar, 2007, pp. 66). As stated by Hobfoll (1989), resources



include personal characteristics, objects, conditions, energies, and support. Personal characteristics such as self-esteem, locus of control and positive affectivity are resources that can invent fulfilment of work-family psychological contract. Work-family facilitation is also part of resource that employees need to have fulfilment of work-family psychological contract. Loss or threat of loss of this resource (self-esteem, locus of control, positive affectivity and work-family facilitation) will decrease work-family psychological contract fulfilment.

Work interference with family and work-family psychological contract is predicted to relate to each other (Taylor, DelCampo, & Blancero, 2009). Individuals who experience work interference with family are expected to have negative perception of the work-family psychological contract. Based on the conservation of resources theory, the more role demands required in the work domain, the fewer resources are available for one to materialise their role in the family domain. High work interference with family at the workplace causes more resources to be used to reduce this problem, thus it will lessen the resources to develop strong belief towards the organization concerning the obligation exchange of work-family assistance (Hill, 2005). Hence, work interference with family is suggested to negatively correlate with the work-family psychological contract where high work interference with family could disturb employees' perception on this contract.

Negative affectivity is suggested to be negatively related with the work-family psychological contract. This is because individuals with high negative affectivity tend to develop unfavorable feelings towards their organization (Zellars, Hochwater, Hoffman, Perrewe, & Ford, 2004). Thus, individuals with high negative affectivity tend to have a negative perception on the psychological contract (Lo & Aryee, 2003). In other words, individuals with high negative affectivity are encouraged to have a negative belief towards their employers in reciprocating their obligation to provide work-family benefit at the workplace. Based on the conservation of resources theory, individuals with high negative affectivity may have negative perception on work-family psychological contract fulfilment.

In addition, the conservation of resources theory suggests that the work-family psychological contract may effectuate stress because of the loss of resources in the process of maintaining belief towards the organization concerning the exchange of mutual obligation. Threat to loss of resources or loss of resources may cause job dissatisfaction. When employees experience unfulfilled work-family psychological contract, they may not be satisfied with their job (Lo & Aryee, 2003). Moreover, the conservation of resources theory provides a theoretical basis for this relationship. Based on the conservation of resources theory, negative perception on work-family psychological contract fulfilment will effectuate loss of resources. When employees did not have the belief that the organization will execute reciprocity of mutual obligation, it will possibly cause loss of resource as they feel they could barely react. If employees feel the loss of resources while they are facing unfulfilled work-family

psychological contract, depression will occur in the work and family domains which will lead to job dissatisfaction (Lo & Aryee, 2003).

Based on the discussion above, the conservation of resources theory explains and supports the role of the work-family psychological contract as a mediator in the relationships between personality factors (self-esteem, locus of control, positive affectivity, and negative affectivity), work-family factors (work interference with family and work-family facilitation), and job satisfaction.

### **2.10.2 Psychological Contract Theory**

Psychological contract theory is constructed to expand the understanding of employment relationship (Levinson, Price, Munden, Mandl, & Sooley, 1962; Schein, 1965; Rousseau, 1989, 1995). Increasing numbers of studies focusing on the psychological contract show that the psychological contract becomes an essential component in the organization at present (Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo, 2007). There are three principles that are highlighted in the psychological contract theory which focus on mutual responsibility, emphasize on psychological responsibility and focus on individual perception (Song, Christine, Soon, & Straub, 2004). Researchers have suggested that the psychological contract only happens when two parties believe that an agreement in which promises concerning mutual responsibility exchange have been made and agreed upon. Psychological contract is individualistic because 'all contracts, whether written or unwritten, are fundamentally psychological, existing in the eye of the beholder' (Rousseau & Parks 1993, pp. 19). Employees' perception on the psychological contract may be different from one to another. Personality factors may affect the way employees perceive their psychological contract (Liao-Troth, 2005). Condition of work such as work-family conflict also contributes to the psychological contract (Taylor, Delcampo, & Blancero, 2009). Furthermore, the psychological contract theory can predict job attitude and behavior of employees (Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo, 2007). Based on the psychological contract theory, the fulfilment of the psychological contract (employees receive what have been promised by employer) may encourage job satisfaction (Conway & Briner, 2002; Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000). Employees who receive valued resources will feel obligated to help the organization achieve its goal while exhibiting high job satisfaction (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). Besides that, 'employees form beliefs about the particular types of resources that they are obligated to provide to the organization and that the organization is obligated to provide to them in return' (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003, pp. 492). The psychological contract theory suggests that individuals with family responsibility prefer to negotiate a new psychological contract that includes both, work and family benefits (Rousseau, 1995). Hence, derived from the psychological contract theory, the work-family psychological contract is predicted to be positively related to job satisfaction.

### **2.10.3 Social Exchange Theory**

Blau (1964) introduces the social exchange theory which focuses on the norm of reciprocity. According to Emerson (1976), the social exchange theory is constructed from the concept of economics. The social exchange theory proposes that individuals are motivated to engage in the interaction with other people with an expectation that they will receive benefit or reward in return from the other parties. According to the social exchange theory, employees who join an organization will expect that the organization will fulfill the psychological contract when they execute their obligation. Hence, the social exchange theory highlights that the obligation exchange in the employee-employer relationship is concerned with the reciprocity of mutual obligation. Moreover, the social exchange theory explains how the reciprocity of mutual obligation will relate to work outcomes (Bal, Cooman, & Mol, 2011). Based on the social exchange theory, the organization's fulfillment on the psychological contract will lead to high job satisfaction (Turnley & Feldman, 2000). This situation happens when the employees feel that the organization fulfills the psychological contract and as a result, they will act accordingly by reciprocating this fulfillment, which will generate positive job attitudes' (Bal, Cooman, & Mol, 2011, pp. 4). Thus, derived from the social exchange theory, high work-family psychological contract fulfillment is expected to increase job satisfaction. When the employees have full belief that the organization will reciprocate the mutual obligation concerning work-family assistance, it will increase employees' job satisfaction.

### **2.10.4 Work-Family Psychological Contract as Mediator**

Based on the discussion of literature reviews and theories, this research tests the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2c: Work-family psychological contract mediates the relationship between self-esteem and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3c: Work-family psychological contract mediates the relationship between the locus of control and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4c: Work-family psychological contract mediates the relationship between positive affectivity and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 5c: Work-family psychological contract mediates the relationship between negative affectivity and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 6c: Work-family psychological contract mediates the relationship between work interference with family and job satisfaction.

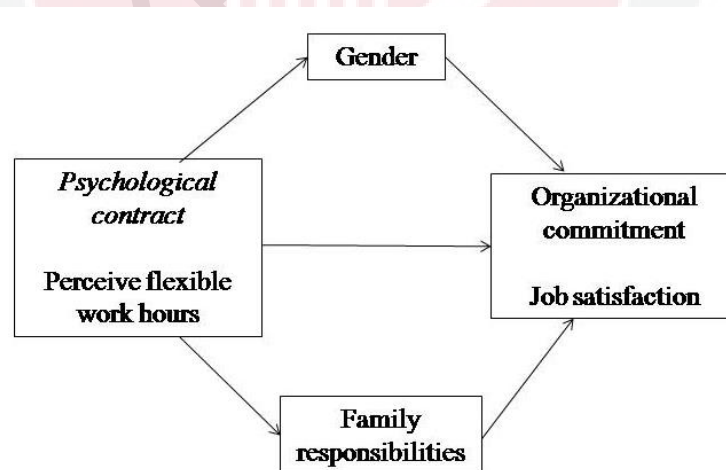
Hypothesis 7c: Work-family psychological contract mediates the relationship between work-family facilitation and job satisfaction.

## 2.11 Models of Research

Six essential models in antecedents and the work-family psychological contract on job satisfaction which contribute significantly to the development framework of this study are discussed. There is no single model to support the relationship. Hence, these six models assisted to comprehend the development of whole model of this study.

### 2.11.1 Model by Scandura and Lankau (1997)

The first model is a model by Scandura and Lankau (1997) shown in Figure 2.1. This model suggests that perceived flexible work hours has an impact on job satisfaction. This model also correlates perceived flexible hours as employees' perception on the psychological contract. This model by Scandura and Lankau (1997) provides an important direction for this study by introducing a research that integrates work-family with psychological contract. This model views perceived flexible hours (work-family issues) as part of employees' perception on the psychological contract that may influence job satisfaction. Therefore, this model gives support to the relationship between work-family psychological contracts and job satisfaction by considering that positive perception on psychological contract leads to high job satisfaction.

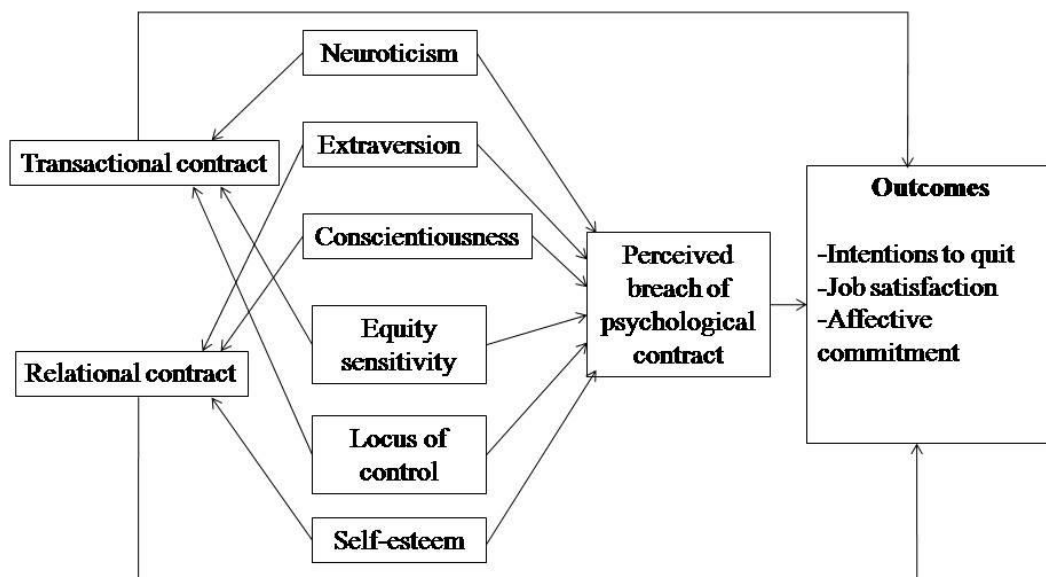


**Figure 2.1: Model of psychological contract (work-family) and job satisfaction**

Source: Scandura, T. A., & Lankau, M. J. (1997). Relationship of gender, family responsibility and flexible work hours to organizational commitment and job satisfaction. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 18, 377-391.

### 2.11.2 Model by Raja, Johns, and Ntalianis (2004)

The second model is a model suggested by Raja, Johns, and Ntalianis (2004) as shown in Figure 2.2. This model proposes that self-esteem and the locus of control have a relationship with the breach of psychological contract and job satisfaction. Besides that, this model also explains the breach of psychological contract component as a mediator of the relationship between personality factors with job satisfaction. This model by Raja, Johns, and Ntalianis (2004) shows that there is a significant relationship between self-esteem and the locus of control with the breach of psychological contract. Moreover, this model also shows that there is a relationship between the breach of psychological contract and job satisfaction. This model helps to recognize the relationship between personality factors (self-esteem and locus of control), the work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction.



**Figure 2.2: Model of psychological contract, self-esteem and locus of control and job satisfaction**

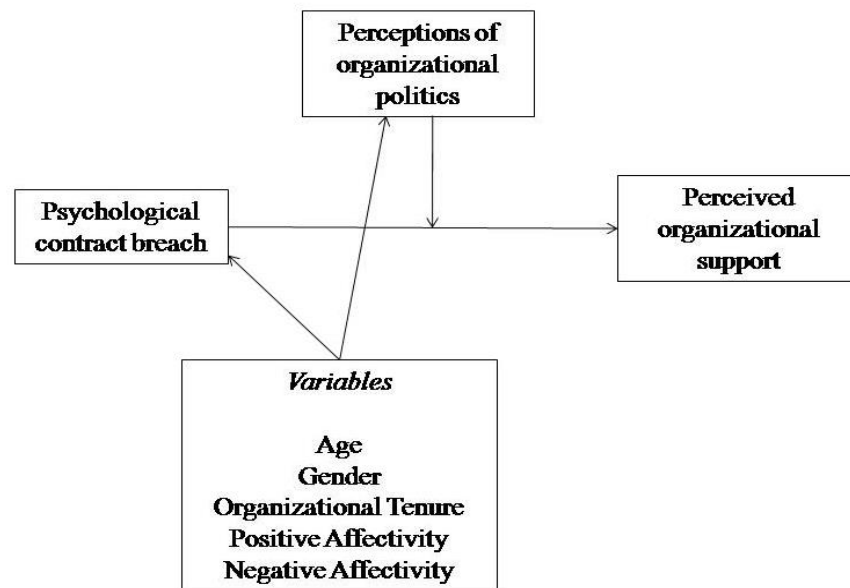
Source: Raja, U., Johns, G., & Ntalianis, F. (2004). The impact of personality on psychological contracts. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47(3), 350–367.

### 2.11.3 Model by Kiewitz, Restubog, Zagenczyk, and Hochwarter (2009)

The third model is a model by Kiewitz, Restubog, Zagenczyk, and Hochwarter (2009) that shows the correlation between positive affectivity and negative affectivity with the psychological contract as shown in Figure 2.3. This model has found that employees with high negative affectivity tend to develop a negative perception on the psychological contract whereas employees with positive affectivity tend to do the



opposite. Besides, this model validates that there is a correlation between positive affectivity and negative affectivity with the psychological contract that assists the formation of the research framework.



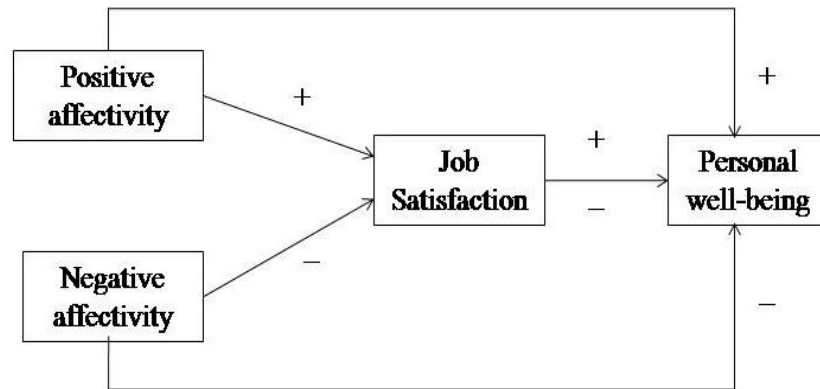
**Figure 2.3: Model of positive affectivity and negative affectivity with psychological contract**

Source: Kiewitz, C., Restubog, S. L. D., Zagenczyk, T., & Hochwarter, W. (2009). The interactive effects of psychological contract breach and organizational politics on perceived organizational support: Evidence from two longitudinal studies. *Journal of Management Studies*, 46(5), 806-834.

#### **2.11.4 Model by Zhai, Smyth, Nielsen, and Luan (2009)**

The fourth model (shown in Figure 2.4) is a model by Zhai, Smyth, Nielsen, and Luan (2009) which finds a significant relationship between positive affectivity and negative affectivity with job satisfaction. This model clarifies that positive affectivity is positively related to job satisfaction, while negative affectivity is negatively related to job satisfaction. Hence, this model helps in the formation of the research framework with a confirmed significant relationship between positive affectivity and negative affectivity with job satisfaction.



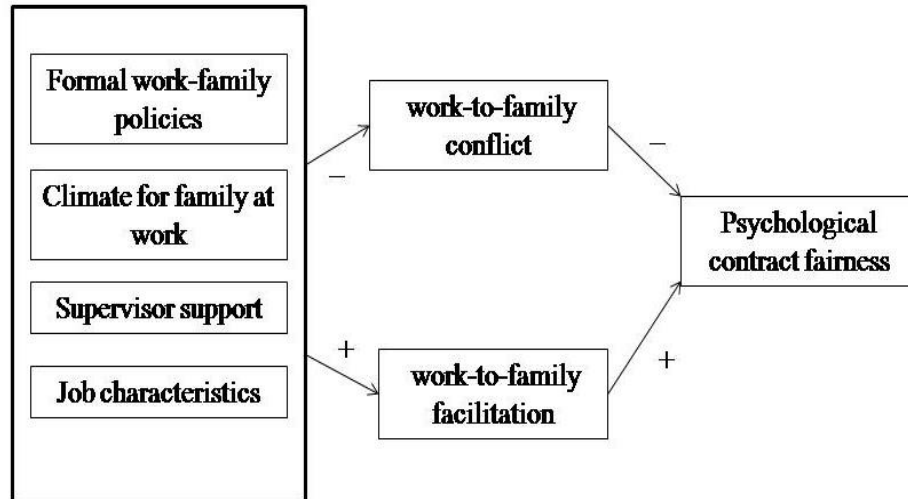


**Figure 2.4: Model of positive affectivity, negative affectivity and job satisfaction**

Source: Zhai, Q. G., Smyth, R., Nielsen, I., & Luan, X. Y. (2009). *The role of positive and negative affectivity on job satisfaction and life satisfaction*. International Conference on Management Science & Engineering (16<sup>th</sup>) in Moscow, Russia, 14-16 September 2009 (pp. 1185).

#### **2.11.5 Model by Taylor, DelCampo, and Blancero (2009)**

The fifth model is a model by Taylor, DelCampo, and Blancero (2009) that highlights the relationship between work-family factors with psychological contract (as shown in Figure 2.5). This model explains that work-family conflict and facilitation may affect the psychological contract fairness. Through this model, work-to-family conflict (work interference with family) is negatively related to the psychological contract fairness, while work-to-family facilitation is positively related to the psychological contract fairness. Hence, employees with more work-to-family conflicts are expected to have high negative perception on the psychological contract, and work-to-family facilitation induces the opposite. In addition, this model verifies the relationship between work-family factors with the work-family psychological contract and it helps in the formation of the research framework.

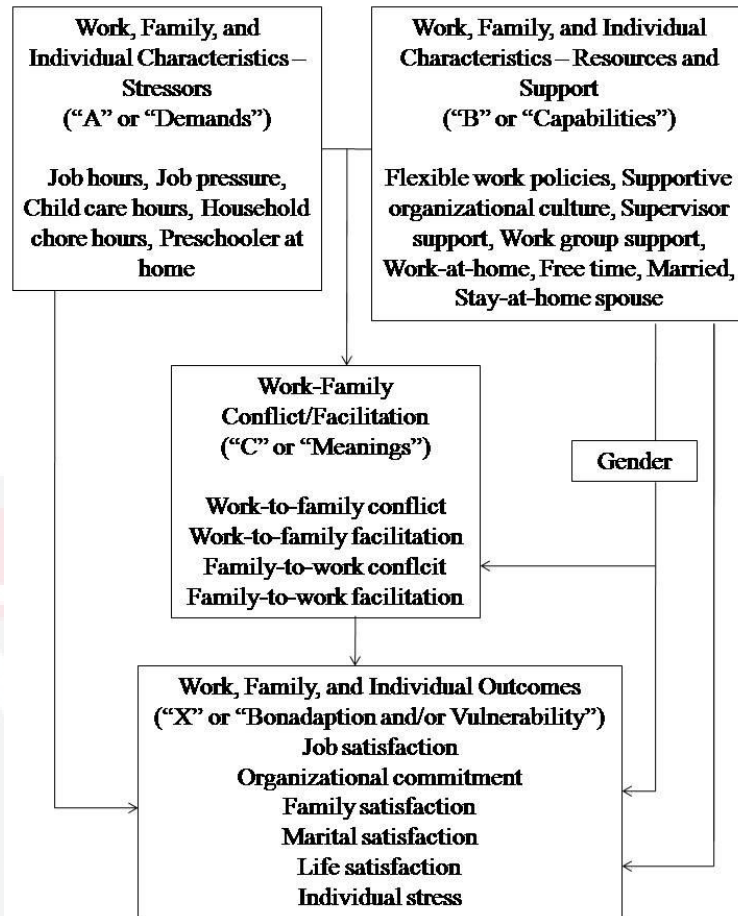


**Figure 2.5: Model of work-to-family conflict, work-to-family facilitation and psychological contract**

Source: Taylor, B. L., Delcampo, R. G., & Blancero, D. M. (2009). Work-family conflict/facilitation and the role of workplace supports for U.S. Hispanic professionals. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 30, pp. 645.

#### **2.11.6 Model by Hill (2005)**

The sixth model is a model proposed by Hill (2005) that explains about work-family conflict and that work-family facilitation has a relationship with job satisfaction as shown in Figure 2.6. Work-to-family conflict will decrease job satisfaction, while work-family facilitation will enhance job satisfaction. Stressors are viewed as resources that contribute to work-to-family conflict and give impact to the job satisfaction level. In contrast, support is pictured as resources that lead to high work-to-family facilitation and increase the job satisfaction level. This model assists in the development of the research framework by illustrate that work-family factors could affect the job satisfaction level.



**Figure 2.6: Model of work-family conflict, work-family facilitation and job satisfaction**

Source: Hill, E. J. (2005). Work-family facilitation and conflict, working fathers and mothers, work-family stressors and support. *Journal of Family Issues*, 26(6), pp. 796.

### 2.11.7 Conclusion of the Models

The models by Scandura and Lankau (1997); Raja, Johns, and Ntalianis (2004); Kiewitz, Restubog, Zagenczyk, and Hochwarter (2009); Zhai, Smyth, Nielsen, and Luan (2009); Taylor, DelCampo, and Blancero (2009); and Hill (2005) are the key models that provide the support for the theoretical basis of this study which is on the relationship between the antecedents (self-esteem, locus of control, positive affectivity, negative affectivity, work interference with family and work-to-family facilitation) with job satisfaction and work-family psychological contract as a mediator. Moreover, the perception on the psychological contract concerning work-family benefits as studied by Scandura and Lankau (1997) would be expanded by introducing the term of the work-family psychological contract as a mediator in the relationship between antecedents and job satisfaction. These models are the main references for the comprehension of the research framework in this research.

## CHAPTER 3

### METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the method used in this research. Methods and procedures used in this study are described under the following sub-headings: design of the study, research framework, research hypothesis, measurement and instruments, pre-test of instrument, reliability scale, sampling method, data collection, and data analysis.

#### 3.1 Research Design

The design of the study explains the methods or techniques used in this research to obtain the information needed. It is based on the questions and objectives of the study. The research design can provide guidance to the researcher in selecting the type of data and research resources to be used.

This study uses the correlation research design. Correlation research is a research which is designed to discover the direction and strength of the relationship among variables (Ary, Jacobs, & Sorensen, 2010). Correlation research design was used to measure two or more relationships between variables in the same group.

The research design for this study explains the relationship between personality and work-family factors against work-family psychological contracts and job satisfaction. Besides, this research is also designed to observe the effects of work-family psychological contracts as a mediator of the direct relationship between personality and work-family factors with job satisfaction. Quantitative method has been used in this study as it involves numerical and numbering data.

This research used the analysis of descriptive, multiple regression and structural equation modeling (SEM). There are six independent variables, one dependent variable and one mediator.

### 3.2 Research Framework

This framework is constructed based on previous research on the psychological contract and work-family issue. This framework is supported by the conservation of resources theory. The framework of this study is shown in Figure 3.1.

The framework of this study points out that personality factors and work-family factors affect job satisfaction directly and indirectly. Indirect effects explain the relationship between personality factors and work-family factors with job satisfaction through the work-family psychological contract as a mediator.

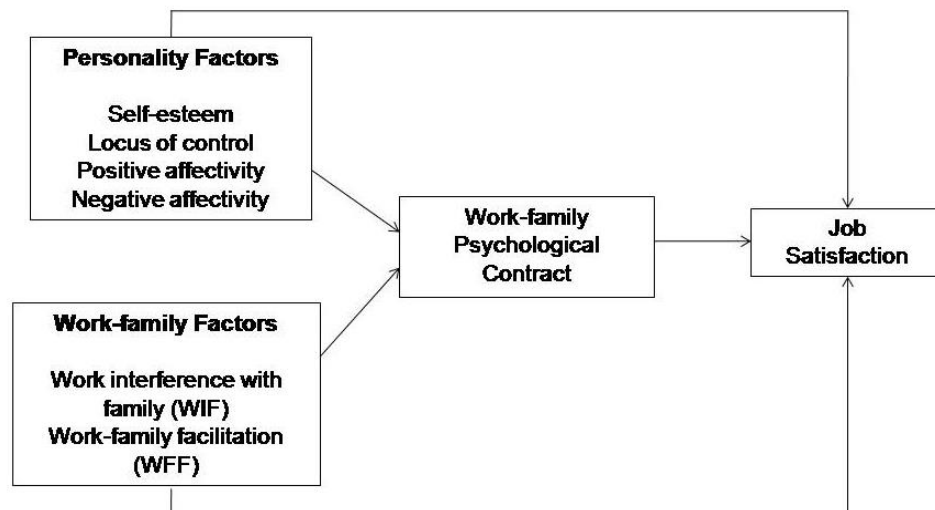


Figure 3.1: Research framework

### 3.3 Research Hypothesis

There are seven main hypotheses in this study. The hypotheses are as follows:

**Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction.**

Hypothesis 2a: There is a positive relationship between self-esteem and work-family psychological contract.

Hypothesis 2b: There is a positive relationship between self-esteem and job satisfaction.

**Hypothesis 2c: Work-family psychological contract mediates the relationship between self-esteem and job satisfaction.**

Hypothesis 3a: There is a positive relationship between the locus of control and work-family psychological contract.

Hypothesis 3b: There is a positive relationship between the locus of control and job satisfaction.

**Hypothesis 3c: Work-family psychological contract mediates the relationship between locus of control and job satisfaction.**

Hypothesis 4a: There is a positive relationship between positive affectivity and work-family psychological contract.

Hypothesis 4b: There is a positive relationship between positive affectivity and job satisfaction.

**Hypothesis 4c: Work-family psychological contract mediates the relationship between positive affectivity and job satisfaction.**

Hypothesis 5a: There is a negative relationship between negative affectivity and work-family psychological contract.

Hypothesis 5b: There is a negative relationship between negative affectivity and job satisfaction.

**Hypothesis 5c: Work-family psychological contract mediates the relationship between negative affectivity and job satisfaction.**

Hypothesis 6a: There is a negative relationship between work interference with family and the work-family psychological contract.

Hypothesis 6b: There is a negative relationship between work interference with family and job satisfaction.

**Hypothesis 6c: Work-family psychological contract mediates the relationship between work interference with family and job satisfaction.**

Hypothesis 7a: There is a positive relationship between work-family facilitation and work-family psychological contract.

Hypothesis 7b: There is a positive relationship between work-family facilitation and job satisfaction.

**Hypothesis 7c: Work-family psychological contract mediates the relationship between work-family facilitation and job satisfaction.**



### **3.4 Measurement and Instrument**

This study used questionnaires as a research instrument in collecting data from the respondents. This instrument was developed by researchers in different aspects and had been used in many studies with good validity. The researcher modified the instrument to suit the purpose of this study. The scale used to measure the study variables had been modified for standardization. The list of questions and statements developed through reviewing the literature was derived from a variety of approaches, selecting only the latest and widely used instruments.

All questions and statements used in the questionnaire were translated into Malay. In order to ensure that the meaning of the questions and statements would not lose originality, research advisors were asked to give comments. Based on the comments, questions and statements' translation was modified and approved. Advisor and committee members agreed that the statements used in the scale were appropriate to the Malaysian context.

#### **3.4.1 Job satisfaction**

Job satisfaction was measured using three items from the scale developed by Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh (1983). Response options, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5) were used. This scale measures employees' perception towards their job and organization. An example of item included in this scale is "All in all I am satisfied with my job". Coefficient alpha was not stated by the original developer. However, through various studies, coefficient alpha values ranged from .67 to .95 (Fields, 2002).

#### **3.4.2 Work-family psychological contract**

The work-family psychological contract was measured using a composite measure scale. This scale included eleven items similar to the scale used by Coyle-Shapiro and Conway (2005), which required participants to tick statements from a list regarding work-family assistance that they believed the organization had promised to provide. Hence, this scale measured employees' perception on the organizational promise and fulfillment of the promise regarding work-family accommodations. The scale was divided into two columns, column A and column B. Items in column A was to measure the extent of promises made by the organization about work-family facilities and items in column B was to measure the extent of which the promises are

fulfilled. Items in column B should be answered if only respondents respond to rating 3 or more in column A. Column A was scaled into five, 1 (no promise made) to 5 (verbal or have been practiced) and column B was scaled into 5, 1 (not fulfilled) to 5 (very well fulfilled). An example of item included in this scale was “Receive family-related phone calls while at work”. The reliability coefficient alpha of this scale is .91.

### **3.4.3 Self-esteem**

Self-esteem was measured using ten items from a scale developed by Rosenberg (1965). This scale measured employees’ perception of their own self-value whether they are of worth or failure. This measure required employees to indicate the extent to which they agree with the statements using the five-point response options ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). An example of item was “I feel that I have a number of good qualities”. The alpha coefficient of this measure is .84.

### **3.4.4 Locus of control**

The measurement of the locus of control was adapted from Paulhus (1983) consisting 30 items of the ‘Spheres of Control’ scale. This scale measured the element of control that influences an individual’s belief whether internally or externally. This scale was divided into three parts namely personal efficacy, interpersonal control and sociopolitical control, which contained 10 items for every part. Response options for every item were in accordance from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). High score reflected the internal locus of control, while low score reflected the external locus of control. Measurement of locus of control for this research only used 10 items of personal efficacy since 20 more items measured interpersonal control and sociopolitical control which were not appropriate for this study. This research focused on the locus of control of individuals against their job. An example item was “Once I make plans, I am almost certain to make them work”. This measure has a reliability coefficient of .80.

### **3.4.5 Positive affectivity and Negative affectivity**

Positive affectivity and negative affectivity was measured using twelve items, six items for each measurement, developed by Mroczek and Kolarz (1998). The scale measured the state of emotion experienced by an individual in his or her life. Employees were requested to indicate the extent to which they agree with the

statements using response options ranging from none of the time (1) to all of the time (5). Higher scores reflected higher levels of positive and negative affectivity. Sample items included “I’m feeling cheerful” and for negative affectivity it was “I’m so sad and nothing could cheer me up”. The reliability coefficient of this scale is .91 for positive affectivity scale and .87 for negative affectivity scale.

#### **3.4.6 Work interference with family**

Work interference with family (WIF) was measured using four items from the scale developed by Kopelman, Greenhaus, and Connolly (1983). Response options, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5) were used. This scale measured the degree to which one’s engagement at work interfered with one’s role for the family. An example of the item is “My work takes up time that I’d like to spend with family”. This measure has a reliability coefficient of .81.

#### **3.4.7 Work-family facilitation**

Measurement on the work-family facilitation was adopted from Greenhaus and Powell (2006). This scale measured the degree of one’s role at work facilitate one’s role in family. It contained seven-items using the five score scale, with the arrangement from 1(Strongly Disagree) to 5(Strongly Agree). An example item was “I have developed a skill in my job that is useful at home”. The alpha Coefficient as taken from Greenhaus and Powell (2006) is .78.

### **3.5 Pilot Test**

Pilot test is conducted to identify, if there is any ambiguity, the misconstruction and mistake in the instrument. Pilot test is intended to determine the reliability and validity of the instrument before the actual study is conducted. Through the pilot test, every weakness of the methodology and research instrument can be identified and corrected. Accordingly, it serves as a practice for the actual research. Pilot testing of the instrument had been conducted in two private companies in the Klang Valley. A total of 30 respondents were selected according to the criteria required.

Reliability refers to the consistency of a measure (Ary, Jacobs, & Sorensen, 2010). The items used to measure variables are considered reliable if it gives the same result

repeatedly. It means that the items of research instrument are consistent and stable. The result of a conducted pre-test is shown in Table 3.1.

**Table 3.1: Reliability coefficients of variable in pilot test**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>No. of items</b>	<b>Alpha cronbach (n = 30)</b>
Job satisfaction	3	.91
Work-family psychological contract	11	.81
Positive affectivity	6	.86
Negative affectivity	6	.85
Self-esteem	10	.84
Locus of control	10	.80
Work interference with family	4	.81
Work-family facilitation	7	.78

### **3.6 Reliability and Validity**

#### **3.6.1 Reliability**

After adequate sum of questionnaires is collected, researchers will test the reliability of the instruments. The purpose of measuring reliability is to look for the consistency of the instrument which is the scale of measuring the same attribute (Pallant, 2010). Nunnally (1978) suggests that minimum alpha cronbach of reliability is .70. For this research, the reliability of the instruments is achieved which the minimum alpha cronbach of reliability is .78.

#### **3.6.2 Validity**

The validity of a scale refers to the extent to which it measures what it sets out to measure (Pallant, 2010). For the purpose of this research, there were two types of validity used which were content validity and construct validity.

### 3.6.2.1 Content validity

Content validity refers to “the adequacy with which a measure or scale has sampled from the intended universe or domain of content” (Pallant, 2010, pp.7). In other words, content validity refers to the validity of the research instrument. Content validity is intended to ensure the wording of the question and the scales are appropriate to measure the concept (Ary, Jacobs, & Sorensen, 2010). For this research, content validity is intended to make sure that the items of measurement are clear and precise, and the items are translated correctly. In this study, the assurance of the content validity is obtained from the examination of all instruments by the committee members who are experts in the field of human resource development.

### 3.6.2.2 Construct validity

Construct validity is the extent of the measuring element to measure what should be measured (Ary, Jacobs, & Sorensen, 2010). There are two types of construct validity which are convergent validity and discriminant validity (Byrne, 2010).

Convergent validity refers to the degree to which measures of constructs share a common variance (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). Convergent validity has three types of tests such as average variance extracted (AVE), factor loading, and composite reliability. According to Hair et al. (2010), an AVE which is greater than .5 indicates high convergent validity.

AVE is calculated by using the following formula (Hair et al., 2010)

$$AVE = \frac{\sum \lambda^2}{n}$$

where  $n$  denotes number of items, and  $\lambda$  denotes factor loading.

Table 3.2 provides the AVE for the latent construct. In terms of average variance extracted, all eight latent constructs exceed the threshold value of .5.

**Table 3.2: Convergent validity**

Latent construct	Average variance extracted (AVE)
Job satisfaction	.583
Work-family psychological contract	.774
Self-esteem	.606
Locus of control	.702
Positive affectivity	.682
Negative affectivity	.516
Work interference with family	.542
Work-family facilitation	.512

Factor loading is examined to test the convergent validity. High factor loading (at least .5) indicates that the items are converging on the same point (Hair et al., 2010). The construct validity was satisfied in this study, in which all the items have a high standardized factor loading that ranged from .566 to .920 (Appendix B).

Composite reliability is also one of the indicators of convergent validity and with the estimation of .7 or higher, it is considered as good reliability (Hair et al., 2010). The composite reliability for each construct is calculated using the following formula.

$$\text{Composite Reliability} = \frac{(\sum \lambda)^2}{(\sum \lambda)^2 + (\sum \delta)}$$

Where  $\lambda$ ,  $\delta$ , are factor loading and error variance, respectively.

The construct validity was satisfied in this study, in which all the items have a high composite reliability that ranged from .757 to .911 (Table 3.3).

**Table 3.3: Construct reliability**

Latent construct	Construct reliability
Job satisfaction	.807
Work-family psychological contract	.911
Self-esteem	.824
Locus of control	.903
Positive affectivity	.865
Negative affectivity	.757
Work interference with family	.776
Work-family facilitation	.807



The other one that is included in construct validity is discriminant validity. Discriminant validity refers to the extent to which a construct that is supposed to be unrelated from other construct is exactly unrelated (Kline, 2005). Discriminant validity is tested by comparing the AVE for two constructs against the squared correlation between the two constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2006). If the AVE for the two factors exceed their squared correlation ( $r^2$ ), researcher can conclude that the constructs have sufficient discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2006). Table 3.4 shows the estimation of squared correlation for pairs of construct. Table 3.5 presents the correlations, the squared correlations and the average variance extracted. From Table 3.5, it is apparent that all constructs have sufficient discriminant validity since all the AVEs exceed the squared correlation among the construct.

**Table 3.4: Estimation of squared correlation**

Latent construct	Estimate ( $r$ )	Squared correlation ( $r^2$ )
Self-esteem ↔ Locus of control	.464	.215
Self-esteem ↔ Positive affectivity	.335	.112
Self-esteem ↔ Negative affectivity	-.448	.201
Self-esteem ↔ Work int. family	-.047	.002
Self-esteem ↔ Work-family facilitation	.334	.112
Self-esteem ↔ WFPC	.632	.399
Self-esteem ↔ JS	.567	.321
Locus of control ↔ Positive affectivity	.330	.109
Locus of control ↔ Negative affectivity	-.214	.046
Locus of control ↔ Work int. family	-.328	.108
Locus of control ↔ Work-family facilitation	.268	.072
Locus of control ↔ WFPC	.544	.296
Locus of control ↔ JS	.536	.287
Positive affectivity ↔ Negative affectivity	-.051	.003
Positive affectivity ↔ Work int. family	-.090	.008
Positive affectivity ↔ Work-family facilitation	.217	.047
Positive affectivity ↔ WFPC	.239	.057
Positive affectivity ↔ JS	.421	.177
Negative affectivity ↔ Work int. family	.117	.014
Negative affectivity ↔ Work-family facilitation	-.239	.057
Negative affectivity ↔ WFPC	-.416	.173
Negative affectivity ↔ JS	-.246	.061
Work int. family ↔ Work-family facilitation	-.032	.001
Work int. family ↔ WFPC	-.181	.033
Work int. family ↔ JS	-.242	.059
Work-family facilitation ↔ WFPC	.244	.060
Work-family facilitation ↔ JS	.404	.163
WFPC ↔ JS	.549	.301

**Table 3.5: Discriminant validity**

Latent construct	SE	LOC	PA	NA	WIF	WFF	WFPC	JS
Self-esteem (SE)	<b>(.606)</b>	.215	.112	.201	.002	.112	.399	.321
Locus of control (LOC)	.464	<b>(.702)</b>	.109	.046	.108	.072	.296	.287
Positive aff (PA)	.335	.330	<b>(.682)</b>	.003	.008	.047	.057	.177
Negative aff (NA)	-.448	-.214	-.051	<b>(.516)</b>	.014	.057	.173	.061
Work interfere family (WIF)	-.047	-.328	-.090	.117	<b>(.542)</b>	.001	.033	.059
WF facilitation (WFF)	.334	.268	.217	-.239	-.032	<b>(.512)</b>	.060	.163
WF psycho contract (WFPC)	.632	.544	.239	-.416	-.181	.244	<b>(.774)</b>	.301
Job Satisfaction (JS)	.567	.536	.421	-.246	-.242	.404	.549	<b>(.583)</b>

Note: Correlations are below the diagonal, squared correlations are above the diagonal, and AVE estimates are presented on the diagonal in parenthesis

### 3.7 Sample Size

This study used the probability sampling technique to obtain the sample. This technique was used because samples were selected from identified populations that were required for this research. Accordingly, the target population of this research was from private organizations of utility services in Klang Valley, Malaysia.

The total number of samples that were involved as respondents in this research was 230 people. Sample size is determined using the formula by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) and G-Power. From the Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) formula, the sum of the respondent that was needed for this research was at least 106 or more people. This formula was based on the number of independent variables that was studied.

The Tabachnick and Fidell formula (2001) (pp. 117)

$N \geq 50 + 8m$  ( $m$  is refer to the number of Independent Variable)

$N \geq 50 + 8(7)$

$N \geq 50 + 56$

$N \geq 106$

This study used G-Power software at a statistical significance of .05 and statistical power of rejecting the null hypothesis at .95 for testing a model consisting of six independent variables. The estimated sample size based on G-Power software is 146. As this study used the structural equation modeling (SEM) to analyze the data, the sample size of 200-300 is required in order for the results to be interpreted with acceptable degree of confidence (Hair et al., 2010). According to Hoe (2008) to use the SEM, the required sample size is at least 200. SEM is used because of sophistication of analysis.

Taking all into considerations, questionnaires were given to 300 respondents. However, the return rate of questionnaires was 76.7% (230). As suggested by Ary et al. (2006), at least 75% return rate of the questionnaire is considered sufficient to conduct the SEM analysis. Kline (2005) has also suggested that the sample size more than 200 is considered large.

### 3.8 Population and Sampling

A sample of 200 to 300 people is needed so that it is sufficient to analyze the data using the SEM technique (Ullman, 1996). Hoe (2008) suggested that any number above 200 is understood to provide sufficient statistical power for data analysis for SEM. In this study, data gathered from 230 participants should be sufficient for the use of SEM. The criteria of respondent included all marital status group (single, married, divorced, and widow/widower) because married or non-married employees experience problems related to work-family interface (Karatepe & Sokmen, 2006). Same goes to family size, it is not included in this study because employees still have obligations towards their family either they have children or no children (Karatepe & Sokmen, 2006). The target population for this research included employees working in private organizations which are involved with utility services in the Klang Valley. For that purpose, the researcher obtained the list of the organizations from Companies Commission of Malaysia (*Suruhanjaya Syarikat Malaysia*) (Appendix E). The utility service companies consist of four main sectors such as electricity, natural gas, water and sewage, and telephone services were selected. The selection of organizations was based on simple random sampling, whereby researcher selects a ten percent of the total number of organization to represent each sector in utility

service organizations. According to Sowell and Casey (1982) ten percent of a population is a number that can be managed in a study. Therefore, from two companies of electricity sector, one organization were selected; one organization were selected out of five water and sewage service organizations; one organization out of two organizations of natural gas sector; and one from nine organizations involved in telephone services.

Then, in each organization based on cluster sampling, the two groups of participants, executives and professionals were selected. This group was selected because executives and professionals were reported to experience greater difficulty to manage work and family compared to other job categories (Schieman & Glavin, 2011). Questionnaires were distributed to the participants after the samples were determined.

### **3.9 Data Collection**

Data were collected using a self-administrated questionnaire that consists of two languages, namely English and Malay.

Prior to data gathering, researcher was negotiated with human resources department of each company for the permission to carry out a survey. After that, official letter was sent to the head of human resource department of each selected utility service organizations. All organizations that have been selected agreed to participate. After obtaining the permission the drop and collect method was employed.

To determine executives and professionals from each organization, researcher got the help from the representative of human resource department in each selected companies. The respondents were given two to four weeks to complete the questionnaire. Though, repeated follow up after the fourth weeks were employed to get 230 questionnaires returned. The return rate of questionnaire was 76.7% from four selected organizations (refer Table 3.6) which is considered sufficient to conduct statistical analysis (Ary et al., 2010).

**Table 3.6: Distribution of questionnaire and return rates**

Organizations	Number of questionnaires	Return rate	Percentage (%)
A	85	65	76.47%
B	45	34	75.56%
C	85	66	77.65%
D	85	65	76.47%
Total	300	230	76.67%

### 3.10 Normality

To check the normality and the outliers of data, all data were screened using the estimation of skewness and kurtosis, and the estimation of the Mahalanobis Distance. Data are considered to be normal when the skewness statistics is between -2 to +2 and the kurtosis statistics is between -7 to +7 (Byrne, 2010). In this study, the data are considered normal as the skewness of all data does not exceed  $\pm 2$  and the kurtosis is in between  $\pm 7$  (Appendix C).

When the d-square is divided by the degree of freedom, the value must exceed 3 or 4 in large samples to be considered as the checking for possible outlier (Byrne, 2010; Hair et. al., 2010).

### 3.11 Data Analysis

There are two types of analyses involved in this research namely the descriptive analysis and inferential analysis. The descriptive analysis includes the analysis of mean, standard deviations, frequency, percentage and reliability coefficients. The frequency and percentage of the demographic data was analyzed using SPSS version 19. The consistency of the questionnaire is estimated by calculating the alpha cronbach for each scale. Then, the structural equation model (SEM) analysis was used in the mediation studies to test the direct and mediated relationship among variables.

### 3.11.1 Descriptive Analysis

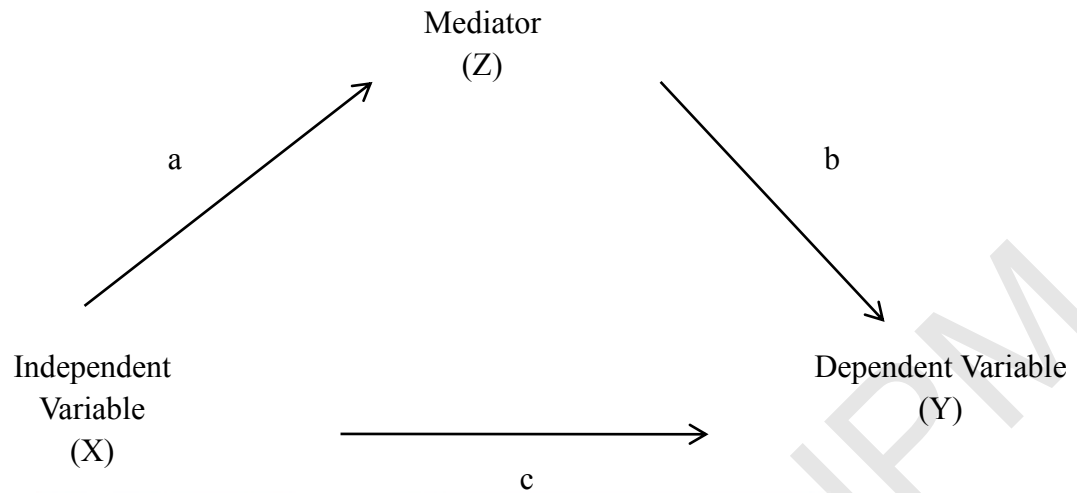
The data of each respondent were keyed into the SPSS after adequate data were collected. Codes were allocated for each respondent before continuing with the data analysis. For respondents' details or demographic data, each item was coded with a specific code. Demographic data consist of two parts, namely personal details and employment details. In the personal details section, there is information pertaining gender, religion, age, highest level of education and marital status, while in the employment details section, there is information about the job level, gross income, number of working days, work shift, and number of years of service with the company. The gender of respondents was coded as (1) for male and (2) for female. Then, religion is categorized as (1) Islam, (2) Buddha, (3) Christianity, (4) Hindu, and (5) Other. For respondents' age, there are four categories which are (1) less than 30 years old, (2) 31 – 40 years old, (3) 41 – 50 years old, (4) more than 50 years old. Next, the highest level of education of respondents is sorted to (1) MCE/SPM, (2) Certificate, (3) Degree, (4) Master's Degree, and (5) Other. Respondents' marital status is grouped into four groups which are (1) Single, (2) Married, (3) Divorced, and (4) Widow/Widower. The job level of respondents is categorized as (1) Manager, (2) Executive, (3) Officer/Supervisor, (4) Support Staff, and (5) Other. After that, the gross income per month is labeled as (1) RM 3000 and below, (2) 3001-5000, (3) 5001-7000, (4) 7001-9000, (5) 9001-11000, and (6) more than 11000. The work shift of respondents is grouped as (1) Office hour and (2) Work shift.

Then, the SPSS program was used to calculate the frequency and percentage of the raw data.

### 3.11.2 Mediation Analysis

In determining the effect of work-family psychological contract as a mediator of the relationship between antecedent and job satisfaction, the regression analysis as suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) was used. Regression analysis as part of the inferential analysis was used to determine the role of the work-family psychological contract as a mediator of the relationship between personality factors, work-family factors and job satisfaction. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), mediation is a relationship between the antecedent and the chain of causality, in which one variable affects the second variable and thus giving effect to the third variable. Baron and Kenny (1986) introduce the approach of regression as presented in Figure 3.2. Based on the Figure 3.2, Z is the mediator of the relationship between the predictor of X (independent variables) and the results of Y (dependent variable). The relationship between X and Y, labeled as 'c', is a direct effect, while the relationship between X and Y through Z are called indirect effects. This shows that Z acts as a mediator for the relationship between X and Y.



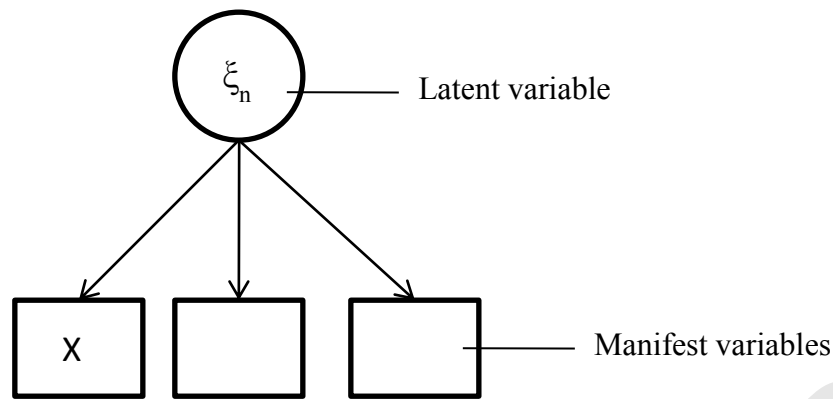


**Figure 3.2: Mediation concept by Baron and Kenny (1986)**

According to Baron and Kenny (1986), there are four steps to complete the regression analysis. The first step is regressing the dependent variable (Y) on the independent variable (X). The second step regresses the mediator (Z) on the independent variable (X). Third step regresses the dependent variable (Y) on the mediator (Z). The last step is, to do a multiple regression analysis of the dependent variable (Y) on both the independent variable (X) and mediator (Z). There are four conditions for establishing mediation. The first condition is when the independent variable has a significant effect on the dependent variable (labeled as c). Secondly, the independent variable has a significant effect on the mediator (labeled as a). The third condition when the mediator has a significant effect on the dependent variable (labeled as b). The fourth condition is when the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable reduces because of the addition of the mediator in the model. If the independent variable does not affect the dependent variable when the dependent variable is being regressed on both the independent variable and the mediator, then full mediation is established. In another condition, if the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable shrinks (but is still significant) because of the addition of the mediator, then partial mediation is established.

### 3.11.3 Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)

The structural equation modeling (SEM) enables researchers to test a set of regression equations simultaneously. SEM models consist of two types of variables – latent variable and manifest variable, as shown in Figure 3.3. Latent variable as known as an unobserved variable is not measured directly in a study, but is measured indirectly by one or more indicators. Manifest variables are the observed variables for the specific item from the questionnaire. According to Hair et al. (2010), manifest variable is used to measure the latent variable.



**Figure 3.3: Latent variable and manifest variables in SEM**

In this study, the variables of self-esteem, the locus of control, positive affectivity and negative affectivity are latent exogenous variables while the work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction are latent endogenous variables. There are two main components in the SEM which are the structural model and measurement model. The structural model is intended to explain the potential causal dependencies between endogenous and exogenous variables, while the measurement model is to show the relations between latent variables with indicators. The measurement model involves the test of model fit and after the fit is acceptable, this will be continued with the structural model. These two stages of analysis are conducted to answer the objectives of the study. The confirmatory factor analysis model is a part of the measurement model which works to figure out the best fit model, while path diagrams are viewed as part of the structural model.

#### **3.11.4 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)**

In the measurement model, the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is carried out to assess the model fit. According to Kline (2005), the confirmatory factor analysis is intended to test the validity of the instrument, to assess the model fit, to test for the multivariate normality and to check for outliers.

The CFA was carried out to determine the degree of the model fit. For each item of latent variables that has a factor loading less than .50, it was deleted (Hair et al., 2010). A satisfactory model fit must be achieved before continuing to test the model as a whole (Mulaik & James, 1995).

In the SEM, there are different ways to assess the model fit. Measurements that are commonly used to assess model fit included the chi-squared ( $\chi^2$ ), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), goodness-of-fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness-

of-fit index (AGFI), normed fit index (NFI), increment fit index (IFI), Tucker-Lewis coefficient index (TLI), and comparative fit index (CFI).

The relative chi-square (chi-squared value divided by the degree of freedom) less than the value of 5 considered the model fit to be reasonable (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004) and the value close to two indicates a good fit (Ullman, 2001). A model of fit is considered acceptable if the RMSEA coefficient is .08 (Browne & Cudeck, 1993) and preferably of .05 (Steiger, 1990). For the GFI, IFI, TLI and CFI, the coefficient value of .90 are indicated as an acceptable model fit (Byrne, 2010). For the PGFI, the coefficient value within .50 or above is suggested to be a good model fit (Mulaik et al., 1989). According to Garson (2012), if three to four indices meet the requirements, it is sufficient to declare a good model fit.



## CHAPTER 4

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study is to examine the influence of personality factors (self-esteem, locus of control, positive affectivity, and negative affectivity) and work-family factors (work interference with family, work-family facilitation) on job satisfaction with the mediating role of the work-family psychological contract among professionals and executives of utility service organizations in the Klang Valley.

This chapter presents and discusses the results of this study in order to answer the objective of this research. The discussion includes 1) demographic data of respondents, 2) descriptive statistics, 3) the structural model, 4) goodness-of-fit indices, 5) the test of mediation effect, 6) the mediating effects of work-family psychological contract, and 7) the overall hypotheses of the results.

#### 4.1 Demographic Profile of Respondents

The demographic profiles of the respondents that include gender, religion, age, educational level, marital status, job level, income and length of service are given in Table 4.1. From the data, it shows that 56.1% (129) of the respondent were male and 43.9 % (101) were female. About 79.1% (182) of the respondents were of the religions of Islam, 8.7% (20) Hindu, 7.0% (16) Buddha and 5.2% (12) Christianity. These indicate that the majority of the respondents who are involved are Muslims.

Results show that 57.4% (132) of the respondents are below than, or aged, 30 years old, 25.7% (59) between 31 to 40 years old, 11.7% (27) between 41 to 50 years old, and 5.2% (12) of the respondents fell in the group of more than, or aged 51 years old. This implies that the participants of this research are among the younger employees in the organizations.

In terms of their educational level, there were about 91.7% (211) of the respondents with a degree, 8.3% (19) master's degree, and no employees with MCE/SPM and certificate had participated in this research. As the target groups of this research were at the executive and professional level, hence it explained why there were no respondents with MCE/SPM and certificate participated.

The results also indicate that 50.9% (117) of the respondents were single, 46.1% (106) were married, and 3.0% (7) were divorced. The result shows that most of the respondents were among single and married employees.

Concerning their job level, there were about 85.7% (197) of the respondents working as executive, 14.3% (33) manager, and no employees from the group of officer/supervisor and support staff participated in this research. Hence, it matches the required group of the research.

Table 4.1 also indicates that the majority of respondents have a monthly income of less than, or equal to, RM 3,000 (51.3%), followed by RM 3,001 to RM 5,000 with 25.7% of respondents, next is RM 5,001 to RM 7,000 with 10.9% of respondents, then RM 7,001 to RM 9,000 with 3.5%, RM 9,001 to RM 11,000 with 4.8%, and more than or equal to RM 11,001 with 3.9%. This indicates that the majority of respondents are within the range of less than or equal to RM 3,000. Based on Table 4.1, the length of service that has the highest percentage is 5 years and below where 59.1% (136), followed by 6 to 10 years where 27.4% (63), 11 to 15 years 3.5%, and more than or equal to 16 is 10% (23) of the respondents. Research by Noor (2003) has found that the length of service for each employee has a negative relation with job satisfaction.

**Table 4.1: Demographic data of respondents**

	Mean	S. D.	Frequency	Percentage
<b>Gender</b>				
Male			129	56.1
Female			101	43.9
<b>Religion</b>				
Islam			182	79.1
Buddha			16	7.0
Christianity			12	5.2
Hindu			20	8.7
<b>Age (years)</b>	32.1	8.8		
≤ 30			132	57.4
31 - 40			59	25.7
41 - 50			27	11.7
≥ 51			12	5.2
<b>Education level</b>				
MCE / SPM			0	0.0
Certificate			0	0.0
Degree			211	91.7
Master's Degree			19	8.3

<b>Marital status</b>		
Single	117	50.9
Married	106	46.1
Divorced	7	3.0
Widow/widower	0	0.0
<b>Job level</b>		
Manager	33	14.3
Executive	197	85.7
Officer/supervisor	0	0.0
Support staff	0	0.0
<b>Gross income (RM)</b>	4673.9	4871.9
<b>(month)</b>		
≤ 3000	118	51.3
3001 - 5000	59	25.7
5001 - 7000	25	10.9
7001 - 9000	8	3.5
9001 - 11000	11	4.8
≥ 11001	9	3.9
<b>Length of service</b>	6.7	6.8
<b>(years)</b>		
≤ 5	136	59.1
6 – 10	63	27.4
11 – 15	8	3.5
16 – 20	8	3.5
≥ 21	15	6.5

## 4.2 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Descriptive statistics includes mean, standard deviation and zero-order correlations of the study variables as presented in Table 4.2. The results of the correlation analysis show that employees who score high in self-esteem ( $r = .63, p < .001$ ); locus of control ( $r = .54, p < .001$ ); positive affectivity ( $r = .24, p < .001$ ); work-family facilitation ( $r = .24, p < .001$ ); and score low in negative affectivity ( $r = -.42, p < .001$ ); work interference with family ( $r = -.18, p < .01$ ); are reported to have high work-family psychological contract. Employees who scored as having high self-esteem ( $r = .57, p < .001$ ); locus of control ( $r = .54, p < .001$ ); positive affectivity ( $r = .42, p < .001$ ); work-family facilitation ( $r = .40, p < .001$ ); and scored low in negative affectivity ( $r = -.25, p < .001$ ); work interference with family ( $r = -.24, p < .01$ ); are reported to possess high level of job satisfaction.



In addition, the assessment of the correlation matrix shows that there is no multicollinearity. The correlation estimation of the variables in this study is not more than .90. Hair et al. (2006) suggest that the correlation between constructs more than .90 demonstrates the problem of multicollinearity.



**Table 4.2: Descriptive statistics and correlations**

Variables	Mean	S.D.	SE	LOC	PA	NA	WIF	WFF	WFPC	JS
SE	2.97	0.48	1							
LOC	2.96	0.49	.46***	1						
PA	2.56	0.50	.34***	.33***	1					
NA	2.60	0.40	-.45***	-.21**	-.05	1				
WIF	2.26	0.44	-.05	-.33***	-.09	.12	1			
WFF	2.85	0.36	.33***	.27***	.22**	-.24***	-.03	1		
WFPC	2.23	0.42	.63***	.54***	.24***	-.42***	-.18**	.24***	1	
JS	2.74	0.44	.57***	.54***	.42***	-.25***	-.24**	.40***	.55***	1

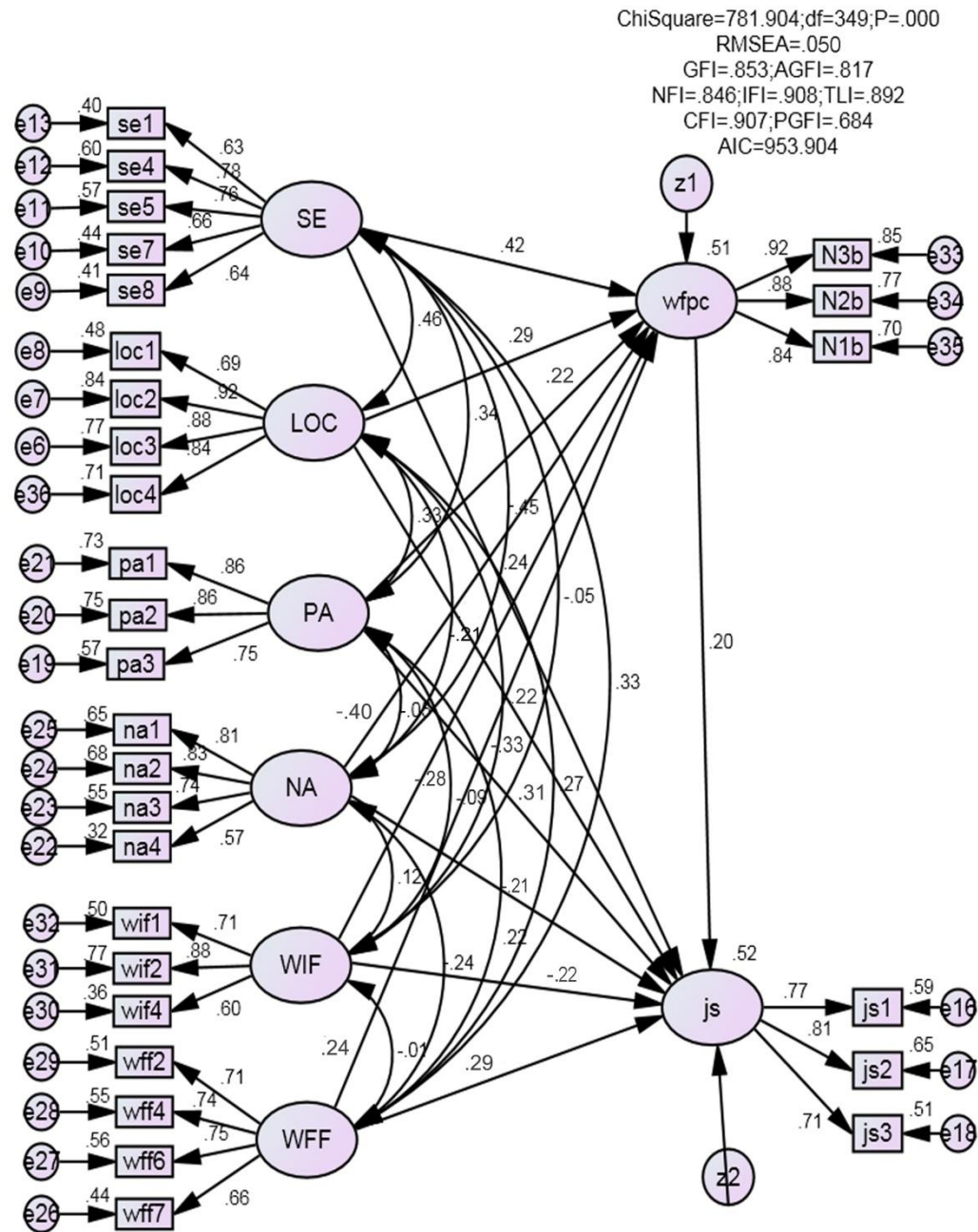
Note: \*\*\* $p < .001$ , \*\* $p < .01$ ; SE = Self-esteem; LOC = Locus of control; PA = Positive Affectivity; NA = Negative Affectivity; WIF = Work interference with family; WFF = Work-family facilitation; WFPC = Work-family psychological contract; JS = Job satisfaction

### 4.3 Structural Model

A structural model is aimed at examining the relationships linking the latent constructs and is used to test whether the relationships are affected directly or indirectly (Hair et al., 2010). The Structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis is used to test research hypotheses because it allows all of the variables in the model to simultaneously test the hypotheses. The SEM can be used to examine the path among the variables besides providing the goodness-of-fit indices.

The casual path can be evaluated in terms of the statistical significance and strength using the standardized path coefficient that ranges between -1 to +1. Based on  $\alpha$  of .05, the test statistics generated from the output should be greater than  $\pm 1.96$  to indicate that the null hypotheses can be rejected. The rejection of the null hypotheses means that the structural coefficient is not zero (Hoe, 2008). In order to be considered meaningful for discussion, standardized paths should be at least .20 (Chin, 1998).

The three structural models comprising of the partial mediation model, direct model and indirect model are presented in Figures 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3 respectively.



**Figure 4.1: Partial mediation model**

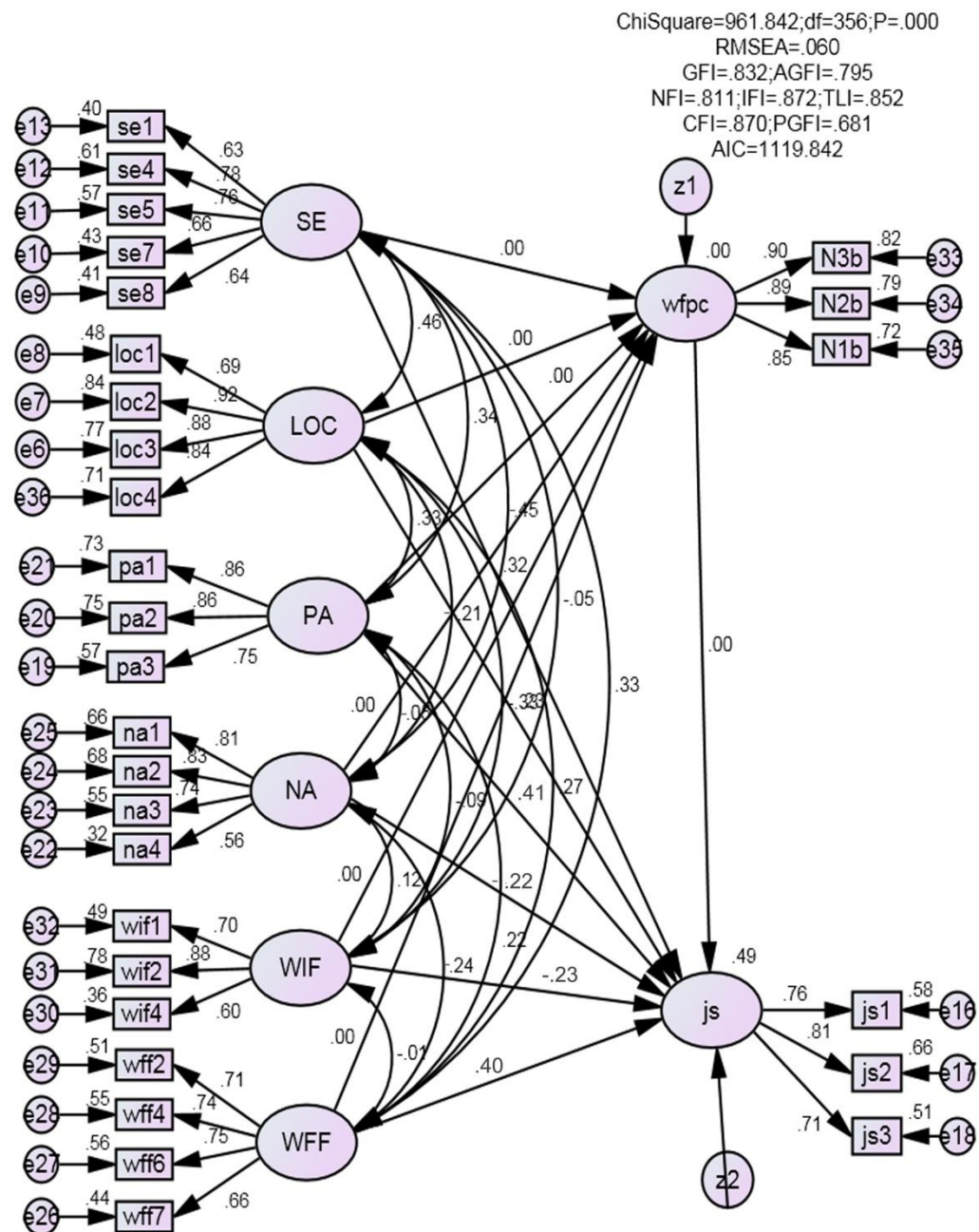


Figure 4.2: Direct model

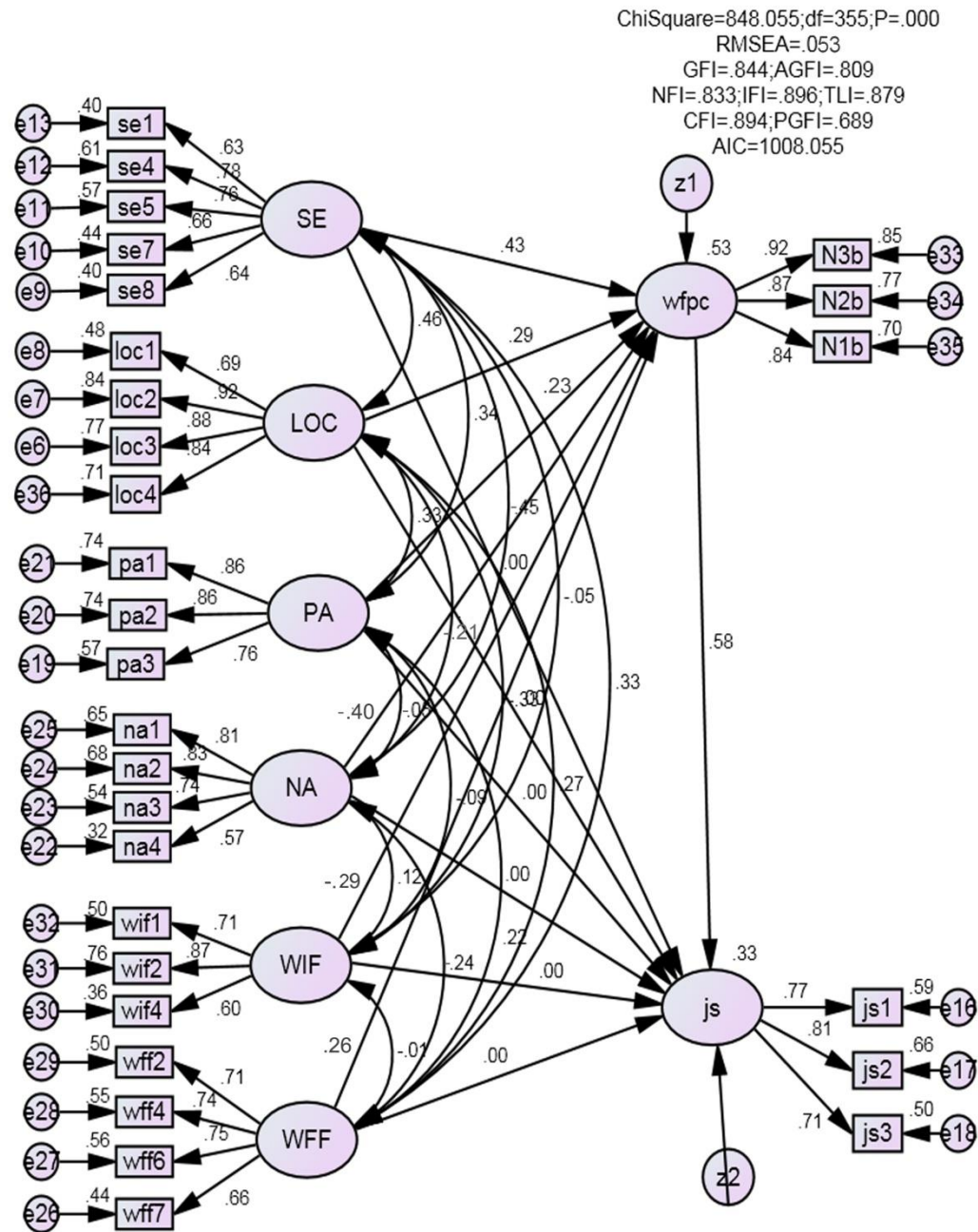


Figure 4.3: Indirect model



#### 4.4 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

There are eight indices that were used to determine the model fit. The first is the chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ). A lower  $\chi^2$  value indicates a better model fit. Secondly, the Chi/df index ( $\chi^2/\text{df}$ ).  $\chi^2/\text{df}$  is a useful index for assessing the model fit rather than using the chi-square alone (Marsh & Hau, 1996). The model with  $\chi^2/\text{df}$  less than 5.0 is considered fit, and  $\chi^2/\text{df}$  close to 2.0 indicates a good fit. The third is the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). The RMSEA value within the range of .01 to .08 is suggested to be a model fit (Kline, 2010). The fourth is the goodness of fit index (GFI). The fifth is the incremental fit index (IFI). The sixth is the Tucker-Lewis coefficient index (TLI). Next is the comparative fit index (CFI). According to Byrne (2009), the coefficient value of the GFI, IFI, TLI, and CFI close to, or greater than, .90 generally indicates an acceptable model fit. Then, there is the parsimony goodness-of-fit index (PGFI). The coefficient value of the PGFI greater than .50 is suggested as also another acceptable model fit.

The fit indices for the direct model, indirect model, and partial mediation model are presented in Table 4.3. As illustrated in Table 4.3, structural models generally indicate acceptable model fit. In order to determine the best model for the study, the partial mediation model shows a better fit compared to both the direct model and indirect model.

**Table 4.3: Confirmatory factor analysis indices**

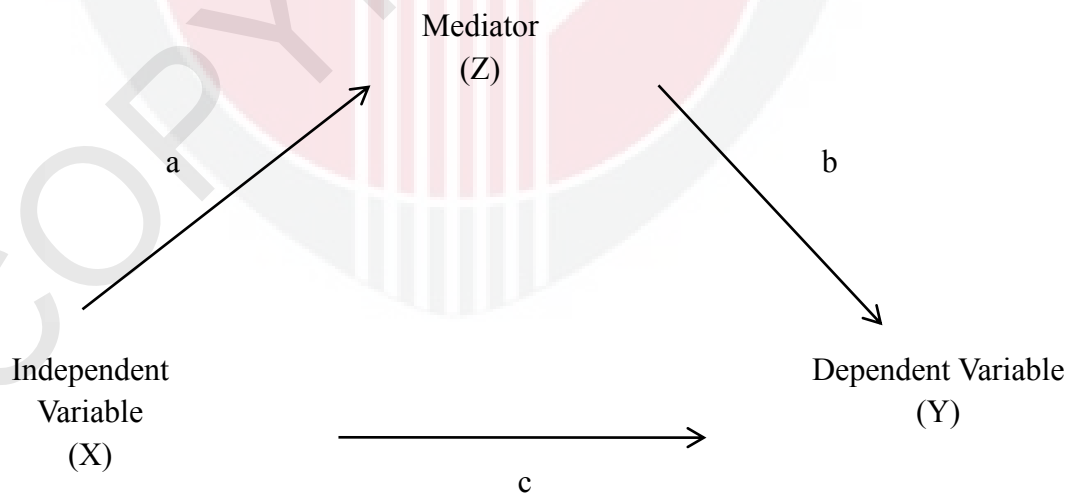
Model	$\chi^2$	$\chi^2/\text{df}$	RMSEA	GFI	IFI	TLI	CFI	PGFI
Partial Mediation	781.904	2.240	.050	.853	.908	.892	.907	.684
Indirect	848.055	2.389	.053	.844	.896	.879	.894	.689
Direct	961.842	2.702	.060	.832	.872	.852	.870	.681

#### 4.5 Test of Mediation Effect

Mediation involves the comparison of the direct effect between two constructs and indirect effect through a third construct. Full mediation is found when the direct effect becomes non-significant in the presence of the indirect effect, whereas partial mediation occurs when the direct effects are reduced, although they are still significant. According

to Baron and Kenny (1986), there are four conditions for establishing mediation. The first condition is that the independent variable has a significant effect on the dependent variable (labelled as  $c$  in Figure 4.4). Secondly, the independent variable has a significant effect on the mediator (labelled as  $a$  in Figure 4.4). The third condition is that the mediator has a significant effect on the dependent variable (labelled as  $b$  in Figure 4.4). The fourth condition is that the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable is reduced because of the addition of the mediator in the model.

Direct effect and indirect effect are being examined to understand the existence of the mediating effects in a structural model. Hair et al. (2010) state that the mediation effect occurs when the third construct intervenes between two other related constructs. Direct effects are relationships linking two constructs with a single arrow. Indirect effects are those relationships that involve a sequence of relationship with at least one intervening construct involved (Hair et al., 2010). The indirect effect represents the mediating effect of a mediator on the relationship between  $X$  and  $Y$ . The test of a mediation effect can be done by using the multi-model analysis through the structural equation modeling. As shown in Figure 4.4, the indirect effect ( $X \rightarrow Z \rightarrow Y$ ) represents the mediating effect of a mediator on the relationship between  $X$  and  $Y$ . The mediation requires significant correlations among all three constructs. According to Hair et al. (2010), if  $c$  is reduced but remains significant when a mediator is included, then the partial mediation is supported. If  $c$  is reduced to a point where it is not significant after a mediator is included, then full mediation is supported.



**Figure 4.4: Direct and indirect**

## 4.6 Mediating Effects of the Work-Family Psychological Contract

The regression weights of the partial mediation, indirect and direct models are presented in the following discussion. This section will present the results of the mediating effect of the work-family psychological contract in the relationships between independent variables and dependent variable. The discussion will respond to the research hypotheses.

### 4.6.1 Relationship between work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction.

As shown in Figure 4.1 and Table 4.4, the significant relationship between the work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction ( $\beta = .204$ ,  $p = .011$ ) indicates that employees who have the belief towards their organization in assisting them with work-family benefits at the workplace tend to experience greater job satisfaction. This study has produced results which corroborate with the findings of previous work (e.g., Jones & McKenna, 2002; Lo & Aryee, 2003; Gakovic & Tetrick, 2003; Guest & Conway, 2004; Suazo, 2009; Bukhari, Saeed, & Nisar, 2011) whereby individuals who reported higher intensities of the work-family psychological contract tended to experience higher level of job satisfaction. Hence, Hypothesis 1 is supported.

**Table 4.4: Estimation of coefficients for the partial mediation model**

	Path	$\beta$	$p$
wfpc	<--- SE	.422	***
wfpc	<--- LOC	.289	***
wfpc	<--- PA	.217	***
wfpc	<--- NA	-.403	***
wfpc	<--- WIF	-.276	.008
wfpc	<--- WFF	.242	***
JS	<--- wfpc	.204	.011
JS	<--- SE	.239	.007
JS	<--- LOC	.216	.020
JS	<--- PA	.312	***
JS	<--- NA	-.213	.009
JS	<--- WIF	-.215	.012
JS	<--- WFF	.292	***

#### **4.6.2 Mediating effect of work-family psychological contract in the relationship between self-esteem and job satisfaction**

Hypothesis 2a: There is a positive direct relationship between self-esteem and the work-family psychological contract.

The results, as shown in Figure 4.1 and Table 4.5 indicate that the relationship between self-esteem and the work-family psychological contract was significant ( $\beta = .422, p < .001$ ). Hence, providing support for Hypothesis 2a. Such findings extend the previous research by Raja, Johns, and Ntalianis (2004) which find a significant positive relationship between self-esteem and work-family psychological contract.

Hypothesis 2b: There is a positive relationship between self-esteem and job satisfaction.

The results, as shown in Figure 4.2 and Table 4.5 indicate that the relationship between self-esteem and job satisfaction is significant ( $\beta = .325, p < .001$ ). The significant relationship between self-esteem and job satisfaction is in agreement to the results reported by Raja, Johns, and Ntalianis (2004) and Gardner and Pierce (2013) whereby individuals who report higher level of self-esteem tend to experience higher level of job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2c: Work-family psychological contract mediates the relationship between self-esteem and job satisfaction.

Table 4.5 illustrates the results of the mediation test which have tested whether the relationship between self-esteem and job satisfaction is mediated by the work-family psychological contract. The effect of self-esteem on job satisfaction is significant ( $\beta = .325, p < .001$ ). Similarly, the effect of self-esteem on the work-family psychological contract ( $\beta = .422, p < .001$ ) is also significant. The relationship between work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction is also statistically significant ( $\beta = .204, p = .011$ ).

The effect of self-esteem on job satisfaction reduces upon the addition of the work-family psychological contract (the mediator) to the model ( $\beta = .239, p = .007$ ) and this is consistent with mediation. Since the self-esteem does affect the job satisfaction upon regressing the job satisfaction on both self-esteem and work-family psychological contract, therefore partial mediation is established. Hence, the results support Hypothesis 2c.

With regards to the mediating effect of the work-family psychological contract on the relationship between self-esteem and job satisfaction, the results show that employees with high self-esteem tend to experience positive work-family psychological contract and this would in turn increase their levels of job satisfaction. According to the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989), self-esteem is a resource that is essential to the work-family psychological contract which in turn would affect job satisfaction. Hence, high self-esteem will lead to positive perception of work-family psychological contract and generates high level of job satisfaction because according to the social exchange theory, when employees perceive that resources are gained from their work roles, employees may develop a positive belief towards their organizations and reciprocate with favorable attitude at work such as being satisfied with their job.

**Table 4.5: Results of mediation test with work-family psychological contract as a mediator of the relationship between self-esteem and job satisfaction**

Dependent variables	Independent variables	Partial mediation model	<i>p</i>	Direct model	<i>p</i>
WFPC	<--- SE	.422	***		
JS	<--- WFPC	.204	.011		
JS	<--- SE	.239	.007	.325	***

Note: \*\*\*  $p < .001$

#### 4.6.3 Mediating effect of work-family psychological contract in the relationship between locus of control and job satisfaction

Hypothesis 3a: There is a positive relationship between the locus of control and work-family psychological contract.

The results, as shown in Figure 4.1 and Table 4.6 indicate that the relationship between the locus of control and work-family psychological contract was significant ( $\beta = .289$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Thus, it lends support for Hypothesis 3a. Such findings extend the previous research by Raja, Johns, and Ntalianis (2004) and Bilgin (2007) who establish a positive relationship between the locus of control and the work-family psychological contract.

Hypothesis 3b: There is a positive relationship between the locus of control and job satisfaction.

Figure 4.2 and Table 4.6 show that the locus of control was positively related to job satisfaction ( $\beta = .275$ ,  $p = .001$ ). It means that one unit standard deviation increase in the locus of control was followed by .275 standard deviation increase in job satisfaction. The

significant relationship between the locus of control and job satisfaction is consistent with previous findings that an increase in the locus of control leads to an increase in job satisfaction (e.g., Raja, Johns, and Ntalianis, 2004; Gardner and Pierce, 2013). Therefore, Hypothesis 3b is supported.

Hypothesis 3c: Work-family psychological contract mediates the relationship between locus of control and job satisfaction.

Table 4.6 presents the results of the mediation test of whether or not the relationship between the locus of control and job satisfaction is mediated by the work-family psychological contract. The effect of the locus of control on job satisfaction is statistically significant ( $\beta = .275, p = .001$ ), satisfying step 1 of the Baron and Kenny's method. The statistically significant effect of the locus of control on the work-family psychological contract ( $\beta = .289, p < .001$ ) also meets the stipulated condition of this step. Moreover, the effect of the work-family psychological contract on job satisfaction is statistically significant ( $\beta = .204, p = .011$ ). The effect of the locus of control on job satisfaction shrinks upon the addition of the work-family psychological contract to the model ( $\beta = .216, p = .020$ ). This suggests that the work-family psychological contract partially mediates the relationship between the locus of control and job satisfaction. Hence, the results support Hypothesis 3c.

With regards to the mediating effect of the work-family psychological contract on the relationship between the locus of control and job satisfaction, the results show that employees with the locus of control tend to experience higher intensity of work-family psychological contract fulfillment and this would in turn increase their levels of job satisfaction. Based on the COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), the locus of control is a resource that is essential to the work-family psychological contract which in turn affects job satisfaction. This study agrees with the findings of Raja, Johns, and Ntalianis (2004) which support that the work-family psychological contract mediates the relationships between the locus of control and job satisfaction.

**Table 4.6: Results of the mediation test with the work-family psychological contract as a mediator of the relationship between the locus of control and job satisfaction**

Dependent variables	Independent variables	Partial mediation model	<i>p</i>	Direct model	<i>p</i>
WFPC	<--- LOC	.289	***		
JS	<--- WFPC	.204	.011		
JS	<--- LOC	.216	.020	.275	.001

Note: \*\*\*  $p < .001$



#### **4.6.4 Mediating effect of work-family psychological contract in the relationship between positive affectivity and job satisfaction**

Hypothesis 4a: There is a positive relationship between positive affectivity and work-family psychological contract.

There is a significant positive direct relationship between positive affectivity and work-family psychological contract ( $\beta = .217, p < .001$ ) as shown in Figure 4.1 and Table 4.7. It suggests that one standard deviation increase in positive affectivity is followed by .217 standard deviation increase in the work-family psychological contract. The findings of this study are in line with previous research of Kiewitz et al. (2009) and support the findings of Kreiner and Ashforth (2004). Thus, Hypothesis 4a is supported.

Hypothesis 4b: There is a positive relationship between positive affectivity and job satisfaction.

Figure 4.2 and Table 4.7 show that positive affectivity ( $\beta = .356, p < .001$ ) is positively related to job satisfaction. It means that one unit standard deviation increase in positive affectivity is followed by .356 standard deviation increase in job satisfaction. The significant relationship between positive affectivity and job satisfaction is consistent with the previous findings of Zhai et al. (2009). Therefore, Hypothesis 4b is supported.

Hypothesis 4c: Work-family psychological contract mediates the relationship between positive affectivity and job satisfaction.

Table 4.7 shows the results of the mediation of whether or not the relationship between positive affectivity and job satisfaction is mediated by the work-family psychological contract. The effect of positive affectivity on job satisfaction is statistically significant ( $\beta = .356, p < .001$ ), satisfying step 1 of the Baron and Kenny's method. The statistically significant effect of positive affectivity on the work-family psychological contract ( $\beta = .217, p < .001$ ) also meets the stipulated condition of this step. The effect of the work-family psychological contract on job satisfaction is also statistically significant ( $\beta = .204, p = .011$ ). The effect of positive affectivity on job satisfaction reduces upon the addition of the work-family psychological contract to the model ( $\beta = .312, p < .001$ ) and this is consistent with mediation. This suggests that the work-family psychological contract partially mediates the relationship between positive affectivity and job satisfaction. Hence, the results support Hypothesis 4c.

With regards to the mediating effect of the work-family psychological contract on the relationship between positive affectivity and job satisfaction, the results show that employees with positive affectivity tend to experience higher level of psychological contract fulfillment and this would in turn increase their level of job satisfaction. This study corroborates with the findings of Kiewitz et al. (2009) and Zhai et al. (2009) which support that there is a relationship between positive affectivity, work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction.

**Table 4.7: Results of mediation test with work-family psychological contract as a mediator of the relationship between positive affectivity and job satisfaction**

Dependent variables	Independent variables	Partial mediation model	<i>p</i>	Direct model	<i>p</i>
WFPC	<--- PA	.217	***		
JS	<--- WFPC	.204	.011		
JS	<--- PA	.312	***	.356	***

Note: \*\*\*  $p < .001$

#### 4.6.5 Mediating effect of work-family psychological contract in the relationship between negative affectivity and job satisfaction

Hypothesis 5a: There is a negative relationship between negative affectivity and work-family psychological contract.

There was a significant negative direct relationship between negative affectivity and work-family psychological contract ( $\beta = -.403$ ,  $p < .001$ ) as shown in Figure 4.1 and Table 4.8. It suggests that one standard deviation decrease in negative affectivity is followed by .403 standard deviation increase in the work-family psychological contract. The findings of this study are in line with previous research of Kiewitz et al. (2009) and Lo and Aryee (2003). Therefore Hypothesis 5a is supported.

Hypothesis 5b: There is a negative relationship between negative affectivity and job satisfaction.

The results, as shown in Figure 4.2 and Table 4.8 reveal that there was a negative significant relationship between negative affectivity and job satisfaction ( $\beta = -.295$ ,  $p < .001$ ). It means that one unit standard deviation decrease in negative affectivity is followed .295 standard deviation increase in job satisfaction. The findings that negative

negativity is a significant and negative predictor of job satisfaction have been reported by Zhai et al. (2009) and Geenen et al. (2011). The findings of this study show that employees with low negative affectivity could experience greater job satisfaction. Thus, Hypothesis 5b is supported.

Hypothesis 5c: Work-family psychological contract mediates the relationship between negative affectivity and job satisfaction.

Table 4.8 shows the results of the mediation test of whether or not the relationship between negative affectivity and job satisfaction is mediated by the work-family psychological contract. The effect of negative affectivity on job satisfaction is statistically significant ( $\beta = -.295, p < .001$ ), satisfying step 1 of Baron and Kenny's method. The statistically significant effect of negative affectivity on the work-family psychological contract ( $\beta = -.403, p < .001$ ) also meets the stipulated condition of this step. The effect of the work-family psychological contract on job satisfaction is also statistically significant ( $\beta = .204, p = .011$ ). The effect of negative affectivity on job satisfaction shrinks upon the addition of the work-family psychological contract to the model ( $\beta = -.213, p = .009$ ) and this is consistent with mediation. This suggests that the work-family psychological contract partially mediates the relationship between negative affectivity and job satisfaction. Hence, the results support Hypothesis 5c.

With regards to the mediating effect of the work-family psychological contract on the relationship between negative affectivity and job satisfaction, the results show that employees' negative affectivity leads to lower work-family psychological contract which in turn decreases their level of job satisfaction. Similar findings have been reported by Kiewitz et al. (2009) which support that negative affectivity may affect the work-family psychological contract as well as job satisfaction negatively.

**Table 4.8: Results of mediation test with work-family psychological contract as a mediator of the relationship between negative affectivity and job satisfaction**

Dependent variables	Independent variables	Partial mediation model	<i>p</i>	Direct model	<i>p</i>
WFPC	<--- NA	-.403	***		
JS	<--- WFPC	.204	.011		
JS	<--- NA	-.213	.009	-.295	***

Note: \*\*\*  $p < .001$

#### **4.6.6 Mediating effect of work-family psychological contract in the relationship between work interference with family and job satisfaction**

Hypothesis 6a: There is a negative relationship between work interference with family and work-family psychological contract.

Figure 4.1 and Table 4.9 illustrate that work interference with family is negatively related to the work-family psychological contract ( $\beta = -.276, p = .008$ ). It suggests that one standard deviation that decreases in the work interference with family is followed by .276 standard deviation increase in the work-family psychological contract. Thus, Hypothesis 6a is supported. The relationship between work interference with family and work-family psychological contract is reliable with the research by Taylor, DelCampo, and Blancero (2009), reporting that work interference with family may affect the work-family psychological contract negatively.

Hypothesis 6b: There is a negative relationship between work interference with family and job satisfaction.

Work interference with family is negatively related to job satisfaction ( $\beta = -.271, p < .001$ ) as shown in Figure 4.2 and Table 4.9. It means that one unit standard deviation decrease in work interference with family is followed by .271 standard deviation increase in job satisfaction. The significant relationship between work interference with family and job satisfaction is consistent with other researchers namely Hill (2005); Boyar and Mosley Jr. (2007); and Beham and Drobic (2010), who have found that work interference with family is a significant and negative predictor of job satisfaction. The findings of this study show that employees with low level of work interference with family may focused with their work and hence, experience greater job satisfaction. Thus, Hypothesis 6b is supported.

Hypothesis 6c: Work-family psychological contract mediates the relationship between work interference with family and job satisfaction.

Table 4.9 illustrates the results of the mediation test of whether the relationship between work interference with family and job satisfaction is mediated by the work-family psychological contract. The effect of work interference with family on job satisfaction is significant ( $\beta = -.271, p < .001$ ). The effect of work interference with family on the work-family psychological contract ( $\beta = -.276, p = .008$ ) is also significant. Moreover, the effect of the work-family psychological contract on job satisfaction is statistically significant ( $\beta = .204, p = .011$ ). The relationship between 'work interference with family' and job satisfaction ( $\beta = -.215, p = .012$ ) has shrunken upon the addition of the work-family psychological contract (the mediator) to the model. This suggests that the

contract partially mediates the relationship between self-esteem and job satisfaction. Hence, the results support Hypothesis 6c.

With regard to the mediating effect of the work-family psychological contract on the relationship between work interference with family and job satisfaction, the results show that employees with high level of work interference with family may have a negative perception on the work-family psychological contract which in turn decreases their level of job satisfaction. Similar findings have been reported by Taylor, DelCampo, and Blancero (2009) and Hill (2005).

**Table 4.9: Results of the mediation test with work-family psychological contract as a mediator of the relationship between work interference with family and job satisfaction**

Dependent variables		Independent variables	Partial mediation model	<i>p</i>	Direct model	<i>p</i>
WFPC	<---	WIF	-.276	.008		
JS	<---	WFPC	.204	.011		
JS	<---	WIF	-.215	.012	-.271	***

Note: \*\*\*  $p < .001$

#### 4.6.7 Mediating effect of work-family psychological contract in the relationship between work-family facilitation and job satisfaction

Hypothesis 7a: There is a positive relationship between work-family facilitation and work-family psychological contract.

The results, as shown in Figure 4.1 and Table 4.10, indicate that work-family facilitation ( $\beta = .242$ ,  $p < .001$ ) was positively related to work-family psychological contract. It suggests that one standard deviation increase in work-family facilitation is followed by .242 standard deviation increase in the work-family psychological contract. Thus, this provides support for Hypothesis 7a. The significant relationship between work-family facilitation and work-family psychological contract is consistent with the results reported by Taylor, DelCampo, and Blancero (2009) whereby individuals with higher level of work-family facilitation are induced to have a positive perception on the work-family psychological contract.



Hypothesis 7b: There is a positive relationship between work-family facilitation and job satisfaction.

The results, as shown in Figure 4.2 and Table 4.10 have revealed that there was a significant relationship between work-family facilitation and job satisfaction ( $\beta = .341, p < .001$ ). It means that one unit standard deviation increase in work-family facilitation is followed by .341 standard deviation increase in job satisfaction. The findings that work-family facilitation is a significant and positive predictor of job satisfaction have been reported by Kinnunen et al. (2006), Boyar and Mosley Jr. (2007) and Carlson et al. (2009). The findings of this study have shown that employees getting work-family facilitation in an organization could experience greater job satisfaction. Thus, Hypothesis 7b was supported.

Hypothesis 7c: Work-family psychological contract mediates the relationship between work-family facilitation and job satisfaction.

Table 4.10 shows the results of the mediation test of whether or not the relationship between work-family facilitation and job satisfaction is mediated by work-family psychological contract. The effect of work-family facilitation on job satisfaction is statistically significant ( $\beta = .341, p < .001$ ), satisfying step 1 of Baron and Kenny's method. The statistically significant effect of work-family facilitation on work-family psychological contract ( $\beta = .242, p < .001$ ) meets the stipulated condition of this step. The effect of the work-family psychological contract on job satisfaction is statistically significant ( $\beta = .204, p = .011$ ). The effect of work-family facilitation on job satisfaction decreases upon the addition of work-family psychological contract to the model ( $\beta = .292, p < .001$ ) and this is consistent with mediation. Since the effect of work-family facilitation on job satisfaction was still significant, the work-family psychological contract has a partial mediating effect on the relationship between work-family facilitation and job satisfaction. Hence, the results support Hypothesis 7c.

With regard to the mediating effect of work-family psychological contract on the relationship between work-family facilitation and job satisfaction, the results show that employees receiving high work-family facilitation tend to experience higher intensity of work-family psychological contract and this would in turn increase their level of job satisfaction. Similar findings by previous research have found that work-family facilitation can leave an impact to the psychological contract (Taylor, DelCampo, & Blancero, 2009) which in turn also affects job satisfaction (Hill, 2005). Through the conservation of resources theory, it can be illustrated that work-family facilitation serves as a resource that may affect the work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction, and work-family psychological contract as resource that may affect job satisfaction indirectly.



**Table 4.10: Results of mediation test with work-family psychological contract as a mediator of the relationship between work-family facilitation and job satisfaction**

Dependent variables		Independent variables	Full mediation model	<i>p</i>	Direct model	<i>p</i>
WFPC	<---	WFF	.242	***		
JS	<---	WFPC	.204	.011		
JS	<---	WFF	.292	***	.341	***

Note: \*\*\*  $p < .001$

#### 4.7 The Overall Hypotheses Results

Based on the findings of the study, the results of the overall hypotheses testing are summarized as in Table 4.11.

**Table 4.11: The overall hypotheses results**

Hypotheses		$\beta$	Results	
H1	There is a positive relationship between work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction.	.204*	Supported	
H2a	There is a positive relationship between self-esteem and work-family psychological contract.	.422***	Supported	
H2b	There is a positive relationship between self-esteem and job satisfaction.	.325***	Supported	
H3a	There is a positive relationship between the locus control and work-family psychological contract.	.289***	Supported	
H3b	There is a positive relationship between of the locus control and job satisfaction.	.275**	Supported	
H4a	There is a positive relationship between positive affectivity and work-family psychological contract.	.217***	Supported	
H4b	There is a positive relationship between positive affectivity and job satisfaction.	.356***	Supported	
H5a	There is a negative relationship between negative affectivity and work-family psychological contract.	-.403***	Supported	
H5b	There is a negative relationship between negative affectivity and job satisfaction.	-.295***	Supported	
H6a	There is a negative relationship between work interference with family and work-family psychological contract.	-.276**	Supported	
H6b	There is a negative relationship between work interference with family and job satisfaction.	-.271***	Supported	
H7a	There is a positive relationship between work-family facilitation and work-family psychological contract.	.242***	Supported	
H7b	There is a positive relationship between work-family facilitation and job satisfaction.	.341***	Supported	
Via		To	Decision	
H2c	Self-esteem	WFPC	Job Satisfaction	Partial Mediation
H3c	Locus of control	WFPC	Job Satisfaction	Partial Mediation
H4c	Positive affectivity	WFPC	Job Satisfaction	Partial Mediation
H5c	Negative affectivity	WFPC	Job Satisfaction	Partial Mediation
H6c	Work interference with family	WFPC	Job Satisfaction	Partial Mediation
H7c	Work-family facilitation	WFPC	Job Satisfaction	Partial Mediation

Note: \*\*\*  $p < .001$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*  $p < .05$

## CHAPTER 5

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter begins with a summary of the study, followed by conclusions drawn based on our reference to findings and research objectives. Various implications from this study are also deliberated upon and discussed. Subsequently, recommendations for practice and future studies are presented.

#### 5.1 Summary of the Study

This study sets out to determine the mediating effect of the work-family psychological contract in the relationships between personality (self-esteem, locus of control, positive affectivity, negative affectivity), work-family (work interference with family, work-family facilitation) factors and job satisfaction among employees in private organizations in the Klang Valley.

This is a cross-sectional study conducted on employees from private organizations in the Klang Valley area. A two-stage sampling procedure was adopted. The organizations were randomly selected from the list of names of utility service organizations in the Klang Valley. Simple random sampling procedure was used to select the employees for this study. Data were gathered from 230 employees holding the positions of executives and professionals through the drop-and-collect method using self-administered questionnaires. In ensuring that validity and reliability for the measuring instrument are achieved, a pre-test was conducted.

The questionnaires include demographic information about the respondents and measures for self-esteem, locus of control, positive affectivity, negative affectivity, work interference with family, work-family facilitation, work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction with five-point response options. All the measures were considered reliable since the Cronbach's alpha and construct reliability values were above .70. The data collected were computed and analyzed using the SPSS and structural equation modeling (SEM). The demographic data, frequencies and the means were computed to describe the respondents. To test the model fit and the hypothesized mediation model, a structural equation model using AMOS software was performed.

## **5.2 Conclusions of Research Objectives**

With reference to the research objectives and based on the findings of the study, the following conclusions have been made.

### **Objective 1**

The first objective of the study is to determine the mediating effects of work-family psychological contract on the relationship between self-esteem, and job satisfaction. The finding reveals that both the relationships between self-esteem and work-family psychological contract, and that between self-esteem and job satisfaction are significant. Self-esteem is found positively related to work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction. The present study suggests that self-esteem is an antecedent of work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction.

The result of this investigation also shows that work-family psychological contract partially mediates one's self-esteem on job satisfaction. This finding extends earlier research which has found that the psychological contract is a mediator in the relationships between self-esteem and job satisfaction.

### **Objective 2**

The second objective of the study is to determine the mediating effects of the work-family psychological contract on the relationship between the locus of control, and job satisfaction. The result of this investigation shows that the locus of control is significantly related to the work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction. The present study suggests that the locus of control is an antecedent of work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction.

This study has further revealed that the work-family psychological contract partially mediates the relationship between the locus of control and job satisfaction. This finding extends earlier research which suggests that the psychological contract is a mediator in the relationships between the locus of control and job satisfaction.

### **Objective 3**

The third objective of the study is to determine the mediating effects of the work-family psychological contract on the relationship between positive affectivity, and job satisfaction.

The result of this investigation shows that positive affectivity is significantly related to the work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction. Positive affectivity is found to have a positive relation to both the work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction. The current findings add to a growing body of literature on positive affectivity as predictors of work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction.

This study exposes further that the work-family psychological contract partially mediates the relationship between positive affectivity and job satisfaction. The current findings add to a growing body of literature on the work-family psychological contract acting as a mediator in the relationship between positive affectivity and job satisfaction.

### **Objective 4**

The fourth objective of the study is to determine the mediating effects of the work-family psychological contract on the relationship between negative affectivity, and job satisfaction.

The result of this investigation shows that negative affectivity is significantly related to the work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction. The current findings add to a growing body of literature on negative affectivity as predictors of work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction.

This study reveals that the work-family psychological contract partially mediates the relationship between negative affectivity and job satisfaction. The current findings add to a growing body of literature on work-family psychological contract acting as a mediator in the relationship between negative affectivity and job satisfaction.

### **Objective 5**

The next objective of the study is to determine the mediating effects of the work-family psychological contract on the relationship between work interference with family, and job satisfaction. The result of this investigation shows that work interference with family is significantly related to the work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction. The present study suggests that work interference with family is an antecedent of work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction.

This study establishes too that the work-family psychological contract partially mediates the relationship between work interference with family and job satisfaction. The current findings add to a growing body of literature on work-family psychological contract acting as a mediator in the relationship between work interference with family and job satisfaction.

### **Objective 6**

The next objective of the study is to determine the mediating effects of the work-family psychological contract on the relationship between work-family facilitation, and job satisfaction.

The finding reveals that both the relationships between work-family facilitation and work-family psychological contract, and that between work-family facilitation and job satisfaction are significant. Work-family facilitation is found to be positively related to work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction. The present study suggests that work-family facilitation is an antecedent of work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction.

The result of this investigation also points out that the work-family psychological contract partially mediates work-family facilitation on job satisfaction. The current findings add to a growing body of literature on work-family psychological contract acting as a mediator in the relationship between work-family facilitation and job satisfaction.



### **5.3 Implications**

The findings of this study have several noteworthy implications for both theory and practice despite the fact that there are potential limitations.

#### **5.3.1 Implication to Theory**

The current findings have well supplemented the existing body of literature and addressed the gap on job satisfaction and work-family psychological contract. The results of this study also support the use of the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989), the model of the work-family psychological contract (Rousseau, 1998), the psychological contract theory, and the social exchange theory in explaining the mediating role of the work-family psychological contract in the relationships between personality and work-family factors, and job satisfaction. This study confirms that this work-family psychological contract mediates the relationships between self-esteem, the locus of control, positive affectivity, negative affectivity, work interference with family and work-family facilitation, and job satisfaction.

From a theoretical perspective, the present study provides additional evidence on the antecedents and consequences associated with the work-family psychological contract. This study uses the conservation of resources theory in understanding the relationship between resources and job satisfaction. Through resource expansion, people tend to cope with stressful situations, resulting in higher job satisfaction. The model of the work-family psychological contract (Rousseau, 1998) helps in explaining the resource generation process and the occurrence of the psychological contract. The findings from this study also support the use of the social exchange theory in explaining the relationship between work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction resulting from the norm of reciprocity. When employees experience greater resource in the form of psychological contract, they are more likely to reciprocate by having more positive attitude towards their job.

#### **5.3.2 Implication for Practice**

The findings of the study have important implications for organizations. The findings demonstrate that employees' self-esteem, locus of control, positive affectivity, negative affectivity, work interference with family, also work-family facilitation are important factors that are related to employees' experience of work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction. Given that job satisfaction has been found to have potential effects

on job performance (Judge et al., 2001a), organizational citizenship behavior (Zeinabadi, 2010) and absenteeism (Yang, 2010), identifying factors that can explain sources of job satisfaction is important.

The evidence from this study emphasizes the importance of personality in influencing psychological contract and job satisfaction. The findings have demonstrated that self-esteem, the locus of control, positive affectivity and negative affectivity are essential individual resources that are related to employees' work-family psychological contract and job satisfaction. During the screening of potential recruits, employers should take into consideration personality factors as important dispositional characteristics of candidates that may affect psychological contract and job satisfaction.

Work-family factors may also play a critical role. For instance, Grzywacz and Butler (2005) as well as Voydanoff (2004) point out that individuals in jobs with family-friendly workplaces have reported higher level of work-family facilitation and lower level of work interference with family. Thus, employers should take proactive steps in providing work-family benefits to assist employees to have more work-family facilities in their work situations. This may be an essential step to improve the work-family psychological contract (e.g., Taylor, DelCampo, and Blancero, 2009). This study indicates that from an organizational perspective, the involvement in work roles should not be viewed as a hindrance, since it can also benefit employees at home. Involvement in work roles provides opportunities to acquire skills and knowledge, and increases work-family facilitation. Furthermore, employees may experience low work interference with family because employees tend to feel more comfortable in handling work-family responsibilities.

A more complete understanding of the work-family psychological contract should be useful to the government and private organizations especially for utility service companies in fulfilling a work-family psychological contract to promote the work-family balance at the workplace for the growing number of employees who have family responsibilities. This practice implication is significant for private utility service companies because of increasing demands for work-life balance (Lee, 1997) and higher job satisfaction and motivation levels.

## 5.4 Recommendations

Subsequently, the findings of this study point to some invaluable recommendations for HRD practitioners and organizations. This study confirms that the work-family psychological contract influences job outcome such as job satisfaction. Therefore, it is imperative for organizations to consider developing strategies to amplify the work-family psychological contract at the workplace. Work-family benefits that assist employees in areas such as flexible working time, childcare and family-friendly workplace would not only increase work-family balance at the workplace but also enhance employees' belief towards their employer regarding work-family issues. Rousseau (2004) suggests that the psychological contract may provide access to resources and experiences that are beneficial for both women and men.

The management should consider the individual's personality namely self-esteem, locus of control, positive affectivity and negative affectivity, because it is believed that one's characteristic may influence his or her job satisfaction. The HRD initiatives in the organizations such as providing work-family benefits should be directed towards enhancing self-esteem, locus of control, positive affectivity and reducing negative affectivity, in order to improve employees' job satisfaction.

Moreover, the findings of this study also imply that work-family facilitation is seen as a good chance to increase the work-family psychological contract among employees and in other way may increase job satisfaction. Organizations and government may enhance the quality of an employee's work and family life by fulfilling the need for work-family benefits at the workplace.

It is evident that employees' personality may affect their perception on the work-family psychological contract. Work-family facilitation and interference experienced by employees also give impact to the work-family psychological contract. Hence, organizations should provide a comfortable and friendly environment at the workplace through facilities such as childcare centre, flexible working place, and flexible working time. With such assistance, it may help to lessen the stress at the workplace and problems faced by employees in relation to the perceptions on the work-family psychological contract. This would greatly assist workers in increasing the fulfilment of work-family psychological contract and therefore experience higher level of job satisfaction.

## 5.5 Recommendations for Future Research

There were several limitations of this study that should be noted. Firstly, this research is limited to the exploration of executives and professionals' belief of organization that has fulfilled their promises that constitute their psychological contract in integrating work-family responsibilities. Hence, the results reported here may only be generalized to executives and professionals working in private organizations of utility service providers in the Klang Valley, Malaysia. Therefore, future research should be conducted concerning employees in other organizations such as public agencies and in order to generalize the findings. Besides that, future research may expand the focus group onto other levels of employees such as non-executive employees in the organization.

Secondly, this study uses the composite measurement of the work-family psychological contract fulfillment instead of the global measurement adapted for work-family benefits. The composite measurement requires respondents to respond to a list of work-family content areas in which they believe that the organization has promised to provide, and fulfilled the promises. The global measurement directly assesses the subjects' overall perceptions of how much organization has fulfilled or failed to fulfill its promise and does not refer to specific content areas (Zhao et al., 2007). Future research should adapt to the global measurement for work-family related promises so that a better measurement of work-family psychological contract can be made.

Thirdly, another limitation to this study is that the work-family psychological contract can be influenced by factors outside the organization, such as cultural factors. According to Thomas, Au, and Ravlin (2003), culture plays an important role in developing individual's psychological contract. Malaysians can be categorized as high in collectivistic culture (Hofstede, 2009) who are found to be more prone to trust the organization to meet its promises (Brockner et al., 2000). Furthermore, Wang and Walumbwa (2007) suggest that people in the collective culture would further promote openness to work-family programs. Therefore, future research may take into account culture as a significant factor that may establish different perceptions of work-family psychological fulfillment among employees.

It would also be interesting if future studies on work-family psychological contract could be done qualitatively by using methods such as interviews, as they may generate knowledge based on personal feeling relating to work-family psychological contract.

## 5.6 Conclusion

Previously, studies on psychological contract have only focused on traditional contents such as pay, promotion and training. The present study has contributed to the psychological contract theory and work-family literature by introducing work-family psychological contract. Work-family psychological contract is seen as a potential mechanism may impact employees' job satisfaction. Hence, this model, which is also supported by the conservation of resources theory, would help in providing a greater understanding of the process by which this work-family psychological contract is linked with employees' job satisfaction.

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## APPENDICES

### Appendix A

#### BAHAGIAN A / PART A

Sila isi tempat kosong dengan maklumat peribadi anda. Sila tandakan (✓) sewajarnya.  
Please fill in the blanks with your personal details. Mark (✓) where appropriate.

##### A - Maklumat Peribadi | Personal Details

1. Jantina | *Gender* ☐ Lelaki | *Male* ☐ Perempuan | *Female*
2. Agama | *Religion* ☐ Islam | *Islam* ☐ Kristian | *Christian*  
☐ Budha | *Buddha* ☐ Hindu | *Hindu*  
☐ Lain – lain ( Sila nyatakan ) | *Other (Please specify)* \_\_\_\_\_
3. Umur | *Age* \_\_\_\_\_
4. Warganegara | *Citizen* \_\_\_\_\_
5. Status pendidikan tertinggi | *Highest level of education* ☐ MCE / SPM ☐ Sijil | *Certificate*  
☐ Sarjana Muda | *Degree* ☐ Sarjana | *Master's Degree*  
☐ Lain – lain ( Sila nyatakan ) | *Other (Please specify)* \_\_\_\_\_
6. Status Perkahwinan | *Marital Status* ☐ Bujang | *Single* ☐ Berkahwin | *Married*  
☐ Berceraai | *Divorced* ☐ Duda / Balu | *Widow / Widower*

##### B – Maklumat Pekerjaan / Employment Details

7. Jawatan | *Designation* \_\_\_\_\_
8. Tahap Jawatan | *Job Level* ☐ Pengurus | *Manager* ☐ Pegawai / Penyelia | *Officer / Supervisor*  
☐ Eksekutif | *Executive* ☐ Staf Sokongan | *Support Staff*  
☐ Lain – lain ( Sila nyatakan ) | *Other (Please specify)* \_\_\_\_\_
9. Pendapatan bulanan / Gross Income RM \_\_\_\_\_
10. Jumlah hari bekerja / Number of working days \_\_\_\_\_
11. Waktu kerja | *Work Shift* ☐ Waktu Pejabat | *Office Hour* ☐ Kerja Shif | *Work Shift*
12. Jumlah tahun berkhidmat di syarikat ini | *Number of years in service with this company* \_\_\_\_\_



**BAHAGIAN B / PART B**

Arahan: Sila nyatakan tahap persetujuan anda dalam skala 1 (Sangat Tidak Setuju) hingga 5 (Sangat Setuju)

*Instruction: Please rate your level of agreement on a scale of 1(Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agreed)*

<b>Sangat Tidak Setuju Strongly Disagree</b>		<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>Sangat Setuju Strongly Agree</b>	
No	Item	Skor						
1	Secara keseluruhannya saya amat berpuas hati dengan kerja saya. <i>All in all I am satisfied with my job.</i>	1	2	3	4	5		
2	Secara umumnya, saya tidak suka kerja saya. <i>In general, I don't like my job.</i>	1	2	3	4	5		
3	Secara umumnya, saya suka bekerja di sini. <i>In general, I like working here.</i>	1	2	3	4	5		

### BAHAGIAN C / PART C

Arahan: Sila nyatakan tahap persetujuan anda dalam skala 1 (Sangat Tidak Setuju) hingga 5 (Sangat Setuju)

*Instruction: Please rate your level of agreement on a scale of 1(Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agreed)*

Sangat Tidak Setuju Strongly Disagree		1	2	3	4	5	Sangat Setuju Strongly Agree	
No	Item	Skor						
1	Secara keseluruhan, saya berpuas hati dengan diri saya sendiri On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	1	2	3	4	5		
2	Kadang-kadang, saya fikir tiada apa yang bagus tentang diri saya At times, I think I am no good at all.	1	2	3	4	5		
3	Saya merasa bahawa saya mempunyai beberapa kualiti yang baik I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	1	2	3	4	5		
4	Saya berupaya melakukan sesuatu sebaik mana seperti kebanyakan orang lain melakukannya I am able to do things as well as most other people.	1	2	3	4	5		
5	Saya rasa tidak banyak perkara yang boleh dibanggakan tentang diri saya I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	1	2	3	4	5		
6	Kadang-kala saya merasa tidak berguna I certainly feel useless at times.	1	2	3	4	5		
7	Saya rasa seorang yang berguna, sama seperti orang lain I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.	1	2	3	4	5		
8	Saya harap saya dapat lebih menghormati diri saya I wish I could have more respect for myself.	1	2	3	4	5		
9	Keseluruhannya, saya cenderung merasa bahawa saya seorang yang gagal All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	1	2	3	4	5		
10	Saya mempunyai sikap positif tentang diri sendiri I take a positive attitude toward myself.	1	2	3	4	5		

## BAHAGIAN D / PART D

Arahan: Sila nyatakan tahap persetujuan anda dalam skala 1 (Sangat Tidak Setuju) hingga 5 (Sangat Setuju)

Instruction: Please rate your level of agreement on a scale of 1(Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agreed)

Sangat Tidak Setuju Strongly Disagree		1	2	3	4	5	Sangat Setuju Strongly Agree	
No	Item	Skor						
1	Saya mampu mencapai apa yang saya hajatkan, jika saya berusaha gigih untuk mencapainya <i>I can usually achieve what I want if I work hard for it</i>	1	2	3	4	5		
2	Setiap kali saya membuat perancangan, saya hampir pasti saya dapat melaksanakannya <i>Once I make plans, I am almost certain to make them work</i>	1	2	3	4	5		
3	Saya lebih sukakan permainan yang berunsurkan nasib daripada permainan yang memerlukan kemahiran <i>I prefer games involving some luck over games requiring pure skill</i>	1	2	3	4	5		
4	Saya mampu mempelajari apa sahaja sekiranya saya berazam untuk mempelajarinya <i>I can learn almost anything if I set my mind to it</i>	1	2	3	4	5		
5	Sebahagian besar daripada kejayaan saya adalah hasil daripada kerajinan dan keupayaan saya sendiri <i>My major accomplishments are entirely due to my hard work and ability</i>	1	2	3	4	5		
6	Saya jarang membuat perancangan kerana saya selalunya gagal mematuhi apa yang telah dirancang <i>I usually do not set goals because I have a hard time following through on them</i>	1	2	3	4	5		
7	Nasib malang kadangkala menghalang saya daripada mencapai apa yang saya inginkan <i>Bad luck has sometimes prevented me from achieving things</i>	1	2	3	4	5		
8	Hampir semua perkara boleh saya capai jika saya benar-benar mahu mencapainya <i>Almost anything is possible for me if I really want it</i>	1	2	3	4	5		
9	Sebahagian besar dari apa yang berlaku dalam kerjaya saya adalah di luar kawalan saya <i>Most of what happens in my career is beyond my control</i>	1	2	3	4	5		
10	Saya dapati adalah sia-sia untuk terus melakukan sesuatu pekerjaan yang amat sukar bagi saya. <i>I find it pointless to keep working on something that's too difficult for me</i>	1	2	3	4	5		

## BAHAGIAN E / PART E

Skala ini mengandungi kenyataan yang menggambarkan perasaan dan emosi individu. Baca setiap kenyataan dan nyatakan kekerapan anda mengalami perasaan tersebut dengan menggunakan **skala 1 (Tidak pernah) hingga 5 (Setiap masa)**.

*This scale consists of statements that describe feelings and emotions of individuals. Read each statement and indicate how frequent you experience such feelings on a scale of 1 (None of the time) to 5 (All of the time).*

		Tidak Pernah	Jarang-jarang	Kadang-kadang	Selalu	Setiap masa
		<i>None of the time</i>	<i>A little of the time</i>	<i>Some of the time</i>	<i>Most of the time</i>	<i>All of the time</i>
1	Saya berasa ceria <i>I'm feeling cheerful</i>	1	2	3	4	5
2	Saya berasa bersemangat <i>I'm in good spirits</i>	1	2	3	4	5
3	Saya berasa sangat gembira <i>I'm extremely happy</i>	1	2	3	4	5
4	Saya berasa tenang dan tenteram <i>I'm calm and peaceful</i>	1	2	3	4	5
5	Saya berasa berpuas hati <i>I feel satisfied</i>	1	2	3	4	5
6	Saya berasa kehidupan saya penuh aktiviti <i>I'm full of life</i>	1	2	3	4	5
7	Saya berasa amat sedih dan tiada sesuatu yang boleh menceriakan saya <i>I'm so sad and nothing could cheer me up</i>	1	2	3	4	5
8	Saya berasa cemas <i>I'm feel nervous</i>	1	2	3	4	5
9	Saya berasa resah atau gelisah <i>I'm feel restless or fidgety</i>	1	2	3	4	5
10	Saya berasa putus asa <i>I'm feel hopeless</i>	1	2	3	4	5
11	Saya berfikir semuanya adalah usaha <i>I think that everything was an effort</i>	1	2	3	4	5
12	Saya merasa tidak berguna <i>I'm feel worthless</i>	1	2	3	4	5

## BAHAGIAN F / PART F

Arahan: Sila nyatakan tahap persetujuan anda dalam skala 1 (Sangat Tidak Setuju) hingga 5 (Sangat Setuju)

Instruction: Please rate your level of agreement on a scale of 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agreed)

Sangat Tidak Setuju Strongly Disagree		1	2	3	4	5	Sangat Setuju Strongly Agree	
No	Item	Skor						
1	Selepas bekerja, saya pulang ke rumah terlalu letih untuk membuat beberapa aktiviti yang ingin saya lakukan. <i>After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do</i>	1	2	3	4	5		
2	Terdapat banyak kerja pejabat yang perlu dibuat sehingga saya terpaksa mengurangkan masa untuk kepentingan keluarga saya. <i>On the job I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests.</i>	1	2	3	4	5		
3	Keluarga saya tidak menyukai kerapnya saya menumpukan perhatian terhadap kerja pejabat semasa saya di rumah. <i>My family dislike how often I am preoccupied with my work while I'm at home</i>	1	2	3	4	5		
4	Kerja di pejabat mengurangkan masa yang saya ingin luangkan untuk keluarga. <i>My work takes up time that I'd like to spend with family</i>	1	2	3	4	5		

## BAHAGIAN G / PART G

Arahan: Sila nyatakan tahap persetujuan anda dalam skala 1 (Sangat Tidak Setuju) hingga 5 (Sangat Setuju)

Instruction: Please rate your level of agreement on a scale of 1(Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agreed)

Sangat Tidak Setuju Strongly Disagree		1	2	3	4	5	Sangat Setuju Strongly Agree	
No	Item	Skor						
1	Saya telah memperoleh kemahiran tempat kerja (Cth: kemahiran mengurus kewangan) yang dapat saya gunakan di rumah  <i>I have developed skill in my job that are useful at home</i>	1	2	3	4	5		
2	Tugas-tugas saya di tempat kerja memberi saya peluang mendapatkan maklumat dan pengetahuan yang juga berguna untuk tugas saya di rumah (Cth:membimbing anak menyiapkan kerja sekolah di rumah)  <i>My job has given me access to facts and information that are useful at home</i>	1	2	3	4	5		
3	Keyakinan diri yang saya perolehi dalam pekerjaan saya menjadikan saya lebih berkesan dalam kehidupan berkeluarga  <i>The self confidence I have developed on my job makes me more effective in my family life</i>	1	2	3	4	5		
4	Rasa seronok dari tempat kerja menjadikan hidup saya lebih ceria dan keceriaan ini terbawa-bawa sehingga balik ke rumah  <i>Feeling good about my job puts me in a good mood with my family</i>	1	2	3	4	5		
5	Jadual kerja yang anjal membolehkan saya menghabiskan lebih banyak masa bersama kemuarga  <i>The flexibility of my work schedule allows me to spend more time with my family</i>	1	2	3	4	5		
6	Pendapatan daripada kerja saya membolehkan saya membeli barang-barang yang cukup untuk keperluan keluarga saya  <i>My income from work enables me to make purchases that meet my family's needs</i>	1	2	3	4	5		
7	Tugas saya di tempat kerja memberi saya peluang mempunyai ramai kawan yang boleh membantu keluarga saya  <i>My job provides me with contact that help my family</i>	1	2	3	4	5		



## BAHAGIAN H / PART H

Arahan bagi **Kolum A**: Sila nyatakan tahap persetujuan anda terhadap kenyataan berikut dengan menggunakan **skala 1** (Tiada janji dibuat) **hingga 5** (Janji tidak bertulis – secara lisan atau yang pernah diamalkan).

*Instruction: Please rate your level of agreement with the following statements on a scale of 1 (No promise made) to 5 (unwritten – verbal or have been practice)*

Bagi **kolum B**: **Hanya isi kolum B sekiranya kolum A ditanda 3 atau lebih** (3 atau 4 atau 5)

*In column B: Only complete column B if rating of 3 or more in column A (3 or 4 or 5)*

		A					B				
		Pada pendapat anda, sejauh mana organisasi ini telah membuat janji atau komited bagi menyediakan kemudahan berikut					Sekiranya anda menanda 3 atau lebih dalam kolum A: pada pendapat anda sejauhmana pula organisasi ini memenuhi janji tersebut.				
		<i>In your opinion to what extent has the organization made a promise or commitment to provide the following?</i>					<i>If 3 or more in column A: In your opinion to what extent has the organization met its promise or commitment?</i>				
		Sejauhmanakah perkara ini dijanjikan 1 = Tidak dijanjikan sama sekali 2 = Tidak dijanjikan 3 = Dijanjikan sedikit 4 = Dijanjikan 5 = Dijanjikan sepenuhnya					Sejauhmanakah janji ini ditunaikan? 1 = Tidak ditunaikan sama sekali 2 = Tidak ditunaikan 3 = Ditunaikan sedikit 4 = Ditunaikan 5 = Ditunaikan sepenuhnya				
1	Cuti anjal <i>Flexible leave</i>	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
2	Waktu anjal (waktu mula dan habis kerja yang anjal) <i>Flextime (flexible start and end time)</i>	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3	Keluar awal bagi urusan keluarga <i>Leave early to attend to family matters</i>	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
4	Menerima panggilan telefon berkaitan keluarga semasa kerja <i>Receive family-related phone calls while at work</i>	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
5	Menguruskan perkara berkaitan isi rumah semasa kerja (cth. Bayar bil dll) <i>Taking care of household-related tasks while at work (paying bills etc.)</i>	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

6	Pusat jagaan kanak-kanak dalam	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
	<i>Onsite childcare</i>										
7	Rujukan penjagaan kanak- kanak	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
	<i>Childcare referral</i>										
8	Kerja melalui telefon	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
	<i>Teleworking</i>										
9	Perkongsian tugas	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
	<i>Job sharing</i>										
10	Kerja dari rumah	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
	<i>Work from home</i>										
11	Beban kerja berpatutan	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
	<i>A reasonable workload</i>										

## Appendix B

### Standardized Regression Weights: (Group number 1 – Final Measurement model)

	Estimate
g4 <--- LOC	.843
g3 <--- LOC	.878
g2 <--- LOC	.919
g1 <--- LOC	.693
c8 <--- SE	.637
c7 <--- SE	.663
c5 <--- SE	.757
c4 <--- SE	.777
c1 <--- SE	.635
b4 <--- JS	.769
b3 <--- JS	.806
b1 <--- JS	.713
h3 <--- PA	.754
h2 <--- PA	.864
h1 <--- PA	.855
e4 <--- NA	.566
e3 <--- NA	.738
e2 <--- NA	.826
e1 <--- NA	.809
k7 <--- WFF	.662
k6 <--- WFF	.745
k4 <--- WFF	.739
k2 <--- WFF	.714
i4 <--- WIF	.599
i2 <--- WIF	.877
i1 <--- WIF	.705
N3b <--- wfpc	.920
N2b <--- wfpc	.878
N1b <--- wfpc	.839

## Appendix C

### Observations farthest from the centroid (Mahalanobis distance) (Group number 1)

Observation number	Mahalanobis d-squared	p1	p2
231	128.685	.000	.000
230	118.722	.000	.000
221	109.992	.000	.000
219	107.578	.000	.000
303	98.928	.000	.000
163	94.828	.000	.000
6	76.648	.000	.000
276	76.449	.000	.000
212	74.514	.000	.000
255	73.835	.000	.000
307	71.928	.000	.000
153	70.384	.000	.000
290	69.559	.000	.000
289	68.138	.000	.000
167	67.972	.000	.000
164	67.923	.000	.000
148	67.694	.000	.000
298	67.526	.000	.000
141	63.767	.000	.000
135	60.312	.001	.000
140	58.750	.001	.000
63	58.594	.001	.000
248	57.964	.001	.000
238	57.385	.001	.000
14	56.644	.002	.000
306	56.467	.002	.000
91	55.412	.002	.000
67	55.024	.002	.000
247	54.834	.003	.000
282	54.167	.003	.000
69	53.826	.003	.000
239	53.545	.004	.000
213	52.960	.004	.000
217	52.726	.005	.000
76	52.527	.005	.000
218	50.848	.007	.000
102	49.341	.011	.000
68	49.114	.011	.000

Observation number	Mahalanobis d-squared	p1	p2
96	48.503	.013	.000
34	48.296	.014	.000
186	48.160	.014	.000
36	47.358	.017	.000
197	46.905	.019	.000
35	46.777	.020	.000
215	46.506	.021	.000
31	45.897	.024	.000
223	45.861	.024	.000
224	45.751	.025	.000
214	45.462	.027	.000
216	45.451	.027	.000
52	45.412	.027	.000
73	44.876	.030	.000
85	44.695	.031	.000
253	43.015	.045	.000
61	41.973	.056	.000
83	41.345	.064	.000
228	41.299	.065	.000
144	40.848	.071	.000
132	39.817	.087	.000
101	39.782	.088	.000
199	39.732	.088	.000
120	39.597	.091	.000
113	39.558	.091	.000
10	38.780	.106	.000
111	38.722	.107	.000
117	38.683	.108	.000
251	37.840	.126	.000
109	37.835	.126	.000
139	37.793	.127	.000
21	37.688	.129	.000
222	37.241	.140	.000
229	37.241	.140	.000
232	37.241	.140	.000
7	37.228	.140	.000
246	36.543	.158	.000
38	36.496	.160	.000
70	36.208	.168	.000
162	36.096	.171	.000
242	35.970	.174	.000

Observation number	Mahalanobis d-squared	p1	p2
95	35.791	.180	.000
149	35.666	.183	.000
138	35.414	.191	.001
301	35.286	.195	.001
51	35.041	.203	.002
257	35.015	.204	.001
296	34.931	.207	.001
112	34.930	.207	.001
292	34.911	.207	.001
103	34.880	.209	.000
225	34.836	.210	.000
79	34.835	.210	.000
174	34.684	.215	.000
49	33.893	.243	.010
65	33.733	.249	.014
237	33.715	.250	.011
66	33.415	.261	.025
294	33.312	.265	.027
74	33.086	.274	.046
53	32.957	.279	.055
39	32.662	.292	.106



**Appendix D –surat**



## Appendix E

No.	Name of Company	Nature of business
1	ENERGY COMMISSION – SURUHANJAYA TENAGA	<b>ELECTRICITY</b>
2	TENAGA NASIONAL MALAYSIA BERHAD	
1	INDAH WATER KONSORTIUM SDN. BHD.	<b>WATER &amp; SEWAGE</b>
2	SYARIKAT PENGELUAR AIR SUNGAI SELANGOR SDN. BHD.	
3	SYARIKAT BEKALAN AIR SELANGOR BERHAD	
4	ALAM FLORA	
5	KUALITI ALAM	
1	PETRONAS BERHAD	<b>NATURAL GAS</b>
2	GAS MALAYSIA SDN. BHD.	
1	TELEKOM MALAYSIA BERHAD	<b>TELEPHONE SERVICES</b>
2	CELCOM BERHAD	
3	DIGI TELECOMMUNICATIONS SDN. BHD.	
4	GREEN PACKET BERHAD	
5	TIME DOTCOM BERHAD	
6	MAXIS BERHAD	
7	YTL CORPORATION	
8	U Mobile Sdn Bhd	
9	Electcoms Bhd	

## BIODATA OF STUDENT

Mardhiah binti Mat Jusoh was born on 17<sup>th</sup> August, 1988 in Kelantan. She had her primary education in Sekolah Kebangsaan Sri Kelewek, Kelantan. She then continued her secondary education in Sekolah Menengah Kebangsaan Dato' Mahmud Paduka Raja in Kelantan; Maktab Rendah Sains MARA Jeli; and Maktab Rendah Sains MARA Beseri in Perlis until 2005. She completed her tertiary education in the Malacca Matriculation in 2006. She earned an undergraduate degree in Bachelor of Science (Human Resource Development) from Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Skudai, Johor, Malaysia in 2010. She began pursuing her Master of Science in Human Resource Development at the Faculty of Educational Studies, Universiti Putra Malaysia in late 2010.

## LIST OF PUBLICATIONS

### Journals

Mardhiah, M. J., Aminah, A., & Zoharah, O. (2012). Mediating role of work-family psychological contract in the relationships between personality factors and job satisfaction. *Journal of Human Resource and Adult Learning*, 8(2), 60-64.

Mardhiah, M. J., Aminah, A., & Zoharah, O. (2014). The role of work-family psychological contract in the relationships between affectivity and job satisfaction. *Asian Social Science*, 10(2), 183-188.

### Paper Presentation

Mardhiah Mat Jusoh (2013). *The Role of Work-Family Psychological Contract in the Relationships between Individual Differences and Job Satisfaction*. Paper presented at the 6<sup>th</sup> International Conference of the Regional Education, organized by UKM–UR2013.