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Teachers’ Self-efficacy Beliefs, Self-esteem, and Job Stress as Determinants of Job Satisfaction

(Version accepted for publication)

Abstract

**Purpose** - The main aim of this research was to examine the role of teaching self-efficacy, perceived stress, self-esteem, and demographic characteristics (age, gender, education, and years of teaching experience) in predicting job satisfaction within a sample of 121 Irish primary school teachers. **Design/methodology/approach** – Survey data were collected from teachers from eight primary schools. Hypotheses were tested using a comparison of means, correlations, and multiple regression. **Findings** – Results indicated that the predictor variables accounted for 22% of variance in teachers’ job satisfaction. However, only perceived stress was found to explain unique predictive variance, with high levels of occupations stress related to low levels of job satisfaction. **Practical implications** – Perceived stress should be targeted in efforts to improve teachers’ job satisfaction. **Originality/value** – The results make an additional contribution to the literature by providing important information on the factors contributing to teachers’ job satisfaction in Ireland.

**Key words**: Teachers; Job stress; Job satisfaction; Self-efficacy; Self-esteem; Ireland
Introduction

Job satisfaction is defined as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences” (Locke, 1976, p.1304). Previous research indicates that job satisfaction is crucial, due to its associations with work performance, physical and mental health, and career decisions (Caprara, Barbaranelli, Borgogni, and Steca, 2003; Caprara, Barbaranelli, Steca, and Malone, 2006; Fritzschke and Parrish, 2005; Judge, Thoresen, Bono, and Patton, 2001; Skaalvik and Skaalvik, 2009). Teachers dissatisfied with their work display lower work commitment, negatively impact on student motivation through emotional contagion (Hatfield, Cacioppo, and Rapson, 1993), may fail to satisfy their student’s needs for autonomy and competence (Ryan and Deci, 2000; Klusmann, Kunter, Trautwein, Lüdtke, and Baumert, 2008), and are at greater risk of leaving the profession (Ingersoll, 2001).

Gender has frequently been examined as a predictor of teacher job satisfaction (e.g., Crossman and Harris, 2006; Ma and MacMillan, 1999; Michaelowa, 2002). However, the nature of this relationship remains unclear. Some studies report that female teachers are more satisfied in their work than male teachers (De Nobile and McCormick, 2008; Ma and MacMillan, 1999; Spear, Gould, and Lee, 2000); whereas, others (e.g., Bishay, 1996; Mwamwenda, 1997) report the opposite, or no association (e.g., Sargent and Hannum, 2005). Studies examining the relationship between age and job satisfaction have also reported conflicting results. Several studies have found a positive relationship between job satisfaction and age (e.g. Lee and Wilbur, 1985). Others suggest a U-shaped or non-significant relationship (Crossman and Harris, 2006; Mertler, 2002).

Contradictory evidence also exists regarding the relationship between years of teaching and job satisfaction. Gosnell (2000) found a negative relationship between years of teaching and job satisfaction.
teaching and job satisfaction; whereas, Bishay (1996) found a positive relationship. Several studies (e.g., Crossman and Harris, 2006; Dab, 1998; De Nobile and McCormick, 2008; Michaelowa, 2002) also suggest no experience-based differences in job satisfaction.

Teacher stress may be defined as “the experience by a teacher of unpleasant, negative emotions, such as anger, anxiety, tension, frustration or depression” (Kyriacou, 2001, p.28) which results from the occupation demands of teaching, as well as the degree of mismatch between these demands and an individual’s ability to cope with them. Stress among teachers is a widespread, and perhaps increasing, problem (Boyle, Borg, Falzon, and Baglioni, 1995; Chaplain, 2008; Kyriacou, 2001; Liu and Onwuegbuzie, 2012). One study found that up to one quarter of teachers perceive their occupation to be ‘highly stressful’ (Borg, 1990).

A substantial amount of literature suggests that the prolonged experience of occupational stress may lead to temporary and chronic illness, burnout (a state of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment; Maslach, 1993), reduced work commitment and performance (Abel and Sewell, 1999; Kokkinos, 2007), absenteeism, and may contribute to the decision to leave the profession (Jepson and Forrest, 2006; Kyriacou, 2001). Moreover, teachers’ job stress has been shown to directly, and negatively, influence job satisfaction (e.g., Chaplain, 1995; De Nobile and McCormick, 2006; Greenglass and Burke, 2003). Liu and Ramsey (2008), for instance, found that stress resulting from poor work conditions (inadequate time for planning and preparation and a heavy teaching load) had the strongest influence on teachers’ job satisfaction. High stress levels, however, are not an inevitable consequence of challenging conditions. Teachers with higher self-efficacy report greater resilience in the face of challenging teaching conditions than those with lower self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977, 1995).
Modest but persistent gender differences in job stress have generally been found (e.g., Antoniou, Polychroni, and Vlachakis, 2006; Chaplain, 2008; Greenglass and Burke, 2003), with female teachers reporting greater stress than male teachers, possibly due to higher overall workloads and greater conflict between work and family roles (Greenglass & Burke, 2003). However, some studies have failed to find gender-based differences in perceived stress (e.g., Jepson and Forrest, 2006).

Based on Bandura’s (1995) social cognitive theory, teacher self-efficacy has been conceptualised as “the extent to which the teacher believes he or she has the capacity to affect student performance” (Bergman, McLaughlin, Bass, Pauly and Zellman, 1977, p. 137). Teachers’ self-efficacy has been identified as an important source of motivation and commitment (Trentham, Silvern, and Brogdon, 1985; Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy, 2001), as well as a strong predictor of effectiveness. Teachers with higher self-efficacy have lower absenteeism (McDonald and Siegall, 1993) and are less likely to leave the profession (Burley, Hall, Villeme, and Brockmeier, 1991; Glickman and Tamashiro, 1982) than those with lower self-efficacy. Teachers with lower self-efficacy experience higher levels of job stress and greater difficulties in teaching (Betoret, 2006; Klassen et al., 2010). Teaching self-efficacy has also been found to relate to job satisfaction (Caprara et al., 2003; Chen, Goddard, and Casper, 2004; Skaalvik and Skaalvik, 2007), with teachers more likely to be satisfied with their work when they feel confident in performing their major work-related tasks or attaining their work-related goals (e.g., Skaalvik and Skaalvik, 2007; Vaezi and Fallah, 2011). Furthermore, enhancing teacher’s self-efficacy and self-esteem has a positive influence of diminishing stress (Vaezi and Fallah, 2011).

Self-esteem is generally used to describe a person's overall sense of self-worth and can involve a variety of beliefs about the self (Myers, 2007). High self-esteem is considered a fundamental aspect of personal well-being, happiness and adjustment (Brown, 1998; Diener,
Individuals with higher self-esteem are more satisfied with their lives, have fewer interpersonal problems, achieve at a higher and more consistent level, and are less susceptible to psychological problems (e.g., anxiety and depression) and physical illness (Brown 1998) than those with lower self-esteem. Although several studies have explored students’ self-esteem, few have investigated teacher self-esteem (Lee and Hirschlein, 1994). However, previous research indicates that teachers with higher self-esteem are likely to be happier and more effective in the classroom (Crane, 1974; Schultz and Hausafus, 1982), more likely to evaluate themselves accurately (Vukovich and Pfeiffer, 1980), and less stressed in their work (Schultz and Hausafus, 1982) than teachers with lower self-esteem.

As highlighted above, the role of self-esteem in predicting teacher job satisfaction has been neglected in the research literature, as have the factors contributing to teachers’ job satisfaction in Ireland. Moreover, there is a lack of consistency in relation to the relationship between demographic/teacher characteristics and job satisfaction. As such, self-esteem was incorporated with self-efficacy, perceived stress, and teacher characteristics to investigate the determinants of Irish primary school teachers’ job satisfaction.

The aims of this study were fourfold, namely to examine: (a) potential gender differences in job satisfaction, self-efficacy, self-esteem and perceived stress, (b) the relationship between self-efficacy, self-esteem and job satisfaction, (c) how perceived stress relates to teachers’ self-efficacy, self-esteem and job satisfaction, and (d) which of the predictor variables (self-efficacy, self-esteem, perceived stress, age, highest level of education, and years of teaching experience) best predicts job satisfaction.

**Method**

Given the findings of previous research, the following hypotheses were tested:
H1. There will be no significant difference between male and female teachers on job satisfaction, self-efficacy, self-esteem and perceived stress.

H2. There will be a positive relationship between self-efficacy, self-esteem and job satisfaction.

H3. Stress will negatively correlate with self-efficacy, self-esteem and job satisfaction.

H4. Self-efficacy, self-esteem, perceived stress, age, education, and years of teaching will significantly contribute to understanding teachers’ job satisfaction with self-efficacy as the strongest predictor of job satisfaction.

Participants

Participants were 121 primary school teachers (68% response rate) from eight Department of Education and Skills run primary schools in Dublin, Ireland. The demographic characteristics of participants are presented in Table 1.

(Insert Table 1 about here)

Procedure

Participants completed paper-and-pencil questionnaires, which they were asked to return to the lead researcher in a sealed envelope. Each participant was provided with a brief description of the study, including an indication of completion time (approximately 15 minutes). Participants were assured about the confidentiality of their participation and
informed that they could withdraw from the study at any time. Ethical approval for this study was granted by Dublin Business School Ethics Committee.

Measures

Fimian Teacher Stress Inventory (FTSI; Fimian, 1984). The FTSI is a 49-item measure of occupational stress, and assesses work-related stressors (e.g., time management, work-related stressors, and professional distress), as well as the manifestations of occupational stress (e.g., emotional, cardiovascular, and behavioural manifestations). Participants rate the strength of each of item on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). Cronbach’s alpha indicated good internal consistency (α = .91).

Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale (Woolfolk and Hoy, 1990) was employed to assess teachers’ confidence in performing their work-related tasks and fulfilling work-related goals. Participants in our study responded to the 22-item TSES (α = .76), using a 6 point scale (1 = Strongly Disagree to 6 = Strongly Agree), with higher scores indicating higher self-efficacy. Sample questions include; ‘When a student does better than usual many times it is because I exert a little extra effort’ and ‘When I try, I can get through to the most difficult students’.

Job Satisfaction Survey (Wellness Councils of America, 2004), was used to collect comprehensive information on the factors important to employees when assessing overall job satisfaction. Participants were asked to respond to 30 dichotomous (Yes = 1 and No = 0) items, with higher total scores reflecting higher levels of job satisfaction. Good internal consistency was found in the present study (α = .85).
The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES; Rosenberg, 1965) was used to assess teachers’ global self-esteem. The RSES is a 10-item self-report scale that requires participants to rate descriptive statements (e.g., “I take a positive attitude toward myself”) on a 4-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (“strongly agree”) to 4 (“Strongly disagree”). Scores can range from 10 to 40, with higher scores reflecting more positive evaluations of the self. The measure demonstrated good internal consistency in the present study ($\alpha = .83$).

**Results**

Descriptive statistics and Group differences

Descriptive statistics including means (M) and standard deviations (SD) for all variables are presented in Table 2, together with group differences (between male and female teachers) for perceived stress, self-efficacy, and self-esteem. Results indicate that participants had high levels of self-esteem (M = 32.30, SD = 4.56), moderate self-efficacy (M = 67.18, SD = 4.56), moderate perceived stress levels (M = 135.94, SD = 23.20), and high job satisfaction (M = 26.58, SD = 4.23). The Independent sample t-tests indicate no significant difference between male and female teachers on any of the study variables, which is consistent with the first hypothesis.

(Insert Table 2 about here)

Intercorrelations among self-esteem, self-efficacy, and job satisfaction were investigated using Pearson product–moment correlation coefficients (Table 3). Results indicate a weak, negative relationships between self-esteem and self-efficacy ($r = -.22$, $p < .05$) and a weak, positive relationship between self-esteem and job satisfaction ($r = .23$, $p < .05$). Self-efficacy and job satisfaction were not significantly related. Partial support for the second hypothesis,
which posited a positive relationship between self-efficacy, self-esteem and job satisfaction was, therefore, found.

(Insert Table 3 about here)

The relationships between perceived stress and self-efficacy, self-esteem and job satisfaction were also investigated using Pearson product–moment correlation coefficients (Table 3). Results indicate a weak positive association between perceived stress and self-efficacy \( r = .25, p < .01 \), a moderate negative association between perceived stress and self-esteem \( r = .43, p < .01 \) and a moderate negative relationship between perceived stress and job satisfaction \( r = .41, p < .01 \). These results, therefore, partially support the third hypothesis, which predicted that perceived stress will negatively correlate with self-efficacy, self-esteem and job satisfaction. Additionally, years of teaching experience was positively related to perceived stress \( r = .28, p < .01 \) and negatively related to job satisfaction \( r = .28, p < .01 \); while respondent age was positively related with perceived stress \( r = .23, p < .05 \) and negatively related to job satisfaction \( r = .20, p < .05 \).

Multiple linear regression was performed to assess the effect of the predictor variables (self-efficacy, self-esteem, perceived stress, age, highest level of education, years of teaching experience) on teachers’ job satisfaction. Preliminary analyses were conducted to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity.

Since no a priori hypothesis was made to determine the predictor entry order, a direct method was used for the multiple linear regression analysis. The full model explained 22% of variance \( R^2 = .17 \), \( F(6, 114) = 5.20, p < .01 \) in job satisfaction. As shown in Table 4, out of the six predictors included in the model, only perceived stress made a unique statistically significant contribution to the model \( \beta = -.35, p < .01 \). This indicates that teachers experiencing greater perceived stress are significantly less satisfied in their jobs that those experiencing less
perceived stress, controlling for all other factors in the model. The fourth hypothesis, that self-efficacy is the strongest predictor of job satisfaction was consequently unsupported.

(Insert Table 4 about here)

**Discussion**

Over the previous two decades, an extensive body of research has emerged on the factors that may help to explain or predict teacher job satisfaction (e.g., Judge and Church, 2000; Judge, Heller, and Mount, 2002). However, limited research has examined teachers’ job satisfaction in Ireland. Given the important influence of job satisfaction on teachers’ performance, commitment, and physical and mental wellbeing, the overall aim of the present study was to examine the factors influencing job satisfaction among Irish primary school teachers. To achieve this, we examined: (a) potential gender differences in job satisfaction, self-efficacy, self-esteem and perceived stress, (b) the relationship between self-efficacy, self-esteem and job satisfaction, (c) how perceived stress correlates with self-efficacy, self-esteem and job satisfaction, and (d) which of the predictor variables best predicts job satisfaction.

In support of the first hypothesis, the results indicate no significant differences in job satisfaction, self-efficacy, self-esteem and perceived stress between male and female primary school teachers. This is notable, as several studies have found that female teachers self-report greater teaching efficacy (e.g., Evans and Tribble, 1986), are more satisfied in their work (Ma and MacMillan, 1999; Michaelowa 2002; Spear et al., 2000), and experience greater occupational stress (e.g., Antoniou et al., 2006; Chaplain, 2008; Greenglass and Burke, 2003) than their male colleagues. While no significant gender differences in these variables were found, the results indicate that participants in this sample experience moderate stress, have high self-esteem and moderate self-efficacy, and are highly satisfied in their jobs. This
supports previous research (e.g., Borg and Falzon, 1989) indicating that teachers with moderate to high levels of job stress may still gain considerable satisfaction from their work.

Consistent with Pierce and Gardiner’s (2004) review of previous empirical studies, which found that individuals’ self-esteem formed around work and organisational experiences plays an important role in shaping job satisfaction, a small but significant relationship ($r = .22$) between self-esteem and job satisfaction was found. Consequently, support for the second hypothesis, which posited that teachers with higher self-esteem will be more satisfied in their work, was found. However, inconsistent with previous research (e.g., Caprara et al., 2003; Chen et al., 2004), no significant relationship between self-efficacy and job satisfaction was found. This suggests that teachers who are more satisfied with their work are not necessarily more confident in their own ability to complete work-related tasks and goals. As efficacy beliefs make an important contribution to job satisfaction and are believed to be relatively stable once formed, further research is needed to examine the factors which contribute to efficacy judgements and how such judgments are formed (Hoy and Woolfolk, 1990). Somewhat surprisingly, a weak negative correlation ($r = .23$) between self-efficacy and self-esteem was found. This suggests that teachers in this sample may believe that they can perform the behaviours necessary to produce a desired outcome but, at the same time, feel quite negatively about themselves generally (Passer and Smith, 2008).

Years of teaching experience was found to have a weak negative relationship with job satisfaction. This suggests that as the number of years teaching increases, job satisfaction decreases. Similarly, a weak negative association between age and job satisfaction was found. Both of these findings are in accordance with previous research (e.g., Perie and Baker, 1997; Poppleton and Risborough, 1991), which found that younger and less experienced teachers report higher levels of job satisfaction than their older and more experienced counterparts. The higher level of job satisfaction among less experienced teachers could be explained by
the ‘honeymoon period’ theory. This suggests that teachers early on in their careers embrace the challenges and opportunities that arise in teaching, and consequently experience greater job satisfaction (Schmidt, 1999).

Results indicate a weak positive association \((r = .25)\) between perceived stress and self-efficacy. This finding is unexpected and contradicts previous theoretical and empirical literature, which suggests that individuals with greater self-efficacy experience less stress in threatening or taxing situations, as a consequence of their beliefs about their ability to cope (Alden, 1986; Bandura, 1997; Chaplain, 1995; De Nobile and McCormick, 2005). Both Cadiz (1989) and Betoret (2006), for instance, found that teachers with higher self-efficacy were less stressed and more motivated and satisfied in their profession than those with lower self-efficacy. This result is concerning as the combination of higher stress levels with lower perceived efficacy to manage job demands may increase individuals’ vulnerability to burnout (Leiter, 1991). It also suggests that occupational stress may negatively affect the beliefs that teachers have about themselves (Beehr, 1995; Cherniss, 1998). A possible explanation for this finding is that teachers reporting higher teaching self-efficacy have greater expectations of themselves to perform effectively and successfully in their job roles. Consequently, they may carry out extra functions beyond the expected typical ones, set themselves higher goals, try out new teaching approaches, and put more time and effort into teaching and the preparation of teaching materials (Guskey, 1988; Stein and Wang, 1988). As a result, they may experience greater overall stress. Such an interpretation is consistent with Biggs (1988), who explains that individuals in helping professions are particularly prone to stress because of their idealistic goals.

As highlighted in the introduction, little research has examined the relationship between perceived stress and self-esteem among teachers. The results of the present study indicate a moderate negative \((r = -.25)\) association between these two variables. This is in line
with previous research examining the relationship between stress and self-esteem in undergraduate students (Abouserie, 1994), which showed that students with higher self-esteem are less stressed than those with lower self-esteem. This suggests that a reduction in teachers’ stress levels may be achieved by enhancing their self-esteem.

The analysis revealed that the set of predictor variables accounted for 22% of job satisfaction variance. However, of the six predictors included in the regression analysis, only perceived stress was found to explain unique predictive variance ($\beta = -.35$). Consequently, the fourth hypothesis, that the strongest predictor of job satisfaction would be self-efficacy, was not supported. This indicates that primary school teachers experiencing higher perceived stress are less satisfied in their jobs than those experiencing less stress. It also tentatively suggests that increased job stress may lead to decreased job satisfaction, which was suggested in previous research (e.g., Borg and Falzon, 1989). However, the present study does not prove causal directions; lower job satisfaction may result in an increase in perceived stress (a reciprocal relationship could also exist).

The non-significant relationship between self-efficacy and job satisfaction in the regression is again somewhat surprising. This is because previous research has generally found self-efficacy to be an important contributor to teachers’ job satisfaction (e.g., Caprara et al., 2003). However, the lack of self-efficacy’s effect on job satisfaction is in line with a previous study of teachers in Abu Dhabi (Badri, Mohaidat, Ferrandino, and Moudand, 2012), and suggests that teachers with greater confidence in their ability to perform work-related tasks and fulfil work-related goals may not be more satisfied with their work than those less confident in their own ability, when controlling for other variables. One possible interpretation of this finding is that the measure of teaching self-efficacy used in the present study was relatively broad, encompassing a variety of interpersonal and organisational skills. It may be that the breadth of this measure obscured relationships that might exist at a task-
specific, rather than domain level. In line with this, it has been argued (Bandura, 1977; Pajares, 1996) that more specific self-efficacy judgements provide greater information about how self-efficacy influences behaviour than more general judgements.

The findings must be interpreted in the context of several important limitations. First, our sample was restricted to teachers in one area of Ireland, and although a relatively large number of teachers responded to the survey, responses may not be representative of other samples of teachers in different settings. Consequently, replication of the study findings in more diverse samples and settings (e.g. different school settings, such as private, inner city, rural, and single gender) would be beneficial. Second, our study relied on retrospective self-report data, precluding any conclusions from being drawn about the temporal relations among the variables examined. It would, therefore, be valuable to use a prospective design to examine the relations among these variables in future studies. In particular, such a design could be used to examine the temporal ordering of teacher stress and job satisfaction, as well as determine whether job satisfaction reciprocally affects some of this study's independent variables. Fourth, while the results of this study suggests that perceived stress is the main predictor of job satisfaction, it unclear what the main sources of stress are for teachers (e.g., demands, control, relationships, change, role, or support; HSE, 2006). Finally, the present study examined only a limited range of constructs that potentially influence teachers’ job satisfaction, and the job satisfaction variance explained by these variables was modest. It is likely that job satisfaction is influenced by constructs not examined in the present study, such as locus of control, belongingness, social support, and coping.

Conclusion and Recommendations

This study provides valuable information on the factors influencing Irish primary school teachers’ job satisfaction, a population largely overlooked previously in the literature. More specifically, this study highlights the important influence of perceived stress on
teachers’ job satisfaction. Importantly, perceived stress is likely to be a modifiable variable that could be effectively targeted at an individual and/or organisational level to improve teachers’ work satisfaction (i.e., stress management, training, counselling, organisational restructuring, and job redesign). The results of the present study also provide a clear and important direction for future research: the qualitative exploration of the sources of teacher stress. A qualitative approach would allow for the in-depth exploration of the situational factors contributing to perceived stress, which could then be targeted by local educational authorities and school decision makers.

As self-efficacy did not independently relate to job satisfaction, and given the important consequences that stress has for biological and cognitive functioning, it is recommended that school decision-makers target perceived stress in their efforts to improve teachers’ job satisfaction. Although a range of strategies for preventing stress and promoting health and wellbeing in the workplace have been suggested in the literature, evidence of their efficacy or effectiveness is lacking (Biron, Karanika-Murray, & Cooper, 2012). Currently, a multi-pronged approach, as suggested by Cartwright and Cooper (1994) may be advisable for implementation in Irish primary schools. Specifically, Cartwright and Cooper recommend the combined use of primary (e.g., stress reduction), secondary (e.g., stress management), and tertiary (e.g., workplace counselling) techniques for managing occupational stress. The use of professional development opportunities to enhance teachers’ self-efficacy and, consequently, lower their job stress and increase their job satisfaction should also be considered. Given the positive relationship between self-efficacy and stress in the present study, helping teachers to set realistic goals and make fair self-assessments may also be beneficial in reducing stress.

The present study offers new and important information on the factors influencing Irish primary school teachers’ job satisfaction, and has clear implications for schools and future research. Significant bivariate relationships between self-esteem, perceived stress, and
job satisfaction were found. Importantly, however, the multiple regression analysis revealed that only one of these constructs, perceived stress, explained unique variance in teachers’ job satisfaction while controlling for covariates. Accordingly, it is recommended that school decision makers in Ireland focus their attention on perceived stress in their efforts to improve teachers’ job satisfaction (and improve their overall health and wellbeing), as efforts to increase teachers’ self-efficacy and self-esteem may not directly increase their job satisfaction.

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Table 1. Sample Demographics

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Table 2. Descriptive Statistics and Group Differences for Self-Esteem Self-Efficacy, Perceived Stress and Job Satisfaction.

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<td>Female</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>26.24</td>
<td>3.83</td>
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</table>

Table 3. Correlations between the predictor variables and teachers’ job satisfaction.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Years of Teaching Experience</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Age in Years</td>
<td>.86**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Highest Level of Education</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Self-Esteem</td>
<td>-.13</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Self-Efficacy</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.22*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Perceived Stress</td>
<td>.28**</td>
<td>.23*</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>-.43**</td>
<td>.25**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>-.28**</td>
<td>-.20*</td>
<td>-.13</td>
<td>.23*</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-.41**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Statistical significance:*p < .05; **p < .01
Table 4. Standard multiple regression model of predicting Irish primary school teachers' job satisfaction (N = 121).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>adj R²</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
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<td>.17</td>
<td>.01</td>
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<tr>
<td>Self-Efficacy</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Esteem</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Perceived Stress</td>
<td>-.35</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.43</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest Level of Education (years)</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Experience (years)</td>
<td>- .27</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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