

## **The Relationship between Body Image and Job Satisfaction**

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*This research investigated the hypothesis that body image predicts job satisfaction. Prior research has shown that body image impacts many areas of daily functioning; however there has been a dearth of research showing that body satisfaction is associated with satisfaction on the job. The study was conducted using a sample of 289 employed college students, who completed a measure of body image satisfaction and two measures of job satisfaction. The results showed body image predicted 11% of the variance in overall job satisfaction. This suggests improving body image could benefit individuals in all areas of their life, including job satisfaction.*

### **INTRODUCTION**

As the global economy is becoming more competitive, young adults are expected to seek a college education to ensure job security (Rosenthal, 1995). Not only are young adults expected to attain a college degree, they need to acquire a high level of technological knowledge, an understanding of the global economy, and an understanding of the self (Sullivan, 1999). Further, many young adults are also expected to seek employment while they pursue a college degree (Summers, 2010). Typically, jobs available to college students include retail positions, food services, and manual labor (Saks & Waldman, 1998). These types of jobs are typically blue collar, part-time positions that offer flexible working hours, low wages, and low opportunities for promotion (Brockner, 1992). However, these entry-level jobs potentially offer young adults an opportunity to learn and reflect on their own future career aspirations while they decide which major field of study matches their long-term trajectory (Robst, 2007). As student's balance work and school, is body image an important factor contributing to job satisfaction?

Body image refers to the feelings and perceptions one has about their body (Sheldon, 2010). Numerous studies have investigated the role of body image in daily life (Cash & Pruzinsky, 2002). Dissatisfaction with one's body image can negatively impact many facets of life for both men and women. For example, it has been associated with depression (Noles, Cash, & Winstead, 1985), low self-esteem (Mendelson, White, & Mendelson, 1997), feelings of shame (McKinley & Hyde, 1996), increased body surveillance (McKinley & Hyde, 1996), diminished quality of life (Cash & Fleming, 2002), eating disorders (Hutchinson, Jemmott, Jemmott, Braverman, & Fong, 2003), and sexual problems (Ackard,

Kearney-Cooke, & Peterson, 1999; Cash, Maikkula, & Yamamiya, 2004). However, little research has examined the role of body image in the workplace.

Much of the body image literature has focused on women, yet consequences of poor body image can negatively affect all employed persons. Focusing on women, Annis, Cash, and Hrabosky (2004) found overweight women were overly preoccupied with perceptions of the self. Persistent thoughts about binge eating, body surveillance, and body dissatisfaction resulted in heightened stressors, social anxiety, and depression. Consequently, these women were less satisfied with themselves and their overall quality of life. Based on the 2004 census report, approximately 65% of young adults were overweight or obese (Hedley et al., 2006). Both men and women experience problems stemming from being overweight at younger ages, yet males perceive obesity differently (Steen, Wadden, Foster & Andersen, 1996). Thus, additional research is needed to explore the benefits of job satisfaction among all workers.

In terms of positive outcomes, Shoham-Yakubovich, Carmel, Zwanger, and Zaltman (1989) found nurses' attitudes about professional self-image and job satisfaction increased in the midst of a physician strike. As the nurses' felt more secure in their own job, they felt more satisfied with their self and their job. Others have found that core self-evaluations, such as self-esteem, locus of control, self-efficacy, and levels of neuroticism were related to elevated levels of job satisfaction (Brown, Ferris, Heller, & Keeping, 2007; Judge, 2009) as well as positive sense of self (Annis et al. 2004; Shoham-Yakubovich et al., 1989). Therefore, empowered workers with a positive sense of self are reporting heightened levels of job satisfaction, yet the influence of body image on job satisfaction is absent from research.

Job satisfaction can be defined as "an affective response by an individual concerning his or her job that results from a comparison of actual outcomes with those that are expected, wanted, and needed" (Griffin et al., 2010, pg. 242). Assessing job satisfaction generally involves measuring global or general job satisfaction (Balzer et al., 2000) and/or measuring facet level job satisfaction, such as satisfaction with one's current pay, with the work itself, with promotion opportunities, with one's coworkers, and with supervision (Nelson & Quick, 2009; Judge, Hulin, & Dalal, in press). Although many researchers adhere to one of these two major strategies, it is worthwhile to consider both strategies simultaneously. While global job satisfaction provides meaningful information about employees' overall work place attitudes, facet level job satisfaction does not provide less meaningful information (Judge et al., in press). To further investigate job satisfaction in college students, both strategies were evaluated in the present study.

Many models of job satisfaction suggest that two general antecedents of job satisfaction exist: a) characteristics of the job or situation and b) aspects of the individual (Schleicher, Hansen, & Fox, 2010). The first factor states that those who hold jobs with higher wages and better working conditions are generally more satisfied than those who hold jobs with low wages and poor working conditions (Friend & Burns, 1977; Macklin, Smith, & Dollard, 2006; & Pearson, 1998). For example, job category (i.e., blue-collar versus white-collar), which is a significant predictor of job satisfaction, has differential prediction in job satisfaction (Friend & Burns, 1977; Macklin et al., 2006; & Pearson, 1998). The second factor, aspects of the individual, suggests the job is influenced by perceptions of the self and interpersonal relationships at work (Nelson & Quick, 2009). Consequently, the alignment between the situation (i.e., job characteristics) and the person is also a significant predictor of job satisfaction (Schleicher et al., 2010). Therefore, when characteristics of the situation (i.e., job category) match aspects of the employee, the individual is more likely to experience elevated job satisfaction (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005; Schleicher et al., 2010).

In a highly competitive economy, organizations are frequently using work groups, in which people work together to complete tasks (Jex & Britt, 2008). Regardless of job type, the current working climate promotes the use of intra-networking and social interactions. Based on Annis et al., (2004), a dissatisfied person is more likely to experience interpersonal stressors, which pose a threat to the working environment. For example, when a dissatisfied employee experiences an interpersonal conflict with a coworker, this individual is more likely to become defensive (Peeters, Buunk, & Schaufeli, 1995). This is not surprising, because coworker relations, an aspect of the environment, is an antecedent to job satisfaction (Schleicher et al., 2010). Additionally, when one suffers from social pressures, such as those from peers and the environment, one also experiences a lowered body image (Neumark-Sztainer et al.,

2006; Sheldon, 2010). Because individuals suffer from social pressures stemming from the work environment, it is necessary to examine one's body image in relation to workplace attitudes, especially when employees are directly interacting with many people.

The aim of the present research was to investigate the extent to which workers' body image is predictive of workers' satisfaction with their job. Because of the relatively large amount of time that individuals spend at work and the fact that body image impacts so many aspects of daily functioning, we hypothesized that those with the highest levels of body image would also be the most generally satisfied in the workplace. Specifically, hypothesis 1 predicted that body esteem, the quantification of one's body image (Sheldon, 2010), would predict general job satisfaction. Due to the fact our hypotheses have not been evaluated in previous literature, a psychometric analysis of our measures was evaluated prior to running regression analyses. Pulling from interdisciplinary research, four separate hypotheses were analyzed to explore the dimensions of the relationship between body image and job satisfaction (refer to Figure 1).

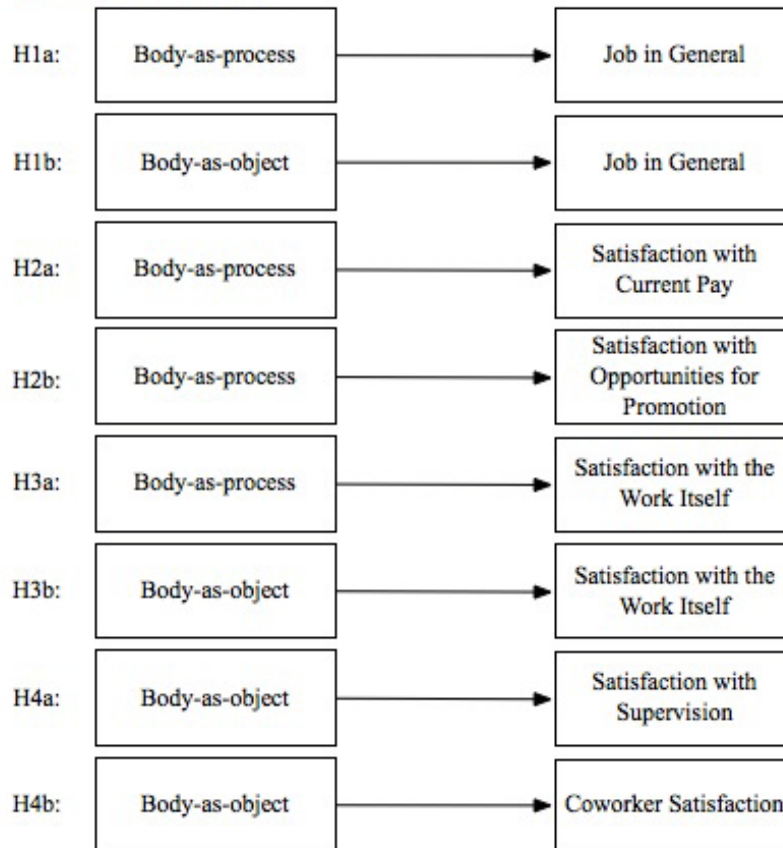
To further analyze the relationship between body image and job satisfaction, body image was evaluated in terms of body functioning and body part satisfaction. Franzoi (1995) has shown that body image is evaluated on the basis of body functions (body-as-process) and body parts (body-as-object). Specifically, an individual's body image is a combination of an appraisal of the body's instrumental functional capabilities plus an appraisal of their body as static beauty (Franzoi, 1995). *Hypothesis 1a* evaluated that body-as-process would predict general job satisfaction (JIG), and *hypothesis 1b* evaluated that body-as-object would predict general job satisfaction (JIG).

The body-as-process includes aspects of the body that are appraised based on the capabilities of the body parts functioning (Franzoi, 1995). The second hypothesis assessed whether body-as-process predicts facets of job satisfaction that are based on one's overall performance capabilities. Judge, Thoreson, Bono, and Patton (2001) argued that performance influences job satisfaction. Therefore, because employee performance information is used for promotion decisions and pay decisions (Milliman, Nason, Zhu, & De Cieri, 2002), *hypothesis 2a* stated that body-as-process predicts satisfaction with current pay. Additionally, *hypothesis 2b* stated that body-as-process predicts satisfaction with opportunities for promotion.

Bowling, Hendricks, and Wagner (2008) found that positive and negative emotions were related to job satisfaction with the work itself. Therefore, hypothesis 3 suggested that emotions regarding one's body would predict satisfaction with the work itself. More specifically, hypothesis 3 stated that body image evaluated as body-as-process, *hypothesis 3a*, and body-as-object, *hypothesis 3b*, would predict satisfaction with the work itself.

The body-as-object includes aspects of the body that are objectified by others based on beauty (Franzoi, 1995). Hypothesis 4 evaluated whether body esteem, measured as body-as-object, would predict facets of job satisfaction that are influenced by interpersonal interaction. *Hypothesis 4a* claimed that body-as-object would predict coworker satisfaction, while *hypothesis 4b* claimed that body-as-object would predict satisfaction with supervision. Regardless of sex and age, college students are equally experiencing threats to their body image, therefore these demographic aspects were used as control variables (Brush, Mooch, & Pooyan, 1987).

**FIGURE 1**  
**HYPOTHESIZED RELATIONSHIPS**



## METHOD

### Participants

The original sample consisted of 325 participants; however, 22 participants were removed from analyses, because they did not provide job information. Participants reported working in a wide range of jobs. Because previous literature has shown that job satisfaction is predicted by job category, participants' reported jobs were categorized as blue collar or white collar. Blue collar jobs included "craftsmen and kindred workers; operatives, except transport; transport equipment operatives; and laborers (except farm); farm, farm managers, farm laborers, and farm foremen; and service workers (including private household)" (Weaver, 1975, p. 168). White collar jobs included "professional, technical and kindred workers; managers, administrators (except farm), sales workers, and clerical workers" (Weaver, 1975, p. 168).

Three independent raters classified the reported job information into the blue collar/white collar dichotomy. The interrater reliability for coding the job information provided into job category was .83. After discussion regarding the differences in categorization, the raters agreed upon a classification for each participant's job information. Thus, interrater agreement increased to 100%. An additional 14 participants were excluded from analyses, because the job information provided did not allow for classification into one of the two job categories.

Participants were 289 students (136 men and 153 women) enrolled in psychology classes at a prominent Midwestern University, who ranged from 18 to 45 years of age ( $M = 19.64$  years,  $SD = 2.61$  years). Approximately 80 percent of the sample was White, 97 percent were heterosexual, and 93 percent

of the original sample was working while attending school. Additionally, the length of time a participant had worked at their current job ranged from 2 weeks to 20 years ( $M = 1.58$  years).

## Measures

Body image satisfaction was assessed using the Body Esteem Scale (BES) (Franzoi & Shields, 1984). The BES contained 35 items, each allowing participants to evaluate specific aspects of their physique on a 5-point scale (1 = *have strong negative feelings* and 5 = *have strong positive feelings*). This measure had three subscales for men (male physical attractiveness, male upper body strength, and male physical condition) and three subscales for women (female sexual attractiveness, female weight concern, and female physical condition). To obtain a score for either a male or female subscale, one would simply average the scores for only the subscale items for only the respective sex. However, because the scoring method does not allow for direct comparison of men's scores and women's scores, an alternative scoring procedure suggested by Franzoi (1995) was used. The alternative method was developed to allow for one to compare gender differences and categorizes items as either body-as-process items or body-as-object items. Body-as-process items referred to body parts that were evaluated in terms of what function it had and body-as-object items referred to body parts that were evaluated in terms of how it appeared (Franzoi, 1995). This study demonstrated high reliability for the two BES subscales. The body-as-process subscale had a reliability of .90, and the body-as-object subscale had a reliability of .93.

Job satisfaction was assessed using two measures. The first was the Job in General (JIG) questionnaire (Balzer et al., 2000). The 18 items of the JIG provides an overall assessment of job satisfaction. Participants responded to each item by marking Y "for 'Yes' if it describes your work", N "for 'No' if it does NOT describe it", or ? "for '?' if you cannot decide." Previous research has shown the scale to have a reliability of .92 (Balzer et al., 2000). This study demonstrated similar reliability of .91.

The second measure was the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) (Balzer et al., 2000). The JDI measured satisfaction employees had with their jobs. The JDI contained 72 items, consisting of five subscales: Present Pay, Opportunities for Promotion, Work on Present Job, Supervision, and Coworkers. Each facet measured specific diagnosable aspects of one's job. The Present Pay and Opportunities for Promotion subscales each contained nine items while each of the remaining subscales contained 18 items. The response for each item was Y "for 'Yes' if it describes your work", N "for 'No' if it does NOT describe it", or ? "for '?' if you cannot decide." Past research has shown the JDI to have acceptable subscale reliability coefficients of, .86 for Present Pay, .87 for Opportunities for Promotion, .90 for Work on Present Job, .91 for Supervision, and .91 for Coworkers (Balzer et al., 2000). This study showed similar, although slightly lower, reliabilities of .84, .85, .89, .86, .86, respectively. Demographic information was also collected from participants. Participants indicated the ethnicity to which they belong, their age, their gender, the length of time they have worked at their current job, and the job title or position of their current job.

## Procedure

The participants volunteered through SONA Systems, the university's online recruitment web site. On the SONA Systems site, the study was identified as an examination of the relationship between body image at work and job satisfaction. Once they gave consent, they submitted their responses to the Job Satisfaction and Body Image measures in the following order (i.e., JDI, JIG, BES, and demographic questions). Upon completion of the measures, the participants received course credit in exchange for their participation.

## RESULTS

### Preliminary Analyses

The present study was conducted to examine body image as a predictor of job satisfaction. Prior to running regression analyses, psychometric analyses were assessed to determine the reliability and validity of our data. First, all Cronbach alphas were similar to previous research, thus suggesting reliability among

our measures used in the study. The next step compared job satisfaction scores obtained in our sample to the normed data. It is worth noting that the job satisfaction scores obtained in this study were quite similar to the normed data for employed college students. For example, the median score on the JIG for the normed data was 42.00, and the median score for this sample was 42.00 (Balzer et al., 2000). Additionally, the students reported being satisfied with their job in general ( $M_{JIG} = 38.66$ ), pay ( $M_{Current Pay} = 32.11$ ), the work itself ( $M_{Work Itself} = 33.57$ ), supervisor ( $M_{Supervision} = 38.91$ ), and their co-workers ( $M_{Coworkers} = 38.93$ ). According to Balzer et al. (2000), scores well above 27 are indicative of satisfaction. Our preliminary analyses suggest both reliability and validity within our sample and measures.

### Regression Analyses

Descriptive statistics and zero order correlations between all variables are displayed in Table 1. To test the hypotheses, multiple hierarchical regression was conducted. Table 2 – Table 5 presents the results of the hierarchical regression.

**TABLE 1**  
**DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND INTERCORRELATIONS**

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Age	19.66	2.63										
2. Sex	.47	.50	.05									
3. Job Category	.50	.50	<b>.14</b>	-.06								
4. BES-Process	44.62	8.35	.01	<b>.27</b>	-.05							
5. BES-Object	58.33	11.35	.02	<b>.21</b>	-.03	<b>.78</b>						
6. Job in General	38.97	13.44	-.07	<b>-.13</b>	<b>.16</b>	<b>.20</b>	<b>.11</b>					
7. Current Pay	32.09	16.27	<b>-.21</b>	.01	.09	<b>.11</b>	<b>.13</b>	<b>.42</b>				
8. Promotion Opportunities	22.28	16.42	-.08	.01	.08	<b>.12</b>	.09	<b>.41</b>	<b>.38</b>			
9. Work Itself	33.88	13.63	.05	.00	<b>.15</b>	<b>.25</b>	<b>.18</b>	<b>.57</b>	<b>.23</b>	<b>.35</b>		
10. Supervision	39.08	12.57	-.08	-.03	<b>.16</b>	<b>.24</b>	<b>.13</b>	<b>.61</b>	<b>.40</b>	<b>.32</b>	<b>.35</b>	
11. Coworkers	39.23	12.15	-.03	<b>-.14</b>	<b>.22</b>	<b>.14</b>	<b>.17</b>	<b>.52</b>	<b>.27</b>	<b>.27</b>	<b>.35</b>	<b>.47</b>

Note. Sex: Female = 0, Male = 1. Job Family: Blue Collar = 0, White Collar = 1. BES-Process = Body Esteem Scale body-as-process, BES-Object = Body Esteem Scale body-as-object. Bolded values are significant at  $p < .05$ .

**TABLE 2**  
**HIERARCHICAL REGRESSION PREDICTING GENERAL JOB SATISFACTION**

Step and Predictor Variable	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	$\beta$
Job in General						
Step 1	<b>.22</b>	.05	<b>.05</b>			
Sex				-2.99	1.58	-.11
Job Type				-.43	.30	-.08
Age				4.53	1.59	<b>.17</b>
Step 2	<b>.33</b>	.11	<b>.06</b>			
Sex				-4.82	1.59	<b>-.18</b>
Job Type				-.42	.29	<b>-.08</b>
Age				4.76	1.54	.18
BES-Process				.55	.15	<b>.34</b>
BES-Object				-.13	.11	-.11

Note. Significant values are only indicated for the *R*,  $\Delta R^2$ , and the  $\beta$ , because the information is redundant. Bolded values are significant at  $p < .008$  (Bonferroni corrected *p*-value).

**TABLE 3**  
**HIERARCHICAL REGRESSION PREDICTING SATISFACTION WITH CURRENT PAY AND PROMOTION OPPORTUNITIES**

Step and Predictor Variable	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	$\beta$
JDI (Current Pay)						
Step 1	<b>.24</b>	.06	<b>.06</b>			
Sex				.99	1.90	.03
Job Type				3.93	1.92	.12
Age				-1.39	.36	<b>-.22</b>
Step 2	<b>.27</b>	.07	.02			
Sex				-.05	1.96	.00
Job Type				4.04	1.91	.12
Age				-1.40	.36	<b>-.23</b>
BES-Process				.09	.18	.04
BES-Object				.14	.13	.10
JDI (Promotion Opportunities)						
Step 1	.12	.01	.01			
Sex				.55	1.96	.02
Job Type				3.14	1.98	.10
Age				-.56	.38	-.09
Step 2	.18	.03	.02			
Sex				-.61	2.03	-.02
Job Type				3.28	1.97	.10
Age				-.56	.37	-.09
BES-Process				.27	.19	.13
BES-Object				.00	.14	.00

*Note.* Significant values are only indicated for the *R*,  $\Delta R^2$ , and the  $\beta$ , because the information is redundant. Bolded values are significant at  $p < .008$  (Bonferroni corrected *p*-value).

**TABLE 4**  
**HIERARCHICAL REGRESSION PREDICTING SATISFACTION WITH THE WORK ITSELF**

Step and Predictor Variable	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	$\beta$
JDI (Work Itself)						
Step 1	.15	.02	.02			
Sex				.09	1.62	.00
Job Type				4.02	1.63	.15
Age				.13	.31	.03
Step 2	<b>.31</b>	.10	<b>.07</b>			
Sex				-1.93	1.62	-.07
Job Type				4.26	1.58	<b>.16</b>
Age				.14	.30	.03
BES-Process				.51	.15	<b>.31</b>
BES-Object				-.05	.11	-.05

*Note.* Significant values are only indicated for the *R*,  $\Delta R^2$ , and the  $\beta$ , because the information is redundant. Bolded values are significant at  $p < .008$  (Bonferroni corrected *p*-value).

**TABLE 5**  
**HIERARCHICAL REGRESSION PREDICTING SATISFACTION**  
**WITH SUPERVISION AND COWORKERS**

Step and Predictor Variable	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	$\beta$
JDI (Supervision)						
Step 1	.19	.04	.04			
Sex				-.29	1.49	-.01
Job Type				4.31	1.50	<b>.17</b>
Age				-.52	.29	-.11
Step 2	<b>.34</b>	.12	<b>.08</b>			
Sex				-2.15	1.48	-.09
Job Type				4.55	1.44	<b>.18</b>
Age				-.51	.27	-.11
BES-Process				.61	.14	<b>.40</b>
BES-Object				-.18	.10	-.16
JDI (Coworkers)						
Step 1	<b>.26</b>	.07	<b>.07</b>			
Sex				-3.05	1.41	-.13
Job Type				5.33	1.42	<b>.22</b>
Age				-.25	.27	-.05
Step 2	<b>.34</b>	.11	<b>.05</b>			
Sex				-4.29	1.43	<b>-.18</b>
Job Type				5.47	1.39	<b>.23</b>
Age				-.26	.27	-.06
BES-Process				.09	.13	.06
BES-Object				.18	.10	.17

*Note.* Significant values are only indicated for the *R*,  $\Delta R^2$ , and the  $\beta$ , because the information is redundant. Bolded values are significant at  $p < .008$  (Bonferroni corrected *p*-value).

Because the meta-analytic findings of Brush et al. (1987) suggest that researchers examining job satisfaction should control for demographic variables, age and sex were entered in the first step. Additionally, previous research showed that job categories and organizational type are predictive of job satisfaction (Brush et al., 1987; Friend & Burns, 1977; Macklin et al., 2006; & Pearson, 1998). Thus, job category was also entered in the first step. Body-as-object and body-as-process scores on the BES were entered in the second step as predictors. Because there were six total a priori regression analyses, a Bonferroni correction was used to control for the family-wise error rate with a new significance level of .008 per analysis (.05/6).

A hierarchical regression analysis was conducted, controlling for age, sex, and job-type, with Body Image as the predictor variable and Job in General (JIG) as the outcome variable (see Table 2). As predicted in hypothesis 1, the addition of the body image terms, Body-as-process and Body-as-object, when used together were significant for general job satisfaction (JIG), accounting for 11% of the variance in JIG,  $F(5, 276) = 6.94$ ,  $MS_{residual} = 163.29$ ,  $p < .001$ . However, the BES subscales had differential value in predicting general job satisfaction. As suggested in hypothesis 1a, the BES subscale body-as-process was positively associated with general job satisfaction suggesting that job satisfaction increased with an increase in the evaluation of one's body as a process ( $\beta = .34$ ,  $p < .001$ ), while hypothesis 1b, the BES subscale body-as-object was not associated with general job satisfaction,  $\beta = -.11$ ,  $p = ns$ . Therefore, the first hypothesis, body esteem predicts job satisfaction, was partially supported.



The final regression models for hypothesis 2 showed that body image was positively associated with satisfaction with current pay ( $R^2 = .07$ ,  $F(5, 276) = 4.46$ ,  $MS_{residual} = 249.21$ ,  $p < .001$ ; see Table 3). However, neither evaluation of the body as a process or as an object was significant predictors after controlling for job category, sex, and age. Additionally, the final model predicting satisfaction with opportunities for promotion was not significant,  $R^2 = .03$ ,  $F(5, 276) = 1.76$ ,  $MS_{residual} = 265.88$ ,  $p = .12$ . Similar to the model for satisfaction with current pay, neither body image factor was a significant predictor after controlling for job category, sex, and age. Therefore, the second hypothesis was not supported.

The overall regression model for hypothesis 3 showed that body image was positively associated with satisfaction with the work itself ( $R^2 = .10$ ,  $F(5, 276) = 5.90$ ,  $MS_{residual} = 170.75$ ,  $p < .001$ ; see Table 4). Further, hypothesis 3a found body-as-process was a significant predictor of satisfaction with the work itself ( $\beta = .31$ ,  $p < .001$ ). However, body-as-object was not a significant predictor of satisfaction with the work itself ( $\beta = -.05$ ,  $p = .62$ ). Thus, the third hypothesis was only partially supported.

Lastly, the final regression models for hypothesis 4 showed that body image was positively associated with satisfaction with supervision ( $R^2 = .12$ ,  $F(5, 276) = 7.38$ ,  $MS_{residual} = 141.98$ ,  $p < .001$ ), and satisfaction with coworkers ( $R^2 = .11$ ,  $F(5, 276) = 7.10$ ,  $MS_{residual} = 133.21$ ,  $p < .001$ ; see Table 5). Results for hypothesis 4a found body-as-process to have an unexpected relationship with satisfaction with supervision ( $\beta = .40$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Further, hypothesis 4b found body-as-object only showed a trend in predicting satisfaction with supervision ( $\beta = -.16$ ,  $p = .07$ ) and satisfaction with coworkers ( $\beta = .17$ ,  $p = .06$ ). Therefore, hypothesis four was also partially supported.

## DISCUSSION

The results confirmed our hypothesis that worker's body image would predict job satisfaction with higher levels of body image predicting higher levels of job satisfaction. In the first hypothesis, body-as-process was a significant predictor to overall job satisfaction suggesting body functioning is an important factor when understanding job satisfaction. However, body-as-object was not a significant predictor in overall job satisfaction. Thus, when an individual's body is functioning well, they are more satisfied with their job. One interpretation of this finding is that when the body physically functions in a way enabling to better perform on their job, an individual will experience elevated levels of body image and job satisfaction. More importantly, these findings suggest satisfaction with body part appearance is of less importance when understanding the relationship between body image and job satisfaction. When controlling for age, sex, and job type, body image is an important aspect of overall job satisfaction.

The following hypotheses focused on the predictive value of body image on various facet levels of job satisfaction. In hypothesis 2, overall body image was positively related to current pay even though the body image subscales were not significant predictors of the overall model. In hypothesis 3, overall body image was positively related to satisfaction with the actual work itself. Consequently, body-as-process was positively related to satisfaction with the work itself. As one experiences higher levels of satisfaction resulting from the functioning of their body parts one also experiences high satisfaction with their work. Thus, when one's body enables an individual to perform their job well, the individual will be more satisfied with their body's functioning as well as with their work. Therefore, these findings support the assertion that the jobs college students secure while going to school do not provide much satisfaction with pay, however they are satisfied with the actual work they are doing. As previous stated in Bowling, Hendricks, and Wagner (2008), workers were happier with the job itself if they found the characteristics of the job satisfying. Furthermore, the findings from this study further support the importance of characteristics of the job, which could positively affect body image, thus positively affecting job satisfaction.

Lastly, hypothesis 4 found body image was predictive of satisfaction with supervision and coworkers. In addition, body-as-process was positively related to satisfaction with supervision. As a result, employees that are satisfied with their bodies functioning also report more satisfaction with their boss. Again, this suggests that when an individual is satisfied with the functioning capabilities and performance

of their own body, an individual will experience elevated satisfaction with their supervisors. Similarly, Judge, Thoreson, Bono, and Patton (2001) found job performance was indicative of job satisfaction. Therefore, this finding extends previous research to suggest body functioning is indicative of satisfaction with supervisor and overall job satisfaction. This finding should be evaluated further to assess the relationship between body-as-process, job performance, and job satisfaction.

Overall, body-as-object was not a significant predictor in any of the facet level aspects of job satisfaction. In addition, opportunities for promotion were not significant to the facet level hypothesis. On average, a college sample entering the workforce would be expected to have lower satisfaction with opportunities for promotion (Robst, 2007). Nevertheless, students generally reported satisfaction with their jobs. Thus, these findings suggest that students experienced positive affective reactions to their current jobs even though their jobs offered little opportunity for promotion. Additional research is needed to further assess the idiographic aspects of the students, such as personality characteristics and future career aspirations. As college students evaluate their career options and choose a major, it is important to understand the effects of body image, because generally, as people age, they will become more dissatisfied with their bodies (Algars et al., 2009). As hypothesized, the findings of this study were consistent with prior research stating job satisfaction was influenced by personal characteristics (Judge, 2009).

Due to the fact body-as-process was a significant predictor to overall job satisfaction, employers should consider implementing health promotion programs and incentives. When the workplace provides a setting for health promotion and prevention programs, employers may find that by implementing programs that improve employees' body image, as related to functioning, they may have the added impact of improving employees' job satisfaction (Cusack, 2000). Contrary to the findings from this study, meta-analytic findings of Barrick, Shaffer, and DeGrassi (2009) show that physical appearance and self-presentation tactics are related to job performance. Thus, by promoting a positive sense of self and body image among employees, both the organization and the employee may increase mutual satisfaction.

The primary limitation was that this study did not directly measure BMI or self-esteem. However, although it has been shown that BMI is related to many aspects of overall health and mental health (Siegel, Yancey, Aneshensel, & Schuler, 1999), body image satisfaction has been shown to at least partially mediate the relationship between BMI and depression, self-esteem, psychological distress, and eating disorders (Friedman, Reichmann, Costanzo, & Musante, 2002; Kakeshita & Almeida, 2008; Van den Berg, Thompson, Obremski-Brandon, & Covert, 2002). Thus, it may not be necessary to assess BMI when assessing the relationship between body image and job satisfaction, because the relationship between BMI and job satisfaction would be expected to be weaker than the relationship between body image and job satisfaction. In addition, the results of this study found body-as-object was not a significant predictor to job satisfaction. This finding suggests the person's appraisal of their self is more important to their job satisfaction than how they are perceived by others, thus suggesting BMI may not be an important measure. Additional research is needed to further evaluate this finding.

In addition, self-esteem should be measured in future studies, because it may mediate the relationship between body image and job satisfaction. Body image has been shown to be related to and predictive of self-esteem (Connors & Casey, 2006; Franzoi & Herzog, 1986; Franzoi & Shields, 1984; Molloy & Herzberger, 1998). Additionally, it has been found that core-self evaluations are significantly related to job satisfaction (Brown et al., 2007; Judge, 2009). Because self-esteem is a facet of core-self evaluations (Judge, 2009), self-esteem may mediate the relationships found in this study. Future research is needed to assess whether self-esteem acts as a mediator.

Additional limitations of this study were related to the homogeneity of the sample and job category classifications. Because this sample was predominately White, heterosexual college students, the results may not generalize to other populations. Few students work in fulltime professional occupations, therefore the findings from this study contribute to the understanding of young adult's career aspirations, however the results are somewhat limited to the college years. Subsequent research should assess the effects of body image on job satisfaction across demographic factors, to include sexual orientation and ethnicity.

Additional research is needed to further assess potential moderators in this relationship such as personality factors. For example, an introverted employee may have a good body image, yet prefer to work in an isolated environment. Similarly, an extroverted employee may have a good body image, yet prefer to work alone on projects because of another personality trait. Therefore, the intersections of personality, body image, and job satisfaction could potentially predict long-term job satisfaction and retention (Fischer & Sousa-Poza, 2007). The addition of a personality assessment to this exact research study could be a beneficial tool to students and college counselors when they are deciding on a major of study.

Future research could also investigate the relationship between body image and job satisfaction across the lifespan. Research has shown that as people age, they will become more dissatisfied with their bodies (Algars et al., 2009). It is possible that the lowered body image among older adults would be related to reductions in job satisfaction. In the coming decades, it may become useful to understand the relationship between body image and job satisfaction, as the average age of the general population and, consequently, the workforce increases.

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