



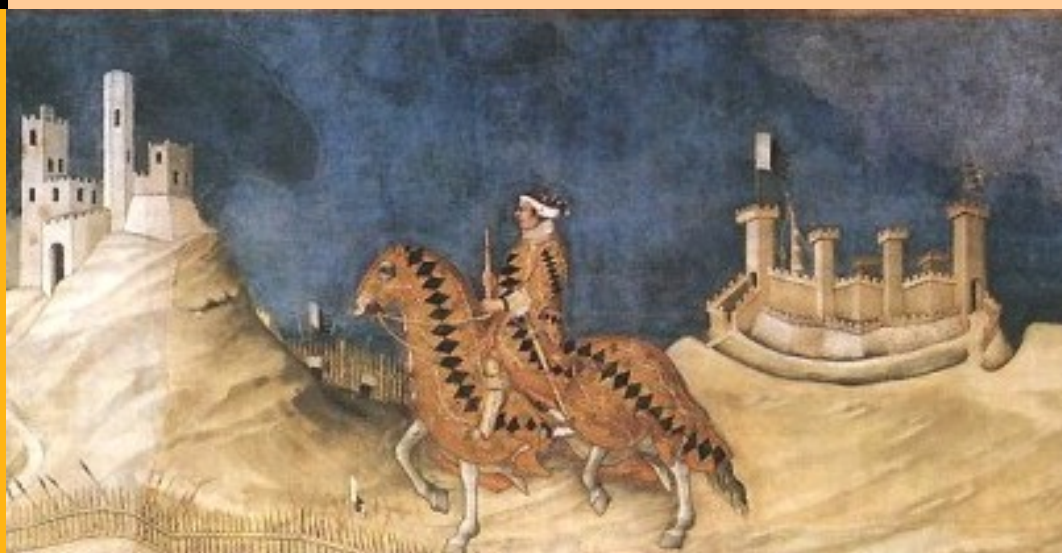
UNIVERSITÀ
DI SIENA
1240

**QUADERNI DEL DIPARTIMENTO
DI ECONOMIA POLITICA E STATISTICA**

**Simona Cicognani
Martina Cioni
Marco Savioli**

The secret to job satisfaction is low expectations:
How perceived working conditions differ from actual ones

n.749 – Marzo 2017



The secret to job satisfaction is low expectations: How perceived working conditions differ from actual ones

Cicognani, Simona[♦] Cioni, Martina[♥] Savioli, Marco[♠]

Working conditions exert a major influence on accidents and illnesses at work as well as on job satisfaction and health, yet very little research has examined the determinants of working conditions. By exploiting the Italian Labour Force Survey, this paper provides evidence on the underlying factors affecting working conditions. It provides a behavioural interpretation of the results, which stems from the discrepancy between *actual* and *expected* working conditions. Workers declare their *perceived* working conditions influenced by the difference between the actual and the expected working conditions. Variables concerning personal characteristics, such as gender, education and being employed in the first job, shift expectations about working conditions and accordingly perceived working conditions. On the contrary, variables related to work characteristics, such as working full time, with shifts and in a large place, affect actual and thus perceived working conditions (negatively).

Keywords: Working conditions; Expectations; Perceptions; Actual conditions; Job satisfaction

JEL classification: D84, J24, J28

Acknowledgements: We thank Tiziano Arduini, Alessandro Buccioli, Tiziano Razzolini and seminar participants at the Department of Economics, University of Bologna, at the 2016 Annual Congress of the Italian Economic Association and at the 2017 ALP-POP International Population Conference. The usual disclaimers apply.

[♦] Corresponding author: Simona Cicognani. Postal address: University of Verona, Department of Economics, Via Cantarane 24, 37129 Verona, Italy. Email: simona.cicognani@univr.it.

[♥] Department of Economics and Statistics, University of Siena, Piazza S. Francesco 7, 53100 Siena, Italy, cionimart@unisi.it.

[♠] Department of Economics, University of Bologna, Italy and RCEA, via Angherà 22, 47921 Rimini, Italy, m.savioli@unibo.it.

1. Introduction

In the past decades, labour economics research has demonstrated the influence of working conditions on a number of issues, such as the probability of experiencing job accidents and illnesses in the workplace as well as workers' job satisfaction, health and quality of life more generally. For instance, a recent article on work safety by Cioni and Savioli (2016) highlights that poor working conditions are among the major determinants of accidents and illnesses at work. Indeed, working conditions are usually treated as independent variables that affect different variables, ranging from self-assessed health or psychological well-being (Loscocco and Spitze, 1990; Robone et al., 2011) to work safety (Cioni and Savioli, 2016) or wages (Hersch, 1991; Poggi, 2007; Fernandez and Nordman, 2009).

Despite the sizeable empirical literature that provides insights into and evidence on working conditions as factors influencing the aforementioned issues, no work so far investigates the determinants of working conditions, hence treating working conditions as a dependent variable. The only exception is the research by Askenazy and Caroli (2010), who study the impact of new work practices and ICT on a number of indicators of working conditions, which are considered as separate dependent variables. Their results show that new practices are related to higher mental strain and that ICT tends to reduce injuries in the workplace. Understanding the factors that determine working conditions may lead to better-targeted public policies, which also affect important issues such as work accidents/illnesses, health and quality of life, all of which are strictly connected to the productivity of work (Alavinia et al., 2009; Fink and Masiye, 2015).

This paper seeks to fill this gap in the literature by investigating the determinants of working conditions and providing the first theoretical modelization and empirical validation of workers'

perceptions of working conditions. To do so, we focus on Italy, a considerable country of the European Union in terms of both GDP and population, using data from the 2007 Italian Labour Force Survey. In this specific year, the survey contained a special *ad hoc* section on working conditions, in which workers were asked to state whether they faced risk factors. Accordingly, our argumentations will be presented in terms of poor working conditions and the results will simply be read in the opposite direction to reflect the literature about working conditions. Having data from 2007 allows us to investigate the pre-crisis labour dynamics, which were not affected by workers' worsened perceptions of working conditions due to the Italian recession that started in 2008. The contribution of the paper is twofold: we explain the role of working conditions by analysing their determinants and we provide a behavioural explanation of how working conditions can be perceived by workers.

A clear definition of working conditions is still lacking in the literature, since very different concepts are used interchangeably. Robone et al. (2011) consider as working conditions promotion and annual wage increment opportunities as well as having a managerial/supervision role, working outside regular office hours and being subject to unpaid overtime. Other studies, such as those by Hersch (1991) and Askenazy and Caroli (2010), also take into account mental strain factors, occupational risks (e.g. risk of a serious fall, electricity risk, etc.) and occupational injuries. More in line with the latter contributions, we use a broad concept of working conditions, encompassing both physical and psychological risk factors, which are self-assessed by workers.

In several studies, working conditions are measured using self-reported answers. This is not necessarily a negative trait, considering that, according to many ergonomics experts, working conditions cannot be defined independently of workers' characteristics (Burchell et al., 2009).

Indeed, working conditions are affected by personal and cultural features as well as by objective working conditions (Eurofound, 2012). Based on this reasoning, the actual (objective) working conditions and the expectations regarding them may present a discrepancy (Poggi, 2010). This discrepancy originates the perceived working conditions, which are those declared by individuals and captured in surveys. Following this argument, the main hypothesis of this paper is that the same actual working conditions can be perceived differently by workers according to their personal characteristics. Variables that are unambiguously related to actual work characteristics, such as the sector of activity, the level of occupation, the size of the establishment and working full time, with shifts or with overtime hours are considered to affect working conditions through the actual channel (Muñoz de Bustillo and Fernández-Macías, 2005). Once the actual characteristics of the work environment are controlled for, we assume that the personal characteristics of the individual (i.e. gender, education and being employed in the first job, among others) exert their effect through the expected working conditions. More precisely, the actual characteristics of the work environment also determine expectations. Expectations in this paper are treated as extra expectations, meaning that they measure the distance from the expectations which a well-informed fully rational individual would have about her/his job. In light of this distinction, we envisage an expectation dimension that should be accounted for the personal characteristics of the individual and that stems from the reference point theory of Kahneman and Tversky (1979) and the disappointment theory of Bell (1985), that was tested by Van Dijk et al. (2003).¹

As postulated by Bell (1985), two consequences with the same outcome can accrue different utility levels if we consider the actual outcome compared with the prior expectations. The reference point

¹ A clear distinction of the variables involved in the empirical analysis between the variables driving the actual working conditions (work characteristics) and the variables acting on expectations (personal characteristics) is depicted in Table A1 of the Appendix.

is explicitly considered as the agent's recent expectations about the relevant outcomes by Kőszegi and Rabin (2006), who model expectations as rational expectations. In this case the agent's utility function is composed of two terms: a consumption utility term, which reflects the classical outcome-based utility, and a gain-loss utility term, which is the difference between the consumption utility and the reference point. The same line of reasoning can be applied in the context of working conditions, in which expectations about working conditions interplay with actual working conditions. In this respect the seminal work of Clark (1997) is the first to propose a central role played by expectations in shaping workers' job satisfaction, focusing on the so-called "gender-job satisfaction paradox": women face on average worse working conditions than men but report higher job satisfaction levels than their male counterparts.² The explanation provided by Clark is based on the well-being of workers related to their job expectations. From this perspective, since women are often secondary earners and highly involved in home production and since their working conditions are generally worse than men's, they hold lower expectations towards their job than men. This explanation is supported by the fact that women who are supposedly characterised by higher expectations (such as those in managerial positions or with mothers in a professional job) do not report a higher level of job satisfaction with respect to their male colleagues. According to Clark's hypothesis, as soon as women are emancipated, the gender-job satisfaction gap will decrease. This hypothesis is empirically tested by Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza (2003) on 10 waves of the British Household Panel Survey (1991–2000). The gender-job satisfaction paradox appears to be transitory, as the data suggest that it has halved over the decade, driven primarily by a decline in women's job satisfaction.

² See also Zaleznik et al. (1958).

In the data set considered in this article, a variable that unambiguously refers to expectations of working conditions is fixed-term contract wanted, which indicates a worker who has a fixed-term contract and declares him- or herself to aspire to this specific work arrangement. Conversely, fixed-term contract non-wanted indicates a worker with a fixed-term contract who declares that he or she would prefer a permanent contract. It is clear in this case that the two types of individuals differ only in terms of aspirations. On top of this clear-cut variable, following Muñoz de Bustillo and Fernández-Macías (2005),³ we assume that all the variables relating to workers' personal characteristics exert an influence on their expectations of working conditions. For instance, education is certainly among the variables exerting an effect on the worker's expectation dimension: we believe that a higher education level allows the worker to approach her job with higher expectations regarding working conditions or makes the worker aware of the long-term consequences of poor working conditions. Therefore, job satisfaction declines with the level of education (see also Clark and Oswald, 1996 and Sloane and Williams, 2000). In addition, being in the first job can affect expectations about working conditions, lowering them and hence improving the perceived working conditions. Indeed, the agent's recent expectations about the relevant outcomes determine a different reference point for workers in their first job (Kőszegi and Rabin, 2006). Long job tenure, on the other hand, provides workers with capital of experience that allows them to have a more robust perception of the working conditions. Regarding age, Schwandt (2016) shows that well-being (life satisfaction) follows a U-shape over age by means of expectations. In our case, even though a higher age may make working loads seem heavier and hence worsen perceived working conditions, it may also engender experience, which helps to provide a more precise perception of working conditions (Burchell et al., 2009).

³ According to Muñoz de Bustillo and Fernández-Macías (2005, p. 664), indicators of job expectations encompass age, sex, education and experience of unemployment.

We envisage two context variables that can be ascribed to the personal sphere of the worker as important drivers of expectations of working conditions: the unemployment rate and the unionisation index at the regional level. The expectations in this case originate in relation to a local context, characterised by reference groups. For instance, the higher the unionisation index, the greater the awareness of workers' rights and consequently the higher the expectations of working conditions. In this case the expectations would spread through the social context. According to Cahill et al. (2015, p. 40):

... the information individuals glean about the economic context may shape attitudes and intentions, such as job and career satisfaction, career plans, turnover intentions, retirement intentions, psychological well-being and assessments of work–life balance.

They highlight the role of macroeconomic conditions, such as the unemployment rate, in influencing workers' job satisfaction and expectations. More specifically, a higher unemployment rate may lead workers to have lower expectations of working conditions, and to be less selective in their work choice.

A somewhat related concept to working conditions is job satisfaction, which is usually self-measured by workers on a Likert scale. Working conditions refer to specific sub-categories of the working environment and can therefore be conceived as the determinants of job satisfaction. Indeed, several contributions in the medical and psychological literature reveal that job stress, arising from working conditions, is associated with job dissatisfaction and negative mental well-being (Cooper et al., 1989; Travers and Cooper, 1993). Job satisfaction is the part of overall life satisfaction that can be ascribed to work and represents an important factor for understanding individuals' well-being (Dolan et al., 2008). Consequently, we consider job satisfaction as the

separable part of an individual's utility stemming from work, as is common practice in the literature on life satisfaction (Frijters, 2000; Clark and Etilé, 2011).

Our findings indicate that working full time, overtime, with shifts and in a large place, which concern the work characteristics, negatively affect the actual working conditions. Moreover, the variables concerning personal characteristics determine the expected working conditions influencing the perception of the actual working conditions.

The paper is organised as follows. Section 2 presents the theoretical specification. Section 3 describes the data set used and provides some descriptive statistics. Section 4 reports the methodology adopted in the empirical analysis and the results. Finally, Section 5 concludes with a discussion of the results.

2. Theoretical specification

It is useful to formalise the preceding arguments with a simple theoretical specification in which we indicate how the perception of working conditions can result. To be consistent with our empirical estimations, in which workers' statement about whether they face risk factors is employed, we now turn to thinking in terms of bad working conditions. Specifically, we can envisage the individual utility function as:

$$u \left[\underbrace{\widetilde{bwc}}_{-}, \underbrace{bwc^*}_{+} (\underbrace{fe}_{+}, \underbrace{ed}_{-}) \right] = u \left[\underbrace{bwc}_{-} \right] \quad (1)$$

where $-$ and $+$ indicate the sign of partial derivatives and u stands for utility, \widetilde{bwc} for actual bad working conditions, bwc^* for expected bad working conditions and bwc for perceived bad working conditions; fe and ed , indicating respectively being female and the amount of acquired education,

are two illustrative independent variables affecting expectations with opposite signs. On the right-hand side of Eq. (1), the utility function is expressed in terms of perceived bad working conditions, bwc , which are captured by the survey responses. In line with Kőszegi and Rabin (2006), who model a gain–loss utility term as the difference between the consumption utility and the reference point, we can assume that perceived bad working conditions are given by the difference between actual, \widetilde{bwc} , and expected, bwc^* , bad working conditions. The latter are assumed to be a function of variables related to personal characteristics, such as being female and education, which shift expectations of bad working conditions upwards and downwards, respectively.⁴

Agents' utilities are latent and cannot be observed. The same applies to actual bad working conditions. Therefore, our identification strategy will not be to find an empirical counterpart of Eq. (1), i.e. an empirical model for job satisfaction, but to explain the perceptions (and declarations) of bad working conditions, which are narrower in scope and more easily identified by workers. By focusing on the determinants of the utility function illustrated by Eq. (1), the perceived (and declared) bad working conditions can be expressed as:

$$bwc \left[\underbrace{\widetilde{bwc}(W) - bwc^*(\underbrace{fe}_{+}, \underbrace{ed}_{-}, P)}_{+} \right] = f \left[\underbrace{fe}_{-}, \underbrace{ed}_{+}, W, P \right] \quad (2)$$

where W, P are work and personal characteristics; $f[.]$ is a function (which is estimated in Section 4); and $-$ and $+$ indicate the sign of the partial derivatives, which are solved on the right-hand side of Eq. (2) and are tested in the estimations.

⁴ Note that the concavity/convexity of the utility function around the reference point is not an issue inasmuch as the function is monotone in its arguments. What is important is that the signs of the first-order partial derivatives do not change along the utility function.

It is important to recall that in our case utility refers only to job satisfaction and not to other life occurrences. The difference in survey responses represents a real difference in utility from perceived bad working conditions, bwc . Nevertheless, the paradox of counterintuitive signs of derivatives is solved by considering the importance of expectations in bad working conditions, bwc^* . Those who expect higher levels of bad working conditions, like women, will be more satisfied with any given level of actual bad working conditions, \widetilde{bwc} (see Eq. (1)), and will declare lower perceived bad working conditions (see Eq. (2)). The opposite applies to more educated workers.

Since higher levels of education are associated with less satisfied workers, workers with high ed deem a lower level of bad working conditions, bwc^* , to be fair. fe workers, on the contrary, have a worse past and present context of work to which they would have adapted and to which they refer (higher bwc^*). Again, since Eq. (1) is not observable, we can only test its validity by measuring and empirically estimating Eq. (2). More specifically, by using data on bwc , fe , ed , W and P , we will validate our theoretical predictions with empirical estimations.

3. Data

Our analysis is based on data from the Labour Force Survey carried out by Istat, the National Institute of Statistics of Italy. The data set is entirely comparable with those collected in other EU countries.⁵ It refers to the second quarter of 2007, when an “ad hoc” module devoted to safety and health at work was added to the standard information contained in the Istat Labour Force Survey. The 2007 survey collected various kinds of information on workers’ personal and work characteristics and especially on bad working conditions. In particular, the “ad hoc” module

⁵ Istat collects the information each quarter by interviewing a sample of nearly 77,000 households (approximately 300,000 in one year), representing 175,000 individuals who are Italian residents.

includes information on workers' exposure to seven different health risk factors. These seven risk factors encompass both physical and psychological factors and thus offer a good representation of the bad conditions in the workplace. In the empirical estimations, we consider these factors as good proxies for different aspects of bad working conditions, and we explain: (i) bad working conditions: a composite variable defined simply as the sum (normalised from 0 to 1) of each of the seven dichotomous indicators of exposure to health risk factors; (ii) each singular factor and (iii) bad physical working conditions, bad psychological working conditions: two composite variables considering the (normalised) sum of only physical or psychological factors, respectively. The physical risk factors refer to: exposure to dust, fumes or chemicals; exposure to excessive noise or vibration; bad posture induced by work requirements and movement of heavy loads; and exposure to a general risk of injury. The risk factors that refer mainly to the psychological balance of workers include: excessive workload; phenomena of bullying or discrimination; and exposure to threats or physical violence.

The data set includes only micro-data of employees with open-ended and fixed-term contracts, excluding individuals with other kinds of labour relations and unemployed individuals. Thereby, the observations have a high degree of homogeneity and comparability. To enrich the analysis, we added information on the 2007 second-quarter unemployment rate drawn from Istat's "Conti economici regionali" (regional economic accounts), and we computed a unionisation index at the regional level as the ratio between the number of employees who are members of one of the three biggest Italian labour union confederations (CGIL, CISL and UIL) and the total employed Italian population.⁶

⁶ In line with Poggi (2007), we consider as the numerator of the unionisation index the sum of employees who are members of the three main union confederations in Italy, thus excluding retired members. This is due to the great variety of retired members across the different confederations, whose membership levels differ to a large extent across

Table A1 in the Appendix contains a brief description of each variable employed in the analysis. We divide the explanatory variables into two groups: work and personal characteristics. Among the work characteristics, we consider working time (dummy variables for full-time work, overtime hours and shift work), the size of the place of work (a dummy variable indicating more than ten workers at the place of work)⁷ and the main activity sector of the firm (grouped into the categories agriculture, industry, construction, retail and other activities). Moreover, the specific kind of job performed by the employee is controlled for by eight categories, ranging from executive or intellectual occupations to unskilled occupations. The personal characteristics encompass gender, birthplace (Italy or abroad), age, marital status and type of contract (fixed-term vs. open-ended contract). Among others, and following previous works (Clark and Oswald, 1996; Sloane and Williams, 2000), we consider the following as human capital indicators and hence personal characteristics: months of current job tenure, first job, years of education and recent educational activity. Quadratic terms for the numerical variables are introduced into the regressions to control for non-linearities in their effects. Finally, the inclusion of the unemployment rate and unionisation index allows us to capture specific socio-economic geographical information that can affect workers' reporting of bad working conditions.

The data set contains 42,198 workers. The average worker in the sample is 41 years old, has tenure of about 10 years and has completed high school education. Moreover, the vast majority of workers have full-time work (85%), work in medium–large places (72% in places of work with more than 10 workers), are not a foreigner (93%) and are married (60%). Only a minority of individuals work

Italian regions. As the denominator, we use the total employed population to have a more precise measure of the percentage of employed individuals – the actual individuals exposed to bad working conditions – who are affiliated with a union confederation.

⁷ Since Italy is characterised by a vast majority of small–medium enterprises, ten workers in a typical place of work is a meaningful threshold that can be considered too small in other industrial economies (see, e.g., Bartelsman et al., 2003).

overtime hours (8%), perform shift work (22%), have a fixed-term contract (14%) and have recently participated in educational activities (5%).

Table 1 reports the summary statistics of the variables used in the analysis. The kernel estimation in Figure 1 presents the distribution of bad working conditions, showing that the majority of workers report no or few bad working conditions.

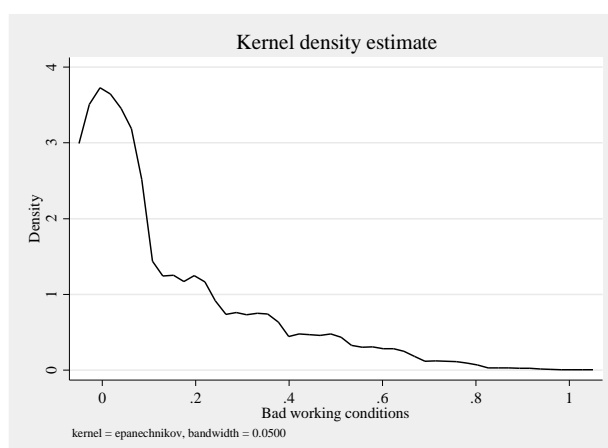
Table 1 – Descriptive statistics

	Type	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Independent variables					
Work characteristics					
<i>Full-time work</i>	D	0.85	0.35	0	1
<i>Overtime hours</i>	D	0.08	0.28	0	1
<i>Shift work</i>	D	0.22	0.41	0	1
<i>Place of work +10</i>	D	0.72	0.45	0	1
<i>Agriculture as the reference category</i>	D	0.03	0.17	0	1
<i>Industry excluding construction</i>	D	0.24	0.43	0	1
<i>Construction</i>	D	0.07	0.26	0	1
<i>Retail</i>	D	0.12	0.32	0	1
<i>Other activities</i>	D	0.54	0.50	0	1
<i>Executive or entrepreneur as the reference category</i>	D	0.02	0.14	0	1
<i>Intellectual or scientific occupation</i>	D	0.09	0.29	0	1
<i>Technical position</i>	D	0.24	0.43	0	1
<i>Office clerk</i>	D	0.12	0.33	0	1
<i>Qualified occupation</i>	D	0.15	0.36	0	1
<i>Craftsman, skilled worker or farmer</i>	D	0.16	0.37	0	1
<i>Operator of industrial machinery</i>	D	0.11	0.31	0	1
<i>Unskilled occupation</i>	D	0.10	0.30	0	1
Personal characteristics					
<i>Current job tenure</i>	N	137.65	123.23	0	696
<i>First job</i>	D	0.30	0.46	0	1
<i>Fixed-term contract</i>	D	0.14	0.35	0	1
<i>Fixed-term contract, wanted</i>	D	0.01	0.11	0	1
<i>Fixed-term contract, non-wanted</i>	D	0.13	0.33	0	1
<i>Female</i>	D	0.44	0.50	0	1
<i>Born in Italy</i>	D	0.93	0.26	0	1
<i>Years of education</i>	N	11.81	3.46	8	18
<i>Educational activities in the last four weeks</i>	D	0.05	0.22	0	1
<i>Age</i>	N	41.35	11.07	20	60
<i>Unemployment rate</i>	N	5.76	3.38	2.79	11.87
<i>Unionisation index</i>	I	0.27	0.05	0.21	0.42
<i>Never married as the reference category</i>	D	0.32	0.47	0	1
<i>Married</i>	D	0.60	0.49	0	1
<i>Separated or divorced</i>	D	0.06	0.24	0	1
<i>Widow/widower</i>	D	0.02	0.13	0	1
Dependent variables					
<i>Bad working conditions</i>	I	0.13	0.19	0	1
<i>Exposure to dust, fumes, chemicals</i>	D	0.16	0.37	0	1

	Type	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Noisy workplace	D	0.15	0.36	0	1
Bad posture induced by work	D	0.20	0.40	0	1
Feeling exposed to risk of injury	D	0.22	0.41	0	1
Bad physical working conditions	I	0.18	0.28	0	1
Excessive workload	D	0.14	0.35	0	1
Feeling exposed to bullying or discrimination	D	0.05	0.22	0	1
Feeling exposed to threats or physical violence	D	0.02	0.12	0	1
Bad psychological working conditions	I	0.07	0.16	0	1

Note. Type: D dummy variable, N numerical variable, I index variable; SD standard deviation;
The number of observations is equal to 42,198;
Data sources: 2007 Istat Labour Force Survey; “Conti economici regionali”, Istat.

Figure 1 – Distribution of bad working conditions



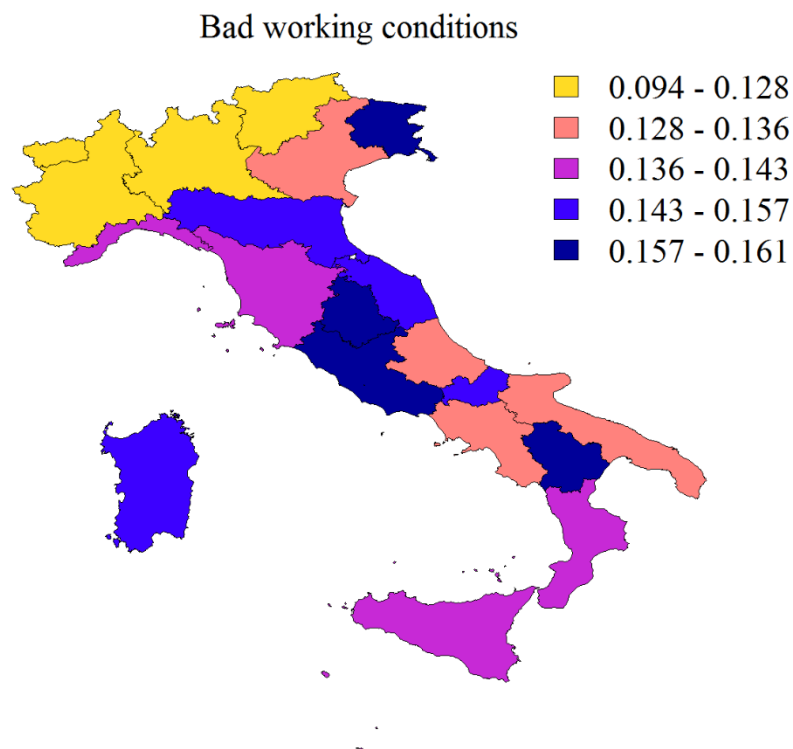
Interesting information comes from the analysis of the geographical distribution of bad working conditions (Figure 2). In particular, workers in northern regions report, on average, lower levels of bad working conditions than southern regions. Since the economic development in Italy increases with latitude to a large extent,⁸ lower actual bad working conditions should be increasingly met moving north. An explanation of the complex plot of (perceived) bad working conditions shown in Figure 2 could additionally hinge on expectations.

A lower level of participation of women in the labour market and a higher level of the unionisation index can entail expectations of increasingly lower levels of bad working conditions moving south.

⁸ See Felice and Vasta (2015) on the delay of the modernisation process in Italy from the long-run perspective.

The difference between actual and expected bad working conditions would reach its maximum in regions where actual bad working conditions are higher and expectations are lower.

Figure 2 – Regional distribution of bad working conditions



Note. The quintiles of regional averages are shown. Higher bad working conditions are declared in darker shadowed regions.

4. Methodology and results

Perceived bad working conditions are determined by a multiplicity of factors. The actual determinants and expectations intertwine and contribute to workers' final perception of bad working conditions. To uncover the main factors determining working conditions, we first present the regression results of the composite index of bad working conditions illustrated in Section 3. Next, the non-linear effects of numerical variables and the conditional marginal effects of some interaction terms are displayed and discussed. We then divide physical from psychological bad

working conditions and break down the composite index of bad working conditions into its individual components, for which we report individual probit regression models to control for the heterogeneity of the main predictors of such a broad concept as bad working conditions. Finally, we represent the regional distribution breakdown of the predictions of actual and expected bad working conditions.

Eq. (3) is the empirical counterpart of Eq. (2) and is estimated in the following.

$$bwc = f[\alpha + \beta'_W W + \beta'_P P + \varepsilon] \quad (3)$$

where bwc are declared bad working conditions; $f[.]$ is a link function; α is the constant; β'_W and β'_P are the vectors of coefficients; W is the vector of work characteristics assumed to predict actual bwc ; P is the vector of personal characteristics assumed to predict expected bwc ; and ε is the error term. The main hypothesis of this article – i.e., workers' expectations shift perceived working conditions – is tested against the null hypotheses concerning β'_P .

Table 2 reports the estimated coefficients of the models in which the dependent variable is bad working conditions: (1) the main model specification, (2) a model that controls for a wanted/non-wanted fixed-term contract and (3) a model that includes significant interactions.⁹ Since the dependent variable is a unitary index constrained between 0 and 1, we estimate generalised linear models with a logit link and the binomial family (Papke and Wooldridge, 1996). In addition, we compute robust standard errors (Huber/White/Sandwich variance–covariance estimator), which are useful in the case of misspecification of the distribution family and residual heteroskedasticity.

⁹ Other interactions were tested but did not result as significant (the results are available on request).

We first comment on model (1), which is the main model specification. The estimates show that full-time workers report higher levels of bad working conditions with respect to part-time workers. In addition, working overtime hours and carrying out work that entails shifts increase the perceived bad working conditions. Clearly, expanding the working time and working difficult hours, *ceteris paribus*, increase the seriousness of bad working conditions. Working in a place with more than ten employees increases the reported bad working conditions. Consistent with the fact that arduous work exhausts workers' resilience to a larger extent, workers in industry (except construction) and retail report lower levels of bad working conditions than workers in agriculture. Considering the professional status, as expected, executives and entrepreneurs report the lowest bad working conditions with respect to other categories of workers. As hypothesised, being in the first job and being a woman may be associated with higher expectations about bad working conditions, and this is reflected in lower reported bad working conditions. The same negative coefficient applies to having a fixed-term contract. Two variables represent education in the data set: years of education and educational activities in the last four weeks. While the former reflects a very general and long-term kind of education, the latter is more specific and short-term. When we consider the dummy variable for educational activities in the last four weeks, the positive and significant coefficient is in line with the conjectures regarding expectations. Finally, never-married individuals report the lowest levels of bad working conditions and separated or divorced individuals report the highest.

A concern about the endogeneity of the variable current job tenure may arise, since jobs associated with higher bad working conditions may be more likely to be dropped, resulting in shorter tenures. To control for this issue, we rerun the main model using again generalised linear models with a logit link and the binomial family but also with instrumental variables and the maximum quasi-likelihood methodology. As an instrument, we use three variables, both together and in separate regressions:

(1) a dummy variable signalling whether the worker had ever been in contact with a public employment centre; (2) the number of months from the last time that the individual had contact with a public employment centre; and (3) the number of persons living in the individual's home. All of these variables are meant to capture a higher/lower level of easiness for the individual to change work, which we assume to be exogenous to the level of bad working conditions. All the regressions, available on request, confirm the presented results.

Table 2 – Bad working conditions – GLM binomial link logit

<i>Bad working conditions</i>	Coefficient (Rob. st. error)	Coefficient (Rob. st. error)	Coefficient (Rob. st. error)
	(1)	(2)	(3)
<i>Work characteristics</i>			
<i>Full-time work</i>	0.297*** (0.029)	0.295*** (0.029)	0.294*** (0.029)
<i>Overtime hours</i>	0.457*** (0.025)	0.456*** (0.025)	0.456*** (0.025)
<i>Shift work</i>	0.639*** (0.019)	0.639*** (0.019)	0.638*** (0.019)
<i>Place of work +10</i>	0.126*** (0.020)	0.124*** (0.020)	0.126*** (0.020)
<i>Agriculture as the reference category</i>	$\chi^2(4)=397.37$ ***	$\chi^2(4)=398.16$ ***	$\chi^2(4)=389.54$ ***
<i>Industry excluding construction</i>	-0.102*** (0.046)	-0.104*** (0.046)	-0.093*** (0.047)
<i>Construction</i>	0.390*** (0.049)	0.389*** (0.049)	0.392*** (0.049)
<i>Retail</i>	-0.258*** (0.051)	-0.259*** (0.051)	-0.249*** (0.051)
<i>Other activities</i>	-0.159*** (0.045)	-0.160*** (0.045)	-0.152*** (0.046)
<i>Executive or entrepreneur as the reference category</i>	$\chi^2(7)=1,214.06$ ***	$\chi^2(7)=1,211.57$ ***	$\chi^2(7)=1,211.49$ ***
<i>Intellectual or scientific occupation</i>	0.214*** (0.073)	0.208*** (0.073)	0.212*** (0.072)
<i>Technical position</i>	0.367*** (0.070)	0.361*** (0.070)	0.359*** (0.070)
<i>Office clerk</i>	0.231*** (0.074)	0.225*** (0.074)	0.228*** (0.074)
<i>Qualified occupation</i>	0.569*** (0.073)	0.564*** (0.073)	0.567*** (0.073)
<i>Craftsman, skilled worker or farmer</i>	1.179*** (0.072)	1.173*** (0.072)	1.175*** (0.072)
<i>Operator of industrial machinery</i>	1.098*** (0.073)	1.092*** (0.073)	1.094*** (0.073)
<i>Unskilled occupation</i>	0.870*** (0.074)	0.864*** (0.074)	0.866*** (0.074)
<i>Personal characteristics</i>			

	Coefficient (Rob. st. error)	Coefficient (Rob. st. error)	Coefficient (Rob. st. error)
<i>Bad working conditions</i>			
<i>Current job tenure</i>	1.50e-03*** (2.36e-04)	1.51e-03*** (2.36e-04)	1.45e-03*** (2.36e-04)
<i>Square of current job tenure</i>	-2.28e-06*** (5.66e-07)	-2.32e-06*** (5.66e-07)	-2.21e-06*** (5.66e-07)
<i>First job</i>	-0.170*** (0.021)	-0.169*** (0.021)	-0.170*** (0.021)
<i>Fixed-term contract</i>	-0.101*** (0.027)		0.247*** (0.096)
<i>Fixed-term contract, wanted</i>		-0.409*** (0.089)	
<i>Fixed-term contract, non-wanted</i>		-0.076*** (0.028)	
<i>Fixed-term contract * Female</i>			-0.091* (0.050)
<i>Female</i>	-0.253*** (0.019)	-0.254*** (0.019)	-0.264*** (0.021)
<i>Female * Educational activities in the last four weeks</i>			0.315*** (0.064)
<i>Born in Italy</i>	-0.128*** (0.029)	-0.125*** (0.029)	-0.129*** (0.029)
<i>Years of education</i>	-0.110*** (0.019)	-0.110*** (0.019)	-0.107*** (0.019)
<i>Years of education * Fixed-term contract</i>			-0.023*** (0.007)
<i>Square of years of education</i>	0.004*** (0.001)	0.004*** (0.001)	0.004*** (0.001)
<i>Educational activities in the last four weeks</i>	0.566*** (0.033)	0.566*** (0.033)	0.412*** (0.047)
<i>Age</i>	0.020*** (0.006)	0.019*** (0.006)	0.022*** (0.006)
<i>Square of age</i>	-2.57e-04*** (6.47e-05)	-2.49e-04*** (6.47e-05)	-2.82e-04*** (6.53e-05)
<i>Unemployment rate</i>	0.075*** (0.019)	0.074*** (0.019)	0.074*** (0.019)
<i>Square of unemployment rate</i>	-0.006*** (0.001)	-0.006*** (0.001)	-0.006*** (0.001)
<i>Unionisation index</i>	1.924*** (0.217)	1.925*** (0.217)	1.929*** (0.217)
<i>Never married as the reference category</i>	$X^2(3)=39.21$ ***	$X^2(3)=39.08$ ***	$X^2(6)=43.58$ ***
<i>Married</i>	0.094*** (0.022)	0.094*** (0.022)	0.106*** (0.023)
<i>Married * Fixed-term contract</i>			-0.110* (0.054)
<i>Separated or divorced</i>	0.224*** (0.037)	0.223*** (0.037)	0.234*** (0.039)
<i>Separated or divorced * Fixed-term contract</i>			-0.111 (0.113)
<i>Widow/widower</i>	0.120* (0.067)	0.119* (0.067)	0.147** (0.070)
<i>Widow/widower * Fixed-term contract</i>			-0.235 (0.226)
<i>Constant</i>	-3.353***	-3.331***	-3.430***

<i>Bad working conditions</i>	Coefficient (Rob. st. error)	Coefficient (Rob. st. error)	Coefficient (Rob. st. error)
	(0.194)	(0.194)	(0.195)
Number of observations	42,198	42,198	42,198
Akaike information criterion	0.583876	0.583900	0.583868
Bayesian information criterion	- 438,077	- 437,966	- 438,025

Note. Methodology: generalised linear models with a logit link and the binomial family;

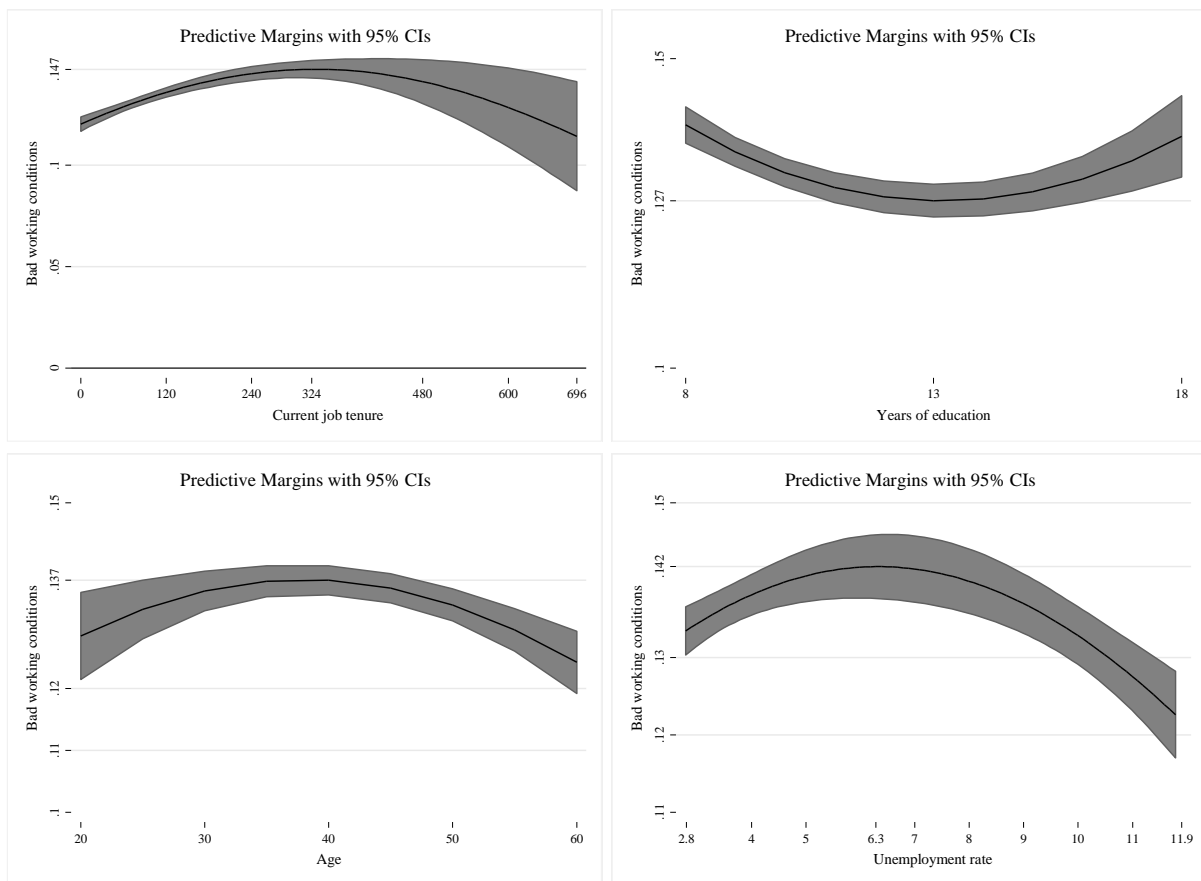
Significance levels: * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$;

When $\chi^2(-)$ is reported instead of coefficient and standard error, the joint significance of the battery of dummy variables is tested;

Data sources: 2007 Istat Labour Force Survey; "Conti economici regionali", Istat.

The four panels of Figure 3, relating to model (1) of Table 2, are obtained by computing the prediction and the confidence intervals of bad working conditions for the average individual in the sample for each level of the numerical variables current job tenure, years of education, age and unemployment rate, respectively.

Figure 3 – Effects of numerical variables on bad working conditions: current job tenure, years of education, age and unemployment rate



As we can see in the first panel of Figure 3, bad working conditions are predicted to increase as the

current job tenure rises until 324 months (27 years), the point at which they reach the maximum. After the peak, they are predicted to decrease.

The non-linear trend of years of education is shown in the second panel of Figure 3, with the highest level of bad working conditions being reported by workers at the extremes of the education range. This result mirrors what we expected just for the very educated workers, for whom lower expectations about bad working conditions were supposed to translate into higher levels of perceived bad working conditions. On the contrary, workers with the minimum level of education attained reported the highest level of bad working conditions supposedly because of actual worse jobs (not already captured by our large set of regressors on work characteristics).

The inverse U-shaped relationship between bad working conditions and age (Figure 3, third panel) highlights that very young and old workers report the lowest level of bad working conditions in the data set.

It is apparent from the fourth panel in Figure 3 that regional unemployment has contrasting effects: it increases both actual bad working conditions and their expectations. For low values of the unemployment rate, the first effect prevails. After a certain threshold level (6.3% in our estimations) and for a larger interval, the expectation effect prevails, decreasing the perception of bad working conditions.¹⁰

To corroborate the hypothesis of the wedge between actual and expected working conditions, model (2) of Table 2 controls for wanted/non-wanted fixed-term contracts. Confirming our hypothesis, workers with a fixed-term contract who aspired to it exhibit significantly lower levels of bad

¹⁰ The average effect of the regional unemployment rate is overall negative, since the predictive margin falls to a lower level on the right side of the figure. This represents the rationale for including this variable among the variables driving (mainly) expected rather than actual bad working conditions.

working conditions.

We conclude the comments on Table 2 by concentrating on model (3), which includes significant interaction terms. The preceding results are mainly confirmed.¹¹ To understand the effect of the interacted variables better, we compute the conditional marginal effects presented in Table 3, which refer to model (3) of Table 2. The average marginal effects are conditional on the categories reported in parentheses. The marginal effects of a fixed-term contract for different genders confirm the negative overall sign for this variable. It is interesting, however, to note that the negative effect of a fixed-term contract is almost double for females. Table 3 also confirms the thesis supported by Clark (1997) as regards the effect of education: the gender differential in job satisfaction in favour of women would vanish for highly educated individuals. Our results show that females stop reporting lower levels of bad working conditions with respect to males once they take part in educational activities in the month preceding the survey interview.

Table 3 – Predicted means of bad working conditions – Average marginal effects (conditional)

<i>Bad working conditions</i>	dy/dx (Delta-method st. error)
<i>Fixed-term contract (Male)</i>	-0.009 ^{**} (0.004)
<i>Fixed-term contract (Female)</i>	-0.015 ^{***} (0.003)
<i>Female (No Educational activities in the last four weeks)</i>	-0.029 ^{***} (0.002)
<i>Female (Educational activities in the last four weeks)</i>	0.006 (0.008)
<i>Years of education (Open-ended contract)</i>	-1.57e-03 ^{***} (4.06e-04)
<i>Years of education (Fixed-term contract)</i>	-3.69e-03 ^{***} (7.46e-04)
<i>Fixed-term contract (Never married)</i>	-0.004 (0.004)
<i>Fixed-term contract (Married)</i>	-0.015 ^{***} (0.004)
<i>Fixed-term contract (Separated or divorced)</i>	-0.017

¹¹ Even though the coefficient of fixed-term contract is significantly positive, all the interactions with this variable have significant negative coefficients.

<i>Bad working conditions</i>	dy/dx (Delta-method st. error)
	(0.012)
<i>Fixed-term contract (Widow/widower)</i>	-0.026 (0.018)
Number of observations	42,198

Note. Changes in prediction refer to model (3) of Table 2;

dy/dx for the dummy variables Fixed-term contract and Female is the discrete change from the base level;

dy/dx for the numerical variable Years of education is the marginal effect;

Significance levels: * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$;

Data sources: 2007 Istat Labour Force Survey; "Conti economici regionali", Istat.

Table 3, in addition, points out the stronger negative effect of education on bad working conditions for workers with a fixed-term contract. More educated individuals seem to be less prone to complaining about bad working conditions if their job has a shorter expected duration. Finally, the marital status dummies allow us to ascertain that the temporary workers reporting lower levels of bad working conditions are married.

The composite index of bad working conditions can be divided into physical and psychological bad working conditions. Furthermore, all its single components can be investigated individually to control for the heterogeneity of the predictors among all the components. Table 4 reports generalised linear models (Papke and Wooldridge, 1996) for physical and psychological bad working conditions and individual probit regression models for each of the seven specific components of bad working conditions. Since the dependent variables in the latter case are dummy variables, we estimate probit models by assuming that each latent working condition is deemed (and observed) to be bad whenever it is perceived above a certain threshold. As before, we compute robust standard errors (Huber/White/Sandwich variance–covariance estimator) that are useful in the case of some types of misspecification so long as the observations are independent (Greene, 2007).

Table 4 – Bad working conditions – individual probit and GLM binomial link logit

<i>Bad working conditions</i>	Exposure to dust, fumes, chemicals	Noisy workplace	Bad posture	Risk of injury	<i>Bad physical working conditions</i>	Excessive workload	Bullying or discrimination	Threats or physical violence	<i>Bad psychological working conditions</i>
	Coefficient (Rob. st. err.)	Coefficient (Rob. st. err.)	Coefficient (Rob. st. err.)	Coefficient (Rob. st. err.)	Coefficient (Rob. st. err.)	Coefficient (Rob. st. err.)	Coefficient (Rob. st. err.)	Coefficient (Rob. st. err.)	Coefficient (Rob. st. err.)
<i>Work characteristics</i>									
<i>Full-time work</i>	0.106** (0.028)	0.195*** (0.031)	0.130** (0.024)	0.136*** (0.025)	0.248*** (0.032)	0.335*** (0.028)	0.027 (0.034)	0.073 (0.056)	0.411*** (0.046)
<i>Overtime hours</i>	0.229*** (0.026)	0.221*** (0.027)	0.207*** (0.026)	0.246*** (0.025)	0.394*** (0.031)	0.532*** (0.025)	0.243*** (0.034)	0.199*** (0.052)	0.727*** (0.035)
<i>Shift work</i>	0.440*** (0.019)	0.452*** (0.020)	0.356*** (0.018)	0.488*** (0.018)	0.735*** (0.022)	0.242*** (0.019)	0.335*** (0.025)	0.413*** (0.036)	0.531*** (0.029)
<i>Place of work +10</i>	0.061*** (0.020)	0.099*** (0.021)	0.079*** (0.018)	0.095*** (0.018)	0.133*** (0.023)	0.034*** (0.020)	0.161*** (0.029)	0.085*** (0.046)	0.140*** (0.033)
<i>Agriculture as the reference category</i>	$\chi^2(4)=208.68^{***}$	$\chi^2(4)=528.43^{***}$	$\chi^2(4)=481.53^{***}$	$\chi^2(4)=355.04^{***}$	$\chi^2(4)=461.99^{***}$	$\chi^2(4)=45.87^{***}$	$\chi^2(4)=30.76^{***}$	$\chi^2(4)=73.02^{***}$	$\chi^2(4)=60.99^{***}$
<i>Industry excluding construction</i>	0.161** (0.048)	0.421*** (0.053)	-0.480*** (0.043)	-0.178*** (0.045)	-0.075 (0.053)	-0.203** (0.052)	0.301*** (0.098)	-0.038 (0.177)	-0.160 (0.085)
<i>Construction</i>	0.283*** (0.052)	0.576*** (0.056)	0.126*** (0.046)	0.344*** (0.048)	0.506*** (0.056)	-0.024 (0.056)	0.320*** (0.106)	0.115 (0.193)	0.091 (0.094)
<i>Retail</i>	-0.139*** (0.053)	-0.026 (0.059)	-0.282*** (0.046)	-0.193*** (0.048)	-0.295*** (0.057)	-0.165*** (0.055)	0.317*** (0.102)	-0.008 (0.182)	-0.120 (0.091)
<i>Other activities</i>	-0.066 (0.047)	0.026 (0.053)	-0.347*** (0.041)	-0.102*** (0.044)	-0.246*** (0.051)	-0.095*** (0.050)	0.409*** (0.096)	0.353*** (0.173)	0.083 (0.082)
<i>Executive or entrepreneur as the reference category</i>	$\chi^2(7)=917.42^{***}$	$\chi^2(7)=1162.20^{***}$	$\chi^2(7)=699.03^{***}$	$\chi^2(7)=961.00^{***}$	$\chi^2(7)=1717.67^{***}$	$\chi^2(7)=41.19^{***}$	$\chi^2(7)=9.83$	$\chi^2(7)=63.20^{***}$	$\chi^2(7)=22.64^{***}$
<i>Intellectual or scientific occupation</i>	0.491*** (0.087)	0.379*** (0.089)	0.222*** (0.081)	0.235*** (0.072)	0.623*** (0.108)	-0.287*** (0.056)	0.111 (0.087)	-0.077 (0.111)	-0.298*** (0.081)
<i>Technical position</i>	0.528*** (0.084)	0.428*** (0.086)	0.479*** (0.077)	0.395*** (0.069)	0.896*** (0.104)	-0.272*** (0.053)	0.090 (0.085)	-0.171 (0.113)	-0.303*** (0.078)
<i>Office clerk</i>	0.428*** (0.087)	0.294*** (0.089)	0.485*** (0.079)	0.195*** (0.072)	0.699*** (0.108)	-0.344*** (0.056)	0.182** (0.088)	-0.023 (0.119)	-0.302*** (0.084)
<i>Qualified occupation</i>	0.602*** (0.087)	0.351*** (0.090)	0.707*** (0.080)	0.663*** (0.072)	1.182*** (0.107)	-0.306*** (0.057)	0.084 (0.091)	0.136 (0.119)	-0.270 (0.086)
<i>Craftsman, skilled worker or farmer</i>	1.217*** (0.086)	1.090*** (0.088)	1.059*** (0.079)	1.035*** (0.071)	2.000*** (0.107)	-0.299*** (0.058)	0.116 (0.092)	-0.212 (0.130)	-0.336*** (0.087)
<i>Operator of industrial machinery</i>	1.090*** (0.087)	1.161*** (0.088)	0.912*** (0.080)	0.977*** (0.072)	1.899*** (0.107)	-0.267*** (0.059)	0.113 (0.092)	-0.080 (0.126)	-0.268*** (0.088)
<i>Unskilled occupation</i>	0.944*** (0.088)	0.723*** (0.090)	0.963*** (0.080)	0.788*** (0.073)	1.630*** (0.108)	-0.324*** (0.060)	0.115 (0.094)	-0.336*** (0.133)	-0.388*** (0.091)

<i>Bad working conditions</i>	Exposure to dust, fumes, chemicals	Noisy workplace	Bad posture	Risk of injury	<i>Bad physical working conditions</i>	Excessive workload	Bullying or discrimination	Threats or physical violence	<i>Bad psychological working conditions</i>
	Coefficient (Rob. st. err.)	Coefficient (Rob. st. err.)	Coefficient (Rob. st. err.)	Coefficient (Rob. st. err.)	Coefficient (Rob. st. err.)	Coefficient (Rob. st. err.)	Coefficient (Rob. st. err.)	Coefficient (Rob. st. err.)	Coefficient (Rob. st. err.)
Personal characteristics									
<i>Current job tenure</i>	1.23e-03 ^{***} (2.41e-04)	9.68e-04 ^{***} (2.54e-04)	6.85e-04 ^{***} (2.25e-04)	6.22e-04 ^{***} (2.26e-04)	1.34e-03 ^{***} (2.79e-04)	9.86e-04 ^{***} (2.40e-04)	1.72e-03 ^{***} (3.25e-04)	1.66e-03 ^{***} (5.07e-04)	2.27e-03 ^{***} (3.74e-04)
<i>Square of current job tenure</i>	-2.25e-06 ^{**} (5.83e-07)	-9.30e-07 ^{**} (6.05e-07)	-1.16e-06 ^{**} (5.44e-07)	-1.07e-06 ^{**} (5.45e-07)	-2.11e-06 ^{**} (6.71e-07)	-1.28e-06 ^{**} (5.72e-07)	-2.99e-06 ^{***} (7.70e-07)	-3.21e-06 ^{**} (1.20e-06)	-3.45e-06 ^{**} (8.86e-07)
<i>First job</i>	-0.094 ^{**} (0.020)	-0.128 ^{***} (0.021)	-0.101 ^{***} (0.019)	-0.091 ^{***} (0.019)	-0.176 ^{**} (0.024)	-0.105 ^{***} (0.020)	-0.121 ^{***} (0.027)	-0.069 ^{**} (0.040)	-0.198 ^{***} (0.032)
<i>Fixed-term contract</i>	-0.059 ^{**} (0.027)	-2.87e-04 ^{**} (2.85e-02)	-0.062 ^{***} (0.024)	-0.098 ^{***} (0.025)	-0.110 ^{**} (0.031)	-0.076 ^{**} (0.027)	-0.014 ^{**} (0.037)	-0.034 ^{**} (0.058)	-0.112 ^{**} (0.045)
<i>Female</i>	-0.318 ^{***} (0.019)	-0.293 ^{***} (0.020)	-0.004 ^{**} (0.017)	-0.360 ^{***} (0.017)	-0.420 ^{***} (0.022)	0.057 ^{**} (0.018)	0.129 ^{***} (0.024)	-0.066 ^{**} (0.037)	0.120 ^{**} (0.028)
<i>Born in Italy</i>	0.013 ^{**} (0.030)	-0.046 ^{**} (0.031)	-0.128 ^{***} (0.027)	-0.055 ^{**} (0.028)	-0.095 ^{**} (0.034)	-0.069 ^{**} (0.031)	-0.278 ^{***} (0.039)	-0.227 ^{**} (0.061)	-0.271 ^{**} (0.049)
<i>Years of education</i>	-0.068 ^{**} (0.019)	0.010 ^{**} (0.020)	-0.093 ^{***} (0.018)	-0.105 ^{***} (0.017)	-0.108 ^{**} (0.022)	-0.069 ^{**} (0.018)	0.004 ^{**} (0.024)	-0.022 ^{**} (0.037)	-0.072 ^{**} (0.028)
<i>Square of years of education</i>	0.003 ^{**} (0.001)	-0.001 ^{**} (0.001)	0.003 ^{**} (0.001)	0.004 ^{***} (0.001)	0.004 ^{***} (0.001)	0.003 ^{**} (0.001)	1.41e-04 ^{**} (9.61e-04)	1.53e-03 ^{**} (1.46e-03)	3.49e-03 ^{**} (1.12e-03)
<i>Educational activities in the last four weeks</i>	0.283 ^{***} (0.035)	0.280 ^{***} (0.037)	0.392 ^{***} (0.032)	0.295 ^{***} (0.033)	0.563 ^{***} (0.040)	0.365 ^{***} (0.031)	0.327 ^{***} (0.039)	0.306 ^{***} (0.056)	0.589 ^{***} (0.044)
<i>Age</i>	0.002 ^{**} (0.005)	0.009 ^{**} (0.006)	0.013 ^{**} (0.005)	0.014 ^{**} (0.005)	0.018 ^{**} (0.006)	0.021 ^{**} (0.006)	0.018 ^{**} (0.008)	0.016 ^{**} (0.013)	0.045 ^{**} (0.010)
<i>Square of age</i>	-4.31e-05 ^{**} (6.41e-05)	-1.22e-04 ^{**} (6.72e-05)	-1.89e-04 ^{***} (5.95e-05)	-2.07e-04 ^{***} (5.99e-05)	-2.61e-04 ^{***} (7.53e-05)	-2.37e-04 ^{***} (6.62e-05)	-1.67e-04 ^{**} (9.35e-05)	-1.79e-04 ^{**} (1.50e-04)	-4.77e-04 ^{***} (1.10e-04)
<i>Unemployment rate</i>	0.035 ^{**} (0.019)	0.106 ^{**} (0.020)	0.035 ^{**} (0.017)	0.035 ^{**} (0.017)	0.092 ^{**} (0.022)	0.047 ^{**} (0.019)	0.032 ^{**} (0.025)	-0.059 ^{**} (0.039)	0.055 ^{**} (0.030)
<i>Square of unemployment rate</i>	-0.003 ^{**} (0.001)	-0.008 ^{**} (0.001)	-0.003 ^{***} (0.001)	-0.003 ^{**} (0.001)	-0.008 ^{**} (0.002)	-0.003 ^{**} (0.001)	-0.002 ^{**} (0.001)	0.006 ^{**} (0.003)	-0.003 ^{**} (0.002)
<i>Unionisation index</i>	0.681 ^{***} (0.222)	0.972 ^{***} (0.231)	1.502 ^{***} (0.204)	1.724 ^{***} (0.206)	2.134 ^{***} (0.255)	1.228 ^{***} (0.219)	0.868 ^{***} (0.301)	-0.547 ^{**} (0.481)	1.668 ^{***} (0.343)
<i>Never married as the reference category</i>	$\chi^2(3)=9.84^{**}$	$\chi^2(3)=12.79^{***}$	$\chi^2(3)=28.23^{***}$	$\chi^2(3)=24.22^{***}$	$\chi^2(3)=33.48^{***}$	$\chi^2(3)=19.61^{***}$	$\chi^2(3)=24.38^{***}$	$\chi^2(3)=4.72$	$\chi^2(3)=27.13^{***}$
<i>Married</i>	0.057 ^{**} (0.021)	0.080 ^{***} (0.023)	0.066 ^{***} (0.020)	0.079 ^{***} (0.020)	0.121 ^{***} (0.025)	0.058 ^{***} (0.021)	-0.026 ^{**} (0.029)	-0.001 ^{**} (0.046)	0.054 ^{**} (0.035)
<i>Separated or divorced</i>	0.091 ^{**} (0.037)	0.083 ^{**} (0.040)	0.165 ^{***} (0.034)	0.149 ^{***} (0.034)	0.219 ^{***} (0.043)	0.142 ^{**} (0.036)	0.158 ^{**} (0.046)	0.127 ^{**} (0.072)	0.279 ^{***} (0.055)
<i>Widow/widower</i>	-0.010 ^{**} (0.069)	0.062 ^{**} (0.071)	0.158 ^{**} (0.059)	0.033 ^{**} (0.064)	0.131 ^{**} (0.079)	0.161 ^{**} (0.061)	-0.147 ^{**} (0.090)	-0.085 ^{**} (0.151)	0.094 ^{**} (0.098)

<i>Bad working conditions</i>	Exposure to dust, fumes, chemicals	Noisy workplace	Bad posture	Risk of injury	<i>Bad physical working conditions</i>	Excessive workload	Bullying or discrimination	Threats or physical violence	<i>Bad psychological working conditions</i>
	Coefficient (Rob. st. err.)	Coefficient (Rob. st. err.)	Coefficient (Rob. st. err.)	Coefficient (Rob. st. err.)	Coefficient (Rob. st. err.)	Coefficient (Rob. st. err.)	Coefficient (Rob. st. err.)	Coefficient (Rob. st. err.)	Coefficient (Rob. st. err.)
Constant	-1.948 ^{***} (0.201)	-2.964 ^{***} (0.210)	-1.487 ^{***} (0.183)	-1.653 ^{***} (0.182)	-3.518 ^{***} (0.237)	-1.748 ^{***} (0.193)	-3.130 ^{***} (0.281)	-2.609 ^{***} (0.430)	-4.328 ^{***} (0.311)
Number of observations	42,198	42,198	42,198	42,198	42,198	42,198	42,198	42,198	42,198
Pseudo R ²	0.1292	0.1784	0.0851	0.1298	---	0.0483	0.0482	0.0904	---

Note. Methodology: probit regression models and generalised linear models with a logit link and the binomial family;

Significance levels: * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$;

When $\chi^2(-)$ is reported instead of coefficient and standard error, the joint significance of the battery of dummy variables is tested;

Data sources: 2007 Istat Labour Force Survey; "Conti economici regionali", Istat.

Among the work characteristics, full-time work does not significantly affect the majority of the psychological components of bad working conditions. Furthermore, workers in industry (except construction) have higher levels of bad working conditions in terms of exposure to dust, fumes, chemicals, noisy places and bullying or discrimination. As regards bullying or discrimination, the retail sector overturns the significant sign, now being positive. While construction is the worst sector in terms of the composite index of bad working conditions, this result does not hold if excessive workload and threats and physical violence are considered individually. The bad physical working conditions seem to be affected by the specific occupation, with a higher level unexpectedly found for shop floor jobs. Contrarily, the psychological components of bad working conditions are not significantly affected by the occupation, with the exception of the lower levels of excessive workload reported by all occupations with respect to executives and entrepreneurs.

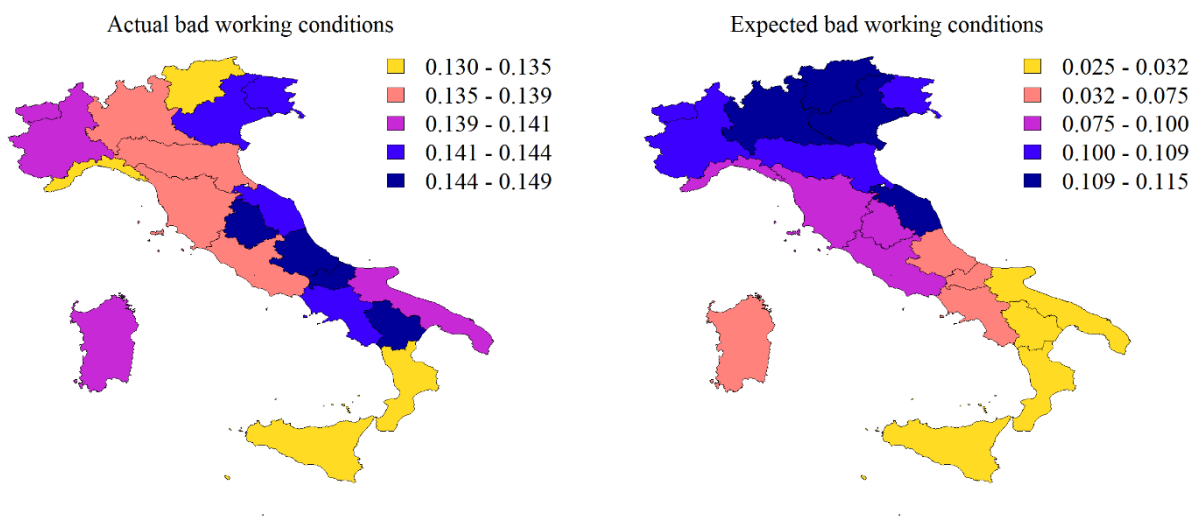
In terms of personal characteristics, the majority of the psychological components of bad working conditions are not significantly affected by having a fixed-term contract as well as noisy workplaces. The effect of the unemployment rate is confirmed mainly for the physical components of bad working conditions, in particular a noisy workplace, bad posture and risk of injury.

It is important to note that women report lower levels of physical bad working conditions and higher levels of psychological bad working conditions with respect to men. To investigate whether this result is driven by lower levels of actual physical bad working conditions faced by women, we focus in more detail on the construction sector, which is typically characterised by severe actual working conditions. We realize that almost the entirety of workers in this sector are male, and especially almost all workers in a craftsman construction occupation are male (99.49 vs. 0.51% female in our sample), meaning that women in the construction sector are employed essentially as clerks. This implies that our categorisation among sectors and occupations captures differences in tasks at work, which reflect different actual working conditions. Therefore, the difference in women's perception of physical vs. psychological bad working conditions should be ascribed to the

sphere of expectations.

By means of model (1) of Table 2 and the classification of variables driving actual bad working conditions (work characteristics) and variables acting on expectations (personal characteristics), we are able to disentangle the two sources of bad working conditions. The panels of Figure 4 represent the regional distribution breakdown of the predictions of bad working conditions, divided into actual and expected bad working conditions. Actual bad working conditions are obtained as predictions by previously fixing all the variables driving expectations (personal characteristics) to sample (national) averages. In so doing, the entire variation is due only to the variables driving actual bad working conditions (work characteristics). The reverse is performed for expected bad working conditions. In the latter case, the sign of the coefficients of the variables driving expectations (personal characteristics) is reversed. The difference between actual and expected bad working conditions (the shadowing in the two panels) composes the predicted (perceived) bad working conditions.

Figure 4 – Regional distribution breakdown of bad working conditions



Note. The quintiles of regional averages are shown. Higher bad working conditions correspond, on average, to darker shadowed regions.

The left panel of Figure 4 confirms that high levels of actual bad working conditions are present mainly in the central and southern regions of the country, the north of Italy being characterised by more developed and highly technological work environments. The right panel strikingly confirms our intuition of increasingly lower levels of expected bad working conditions moving south, due for example to a lower level of women's participation in the labour market and a higher level of the unionisation index.¹² Finally, it is worth noting that there are differences between actual and expected bad working conditions in all the regions, except Friuli-Venezia Giulia, Calabria and Sicily.

5. Discussion and conclusion

We investigated the determinants of bad working conditions using the 2007 Italian Labour Force Survey, which includes a special ad hoc section on working conditions. We provided a theoretical formulation aiming to explain how working conditions are perceived by workers: in defining the perception of working conditions, actual working conditions are filtered by expectations about them, implying that the same level of actual working conditions can result in different reported (perceived) working conditions. To this end, we applied the behavioural concept of reference point in the field of working conditions.

The result showing that having a fixed-term contract leads to reporting lower levels of bad working conditions with respect to permanent workers deserves much attention. The literature presents mixed evidence in this regard, with some contributions pointing out that workers holding temporary contracts suffer worse working conditions than permanent workers (Benavides, 2000; García-Serrano, 2004) and other contributions showing mixed or opposite results. These mixed or opposite

¹² Note that the denominator of the unionisation index is the total employed Italian population. Therefore, the high level of unemployment in the south of Italy is responsible for the highest levels reached by the computed index.

results may be motivated by the lack of complete disentangling of the predictors of actual vs. expected working conditions. For instance, Bernhard-Oettel et al. (2005) underline that health complaints are not driven by the type of employment contract but rather by the perception of the job. Furthermore, Bardasi and Francesconi (2004) and Saloniemi (2004) reveal that permanent workers face more high-strain jobs and that atypical employment does not affect health and life satisfaction. Having controlled for the actual determinants of bad working conditions, our result is explained by temporary workers expecting higher levels of bad working conditions than their permanent colleagues. The differential in expectations between the two types of workers results in the negative and significant coefficient. Our expectation interpretation in this case is corroborated by the distinction in terms of bad working conditions between temporary workers who aspired to a temporary contract and temporary workers who would have preferred a permanent contract. Since the two types of individuals differ only in terms of aspirations, the fact that workers with a fixed-term contract who aspired to it exhibit significantly lower levels of bad working conditions should be ascribed to different expectations. This corroborates previous findings in the literature, which show that workers who have voluntarily chosen a fixed-term contract are likely to be more satisfied than permanent workers and temporary workers who would have preferred a permanent employment (Beckmann et al., 2009; Guest and Clinton, 2006).

More in general, the results suggest that the coefficients of the variables ascribed to the expectation sphere of the worker in terms of working conditions are in line with the previous literature contributions, which are mostly based on job satisfaction. The inverse U-shaped relationship between bad working conditions and age mirrors the U-shaped relationship between life satisfaction and age pointed out by Clark et al. (1996) and Schwandt (2016): very young and old workers report the lowest levels of bad working conditions in our data set, and the same consideration holds in

terms of highest levels of job satisfaction in Clark et al. (1996). Women report lower levels of bad working conditions, which supports the previous findings by Clark et al. (1996) related to higher job satisfaction. Importantly, through the categorisation among sectors and occupations available in our data set, we were able to control for differences in tasks at work, which reflect different actual working conditions, preventing concerns regarding horizontal or vertical segregation. Therefore, the difference in women's perception of physical vs. psychological bad working conditions should be ascribed to the sphere of expectations. Interestingly, our results show that Clark's hypothesis could even be overturned: the gender-job satisfaction gap would not vanish but overturn the sign once the increasing share of intellectual work renders the psychological working conditions overwhelmingly more important than the physical working conditions. In fact, we show that, contrary to physical working conditions, women hold lower expected psychological bad working conditions than men.

Education also plays an important role in shaping how workers evaluate their working conditions: parallel to the lower job satisfaction for highly educated workers found by Clark (1997), an additional year of education in our data leads to higher levels of bad working conditions, suggesting that more educated workers hold higher expectations (i.e., lower levels of expected bad working conditions). The presence of a variable representing a very short-term educational activity within the workplace, which has positive sign, corroborates our expectation interpretation. A very recent educational activity that is limited in time cannot have an impact on actual working conditions. Our interpretation is that a shift in expectations takes place: workers who have taken part in (limited) educational activities expect lower levels of bad working conditions than their colleagues who have not attended them.

As for marital status, separated or divorced workers report the highest levels of bad working conditions. The fact that married individuals have a lower coefficient than separated workers confirms a well-established finding in the literature: when marital histories worsen, ending up in separation in extreme cases, job satisfaction worsens as well (Rogers and May, 2003; Georgellis et al., 2012). Indeed, divorced individuals experience a loss in utility (job satisfaction) and a corresponding drop in expected (and tolerated) bad working conditions. Interestingly, when marital status is interacted with having a temporary contract, we find that the temporary workers reporting lower levels of bad working conditions are married. An explanation for this could consist of married individuals fearing unemployment spells to a lesser extent, since they find financial and emotional support in their spouse. The bias in the expectation results in a negative surprise in the perceived and declared bad working conditions.

Workers working full time, overtime or with shifts are likely to report higher levels of bad working conditions as well as workers in a place of work with more than 10 employees. These results are in line with some theoretical predictions (Khanzode et al., 2012) and some empirical contributions (Cioni and Savioli, 2016) underlining that expanding the working time (such as being a full-time worker, working overtime hours and engaging in shift work), *ceteris paribus*, increases the chance of accidents and illnesses.

In a domain afflicted by cognitive biases, policy implications are very likely to fail to be general and are very sensible to the evolving expectations of individuals. As hypothesised by Clark (1997) regarding the decreasing gender–job satisfaction gap over time, the psycho-socio-economic evolution of customs may drastically change expectations. However, our estimations may be useful for policymakers who are willing to consider the psychophysical balance of workers influenced by

expectations. Moreover, our results show that education and information are key factors able to shift expectations about working conditions closer to the actual ones, diminishing cognitive biases and making workers more self-aware of their actual conditions. In terms of policy recommendations on actual working conditions, our results suggest that workers are negatively affected by working for an excessive amount of time, with shifts and in working places with more than ten employees. Lastly, our results on marital status confirm well-known findings in the literature: a more balanced and positive personal life exerts a positive impact on working conditions and consequently on job satisfaction.

One of the most important limitations of this study is the lack of a direct measurement of workers' expectations regarding working conditions. Accordingly, we relied on the previous literature contributions, which suggest a distinction of variables between those affecting primarily actual working conditions and those acting to a larger extent on expectations. Moreover, the data set used did not allow us to track workers within the same establishment and occupation and hence subject to the same objective working conditions. Firm-level micro-data would certainly provide a better clue in the direction of an expectation interpretation. With information about organisational charts and salary, it would be possible to grasp the actual working conditions better. The directions for future research should encompass the elicitation of individuals' expectations in survey questions as well as questions aimed at assessing whether an individual's condition is better than, equal to or worse than the condition of other colleagues performing the same task. Future research should also take into account a comparison between pre-crisis and post-crisis labour dynamics to test whether and how the economic crisis affected workers' perceptions of their working conditions.

References

- Alavinia, S. M., Molenaar, D., & Burdorf, A. (2009). Productivity loss in the workforce: associations with health, work demands, and individual characteristics. *American Journal of Industrial Medicine*, 52(1), 49-56.
- Askenazy, P., & Caroli, E. (2010). Innovative work practices, information technologies, and working conditions: Evidence for France. *Industrial Relations: A Journal of Economy and Society*, 49(4), 544-565.
- Bardasi, E., & Francesconi, M. (2004). The impact of atypical employment on individual wellbeing: evidence from a panel of British workers. *Social Science & Medicine*, 58(9), 1671-1688.
- Bartelsman, E., Scarpetta, S. & Schivardi, F. (2003). Comparative analysis of firm demographics and survival: micro level evidence for the OECD countries. *OECD Economic Department Working Paper*, no. 348.
- Beckmann, M., Cornelissen, T., & Schauenberg, B. (2009). Fixed-term employment, work organization and job satisfaction: evidence from German individual-level data. WWZ Discussion Paper (No. 08/09).
- Bell, D. E. (1985). Disappointment in decision making under uncertainty. *Operations Research*, 33(1), 1-27.
- Benavides, F. G., Benach, J., Diez-Roux, A. V., & Roman, C. (2000). How do types of employment relate to health indicators? Findings from the Second European Survey on Working Conditions. *Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health*, 54(7), 494-501.
- Bernhard-Oettel, C., Sverke, M., & De Witte, H. (2005). Comparing three alternative types of employment with permanent full-time work: How do employment contract and perceived job conditions relate to health complaints? *Work & Stress*, 19(4), 301-318.
- Burchell, B., Cartron, D., Csizmadia, P., Delcampe, S., Gollac, M., Illéssy, M., Lorenz, E., Makó, C., O'Brien, C., & Valeyre, A. (2009). *Working conditions in the European Union: Working time and work intensity*, Dublin: European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions.
- Cahill, K. E., McNamara, T. K., Pitt-Catsouphes, M., & Valcour, M. (2015). Linking shifts in the national economy with changes in job satisfaction, employee engagement and work-life balance. *Journal of Behavioral and Experimental Economics*, 56, 40-54.
- Cioni, M., & Savioli, M. (2016). Safety at the workplace: accidents and illnesses. *Work, Employment & Society*, 30(5), 858-875.
- Clark, A. E. (1997). Job satisfaction and gender: why are women so happy at work? *Labour Economics*, 4(4), 341-372.

- Clark, A. E., & Etilé, F. (2011). Happy house: Spousal weight and individual well-being. *Journal of Health Economics*, 30(5), 1124-1136.
- Clark, A. E., & Oswald, A. J. (1996). Satisfaction and comparison income. *Journal of Public Economics*, 61(3), 359-381.
- Clark, A., Oswald, A., & Warr, P. (1996). Is job satisfaction U-shaped in age? *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 69(1), 57-81.
- Cooper, C. L., Rout, U., & Faragher, B. (1989). Mental health, job satisfaction, and job stress among general practitioners. *British Medical Journal*, 298(6670), 366-370.
- Dolan, P., Peasgood, T., & White, M. (2008). Do we really know what makes us happy? A review of the economic literature on the factors associated with subjective well-being. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 29(1), 94-122.
- Eurofound (2012), *Fifth European Working Conditions Survey*. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union.
- Felice, E. & Vasta, M. (2015). Passive Modernization? Social Indicators and Human Development in Italy's Regions (1871-2009). *European Review of Economic History*, 19 (1), 44-66.
- Fernandez, R. M., & Nordman, C. J. (2009). Are there pecuniary compensations for working conditions? *Labour Economics*, 16(2), 194-207.
- Fink, G., & Masiye, F. (2015). Health and agricultural productivity: Evidence from Zambia. *Journal of Health Economics*, 42, 151-164.
- Frijters, P. (2000). Do individuals try to maximize general satisfaction?. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 21(3), 281-304.
- García-Serrano, C. (2004). Temporary employment, working conditions and expected exits from firms. *Labour*, 18(2), 293-316.
- Georgellis, Y., Lange, T., & Tabvuma, V. (2012). The impact of life events on job satisfaction. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 80(2), 464-473.
- Greene, W. H. (2007). *Econometric Analysis*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Guest, D., & Clinton, M. (2006). Temporary Employment Contracts, Workers' Well-Being and Behaviour: Evidence from the UK. Department of Management, King's College, London (Working Paper No. 38).
- Hersch, J. (1991). Male-female differences in hourly wages: The role of human capital, working conditions, and housework. *Industrial & Labor Relations Review*, 44(4), 746-759.
- Kahneman, D., & Tversky, A. (1979). Prospect theory: An analysis of decision under risk. *Econometrica: Journal of the Econometric Society*, 47(2), 263-291.

- Khanzode, V.V., Maiti J & Ray, P.K. (2012). Occupational injury and accident research: A comprehensive review, *Safety Science* 50(5), 1355-1367.
- Kőszegi, B., & Rabin, M. (2006). A model of reference-dependent preferences. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 121(4), 1133-1165.
- Loscocco, K. A., & Spitze, G. (1990). Working conditions, social support, and the well-being of female and male factory workers. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 31(4), 313-327.
- Muñoz de Bustillo, R., & Fernández-Macías, E. (2005). Job satisfaction as an indicator of the quality of work. *The Journal of Socio-Economics*, 34(5), 656-673.
- Papke, L. E., & Wooldridge, J. (1993). Econometric methods for fractional response variables with an application to 401 (k) plan participation rates. *Journal of Applied Econometrics*, 11(6), 619-632.
- Poggi, A. (2007). Do satisfactory working conditions contribute to explaining earning differentials in Italy? A panel data approach. *Labour*, 21(4-5), 713-733.
- Poggi, A. (2010). Job satisfaction, working conditions and aspirations. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 31(6), 936-949.
- Robone, S., Jones, A. M., & Rice, N. (2011). Contractual conditions, working conditions and their impact on health and well-being. *The European Journal of Health Economics*, 12(5), 429-444.
- Rogers, S. J., & May, D. C. (2003). Spillover Between Marital Quality and Job Satisfaction: Long-Term Patterns and Gender Differences. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 65(2), 482-495.
- Saloniemi, A., Virtanen, P., & Vahtera, J. (2004). The work environment in fixed-term jobs: Are poor psychosocial conditions inevitable? *Work, Employment and Society*, 18(1), 193-208.
- Schwandt, H. (2016). Unmet Aspirations as an Explanation for the Age U-shape in Wellbeing. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, 122, 75-87.
- Sloane, P. J., & Williams, H. (2000). Job satisfaction, comparison earnings, and gender. *Labour*, 14(3), 473-502.
- Sousa-Poza, A., & Sousa-Poza, A. A. (2003). Gender differences in job satisfaction in Great Britain, 1991–2000: Permanent or transitory? *Applied Economics Letters*, 10(11), 691-694.
- Travers, C. J., & Cooper, C. L. (1993). Mental health, job satisfaction and occupational stress among UK teachers. *Work & Stress*, 7(3), 203-219.
- Van Dijk, W. W., Zeelenberg, M., & Van der Pligt, J. (2003). Blessed are those who expect nothing: Lowering expectations as a way of avoiding disappointment. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 24(4), 505-516.
- Zaleznik, A., Christensen, C. R., & Roethlisberger F. J. (1958). *The Motivation, Productivity, and Satisfaction of Workers: A Prediction Study*. Harvard University.

Appendix

Table A1 – Variable definitions

	Type	Definition
Independent variables		
Work characteristics		
<i>Full-time work</i>	D	The worker has full-time work
<i>Overtime hours</i>	D	The worker has overtime hours
<i>Shift work</i>	D	The worker has shift work
<i>Place of work +10</i>	D	The place of work has more than ten workers
<i>Agriculture as the reference category</i>	D	Sector of activity of the worker's firm
<i>Industry excluding construction</i>	D	
<i>Construction</i>	D	
<i>Retail</i>	D	
<i>Other activities</i>	D	
<i>Executive or entrepreneur as the reference category</i>	D	Specific kind of the worker's job (occupation)
<i>Intellectual or scientific occupation</i>	D	
<i>Technical position</i>	D	
<i>Office clerk</i>	D	
<i>Qualified occupation</i>	D	
<i>Craftsman, skilled worker or farmer</i>	D	
<i>Operator of industrial machinery</i>	D	
<i>Unskilled occupation</i>	D	
Personal characteristics		
<i>Current job tenure</i>	N	Months of the worker's current job tenure
<i>First job</i>	D	The worker is new to the workforce
<i>Fixed-term contract</i>	D	The worker has a fixed-term contract
<i>Female</i>	D	The worker's gender is female
<i>Born in Italy</i>	D	The worker's birthplace is in Italy
<i>Years of education</i>	N	Years of education of the worker
<i>Educational activities in the last four weeks (private lessons, seminars, training courses)</i>	D	The worker had engaged in educational activities in the four weeks preceding the interview
<i>Age</i>	N	Years of age of the worker
<i>Unemployment rate</i>	N	Unemployment rate of the worker's region
<i>Unionization index</i>	I	# workers registered to CGIL, CISL and UIL at the regional level/employed population (Istat) at the regional level
<i>Never married as the reference category</i>	D	Marital status of the worker
<i>Married</i>	D	
<i>Separated or divorced</i>	D	
<i>Widow/widower</i>	D	
Dependent variables		
<i>Bad working conditions</i>	I	Normalised (from 0 to 1) sum of the indications of the risk factors
<i>Exposure to dust, fumes, chemicals</i>	D	Risk factor
<i>Noisy workplace</i>	D	
<i>Bad posture induced by work</i>	D	

<i>Feeling exposed to risk of injury</i>	D	
<i>Bad physical working conditions</i>	I	Normalised (from 0 to 1) sum of the indications of the first four risk factors
<i>Excessive workload</i>	D	
<i>Feeling exposed to bullying or discrimination</i>	D	Risk factor
<i>Feeling exposed to threats or physical violence</i>	D	
<i>Bad psychological working conditions</i>	I	Normalised (from 0 to 1) sum of the indications of the last three risk factors

Note. Type: D dummy variable, N numerical variable, I index variable;
Data sources: 2007 Istat Labour Force Survey; "Conti economici regionali", Istat.